

park, but it has a very sparse population and little cultivated land. In the extreme north a line of hill rises abruptly out of the great plain of the Narbadá valley. The central tract alone possesses a rich soil, well watered by the Machná and Sámpana rivers, almost entirely cultivated and studded with villages. To the south lies a rolling plateau of basaltic formation (with the sacred town of Multái, and the springs of the River Taptí at its highest point), extending over the whole of the southern face of the district, and finally merging into the wild and broken line of the Gháts, which lead down to the plains. This tract consists of a succession of stony ridges of trap rock, enclosing valleys or basins of fertile soil, to which cultivation is for the most part confined, except where the shallow soil on the tops of the hills has been turned to account.

The principal rivers of the district are the Taptí, Wardhá, Bel Machná, Sámpaná, Morar, and Tawá. The Taptí rises a few miles from Multái, traverses the southern part of the district, and then plunges into the gorges of the Sátpurá hills, formed on the one side by the Chikalá hills of Berar, and on the other side by the wild Kálfbhá hills of Hoshangábd. The Wardhá can hardly be called a river of the district, as it merely takes its rise in the Sátpurá hills on the south-eastern boundary. The River Bel also rises in the high plateau of Betul, and forms one of the chief affluents of the Kanhá. The Machná and Sámpaná rise among the hills that shut in the rich basin of the district. They unite their waters at the town of Betúl, force their way through the Sátpurá range, and join the Tawá near Sháhpur. The Moran rises in the Sátpurá hills within the district, and enters Hoshangábd near the town of Seonl. The Tawá rises in Chhindwára, and flowing for a short distance through the north-east corner of this district, eventually joins the Narbadá above Hoshangábd. These are the rivers of importance; but throughout the district, and more especially amid the trap formation, there are a number of smaller streams useful for irrigation. The principal agricultural products of the district are wheat and pulses, more than three-fourths of the open lands being devoted to these crops. The other products are cotton, rice, millet, rye, sugar-cane, and opium. The area under sugar-cane cultivation is estimated at 2400 acres, the juice extracted from it being exported in its raw state. The principal agricultural tribe is the Kunbis, many of whom are modern immigrants from Northern India. The aboriginal Gonds are found in all the wild jungle villages, where they follow the nomadic system of cultivation known as the *dáhya*. Extensive forests occupy some 700 square miles of the district area, and yield teak and other good timber. Coal occurs in many parts of the district, but is not worked, as except at one place not a single seam has been found exceeding 3 feet in thickness, and it is doubtful if a seam of that thickness can be profitably mined in India. District revenues in 1868-69—land revenue, £19,159; excise, £7219; assessed taxes, £1136; forests, £1218; stamps, £2743; total, £31,475. Strength of regular constabulary and town police, 333 men; cost, £3857 per annum.

Little is known of the early history of the district except that it must have been the centre of the first of the four ancient Gond kingdoms of Kherlá, Deogarh, Mandla, and Chándá. According to Farishtá, these kingdoms engrossed in 1398 all the hills of Gondwáná and adjacent countries, and were of great wealth and power. About the year 1418 Sultán Husain Sháh of Málwa invaded Kherlá, and reduced it to a dependency. Nine years later the Rájá rebelled, but although with the help of the Báhmíni kings of the Deccan he managed for a time to assert his independence, he was finally subdued and deprived of his territories. In 1467 Kherlá was seized by the Báhmíni king, but was afterwards restored to Málwa. A century later the kingdom of Málwa became incorporated into the dominions of the emperor of Delhi. In 1703 a Musálmán convert of the Gond tribe held the country, and in 1743 Raghuji Bhonslá, the Marhattá ruler of Berar, annexed it to his dominions. The Marhattás in the year 1818 ceded this district to the East India Company as payment for a contingent, and by the treaty of 1826 it was formally incorporated with the British possessions. Detachments of British troops were stationed at Multái, Betul, and Sháhpur to cut off the retreat of Apá Sáhib, the Marhattá general, and a military force was quartered at Betul until June 1862.

The ruined city of Kherlá formed the seat of government under the Gonds and preceding rulers, and hence the district was, until the time of its annexation to the British dominions, known as the "Kherlá Sarkár." The town of Multái contains an artificial tank, from the centre of which the Taptí is said to take its rise; hence the reputed sanctity of the spot, and the accumulation of temples in its honour.

The climate of Betul is fairly salubrious. Its height above the plains and the neighbourhood of extensive forests moderate the heat, and render the temperature pleasant throughout the greater part of the year. During the cold season the thermometer at night falls below the freezing point; little or no hot wind is felt before the end of April, and even then it ceases after sunset. The nights in the hot season are comparatively cool and pleasant. During the monsoon the climate is very damp, and at times even cold and raw, thick clouds and mist enveloping the sky for many days together. The average annual rainfall is 40 inches. In the denser jungles malaria prevails for months after the cessation of the rains, but the Gonds do not appear to suffer much from its effects. Travellers and strangers who venture into these jungles run the risk of fever of a severe type at almost all seasons of the year.

BETWÁ, a river of India, which rises in the native state of Bhopál in Málwa, and after a course of 360 miles, for the most part in a north-easterly direction, falls into the Jamná at Hamírpur in 25° 57' N. lat. and 80° 17' E. long.

BEUDANT, FRANÇOIS Sulpice, a French mineralogist and geologist, was born at Paris in 1787, and died in 1862. He was educated at the Polytechnic and Normal schools, and in 1811 was appointed professor of mathematics at the Lycée of Avignon. Thence he was called, in 1813, to the Lycée of Marseilles to fill the post of professor of physics. In the following year the royal mineralogical cabinet was committed to his charge to be conveyed into England, and from that time his attention seems to have been directed principally towards geology and cognate sciences. In the year 1818 he undertook, at the expense of Government, a geological journey through Hungary, and the results of his researches, *Voyage Minéralogique et Géologique en Hongrie*, 3 vols. 4to, with atlas, published in 1822, established for him a European reputation. He was about the same time appointed to the professorship of mineralogy in the Paris Faculty of Sciences. His treatises on physics (*Traité de Physique*, 6th ed., 1838) and on mineralogy and geology (*Cours Élémentaire de Minéralogie et Géologie*, 1841) were very popular. Beudant also, when holding the post of inspector of the university, published a valuable French grammar.

BEULÉ, CHARLES ERNEST, a French archæologist and man of letters, was born at Saumur 29th June 1826, and died 4th April 1874. He was educated at the École Normale, and in 1852 was sent to Athens as one of the professors in the École Française established there. At first distinguished as a man of fashion, he afterwards devoted himself with intense vigour to archæological researches. He had the good fortune to discover the propylæa of the Acropolis, and his work, *L'Acropole d'Athènes* (2 vols. 1854), was published by order of the minister of public instruction. Promotion and distinctions followed rapidly upon his first successes. He was made doctor of letters, chevalier of the Legion of Honour, professor of archæology at the Bibliothèque Impériale, member of the Academy of Inscriptions, and perpetual secretary of the Academy of Fine Arts. Like too many French men of letters, he joined eagerly in political affairs, with which the last few years of his life were entirely occupied. The most important of his writings are *Études sur le Péloponnèse*, 1855; *Les Monnaies d'Athènes*, 1858; *Histoire de la Sculpture avant Phidias*, 1864; *Histoire de l'Art Grec*, 1870.

BEUTHEN, the chief town of a circle in the government of Oppeln in Prussian Silesia, on the railway between Oppeln and Cracow, about 50 miles from the former. It is the centre of the mining district of Upper Silesia, and its population, which numbered 15,711 in 1871, is mainly engaged in mining operations. Cloth and linen weaving, however, is also carried on. Beuthen is an old town, and was formerly the capital of the lordship of Beuthen, which belonged to the counts of Donnersmark. It is frequently called Ober Beuthen to distinguish it from the following.

BEUTHEN, or NIEDER BEUTHEN, a town in the government of Liegnitz, in Silesia, on the Oder, and the capital of the mediatised principality of Carolath-Beuthen. The chief industries of the place are straw-plaiting, boat-building, and the manufacture of pottery; and a considerable traffic is carried on by means of the river. Population in 1871, 3826.

BEVERLEY, a market and borough town in the East Riding of Yorkshire, about a mile from the River Hull, with which it communicates by means of a canal called the Beverley Beck. It consists principally of one long wide street, upwards of a mile in length, and terminated by an ancient gateway. The magnificent collegiate church of St John is in size and splendour superior to many cathedrals. Having been erected at different times it exhibits various styles of Gothic architecture. The west front is said by Rickman to be the finest of its kind in England. It is 334 feet in length from east to west; the breadth of the nave and side aisles is 64 feet; the transept is 167 feet long; and the two towers at the west end are 200 feet in height. One of its most remarkable monuments is the Percy shrine. St Mary's church is also an exceedingly handsome and spacious Gothic building. The market-place, which comprises an area of nearly 4 acres, is ornamented with an octagonal market-cross. The grammar school is of great antiquity, and has two fellowships, six scholarships, and three exhibitions at St John's College, Cambridge. There are several national and two infant schools, a blue-coat school; a mechanics' institute, a news-room, several banks, a theatre, a jail, and a cattle-market. There is a large trade in grain, timber, and coal. The tanning of leather is the principal industry; but there are also several important manufactories of agricultural implements and of artificial manures, as well as whiting-factories, corn and linseed mills, and breweries and malt-kilns. It formerly returned two members to parliament, but was disfranchised in 1870. Population of municipal borough in 1871, 10,218.

BEVERLEY, a seaport of Massachusetts in the United States; situated on a branch of Ann Harbour, and connected with Salem by a bridge built in 1785. It is 16 miles N.E. of Boston, on the Eastern Railway, and is connected with Gloucester by a branch line. The principal industry is the manufacture of shoes; and a considerable number of people are employed in the coasting trade and fisheries. Population in 1870, 6507.

BEVERLEY, JOHN OF, a celebrated prelate, who flourished during the 7th and 8th centuries, was born at Harpham in Northumbria. He received his education at Canterbury, and after his return to the north was the instructor of the Venerable Bede. In 685 he was made bishop of Hagolstad or Hexham, and two years later was promoted to the archbishopric of York. He resigned his see in 717, and retired to a college which he had founded some years before at Beverley, where he died in 721. He was celebrated for his scholarship as well as for his virtues. The following works are ascribed to him:—*Pro Luca Exponendo* (an exposition of Luke); *Homilia in Evangelia*; *Epistola ad Heribaldum, Audeniam, et Bertinum*; *Epistola ad Holdam abbatisam*.

BEWDLEY, a market and borough town in the parish of Ribbesford, in the county of Worcester 129 miles from London, on the Severn Valley Railway. It is well built, and stands on an eminence near the River Severn, over which there is an elegant bridge, erected in 1797. It has a town-hall, a free grammar school, and several charities; and manufactures combs, brass and iron wares, leather, and malt. It returns one member to parliament. Population of parliamentary borough in 1871, 7614.

Bewdley, or, as it was formerly called, *Beaulieu*, was a place of some importance in the 13th century, and had the right of sanctuary for those who shed blood. Henry VII. built a palace in the town for his son Arthur, who was married there by proxy to Catherine of Aragon; but no remains of the building, which was greatly injured during the wars of the 17th century, can now be traced. The town, which was incorporated by Edward IV., formerly belonged to the Marches of Wales, but was assigned to Worcestershire by Henry VIII.

BEWICK, THOMAS, who may be considered as the reviver of wood-engraving in England, was born at Cherry-burn, near Newcastle-on-Tyne, in August 1753. His father rented a small colliery at Mickleybank, and sent his son to school at Mickley. He proved a poor scholar, but showed, at a very early age, a remarkable talent for drawing. He had no tuition in the art; and no models save natural objects. At the age of fourteen he was apprenticed to Mr Beilby, an engraver in Newcastle. In his office Bewick engraved on wood for Dr Hutton a series of diagrams illustrating a treatise on mensuration. He seems thereafter to have devoted himself entirely to engraving on wood, and in 1775 he received a premium from the Society for the Encouragement of Arts and Manufactures for a woodcut of the "Huntsman and the Old Hound." In 1784 appeared his *Select Fables*, the engravings in which, though far surpassed by his later productions, were incomparably superior to anything that had yet been done in that line. The *Quadrupeds* appeared in 1790, and his great achievement, that with which his name is inseparably associated, the *British Birds*, was published from 1787-1804. Bewick, from his intimate knowledge of the habits of animals acquired during his constant excursions into the country, was thoroughly qualified to do justice to his great task. Of his other productions the engravings for Goldsmith's *Traveller* and *Deserted Village*, for Parnell's *Hermite*, for Somerville's *Chase*, and for the collection of *Fables of Æsop and others*, may be specially mentioned. Bewick was for many years in partnership with his former master, and in later life had numerous pupils, several of whom gained distinction as engravers. He died on the 8th November 1828. His autobiography (*Memoirs of Thomas Bewick, by Himself*, 8vo, London) appeared in 1862.

BEYLE, MARIE-HENRI, better known as De Stendhal, the most celebrated of his many *noms de plume*, was born at Grenoble on the 23d January 1783. His father was an *avocat* at the parliament of Grenoble, and his family, though not noble, was of good descent. His early education was conducted mainly by priests, who seem to have misunderstood his very peculiar character, and for whom he ever afterwards entertained a profound aversion and contempt. At the age of twelve he was sent to the École Centrale, newly established at Grenoble, and continued in attendance for four years, during which time he distinguished himself in all his studies. In 1799 he was preparing to become a candidate for the École Polytechnique when his plans were disturbed by an offer from M. Daru, a distant relative, of some appointment connected with the ministry for war. In the following year he accompanied M. Daru to Milan, on the chance of some suitable post offering itself. He was present at the battle of Marengo; and carried away apparently, by the military enthusiasm consequent on



Napoleon's brilliant victories, he suddenly enlisted as quartermaster in a dragoon regiment. In a month's time he was made sub-lieutenant, and for about a year and a half acted as aide-de-camp to General Michaud. But the routine of garrison life, to which he was soon afterwards condemned, made him heartily tired of a military career. On the conclusion of the peace of Amiens (1802) he threw up his commission, and went to reside with his family at Grenoble. From them he obtained means to take up his abode in Paris, where for some time he continued to devote himself to study and literary work. In 1805 he suddenly accepted a situation as clerk in a mercantile house at Marseilles, and remained there nearly a year,—in fact, till the actress, for whose sake he had taken this curious step, married a wealthy Russian. In the following year he again accompanied M. Daru into Germany, and was appointed to superintend the possessions of the emperor in Brunswick. Whatever German he learnt there was afterwards completely forgotten. In his official capacity as connected with the commissariat he took part in the ill-fated Russian campaign of 1812, and remained loyal to the fallen emperor. He declined to lay himself out for employment under the new régime, and retired to Milan, where he resided till 1821. His early works, chiefly on painting and music, date from this period of his life. The *Lettres écrites de Vienne sur Haydn, suivies d'une Vie de Mozart, &c.*, which appeared in 1814 under the pseudonym of Alexandre César Bombet, were mainly plagiarized from Carpani. With some slight alterations the work was reproduced in 1817 as *Vies de Haydn, Mozart, et Mélasise*. In the same year he published, under various assumed names, *Histoire de la Peinture en Italie*, which contains some good but unsystematic criticism, and *Rome, Naples, et Florence en 1817*. In 1821 he was compelled to return to France, an unfounded suspicion that he was a French spy having somehow arisen at Milan. During the following nine years he resided at Paris, and gradually began to acquire his high reputation as an accomplished litterateur and man of the world. He was an admirable talker and full of anecdote, which in his opinion ought to form the staple of conversation. His fine analytic powers were displayed to full advantage in the curious work, *De l'Amour*, which he published in 1822, but the book did not find an appreciative audience. The *Vie de Rossini*, which followed, was more successful; and the pamphlet *Racine et Shakespeare* did good service for the cause of Romanticism in its struggle with the rigid classical canons of older French literature. In 1829 appeared his *Promenades dans Rome*, full of information, criticism, and original observation, but somewhat chaotic in form. He was appointed consul at Trieste in 1830, and three years later he quitted that place with the greatest joy for a similar post at Civita Vecchia. There he remained till 1841, with frequent absences, one extending from 1836 to 1839, during which he paid a short visit to London. In 1841 his health gave way, and he returned to Paris, where he died on the 22d March 1842.

Beyle, during his lifetime, was known to but a very small circle of readers; within the last twenty years, however, his popularity has greatly increased, and his many fine powers have received due recognition. It is not probable that he will ever have a very extended influence; his writings are "caviars to the general," and can only be appreciated by those qualified to take pleasure in the cynical reflections of mere egotism. For Beyle's philosophical creed, so far as he can be said to have had one, was materialism, and his ideal of humanity aesthetically refined selfishness. His strength lay in keen criticism and in acute psychological analysis, qualities which gave value to his writings on art, but debarred him from success in the department of fiction. His principal novels, *Le Rouge et le Noir*, and *La Chartreuse de Parme*, fell comparatively dead, though the latter was received with extravagant eulogy by Balzac, and has recently become more popular. His genius was too analytic to be suited for romance writings; the novels want consistency of plot and motive power in the characters. *La Chartreuse*, however, the

best of them, gives an admirable picture of the involved intrigues of a small Italian court, a subject with which Beyle was specially qualified to deal. The peculiar value of all his writings consists in the amount of thinking which they excite, though it must be confessed that the subjects are frequently unworthy of the attention devoted to them. The fullest account of Beyle is that by A. A. Paton, *Henry Beyle, a Critical and Biographical Study*, 1874. See also Colomb's preface to *La Chartreuse* and the *Romans et Nouvelles*, Mérimé's preface to the *Correspondance Inédite*, and Sainte-Beuve's articles in the *Causeries du Lundi*.

BEYROUT, BEIRUT, or BAIRUT, the most important seaport town of Syria, on the coast of the Mediterranean, in the pashalic of Acre, 57 miles W.N.W. of Damascus. It is situated on rising ground on the northern side of the promontory of the Jebel-er-Rosheh, which forms the spacious bay of St George's, a short distance to the west of the mouth of a stream to which it gives its name—Nahr-Beirut, the ancient Magoras. The surrounding hills consist of reddish sand, interspersed with rocks, and covered with a light soil. The roadstead to the N.E. of the town is sheltered from the S.W. wind, but is exposed to the W. and the N.W. The ancient harbour is now choked up, and all that remains of the artificial erections is a pier or causeway at the N.W. extremity of the town, at which boats can discharge. It is supported on arches of unequal size, and is partly constructed of ancient marble columns, many of which still stand along its front, and are used for mooring the lesser vessels. In 1874 the authorities determined to construct a small harbour, and £10,000 was allotted for the purpose. The city proper is an irregular square, open towards the sea, and surrounded on the land sides by a substantial tower-flanked wall, built by Djeddar Pasha. At the N.W. corner are two castellated buildings, built on the rocks. The streets are wider than is usual in Syrian towns, and are paved with large stones; the houses are for the most part lofty and spacious. Formerly, there were deep channels of water flowing down the middle of the streets, but these have been removed. The suburbs of the city, which extend around it with a radius of a mile and a half, are beautifully situated, interspersed with gardens, and planted with fruit trees. During the hot season the wealthier inhabitants remove inland to the villages of Beit-Miry, Brumanaah, or Shemlin, on the lower slopes of the Lebanon. Besides the mosques, bazaars, and other native buildings with which it is provided, the city of Beyroul possesses numerous European edifices and institutions. There are six Roman Catholic convents or monasteries, with churches and schools attached, and the sisters of charity maintain an orphanage and hospital. The Prussians support a well-organized school, under the management of a Protestant sisterhood, and the American missionaries have, among other establishments, a hospital and medical school. A girl's school was begun in 1860 by Mrs Thompson, and a ragged school in 1863. A native Christian community has been for some time in existence; and in 1847 a native society of arts and sciences was established. Formerly regarded as the port of Damascus, Beyroul has now become by far the more important of the two cities. It is the seat of various consular establishments, and possesses a quarantine, a custom-house, and post-offices. It exports silk, wool, bitumen, rags, sponges, and skins, and imports European goods for a large part of Syria. In 1871 the value of the exports, which were destined chiefly for France and England, was £530,000; while that of the imports, which were mainly from England and Germany, amounted to £1,240,000. The coasting trade, carried on by small native craft, consists principally of timber, firewood, charcoal, and straw. A lighthouse, 98 feet high, was erected in 1864 on the neighbouring cape of Ras Beyroul. A carriage road was constructed by a French company about 1863, connecting Beyroul with Damascus. An English company com-

pleted in 1874 an extensive system of water-works, by which a large supply is brought from the Nahr-el-Kelb (the Dog River or Lycus), a distance of 9 miles; the aqueduct is taken at one place through a tunnel 1040 yards long, and the water is brought to two reservoirs at the entrance of the town, each of a capacity of 110,000 cubic feet; public fountains, barracks, and mosques are supplied free of charge. The population is of a various character, comprising Druses, Maronites, Greeks, Turks, Arabs, and other races or nationalities. It was greatly increased about 1860 by an immigration of Christian natives who had fled from persecution in Mount Lebanon, Hasbeya, and Damascus. Estimated at only 15,000 in 1838, the number of inhabitants had risen in 1871 to 70,000.

Beyroul is a place of great antiquity, and may perhaps be identified with the Berothah of the Phœnicians. For a time at least it was under the supremacy of Sidon. Destroyed by Trypho, the Syrian usurper, about 140 B.C., it was restored by the elder Agrippa about 41 A.D., raised to the rank of a Roman colony, and adorned with an amphitheatre and various splendid buildings. In the 3d century it became the seat of a school of jurisprudence, which long maintained its reputation, and was attended by several eminent men. During the reign of Justinian, in fact, Beyroul was the only place in the empire, except Rome and Constantinople, where law was permitted to be taught, and of the three the Syrian school, under the management of Theophilus and Dorotheus, appears to have stood highest in general estimation. But the injury inflicted on the city by an earthquake in 551 led to the removal of the school to Sidon, and not long after the building in which it had been held was totally consumed by fire. In the time of the Crusades Beyroul again rose into importance, and was captured by Baldwin I. in 1111, after a two months' siege. Early in the 17th century it became a chief seat of the Druses, who retained their possession till 1763, when it was betrayed into the hands of the Turks. In 1772 it was bombarded and plundered by a Russian fleet, and in 1840 it was nearly destroyed by the attack of the English under Admiral Stopford.

BÉZA, THEODORE, or more correctly DE BÈZE, was born at Vezelai in Burgundy on the 24th July 1519. His family was of good descent, and his parents were noted for their piety and generosity. While an infant he was adopted by his uncle, Nicholas de Beza, a counsellor of the parliament of Paris, who took his nephew to live with him, and superintended his education with the greatest care. At the age of ten he was put under the tuition of Melchior Wolmar, a German, who resided at Orleans. Beza studied under him for seven years at Orleans and at Bourges, and from him received the impulse which guided his after life. Wolmar, who was an excellent scholar, belonged to the Reformed Church, and his pupil not only learned from him the principles of the Reformed faith, but acquired the habit of diligent and critical study of Scripture. After the return of Wolmar to Germany in 1535, Beza with great reluctance departed for Orleans in order to begin the study of law. His tasks lay altogether in the direction of classics and poetry, and to this period of his life must be referred the composition of many of the licentious poems, the publication of which cost him so much regret, and has brought upon him such calumny. After four years he obtained the degree of licentiate in law, and leaving Orleans, took up his abode in Paris. He was young, ardent, and poetical, of high rank, surrounded with friends, and amply supplied with funds,—for, though he was not in orders, he enjoyed the proceeds of two benefices. It was small wonder that under these circumstances he should have yielded to the temptations of Paris, and have eagerly seized the pleasures that presented themselves. But the extent of his dissipation has been enormously exaggerated; more particularly has his connection with the woman whom he afterwards married been the occasion of calumny and misrepresentation. A severe illness at last recalled to his mind the teachings of his old master Wolmar, and brought clearly before him the contrast his conduct presented to them.—Immediately on his recovery, in October 1548, he

retired to Geneva, publicly fulfilled his promise to marry the woman with whom he had formerly lived, and joined the Reformed Church. In the following year he was made professor of Greek at the academy of Lausanne, where he remained for ten years, communicating frequently with Calvin at Geneva. During this time he completed Clement Marot's French translation of the Psalms, and began the extended labours on the New Testament, which resulted in his famous translation and commentary. His veneration for Calvin, already great, was strengthened by closer intercourse; he vigorously defended the execution of Servetus; and in 1558 he gladly removed to Geneva. He was appointed professor of Greek in the academy, and assisted Calvin in his theological lectures. Soon by his vigorous teaching, his numerous writings, and his success in foreign embassies, he came to be looked upon as the most prominent man in the church of Geneva next to Calvin; and after the death of the latter in 1564, he was nominated his successor as teacher of theology, and generally recognized as the leader of the Calvinist party. His enormous activity enabled him not only to manage the internal affairs of the church, and to carry on the important negotiations with France and other powers, but also to compose several theological works of considerable value. Old age did not rob him of his energy; for in 1597 he was able to give a satirical refutation of the story spread about by the Roman Catholics that he had apostatized on his death-bed. He resigned all his official functions in 1600, and died on the 13th October 1605, at the advanced age of 86.

Beza's works were very numerous, and some of them, such as *Histoire ecclésiastique des églises réformées du royaume de France*, *Confessio*, *Tractationes Theologicae*, are still of value. His reputation, however, rested, and still perhaps rests, on his editions and translations of the New Testament, which did much for the cause of the Reformation. See Schlosser, *Leben des Theodor Beza, etc.*, 1809; Baum, *Theodor Beza*, 2 vols., 1843-51 (incomplete). A biography of him was written by one of his favourite pupils, Antoine La Faye.

BÉZIERS, a city of France, in the department of Hérault, the capital of an arrondissement of the same name. It is beautifully situated on a hill, on the left bank of the River Orbe, where it is joined by the Languedoc canal, 38 miles S.W. of Montpellier. It is surrounded by old walls flanked with towers, round which is a promenade planted with trees, and has a fine old Gothic cathedral, Saint Nazaire, dating from the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries, several churches, an old episcopal palace, now used for the Government offices, a communal college, an agricultural society, a theatre, and a public library. It manufactures silk stockings, starch, gloves, brandy, confectionery, paper, leather, and glass, and has a considerable trade. Béziers is of great antiquity, and has the remains of an amphitheatre, a causeway across the marsh of Cap-estang, and other Roman works. The Romans established a colony there, and it was the headquarters of the seventh legion, under the title of *Baterra Septimanorum*. The present name occurs in the form *Besara* as early as Festus Avienus (5th or 6th century). The town was completely destroyed in 1209 by the forces of Simon de Montfort in the crusade against the Albigenses, on which occasion 60,000 persons were massacred. The walls of the town were rebuilt in 1289; but it again suffered severely in the civil and religious wars of the 16th century, and all its fortifications were destroyed in 1632. Population in 1872, 30,067.

BÉZIQUE, a game at cards (probably from Sp. *besico*, little kiss, in allusion to the meeting of the queen and knave, an important feature in the game). There is a group of card games which possess many features in common. The oldest of these is *mariage*, then follow *brusquemille*, *l'homme de brou*, *briscan* or *brisque*, and *cinq-cenis*.



Bézique (also called *besi* and *besigue*) appears to have been founded on these; it is, in fact, *brisque* played with a double pack, and with certain modifications rendered necessary by the introduction of additional cards.

In playing bézique, two packs of cards from which the twos, threes, fours, fives, and sixes have been rejected, are shuffled together and used as one. The packs should have backs similarly coloured or ornamented.

The players cut for deal, and the highest bézique card deals. The cards rank as follows:—Ace, ten, king, queen, knave, nine, eight, seven.

The non-dealer cuts the pack to the dealer, who reunites the separated packets, and deals three cards to his adversary, three to himself, then two to each, and again three to each. The top card of those remaining (called the *stock*) is turned up for trumps. The stock is placed face downwards between the players, and slightly spread. The players then take up the cards dealt to them, and the non-dealer plays any card out of his hand, and the dealer plays a card to it from his hand, the two cards thus played constituting a *trick*. There is no restriction as to the card to be played; if the second player need not follow suit, nor win the trick. If he wins the trick by playing a higher card of the suit led, or a trump, the lead falls to him. In case of ties the leader wins. Whoever wins the trick leads to the next; but before playing again each player takes a card from the stock, and adds it to his hand, the winner of the trick taking the top card of those face downwards, and his adversary the next card. This alternate playing and drawing a card each continues until the stock (including the trump card or card exchanged for it, which is taken up last) is exhausted. The tricks remain face upwards on the table, but must not be searched during the play of the hand.

The objects of the play are—1. To promote in the hand various combinations of cards, which when declared entitle the holder to certain scores; 2. To win aces and tens; 3. To win the so-called last trick.

A declaration can only be made by the winner of a trick immediately after he has won it, and before he draws from the stock. It is effected by placing the declared cards (one of which at least must not have been declared before) face upwards on the table. Declared cards are left face up on the table; but they still form part of the hand, and can be led or played just as though they had not been declared. A player is not bound to declare, although he may win a trick and hold scoring cards. A card led or played cannot be declared. More than one declaration may be made to one trick, provided no card of one combination forms part of another that is declared with it. Thus four knaves and a marriage (see table of scores) may be declared at the same time; but a player cannot declare king and queen of spades and knave of diamonds together to score marriage and bézique with those three cards. He must first declare one combination, say bézique; and when he wins another trick he can score marriage by declaring the king. A declaration cannot be made of cards that have already all been declared. Thus, if four knaves (one being a bézique knave) and four queens (one being a bézique queen) have been declared, the knave and queen already declared cannot be declared again as bézique. To score all the combinations with these cards, after the knaves are declared and another trick won, bézique must next be made, after which, on winning another trick, the three queens can be added, and four queens scored. Again, if a sequence in trumps is declared, marriage of the king and queen on the table cannot afterwards take place. To score both, the marriage should be declared first, and after winning another trick the remaining sequence cards should be added. Lastly, a card once declared can only be used again in declaring in combinations of a different class. For example: the bézique queen can be declared in bézique, marriage, and four queens; but having once been declared in single bézique, she cannot form part of another single bézique; having been married once, she cannot be married again; and having taken part in one set of four queens, she cannot take part in another.

The seven of trumps may be either declared or exchanged for the turn-up after winning a trick, and before drawing. When exchanged, the turn-up is taken into the player's hand, and the seven put in its place. The second seven is, of course, declared, as it would be absurd to exchange one seven for another. A seven when declared is not left on the table, but is simply shown.

Table of Bézique Scores.

Seven of trumps, <sup>1</sup> turned up, dealer marks.....	10
Seven of trumps, declared or exchanged, player marks....	10
Marriage (king and queen of any suit) declared.....	20
Royal marriage (king and queen of trumps) declared.....	40

<sup>1</sup> Some players do not turn up a card for trumps, but make the trump suit depend on the first marriage declared. The turning up rule is the best.

Bézique <sup>2</sup> (queen of spades and knave of diamonds) declared.....	40
Double bézique <sup>3</sup> (all the four bézique cards) declared.....	500
Four aces (any four, whether duplicates or not), declared.....	100
Four kings (any four) declared.....	80
Four queens (any four) declared.....	60
Four knaves (any four) declared.....	40
Sequence (ace, ten, king, queen, knave of trumps) declared.....	250
Aces and tens, <sup>4</sup> in tricks, the winner for each one marks.....	10
Last trick, <sup>5</sup> the winner marks.....	10

The winner of the last trick can declare anything in his hand (subject to the limitations with regard to declaring already explained). After this all declarations cease. The winner of the last trick takes the last card of the stock, and the loser the turn up card (or seven exchanged for it). All cards on the table, that have been declared and not played, are taken up by their owners. The last eight tricks are then played, but the rules of play alter. The winner of the last trick leads. The second player must follow suit if able, and must win the trick if able, and if not able to follow suit, he must win the trick if he can by trumping. The winner of the trick leads to the next. The tricks are only valuable for the aces and tens they may contain. If a player revokes in the last eight tricks, or does not win the card led, if able, the last eight tricks belong to his adversary.

When a deal is over, the non-dealer in the previous hand deals, and so on alternately until the game is won by one of the players reaching 1000. All the scores are reckoned by tens, but there is no reason why they should not be reckoned by units, the game in that case being 100 up. The score may be kept by means of a bézique board and pegs, or by a numbered dial and hand, or by counters.

PENALTIES.—If the dealer gives too few cards the number must be completed from the stock, or the non-dealer, not having looked at his cards, may have a fresh deal.

If the dealer gives his adversary too many cards the player who has too many must not draw until his number is reduced to seven.

If the dealer gives himself too many cards the non-dealer may draw the surplus cards and add them to the stock, unless the dealer has looked at his hand, when he is liable to the penalty for playing with nine cards (*infra*).

A card exposed in dealing gives the adversary the option of a fresh deal.

If a player draws out of his turn, and the adversary discovers the error before he draws, he may add 20 to his score, or deduct 20 from his adversary's.

If the winner of a trick when drawing lifts two cards, the adversary may have them exposed, and take his choice. If the loser of a trick lifts two cards, the adversary may look at the one improperly lifted, and at the next draw that card and the next are turned face up, and the player not in fault has his choice of them.

If a player plays with seven cards his adversary may add 20 to his own score, or deduct 20 from the offender's. The player with a card short must take two cards at his next draw.

If at any time during the play of the hand one player is found to hold nine cards, the other having but eight, the adversary of the player with nine cards may add 200 to his own score, or deduct 200 from the offender's. The player with nine cards must play to the next trick without drawing.

There is no penalty at two handed bézique for exposing a card from the hand, or for leading out of turn. At three or four handed bézique, a card exposed or led out of turn must remain on the table, and nothing can be subsequently declared in combination with it.

<sup>2</sup> When clubs or hearts are trumps, the bézique cards are queen of spades and knave of diamonds. When spades or diamonds are trumps, the bézique cards are queen of clubs and knave of hearts. Some players object to this alteration, but it is a great improvement to the game.

<sup>3</sup> If single bézique is declared first, and then the two other bézique cards added, 500 is scored in addition to the 40 already scored; but if all four are declared together only 500 can be scored, and not 540.

<sup>4</sup> The winner of a trick containing two aces or two tens, or one of each, of course marks 20. The best plan is to score aces and tens immediately they are won; but some players only score them at the end of the hand. When this mode is adopted, the winner of a trick containing an ace or ten takes the tricks on the table and turns them face downwards in front of himself, and after the hand is over looks through his packet to ascertain the number of aces and tens it contains. When scoring in this way it occasionally happens that both players can score out, in which case precedence is given to the winner of the so-called last trick.

<sup>5</sup> The so-called last trick is the last before the stock is exhausted. When two cards of the stock, viz., the trump and another card, remain on the table, the player winning the trick is said to win the last trick, notwithstanding that there are still eight tricks to be played.

When a card is led out of turn, if all the other players play to it, the error cannot be rectified.

THREE AND FOUR HANDED BÉZIQUE.—When three play, three packs are used together. All play against each other. The dealer deals to his left; the player first dealt to has the first lead. The rotation of dealing goes to the left. A second double bézique, counting 500, may be declared to a bézique on the table, which has already been used for double bézique. Triple bézique scores 1500. All the cards of the triple bézique must be on the table at the same time and unplayed to a trick. All may be declared together, or a double bézique may be added to a single one, or a third bézique may be added to a double bézique already declared. The game is 2000 up. In playing the last eight tricks, the third hand, if not able to follow suit, nor to win the trick by trumping, may throw away any card he pleases.

When four play, four packs are shuffled together and used as one. The players may score independently, or they may play as partners. A second double bézique or triple bézique may be scored as before; to form them the bézique may be declared from the hand of either partner. A player may declare when he or his partner takes a trick. In playing the last eight tricks, the winner of the last trick and the adversary to his left play their cards against each other, and then the other two similarly play theirs.

HINTS TO PLAYERS.—The following hints, which merely touch on the elements of the play, may assist the beginner:—

The lead is, as a rule, disadvantageous. Therefore do not win the trick unless—(1) you want to declare; or (2) you wish to make an ace or ten of the suit led; or (3) an ace or ten is led which you desire to win.

Sevens, eights, and nines in plain suits are valueless. In trumps they should be kept to obtain the lead with. It is very important to keep one small trump in hand if possible. Knaves also are of but little value (except bézique and trump knaves), and may be thrown away freely.

It is of more importance to win aces and tens or to make tricks with them than at first sight appears. Experienced players prefer a number of small scores to sacrificing them for the chance of a large one. Therefore it is not considered good play as a rule to go for four aces unless you have three, and are in no difficulty as to your play. Rather make tricks with the aces, and especially capture tens with them. Whenever you are second player, and can win a trick with a ten, take it, except in trumps, of which the ten is kept for sequence.

When in difficulties, lead an ace or a ten in preference to a king or queen. As a rule, if you try for aces, you have to sacrifice some other score, and are pretty sure to lose some of the aces after declaring them.

If driven to lead an ace or a ten, and your opponent does not win it, lead another.

Endeavour to recollect in what suits the aces and tens have been played, so that, when leading, you may choose suits of which the most aces and tens are out. Similarly, if your adversary declares aces, avoid leading the suits of the declared aces; and, in discarding, retain those cards which are least likely to be taken by aces and tens.

Having a choice between playing a possible scoring card, or a small trump, or a card that you have declared, generally play the last so as to conceal your hand.

Do not part with a sequence card early in the hand, even if you have a duplicate, as playing it shows that you are likely to hold the duplicate, and you thus free your opponent's game, as he will immediately use his trump sequence cards to win all the aces and tens you lead.

Also, do not part with bézique cards until near the end of the hand, even after declaring bézique, because by so doing you give up all chance of double bézique. If you draw or hold a third bézique card, sacrifice everything, even sequence cards, for the chance of a double bézique.

Avoid declaring combinations which show your adversary that he cannot make sequence or double bézique. By keeping him in the dark you hamper his game, and are very likely to cause him to refrain from trumping your aces or tens. For example, if early in the hand you hold two trump queens and two bézique queens, you should postpone declaring them as long as possible, or even sacrifice the score altogether.

You may often judge during the play of the hand what combinations your adversary is going for. Thus, if he discards kings he is probably strong in queens, and vice versa. If in doubt as to whether you should keep kings or queens, you of course choose the combination he is not trying for. With attention and experience it is surprising how much may be inferred as to your adversary's game, and how greatly your own line of play may be thus directed.

It is as a rule right to win the last trick, in order to prevent the adversary from declaring, for which purpose lead the ace of trumps. When within a few tricks of the end of the hand, you may often prevent your opponent from scoring sequence by leading out your high trumps.

In playing the last eight tricks your object is simply to make as many aces and tens as you can, and to win those of your adversary.

POLISH BÉZIQUE (also called *Open Bézique* and *Fild-niski*) differs from ordinary bézique in the following particulars:—

Whenever a scoring card is played, the winner of the trick places it face upwards in front of him (the same with both cards if two scoring cards are played to a trick), forming rows of aces, kings, queens, knaves, and trump tens (called *open cards*). Cards of the same denomination are placed overlapping one another lengthwise from the player towards his adversary to economise space. When a scoring card is placed among the open cards, all the sevens, eights, nines, and plain suit tens in the tricks are turned down. Open cards cannot be played a second time, and can only be used in declaring. Whether so used or not they remain face upwards on the table until the end of the hand, including the last eight tricks. A player can declare after winning a trick and before drawing again, when the trick won contains a card or cards, which added to his open cards complete any combination that scores. Every declaration must include a card played to the trick last won. Aces and tens must be scored as soon as won, and not at the end of the hand. The seven of trumps can be exchanged by the winner of the trick containing it; and if the turn-up card is one that can be used in declaring, it becomes an open card when exchanged. The seven of trumps when not exchanged is scored for by the player winning the trick containing it.

Compound declarations are allowed, i.e., cards added to the open cards can at once be used, without waiting to win another trick, in as many combinations of different classes as they will form with the winner's open cards. For example: A has three open kings, and he wins a trick containing a king. Before drawing again he places the fourth king with the other three, and scores 80 for kings. This is a simple declaration. But suppose the card led was the queen of trumps, and A wins it with the king, and he has the following open cards—three kings, three queens, and ace, ten, knave of trumps. He at once declares royal marriage (40); four kings (80); four queens (60); and sequence (250); and scores in all, 430. Again: ace of spades is turned up, and ace of hearts is led. The second player has two open aces, and wins the ace of hearts with the seven of trumps and exchanges. He scores for the exchange, 10; for the ace of hearts, 10; for the ace of spades, 10; and adds the aces to his open cards, and scores 100 for aces; in all, 130. If a declaration or part of a compound declaration is omitted, and the winner of the trick draws again, he cannot amend his score.

The ordinary rule holds that a second declaration cannot be made of a card already declared in the same class. Thus: a queen once married cannot be married again; a fifth king added to four already declared does not entitle to another score for kings.

The fundamental point to be borne in mind is, that no declaration can be effected by means of cards held in the hand. Thus: A having three open queens and a queen in hand cannot add it to his open cards. He must win another trick containing a queen, when he can declare queens.

Declarations continue during the play of the last eight tricks just the same as during the play of the other cards.

The game is 2000 up. After each deal it is advisable to shuffle thoroughly; otherwise a number of small cards will run together in the stock, and impair the interest of the game. It is also advisable to adopt the change in the bézique cards recommended for ordinary bézique, otherwise the scores of one hand may run very high, and of the other very low, which spoils the game. The lead is even more disadvantageous than at ordinary bézique. It is important not to lead cards that can be won by bézique cards. It is often advisable to win with a high card though able to win with a low one; thus having king, nine of a suit of which the eight is led, if you win the trick, you should take it with the king. It is not of so much consequence to win aces and tens (especially the latter) as at ordinary bézique. It is a difficult point in the game to decide whether to win tricks with sequence cards, on the chance of eventually scoring sequence, or to reserve trumps for the last eight tricks. As a rule, if the hand is well advanced, and you are badly off in trumps, win tricks with sequence cards, and especially if you have duplicate sequence cards make them both. If badly off in trumps towards the end of a hand, and your adversary may win double bézique, keep in hand an ace or ten of the bézique suits, as when it comes to the last eight tricks (in which suit must be followed), you may prevent the score of double bézique.

GRAND BÉZIQUE (also called *Chinese Bézique*) is played like ordinary bézique, except as follows:—

Four packs are shuffled together and used as one, and nine cards are dealt to each player, by three at a time to each. When a combination is declared, and one of the cards composing it is played away, another declaration can be completed (after winning a trick) with the same cards. Thus: A declares four aces, and uses one to win a trick, or throws one away. A has a fifth ace in hand and wins a