the property of the city. English and German companies supply the city with gas. A system of underground drainage is at present in process of construction. Internal communication is kept up by means of tramways, omnibuses, and cabs. In 1873 there were 54 tram-carriages, 185 omnibuses, and 4424 cabs licensed, served by 10,060 horses.

Berlin is governed by the president of police, by the municipal authorities, and in military matters by the governor and commandant of the city. The police president stands under the minister of the interior, and has the control of all that stands related to the maintenance of public order. The municipal body consists of a burgomaster-in-chief, a burgomaster, a body of town councillors (Stadträthe), and a body of town deputies (Stadtverordnete). For municipal purposes the city is divided into 16 townships and 210 districts. For police purposes the *work* is divided into six departments, and an extra department for the fire brigade and street cleaning, and the *town* into six larger and fifty smaller districts. At the head of each larger district is a police captain, at the head of each smaller district a police lieutenant.

With the exception of a few of the higher schools, which are under the direct supervision of the provincial authorities, the Berlin schools are either under the direct supervision of the municipal body or of its committee for school purposes. The schools, public and private, are divided into higher, middle, and elementary. In 1872 there were 24 higher public schools. Of these, 10 were gymnasia or schools for the highest branches of a learned education. In these schools there were 138 classes and 5073 pupils, of whom 2142 were over, and 2931 under, 14 years of age. The second class of high schools, the so-called Realschulen, give instruction in Latin, but otherwise devote almost exclusive attention to the departments of mathematics, science, history, modern languages, and the requirements of the higher stages of general or commercial life. Of this class of school there were also 10, with 143 classes, 5770 pupils, of whom 1931 were over, and 3839 under, 14 years of age. The remaining 4 high schools were for girls, with 54 classes, 2522 pupils, of whom 529 were over, and 1993 under, 14 years of age. In addition to these public schools there were 7 higher schools for boys, with 55 classes and 2098 pupils, and 36 higher schools for girls, with 243 classes and 6629 pupils.

Within the last five years (1875) no new school of this class has been established, but several are in process of erection. Between 1869 and 1873 the city voted about £328,747 sterling for the purchase of sites, and for enlarging and rebuilding schools of this class; and the sum still required for schools of this class, up to 1877, is £352,500 sterling.

The total number of schools of all sorts, higher, middle, and elementary, public and private, in 1872, was 232, with 1072 boys' classes, 1009 girls' classes, and 4 mixed classes—together, 2085; attended by 50,316 boys, 44,959 girls—together, 95,275 children, of whom 7309, or 7·35 per cent., were over 14 years of age. The extent to which the schools are used under the law of compulsory education is very difficult to determine. In 1867 there were 103,383 children of the school age, but only 71,814, or 69·5 per cent., were in the schools. Dr Schwabe, by a criticism of these numbers, reduces the percentage of non-attendance to 13 per cent., and maintains that even these are not all to be regarded as absolutely without instruction. In 1871 it was found that out of every 10,000 persons of 70 years of age and upwards, there were 1529 who could neither read nor write; and that out of a like number from 60 to 70, there were 860; 50 to 60, 446; 40 to 50, 234; 30 to 40, 158; 25 to 30, 155; 20 to 25, 71; 15 to 20, 58; and from 10 to 15, 48.

The scholastic life of Berlin culminates in its university, which is, of course, not a municipal, but a national institution. It is, with the exception of Bonn, the youngest of the Prussian universities, but the first of them all in influence and reputation. It was founded in 1810. Prussia had lost her celebrated university of Halle, when that city was included by Napoleon in his newly created "kingdom of Westphalia." It was as a weapon of war, as well as a nursery of learning, that Frederick William III., and the great men whose names are identified with its origin, called it into existence, for it was felt that knowledge and religion are the true strength and defence of nations. William v. Humboldt was at that time at the head of the educational department of the kingdom, and men like Fichte and Schleiermacher worked the popular mind. It was opened on the 15th of October 1810. Its first rector was Schmalz; its first deans of faculty, Schleiermacher, Biener, Hufeland, and Fichte. Within the first ten years of its existence it counted among its professors such names as De Wette, Neander, Marheineke; Savigny, Eichhorn; Böckh, Bekker, Hegel, Raumer, Wolff, Niebuhr, and Buttmann. Later followed such names as Hengstenberg and Nitzsch; Homeyer, Bethman-Hollweg, Puchta, Stahl, and Heffter; Schelling, Trendelenburg, Bopp, the brothers Grimm, Zumpt, Carl Ritter; and at the present time it can boast of such names as Twesten and Dorner; Gneist and Hinschius; Langenbeck, Bardeleben, Virchow, and Du Bois-Reymond; von Ranke, Mommsen, Curtius, Lepsius, Hoffman the chemist, and Kiepert the geographer. Taking ordinary, honorary, and extraordinary professors, licensed lecturers (*privatdocenten*), and readers together, its present professorial strength consists of 15 teachers in the faculty of theology, 14 in the faculty of law, 63 in the faculty of medicine, and 96 in the faculty of philosophy—together, 188. The number of matriculated and unmatriculated attendants on the various lectures averages 3000 in the summer term, and 3500 in the winter. During the last two or three years, however, the number has been steadily decreasing. Berlin, in point of numbers, still stands at the head of the Prussian universities, but no longer of the German universities, being now outstripped by Leipsic.

In addition to its schools and its university, Berlin is rich in institutions for the promotion of learning, science, and the arts. It has a Royal Academy of Sciences, with 46 members, 23 in the class of physics and mathematics, and 23 in the class of philosophy and history. It was founded on the 11th of June 1700, and the name of Leibnitz is associated with its foundation. It was raised to the rank of a Royal Academy by Frederick the Great in 1743. Berlin has also a Royal Academy of Arts, consisting of 39 ordinary members (1875), under the immediate protection of the king, and governed by a director and a senate, composed of 15 members in the departments of painting, sculpture, architecture, and engraving, and 4 members in the section for music. Berlin has also its academy for vocal music, and its royal high school for music in all its branches, theoretical and applied, and learned bodies and associations of the most various kinds. It has 9 public libraries, at the head of which stands the royal library, with 710,000 volumes and 15,000 manuscripts. In addition to these, there are 15 people's libraries established in various parts of the city.

Berlin possesses eight public museums, in addition to the Royal Museums and the National Gallery. The Royal Museums are the Old and the New Museums. The former, which stands on the north-east side of the Lustgarten, facing the castle, is the most imposing building in Berlin. It was built in the reign of Frederick William III., from designs by Schinkel. Its portico, supported by 18 colossal Ionic columns, is reached by a wide flight of steps. The museum covers 47,000 square feet of ground, and is 276 feet long, by 170 feet wide and 61 feet high. The back and side walls of the portico are covered with frescoes, from designs by Schinkel, executed under the direction of Cornelius, and representing, in mythical and symbolical figures, the world's progress from shapeless and chaotic to organic and developed life. The sides of the flight of steps support the well-known equestrian bronze groups of the Amazon by Kiss, and the Lion-slayer by Albert Wolff. Under the portico are monuments of the sculptors Rauch and Schadow, the architect Schinkel, and the art critic Winckelmann. The interior consists of a souterrain, containing the collection of antiquities, and of a first floor, entered from the portico through bronze doors of artistic merit, made after designs by Stüler, weighing 7½ tons, and executed at a cost of £3600. This floor consists of a rotunda, and of halls and cabinets of sculpture. The second floor, in a series of cabinets running round the entire building, contains the national collection of paintings. These are divided into three classes,—the Italian, French, and Spanish; the Dutch, Flemish, and German; and the Byzantine, Italian, Dutch, and German pictures down to the end of the 15th century—each of the classes being chronologically arranged. The gallery, then containing 1300 paintings, was enriched in 1874 by the valuable pictures of the Suermondt gallery, purchased by the nation at a cost of £51,000. The Suermondt gallery was rich in pictures of the old Netherland and German schools, and of the Dutch and Flemish schools. It also contained a few Spanish, Italian, and French pictures.

The New Museum is connected with the Old Museum by a covered corridor. In its interior arrangements and decoration it is undoubtedly the most splendid structure in the city. Like the Old Museum, it has three floors. The lowest of these contains the Ethnographical and Egyptian Museums and the Museum of Northern Antiquities. In the first floor, plaster casts of ancient, mediæval, and modern sculpture are found in thirteen halls and in three departments. On the walls of the grand marble staircase, which rises to the full height of the building, Kaulbach's renowned cyclus of stereochromic pictures is painted, representing the six great epochs of human progress, from the confusion of tongues at the Tower of Babel and the dispersion of the nations to the Reformation of the 16th century. The uppermost story contains the collection of engravings and the gallery of curiosities.

The National Gallery is an elegant building, after designs by Stüler, situated between the New Museum and the Spree, and is intended to receive the collection of modern paintings now exhibited provisionally in the apartments of the Academy.

The public monuments are the equestrian statues of the Great Elector on the Lange Brücke, erected in 1703; Rauch's celebrated statue of Frederick the Great, "probably the grandest monument in Europe," opposite the emperor's palace, Unter den Linden; and the statue of Frederick William III. in the Lustgarten. In the Thiergarten is Drake's marble monument of Frederick William III.; and in the neighbouring Charlottenburg, Rauch's figures of the same king and the Queen Louise in the mausoleum in the Park. A second group of monuments on the Wilhelm's Platz commemorates the generals of the Seven Years' War; and a third, in the neighbourhood of the Opera, the generals who fought against Napoleon I. On the Kreuzberg, the highest spot in the neighbourhood of Berlin, a Gothic monument in bronze was erected by Frederick William III. to commemorate the victories of 1813–15; and in the Königsplatz the present emperor has erected a column of victory in honour of the triumphs of 1864, 1866, and 1870. This monument rises to the height of 197 feet, the gilded figure of Victory on the top being 40 feet high.

Literature, science, and art are represented in different parts of the city by statues and busts of Rauch, Schinkel, Thaer, Beuth, Schadow, Winckelmann, Schiller, Hegel, Jahn; while the monuments in the cemeteries and churches bear the names of distinguished men in all departments of political, military, and scientific life.

Next to Leipsic, Berlin is the largest publishing centre in Germany. In the year 1872 there were 1540 works published in Berlin, of which 20 per cent. had to do with literature, 15 per cent. with philology and pedagogy, 14 per cent. with law and politics, 7 per cent. with history, 6 per cent. were military works, 5 per cent. theological, 5 per cent. had to do with agriculture, and 4 per cent. with medicine. Turning to journals and periodical literature, 265 newspapers and magazines, daily, weekly, or monthly, appeared in the same year. The political journals in Berlin do not, however, sustain the same relation to the political life of Germany as do the political journals of London and Paris to that of England and France.

Berlin is not only a centre of intelligence, but is also an important centre of manufacture and trade. Its trade and manufactures appear to be at present in a transition state—old branches are dying out, and new branches are springing into existence. Direct railway communication between the corn lands of north-eastern Germany, Poland, and Russia on the one hand, and the states of Central and Western Germany on the other, have deprived Berlin of much of its importance as a centre of trade in corn and flour. In like manner the spirit trade and manufacture have suffered. The 20,892,493 litres exported in 1870 had sunk to 9,737,597 litres in 1872. On the other hand, for petroleum, Berlin has become an emporium for the supply of the Mark of Brandenburg, part of Posen, Silesia, Saxony, and Bohemia. Silk and cotton manufacture, which in former times constituted a principal branch of Berlin manufacture, has died out. As late as 1849 Berlin had 2147 silk looms; now it has few or none. Woollen manufacture maintained its ground for a time, occupying about 8000 looms and 11,404 workmen as late as 1861. In 1874 the number of hands employed in spinning and weaving in all branches had sunk to 2918. The chief articles of manufacture and commerce are locomotives and machinery; carriages; copper, brass, and bronze wares; porcelain; and the requisites for building of every description. The manufacture of sewing-machines has assumed large proportions, from 70,000 to 75,000 being manufactured annually. According to the report of the Government inspector of factories for the city of Berlin, presented to the minister of trade and commerce, the number of persons employed in all the Berlin factories in the year 1874 was 64,466. By a "factory" was understood any wholesale manufacturing establishment employing more than 10 persons. In 1874 there were 1906 such factories at work, employing 51,464 males and 11,004 females above 16 years of age; 1137 males and 760 females under 16 and above 14 years of age; and 66 male and 14 female children under 14 years of age. The manufacture of steam-engines and machinery occupied 14,737 persons; brass-founding, metallic belt and lamp manufacture, 9074; carpentry, joinery, and wood-carving, 4548; printing, 3620; spinning and weaving, 2918; sewing-machines and telegraphic apparatus, 2788; the finer qualities of paper, 2585; porcelain and ware, 1741; dyeing, 1712; gas-works, 1518; tobacco and cigars, 1477; manufacture of linen garments, 1355; pianos and harmoniums, 1198; dressmaking and artificial flowers, 1127; brewing, 1061. None of the other branches found occupation for 1000 persons. The value of the annual exports to the United States of articles of Berlin manufacture has risen to about £1,000,000 sterling. The exports to the Brazils, the Argentine Republic, and

Japan are also increasing. Berlin is growing in importance as a money market and centre of industrial undertakings. The Berlin Cassenverein, through which the banking houses transact their business, passed £1,351,988,967 sterling through its books in 1872, as compared with £644,431,255 sterling in 1871. In 1872, 23 new banking establishments were enrolled in the trade register, with a capital of £7,565,000 sterling; and in the same year 144 new joint-stock companies were enrolled, representing a capital of £18,000,000 sterling. Since that time the tide of enterprise has ebbed, but the majority of these undertakings continue to exist.

In the progress of its growth Berlin has lost much of its original character. The numerical relations of class to class have been greatly modified. New political institutions have sprung into existence, of which the Berlin of the early years of Frederick William IV. had not a trace. It has become the seat of a parliament of the realm, and of a parliament of the empire. Manufacture and trade have come to absorb 70 per cent. of the entire population. But these have also changed their character; old branches which constituted a marked feature of its commercial and manufacturing activity have almost suddenly died out, while new branches have with equal rapidity more than supplied their place. While the commercial and manufacturing element has thus increased, other elements have undergone a relative decline. The learned professions and the civil service numbered in 1867 7·9 per cent. of the population. In 1871 the proportion had sunk to 6·11, and since then the percentage has gone on decreasing. In this altered state of affairs Berlin will have to cherish and nurture the scientific, educational, ethical, and religious elements in her life with double care, not only to keep up her old reputation abroad, but also for the purpose of preventing the degeneration of her people at home.

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BERLIOZ, Hector, by far the most original composer of modern France, was born in 1803 at Côte-Saint-André, a small town near Grenoble, in the department of Isère. His father was a physician of repute, and by his desire our composer for some time devoted himself to the study of the same profession. At the same time he had music lessons, and, in secret, perused numerous theoretical works on counterpoint and harmony, with little profit it seems, till the hearing and subsequent careful analysis of one of Haydn's quartets opened a new vista to his unguided aspirations. A similar work written by Berlioz in imitation of Haydn's masterpiece was favourably received by his friends. From Paris, where he had been sent to complete his medical studies, he at last made known to his father the unalterable decision of devoting himself entirely to art, the answer to which confession was the withdrawal of all further pecuniary assistance. In order to support life Berlioz had to accept the humble engagement of a singer in the chorus of the Gymnase theatre. Soon, however, he became reconciled to his father and entered the Conservatoire, where he studied composition under Reicha and Lesueur. His first important composition was an opera called *Les Francs-Juges*, of which, however, only the overture remains extant. In 1825 he left the Conservatoire, disgusted, it is said, at the dry pedantry of the professors, and began a course of autodidactic education, founded chiefly on the works of Beethoven, Gluck, Weber, and other German masters. About this period Berlioz saw for the first time on the stage the talented Irish actress Miss Smithson, who was then charming Paris by her impersonations of Ophelia, Juliet, and other Shakespearean characters. The young enthusiastic composer became deeply enamoured of her at first sight, and tried, for a long time in vain, to gain the responsive love or even the attention of his idol. To an incident of this wild and persevering courtship Berlioz's first symphonic work, *Episode de la Vie d'un Artiste*, owes its origin. It describes the dreams of an artist who, under the influence of opium, imagines that he has killed his mistress, and in his vision witnesses his own execution. It is replete with the spirit of contemporary French romanticism and of self-destructive Byronic despair. A written programme is added to each of the five movements to expound the imaginative material on which the music is founded. By the advice of his friends Berlioz once more entered the Conservatoire, where, after several unsuccessful attempts, his cantata *Sardanapalus* (1830) gained him the first prize for foreign travel, in spite of the strong personal antagonism of one of the umpires. During a stay in Italy Berlioz composed an overture to *King Lear*, and *Le Retour à la Vie*,—a sort of symphony, with intervening poetical declamation between the single movements, called by the composer a melologue, and written in continuation of the *Episode de la Vie d'un Artiste*, along with which work it was performed at the Paris Conservatoire in 1832. Paganini on that occasion spoke to Berlioz the memorable words: "Vous commencez par où les autres ont fini." Miss Smithson, who also was present on the occasion, soon afterwards consented to become the wife of her ardent lover. The artistic success achieved on that occasion did not prove to be of a lasting kind. Berlioz's music was too far remote from the current of popular taste to be much admired beyond a small circle of esoteric worshippers. It is true that his name became known as that of a gifted though eccentric composer; he also received in the course of time his due share of the distinctions generally awarded to artistic merit, such as the ribbon of the Legion of Honour and the membership of the Institute. But these distinctions he owed, perhaps, less to a genuine admiration of his compositions than to his influential position as the musical critic of the *Journal des Debats* (a position which he never used or abused to push his own works), and to his successes abroad. In 1842 Berlioz went for the first time to Germany, where he was hailed with welcome by the leading musicians of the younger generation, Robert Schumann foremost amongst them. The latter paved the way for the French composer's success, by a comprehensive analysis of the *Episode* in his musical journal, the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*. Berlioz gave successful concerts at Leipsic and other German cities, and repeated his visit on various later occasions—in 1852, by invitation of Liszt, to conduct his opera, *Benvenuto Cellini* (hissed off the stage in Paris), at Weimar; and in 1855 to produce his oratorio-trilogy, *L'Enfance du Christ*, in the same city. This latter work had been previously performed at Paris, where Berlioz mystified the critics by pretending to have found one part of it, the "Flight into Egypt," amongst the manuscript scores of a composer of the 17th century, Pierre Ducré by name. Berlioz also made journeys to Vienna (1866) and St Petersburg (1867), where his works were received with great enthusiasm. He died in Paris, March 9, 1869.

Berlioz has justly been described as the French representative of musical *Romanticism*, and his works are in this respect closely connected with the contemporary movement in literature known by that name. The affinity between him and Victor Hugo, for instance, is undeniable, and must be looked for deeper than in the fantastic eccentricities and breaches of the established form common both. His ready acknowledgment of congenial aspirations in foreign countries, so adverse to French natural prejudice, may be cited as another essentially "romantic" feature in Berlioz's character. In his case, however, the predilection for English literature, as shown in the choice of several of his most important subjects from Shakespeare, Byron, and Walter Scott, may be to some extent explained from his connection with Miss Smithson, a striking instance of the relation between life and art in a man of high creative faculty.

The second powerful element in Berlioz's compositions is the influence of Beethoven's gigantic works. The grand forms of the German master's symphonies impressed him with competitive zeal, and what has been described as the "poetical idea" in Beethoven's creations soon began to run riot in the enthusiastic mind of the young medical student. But, in accordance with the aversion of his national character to indistinct ideal notions, he tried to condense the poetical essence of his inspiration in the tangible shape of a story, and in this manner became the father of what is generally called "programme-music." Whether the author of such works as *Harold en Italie*, or the *Episode de la Vie d'un Artiste*, may lay claim to the prophet's cloak is difficult to decide; he must at any rate be accepted as a man strong in his own convictions, "a swallower of formulas," and faithful ally in the great cause of nature *versus* traditional artificiality, of Shakespeare against pseudo-classicism. Under such circumstances we can hardly be surprised at seeing Berlioz appreciated sooner and more lastingly in Germany than in his own country. Schumann and Liszt were, as we have mentioned, at various periods amongst the foremost promoters of his music. We subjoin a list of the more important works by Berlioz not mentioned above, viz., the symphonies *Roméo et Juliette* (1834), and *Damnation de Faust* (1846); the operas *Béatrice et Bénédict* (1862), and *Les Troyens* (1866); a Requiem, and *Tristia*, a work for chorus and orchestra, written on the death of his wife. Of his spirited literary productions we mention his *Voyage musical en Allemagne et en Italie* (1845), *Les Soirées d'Orchestre* (1853), *A travers Chant* (1862), and his incomparable *Traité d'Instrumentation* (1844). The characteristics of Berlioz's literary style are French *verve* and *esprit*, occasionally combined with English humour and German depth of idea. The time has hardly yet arrived for judging finally of Berlioz's position in the history of his art. His original ideas, his poetical intentions, nobody can deny; the question is whether he possesses genuine creative power to carry out these intentions, and, first of all, that broad touch of nature which leads from subjective feeling to objective rendering, and which alone can establish a lasting *rápport* between a great artist and posterity. To decide this question the performances of his works have as yet, unfortunately, been too few and far between. In England, particularly, only a very small fraction of his compositions has been heard. (F. H.)

BERMUDAS, Somers's Islands, or Summer Islands, a group in the Atlantic Ocean, the seat of a British colony, in lat. 32° 20′ N. and long. 64° 50′ W., about 600 miles E. by S. from Cape Hatteras on the American coast. They lie to the south of a coral reef or atoll, which extends about 24 miles in length from N.E. to S.W., by 12 in breadth. The largest of the series is Great Bermuda, or Long Island, enclosing on the east Harrington or Little Sound, and on the west the Great Sound, which is thickly studded with islets, and protected on the north by the islands of Somerset, Boaz, and Inland. The remaining members of the group, St George's, Paget's, Smith's, St David's, Cooper's, Nonsuch, &c., lie to the east, and form a semicircle round Castle Harbour. The islands are wholly composed of a white granular limestone of various degrees of hardness, from the crystalline "base rock," as it is called, to friable grit. It seems that they are in a state of subsidence and not of elevation. The caves which usually appear in limestone formations are well represented, many of them running far into the land and displaying a rich variety of stalagmites and stalactites. Among the less ordinary geological phenomena may be mentioned the "sand glacier" at Elbow Bay. The surface soil is a curious kind of red earth, which is also found in ochre-like strata throughout the limestone. It is generally mixed with vegetable matter and coral sand. There is a total want of streams and wells of fresh water, and the inhabitants are dependent on the rain, which they collect and preserve in tanks. The climate of the Bermudas has a reputation for unhealthiness which is hardly borne out, for the ordinary death-rate is only 22 per 1000. Yellow fever and typhus, however, have on some occasions raged with extreme violence, and the former has appeared four times within the space of thirty years. The maximum reading of the thermometer is about 85·8, and its minimum 49,—the mean annual temperature being 70° Fahr., and that of March 65°. Vegetation is very rapid, and the soil is clad in a mantle of almost perpetual green. The principal kind of tree is the so-called "Bermudas cedar," really a species of juniper, which furnishes timber for small vessels. The shores are fringed with the mangrove; the prickly pear grows luxuriantly in the most barren districts; and wherever the ground is left to itself the sage-bush springs up profusely. The citron, sour orange, lemon, and lime grow wild; but the apple and peach do not come to perfection. The loquat, an introduction from China, thrives admirably. The gooseberry, currant, and raspberry, all run to wood. The oleander bush, with all its beauty, is almost a nuisance. The soil is very fertile in the growth of esculent plants and roots; and a considerable trade has grown up within recent years between Bermudas and New York, principally in arrowroot, of excellent quality, onions, Irish potatoes, and tomatoes. Regular steam communication between the island and that city is maintained, the Government subsidizing the vessels. The total value of the export of these articles in 1872 was £64,030. Medicinal plants, as the castor-oil plant, aloe, and jalap, come to great perfection without culture; and coffee, indigo, cotton, and tobacco are also of spontaneous growth. Tobacco curing ceased about 1707. Few oxen or sheep are reared in the colony, a supply being obtained from North America; but goats are kept by a large number of the inhabitants. The ass is the usual beast of burden. The indigenous Mammalia are very few, and the only Reptilia are a small lizard and the green turtle. Birds, however, especially aquatic species, are very numerous,—one of the commonest being the cardinal-grosbeak. The list includes the cat-bird, blue-bird, kingfisher, ground-dove, blue heron, sandpiper, moorhen, tropic bird, and Carolina crake. Insects are comparatively few; but ants swarm destructively in the heat of the year, and a species of ant-lion, a cicada (scissor-grinder), and the chigre or jigger, are common. Fish are plentiful round the coasts, and the whale-fishery was once an important industry. Gold-fish, introduced from Demerara, swarm in the ditches.

There are two towns in the Bermudas, St George's, founded in 1794, and Hamilton, founded in 1790, and incorporated in 1793. The former was the capital till the senate and courts of justice were removed by Sir James Cockburn to Hamilton, which being centrally situated, is much more convenient. The streets of St George's are close and narrow, and the drainage bad. It is a military station, the barracks lying to the east of the town. The population is about 2000. Hamilton, in the Great Bermuda, at the bottom of a bay which is entered by Trenblin's Narrows, consists of an irregular half-street fronting a line of wharves. Its principal buildings include a court-house, a legislative assembly house, a council room, a library (1839), a jail, and a large church. About a mile from the town is Langton, the governor's residence. In Inland Island is situated the royal dockyard and naval establishment. A hospital stands on the highest point, and a lunatic asylum has also been built. The bay is defended by a breakwater. On Boaz Island there is a convict station. A causeway, opened in 1871, runs from St George's through Longbird Island westward, across Castle Harbour. The harbour of St George's has space enough to accommodate the whole British navy; yet, till deepened by blasting, the entrance was so narrow as to render it almost useless. A marine slip was constructed in 1865, with a capacity of 1200 tons. The chief military establishment is at Prospect