

BIBULUS. The best-known of those who bore this surname, which belonged to the Gens Calpurnia at Rome, was Marcus Calpurnius Bibulus, elected consul with Julius Cæsar, 59 B.C. He was the candidate put forward by the aristocratic party in opposition to L. Lucceius, who was of the party of Cæsar; and bribery was freely used (with the approval, says Suetonius, of even the rigid Cato) to secure his election. But he proved no match for his able colleague. He made an attempt to oppose the agrarian law introduced by Cæsar for distributing the lands of Campania, but was overpowered and even personally ill-treated by the violence of the mob. After making vain complaints in the senate, he shut himself up in his own house during the remaining eight months of his consulship, taking no part in public business beyond fulminating edicts against Cæsar's proceedings, which only provoked an attack upon his house by a mob of Cæsar's partizans. When the interests of Cæsar and Pompey became divided, Bibulus supported the latter, and joined in proposing his election as sole consul (52 B.C.) Next year he went into Syria as proconsul, and claimed credit for a victory gained by one of his officers over the Parthians, who had invaded the province, but which took place before his own arrival in the country. After the expiration of his government there, Pompey gave him the command of his fleet in the Ionian Sea. Here also he proved himself utterly incapable; distinguishing himself chiefly by the cruel burning, with all their crews on board, of thirty transport vessels which had conveyed Cæsar from Brundisium to the coast of Epirus, and which he had captured on their return, having failed to prevent their passage. He died soon afterwards of fatigue and mortification. By his wife Portia, daughter of Cato, afterwards married to Brutus, he had three sons. The two eldest were murdered in Egypt by some of the soldiery of Gabinius; the youngest, Lucius Calpurnius Bibulus, fought on the side of the republic at the battle of Philippi, but surrendered to Antony soon afterwards, and was by him appointed to the command of his fleet. He died while governor of Syria under Augustus.

BICHAT, MARIE-FRANÇOIS-XAVIER, a celebrated French anatomist and physiologist, was born at Thoirette in the department of Ain, in 1771. His father, who was himself a physician, was his first instructor. He entered the College of Nantua, and afterwards studied at Lyons. In mathematics and the physical sciences he made rapid progress. Becoming passionately fond of natural history he ultimately devoted himself to the study of anatomy and surgery, under the guidance of Petit, chief surgeon to the Hôtel Dieu at Lyons. He resumed for a time his early studies, restricting himself, however, within such limits as did not interfere with his medical pursuits. Petit soon discerned the superior talents of his pupil, and, although the latter had scarcely attained the age of twenty, employed him constantly as his assistant. The revolutionary disturbances compelled Bichat to fly from Lyons and take refuge in Paris about the end of the year 1793. He there became a pupil of the celebrated surgeon Desault. One day, volunteering to supply the place of an absent pupil who was to have recapitulated the lecture of the day before, he acquitted himself so admirably that Desault was strongly impressed with his genius; and from that time Bichat became an inmate in his house, and was treated as his adopted son. For two years he actively participated in all the labours of Desault, prosecuting at the same time his own researches in anatomy and physiology. The sudden death of Desault in 1795 was a severe blow to Bichat. His first care was to acquit himself of the obligations he owed his benefactor, by contributing to the support of his widow and her son, and by conducting to a close the fourth volume of Desault's *Journal de Chirurgie*, to which

he added a biographical memoir of its author. His next object was to reunite and digest in one body the surgical doctrines which Desault had published in various periodical works. Of these he composed, in 1797, the book entitled *Œuvres Chirurgicales de Desault, ou Tableau de sa Doctrine, et de sa Pratique dans le Traitement des Maladies Externes*, a work in which, although he professes only to set forth the ideas of another, he develops them with the clearness and copiousness of one who is a master of the subject. He was now at liberty to pursue the full bent of his genius, and, undisturbed by the storms which agitated the political world, he directed his full attention to surgery, which it was then his design to practise. We meet with many proofs of his industry at this period in the *Recueil de la Société Médicale d'Emulation*, an association of which Bichat was one of the most active members. In 1797 he began a course of anatomical demonstrations, and his success encouraged him to extend the plan of his lectures, and boldly to announce a course of operative surgery. Bichat's reputation was now fully established, and he was ever after the favourite teacher with the Paris students. In the following year, 1798, he gave, in addition to his course on anatomy and operative surgery, a separate course of physiology. A dangerous attack of hæmoptysis interrupted for a time these heavy labours; but the danger was no sooner past than he plunged into new engagements with the same ardour as before. He had now scope in his physiological lectures for a fuller exposition of his original views on the animal economy, which excited much attention in the medical schools at Paris. Sketches of these doctrines were given by him in three papers contained in the *Memoirs of the Société Médicale d'Emulation*. The doctrines were afterwards more fully developed in his *Traité sur les Membranes*, which appeared in 1806. In the notes to a small work, in which he gave in a condensed form the lessons of Desault on the diseases of the urinary passages, are found the germs of many of Bichat's peculiar views.

His next publication was the *Récherches Physiologiques sur la Vie et sur la Mort* (1800), which consists of two dissertations. In the first he explains his classification of functions, and traces the distinction between the animal and organic functions in all its bearings. In the second he investigates the connection between life and the actions of the three central organs, the heart, lungs, and brain. But the work which contains the fruits of his most profound and original researches is the *Anatomie Générale*, published in 4 vols. 8vo in 1801.

Before Bichat had attained the age of eight-and-twenty he was appointed physician to the Hôtel Dieu, a situation which opened an immense field to his ardent spirit of inquiry. In the investigation of diseases he pursued the same method of observation and experiment which had characterized his researches in physiology. He learned their history by studying them at the bedside of his patients, and by accurate dissection of their bodies after death. He engaged in a series of examinations, with a view to ascertain the changes induced in the various organs by disease, and in less than six months he had opened above six hundred bodies. He was anxious also to determine, with more precision than had been attempted before, the effects of remedial agents, and instituted with this view a series of direct experiments on a very extensive scale. In this way he procured a vast store of valuable materials for his course of lectures on the *Materia Medica*, the completion of which was prevented by his death; but a great part of the facts were embodied in the inaugural dissertations of his pupils. Latterly, he also occupied himself with forming a new classification of diseases.

Bichat commenced a new work on anatomy, in which

the organs were arranged according to his peculiar classification of their functions, under the title of *Anatomie Descriptive*, but he lived only to publish the first two volumes. It was continued on the same plan, and completed in five volumes by his assistants MM. Buisson and Roux. His death was occasioned by a fall from a staircase at the Hôtel Dieu, which threw him into a fever. Exhausted by excessive labour, and enfeebled by constantly breathing the tainted air of the dissecting-room, he sank under the attack and died on the 22d July 1802, attended to the last by the widow of his benefactor, from whom he had never been separated. His funeral was attended by above six hundred of his pupils, and by a large number of the physicians of Paris. His bust, together with that of Desault, was placed in the Hôtel Dieu by order of Napoleon.

BICYCLE. As the derivation of the term implies, the chief component parts of this machine consist of two wheels. The word is applied to those two-wheeled machines which have been brought to their present state of perfection for human locomotion during the past five years. Shortly after the close of the great Continental war in 1815, the first bicycle was introduced into England from France. It was at the best an awkward affair, composed of a couple of heavy wooden wheels of equal diameter, one behind the other, and joined together by a longitudinal wooden bar on which the rider's seat was fixed, the mode of propulsion being the pushing the feet against the ground. That such a cumbersome method of locomotion soon died a natural death is not to be wondered at. For the next fifty years no real progress was made, as various kinds of levers and other attempted appliances were found too intricate. In 1869 M. Michaux of Paris conceived the idea of making the front or driving wheel much larger than the hind wheel; and very soon afterwards, M. Magee, another Parisian, still further improved bicycles by making them entirely of steel and iron. The principle of crank action attached to revolving axles having also become developed, the pastime of bicycling was entirely revolutionized. India-rubber tyres and strong beaks were brought into requisition to relieve jolting; and now-a-days a crack racing bicycle with a driving-wheel from 55 to 60 inches diameter does not exceed 50 lb in weight, or about half the weight of one of the old wooden machines. Tricycles have been tried, but no great amount of speed will ever be got out of them until the friction and weight can be materially reduced.

The diameter of the front or driving wheel of the modern bicycle varies from 2½ to 5 feet, according to the length of the rider's legs. When it is meant for racing, most of the component parts are lighter, and the rest for relieving the legs when going down hill is dispensed with. The rider sits astride a small saddle, and the motive power is obtained from the feet, working the crank treadles attached to the revolving axle of the driving-wheel. There being no lateral support to the machine, the first thing to be learnt is balancing, after which it is best to begin riding down a gentle gradient without using the treadles. Steering, which is managed by a transverse handle attached to the driving-wheel and placed in front of the rider, should be mastered in the same manner, after which the feet and legs may be brought into play on the treadles and speed gradually acquired. Falls are inevitable at first, and they are best avoided by slightly turning the driving-wheel in the direction the machine is inclining, not the contrary way. Care must be taken to keep all bearings, &c., oiled from time to time, in order to prevent friction and so lessen speed. With the exception of skating, bicycling is the quickest means of locomotion that man possesses. A fair bicyclist can outstrip a horse in a day, whilst an expert can do so in an hour. Bicycling has rapidly grown in favour during the past two years; and long tours are

now made with the greatest ease. Where the roads are fairly level, and in a tolerably good state of repair, the bicycle is unsurpassed as a means of self-locomotion. In hilly and mountainous countries, where there are no made roads, or where they are much broken up and heavy, it is next to useless, although india-rubber tyres to a certain extent relieve the jolting over rough ground. Lightness, great strength, and the best of workmanship are necessary in the manufacture of bicycles in order to prevent serious accidents. It is in the two former requisites that steel and india-rubber have such an advantage over iron and wood.

As a proof of the perfection to which bicycle-riding has now been brought, the following best performances on record, over a prepared cinder path, may be mentioned, viz. :—

Miles.	Hours.	Min.	Sec.	Miles.	Hours.	Min.	Sec.
10	0	1	32½	10	0	34	41
20	0	2	19½	20	1	12	38
30	0	3	0	30	1	52	48
40	0	6	31	40	2	31	48
50	0	9	58	50	3	9	21
60	0	13	19½	60	4	11	24
70	0	16	41	70	4	56	35
80	0	20	55	80	5	46	48
90	0	24	23	90	6	42	21
100	0	28	5	100	7	33	43
106	0	31	2	106	7	58	54½

The last of these, as one of the London daily journals remarked, fairly ranks as "the most extraordinary performance on record of any man, animal, or machine." The distance from Tunbridge to Liverpool, 234 miles, has been accomplished in 18 hours 35 minutes. A hundred miles a day, over fair roads, has often been achieved for several days together, and many such journeys are recorded. A ride of 800 miles, from London to John O'Groats, was made in 14 days, over unexceptionally hilly and heavy roads, in June 1873.

BIDA, an inland town of Africa, situated in about N. lat. 9° 5' and E. long. 6° 5', sixteen miles N. of the River Niger or Quorra, and lying N.N.W. of the town of Egga. Bida, which was visited by Dr Baikie in 1862, is a large town, the capital of the kingdom of Nupe.

BIDDLE, JOHN, frequently called the father of English Unitarianism, was born in 1615 at Wotton-under-Edge in Gloucestershire. He was educated at the grammar school of his native town, and then proceeded to Magdalen Hall, Oxford. He graduated as bachelor of arts in 1638 and as master in 1641, and was then appointed to the mastership of the free school in the city of Gloucester. While conducting this school in an admirable manner he diligently prosecuted his theological studies; and the results he arrived at were of such a nature as to draw down upon him the reprobation of the civic authorities. He circulated privately a tract called *Twelve Arguments drawn out of Scripture, wherein the commonly-received opinion touching the deity of the Holy Spirit is clearly and fully refuted*; and towards the close of 1645 he was summoned before the Parliamentary committee then sitting at Gloucester. By them he was committed to prison, though he was at the time labouring under a dangerous fever. He was released on bail after an imprisonment of some duration, and was then called before the Parliament, which desired to inquire into his views. After tedious proceedings Biddle was committed to custody, in which he remained for five years. During that time the Assembly of Divines at Westminster had discussed his opinions, and in defence he published his *Twelve Arguments*. The book was at once ordered by Parliament to be seized and burned by the hangman. Notwithstanding this, Biddle issued two tracts, one a *Confession of Faith with regard to the Holy Trinity*, the other *Testimonies of Irenæus, &c., concerning the one God and the Persons of the Holy Trinity*. These were suppressed by Government, and the Assembly of Divines eagerly pressed for the passing of an Act by which heretics like Biddle could be put to death. This, however, was resisted by the army, and by many of the Independent Parliamentarians; and after the death of the king, Biddle

was allowed to reside in Staffordshire under surveillance. In 1651 the general Act of Oblivion gave him complete freedom, and his adherents soon began the practice of meeting regularly for worship on Sundays. They were called Biddellians, or Socinians, or Unitarians, the name which has now become associated with their opinions. Biddle was not left long in peace. He translated some Socinian books, among others the *Life of Socinus*, and published two catechisms, which excited a fury of indignation against him. He was summoned before the Parliament and imprisoned. The dissolution of that body again set him at liberty for a short time, but he was presently brought up for some expressions used by him in a discussion with a Baptist clergyman. He was put upon trial, and was only rescued by Cromwell, who sent him out of the way to one of the Scilly Islands, and after three years released him. But in 1662 he was again arrested, and fined £100. As he was unable to pay this sum, he was at once committed to prison, where fever, caused by the pestilential atmosphere, carried him off on the 22d September 1662.

BIDEFORD, a municipal borough, market-town, and seaport, in the county of Devon, eight miles S.W. of Barnstaple, with which it is connected by railway. It is situated on the slopes of two hills which rise from the banks of the River Torridge, near its confluence with the Taw, about four miles from the sea. The two portions of the town are united by a bridge of fourteen arches, built, it is said, in the 14th century, and widened in 1864. The bridge forms a favourite promenade, and is endowed for its repair with lands that produce an annual rent of £300 or £400. Many of the houses in the town are built in the ancient fashion with bricks and wooden framework. The old church of St Mary, with the exception of the tower, was taken down and rebuilt in 1864, and the town-hall is also of modern erection. In addition to these buildings Bideford possesses several large churches and schools, a union workhouse, assembly-rooms, a hospital for aged poor, a reading-room, and a literary and scientific institution. Bideford was already a place of some size under the Saxons, received the right of holding a market in 1271, and was made a free borough in 1573. In the 16th and 17th centuries it was a place of great trade, and in some respects was only exceeded by Exeter and London. The weaving of silk was introduced in 1650, and after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes received extensive development from some French refugees. Bideford now manufactures earthen wares, ropes, sails, and leather, builds ships, and has a considerable trade both domestic and foreign. Vessels of 500 tons can come up to its quay. It exports oak-bark, grain, and its own manufactures, and imports timber from Canada and the Baltic, with fruits, wines, and brandies from the south of Europe. The value of its imports was, in 1873, £13,310. Anthracite, coarse potters' clay, and a mineral paint are found in the neighbourhood. Population of municipal borough in 1871, 6969.

BIDPAI, more commonly known under the corrupted name of Pildpai, is the supposed author of a famous collection of Hindu fables. Nothing is known of Bidpai beyond the name, which, indeed, occurs only in the Arabic version, but the history of the collection of stories is curious and interesting. The origin of them is undoubtedly to be found in the *Pantcha Tantra*, or Five Sections, an extensive body of fables or apologues. A second collection, called the *Hitopadesa*, has become more widely known in Europe than the first, on which it is apparently founded. In the 6th century A.D., a translation into Pehlvi of a number of these old fables was made by Barzuyeh, a physician at the court of Nushirvan, king of Persia. No traces

of this Persian translation can now be found, but nearly two centuries later, Abdallah-ibn-Mokaffah translated the Persian into Arabic; and his version, which is known as the "Book of Kalilah and Dimna," from the two jackals in the first story, became the channel through which a knowledge of the fables was transmitted to Europe. It was translated into Greek by Simeon Sethus towards the close of the 11th century; his version, however, does not appear to have been retranslated into any other European language. But the Hebrew version of Rabbi Joel, made somewhat later, was translated into Latin by John of Capua, and in that form became widely known. Since then the fables have been translated into nearly every European tongue. There are also versions of them in the modern Persian, Malay, Mongol, and Afghan languages.

See Wilson's analysis of the *Pantcha Tantra*, in the *Mem. of the Royal Asiatic Soc.*, i.; De Saoy's introduction to his edition of the *Kalilah and Dimna*, 1816; articles by the same in *Notices et Extr. des MSS. de la Bib. du Roi*, vols. ix. and x.; Wolff, *Bidpai's Fabeln*, 2 vols. 1837; Loiseleur des Longchamps, *Essai sur les Fables Indiennes*, 1838; Benfey, *Pantcha Tantra*, 2 vols. 1859.

BIEL (or in French **BIENNE**), a town of the canton of Bern, in Switzerland, situated at the foot of the Jura Mountains, near the northern end of the lake to which it gives its name. It is well built, and possesses a town-house of some antiquity, a remarkable church, a hospital, a gymnasium, and an industrial school. There is considerable industrial activity in Biel, especially in the manufacture of cotton, leather, iron wire, and watches. Founded in the 11th or 12th century, Biel continued under the authority of the bishopric of Basel till the beginning of the 15th, when it formed an alliance with Bern, Soleure, and Freiburg. Its defence against the French in 1798 is commemorated by an obelisk on a neighbouring eminence. Its incorporation with Basel dates from 1815. Population, 8113.

BIEL, GABRIEL, frequently but erroneously styled the last of the scholastics, was born at Spire about the middle of the 15th century. He held for some time a pastoral charge at Mainz, and afterwards removed to Urach. On the foundation of the University of Tübingen in 1477 he was appointed to the professorship of theology, and was twice afterwards promoted to the dignity of rector. Some years before his death, in 1495, he entered a religious fraternity. Biel was a follower of William of Occam, and professes only to develop systematically the principles of his master. His great work, *Collectorium super Libros Sententiarum G. Occami* (1508, 1512, and various dates), is an admirably clear and consistent account of the nominalist doctrine, and presents the complete system of scholastic thought regarded from that point of view. The strong empirical individualism of the work, tending necessarily to limit the province of reason and extend that of faith, together with scattered utterances on special points, which gained for Biel the title of *Papista Antipapista*, had considerable influence in giving form to the new doctrines of Luther and Melancthon. From its lucidity and relative completeness Biel's work is the best specimen of the final aspect of scholasticism. His other works have also been frequently reprinted. With regard to the title *Ultimus Scholasticorum*, often bestowed on Biel, it has been pointed out by all the best authorities that such a designation is quite inappropriate; scholasticism did not cease even in Germany with Biel, and it continued to flourish long after his time in the universities of Spain. (Stöckl, *Phil. d. Mittelalt.*, ii. § 269; Roscher *Ges. d. Nationalökonomik*, pp. 21-28.)

BIELAU, frequently distinguished as Langen Bielau, the longest village in the Prussian monarchy. It is situated in the government of Breslau in Silesia, on a tributary of the Piela, and extends for a distance of rather more than four miles. Its industrial establishments are numerous

and important, the cotton manufactory alone employing 2000 looms; while bleaching, dyeing, printing, tile-making, and sugar-refining are all extensively carried on. There is an old castle in the village belonging to Count Sandrecky. Population in 1871, 13,070.

BIELAYA TSERKOV (*i.e.*, White Church), a township of Russia, in the government of Kieff, 32 miles S.S.W. of Vasilko, on the main road from Kieff to the Crimea, in 49° 47' N. lat. and 30° 7' E. long. First mentioned in 1155, Bielaya Tserkov was destroyed during the Mongolian invasion, but afterwards recovered its prosperity. In 1550 a castle was built in the town by Prince Prunsky, waiwode of Kieff, and various immunities were bestowed on the inhabitants. A Polish army occupied the place in 1651, and from that time it was alternately subject to Poland and to independent hetmans. In 1774 it received a charter from Stanislas Augustus, and in 1793 was united to Russia. The principal buildings of Bielaya Tserkov include two Greek churches, one Roman Catholic church, two synagogues, a hospital, and a gymnasium (founded in 1846). In commercial activity the town only yields to Kieff, Berdicheff, and Uman—the chief articles of trade being cattle and grain. There are eleven annual fairs, three of which last for ten days each. The sales at these fairs amount to upwards of £28,000. Population in 1860, 12,075, of whom 7349 are Jews.

BIELFELD, a town in the Prussian province of Westphalia, the capital of a circle in the government of Minden. It is situated at the foot of the Osning, and consists of two portions, separated by the River Lutter, which were first united into one town in 1520. Among its public buildings and institutions are the old town church, with a curious carved altar piece, the town-house, the gymnasium, and the provincial industrial school. On the height above the town is the old castle of Sparrenberg, for a long time employed as a prison. It was founded about the 12th century, and originally bore the name of Löwenberg. Bielefeld is the centre of the Westphalian linen trade, and contains extensive factories and bleachfields. The Ravensberg factory has upwards of 24,000 spindles, and the Vorwärts, 10,700. Tobacco, glass, cement, cast-iron, leather, tiles, &c., are also manufactured in the town. Bielefeld is mentioned as early as the 9th century, as *Belanvelde*, and rose into importance in the 11th or 12th as the capital of the countship of Ravensburg. It joined the Hanseatic league in 1270, and about the same time began to engage in the linen manufacture, which was greatly extended during the 16th and 17th centuries by a number of refugees from the Netherlands. In 1666 the town passed with the countship to the duchy of Brandenburg. Population in 1871, 21,834.

BIELEFF, a town of Russia, in the government of Tula, and 82 miles from that city, on the left bank of the Oka, in 53° 48' N. lat. and 35° 9' E. long. It is first mentioned in 1147; it belonged to Lithuania in the end of the 14th century; and in 1468 it was raised to the rank of a principality, dependent on that country, by Basil Romanovitch, who had come thither from Odoeff. In the end of the 15th century this principality began to separate from Lithuania and attach itself to the Grand Duchy of Moscow; and by the peaceful treaty of Ivan III. with Alexander the Lithuanian Bieleff was ultimately united to Russia. In the 16th century it suffered greatly from the Tatars, especially in the years 1507, 1512, 1530, 1536, and 1544. In 1538 Ivan the Terrible exiled Prince John of Bieleff to Vologda, and in 1565 declared the lordship his own property. In 1607 Nikivitch Romanoff, general of the Emperor Basil Ivanovitch, gained a complete victory in the neighbourhood against the rebellious Prince Mosalsky. Transferred in 1708 from the Smolensk to the Kievan government, Bieleff passed

in 1719 to the Bielgorod district of Orloff, and in 1777 was made a departmental town of the government of Tula. In 1826 the Empress Elizabeth Alexievna died in Bieleff on her way from Taganrog to St Petersburg. The buildings of the town include nineteen churches and two monasteries, a hospital, a widow's asylum, a founding institution, an almshouse, a prison, and a theatre. A public library was founded in 1858 in memory of Basil Zhukovsky, who was born in a neighbouring village. The industrial establishments comprise tallow-boiling premises, oil manufactories, a tannery, a sugar-refinery, a distillery, &c. In extent of trade Bieleff ranks next in the government to Tula—the most important articles being grain, hemp, oil, and tallow. A great fair is held from the 28th of August to the 10th of September. The population in 1860 was 8063, by far the greater proportion belonging to the Greek Church.

BIELGOROD (*i.e.*, White Town), a town of Russia, in the government of Kursk, 87 miles S.S.W. from that city, in 50° 36' N. lat. and 36° 37' E. long., on the right bank of the North Donetz, near the confluence of the Vizelka. It occupies a high chalk hill, from which are annually quarried about 112 tons. The date of the founding of Bielgorod is uncertain, because it has been confounded with two other places of the same name. In Karamsin's *History* it is mentioned that the Grand Duke Theodore Ivanovitch in 1593 sent to found Bielgorod on the ruins of Siever; and it is certain that ancient remains are still to be seen in this city. In the 17th century Bielgorod suffered ceaselessly from Tatar incursions, against which, by command of the Emperor Michael Theodorovitch, there was built (from 1633 to 1740) an earthen wall, with twelve forts, extending upwards of 200 miles from the Vorskla to the Don. These defences were called the Bielgorod line, along which, in the reign of Alexias Michaelovitch, there were settled emigrants from Cherkas, Zimbar, Corsun, and elsewhere. In 1666 an episcopal see was established in the town, and the archbishops lived there till 1833, when they were transferred to Kursk. In 1779 Bielgorod was made the chief town of a circle in the Kursk government. There are two cathedral churches in the place, Trinity and Assumption, both built in the 16th century, as well as fifteen other churches, two monasteries, a theological seminary, an almshouse, and a hospital. In 1862 a bank was established with a capital of between £10,000 and £15,000. Only a few of the houses are built of stone. Wax-candles, tallow-candles, leather, soap, and bricks are manufactured, and a considerable trade is carried on in grain and cattle. There are three annual fairs on the 10th Friday after Easter, the 29th June, and 15th August respectively. Population in 1860, 11,722, almost all belonging to the Greek Church.

BIELITZ, a town of Austrian Silesia, in the circle of Teschen, on the Biala River, a sub-tributary of the Vistula, and opposite the Galician town of Biala, with which it is connected by a bridge. It is the seat of the superintendent of all the Protestants in Moravia, and the residence of the Sulowsky family, in favour of whom the lordship of Bielitz was raised to a duchy in 1754. The castle is a fine building of some antiquity, surrounded by a beautiful park. The principal industries of the town are the spinning of flax and the printing and dyeing of cloth, the last especially being carried on with great success. A valuable traffic is maintained not only in the produce of the factories but also in Hungarian wine and Galician salt. The town was founded in the 13th century, and in the 15th and 16th was a fortified place. It is connected by means of a branch line with the Kaiser Ferdinand Northern Railway. Population in 1869, 10,721.

BIELLA, a town of Italy, in the province of Novara, 38 miles N.E. of Turin, with which it is connected by rail. It is built partly on the slope of a hill and partly on the

banks of two small streams called the Cervo and Aurena,—the palatial old houses of the upper portion being now inhabited by the poorer classes. Several of the streets have arcades along the sides. It is the seat of a bishop, and has a cathedral, an episcopal palace, and a theological seminary. The principal industries are the manufacture of cloth and paper, and the trade consists mainly in oil, chestnuts, and silk. Population in 1870, 11,935.

BIELOPOLI, a town of Russia in the government of Kharkoff, near the Vuira and Kriuga, 37 miles N.W. from the town of Sum, in 51° 9' N. lat., and 34° 19' E. long. It was founded in 1672. A very extensive trade in wheat, salted fish, salt, pitch, and timber is carried on by the inhabitants, who number upwards of 12,000.

BIELOSTOK (in Polish BIALYSTOK), a town of Russia, in the government of Grodno, in 53° 8' N. lat. and 23° 9' E. long., 50 miles S.W. of Grodno on the River Biela, a tributary of the Suprasla. Founded in the 14th century it was long an important proprietary village belonging to the Veselovskis. In the 17th century it passed to the Branetskis, at whose solicitation Augustus III., in 1749, raised it to the rank of a borough and gave it civic rights. This increased its prosperity, and after the third partition of Poland in 1793, the Prussian Government, to whom it had been assigned, made it the seat of an administrative department. By the peace of Tilsit in 1807, Bielowstok was given to Russia along with the department of the same name, which in 1808 was divided into the four districts of Bielowstok, Bielsk, Sokol, and Drogotchin. The public buildings of Bielowstok comprise a Greek and a Roman Catholic church, several synagogues, a hospital, a castle (used as a prison), a gymnasium, an institution for the daughters of the nobility, and various other schools. There are three cloth factories and an extensive brewery; cotton and wool-spinning are both carried on, and leather, oil, soap, and tallow are manufactured. There is also an important trade in grain, wood, and various industrial articles. In 1860 the population was 16,544, no fewer than 11,288 being Jews.

BIENHOA, the capital of one of the six provinces of Lower Cochín-China, situated about 20 miles to the north-west of Saigon, on a canal that connects it with that city. It was captured by the French admiral Bonard in 1861, and is now one of the fortified posts in the French possessions. Sugar-mills were started in 1869 by an English company; but, owing to the jealousy of the Anamites, they had soon to be closed. The population of the "Inspection" of Bienhoa is 19,260.

BIEZHETZ, a town of Russia, in the government of Tver, and 181 miles from that city, situated on the right bank of the Mologa, in 57° 46' N. lat. and 36° 43' E. long. On the left bank of the river lies the suburban village of Shtap, chiefly inhabited by the lower orders. Biezhetz is mentioned in the chronicles of 1137. On the fall of Novgorod, to which it had belonged, it was incorporated with the grand-duchy of Moscow; and in 1771 it was added to the government of Tver. Candles, leather, brandy, beer, flour, malt, oil, and bricks are all manufactured; but a more important branch of industry is the making of bags for grain and flour. There are two weekly markets and two annual fairs. Population in 1860, 5423.

BIGAMY, according to the statute now in force (24 and 25 Vict. c. 100, § 57), is the offence committed by a person who "being married shall marry any other person during the life of the former husband or wife." In the canon law the word had a rather wider meaning, and the marriage of a widow came within its scope. At the Council of Lyons (1274 A.D.) bigamists were stripped of their privilege of clergy. This canon was adopted and explained by the English statute 4 Edward I. st. 3, c. 5; and bigamy, there-

fore, became a usual counterplea to the claim of *benefit of clergy*. However, by 1 Edward VI. c. 12, § 16, every person entitled to the benefit of clergy is to be allowed the same, "although he hath been divers times married to any single woman or single women, or to any widow or widows, or to two wives or more." A bigamous marriage, by the ecclesiastical law of England, is simply void. By the statute 1 James I. c. 11, confirmed by later statutes, the offence was made a felony. It is immaterial whether the second marriage has taken place within England and Ireland or elsewhere, and the offence may be dealt with in any county or place where the defendant shall be apprehended or be in custody. The following clause embodies the necessary exceptions to the very general language used in the definition of the offence:—"Provided that nothing in this section contained shall extend to any second marriage contracted elsewhere than in England and Ireland by any other than a subject of Her Majesty, or to any person marrying a second time whose husband or wife shall have been continuously absent from such person for the space of seven years then last past, and shall not have been known by such person to be living within that time, or shall extend to any person who at the time of such second marriage shall have been divorced from the bond of the first marriage, or to any person whose former marriage shall have been declared void by any court of competent jurisdiction." The punishment is penal servitude for not more than seven nor less than five years, or imprisonment with or without hard labour, not exceeding two years. A valid marriage must be proved in the first instance in order to support a charge of bigamy. A voidable marriage, such as were marriages between persons within the prohibited degrees before 5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 54, will be sufficient, but a marriage which is absolutely void, as all such marriages now are, will not. For example, if a woman marry B during the lifetime of her husband A, and after A's death marry C during the lifetime of B, her marriage with C is not bigamous, because her marriage with B was a nullity. In regard to the second marriage (which constitutes the offence) the English courts have held that it is immaterial whether, but for the bigamy, it would have been a valid marriage or not. An uncle, for example, cannot marry his niece; but if being already married he goes through the ceremony of marriage with her he is guilty of bigamy. In an Irish case, however, it has been held that to constitute the offence the second marriage must be one which, but for the existence of the former marriage, would have been valid. With reference to the case in which the parties to the first marriage have been divorced, it may be observed that no sentence or act of any foreign country can dissolve an English marriage *a vinculo* for grounds on which it is not liable to be dissolved *a vinculo* in England (R. v. Lolley, in Russell and Ryan's *Criminal Cases*, 237). Hence, a divorce *a vinculo* for adultery, in a Scotch court, of persons married in England is not within the statute.

In Scotland, at the date of the only statute respecting bigamy, that of 1551, cap. 19, the offence seems to have been chiefly considered in a religious point of view, as a sort of perjury, or violation of the solemn vow or oath which was then used in contracting marriage; and, accordingly, it was ordained to be punished with the proper pains of perjury. But this injunction has not in every instance been complied with; and, from considerations of policy or expediency, the court has long been in the habit of inflicting an arbitrary punishment, suited, as nearly as may be, to the degree of guilt brought home to the prisoner. Neither marriage need be regular, but it is not yet settled whether a marriage constituted by habit and repute, or by promise *subsequente copula*, can be relevantly labelled in a

charge of bigamy. The parties to the first marriage must, of course, have been lawfully entitled to marry. It is a good defence that the accused was divorced from his first wife before contracting the second marriage, even though the decree should afterwards have been set aside, unless it has been obtained corruptly and set aside for that reason. It is also a good defence that, at the time of contracting the second marriage, the accused had reasonable grounds for believing the other spouse to be dead. To constitute the crime of bigamy, it is not necessary that the second marriage should be such that, but for the first marriage, it would have been legal. The punishment is imprisonment, and occasionally penal servitude.

BIGNON, JEROME, a French lawyer, was born at Paris in 1589. He was uncommonly precocious, and under his father's tuition had acquired an immense mass of knowledge before he was ten years of age. In 1600 was published a work by him entitled *Chorographie, ou Description de la Terre Sainte*. The great reputation gained by this book introduced the author to Henry IV., who placed him for some time as a companion to the duke of Vendôme, and afterwards made him tutor to the Dauphin. In 1604 he wrote his *Discourse on the City of Rome*, and in the following year his *Summary Treatise on the Election of the Pope*. He then devoted himself to the study of law, wrote in 1610 a treatise on the precedence of the kings of France, which gave great satisfaction to Henry IV., and in 1613 edited, with learned notes, the *Formulae* of the jurist Marculfe. In 1620 he was made advocate-general to the grand council, and shortly afterwards a councillor of state, and in 1626 he became advocate-general to the parliament of Paris. In 1641 he resigned his official dignity, and in 1642 was appointed by Richelieu to the charge of the royal library. He died in 1656.

BIGORDI, DOMENICO. See GHIRLANDAIO.

BIJAINAGAR, or BIJANAGAR, an ancient city in the south of India, once the capital of a great Hindu empire, but now in ruins, situated on the south bank of the Tumbhadra River, directly opposite to Annagundi, in 15° 19' N. lat. and 76° 32' E. long. The city has been enclosed with strong stone walls on the east side, and is bounded by the river on the west, the circumference of the whole appearing to be about eight miles. The streets of this city, from 30 to 40 yards wide, can be traced between the immense piles of rocks crowned with pagodas; and one street yet remains perfect. The building of this metropolis was begun in 1336. Between the kings of the principality, of which it was the capital, and the Mahometan sovereigns of the Deccan constant hostility was maintained. In 1564 Rám Rájá, the king of Bijainagar, was totally overthrown on the plains of Telikotá, by a combination of the four Mahometan sovereigns of the Deccan, who immediately marched to the metropolis, which they abandoned to pillage. From that time it has lain in ruins.

BIJAPUR, or BIJAIPUR, in Southern India, the ancient capital of an independent sovereignty of the same name, and once an extensive, splendid, and opulent city, but now retaining only the vestiges of its former grandeur. It is situated in a fertile plain, in 16° 50' N. lat. and 75° 48' E. long., and is a place of great extent, consisting of three distinct portions—the citadel, the fort, and the remains of the city. The citadel, a mile in circuit, is a place of great strength, well built of the most massive materials, and encompassed by a ditch 100 yards wide, formerly supplied with water, but now nearly filled up with rubbish, so that its original depth cannot be discovered. It was built in 1489, by Yusaf Adil Sháh, the founder of the dynasty of Bijapur. The fort consists of a rampart flanked by numerous towers, a ditch, and a covered way. Its defences, which are not less than six miles in circumference, were completed by Ali

Adil Sháh in 1566. The interior formerly contained the king's palace, the houses of the nobility, large magazines, and extensive gardens. At present, though considerable portions of the area are covered with buildings or ruins, there is room for corn-fields and extensive enclosures. Outside the fort are remains of a vast city, now for the most part in ruins, but the innumerable tombs, mosques, caravanserais, and other edifices, which have resisted the havoc of time, afford abundant evidence of the ancient splendour of the place. It is asserted by the natives that Bijapur contained, according to authentic records, 1600 mosques and nearly 1,000,000 houses. The number of houses is certainly overrated; that of the mosques, in the opinion of recent travellers, is no exaggeration. The outer wall of the city on the western side runs nearly south and north, and is of great extent. It is built of stone, is of prodigious thickness, and is about 20 feet in height, with a ditch and rampart; and at intervals of 100 yards are capacious towers, built of large hewn stones. The whole is now in a ruinous condition,—the wall and the towers having in many places fallen into the ditch, and in other parts being covered with rubbish. Several mosques and mausoleums, adorned with all the embellishments of Eastern architecture, are still to be seen in Bijapur. The fort in the interior is adorned with many of these edifices, in rather better preservation than the outworks. Among these is the great mosque, which is 97 yards long by 55 broad. The wings, which are 15 yards broad, project 73 yards from the north and south ends, enclosing on three sides, with the body of the mosque, a large reservoir of water and a fountain. The mausoleum of Sultan Muhammad Sháh is a plain building, 153 feet square, over which is reared a dome 117 feet in diameter at its greatest concavity, and called by the natives the grand cupola. The mosque and mausoleum of Ibrahim Adil Sháh, king of Bijapur, which was probably completed about the year 1620, is said to have cost £1,700,000, and to have occupied thirty-six years in its construction. It is built on a basement 130 yards in length by 52 in breadth, and raised 15 feet. On this is a plain building, 115 feet by 76, covered by an immense dome raised on arches. The mausoleum is a room 57 feet square, enclosed by two verandahs, 13 feet in breadth and 22 feet in height. There are, besides, many other public buildings more or less injured by time and the violence of the Marhattás. Almost all the buildings, the palaces of the fort excepted, are of massive stone, and in the most durable style; and at the same time the workmanship is minutely elegant. Among the curiosities of the capital is the celebrated monster gun, stated to be the largest piece of cast brass ordnance in the world. It was captured from the king of Ahmadnagar by the king of Bijapur about the middle of the 17th century. An inscription on the gun recording that fact was erased by Aurangzeb, who substituted the present inscription, stating that he conquered Bijapur in 1685. The city is well watered, having, besides numerous wells, several rivulets running through it.

After the dissolution of the great Bahmani dynasty of the Deccan in 1489, a race of independent sovereigns arose, who ruled over the new kingdom of Bijapur, extending on the east from the confluence of the Bhímá and the Krishná to the sea-coast, on the west from Goa to Bombay. Their rule endured through several generations, until at length, in 1650, Sháh Jahán compelled them to become tributary to the empire; and shortly after, their monarchy was totally subverted by his successor Aurangzeb. The city and territory of Bijapur remained annexed to Dehli till 1724, when the Nizám established his independence in the Deccan, and included Bijapur within his dominions. His sway over this portion of his acquisitions, was, however, of brief duration: for, being defeated by the Peshwa