

being detected in treasurible correspondence with the duke of Bourgogne, he was confined by Louis in an iron cage 8 feet square. On his release, however, eleven years afterwards, he was loaded with honours by Sixtus IV., was sent as legate to France, and received the bishopric of Albano. He died at Ancona in 1491.

BALUZE, ETIENNE, a celebrated French scholar, was born at Tulle on the 24th of December 1630, and died in July 1718. After completing his education at the university of Toulouse, he was invited by M. de Marca, afterwards archbishop of Paris, to undertake the superintendence of his library. De Marca died in 1662, and Baluze, after acting as librarian to Le Tellier and the archbishop of Auch, obtained in 1667 a similar situation with the famous Colbert, which he retained till 1700, some years after the death of that minister. His reputation and his mastery of French law and antiquities obtained for him in 1670 the professorship of canon law in the royal college, a chair founded expressly for him. On the fall of the Cardinal de Bouillon in 1710, Baluze, who had attached himself to his party, was removed by a *lettre de cachet* from Paris, and transferred from Rouen to Blois, Tours, and Orleans in succession. He obtained his recall in 1713, though he never recovered his professorship. Of Baluze's numerous works the best known is the *Capitularia Regum Francorum*, which is of considerable historical value. The *Miscellanea*, in 7 vols., contain several curious extracts from manuscripts found by him in the libraries at Paris.

BALZAC, HONORÉ DE, perhaps the greatest name in the post-Revolutionary literature of France, was born at Tours in 1799, and died in 1858. His date thus corresponds with the whole period of the rise, the acme, and the decline of the Romantic school, to which he can scarcely, however, be said to have belonged. It is true that he was inspired by many of the influences that animated Victor Hugo and his followers. Like them he was much occupied by the study of the fantastic element in mediæval art, so strongly opposed to the calm and limit of classical literature, like them he reproduced the remoter phases of life and passion, and thought that few subjects were so base or obscure as to be unworthy of artistic treatment. But there is something in the powerful personality of Balzac indicated by the colossal body, by the strong and sensual face, somewhat resembling the profile of the Emperor Nero, which preserved him from the mannerism of any school. He was never successful in reproducing the existence of the past, he was essentially the man of his own day, and *La Comédie Humaine* is as much the picture of the 19th, as the *Divina Commedia* is of the 13th century. The passions that move his characters are the intense desire of boundless wealth, of luxury, of social distinction; and though here and there his financiers, his journalists, his political intriguers, his sordid peasantry, are relieved by the introduction of some pure figure, like that of Eugénie Grandet, of David, or of Eve, there are only too many elaborate studies of creatures sunk below the surface of humanity, the embodiments of infinite meanness and nameless sin. He was merely "the secretary of society," he said, and "drew up the inventory of vices and virtues." His ambition was, "by infinite patience and courage, to compose for the France of the 19th century that history of morals which the old civilizations of Rome, Athens, Memphis, and India, have left untold." The consequence of this ambition is, that Balzac's voluminous romances have too often the air of a minute and tedious chronicle, and that the contemporary reader is wearied with a mass of details about domestic architecture, about the stock exchange, and about law, which will prove invaluable to posterity.

Balzac's private history, which may be traced through

many passages of his novels, was a strange and not a happy one. He was early sent from his home in Tours to the college of Vendôme, where he neglected the studies and sports of childhood to bury himself in mystic books and mystic reveries. He has told the story of his school life in *Louis Lambert*, how he composed a *théorie de la volonté*, a theory which was to complete the works of Mesmer, Lavater, Gall, and Bichat. This promising treatise was burned by one of the masters of the school; and Balzac, falling into bad health, returned home. The next stage in his education was a course of study at the Sorbonne, and of lectures on law. In the offices of *avoués* and *notaires* he picked up his knowledge of the by-ways of chicanery,—knowledge which he uses only too freely in his romances. Nature did not mean Balzac for an advocate; he was constant in the belief in his own genius, a belief which for many years he had all to himself, and his family left him to work and starve, on the scantiest pittance, in a garret of the Rue Lesdiguières. There followed ten years of hard toil, poverty, experiments in this and that way of getting a living. These struggles are described in *Facino Cane*, in the *Peau de Chagrin*, and in a series of letters to the author's sister, Madame de Surville. Balzac found "three sous for bread, two for milk, and three for firing" suffice to keep him alive, while he devoured books in the library of the Arsenal, copied out his notes at night, and then wandered for hours among the scenes of nocturnal Paris. "Your brother," he writes to Madame de Surville, "is already nourished like a great man,—he is dying of hunger." He tried to make money by scribbling many volumes of novels without promise, and borrowed funds to speculate in the business of printing. Ideas which have since made other men's fortunes failed in Balzac's hands, and he laid the foundations of those famous debts which in later life were his torment and his occupation. At length appreciation came, and with appreciation what ought to have been wealth. Balzac was unfortunately as prodigal of money as of labour; he would shut himself up for months, and see no one but his printer; and then for months he would disappear and dissipate his gains in some mysterious hiding-place of his own, or in hurried travelling to Venice, Vienna, or St Petersburg. As a child he had been a man in thought and learning; as a man he was a child in caprice and extravagance. His imagination, the intense power with which he constructed new combinations of the literal facts which he observed, was like the demon which tormented the magician with incessant demands for more tasks to do. When he was not working at *La Comédie Humaine*, his fancy was still busy with its characters; he existed in an ideal world, where some accident was always to put him in possession of riches beyond the dreams of avarice. Meantime he squandered all the money that could be rescued from his creditors on sumptuous apparel, jewels, porcelain, pictures. His excesses of labour, his sleepless nights, his abuse of coffee undermined his seemingly indestructible health. At length a mysterious passion for a Russian lady was crowned by marriage; the famous debts were paid, the visionary house was built and furnished, and then, "when the house was ready, death entered." Balzac died at the culmination of his fame, and at the beginning, as it seemed, of the period of rest to which he had always looked forward.

It is impossible to enter on a detailed criticism of Balzac's novels. In them he scales every height and sounds every depth of human character,—from the purity of the mysterious Seraphitus Seraphita, cold and strange, like the peaks of her northern Alps, to the loathsome sins of the Marnefs, whose deeds should find no calendar but that of Hell. In the great divisions of his *Comédie*, the scenes of private and of public life of the provinces and of the city,

in the philosophic studies, and in the *Contes Drolatiques*, Balzac has built up a work of art which answers to a mediæval cathedral. There are subterranean places, haunted by the Vautrins and "Filles aux yeux d'or"; there are the seats of the money-changers, where the Nucingens sit at the receipt of custom; there is the broad platform of everyday life, where the journalists intrigue, where love is sold for hire, where splendours and miseries abound, where the peasants cheat their lords, where women betray their husbands; there are the shrines where pious ladies pass saintly days; there are the dizzy heights of thought and rapture, whence falls a ray from the supernatural light of Swedenborg; there are the lustful and hideous grotesques of the *Contes Drolatiques*. Through all swells, like the organ-tone, the ground-note and mingled murmur of Parisian life. The qualities of Balzac are his extraordinary range of knowledge, observation, sympathy, his steadfast determination to draw every line and shadow of his subject, his keen analysis of character and conduct. His defects are an over-insistence on detail, which hampers and bewilders rather than aids the imagination of his readers; his tortured style, "a special language forged out of all the slangs, all the terminologies of science, of the studio, the laboratory, the *coulisses*;" his fondness for dwelling on the morbid pathology of human nature. With all these defects, and with the difficulty of judging any one of his tales separately, because each is only a fragment in the development of the immense *Comédie Humaine*, Balzac holds a more distinct and supreme place in French fiction than perhaps any English author does in the same field of art. (A. L.)

BALZAC, JEAN LOUIS GUEZ DE, a celebrated French writer, was born at Angoulême in 1594. His father was possessed of considerable property, and he himself was early befriended by the Cardinal de la Valette, who took him in his train to Rome. His letters written from that place to his acquaintances and to many who held a high position at the French court, were expressed so admirably, and showed such powers of eloquence, as to gain for him the highest renown. On his return from Italy he was at once and everywhere received as a master in the art of composition. The most extravagant compliments were showered upon him, and his head appears to have been turned a little by his success. In 1624 a collection of his *Letters* was published, and was received with great favour by the public. Soon afterwards a direct charge of plagiarism was made against Balzac in a pseudonymous tract, *On the conformity of M. de Balzac's Eloquence with that of the Greatest Personages of Past and Present Time*. A terribly fierce paper war was excited by this pamphlet; and Balzac, in disgust, retired to his own estate, where he continued his labour of composition. In 1634 he expressed a desire to enter the Academy, and was at once elected with universal acclamation. He died at Paris in 1654. His fame rests entirely upon the *Letters*, which, though empty, bombastic, and affected in matter, are written with great skill, and show a real mastery over the language. They introduced a new style; and Balzac has thus the credit of being the first reformer of French prose, as his contemporary Malherbe was the first reformer of French poetry.

BAMBA, a province of Congo, on the western coast of Africa, lying to the S. of the River Ambriz. This district is fertile, abounds in gold, silver, copper, salt, &c., and is said to be thickly populated. Its chief town, which bears the same name, was formerly of considerable importance, the climate being remarkably healthy for that region of Africa.

BAMBARRA, a country of inner Africa, on the Joliba or Upper Niger. The principal towns are Segou, Sansading, Jamima, Mursha, Jabbi, Sai, Kullikoro, Maraca-Duba, and

Damba, in many of which the Mahometans have mosques. For further particulars see AFRICA, vol. i. p. 271.

BAMBARRA, a town of western Africa on a backwater of the Niger, of considerable commercial importance, and situated in a fertile plain, 115 miles S.S.W. of Timbuctoo. (See Barth's *Travels in Central Africa*, vol. iv. p. 354.)

BAMBERG, a town of Bavaria, in the circle of Upper Franconia, on the River Regnitz, 3 miles above its junction with the Main, and 33 miles N. of Nuremberg, with which it is connected by railway. It is partially surrounded by walls and ditches, and is divided by the river and Ludwig's canal into three districts, which are connected by handsome bridges. The town is well built, and the streets are well paved and lighted. The cathedral, a noble structure in the Byzantine style of architecture, is surpassed by few of the kind in Germany. It was founded in 1004 by the Emperor Henry II., and finished in 1012, but was afterwards partially burnt, and rebuilt in 1110. It contains the tombs of the founder and his empress Cunigunde, Conrad III., Pope Clement II., &c., and numerous monuments and paintings by eminent masters. Among the other public buildings are St Martin's church, the palace (formerly the residence of the prince-bishops), town-house, and theatre. The Benedictine convent of St Michael was turned, in 1803, into a charitable institution for poor citizens known as Ludwig's hospital. Bamberg has numerous literary and charitable institutions, as the lyceum, gymnasium, polytechnic, normal, and medical schools, a library, museum, picture-gallery, hospital, and workhouse. The trade is considerable; cloths, sealing-wax, leather, tobacco, musical instruments, carriages, &c., are manufactured, and there are numerous breweries. The whole of the neighbouring district is like a vast garden, and furnishes large supplies of liquorice, carrots, aniseed, coriander, and other seeds. Bamberg was formerly the capital of an independent bishopric, which was secularized in 1801, and assigned to Bavaria in 1803. Population, 25,738

BAMBOCCIO. See LAER, PETER VAN.

BAMBOO, a genus (*Bambusa*) of arborecent grasses very generally distributed throughout the tropical lands of the globe, but found and cultivated especially in India, China, and the East Indian Archipelago. There is a large number of species enumerated; but, as is the case with most plants under cultivation, much difficulty is found in distinguishing species from varieties produced by artificial selection. *Bambusa arundinacea* is the species most commonly referred to. It is a tree-like plant, rising to a height of 40, 60, or even 80 feet, with a hollow stem, shining as if varnished. The stem is extremely slender, not exceeding the thickness of 5 inches in some which are 50 feet high, and in others reaching 15 or 18 inches in diameter. The whole is divided into joints or septa called knots or internodes, the intervals between which in the case of some of the larger stems is several feet. These joints or divisions are formed by the crossing of the vascular bundles of fibres. They produce alternate lateral buds, which form small alternate branchlets springing from the base to the top, and, together with the narrow-pointed leaves issuing from them, give the plant an elegant feathered appearance as it waves in the wind. The rapidity of its growth is surprising. It attains its full height in a few months, and Mr Fortune records the observation of a growth of from 2 to 2½ feet in a single day. In Malabar it is said to bear fruit when fifteen years old, and then to die.

The bamboo is cultivated with great care in regular plantations by the Chinese. The plant is propagated by shoots or suckers deposited in pits 18 inches or 2 feet deep at the close of autumn or the beginning of winter. Various expedients are followed to obtain good bamboos; one of the most usual being to take a vigorous root and transplant

it, leaving only four or five inches above the joint next the ground. The cavity is then filled with a mixture of horse-litter and sulphur. According to the vigour of the root, the shoots will be more or less numerous; they are destroyed at an early stage during three successive years; and those springing in the fourth resemble the parent tree. The uses to which all the parts and products of the bamboo are applied in Oriental countries are almost endless. The soft and succulent shoots, when just beginning to spring, are cut over and served up at table like asparagus. Like that vegetable, also, they are earthed over to keep them longer fit for consumption; and they afford a continuous supply during the whole year, though it is more abundant in autumn. They are also salted and eaten with rice, prepared in the form of pickles, or candied and preserved in sugar. As the plant grows older, a species of fluid is secreted in the hollow joints, in which a concrete substance, highly valued in the East for its medicinal qualities, called *tabaxir* or *tabascheer*, is gradually developed. This substance, which has been found to be a purely siliceous concretion, is possessed of peculiar optical properties. As a medicinal agent the bamboo is almost or entirely inert, and it has never been received into the European materia medica. A decoction of the leaves of the plant is, however, employed in the East for pectoral affections, and the leaf-buds are said to be diuretic. The grains of the bamboo are available for food, and the Chinese have a proverb that it produces seed more abundantly in years when the rice crop fails, which means, probably, that in times of dearth the natives look more after such a source of food. The Hindus eat it mixed with honey as a delicacy, equal quantities being put into a hollow joint, coated externally with clay, and thus roasted over a fire. It is, however, the stem of the bamboo which is applied to the greatest variety of uses. Joints of sufficient size form water buckets; smaller ones are used as bottles, and among the Dyaks of Borneo they are employed as cooking vessels. Bamboo is extensively used as a timber wood, and houses are frequently made entirely out of the products of the plant; complete sections of the stem form posts or columns; split up, it serves for floors or rafters; and, interwoven in lattice-work, it is employed for the sides of rooms, admitting light and air. The roof is sometimes of bamboo solely, and when split, which is accomplished with the greatest ease, it can be formed into laths or planks. It is employed in shipping of all kinds; some of the strongest plants are selected for masts of boats of moderate size, and the masts of larger vessels are sometimes formed by the union of several bamboos built up and joined together.

The bamboo is employed in the construction of all kinds of agricultural and domestic implements, and in the materials and implements required in fishery. Bows are made of it by the union of two pieces with many bands; and, the septa being bored out and the lengths joined together, it is employed, as we use leaden pipes, in transmitting water to reservoirs or gardens. From the light and slender stalks shafts for arrows are obtained; and in the south-west of Asia there is a certain species of equally slender growth, from which writing-pens or reeds are made. A joint forms a holder for papers or pens, and it was in a joint of bamboo that silk-worm eggs were carried from China to Constantinople during the reign of Justinian. The outer cuticle of Oriental species is so hard that it forms a sharp and durable cutting edge, and it is so siliceous that it can be used as a whetstone. This outer cuticle, cut into thin strips, is one of the most durable and beautiful materials for basket-making, and both in China and Japan it is largely so employed. Strips are also woven into cages, chairs, beds, and other articles of furniture, Oriental wicker-work in bamboo being unequalled for beauty and

neatness of workmanship. In China the interior portions of the stem are beaten into a pulp, and used for the manufacture of the finer varieties of paper. Bamboos are imported to a considerable extent into Europe for the use of basket-makers, and for umbrella and walking-sticks. In short, the purposes to which the bamboo is applicable are almost endless, and well justify the opinion that "it is one of the most wonderful and most beautiful productions of the tropics, and one of Nature's most valuable gifts to uncivilized man" (A. R. Wallace, *The Malay Archipelago*).

BAMBOROUGH, a village in Northumberland, on the sea-coast, 14 miles N. of Alnwick. It was a royal borough previous to the Norman Conquest, and returned two members to parliament in the 23d year of Edward I. Its ancient castle stands close to the sea on an almost perpendicular rock, 150 feet in height, and is accessible only on the south-east side. The first erection is ascribed by the Saxon chronicles to King Ida of Northumberland, who is said to have named it *Bebbanburh* after his queen Bebbe (547 A.D.). The principal events in its early history are the siege by Penda in 642, the ravages of the Danes in 993, the unsuccessful defence by De Mowbray against William Rufus, and numerous sieges during the Wars of the Roses. In the reign of Henry VII. it fell into decay. At length, in the 18th century, it became the property of Lord Crewe, bishop of Durham, who, in 1720, vested the castle and manor in trustees for charitable purposes. In virtue of this bequest a patrol is kept on the coast, apartments are provided for shipwrecked seamen, and a storehouse for salvage-goods, and granaries are maintained in order to supply corn to the poor at a cheap rate in times of scarcity. An infirmary, a dispensary, and a large library bequeathed by Dr Sharp, are also maintained, while poor children receive gratuitous education at two "national" schools. Population in 1871, 320 in the village, and 3751 in the parish.

BAMBOUK, a country in the interior of Western Africa, situated between the Senegal and its tributary the Faleme, and extending from lat. 12° 30' to 14° N., and from long. 10° to 12° 30' W. It is traversed from N.W. to S.E. by the steep and wall-like range of the Tamba-Ura Mountains. The soil in a large part of the country is of remarkable fertility; rice, maize, millet, melons, manioc, grapes, bananas, and other fruits, grow almost without cultivation; the forests are rich in a variety of valuable trees; and extensive stretches are covered with abundant pasturage of the long guinea-grass. As a natural consequence there is great profusion of animal life. The inhabitants, a branch of the Mandingo race, have made but little progress in civilization. The one product of their country which really excites them to labour is gold; and even it is so common and accessible that the rudest methods of collection are deemed sufficient. The most remarkable deposit is at Natakoo, where a considerable hill seems to be wholly composed of auriferous strata. There is also a good mine at Kenieba. In exchange for the gold, cloth, ornaments, and salt—the last a most valuable article—are imported. The usual beast of burden is the ass, the horse being only possessed by the very wealthiest in the country. Sheep and cattle are both pretty numerous. Unfortunately, the climate is very unhealthy, especially in the rainy season, which lasts for about four months, from July or August. The chief towns are Bambouk, Salaba, and Konkuba. The Portuguese early penetrated into Bambouk, and were even for some time masters of the country; but the inhabitants made a general rising and completely drove them out. Remains of their buildings, however, are still to be seen. The French, soon after they had formed their settlement on the Senegal, turned their attention to this land of gold. It was not till 1716, however, that Compagnon, under the auspices of De la Brue, the governor of Senegal, succeeded by great

address, and not without risk, in visiting various parts of the auriferous region; and his explorations were followed up by David, Levens, and others. Raffeneil visited the country in 1844, and Pascal, a naval lieutenant, was there in 1859. A few commercial stations or *comptoirs* have recently been established.

See Lubat, *Rel. de l'Afr. occid.*; De Golbéry, *Voy. en Afr. en 1785*; Amédée Tardieu, "Sénégal" in the *Univers pittoresque*; Raffeneil, *Voy. dans l'Afr. occid.*, 1846; *Revue algérienne et coloniale* for March 1860; Faidherbe, *Chapitres de géographie* and *Annuaire de Sénégal*.

BÁMIÁN, a once renowned city in the territory now subject to the Afghans, in 34° 50' N. lat., 67° 44' E. long. Its remains lie in a valley of the Hazara country, on the chief road from Kábul towards Turkestan, and immediately at the northern foot of that prolongation of the Indian Caucasus now called Koh-i-Baba (see vol. i. pp. 227, 241). The passes on the Kábul side are not less than 11,000 and 12,000 feet in absolute height, and those immediately to the north but little inferior. The river draining the valley is one of the chief sources of the Surkháb or Aksarai, an important tributary of the Upper Oxus (*ibid.* p. 241). The prominences of the cliffs which line the valley are crowned by the remains of numerous massive towers, whilst their precipitous faces are for 6 or 7 miles pierced by an infinity of ancient cave-dwellings, some of which are still occupied. The actual site of the old city is marked by mounds and remains of walls, and on an isolated rock in the middle of the valley are considerable ruins of what appears to have been the acropolis, now known to the people as Ghúlgúlah. But the most famous remains at Bámián are two colossal standing idols, carved in the cliffs on the north side of the valley. Burnes estimates the height of the greater at 120 feet, the other at half as much. These images, which have been much injured, apparently by cannon-shot, are cut in niches in the rock, and both images and niches have been coated with stucco. There is an inscription, not yet interpreted or copied, over the greater idol, and on each side of its niche are staircases leading to a chamber near the head, which shows traces of elaborate ornamentation in azure and gilding. The surface of the niches also has been painted with figures. In one of the branch valleys is a similar colossus, somewhat inferior in size to the second of those two; and there are indications of other niches and idols. As seen from the rock of Ghúlgúlah, Bámián, with its ruined towers, its colossi, its innumerable grottoes, and with the singular red colour of its barren soil, presents an impressive aspect of desolation and mystery.

That the idols of Bámián, about which so many conjectures have been uttered, were Buddhist figures, is ascertained from the narrative of the Chinese pilgrim, Hwen Thsang, who saw them in their splendour in 630 A.D. His description of the position of the city and images corresponds accurately with modern reports. He assigns to the greater image, which was gilt (the object, probably, of the plaster coating), a height of 140 or 150 feet, and to the second 100. The latter would seem from his account to have been sheathed with copper. Still vaster than these was a recumbent figure, 2 miles east of Bámián, representing Sakya Buddha entering *Nirvána*, i.e., in act of death. This was "about 1000 feet in length." No traces of this are alluded to by modern travellers, but in all likelihood it was only formed of rubble plastered (as is the case still with such *Nirvána* figures in Indo-China), and of no durability. For a city so notable Bámián has a very obscure history. It does not seem possible to identify it with any city in classical geography; *Alexandria ad Caucasum* it certainly was not. The first known mention of it seems to be that by Hwen Thsang, at a time when apparently it had already passed its meridian, and was the head of one of the small states into which the empire of the White Huns had broken up. At a later period Bámián was for half a century, ending 1214 A.D., the seat of a branch of the Ghori dynasty, ruling over Tokháristán, or the basin of the Upper Oxus. The place was long besieged, and finally annihilated (1222) by Chinghiz Khan, whose wrath was exacerbated at the death of a favourite grandson by an arrow from its walls. There appears to be no further record of Bámián as a city; but the character of ruins at Ghúlgúlah agrees with traditions on

the spot in indicating that the city must have been rebuilt after the time of the Mongols, and again perished. In 1840, during the British occupation of Kábul, Bámián was the scene of an action in which Colonel Denny with a small force routed Dost Mahomed Khan, accompanied by a number of Uzbek chiefs. (Burnes, *Journey to Bokhara*; Masson's *Journeys*, and his papers in the *J. As. Soc., Bengal*; Julien, *Pèlerins Bouddhistes*; E. Thomas in *J. R. As. Soc., &c.*) (H. Y.)

BAMPTON, REV. JOHN, founder of the series of divinity lectures at Oxford known as the *Bampton Lectures*, appears to have been born in 1689 and to have died in 1751. He was a member of Trinity Collège, Oxford, and for some time canon of Salisbury. His will directs that eight lectures shall be delivered annually on as many Sunday mornings in full term, "between the commencement of the last month in Lent term and the end of the third week in Act term, upon either of the following subjects:—to confirm and establish the Christian faith, and to confute all heretics and schismatics—upon the divine authority of the Holy Scriptures—upon the authority of the writings of the primitive fathers, as to the faith and practice of the primitive Church—upon the divinity of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ—upon the divinity of the Holy Ghost—upon the articles of the Christian faith as comprehended in the Apostles' and Nicene Creeds." The lecturer, who must be at least a Master of Arts of Oxford or Cambridge, is chosen yearly by the heads of colleges, and no one can be chosen a second time. The series of lectures began in 1780, and has continued to the present time unbroken, with the exception of the years 1834 and 1835, when no lecturers were appointed, and 1841, when no lectures were delivered. Several of the lecturers have been men of great eminence and ability; Heber, for instance, was selected in 1815, Whately in 1822, Milman in 1827, Horne in 1828, Hampden in 1832, Goulburn in 1850, Mansel in 1858, Liddon in 1866. The institution has done much to preserve, at least in some quarters, a high standard in English theology; and the lectures as a whole form a very valuable body of apologetic literature.

BANANA (*Musa sapientum*), a gigantic herbaceous plant belonging to the natural order *Musaceæ*, originally a native of the tropical parts of the East, but now cultivated in all tropical and sub-tropical climates. It forms a spurious kind of stem, rising 15 or 20 feet by the sheathing bases of the leaves, the blades of which sometimes measure as much as 10 feet in length by 2 feet across. The stem bears several clusters of fruit, which somewhat resemble cucumbers in size and form; it dies down after maturing the fruit. The weight of the produce of a single cluster is sometimes as much as 80 lb, and it was calculated by Humboldt that the productiveness of the banana as compared with wheat is as 133 to 1, and as against potatoes 44 to 1. The varieties of banana cultivated in the tropics are as numerous as the varieties of apples in temperate regions, and the best authorities now agree that no specific difference exists between it and the plantain. The fruit is extensively used as food; and in many of the Pacific islands it is the staple on which the natives depend. In its immature condition it contains much starch, which on ripening changes into sugar; and as a ripe fruit it has a sweet but somewhat flavourless taste. From the unripe fruit, dried in the sun, a useful and nutritious flour is prepared. The following represents the percentage composition of the pulp of the ripe fruit:—Nitrogenous matter, 4.820; sugar, pectin, &c., 19.657; fatty matter, 0.632; cellulose, 0.200; saline matter, 0.791; water, 73.900. An analysis of the flour by Dr Murray Thomson yielded the following results:—Water, 12.33; starch, 71.60; gum and sugar, 6.82; nitrogenous matter, 2.01; cellulose, 5.99; oil, 0.50; salts, 0.64.

BANAT, a district in the south-east of Hungary, consisting of the three counties of Thorontal, Temeswar, and Krasso, which has strangely acquired this title, though it was never governed by a "ban." It is bounded by the Theiss, the Maros, and the Danube, forming almost a regular parallelogram. The soil is in many parts a remarkably rich alluvial deposit. Under the Turkish yoke it was allowed to lie almost desolate in marsh and heath and forest; but Joseph II. determined to render it, if possible, a populous and prosperous district. He accordingly offered land, at a very low rate, to all who were willing to settle within its borders. Germans, Greeks, Turks, Servians, Italians, and Frenchmen responded to his call, and soon developed the agricultural resources of the region. Canals were formed at great expense of labour; marshes and forests were cleared; and now the Banat is one of the most highly cultivated parts of the Austrian empire. Wheat, barley, oats, rye, rice, maize, flax, hemp, sun-flowers, tobacco, grapes, and, in short, nearly all the productions of Europe, are successfully raised. The climate in summer is very like that of Italy, and in winter is milder than in other parts of Hungary. Nor is it any longer unhealthy, though, in 1777, Born spoke of it with horror as a realm of death, and the account given of it in 1802 by Dr Samuel Clarke was not much better. The scenery is extremely diversified, from the plains of Thorontal to the snowy mountains of Krasso. The mineral wealth is considerable, including copper, tin, lead, zinc, iron, and especially coal. Among its numerous mineral springs the most important are those of Menadia, which were known to the Romans as *Thermæ Herculis*. Not only there but in other parts of the Banat numerous remains of the Roman occupation still exist. The various origin of its inhabitants may still be easily traced,—the separate settlements having kept remarkably distinct, and in many cases preserving their native languages and customs. The chief town is Temeswar, and other places of importance are Lugos, Kikinda, Becskereh, and Werschitz. Population about 1,500,000.

See Griselini, *Versuch einer Gesch. des Temeswarer Banats*, Vienna, 1785; Hietzinger, *Versuch einer Statistik der Militärgrenze des Oesterreich. Kaiserth.*, Vienna, 1781; Böhm, *Geschichte des Temeswarer Banats*, Leipsic, 1861; Paget, *Hungary*, 1855.

BANBRIDGE, a town of Ireland, county of Down, on the Bann, 23 miles S.W. of Belfast, standing on the summit of an eminence. To facilitate access, a central carriage-way, 200 yards long, has been cut through the main street, to a depth of 15 feet, the opposite terraces being connected by a bridge. Banbridge is a neat town, with a handsome church, several chapels, a market-house (built in 1831), and a court-house. It is the principal seat of the linen trade in the county, and has extensive cloth and thread factories, bleachfields, and chemical works. Population in 1871, 5500.

BANBURY, a market-town, municipal and parliamentary borough, and railway junction, in the county of Oxford, 71 miles from London, and a little to the west of the River Cherwell and the Oxford and Birmingham canal. It is well built, and has two or three foundries, several breweries, and some other manufactures, but is chiefly dependent on the neighbouring villages which send their agricultural produce to its market. It was formerly famous for its cheese, and gives its name to a kind of cake of considerable repute. Its ancient cross, now destroyed, is celebrated in the well-known nursery rhyme. During the 17th century the inhabitants of Banbury seem to have been zealous Puritans, and are frequently satirized by contemporary dramatists (Cham-



Banbury Arms

bers's *Book of Days*, vol. ii. p. 316). At a somewhat earlier period the grammar school, which is now defunct, was of such repute as to be chosen as the model for the constitution of the school of St Paul's. A school of science was erected in 1861. Banbury returns one member to parliament, and the borough (which is partly in Northamptonshire) had, in 1872, a population of 11,726, of whom 4122 were in the town.

BANCA, BANKA, or BANGKA, an island off the east coast of Sumatra, and separated from it by the Strait of Banca, lies between lat. 1° 30' and 3° 7' S., and long. 105° 9' and 106° 54' E. It varies from 8 to 20 miles in breadth, and has an area of 5000 English square miles. Its mines of tin, which were discovered in 1710, are remarkably productive, and in 1872 yielded no less than 68,148 piculs, the average yield during the previous ten years being 73,961 piculs. The washing is almost wholly carried on by Chinese, and a large part of the metal finds its way to their country. Iron, copper, lead, silver, and arsenic, are also found in the island. The soil is generally dry and stony, and the greater part of the surface is covered with forests, in which the logwood tree especially abounds. Its mountains, which scarcely exceed 2000 feet in height, are covered with vegetation to their summits. They are of granitic formation, containing felspar, quartz, mica, and tourmaline. Population, 54,339, including 17,070 Chinese, 37,070 natives, 116 Europeans, and 56 Arabs. Muntak, the capital, has upwards of 3000 inhabitants. "The houses, which mostly belong to Chinamen, are neatly built and well painted; the streets are kept in good repair, and the whole place has an air of enterprise and thrift" (*vide* Bickmore's *East Indian Archip.*, 1868). There are several other forts on the island. It belongs to the Dutch, who derive from it upwards of 3,000,000 guilders, or £250,000, of annual income, after the expenses of the administration are paid.

BANCROFT, RICHARD, Archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of James I., distinguished as an inflexible opponent of Puritanism, was born at Farnworth in Lancashire in 1544. He was educated at Cambridge University, studying first at Christ's College, and afterwards at Jesus College. He took his degree of B.A. in 1567, and that of M.A. in 1570. Ordained about that time, he was named chaplain to Dr Cox, then bishop of Ely, and in 1575 was presented to the rectory of Teversham in Cambridgeshire. The next year he was one of the preachers to the university, and in 1584 was presented to the rectory of St Andrew's, Holborn. His unquestionable abilities, and his zeal as a champion of the church in those unsettled times, secured him rapid promotion, and at length the highest ecclesiastical position in the land. He graduated B.D. in 1580, and D.D. five years later. In 1585 he was appointed treasurer of St Paul's Cathedral, London. On February 9, 1589, he preached at Paul's Cross a sermon on 1 John iv. 1, the substance of which was a passionate attack on the Puritans. He described their speeches and proceedings, caricatured their motives, denounced the exercise of the right of private judgment, and set forth the divine right of bishops in such strong language that one of the queen's councillors held it to amount to a threat against the supremacy of the Crown. Sixteen days after the publication of this ecclesiastical manifesto, Bancroft was made a prebendary of St Paul's. Within a few years he was advanced to the same dignity in the collegiate church of Westminster, and in the cathedral church of Canterbury. He was chaplain successively to Lord Chancellor Hatton and Archbishop Whitgift. In May 1597 he was consecrated bishop of London; and from this time, in consequence of the age and incapacity for business of Archbishop Whitgift, he was virtually invested with the power of primate, and had the sole management of

ecclesiastical affairs. Among the more noteworthy cases which fell under his direction were the proceedings against Martin Mar-Frelate, Cartwright and his friends, and the pious Penry, whose "seditious writings" he caused to be intercepted and given up to the Lord Keeper. In 1600 he was sent on an embassy, with others, to Embden, for the purpose of settling certain matters in dispute between the English and the Danes. This mission, however, failed. Bishop Bancroft was present at the death of Queen Elizabeth. He took a prominent part in the famous conference of the prelates and the Presbyterian divines held at Hampton Court in 1604. By the king's desire he undertook the vindication of the practices of confirmation, absolution, private baptism, and lay excommunication; he urged, but in vain, the re-inforcement of an ancient canon, "that schismatics are not to be heard against bishops;" and in opposition to the Puritans' demand of certain alterations in doctrine and discipline, he besought the king that care might be taken for a *praying clergy*; and that, till men of learning and sufficiency could be found, godly homilies might be read and their number increased. In the capacity of a commissioner for ecclesiastical causes (1603), he advocated severe measures for the suppression of "heresy and schism," treating books against Episcopacy as acts of sedition, and persecuting their authors as enemies of the state. In March 1604, Bancroft, in consequence of the death of the primate, was appointed by royal writ president of Convocation then assembled; and he there presented for adoption a book of canons collected by himself. In the following November he was elected successor to Whitgift in the see of Canterbury. He had now but six years of life before him. He continued to show the same zeal and severity as before, and with so much success that Lord Clarendon, writing in his praise, expressed the opinion that "if Bancroft had lived, he would quickly have extinguished all that fire in England which had been kindled at Geneva." In 1605 he was sworn a member of the Privy Council. The same year he engaged in a contest with the judges, and exhibited articles of complaint against them before the lords of the council; but these complaints were overruled. He enforced discipline and exact conformity within the church with an iron hand; and forty-nine ministers of the church were deprived of their livings for disobedience to his injunctions. In 1608 he was chosen chancellor of the University of Oxford. One of his latest public acts was a proposal laid before the parliament for improving the revenues of the church. In the last few months of his life he took part in the discussion about the consecration of certain Scottish bishops, and it was in pursuance of his advice that they were consecrated by several bishops of the English Church. By this act were laid the foundations of the Scottish Episcopal Church. Archbishop Bancroft was "the chief overseer" of the authorized version of the Bible, published within a year of his death. He died at Lambeth Palace, November 2, 1610. His literary remains are very few and unimportant.

BANDÁ, a district of British India, in the Alláhábád division, under the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, lies between 24° 59' 15" and 25° 55' 30" N. lat., and 80° 2' 45" and 81° 38' E. long. It is bounded on the N. by the district of Fathipur, from which it is separated by the River Jamná; on the N.E. by the districts of Fathipur and Alláhábád; on the S.E. by the native state of Riwá; on the S. and S.W. by some of the petty states of Bundelkhand; and on the W. and N.W. by the district of Hamirpur. Area, 3030 square miles, of which 1390 are under cultivation, 848 cultivable but not cultivated, 108 revenue free, and 684 uncultivable waste. The census of 1872 took the area at 2908.68 square miles, and returned the district population at 697,610 souls—

viz., Hindus, 657,107; Mahometans, 40,497; Christians, 6. Average density, 230 persons to the square mile. Of the population in 1872, 2897 were landed proprietors, 42,230 agriculturists, and 63,644 non-agriculturists. In some parts the district rises into irregular uplands and elevated plains, interspersed with detached rocks of granite; in others it sinks into marshy lowlands, which frequently remain under water during the rainy season. The sloping country on the bank of the Jamná is full of ravines. To the S.E. the Vindhya chain of hills takes its origin in a low range not exceeding 500 feet in height, and forming a natural boundary of the district in that direction. The principal river of the district is the Jamná, which flows from north-west to south-east, along the N.E. boundary of the district for 125 miles. Its most important tributaries within the district are the Ken, Bágain, Paisuní, and Oháh, all of which take their rise in the Vindhya hills. The principal towns and market villages in the district are Maa, Májháon or Rájápur, Marká, Samgará, Augásí, Chillá, and Barágáon, all situated on the bank of the Jamná.

The black soil of the district yields abundant crops of wheat, barley, maize, millet of various sorts, rice, and pulses. Hemp, oil-seeds, sugar, and indigo are also grown, but by far the most important crop is cotton, for which the district is so celebrated that the produce is distinguished in commerce as "Bándá Cotton." The estimated acreage under the principal crops—Gram (*Cicer arietinum*), 138,662 acres; wheat, 134,247; maize, 126,198; cotton, 69,667; barley, 60,976; rice, 20,987; total, 550,737 acres, or 860.52 square miles. The total cultivated area of the district is returned at 1390 square miles. The manufactures of Bándá consist of coarse cotton-cloth, sackcloth, and stone handles for knives. Iron and building stone form the only mineral products. The revenue of the district amounted in 1870-71 to £167,438, the expenditure being £63,425. Since the acquisition of the country by the British, eight settlements of the land revenue have been made at different periods. The last (1834-35) of these adjusted the demand at £134,904, and the total collections amounted in 1870-71 to £131,275. In 1871 the regular police force of 620 men was maintained at a cost of £8920, while a rural constabulary of 2552 men was maintained at the cost of the landholders and villagers. In 1871-72 there were 214 schools in the district, with an average daily attendance of 4695 pupils; expenditure, £2194, of which Government paid £754. Bándá district has only two towns containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants, viz., Bándá (27,746) and Girwán (6670). Bándá, the headquarters of the district, lies on the right bank of the River Ken, in lat. 25° 28', long. 80° 23'. Thirty-six miles of the Jalalpur branch of the East Indian Railway lie within the district, and eleven first-class roads afford good means of communication—the most important road, both commercially and for military purposes, being that from Mánikpur to Chillá. The climate of Bándá is cold in the winter months, and terribly hot in summer. Frost is rare, except in the moist land adjoining the rivers; the hot winds frequently cause deaths among the natives from exposure to the mid-day heat. Rainfall in 1870-71, 51.3 inches.

Bándá has formed an arena of contention for the successive races who have struggled for the sovereignty of India. Kalinjár town, then the capital, was unsuccessfully besieged by Mahmud of Ghazni in 1023 A.D.; in 1196 it was taken by Kutab-ud-din, the general of Muhammad Ghorí; in 1545 by Sher Shah, who, however, fell mortally wounded in the assault. About the year 1735 the Rájá of Kalinjár's territory, including the present district of Bándá, was bequeathed to Bájí Ráo, the Marhattá Peshwá; and from the Marhattás it passed by the treaties of 1802-3 to the Company.

BANDA ISLANDS, a group in the East Indian Archipelago, lying to the S. of Ceram, in lat. 4° 30' S. and long. 129° 50' E. They are ten or twelve in number, and have an area of about 7150 square miles. Their volcanic origin is distinctly marked. Banda Lantoir, which derives its name from the *lantar* or Palmyra palm, is the largest of the group. From the sea this island appears lofty,—its sides being steep, and crowned by a sort of table-land which extends nearly from one end to the other. The whole is one continuous forest of nutmeg and *Canari* trees, the latter being planted to screen the former from the wind. The unhealthiness of Lantoir has prevented it from becoming the seat of government, for which in other respects it would naturally be chosen. The village of Selam contains the ruins of the chief Portuguese settlement. A considerable