

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.

Sources of information:—Von Klöden, *Handbuch der Länder- und Staatenkunde von Europa*; Daniel, *Handbuch der Geographie*, vol. iv.; Fidein, *Historisch-Diplomatische Beiträge zur Geschichte der Stadt Berlin*, 5 vols.; Köpke, *Die Gründung der Fred. Wilhelm Universität zu Berlin*; Wiese, *Das Höhere Schulwesen in Preussen*, 3 vols. *Das Statistische Jahrbuch von Berlin*, 1867 to 1874. Dr H. Schwabe, *Resultate der Volkszählung und Volksbeschreibung vom 1^{ten} December 1871*, Berlin, Simion. (G. P. D.)

BERLIOZ, *Берлиоз*, by far the most original composer of modern France, was born in 1803 at Côte-Saint-Anré, 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 Débats* (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 Ducrey 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 lustily 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 *Tristitia*, 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 rapport 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 Somersset, 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 limestones. 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 crane. 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.

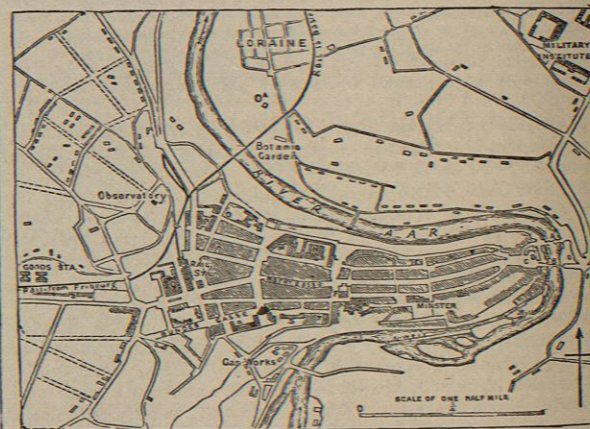
There are two towns in the Bermudas, St George's, founded in 1794, and Hamilton, founded in 1790, and incorporated in 1793. The former was the capital till the senate and courts of justice were removed by Sir James Cockburn to Hamilton, which being centrally situated, is much more convenient. The streets 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

Hill. The Government consists of a governor appointed by the Crown, and a privy council of nine members appointed by the governor. The House of Assembly consists of thirty-six members, who receive salaries. The Acts are usually passed for a definite period, and require to be renewed from time to time. Much of the judicial administration is left to unpaid magistrates. The currency of the colony, which had formerly twelve shillings to the pound sterling, was assimilated to that of England in 1842. The colony is ecclesiastically attached to the bishopric of Barbados. Both Presbyterians and Wesleyans are endowed. There are numerous schools, and in 1847 an educational board was established; but the general educational condition is unsatisfactory. Of 2600 children between the ages of five and six, only about 1500 attend school. Sunday schools are of much greater importance than in England, and most of them have libraries. The revenue of the islands in 1872 was £33,256, inclusive of £1500 raised by loan; the gross expenditure was £32,236; and the public debt amounted to £17,330. The population in 1850 was 11,092, of whom 4669 were whites; by the census of 1871 it had increased to 12,121.

The discovery of the Bermudas resulted from the shipwreck of Juan Bermudez, a Spaniard (whose name they now bear), when on a voyage from Spain to Cuba with a cargo of hogs, about the year 1522. Henry May, an Englishman, suffered the same fate in 1593; and lastly, Sir George Somers shared the destiny of the two preceding navigators in 1609. Sir George was the first who established a settlement upon them, but he died before he had fully accomplished his design. In 1612 the Bermudas were granted to an offshoot of the Virginia Company, which consisted of 120 persons, 60 of whom, under the command of Mr Henry More, proceeded to the islands; and an accession of inhabitants was gained during the civil wars, many having sought a refuge from the tyranny of the ruling party in this distant sanctuary. Into the details of the history we cannot enter, but the following items are important. The first source of colonial wealth was the growing of tobacco; and at a later period the produce of the salt-lagoons at Turk's Island became a main article of trade. In 1726 Berkeley chose the Summer Islands as the seat of his projected missionary establishment. The first newspaper, the *Bermuda Gazette*, was published in 1784. See W. F. Williams, *Hist. and Stat. Account of the Bermudas*, 1848; Godet, *Bermuda, its History, &c.*, 1860.

BERN, or BERNE, a canton of Switzerland, situated between 46° 19' and 47° 30' N. lat., and between 6° 50' and 8° 28' E. long. It extends from the French and Alsace frontier south-east through the heart of the Confederacy to Valais, by which it is bounded on the S., while it has the cantons of Basel, Soleure, Aargau, Lucerne, Unterwalden, and Uri on the E., and Vaud, Freiburg, Neuchâtel on the W. Bern is the second largest canton of Switzerland, its surface being estimated at 2562 square miles. The population in 1870 amounted to 506,465, of whom 436,304 were Protestants, and 66,015 Catholics, while 1401 were Jews. German was spoken in 83,693 families, and French in 16,646, the latter language prevailing in the N.W. The canton is naturally divided into three regions, in which the climate varies with the elevation. The southern part, called the Oberland, is for its scenery the most attractive part of all Switzerland. Many of the grandest mountains of the Alpine system—such as the Grimsel, the Finsteraarhorn, the Schreckhorn, the Wetterhorn, the Eiger, and the Jungfrau—lie along the frontier chain, and numerous offshoots and valleys of great beauty stretch northward towards the central part of the canton. This latter district consists for the most part of an undulating plain, interspersed with lesser chains and hills,—the soil being fertile and well cultivated. The north is occupied with the ranges of the Jura system. The principal river in the canton is the Aar, which drains by far the larger proportion of its surface, either directly or by means of its numerous tributaries. Of these, the most important are the Saane, from the S.; the Thiele, which forms the outlet of the

lakes of Bienne and Neuchâtel; and the Emme, which gives its name to the beautiful Emmenthal. The northern corner of the canton is divided between the basins of the Rhone and the Rhine. On the upper course of the Aar are the two lakes of Brienz and Thun. The mineral wealth of the country is neither extensive nor varied; but iron-mines are worked, and gold is found in the River Emme. Quarries of sandstone, marble, and granite are abundant. The pastures in the Oberland and the Emmenthal are excellent, and cattle and horses of the best description are largely reared. The latter district also produces cheese of excellent quality, which is exported to Germany and Italy. Fruit is extensively cultivated in the central region and in the neighbourhood of the lakes of Brienz and Thun; the vine is principally grown to the north of Lake Bienne. In the forests, which are of considerable importance, the prevailing trees are the fir, the pine, and the beech. The industrial productions of the canton are cotton, woollen and flaxen stuffs, leather, watches, and wooden wares of all kinds. Bern is divided into thirty bailiwicks or prefectures, each with a local administrator. The capital is Bern, and the other chief towns are Bienne or Biel, Thun, Burgdorf or Berthoud, Porrentruy or Pruntrut, and Délémont or Delsberg. The highest legislative authority is the Great Council, the members of which are chosen in proportion to the number of the people; and the executive power is in the hands of a lesser council of nine members, chosen by the Great Council for a space of four years. The educational institutions in the canton comprise a university and two gymnasiums in the capital, and progymnasiums and colleges at Biel, Thun, Burgdorf, Neuenstadt, Porrentruy, and Délémont. There is a deaf and dumb institution at Friesenberg, and a cantonal lunatic asylum at Waldau, about a mile from Bern.



Plan of Bern.

BERN, the capital of the above canton, and, since 1848, the permanent seat of the Government and Diet of the Swiss Confederation. It is situated in 46° 47' N. lat. and 7° 25' E. long., at an elevation of 1710 feet above the sea, on a sandstone peninsula, formed by the windings of the Aar, which is crossed on the south side of the city by an extensive weir, and further down passes under four bridges connecting the peninsula with the right bank. It is one of the most characteristically Swiss towns; some of the streets are broad and regular, the houses being well built with hewn stone; in others a peculiar effect is produced by the presence of lines of arcades down the sides. Prominent among the public buildings is the Federal Council Hall, or *Bundes-Rathhaus*, a fine structure in the

Florentine style, which was completed in 1857. The upper story is occupied by a picture-gallery of some value. The town-hall dates from 1406, and was restored in 1861. Among the ecclesiastical buildings the first place is held by the cathedral, a richly-decorated Gothic edifice, begun in 1421 and completed in 1573, from the neighbourhood of which a splendid view of the Alps is obtained. Educational institutions are very numerous, comprising a university, founded in 1834, which is attended by 250 students, a gymnasium, and a veterinary school. Attached to the university are a botanical garden and an observatory; and there are, besides, a valuable museum, a public library of 45,000 volumes, especially rich in works relating to Swiss history, and several literary and scientific societies. Among the charitable establishments are two large hospitals (the *Inselspital* and the *Bürgerspital*), a foundling hospital, two orphan asylums, and a lunatic asylum. Another asylum was erected in 1854, about 2½ miles from the city. The penitentiary is capable of containing 400 prisoners. Among other buildings of interest are the granary, which, till 1830, used to be stored with corn in case of famine; the clock tower, with its automatic pantomime; the arsenal, with its mediæval treasures; the mint; and the Murtner Gate. The most frequent ornament throughout the city is the figure of the bear, in allusion to the mythical origin of the name of Bern; and the authorities still maintain a bear's den at municipal expense. Although, properly speaking, not a commercial city, Bern carries on some trade in woollen cloth, printed calico, muslin, silk stuffs, straw hats, stockings, and other articles of home manufacture. The climate is severely cold in winter, owing to the elevation of the situation. The population, which is mainly Protestant, was 36,000 in 1870.

Bern was founded, or at least fortified, by Berthold V. of Zähringen, about the end of the 12th or beginning of the 13th century, and gradually became a refuge for those who were oppressed by feudal exactions in the neighbouring countries. In 1213 it was declared a free imperial city by the Emperor Frederick II. At first its constitution was purely democratic; but in 1293 a legislative body of 200 citizens was appointed, which formed the germ of one of the most remarkable oligarchies in modern European history. The extension of territory, gradually effected by the valour of the Bernese, rendered necessary a more elaborate and rigid organization than that which had sufficed while the limits of the city were almost the limits of the state; and the power of the nobility at home was strengthened by every new success against the enemies of the city. The blow that decided the fate of Bern was struck at Laupen on June 21, 1339, when Rudolph von Erlach beat the allied army of the neighbouring states. It continued to flourish, and in 1352 joined the Swiss Confederation. A fire destroyed the city in 1405, but it was rebuilt on the same plan. In the 17th century the gradually increasing aristocratic tendency reached its climax. The adoption of new burghers was forbidden, and the burghers proper were carefully distinguished from those who were merely permanent inhabitants of the city; the burghers were divided into those capable of holding office in the state and those destitute of that privilege; and the privileged class itself, which, by 1785, numbered only 69 families, was subdivided into a higher and a lower grade. This élite grew more and more exclusive and domineering, and at last became unendurable to their humbler fellow-citizens. In 1748 the discontent made itself evident in a formidable conspiracy, of which the unfortunate Henzi was one of the leaders. The conspiracy was crushed, but the opposition broke out through other channels. At last the French Revolution came to submerge the aristocracy in a general Helvetic republic; and when the flood had passed the ancient landmarks could not be replaced, though a restoration was attempted with at first an appearance of success. The Liberal party has long been the strongest in the canton, which has at last returned almost to democracy; for, in 1870, the *referendum* was introduced, by which it is agreed that all laws, after being discussed by the Great Council, shall first receive the sanction of the people before they come into force.

BERNADOTTE, JEAN-BAPTISTE-JULES, afterwards KING CHARLES XIV. of Sweden and Norway, was the son of a lawyer at Pau in Béarn, and was born January 26, 1764. He was destined by his parents for the law, but chose the profession of arms, and enlisted in 1780 as a private in

the royal marines. When the Revolution swept away the arbitrary distinction of classes, and opened up to all alike the path of preferment, the abilities of Bernadotte were speedily acknowledged. In 1792 he was made a colonel, in the following year a general of brigade, and soon after a general of division. In the campaigns of the Rhine and of Italy his military talents found ample scope for display; and his diplomatic abilities had also been tested as ambassador at the court of Vienna. During Bonaparte's absence in Egypt Bernadotte was appointed minister of war. He reorganized the whole army, and prepared the way for the conquest of Holland. Notwithstanding the rivalry that all along existed between him and Napoleon, Bernadotte was made a marshal on the establishment of the empire. He was also nominated to the government of Hanover, and took part in the campaign of 1805 at the head of a force of 20,000 men. He distinguished himself at the battle of Austerlitz, and in 1806 he was created prince of Ponte-Corvo. In 1810 the death of Prince Augustenburg of Sweden having left the throne of that kingdom without an heir, the Swedish States in Council nominated Bernadotte as successor to Charles XIII. of Sweden, a distinction for which he was scarcely less indebted to his nobility of character than to his military talents. During the great campaigns of 1813 and 1814 Bernadotte joined the coalition against Napoleon, and it was his Swedish contingent that mainly decided the battle of Leipzig. It is stated, on good authority, that he had formed the ambitious design of succeeding the emperor on the French throne. As crown prince of Sweden he devoted his whole energies to the welfare of his adopted country. Owing to the infirmities of the king he was intrusted with the entire conduct of the government. On the death of Charles XIII., in February 1818, Bernadotte ascended the throne. For the events of his administration, so conducive to the prosperity of that country, the reader is referred to the article SWEDEN. He died at Stockholm, March 8, 1844, leaving an only son, Oscar, who succeeded him.

BERNARD, ST, one of the most illustrious Christian teachers and representatives of monasticism in the Middle Ages, was born at Fontaines, near Dijon, in Burgundy, in 1091. The son of a knight and vassal of the duke of Burgundy who perished in the first crusade, Bernard may have felt for a time the temptations of a military career, but the influence of a pious mother and his own inclinations towards a life of meditation and study led him to the cloister. While still a youth he is said to have been "marvellously cogitative" (*"mire cogitativus,"* St Bern. *Op.*, vol. ii. col. 1063), and the ascendancy of his mind and character were soon shown. He joined the small monastery of Cîteaux in 1113 when twenty-two years of age, and such were the effects of his own devotion and eloquent enthusiasm in commending a religious life, that he drew after him not only his two younger brothers, but also his two elder ones, Guido and Gerard, both of whom had naturally taken to soldiering, and the elder of whom was married and had children. The effect of his preaching is said to have been that "mothers hid their sons, wives their husbands, companions their friends," lest they should be drawn away by his persuasive earnestness.

The monastery of Cîteaux had attracted St Bernard not only on account of its neighbourhood (it was only a few miles distant from Dijon), but by its reputation for austerity. The monks were few and very poor. They were under an Englishman of the name of Stephen Harding, originally from Dorsetshire, whose aim was to restore the Benedictine rule to its original simplicity and give a new impulse to the monastic movement. In Bernard, Harding found a congenial spirit. No amount of self-mortification could exceed his ambition. He strove to overcome his

bodily senses altogether and to live entirely absorbed in religious meditation. Sleep he counted a loss, and compared it to death. Food was only taken to keep him from fainting. The most menial offices were his delight, and even then his humility looked around for some lowlier employment. Fortunately he loved nature, and found a constant solace in her rocks and woods. "Trust one who has tried it," he writes in one of his epistles, "you will find more in woods than in books; trees and stones will teach you what you can never learn from masters." ("Experto crede: aliquid amplius invenies in silvis quam in libris; ligna et lapides docebunt te quod a magistris audire non possis," *Epist.* 106.)

So ardent a nature soon found a sphere of ambition for itself. The monks of Cîteaux, from being a poor and unknown company, began to attract attention after the accession of St Bernard and his friends. The fame of their self-denial was noised abroad, and out of their lowliness and abnegation came as usual distinction and success. The small monastery was unable to contain the inmates that gathered within it, and it began to send forth colonies in various directions. St Bernard had been two years an inmate, and the penetrating eye of the abbot had discovered beneath all his spiritual devotion a genius of rare power, and especially fitted to aid his measures of monastic reform. He was chosen accordingly to head a band of devotees who issued from Cîteaux in 1115 in search of a new home. This band, with Bernard at their head, journeyed northwards till they reached a spot in the diocese of Langres—a thick-wooded valley, wild and gloomy, but with a clear stream running through it. Here they settled and laid the foundations of the famous abbey of Clairvaux, with which St Bernard's name remains associated in history. The hardships which the monks endured for a time in their new abode were such as to drive them almost to despair, and their leader fell seriously ill, and was only rescued from what seemed impending death by the kind compulsion of his friend William of Champeaux, the great doctor of the age, who besought and received the direction of Bernard for a year from his superior at Cîteaux. Thanks to his considerate friend the abbot of Clairvaux was forced to abandon the cares of his new establishment, and in retirement and a healthful regimen to seek renewed health. The effect was all that could be desired, and in a few years Bernard had not only recovered his strength, but had begun that marvellous career of literary and ecclesiastical activity, of incessant correspondence and preaching, which was to make him in some respects the most influential man of his age.

Gradually the influence of Bernard's character began to extend beyond his monastery. His friendship with William of Champeaux and others gave currency to his opinions, and from his simple retreat came by voice or pen an authority before which many bowed, not only within his own order but within the church at large. This influence was notably shown after the death of Pope Honorius II. in 1130. Two rival popes assumed the purple, each being able to appeal to his election by a section of the cardinals. Christendom was divided betwixt the claims of Anacletus II. and Innocent II. The former was backed by a strong Italian party, and drove his adversary from Rome and even from Italy. Innocent took refuge in France. The king, Louis the Fat, espoused his cause, and having summoned a council of archbishops and bishops, he laid his commands on the holy abbot of Clairvaux to be present also and give the benefit of his advice. With reluctance Bernard obeyed the call, and from the depths of seclusion was at once plunged into the heart of the great contest which was afflicting the Christian world. The king and prelates put the question before him in such a way as to invite his decision

and make him arbiter. After careful deliberation he gave his judgment in favour of Innocent, and not only so, but from that time forward threw himself with characteristic fervour and force into the cause for which he had declared. Not only France, but England, Spain, and Germany were won to the side of Innocent, who, banished from Rome, in the words of St Bernard, was "accepted by the world." He travelled from place to place with the powerful abbot by his side, who also received him in his humble cell at Clairvaux. Apparently, however, the meanness of the accommodation and the scantiness of the fare (one small fowl was all that could be got for the Pope's repast), left no wish on the part of Innocent or his retinue to continue their stay at Clairvaux. He found a more dainty reception elsewhere, but nowhere so powerful a friend. Through the persuasions of Bernard the emperor took up arms for Innocent; and Anacletus was driven to shut himself up in the impregnable castle of St Angelo, where his death opened the prospect of a united Christendom. A second anti-pope was elected, but after a few months retired from the field, owing also, it is said, to St Bernard's influence. A great triumph was gained not without a struggle, and the abbot of Clairvaux remained master of the ecclesiastical situation. No name stood higher in the Christian world.

The chief events which fill up his subsequent life attest the greatness of his influence. These were his contest with the famous Abelard, and his preaching of the second crusade.

Peter Abelard was twelve years older than Bernard, and had risen to eminence before Bernard had entered the gates of Cîteaux. His first intellectual encounter had been with Bernard's aged friend William of Champeaux, whom he had driven from his scholastic throne at Paris by the superiority of his dialectics. His subsequent career, his ill-fated passion for Heloise, his misfortunes, his intellectual restlessness and audacity, his supposed heresies, had all shed additional renown on his name; and when a council was summoned at Sens in 1140, at which the French king and his nobles and all the prelates of the realm were to be present, Abelard dared his enemies to impugn his opinions. St Bernard had been amongst those most alarmed by Abelard's teaching, and had sought to stir up alike Pope, princes, and bishops to take measures against him. He did not readily, however, take up the gauntlet thrown down by the great hero of the schools. He professed himself a "stripling too unversed in logic to meet the giant practised in every kind of debate." But "all were come prepared for a spectacle," and he was forced into the field. To the amazement of all, when the combatants met and all seemed ready for the intellectual fray, Abelard refused to proceed with his defence. After several passages considered to be heretical had been read from his books he made no reply, but at once appealed to Rome and left the assembly. Probably he saw enough in the character of the meeting to assure him that it formed a very different audience from those which he had been accustomed to sway by his subtlety and eloquence, and had recourse to this expedient to gain time and foil his adversaries. Bernard followed up his assault by a letter of indictment to the Pope against the heretic. The Pope responded by a sentence of condemnation, and Abelard was silenced. Soon after he found refuge at Cluny with the kindly abbot, Peter the Venerable, who brought about something of a reconciliation betwixt him and Bernard. The latter, however, never heartily forgave the heretic. He was too zealous a churchman not to see the danger there is in such a spirit as Abelard's, and the serious consequences to which it might lead.

In all things Bernard was enthusiastically devoted to the church, and it was this enthusiasm which led him at last into the chief error of his career. Bad news reached

France of the progress of the Turkish arms in the East. The capture of Edessa in 1144 sent a thrill of alarm and indignation throughout Christian Europe, and the French king was urged to send forth a new army to reclaim the Holy Land from the triumphant infidels. The Pope was consulted, and encouraged the good work, delegating to St Bernard the office of preaching the new crusade. Weary with growing years and cares the abbot of Clairvaux seemed at first reluctant, but afterwards threw himself with all his accustomed power into the new movement, and by his marvellous eloquence kindled the crusading madness once more throughout France and Germany. Not only the French king, Louis VII., but the German emperor, Conrad III., placed himself at the head of a vast army and set out for the East by way of Constantinople. Detained there too long by the duplicity of the Greeks, and divided in counsel, the Christian armies encountered frightful hardships, and were at length either dispersed or destroyed. Utter ruin and misery followed in the wake of the wildest enthusiasm. Bernard became an object of abuse as the great preacher of a movement which had terminated so disastrously, and wrote in humility an apologetic letter to the Pope, in which the divine judgments are made as usual accountable for human folly. This and other anxieties bore heavily upon even so sanguine a spirit. Disaster abroad and heresy at home left him no peace, while his body was worn to a shadow by his fasting and labours. It was, as he said, "the season of calamities." Still to the last, with failing strength, sleepless, unable to take solid food, with limbs swollen and feeble, his spirit was unconquerable. "Whenever a great necessity called him forth," as his friend and biographer Godfrey says, "his mind conquered all his bodily infirmities, he was endowed with strength, and to the astonishment of all who saw him, he could surpass even robust men in his endurance of fatigue." He continued absorbed in public affairs, and dispensed his care and advice in all directions often about the most trivial as well as the most important affairs. Finally the death of his associates and friends left him without any desire to live. He longed rather "to depart and be with Christ." To his sorrowing monks, whose earnest prayers were supposed to have assisted his partial recovery when near his end, he said, "Why do you thus detain a miserable man? Spare me. Spare me, and let me depart." He expired August 20, 1153, shortly after his disciple Pope Eugenius III.

His character appears in our brief sketch as that of a noble enthusiast, selfish in nothing save in so far as the church had become a part of himself, ardent in his sympathies and friendships, tenacious of purpose, terrible in indignation. He spared no abuse, and denounced what he deemed corruption to the Pope as frankly as to one of his own monks. He is not a thinker nor a man in advance of his age, but much of the best thought and piety of his time are sublimed in him to a sweet mystery and rapture of sentiment which has still power to touch amidst all its rhetorical exaggerations.

His writings are very numerous, consisting of epistles, sermons, and theological treatises. The best edition of his works is that of Father Mabillon, printed at Paris in 1690 in 2 vols. folio, and reprinted more than once—finally in 1854 in 4 vols. 8vo. His life, written by his friend and disciple Godfrey, is also contained in this edition of his works. (J. T.)

BERNARD, JAMES, professor of philosophy and mathematics, and minister of the Walloon church at Leyden, was born at Nions, in Dauphiné, September 1, 1658. Having studied at Geneva, he returned to France in 1679, and was chosen minister of Venterol, in Dauphiné, whence he afterwards removed to the church of Vinsobres. As he

continued to preach the Reformed doctrines in opposition to the royal ordinance, he was obliged to leave the country and retired to Holland, where he was well received, and appointed one of the pensionary ministers of Gouda. In July 1686 he commenced his *Histoire Abrégée de l'Europe*, which he continued monthly till December 1688. In 1692 he began his *Lettres Historiques*, containing an account of the most important transactions in Europe, he carried on this work till the end of 1698, after which it was continued by others. When Leclerc discontinued his *Bibliothèque Universelle* in 1691, Bernard wrote the greater part of the twentieth volume and the five following volumes. In 1698 he collected and published *Actes et Négociations de la Paix de Ryswic*, in four volumes 12mo. In 1699 he began a continuation of Bayle's *Nouvelles de la République des Lettres*, which continued till December 1710. In 1705 he was unanimously elected one of the ministers of the Walloon church at Leyden; and about the same time he succeeded M. de Valder in the chair of philosophy and mathematics at Leyden. In 1716 he published a supplement to Moreri's Dictionary, in two volumes folio. The same year he resumed his *Nouvelles de la République des Lettres*, and continued it till his death, on the 27th of April 1718. Besides the works above mentioned, he was the author of two practical treatises, one on late repentance, the other on the excellence of religion.

BERNARD, SIMON, French general of engineers, and aide-de-camp to Napoleon, was born at Dôle in 1779. He was educated at the École Polytechnique, and entered the army in the corps of engineers. He rose rapidly, and served for some time as aide-de-camp to Napoleon. Subsequently to the emperor's fall he emigrated to the United States, where he executed a number of extensive military works, consisting of vast canals, numerous forts, and 1400 leagues of frontier fortifications. He returned to France after the Revolution of 1830, and in 1836 was secretary at war to Louis Philippe. He died in 1839.

BERNARDIN, Sr, of Siena, a celebrated preacher, was born at Massa Carrara in 1380. His family, the Albizeschi, was noble, and his father was chief magistrate of Massa. He lost both parents before his eighth year, and was educated by his aunt, a pious woman. After completing his course of study he passed some years as a voluntary assistant in the hospital of Scala, and in 1404 entered the order of St Francis. His eloquence as a preacher made him celebrated throughout Italy, nor was his fame diminished by his visit to the Holy Land, from which he returned with fresh zeal. Three cities, Siena, Ferrara, and Urbino, successively sought the honour of having him as their bishop, but without avail. In 1438 he was made vicar-general of his order in Italy. He died on the 20th May 1444, at Aquila in Abruzzo. His canonization took place in 1450 by the order of Nicholas V. A collection of his works was published in 1571 by Rudolf, bishop of Sinigaglia.

BERNAY, the chief town of an arrondissement in the department of Eure, in France, on the left bank of the Charentonne, 26 miles W.N.W. of Evreux. It is beautifully situated in the midst of green wooded hills, and still justifies Madame de Staël's description—"Bernay is a basket of flowers." Of great antiquity, it still possesses numerous quaint wooden houses and several ancient ecclesiastical buildings of considerable interest. The abbey church is now used as a market, and the abbey, which was originally founded by Judith of Brittany about 1017, and underwent a restoration in the 17th century, serves for municipal and legal purposes. The glass-work in the church of Notre Dame de la Couture is of great antiquarian interest. Among the industrial establishments of the place are cotton, woollen, and ribband factories;