

impossible to weigh their relative power and influence in nice or golden scales, nor can we always compel them "parcere subjectis et debellare superbos." But the recognition of certain mutual obligations and principles of public law is the fundamental condition of civilisation itself. Nothing can be more injurious to society than that the states of Europe should exist without alliances, without mutual confidence, without a common system based on the principles of justice and of peace, the weak living in dread of the strong, the strong armed to the teeth against each other. We trust that before another great catastrophe arises from this state of disguised hostility, a truer balance of power may be established by a return to sounder principles; for peace can never be secure unless it is protected by the concurrence of the leading nations of the world, and by their determination to oppose a combined resistance to those who have no object but their own aggrandisement and ambition.

(H. R.)
BALASOR, a district of British India in the Orissa division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, lies between 20° and 21° N. lat., and in 86° and 87° E. long., and is bounded on the N. by the district of Midnapur; on the S. by Cattack district, from which it is separated by the Baitarani river; on the W. by the tributary states of Keonjhar, Nilgiri, and Morbhanj; and on the E. by the Bay of Bengal. Balasor district forms a strip of alluvial land between the hills and the sea, varying from about 9 to 34 miles in breadth; area, 2066 sq. miles. The hill country rises from the western boundary line. The district naturally divides itself into three well-defined tracts—(1.) The Salt Tract, along the coast; (2.) The Arable Tract, or rice country; and (3.) The Submontane Tract, or jungle lands. The Salt Tract runs the whole way down the coast, and forms a desolate strip a few miles broad. Towards the beach it rises into sandy ridges, from 50 to 80 feet high, sloping inland, and covered with a vegetation of low scrub jungle. Sluggish brackish streams creep along between banks of fetid black mud. The sand hills on the verge of the ocean are carpeted with creepers and the wild convolvulus. Inland, it spreads out into prairies of coarse long grass and scrub jungle, which harbour wild animals in plenty; but throughout this vast region there is scarcely a hamlet, and only patches of rice cultivation at long intervals. From any part of the Salt Tract one may see the boundary of the inner arable part of the district, fringed with long lines of trees, from which every morning the villagers drive their cattle out into the saliferous plains to graze. The Salt Tract is purely alluvial, and appears to be of recent date. Towards the coast the soil has a distinctly saline taste.

Salt is largely manufactured in this tract by evaporation. The following is the process followed:—At the beginning of December the contractor selects his locality, about a quarter to half a mile from the sea, and engages a class of men called *chuliyás*, or heads of salt gangs. These men receive 1s. a cwt. for whatever amount of salt they turn out. They, in their turn, engage working parties of *malangis*, who are paid at the rate of 3d. to 5d. a day. The ground is first marked out by a shallow trench, and the grasses and bushes are carefully dug up and removed. A deep ditch is next dug from the sea, by means of which, twice a month, the spring tides overflow the salt-field, and fill a number of reservoirs, 4 feet in diameter, and 2 or 3 feet deep. A mound of earth is then piled up to the height of 2 feet, and from 3 to 4 in diameter. It is next hollowed out into the shape of a bowl, plastered inside with clay, and furnished with a hole at the bottom, covered with a layer of grass 6 inches thick. The salt-makers fill this bowl with saline earth scraped off the adjacent land, and pour the sea-water on it from the top. By the end of

six hours the water has drained through into a pit at the bottom, and runs down a thatched trench towards a reservoir, whence it is transferred to the evaporators. The latter consist of from 160 to 200 little unglazed earthenware pots, fastened together by stiff tenacious mud, and holding two quarts each. The neighbouring plains supply grasses for the fuel. Six hours' boiling completes the process. The brine, which consisted in the first place of sea-water charged to its maximum power of solution by percolating through the bowls of salt earth, subsides into dirty crystals at the bottom of the pots. It is then ladled out in spoons made of half cocoa-nuts. The whole process is as rude and careless as can well be imagined. The total cost of manufacture is estimated at 2s. 1d. a cwt., which with the Government duty of 8s. 8d., makes a total cost of 10s. 9d.

The Arable Tract lies beyond the salt lands, and embraces the chief part of the district. It is a long dead level of rich fields, with a soil lighter in colour than that of Bengal or Behar; much more friable, and apt to split up into small cubes with a rectangular cleavage. A peculiar feature of the Arable Tract is the *Páts*, literally the Cups, or depressed lands near the river banks. They were probably marshes that have partially silted up by the yearly overflow of the streams. These Cup-lands bear the finest crops. As a whole, the Arable Tract is a treeless region, except around the villages, which are encircled by fine mango, *pipal*, banyan, and tamarind trees, and intersected with green shady lanes of bamboo. A few palmyras, date palms, and screw pines (a sort of aloe, whose leaves are armed with formidable triple rows of hook-shaped thorns) dot the expanse, or run in straight lines between the fields. The Submontane Tract is an undulating country with a red soil, much broken up into ravines along the foot of the hills. Masses of laterite, buried in hard ferruginous clay, crop up as rocks or slabs. At Kopári, in Kila Ambohatá, about 2 square miles are almost paved with such slabs, dark red in colour, perfectly flat, and polished like plates of iron. A thousand mountain torrents have scooped out for themselves picturesque ravines, clothed with an ever-fresh verdure of prickly thorns, stunted gnarled shrubs, and here and there a noble forest tree. Large tracts are covered with Sá jungle, which nowhere, however, attains to any great height.

Balasor district is watered by six distinct river systems: 1. The Subanrekhá, literally the streak of gold, forms the boundary between Balasor and Midnapur, flowing in a tortuous southern course, with gigantic bends from east to west till it reaches the sea in lat. 21° 35' N. and long. 87° 23' E. It is navigable by country craft as high as Kálikápur, about 16 miles from the mouth, to which point the tide also runs. Rice boats of 2 tons' burden can make their way up to the end of the Balasor district, and during the rains far into the tributary state of Morbhanj. 2. The intermediate country on the south of the Subanrekhá and the north of the Burábalang, forms a great line of drainage down from Morbhanj. It is watered by a number of small streams, of which the principal are the Jamirá, Báns, and Bhairingi. They unite, bifurcate, and re-unite in the wildest confusion, and at length enter the sea as the Páncpári, in lat. 21° 31' N. and long. 87° 10' E. 3. South of this network of rivers is the Burábalang, literally the Old Twister. It rises among the Morbhanj hills, in lat. 21° 24' and long. 86° 36', and after receiving two small tributaries, the Gangáhar and Sunai, wriggles into the sea in lat. 21° 28' and long. 87° 5'. Brigs, sloops, and sea-going steamers can navigate this river as far as the town of Balasor, about 16 miles up its twisting course, but the sand-bar across the mouth of the river renders the entrance difficult. 4. South of the Burábalang, a network of rivers, known as the Jámká, find their way down the line of drainage from the western Nilgiri hills, and enter the sea by many channels. 5. The Kánsbáns, rising in Kila Ambohatá, runs in a south-easterly direction, at first almost parallel with the Nilgiri hills, and receives from them a number of nameless drainage streams on its northern bank. At Bírará it bifurcates, the northern branch retaining its original name, and entering the sea in lat. 21° 12' 25", long. 86° 52' 10". The southern branch receives the name of Gammai, and falls into the sea 6 miles south of the Kánsbáns. This river is navigable only

a few miles up, but is celebrated for its sudden floods and the vast extent of country which it submerges in the rainy season. 6. The Baitarani enters the district at the village of Balipur, and flows for about 45 miles in a south-westerly direction till it joins the Dhámrá, 5 miles from its mouth. The united stream enters the sea under the name of the Dhámrá, in lat. 20° 47', long. 87°. The Dhámrá is a fine navigable estuary, but, like all the Orissa rivers, it is rendered perilous by a bar across its mouth.

Population of Balasor in 1872, 770,232 souls, residing in 3266 villages, and 138,913 houses; persons per square mile, 378; villages per square mile, 1.58; persons per village, 236; houses per square mile, 67; persons per house, 5.5. Of the total population 738,396, or 95.9 per cent., were Hindus; 18,878, or 2.4 per cent., Mahometans; 530, or .1 per cent., Christians; 1 Buddhist; and 12,427, or 1.6 per cent., of aboriginal origin. The proportion of males to the total district population was 49.2 per cent.; number of male adult agriculturists, 150,391, and male adult non-agriculturists, 82,542. Bráhmans, Karans, Khandáits, and other castes, compose the Hindu population. There are two settlements of Christian missionaries in the district belonging to the Freewill Baptists, from Dover, New Hampshire, U.S. The district contains only one town with upwards of 5000 inhabitants, viz., Balasor itself, with 18,263. Almost the whole population of the district lives by agriculture. Rice forms the staple crop of the district, and is divided into 5 great *genera*, and 49 principal varieties. Pulses, oil-seeds, hemp, tobacco, cotton, sugar-cane, &c., make up the other agricultural products of Balasor. Balasor husbandmen consist of two classes, *tháni* or cultivators, with a right of occupancy, and *páht*, or tenants at will. Roughly speaking, one half of the district is under tillage, and the other half incapable of cultivation. Exports—Grain, sugar, oil-seeds, timber, hides, horns, &c. Imports—Native cloths, English piece-goods, &c. Total revenue of the Balasor district in 1870-71, £102,052, of which £41,408, or 40 per cent., was from land; total expenditure in the same year, £51,620. In 1872 the police force of the district consisted of 566 officers and men of the regular police, maintained at a total cost of £8879, 8s.; 32 officers and men of the municipal police, maintained at a cost of £224, 12s.; and 2320 men of the village watch, maintained by grants of service lands and by subscriptions from villages, which amounted to £2745 in 1872; total strength of police, 2918 men; total cost, £11,849. Balasor contained 1053 schools in 1872, attended by 11,538 pupils. The Government and aided schools were 43 in number, attended by 1631 pupils, and maintained at a total cost of £1559, to which Government contributed £748, 16s. The climate of Balasor greatly varies according to the seasons of the year. The hot season lasts from March to June, but is tempered by cool sea breezes; from June to September the weather is close and oppressive; and from October to February the cold season brings the north-easterly winds, with cool mornings and evenings. (W. W. H.)

BALASOR, the principal town and administrative headquarters of the above district, situated on the River Burábalang, in 21° 28' 45" N. lat., and 86° 59' 33" E. long., about 8 miles from the sea-coast as the crow flies, and 16 by the river. The English settlement of Balasor, formed in 1642, and that of Pippli in its neighbourhood, seven years earlier, became the basis of the future greatness of the British in India. The servants of the East India Company here fortified themselves in a strong position, and carried on a brisk investment in country goods, chiefly cottons and muslins. They flourished in spite of the oppressions of the Mahometan governors, and when needful asserted their claims to respect by arms. In 1688, affairs having come to a crisis, Captain Heath, commander of the Company's ships, bombarded the town. In the 18th century Balasor rapidly declined in importance, on account of a dangerous bar which formed across the mouth of the river. At present the bar has 12 to 15 feet of water at spring tides, but not more than 2 or 3 feet at low water in the dry season. Large ships have to anchor outside in the open roadstead. The town contains a population of 18,263; municipal income in 1872, £519; expenditure, £514; rate of taxation, 6½d. per head of population. (W. W. H.)

BALBI, ADRIAN, one of the most eminent geographers of modern times, was born at Venice in 1782. In 1820 he visited Portugal, and there collected materials for his well-known work entitled *Essai Statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal et d'Algarve*, which was published at Paris in 1822. This was followed by *Variétés Politiques et Statistiques de la Monarchie Portugaise*, which contains some

curious observations respecting that country under the Roman sway, and on the state of literature and the arts. In 1826 he published the first volume of his *Atlas Ethnographique du Globe*, &c., a work of great erudition, embodying the researches of the most distinguished German philologists and geographers. In 1832 appeared the *Abrégé de Géographie*, which added greatly to the author's reputation. This work, in an enlarged form, was translated into the principal languages of Europe. Balbi afterwards retired to Padua, where he continued to pursue his favourite science with unabated ardour. Besides those already mentioned, he was the author of several other works in the same department of science. He died on the 14th of March 1848.

BALBO, CESARE, an important Italian writer and statesman, was born at Turin, November 21, 1789. His father, Prospero Balbo, held a high position in the Piedmontese court, and at the time of Cesare's birth was syndic of the capital. His mother, a member of the Azeglio family, died when he was three years old; and he was brought up in the house of his great-grandmother, the countess of Bugino, "a noble and proud old lady." In 1798 he joined his father at Paris. From 1808 to 1814 Balbo served in various capacities under the Napoleonic empire, helping, at Florence and Rome, to fix the chains of despotism on his country. Gradually, however, his eyes were opened, and, on the fall of Napoleon, he was ready, in various capacities, to serve the cause of his country. While his father was appointed minister of the interior, he entered the army, and undertook political missions to Paris and London. On the revolution of 1821 he was forced into exile, and though, not long after, he was allowed to return to Piedmont, all active service as a statesman was denied him. Reluctantly, and with frequent endeavours to obtain some appointment, he gave himself up to literature as the only means left him to influence the destinies of his country. This accounts for the fitfulness and incompleteness of so much of his literary work, and for the practical, and in many cases temporary, element that runs through even his most elaborate productions. The great object of his labours was to help in securing for Italy that independence from foreign control which, even more than internal freedom, he regarded as the first necessity of national life. Of true Italian unity he had no expectation and no desire. A confederation of separate states under the supremacy of the Pope was the genuine *beau idéal* of Balbo, as it was the ostensible *beau idéal* of Gioberti. But Gioberti, in his *Primato*, seemed to him to neglect the first essential of independence, which he accordingly inculcated in his *Speranze or Hopes of Italy*. Preparation, both military and moral, alertness, and patience, were his constant theme. He did not wish revolution, but reform; and thus he became the leader of a moderate party, and the steady opponent not only of despotism but of democracy. At last, in 1848, his hopes were so far satisfied by the constitution granted by the king. He was appointed a member of the commission of electoral law, and held a post in the first reformed government. With the ministry of Azeglio, which soon after got into power, he continued on friendly terms, and his pen continued the active defence of his political principles till his death, on the 3d June 1853. The most important of his writings are historical-political, and derive at once their majesty and their weakness from his theocratic theory of Christianity. His style is clear and vigorous, and not unfrequently terse and epigrammatic. He published *Quattro Novelle* in 1829; *Storia d'Italia* in 1830; *Vita di Dante*, 1839; *Meditazioni Storiche*, 1842-5; *Le Speranze d'Italia*, 1843; *Sommario della Storia d'Italia*.

BALBOA, VASCO NUÑEZ DE, one of the bravest and most successful of the Spanish discoverers of America, was born at Xeres de los Caballeros, in Estremadura, about the

year 1475. He was by birth a *hidalgo*, or gentleman, but was in poor circumstances. Little is known of his life till the year 1501, when he was one of the company of adventurers who followed Roderigo de Bastidas in his voyage of discovery to the western seas. He appears to have settled in Hispaniola, and took to cultivating land in the neighbourhood of Salvatierra, but with no great success, as his debts soon became oppressive. In 1509 the famous Ojeda sailed from San Domingo with an expedition, and founded the settlement of San Sebastian. He had left orders with Enciso, an adventurous lawyer of the town, to fit out two ships and convey provisions to the new settlement. Enciso set sail in 1510, and Balboa, whose debts made the town unpleasant to him, managed to accompany him, by concealing himself in a cask which was conveyed from his farm to the ship as if containing provisions. The expedition, after various adventures, reached San Sebastian to find Ojeda gone and the settlement in ruins. While Enciso was undecided how to act, Vasco Nuñez proposed that they should sail for Darien, on the Gulf of Uraba, where he had touched when with Bastidas. His proposal was at once accepted, and carried out. The new town was named Sta Maria de la Antigua del Darien. Bitter quarrels soon broke out among the adventurers, caused chiefly by Enciso prohibiting all private interchange for gold with the natives. Enciso was deposed from the office of authority which he had assumed, but it was found no easy matter to elect a successor. Nicuesa, in whose province they were, was proposed by several, and was brought from Nombre de Dios by a ship which had been sent out to bring assistance to him. The inhabitants of Darien, however, would not receive him, and, in their wrath, seized him and placed him, with seventeen companions, in a crazy bark with which to find his way back to Hispaniola. The party of Vasco Nuñez grew strong; Enciso was thrown into prison, and finally sent off to Spain along with Vasco's ally, the alcalde Zamudio. Being thus left in authority, Balboa began to make excursions into the surrounding country, and by his bravery and conciliatory manners gained the friendship of several native chiefs. On one of these excursions he heard for the first time of the great ocean that lay on the other side of the mountains, and of the wondrous land of gold, afterwards called Peru. Soon after his return to Darien he received letters from Zamudio, informing him that Enciso had complained to the king, and had obtained a sentence condemning Balboa and summoning him to Spain. In his despair at this message Vasco resolved to attempt some great enterprise, the success of which he trusted would conciliate his sovereign. On the 1st September 1513, he set out with about 190 men, well armed, and sailed to Coyba, where he left half his forces to guard the canoes and ships. With the remainder he started on his perilous journey across the isthmus. On the 26th September they reached the summit of the range of mountains, and the glorious expanse of the Pacific was displayed to them. Three days later, they began to descend the mountains on the western side, and Vasco, arriving at the sea-shore, formally took possession of the ocean in the name of the Spanish monarch. He remained on the coast for some time; heard again of Peru, had the Pearl Islands pointed out to him, and set out for Darien. On the 18th January 1514 he reached the town, and was received with the utmost joy. He at once sent messengers to Spain bearing presents, to give an account of his discoveries; but, unfortunately, these did not arrive till an expedition had sailed from Spain, under Don Pedro Arias de Avila (generally called Pedrarias, or Davila), to replace Vasco Nuñez, and to take possession of the colony. For some time after Pedrarias reached Darien Vasco was in great straits, but at length letters came from the king,

announcing to him his satisfaction with his exploits, and naming him *Adelantado*, or admiral. Pedrarias was prevailed upon to be reconciled with Vasco, and gave him one of his daughters in marriage. Vasco then resolved to accomplish his grand project of exploring the western sea. With infinite labour materials for building ships were conveyed across the isthmus, and two brigantines were constructed. With these the adventurers took possession of the Pearl Islands, and, had it not been for the weather, would have reached the coast of Peru. This career of discovery was stopped by the jealousy of Pedrarias, who feared that Balboa would throw off his allegiance, and who enticed him to Acla by a crafty message. As soon as he had him in his power, he threw him into prison, had him tried for treason, and forced the judge to condemn him to death. The sentence, to the grief of all the inhabitants, was carried into execution on the public square of Acla in 1517.

BALBRIGGAN, a seaport of Ireland, in the county of Dublin and parish of Balrothery, 18½ miles N.N.E. of the capital. The harbour, though dry at low tides, has a depth of 14 feet at high-water springs, and affords a good refuge from the E. or S.E. gales. It is formed by a pier 600 feet long, with a lighthouse at its extremity, in 53° 37' N. lat., 6° 12' W. long. A viaduct of eleven arches crosses the harbour. The town has considerable manufactures of cottons and hosiery, and is much frequented as a watering-place in summer. Population in 1871, 2332.

BALDE, JAKOB, a modern Latin poet of considerable repute, was born at Ensisheim in Alsace in 1603, and died in 1668. He entered the Society of the Jesuits in 1624, and for the greater part of his life acted as court-preacher and professor of rhetoric at Munich. His Latin poems were very numerous, and those in imitation of Horace are particularly successful. Although Balde has received some attention since Herder translated several of his best pieces, and although some of his poems are by no means deficient in lightness, grace, and skilful versification, it would be a mistake to look upon him as a poet of high rank. A collected edition of his works in 4 vols. was published at Cologne in 1650; a more complete edition in 8 vols., at Munich, 1729. Extracts have been given by Orelli, 1805, 1818; and some detached poems have been published by various editors.

BALDI, BERNARDINO, a distinguished mathematician and miscellaneous writer, was descended of a noble family at Urbino, in which city he was born on the 6th of June 1533. He pursued his studies at Padua with extraordinary zeal and success, and is said to have acquired, during the course of his life, no fewer than sixteen languages, though according to Tiraboschi, the inscription on his tomb limits the number to twelve. The appearance of the plague at Padua obliged him to retire to his native city, whence he was, shortly afterwards, called to act as tutor to Ferrante Gonzaga, from whom he received the rich abbey of Guastalla. He held office as abbot for twenty-five years, and then retired to his native town. In 1612 he was employed by the duke as his envoy to Venice, where he distinguished himself by the congratulatory oration he delivered before the Venetian senate on the election of the new doge, Andrea Memmo. Baldi died at Urbino on the 12th of October 1617. He was, perhaps, the most universal genius of his age, and is said to have written upwards of a hundred different works, the chief part of which have remained unpublished. His various works give satisfactory evidence of his abilities as a theologian, mathematician, geographer, antiquary, historian, and poet. The *Cronica dei Matematici* is an abridgment of a larger work, on which he had bestowed twelve years of labour, and which was intended to contain the lives of more than two

hundred mathematicians. His life has been written by Affo, Mazzuchelli, and others.

BALDINGER, ERNEST GOTTFRIED, a German physician of considerable eminence, and the author of a great number of medical publications, was born near Erfurt, 13th May 1738. He studied medicine at Erfurt, Halle, and Jena, and in 1761 was intrusted with the superintendence of the military hospitals connected with the Prussian encampment near Torgau. He published, in 1765, a dissertation on the diseases of soldiers, which met with so favourable a reception that he published an enlarged edition, under the title of *Treatise on the Diseases that prevail in Armies*, Langensalza, 1774, 8vo. In 1768 he became professor of medicine at Jena, whence he removed, in 1773, to Göttingen, and in 1785 to Marburg, where he died of apoplexy on the 21st of January 1804. Among his pupils were Akermann, Sömmering, and Blumenbach. Some eighty-four separate treatises are mentioned as having proceeded from his pen, in addition to numerous papers scattered through various collections and journals.

BALDINUCCI, FILIPPO, a distinguished Italian writer on the history of the arts, was born at Florence about 1624, and died in 1696. His chief work is entitled *Notizie de Professori del Disegno da Cimabue in quà (dal 1260 sino al 1670)*, and was first published, in six vols. 4to, 1681–1728. The capital defect of this work is the attempt to derive all Italian art from the schools of Florence. A good edition is that by Ranalli (5 vols. 8vo, Florence, 1845–47). Baldinucci's whole works have been published in fourteen vols. at Milan, 1808–12.

BALDOVINETTI, ALESSIO, was a distinguished painter of Florence in the 15th century, whose works have now become very scarce. Hogarth takes him as a type of those obscure artists to whom the affected amateurs of his time were wont to ascribe old paintings—"Tis a fine piece of Alessio Baldovinetti, in his third manner." His father, Baldovinetti, belonged to a merchant family of good standing and fortune. Alessio was born in 1422, and took to painting, according to Vasari, against his father's desire. His art was distinguished rather for study than for genius. It represents completely some of the leading characters of the Florentine school in that age. It was an age of diligent schooling and experiment, in which art endeavoured to master more of the parts and details of nature than she had mastered heretofore, and to improve her technical means for their representation. Among the parts of nature especially studied in the 15th century, were landscape and natural history, the particulars of scenery, and the characters of birds, beasts, and plants. Alessio Baldovinetti surpassed all his contemporaries in attention to these matters. In Vasari's words, you see in his paintings "rivers, bridges, stones, grasses, fruits, roads, fields, cities, castles, arenas, and an infinity of suchlike things." From this quality of his art it has been guessed, without sufficient cause, that he was the pupil of Paolo Uccelli, the first Florentine master who devoted himself to such matters. For the rest, this extreme care and minuteness renders his manner somewhat hard. Like many other painters of his time, he treats draperies, hair, and such parts, with a manner that shows the influence of the goldsmith, and is more proper to metal work than to painting. His principal extant works are a nativity in the church of the Annunziata, an altar-piece, No. 24, in the gallery of the Uffizi, and another, No. 2, in the gallery of ancient pictures in the Academy of Arts at Florence. The great work of his life was a series of frescoes from the Old Testament in the chapel of the Gianfigliuzzi family in the church of Sta Trinita, containing many interesting contemporary portraits; but these were destroyed about 1760. He also designed a likeness of Dante for the cathedral of Florence in 1465. His technical experiments

were of the same nature as those made by his contemporaries—Pesellino, Pollaiuolo, and Domenico Veneziano, who endeavoured to find out an oil medium at Florence before Antonello da Messina had brought to Venice the secrets of the Flemish practice. Vasari relates how Alessio thought he had made a great discovery with the mixture of yolk of egg and heated *vernice liquida*, but how the work so painted presently became discoloured. He understood mosaic as well as painting, and between 1481 and 1484 was engaged in repairing ancient mosaics, first in the church of San Miniato, next in the baptistery at Florence. He is said to have instructed Domenico Ghirlandaio (see BIGORDI) in this art. He died on the 29th of August 1499, within two years and a half of the completion of his frescoes in the Gianfigliuzzi chapel. (Vasari, ed. Lemonnier, vol. iv. pp. 101–107; Crowe and Cavalcaselle, *Hist. of Painting in Italy*, vol. ii. pp. 372–381.) (s. c.)

BALDUINUS, JACOBUS, a distinguished professor of civil law in the university of Bologna. He was by birth a Bolognese, and is reputed to have been of a noble family. He was a pupil of Azo, and the master of Odofredus, of Hostiensis, and of Jacobus de Ravanis, the last of whom has the reputation of having first applied dialectical forms to legal science. His great fame as a jurist caused him to be elected *podestà* of the city of Genoa, where he was intrusted with the reform of the laws of the republic. He died at Bologna in 1225, and has left behind him some treatises on Procedure; which have the merit of being the earliest of their kind.

BALDUR, one of the most interesting figures of the Scandinavian mythology, was the son of Odin and Frigg. His name (from *baldr*, the foremost or pre-eminent one) denoted his supreme excellence and beauty. In the *Gylfeginning* we read that he was so amiable that all loved him, so beautiful that a light seemed to shine about him, and his face and hair were for ever refulgent. He was the mildest, wisest, and most eloquent of the Æsir; and when he pronounced a judgment, it was infallible. His dwelling was in Brejldablik (far-sight), where nothing impure could come, and where the most obscure question could be explained. The wonderful legend of his death is first dimly recorded in the *Völuspá*, the grandest and most ancient of Eddaic poems, and more fully in the younger Edda. Baldur was visited by evil dreams, and felt his life to be in danger. His mother, Frigg, took oath of all things in the world, animal, vegetable, and mineral, that they should not slay her son. The gods being then secure, found pastime in setting the good Baldur in their midst, and in shooting or hurling stones at his invulnerable body. Then Loki, the evil god, took on him the form of a woman and went to Frigg in Fensal. From Frigg he learned that of all things in the earth but one could injure Baldur, and that was a little tree westward from Valhal, that was too young to take the oath. Thither went Loki and found the plant; it was the mistletoe. He plucked it up, fashioned it into an arrow, and went back to the Æsir. They were still in a circle, shooting at Baldur; and outside the ring stood the blind god Höder, of whom Loki asked wherefore he did not shoot. When Höder had excused himself because of his blindness, Loki offered to aim for him, and Höder, shooting the arrow of mistletoe, Baldur suddenly fell, pierced and dead. No such misfortune had ever yet befallen gods or men; there was long silence in heaven, and then with one accord there broke out a loud noise of weeping. The Æsir dared not revenge the deed, because the place was holy, but Frigg, rushing into their midst, besought them to send one to Hel to fetch him back. Hel promised to let him go if all things in heaven and earth were unanimous in wishing it to be so; but when inquiry was made, a creature called Thökt was found

in the cleft of a rock that said, "Let Hel keep its booty." This was Loki, and so Baldur came not back to Valhal. His death was revenged by his son Vale, who, being only one night old, slew Höder; but Loki fled from the revenge of the gods. In Baldur was personified the light of the sun; in his death the quenching of that light in winter. In his invulnerable body is expressed the incorporeal quality of light; what alone can wound it is mistletoe, the symbol of the depth of winter. It is noticeable that the Druids, when they cut down this plant with a golden sickle, did so to prevent it from wounding Baldur again. According to the *Völuspá*, Baldur will return, after Ragnarök, to the new heavens and the new earth; so the sun returns in spring to the renovated world. In the later versions it was no ordinary season, but the Fimbul winter, which no summer follows, which Baldur's death prefigured. It must not be overlooked that the story of Baldur is not merely a sun-myth, but a personification of that glory, purity, and innocence of the gods which was believed to have been lost at his death, thus made the central point of the whole drama of the great Scandinavian mythology. Baldur has been also considered, in relation to some statements of Saxo Grammaticus, to have been a god of peace,—peace attained through warfare; this theory has been advanced by Weinhold with much ingenuity. Several myths have been cited as paralleling the story of the death of Baldur; those of Adonis and of Persephone may be considered as the most plausible. (E. W. G.)

BALDUS, an eminent professor of the civil law, and also of the canon law, in the university of Perugia. He came of the noble family of the Ubaldi; and his two brothers, Angelus de Ubaldi and Petrus de Ubaldi, were almost of equal eminence with himself as jurists. He was born in 1327, and studied civil law under Bartolus at Perugia, where he was admitted to the degree of doctor of civil law at the early age of seventeen in 1344. Fredericus Petrucius of Siena is said to have been the master under whom he studied canon law. Upon his promotion to the doctorate he at once proceeded to Bologna, where he taught law for three years; after which he was advanced to a professorial chair at Perugia, which he occupied for thirty-three years. He taught law subsequently at Pisa, at Florence, at Padua, and at Pavia, at a time when the schools of law in those universities disputed the palm with the school of Bologna. Baldus has not left behind him any works which bear out the great reputation which he acquired amongst his contemporaries. This circumstance may be in some respects accounted for by the active part which he took in public affairs, and by the fame which he acquired by his consultations, of which five volumes have been published by Diplovataccius. Baldus was the master of Peter Beaufort, the nephew of Pope Clement VI., who became himself Pope under the title of Gregory XI., and whose immediate successor, Urban VI., summoned Baldus to Rome to assist him by his consultations against the anti-pope Clement VII. Cardinal de Zabarella and Paulus de Castro were also amongst his pupils. His *Commentary on the Liber Fendorum* is considered to be one of the best of his works, which have been unfortunately left by him for the most part in an incomplete state.

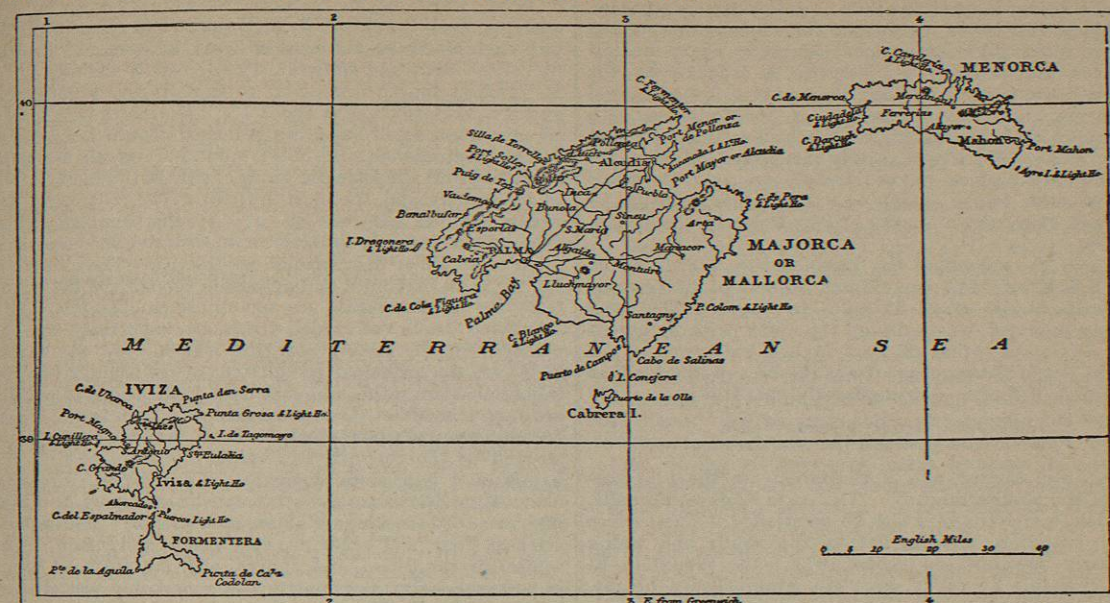
BALDWIN, THOMAS, a celebrated English prelate of the 12th century, was born of obscure parents at Exeter, where, in the early part of his life, he taught a grammar school. After this he took orders, and was made archdeacon of Exeter; but he resigned that dignity, and became a Cistercian monk in the monastery of Ford in Devonshire, of which, in a few years, he was made abbot. In the year 1180 he was consecrated bishop of Worcester. In 1184 he was promoted to the see of Canterbury, and by Urban III.

was appointed legate for that diocese. He laid the foundation of a church and monastery in honour of Thomas à Becket at Hackington, near Canterbury, for secular priests; but being opposed by the monks of Canterbury and the Pope, he was obliged to desist. Baldwin then laid the foundation of the archiepiscopal palace at Lambeth. In 1189 he crowned King Richard I. at Westminster, and two years later, after making a pilgrimage through Wales to preach the Crusade, followed that prince to the Holy Land, where he died at the siege of Ptolemais or St Jean d'Acre. Giraldus Cambrensis, who accompanied him in an expedition through Wales, says he was of moderate habits and of an extremely mild disposition. He wrote various tracts on religious subjects, some of which were collected and published by Bertrand Tissier in 1662.

BALE, JOHN, Bishop of Ossory, in Ireland, was born at Coye, near Dunwich in Suffolk, in November 1495. He was educated in the monastery of the Carmelites at Norwich, and afterwards at Jesus College, Oxford. He belonged at first to the Roman Catholic Church, but was converted to the Protestant religion by Thomas Lord Wentworth. On the death of Lord Cromwell, the favourite of Henry VIII., who had protected him from the persecutions of the Romish clergy, he was obliged to take refuge in Flanders, where he continued eight years. Soon after the accession of Edward VI. he was recalled; and being first presented to the living of Bishop's Stocke (Bishopstocke), in Hampshire, he was nominated in 1552 to the see of Ossory, in Ireland. During his residence there he was remarkably assiduous in propagating the Protestant doctrines, but with little success, and frequently at the hazard of his life. On the accession of Queen Mary the tide of opposition became so powerful that, to avoid assassination, he embarked for Holland; and, after various vicissitudes, reached Basel in Switzerland, where he continued till the accession of Queen Elizabeth. After his return to England he was, in 1560, made prebendary of Canterbury, where he died in November 1563, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. Bale is noted as being one of the last (though not the last, as has sometimes been said) of those who wrote miracle-plays. Several of his are extant, and a list of titles of about twenty is given by Collier (ii. 238). They are remarkable for the determination they manifest to introduce and inculcate the doctrines of the Reformed religion. The best of his historical plays, *Kynge Johan*, has been published by the Camden Society, 1838. Of his numerous other works the most noted is his collection of British biography, entitled *Illustrium Majoris Britanniae Scriptorum Catalogus, a Japheto sanctissimi Noah filio ad An. Dom. 1559*. This work was first published in quarto in 1548, and afterwards, with various additions, in folio, in 1557-59. Although slightly inaccurate, it is still a work of great value for the minute notices it gives of writers, concerning whom little is otherwise known. A selection from his works was published in 1849 by the Parker Society, containing the *Examinations of Cobham, Thorpe, and Anne Askew*, and the *Image of the two Churches*. Bale's style is frequently coarse and violent, and his truthfulness has been sometimes challenged.

BALEARIC ISLANDS, a remarkable group in the western part of the Mediterranean Sea, lying to the S. and E. of Spain, between 38° 40' and 40° 5' N. lat., and between 1° and 5° E. long. The name, as now employed, includes not only the ancient *Insulæ Baleares* (*Major* and *Minor*), but also the *Pityusæ* or Pine Islands, as the two more western were called. The origin of the name *Baleares* is a mere matter of conjecture, and the reader may choose any of the derivations usually offered with about an equal chance of not being right. On the other hand, it is obvious that the modern *Majorca* (or, in Spanish, *Mallorca*) and *Minorca*

(in Spanish, *Menorca*) are obtained from the Latin *Major* and *Minor*, through the Byzantine forms *Μαγνίκα* and *Μινωίκα*; while *Iviza* is plainly the older *Ebusus*, a name of, probably, Carthaginian origin. The *Ophiusa* of the Greeks (*Colubraria* of the Romans) is now known as Formentera.



Sketch Map of the Balearic Islands.

Majorca is the largest island of the group, having an area of 1430 square miles. Its shape is that of a trapezoid, with the angles directed to the cardinal points; and its diagonal, from Cape Grozer in the W. to Cape Pera in the E., is about sixty miles. On the N.W. the coast is highly precipitous, but on the other sides it is low and sloping. On the N.E. there are several considerable bays, of which the chief are those of Alcudia and Pollenza; while on the S.W. is the still more important bay of Palma. No fewer than twelve ports or harbours are enumerated round the island, of which may be mentioned Andraix, Soller, and Porto Colom. In the N.W. Majorca is traversed by a chain of mountains running parallel with the coast, and attaining its highest elevation in Silla de Torillas, 4600 feet above the sea. Towards the south and east the surface is comparatively level, though broken by isolated peaks of considerable height. The northern mountains afford great protection to the rest of the island from the violent gales to which it is exposed, and render the climate remarkably mild and pleasant, while the heats of summer are tempered by the sea-breezes. The scenery of Majorca is varied and beautiful, with all the picturesqueness of outline that usually belongs to a limestone formation. Some of the valleys, such as those of Valdemozza and Soller, with their luxuriant vegetation, are delightful resorts. There are quarries of marble, of various grains and colours—those of Santagny, in the partido of Manacor, being especially celebrated; while lead, iron, and cinnabar have also been obtained. Coal of a jet-like character is found at Benisalem, where works were commenced in 1836, at Selva, where it has been mined since 1851, near Santa Maria, and elsewhere. It is used in the industrial establishments of Palma, and in the manufacture of lime, plaster, and bricks, in the neighbourhood of the mines,—a considerable quantity being also exported to Barcelona. The inhabitants are principally devoted to agriculture, and most of the arable land of the islands is under cultivation. The mountains are terraced;

and the old pine woods have in many places given place to the olive, the vine, and the almond tree, to fields of wheat and flax, or to orchards of figs and oranges. For the last-mentioned fruits the valley of Soller is one of the most important districts, the produce being largely transmitted to France, and realising about £25,000 per annum. The oil harvest is very considerable, and Inca is the centre of the oil district. The wines are light but excellent, especially the Muscadel and Montona. The agricultural methods of the islands are still somewhat primitive, but the introduction of machinery indicates improvement, as well as the drainage, by an English company, of a marsh and lake, 8000 acres in extent, near the town of Alcudia. During the summer there is often great scarcity of water; but, according to a system handed down by the Moors, the rains of autumn and winter are collected in enormous reservoirs, which contain sufficient water to last through the dry season; and on the payment of a certain rate, each landholder in turn has his fields flooded at certain intervals. Mules are used in the agriculture and traffic of the island. The cattle are small, but the sheep are large and well fleeced. Pigs are largely reared, and exported to Barcelona. There is abundance of poultry and of small game. A good deal of brandy is made and exported. Excellent woollen and linen cloths are woven. The silk-worm is reared, and its produce manufactured; and canvas, rope, and cord are largely made, from both native and foreign materials. The average value of the imports of the island is £550,000, and the exports amount to rather more. The roads are excellent, the four principal being those from Alcudia, Manacor, Soller, and Andraix to the capital. A railway is in course of construction from Palma by Inca to Alcudia, and the stock is all held by Mallorquins. A telegraphic line passes from Palma to Valcena, and there is regular steam communication with Barcelona and Alicante. A Majorcan bank has been established, and a credit association for the development of the resources of