

Church. They are the deposits, in short, of Christian tradition, handed down first of all, and probably for a considerable period, in an oral form, before being committed to writing in such a form as we now have them. This, which is now an accepted conclusion with every historical school of theologians in England no less than in Germany, conservative no less than radical, is largely the result of the Tübingen investigations. It may have been understood before, but its historical significance was not appreciated. In short, if we distinguish Baur's method from his special opinions it is hardly possible to overrate his influence as a theologian. His professed method was to seek for the solution of great spiritual as of great intellectual phenomena in a closer and more minute study of all the documents and data purporting to record or explain these phenomena, and to run out such lines of fact as he found to their true consequences. His great genius and learning enabled him to read the meaning of certain features of Primitive Christianity hitherto imperfectly discerned, and to point future inquirers along the true road of discovery. Unhappily, his own opinions were influenced not merely by his study of facts, but by a great speculative system which dominated his intelligence, and prevented him from seeing what still seems to most minds not less informed than his own the only credible explanation of the vast spiritual movement whose forces and developments occupied his lifelong study.

BAUTAIN, LOUIS EUGÈNE MARIE, a French philosopher and theologian, was born at Paris in February 1796, and died in October 1867. At the Ecole Normale he came under the influence of Cousin, whose views on most philosophic points he at first accepted. In 1816 he adopted the profession of higher teaching, and was soon after called to the chair of philosophy in the University of Strasburg. He continued in this position for many years, delivering a parallel course of lectures as professor of the literary faculty in the same city. The strong reaction against merely speculative philosophy, which carried away such men as De Maistre and De Lamennais, was not without influence on Bautain. In 1828 he took orders, and resigned his chair at the university. For several years he remained at Strasburg, lecturing at the Faculty and at the College of Julliy; but in 1849 he set out for Paris as vicar of the diocese. At Paris he obtained considerable reputation as an orator, and in 1853 was made professor of moral theology at the theological faculty. This post he held till his death. Bautain is rather a scholastic than a modern philosopher. His view of the relation between reason and faith is essentially the same as that of Anselm and his great successors. Revelation is supposed to give materials which could not otherwise have been attained by the human mind, and philosophy supplies the scientific exposition or evolution of these facts. Theology and philosophy thus form one com-

prehensive science; yet the system is far removed from Rationalism. Bautain in fact, like Pascal, Newman, and others, depreciates reason in order to exalt faith. He points out, following chiefly the Kantian criticism, that reason is limited in application, and can never yield knowledge of things as they are in themselves. But in addition to reason, we have, according to him, another faculty which may be called Intelligence, and through which we are put in connection with the world of spiritual and invisible truth. This intelligence does not of itself yield a body of truth; it merely contains the germs of the higher ideas, and these seeds are made productive by being brought into contact with revealed facts. This fundamental conception Bautain works out in detail in the departments of psychology and morals. His works, to which we can only refer, are well deserving of attention. The most important of them are—*Philosophie du Christianisme*, 1833; *Psychologie Expérimentale*, 1839 (new edition entitled *Esprit Humain et ses Facultés*, 1859); *Philosophie Morale*, 1842; *Religion et Liberté*, 1848; *La Morale de l'Évangile comparée aux divers systèmes de Morale*, 1855.

BAUTZEN (in Wendish *Budissin*, which is equivalent to "town"), the capital of Saxon Upper Lausatia, occupies an eminence on the right bank of the Spree, 680 feet above the level of the sea, and 32 E.N.E. from Dresden. Lat. 51° 11' 10" N., long. 14° 25' 50" E. The town is well built and surrounded by walls, and has extensive suburbs partly lying on the left bank of the river. It has a cathedral which is used by both Protestants and Roman Catholics, and five other churches, a handsome town-house, an orphan-asylum, several hospitals, a mechanics' institute, a famous gymnasium, a normal and several other schools, and two public libraries. Its general trade and manufactures are considerable, including linen, cotton, and woollen goods, tobacco, leather, paper, saltpetre, gunpowder, &c. Population in 1871, 13,165. Bautzen was already in existence when Henry the Fowler conquered Lausatia in 928. It became a town and fortress under Otto I., his successor, and speedily attained considerable wealth and importance, for a good share of which it was indebted to the pilgrimages which were made to the "Arm of St Peter," preserved in one of the churches. It suffered greatly during the Hussite war, and still more during the Thirty Years' War, in the course of which it was besieged and captured by the Electoral Prince, John George (1620), and taken by the Electoral Prince of Saxony. At the Peace of Prague in 1635 it passed with Lausatia to Saxony as a war indemnity. The battle of Bautzen was fought here on the 21st and 22d of May 1813, between the French under Napoleon and the allied forces of Russia and Prussia, in which after severe losses on both sides, the latter were defeated.

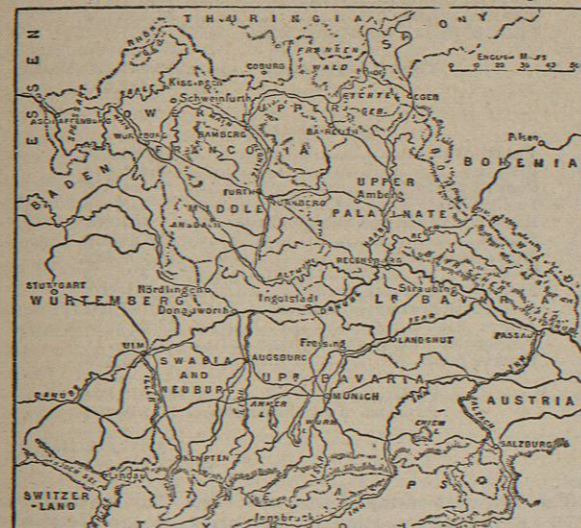
BAVARIA

BAVARIA (in German, *Bayern*), a kingdom of Southern Germany, forming part of the German Empire, consists of two distinct portions, Bavaria proper and the Palatinate of the Rhine, which are separated by the grand duchies of Baden and Hesse. Bavaria proper contains an area of about 26,895 miles, and the Palatinate rather less than 2282, making the whole extent of the kingdom about 29,177 square miles.

The frontier of Bavaria proper on the north-east, towards Bohemia, consists of a long range of mountains known as the Böhmerwald; while the north is occupied by the Fichtelgebirge and the Frankenwald, which separate Bavaria from Reuss, Meiningen, and Hesse-Darmstadt. The ranges

last named seldom exceed the height of 3000 or 4000 feet; but the ridges in the south, towards the Tyrol, form part of the system of the Alps, and frequently attain an elevation of 9000 or 10,000 feet. On the west it is bounded by Württemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt. The whole of the country belongs to the basins of the Danube and the Main; by far the greater portion being drained by the former river, which, entering from Swabia as a navigable stream, traverses the entire breadth of the kingdom, with a winding course of 200 miles, and receives in its passage the Iller, the Lech, the Isar, and the Inn from the south, and the Naab, the Altmühl, and the Wörnitz from the north. The Inn is navigable before it enters the

bavarian territory, and afterwards receives the Salza, a large river flowing from Upper Austria. The Isar does not become navigable till it has passed Munich; and the Lech is a stream of a similar size. The Main traverses the northern regions, or Upper and Lower Franconia, with a very winding course, and greatly facilitates the trade of the provinces. The district watered by the southern tributaries of the Danube consists for the most part of an extensive plateau, with a mean elevation of 2390 feet. In the mountainous parts of the country there are numerous lakes, and in the lower portions considerable stretches of marshy ground. The climate of Bavaria differs greatly



according to the character of the region, being cold in the vicinity of the Tyrol but warm in the plains adjoining the Danube and the Main. On the whole, the temperature is in the winter months considerably colder than that of England, and a good deal hotter during summer and autumn.

The extent of forest is more than twice that of the land under wood in Great Britain. It forms more than a fourth of the total area of Bavaria, while in Britain the proportion is less than a twenty-sixth. This is owing to various causes—the extent of hilly and mountainous country, the thinness of the population, and the necessity of keeping a given extent of ground under wood for the supply of fuel. Nearly a third of the forests are public property, and furnish a considerable addition to the revenue. They are principally situated in the provinces of Upper Bavaria, Lower Bavaria, and the Upper Palatinate. The level country, including both Lower Bavaria (extending northwards to the Danube), and the western and middle parts of Franconia, is very productive in rye, oats, wheat, barley, and millet, and also in hemp, flax, hops, madder, and (in warm situations) in vines. The last are grown chiefly in the vicinity of the Lake of Constance and on the banks of the Main, in the lower part of its course, while the most extensive hop-growing district is central Franconia. Potatoes are cultivated in all the provinces, but especially in the Palatinate and in the Spessart district, which lies in the north-west within a curve of the Main. The southern division of Swabia and Upper Bavaria, where pasture-land predominates, form a cattle-breeding district, and the dairy produce is extensive, no less than 11,000 tons of cheese and 2386 tons of butter being sold in the course of a year. The former finds a market all over Germany, and is also

exported to Austria, France, and other countries, while Northern Germany is the chief consumer of the latter. The greater proportion of the land throughout the kingdom is in the hands of peasant proprietors, the extent of the separate holdings differing very much in different districts. The largest peasant property may be about 170 English acres, and the smallest, except in the Palatinate, about 50. According to the returns for 1863 the number of cattle in the kingdom was 3,185,688; sheep, 2,058,638; swine, 926,522; and goats, 150,855. Oxen are largely employed in agricultural operations instead of horses. The cattle, as a general rule, are kept in sheds, and not pastured in the fields.

Of mineral deposits Bavaria possesses a great variety. The quantity of iron ore is very large both in the south and north, the number of mines being between 200 and 300. Coal-mines are likewise numerous, especially in the districts of Amberg, Kissingen, Steben, Munich, and the Rhine Palatinate. The produce in 1867 was nearly 351,000 tons. Of quicksilver there are several mines, chiefly in the Palatinate of the Rhine; and small quantities of copper, manganese, and cobalt are obtained. There are numerous quarries of excellent marble, alabaster, gypsum, and building stone; and the porcelain-clay is among the finest in Europe. To these may be added graphite, emery, steatite, barytes, felspar, and ochre, in considerable quantities; excellent lithographic stone is obtained at Solnhofen; and gold and silver are still worked to an insignificant extent. Salt is annually prepared on a large scale, being obtained partly from brine springs and partly from mines. The principal localities are Halle, Berchtesgaden, Traunstein, and Rosenheim. The gross production in 1866 was 41,119 tons, and the value at the works amounted to £62,869. In the following year the Government monopoly, which had existed so long, was abolished, and free trade was established in salt between the members of the customs-union, a change which has led to a considerable import of salt from Prussia.

A great stimulus was given to manufacturing industry in Bavaria by the law of 1868, which abolished the last remains of the old restrictions of the guilds, and gave the whole country the liberty which had been enjoyed by the Rhine Palatinate alone. The chief manufacturing centres are Nuremberg and Munich for hardware, and Augsburg for cloth goods; but various other towns are rising into importance. In Franconia are numerous paper-mills, and saw-mills are naturally common in the forest districts. A considerable quantity of glass is manufactured, especially in the Böhmerwald, and wooden wares are largely produced at Ammergau and Berchtesgaden. The preparation of the favourite national drink forms an important industry,—the breweries throughout the kingdom numbering upwards of 5000. Among the most remarkable are the breweries of Erlangen. Other articles of manufacture are leather, tobacco, and earthenware.

The exports from Bavaria consist chiefly of salt, timber, cattle, pigs, corn, and madder; and the imports comprise sugar, tobacco, raw cotton and cotton-goods, silks and linen, iron and iron-ware. As most of the imports are introduced indirectly through other Zollverein states, no custom-house register is kept of the total amount.

The highroads in Bavaria extend in all over 9000 miles. In 1869 there were rather more than 1600 miles of railway in operation, and nearly 300 were in course of construction. The greater proportion is in the hands of the Government, and the remainder belongs to the Eastern Company and the United Railway Companies of the Rhine Palatinate. The principal canal in the kingdom is the Ludwigs-canal, which connects the Rhine with the Danube, extending from Bamberg on the Regnitz to Dietfurt on

the Altmühl. There is an extensive network of telegraphs, all of which belong to, and are worked by, the Government post-office.

The Bavarians proper form a distinct section of the German race, speaking a well-defined dialect of the High German, but a large portion of the population of the country is of Swabian origin. The national character resembles that of the Austrians, being generally marked by fidelity and loyalty. In matters of religion they are credulous and even superstitious; and the will of their superiors is received by the lower orders with great deference both in political and ecclesiastical affairs. Independence of thought and action have, however, been gradually increasing; and now that the country has become part of the German empire, a rapid transfusion of intellectual and political life is apparently taking place.

The present form of government is founded partly on long-established usage and partly on a constitutional act, passed in May 1818, and modified by subsequent acts, of which the most important was passed in 1848-9. The monarchy is hereditary, with a legislative body of two houses. The title of the sovereign is simply king of Bavaria; that of his presumptive heir is crown-prince of Bavaria. The executive power is vested altogether in the king, whose person is declared inviolable, the responsibility rests with the ministers, whose functions are nearly the same as those of ministers in England; and there are offices for foreign affairs for the home department, for religion and education, for the treasury, the army, and the administration of justice. These are all situated in Munich, the capital. The upper house of the Bavarian parliament, known as the Chamber of the *Reichsräthe*, comprises the princes of the blood-royal, the two archbishops, the barons or heads of certain noble families, a Roman Catholic bishop and Protestant clergyman appointed by the Crown, and any other members whom the king may nominate either as hereditary peers or as counsellors for life; but these last must not exceed a third of the hereditary members. The lower house, or Chamber of Representatives (*Wahlkammer*), consists of about 150 deputies, who formerly were chosen in definite proportions from the different classes of the community, an eighth part from the nobility, another eighth from the clergy, a fourth part from the burghers, and the remaining half from the landed proprietors; but since 1848 they may be selected without any such restrictions. A general election takes place once in six years, one deputy being allowed for every 7000 families in the kingdom. The election, however, is indirect,—electoral proxies, or *Wahlmänner*, to whom the real election is entrusted, being chosen by the general body of electors at the rate of one proxy to every 500 men. The king generally convenes the parliament once a year, and by the constitution it is obligatory on him to do so at least once in three years.

The following is a statement of the budget for the year 1874-5, in marks (equal to 1s. sterling):—

RECEIPTS.		
Direct Taxes.	Marks.	
Land tax.....	11,433,323	
Tax on buildings.....	1,995,986	
Tax on licences.....	2,820,000	
Tax on capital.....	1,628,571	
Tax on income.....	857,143	
		18,739,123
Indirect Taxes.		
Registration.....	10,889,006	
Stamp-duty.....	3,286,029	
Malt tax.....	17,727,137	
Customs.....	1,344,171	
		33,246,343
Carry forward,		51,985,466

Brought forward,	51,985,466
Royalties and State Establishments.	
Mines and Salt-works.....	8,788,285
Coinage.....	245,045
Railways.....	58,281,257
Post-office.....	7,705,261
Telegraphs.....	1,315,029
Ludwig canal.....	138,581
Sundries.....	437,772
	76,911,240
Domains.....	36,212,277
Special duties.....	55,366
Other receipts.....	598,188
Surplus of eleventh financial period.....	10,851,428
Imperial subsidy.....	34,580,760
Share of French indemnity.....	857,143
Total receipts.....	212,051,868 Marks.
	or £10,602,593

DISBURSEMENTS.	
Public debt.....	27,581,400
Civil list.....	5,415,470
Council of state.....	104,965
Parliamentary expenses.....	346,006
Royal household and foreign affairs.....	671,091
Justice.....	11,764,618
Home department.....	18,209,522
Treasury.....	2,359,553
Religion and education.....	18,476,318
Contribution to imperial funds.....	14,747,691
Army.....	34,580,760
Pensions to widows and orphans.....	1,689,771
Reserve fund.....	899,409
Total.....	186,846,594
Expenses of administration.....	75,205,274
	212,051,868 Marks.
	or £10,602,593

The Bavarian army forms, since the 23d November 1870, a separate portion of the army of the German empire, with a distinct administration; but its organization is subject to the general imperial rules, and in time of war it is placed under the command of the emperor. It comprises two *corps d'armée*, each divided into two divisions. In time of peace its infantry consists of 26,590 men, distributed in sixteen regiments; besides which there are ten battalions of *chasseurs*, 5500 strong, and thirty-two battalions of *landwehr*; the cavalry numbers 7200 men divided into ten regiments, and the artillery amounts to 5528 men in six regiments; there are also two battalions of pioneers and as many of the military train. In time of war the total force is raised to 149,892, or rather more than trebled.

The districts of Lower Bavaria, Upper Bavaria, and the Upper Palatinate are almost wholly Catholic, while in the Rhine Palatinate, Upper Franconia, and especially Middle Franconia, the preponderance is on the side of the Protestants. The exercise of religious worship in Bavaria is altogether free. The Protestants have the same civil rights as the Catholics, and the sovereign may be either Catholic or Protestant. Of the Roman Catholic Church the heads are the two archbishops of Munich-Freising and Bamberg, and the six bishops of Eichstädt, Spire, Würzburg, Augsburg, Regensburg, and Passau, of whom the first three are suffragans of Bamberg. The "Old Catholic" party has recently taken considerable hold of the country, and has organized congregations in all the more important towns. Among the Protestants the highest authority is the general consistory of Munich. The proportion of the different religions in 1871 was as follows:—Roman Catholics, 3,464,364; Protestants, 1,342,592; Jews, 50,662; lesser Christian sects, 5453; other religions, 379. Bavaria was formerly as backward in regard to educa-

tion as Austria, or any part of the south of Germany; but lately considerable efforts have been made to lessen the prevailing ignorance. At Munich there are scientific and literary academies, as well as a university, a lyceum, a gymnasium, and other public schools. The university has a very numerous attendance of students, ranking third in the new German empire; and there are two provincial universities on a small scale, one (Catholic) at Würzburg, the other (Protestant) at Erlangen in Franconia. In the kingdom at large there are ten lyceums, twenty-eight gymnasia, about sixty progymnasia, besides ten normal, twenty-six trade, three polytechnic, and upwards of 7000 common schools. These certainly form a great contrast to the indifference and neglect of former times; and the Government continues to evince much solicitude for the diffusion of instruction. Technical schools here, as in other parts of Germany, have been established for the purpose of affording to mechanics more suitable education than they could otherwise obtain, including mathematics, mechanics, drawing, chemistry, architecture, &c. These schools are supported by the commune, aided when necessary by the province, and commissioners are annually sent by Government to examine and report upon them to the minister of trade. The course extends over three years, from the age of twelve to fifteen, after which pupils may enter one of three polytechnic schools, where a still higher course of instruction is imparted, also extending over three years; but engineers have a special fourth year's course. A building school was established at Munich in 1823, and is chiefly intended for carpenters and masons, who are there instructed in architecture, drawing, geometry, stone-cutting, modelling ornaments, &c.

The duchy of Bavaria during the Middle Ages consisted of the southern half of the present kingdom, and lay almost all to the south of the Danube, extending about 100 miles from that river to the Tyrol, and somewhat more from Swabia on the west to Austria on the east. The addition in 1623 of the Upper Palatinate, a province of full 3000 square miles, to the north of the Danube, gave the elector a territory of about 15,000 square miles, with a population of less than 1,000,000, which in a century and a half had increased to about 1,500,000. In 1778 the succession of the Rhenish branch of the reigning family added the Palatinate of the Rhine; and in 1806 a large augmentation was effected by Napoleon, who presented the king with the districts of the Lower Main and the Rezat, and with part of those of the Upper Main and the Upper Danube; not to mention Tyrol, which was afterwards restored to Austria. Some slight changes have taken place in the extent of the kingdom since then; but its general character has not been affected. The most important cession of recent years was that of part of Franconia in 1866 to Prussia, amounting to 291 square miles, with a population of 32,976 inhabitants. The following table gives the present and former division of the kingdom and its population in 1818, 1846, and 1871 respectively:—

Old Circles.	New Circles.	Area in Eng. Miles.	Population.		
			1818.	1846.	1871.
Isar	Upper Bavaria	6556	585,467	705,544	841,707
Lower Danube	Lower Bavaria	4141	450,895	543,709	603,789
Regen	Upper Palatinate	3717	403,481	467,606	497,861
Upper Main	Upper Franconia	2692	394,954	501,163	541,063
Rezat	Middle "	2906	437,838	527,866	583,666
Lower Main	Lower "	3230	501,212	692,080	886,132
Upper Danube	Swabia "	3651	487,951	658,436	822,773
Rhine	Rhine Palatinat	2282	446,168	608,470	615,035

The total population in 1871, including the troops then absent in France, amounted to 4,863,450. The density

of population varies considerably in the different districts from about 273 inhabitants to the square mile in the Palatinate to 128 in Upper Bavaria. As represented by the increase of each successive census the growth of the population is rather slow, but a large amount of emigration to America and elsewhere has to be taken into account. A very considerable number of the people are urban, as may be seen from the following list of principal towns (arranged in the order of the circles) with their populations:—

Upper Bavaria	Munich (capital).....	169,693
	Ingolstadt.....	13,157
	Landshut.....	14,140
Lower Bavaria.....	Passau.....	13,379
	Straubing.....	11,150
Upper Palatinate....	Ratisbon (or Regensburg).....	29,185
	Amberg.....	11,688
	Bamberg.....	25,738
Upper Franconia....	Bayreuth.....	17,841
	Hof.....	16,010
	Nuremberg.....	88,214
Middle Franconia	Fürth.....	24,577
	Ansbach.....	12,636
	Erlangen.....	12,510
Lower Franconia....	Würzburg.....	40,005
	Schweinfurt.....	10,325
	Aschaffenburg.....	9,212
Swabia.....	Augsburg.....	51,220
	Kempten.....	11,223
	Kaiserslautern.....	17,896
Palatinate of Rhine.	Spire.....	13,223
	Neustadt.....	9,320

The name in German, *Bayern*, or *Baiern*, is derived, like Latin *Botaria*, from Boii, the name of a Celtic people by whom the country, which then formed part of Rhatia, Vindelicia, and Noricum, was inhabited in the time of Augustus. After the fall of the Roman power the natives were governed by chieftains of their own till the era of Charlemagne, who subjugated this as well as most other parts of Germany. After his death Bavaria was governed by one of his grandsons, whose successors bore the title of Margrave, or Lord of the Marches. In the year 920 the ruling margrave was raised to the rank of duke, which continued the title of his successors for no less than seven centuries. During this period Bavaria was connected with Germany nationally by language and politically as a frontier province, but in civilization was almost as backward as Austria, and was greatly behind Saxony, Franconia, and the banks of the Rhine. At last, in 1620, the reigning duke, having rendered great service to Austria against an insurrection in Bohemia, received an important accession of territory at the expense of the Elector Palatine, and was appointed one of the nine electors of the empire. His successors continued faithful members of the Germanic body and allies of Austria until 1771, when the elector Max Emanuel began to assist Louis XIV. of France by threatening and attacking Austria, so as to prevent her from co-operating efficiently with England and Holland. This induced the duke of Marlborough, in the spring of 1704, to march his army above 300 miles from the banks of the Meuse to invade Bavaria, the fate of which was decided by the battle of Blenheim on the 13th August 1704. For ten years from this date the elector and his remaining forces served in the French armies, and his country was governed by imperial commission until the peace of Utrecht, or more properly that of Baden, in 1714 reinstated him in his dominions.

His son Charles Albert, who succeeded him in 1726, untaught by these disasters, renewed his connection with France; and, in 1740, on the death of the emperor of Germany, came forward as a candidate for the imperial crown. He obtained the nomination of a majority of the electors, and overran a considerable part of the Austrian territory; but his triumph was of short duration, for the armies of Maria Theresa not only repulsed the Bavarians,

but obtained in 1744 possession of the electorate. The elector died soon after, and his son Maximilian Joseph recovered his dominions only by renouncing the pretensions of his father.

Bavaria now remained tranquil above thirty years, until 1777, when, by the death of Maximilian, the younger line of the house of Wittelsbach, the line which had long ruled in Bavaria, became extinct. The next heir was Charles Theodore the Elector Palatine, the representative of the elder line of Wittelsbach; but Austria unexpectedly laid claim to the succession, and took military possession of part of the country. This called into the field, on the side of Bavaria, Frederic II. of Prussia, then advanced in years; but, before any blood had been shed, Austria desisted from her pretensions, on obtaining from Bavaria the frontier district which bears the name of Innaviertel, or the Quarter of the Inn.

Bavaria again remained at peace until the great contest between Germany and France began in 1793, when she was obliged to furnish her contingent as a member of the empire. During three years her territory was untouched; but in the summer of 1796, a powerful French army under Moreau occupied her capital, forced her to sign a separate treaty with France, and to withdraw her contingent from the imperial army. The next war between France and Austria, begun in 1799, ending disastrously for the latter, the influence of France in the empire was greatly strengthened, so that, when the Austrians once more took up arms, in 1805, Bavaria was the firm ally of France, and for the first time found advantage in the connection,—its elector, Maximilian Joseph, receiving from Napoleon the title of king and several additions of territory.

Bavaria continued to support the French interest with her best energies till 1813, when, on condition of her late acquisitions being secured to her, she was led to join the Allies, and her forces contributed largely to the ultimate defeat of Bonaparte. In 1818 Maximilian presented his country with a constitution, of rather a mixed character, in which an attempt was made at once to satisfy the growing desire for political liberty and to maintain the kingly power. At the same time several beneficial measures, such as the abolition of serfdom, were effected in the earlier sessions of the new parliament. In 1825 Maximilian was succeeded by his son Louis, who distinguished himself as a promoter of the fine arts, but proved himself destitute of political capacity, and in consciousness

BAXAR, or BUXAR, a town of Hindustán, in the province of Behar, district of Sháhábád, on the south bank of the Ganges, in 25°32' N. lat., 84°3' E. long. The fort, though of small size, was important from its commanding the Ganges, but is now dismantled. The place is distinguished by a celebrated victory gained on the 23d October 1764 by the British forces under Major (afterwards Sir Hector) Munro, over the united armies of Sujá-ud-Daulah and Kasim Ali Khán. The action raged from 9 o'clock till noon, when the enemy gave way. Pursuit was, however, frustrated by Sujá-ud-Daulah sacrificing a part of his army to the safety of the remainder. A bridge of boats had been constructed over a stream about 2 miles distant from the field of battle, and this the enemy destroyed before their rear had passed over. Through this act 2000 troops were drowned, or otherwise lost; but destructive as was this proceeding, it was, says Major Munro, "the best piece of generalship Sujá-ud-Daulah showed that day, because if I had crossed the rivulet with the army, I should either have taken or drowned his whole army in the Karamnási, and come up with his treasure and jewels, and Kasim Ali

of his disagreement with the spirit of his times, abdicated in March 1848 in favour of his son Maximilian II. It was not long before the difficulties of the new king were distinctly brought to view by the insurrection of the democratic party in Westphalia. By the assistance of Prussia the rising was quelled, and punishment was so ruthlessly inflicted by the tribunals that the trials became known as the bloody assizes. An anti-liberal reaction set in, and many of the political gains of former years were consequently lost. In 1864 King Louis was succeeded by his son of the same name (Louis II.); and at this time the great question on the future hegemony of Germany was being agitated throughout the country. In the war of 1866 the Bavarian Government and people threw in their lot with Austria, shared in the contest, and were involved in the defeat and loss. On the withdrawal of Austria from the German confederation a change of policy was introduced, and the Government veered round to the interests of Prussia, a course which was confirmed by the Franco-German War of 1870, when Bavaria took an active part with Prussia against the common enemy. Much ferment, however, remained in the country, and religious elements were introduced into the political discussions. The clerical, or, as it styles itself, the patriot party, is opposed to Prussian influence, and contends for "particularism," wishing to maintain a greater degree of independence for Bavaria than seems to be compatible with imperial unity. For a number of years the Government has been in the hands of the Liberal party. Thus a series of the most important measures have been passed with a liberal tendency, and the country is being gradually assimilated to the more advanced states of Northern Germany. The focus of the Liberal party is the Palatinate of the Rhine, while the "patriots" are mainly recruited from the districts of Old Bavaria. The decisive triumph of the former was marked by the treaty of November 23, 1870, between Bavaria and the Confederation of Northern Germany, which was followed by the recognition of the king of Prussia as the head of a new German empire. At the same time a greater degree of independence was granted to Bavaria than to the other members of the Confederation; it was freed from the domiciliary surveillance of the empire, and allowed to retain the administration of its own postal and telegraph systems, while its army has a separate organization, and during peace is under the command of the Bavarian king.

Khán's jewels, which I was informed amounted to between two and three millions." Population in 1872, 13,446.

BAXTER, ANDREW, an able metaphysician, the son of a merchant in Old Aberdeen, was born in 1686 or 1687, and educated at King's College there. After leaving the university he acted for some years as tutor to various young gentlemen, among others to Lord Gray, Lord Blantyre, and Mr Hay of Drummelzier. In 1733 he published, in quarto, but without date, *An Inquiry into the Nature of the Human Soul*, wherein its immateriality is deduced from the principles of reason and philosophy. In 1741 he went abroad with Mr Hay, and resided several years at Utrecht, from which place he made excursions into Flanders, France, and Germany. He returned to Scotland in 1747, and resided at Whittingham, in Haddingtonshire, till his death, which occurred on April 23, 1750. His principal work, besides the *Inquiry*, was a short dialogue entitled *Matho, sive Cosmotheoria puerilis, Dialogus in quo prima elementa de mundi ordine et ornatu proponuntur*, &c. This was afterwards greatly enlarged, and published in English in two volumes 8vo. In 1750 was published an appendix to

his *Inquiry into the Nature of the Human Soul*, in which he endeavoured to remove some difficulties which had been started against his notions of the *vis inertiae* of matter, by Maclaurin, in his *Account of Sir Isaac Newton's Philosophical Discoveries*. To this Baxter prefixed a dedication to John Wilkes, with whom he had formed acquaintance abroad. The *Inquiry* is a work of no small ability. The author begins by examining, after the principles of the Newtonian philosophy, the properties of matter. All, save one, result from forces which act on matter. The one essential property of matter is its inactivity, *vis inertiae*, or resistance to motion. From this single fact it at once follows that all action or movement must be the effect of some immaterial cause, *i.e.*, of God. The spontaneous motions of the body are not of the same kind as the mechanical movements of the external universe, and are accordingly to be ascribed to a special immaterial force, or spirit, the soul. From the immateriality of the soul its immortality is, of course, deduced. Nor does the conscious existence of the soul depend upon that of the body; it lives after death. Baxter supports his argument by a long analysis of the phenomena of dreams, which he ascribes to direct spiritual influence, and finally attempts to prove that matter is not eternal. A second edition of the *Inquiry* was published in 1737, and a third in 1745.

BAXTER, RICHARD, one of the most eminent of English divines, styled by Dean Stanley "the chief of English Protestant Schoolmen," was born at Rowton in Shropshire, at the house of his maternal grandfather, on November 12, 1615. His family connections were favourable to the growth of piety. But his early education was much neglected, and he did not study at any university, a circumstance worthy of notice, considering the eminent learning to which he afterwards attained. His best instructor was a Mr John Owen, master of the Free School at Wroxeter. His diligence in the acquirement of knowledge was remarkable; and from the first he had a strong bent towards the philosophy with which religion is concerned.—Mr Francis Garbet of Wroxeter being the director of these studies. For a short time his attention was turned to a court life, and he went to London under the patronage of Sir Henry Herbert, master of the revels, to follow that course; but he very soon returned home with a fixed resolve to cultivate the pursuit of divinity. Practical rather than speculative theology seems to have occupied his mind, and he therefore presented himself for ordination without any careful examination of the Church of England system. He was nominated to the mastership of the Free Grammar School, Dudley, in which place he commenced his ministry, having been ordained and licensed by Thornborough, bishop of Worcester. His popularity as a preacher was, at this early period, very great; and he was soon transferred to Bridgnorth, where, as assistant to a Mr Madstard, he established a reputation for the vigorous discharge of the duties of his office.

During this time he took a special interest in the controversy relating to Nonconformity and the English Church. He soon, on some points, became alienated from the Church; and after the requirement of what is called "the *et cetera* oath," he rejected Episcopacy in its English form. He could not, however, be called more than a moderate Nonconformist; and such he continued to be throughout his life. Though commonly denominated a Presbyterian, he had no exclusive attachment to Presbyterianism, and often manifested a willingness to accept a modified Episcopalianism. All forms of church government were regarded by him as subservient to the true purposes of religion.

One of the first measures of the Long Parliament was to effect the reformation of the clergy; and, with this view,

a committee was appointed to receive complaints against them. Among the complainants were the inhabitants of Kidderminster, a town which had become famous for its ignorance and depravity. This state of matters was so clearly proved that an arrangement was agreed to on the part of the vicar, by which he allowed £60 a year, out of his income of £200, to a preacher who should be chosen by certain trustees. Baxter was invited to deliver a sermon before the people, and was unanimously elected as the minister of the place. This happened in 1641, when he was twenty-six years of age.

His ministry continued, with very considerable interruptions, for about nineteen years; and during that time he accomplished a work of reformation in Kidderminster and the neighbourhood which is as notable as anything of the same kind upon record. Civilized behaviour succeeded to brutality of manners; and, whereas the professors of religion had been but small exceptions to the mass, the unreligious people became the exceptions in their turn. He formed the ministers in the country around him into an association for the better fulfilment of the duties of their calling, uniting them together irrespective of their differences as Presbyterians, Episcopalians, and Independents. The spirit in which he acted may be judged of from *The Reformed Pastor*, a book published in relation to the general ministerial efforts he promoted. It drives home the sense of clerical responsibility with extraordinary power. The result of his action is that, to this day his memory is cherished as that of the true apostle of the district where he laboured.

The interruptions to which his Kidderminster life was subjected arose from the condition of things occasioned by the Civil War. Worcestershire was a cavalier county, and a man in Baxter's position was, while the war continued, exposed to annoyance and danger in a place like Kidderminster. He therefore removed to Gloucester, and afterwards settled in Coventry, where he for the most part remained about two years, preaching regularly both to the garrison and the citizens. After the battle of Naseby he took the situation of chaplain to Colonel Whalley's regiment, and continued to hold it till February 1647.

His connection with the Parliamentary army was a very characteristic one. He joined it that he might, if possible, counteract the growth of the sectaries in that field, and maintain the cause of constitutional government in opposition to the republican tendencies of the time. He regretted that he had not previously accepted an offer of Cromwell to become chaplain to the Ironsides, being confident in his power of persuasion under the most difficult circumstances. His success in converting the soldiery to his views does not seem to have been very great, but he preserved his own consistency and fidelity in a remarkable degree. By public disputation and private conference, as well as by preaching, he enforced his doctrines, both ecclesiastical and political, and shrank no more from urging what he conceived to be the truth upon the most powerful officers than he did from instructing the meanest followers of the camp. Cromwell shunned his society; but Baxter having to preach before him after he had assumed the Protectorship, chose for his subject the old topic of the divisions and distractions of the church, and in subsequent interviews not only opposed him about liberty of conscience, but spoke in favour of the monarchy he had subverted. There is a striking proof of Baxter's insight into character in his account of what happened under these circumstances. Of Cromwell he says, "I saw that what he learned must be from himself." It is worthy of notice that this intercourse with Cromwell occurred when Baxter was summoned to London to assist in settling "the fundamentals of religion," and made the memorable declaration in answer to the objection, that