

in 1760, he was constrained to purchase peace by its cession to the Marhattás. Upon the fall of the Peshwá in 1818, Bijápur passed into the hands of the British, and was by them included in the territory assigned to the Rájá of Satará.

The place, as already intimated, is rich in monuments of the bygone period when Bijápur was the capital of a powerful and flourishing Mahometan kingdom. Such traces of the past it is always desirable to preserve to the greatest possible extent, as they furnish the best commentary upon the history of the times in which they were raised, and, indeed, constitute their history, so far as manners are concerned. It is fortunate that their value was duly appreciated by the late Rájá of Satará, who took great pains to preserve them; and that the British Government, participating in the same feeling, has, since the country passed into its possession, manifested great zeal in rescuing these magnificent relics from the ravages of time. Bijápur is distant 130 miles S.E. of Satara, and 245 S.E. of Bombay.

BIJNAUR, a district of British India, under the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces, lying between 29° 1' and 29° 58' N. lat., and 78° 1' and 78° 55' E. long., is bounded on the N.E. by the British district of Garhwal, on the E. and S.E. by the British district of Morádábád, and on the W. by the British districts of Mirat, Muzaffarnagar, and Saháranpur. The aspect of the country is generally a level plain, but the northern part of it rises towards the Himálayas, the greatest elevation being 1342 feet above the sea-level. The Koh and Rámangá are the only streams that flow through the district.

Population in 1872, 737,152 souls, inhabiting 158,583 houses, and 2002 villages or townships. Area of the district, 1902 square miles; persons per square mile, 388; per village, 368; and per house, 4.6. The Hindus numbered 493,601, or 67 per cent. of the total population; Mahometans, 243,455, or 33 per cent.; and Christians and others of unspecified religions, 96 souls. Of the area of the district (namely, 1902.94 square miles), 1036.14 square miles are under cultivation; 432.63 square miles cultivable, but not actually under cultivation; and the remainder uncultivable waste. Principal crops:—Sugar-cane, cotton, rice, pulses, oil-seeds, and different kinds of millet. Principal lines of road:—(1.) Najibábád to Hardwár and Srínagar; (2.) Mirat to Bijnaur, Kiratpur, and Najibábád; (3.) Bijnaur to Naginá and Barápur; (4.) Najibábád to Naginá, Nehtaur, Chándpur, and Bashtá; (5.) Morádábád to Sahorá, Naginá, and Najibábád; and (6.) Núrpur to Dhámpur, Sherkot, and Afzalgash, on to Kalásh. In 1870-71, the total revenue of Bijnaur district amounted to £143,958, of which £127,316, or 88 per cent., was derived from land. For the protection of person and property, a regular police force of 436 strong is maintained, exclusive of the village watch. In 1872-73, Bijnaur district contained 334 schools, attended by 5819 pupils. The following thirteen towns contain a population exceeding 5000 souls:—(1.) Bijnaur, the headquarters town of the district, in 29° 22' 36" N. lat. and 70° 10' 30" E. long.; population, 12,865; municipal income in 1872, £1040, 16s.; expenditure, £681, 8s.; rate of taxation, 1s. 7½d. per head; (2.) Siohará, population, 8340; municipal income, £94, 18s. 4d.; expenditure, £83, 8s. 6d.; (3.) Sáhampur, population, 6309; not a municipally own; (4.) Najibábád, population, 17,418; municipal revenue, £1584, 4s.; expenditure, £1425, 16s.; (5.) Shirkot, population, 12,586; municipal revenue, £173, 14s. 5d.; expenditure, £130, 17s. 4d.; (6.) Dhámpur, population, 6555; municipal revenue, £521, 16s.; expenditure, £429, 12s.; (7.) Mandáwar, population, 7622; municipal revenue, £86, 19s. 3d.; expenditure, £115, 13s. 8d.; (8.) Afzalgash, population, 8350; municipal revenue, £100, 1s. 1d.; expenditure, £115, 18s. 11d.; (9.) Nahtor, population, 9392; municipal revenue, £147, 8s. 1d.; expenditure, £84, 3s. 7d.; (10.) Jaháti, population, 5979; not a municipal town; (11.) Chándpur, population, 12,033; municipal income, £506, 12s.; expenditure, £378, 2s.; (12.) Naginá, population, 19,696; municipal income, £925, 12s.; expenditure, £779, 16s.; (13.) Kiratpur, population, 9579; municipal income, £117, 14s.; expenditure, £91, 12s.

Until the latter part of the 18th century Bijnaur belonged to the brave Rohilla Afghans, whose subjugation forms so deep a blot on the career of Warren Hastings. In 1774 the mercenary arms of Britain subjected this people to the oppressive rule of the Nawáb of Oudh, who in turn ceded the district to the East India Company in 1802.

BIKÁNIR, a native state of Rájputáná, under the political superintendence of the British Government, lies between 27° 30' and 29° 55' N. lat., and 72° 30' and 75° 40' E. long. It is bounded on the N. by the Panjáb, on the E. by the British districts of Hariáná and Shekávati, on the S. by the native state of Jodhpur or Márwár, and on the W. by the native states of Jasalmér and Bháwalpur. Length of the state from E. to W. 200 miles; breadth, 160 miles; area, 17,676 square miles. The natural aspect of the country is one desolate tract, without a single permanently running stream. Its surface is overspread with undulating sand-hills, of from 20 to 100 feet above the average level, and so loose that men and quadrupeds stepping off the beaten track sink as if in snow. Two streams, the Káturi and Gágar attempt to flow through this dismal region, but are lost in its sands. Water is very scarce, and is raised from wells of from 250 to 340 feet in depth. A few shallow salt lakes are filled by rain water, but they dry up on the setting in of hot weather, leaving a thick crust of salt on their beds, which is used for commercial and domestic purposes. The population of the state has been estimated at 539,000, consisting chiefly of Játs, Rájputs (to which race the chief belongs), and other Hindu tribes, inhabiting 1814 villages, which, according to Elphinstone, are composed of "a few round huts of straw, with low walls and conical roofs, like little stacks of corn." *Bajrá* and *moth* (two species of millet) and water melons are almost the only agricultural products. The inhabitants are very poor. They live chiefly by pasturage,—rearing camels, and horses of a fine breed, which fetch good prices. From the wool which their sheep yield they manufacture every article of native dress and good blankets. The other industries are leather work, sugar-refining, goldsmith's work, iron, brass, copper, stone masonry, tanning, weaving, dyeing, and carpentry. In 1870-71 the total revenue amounted to £111,546, and the expenditure to £123,196. The state is in debt, and is said to be badly managed, the present Mahárájá being entirely guided by favourites. The military force of the state amounts to 5000 regulars, horse and foot. Bikánir was invaded by the adventurer George Thomas in 1799, who levied from the Rájá a black mail of £20,000. The Rájá entered into a treaty of dependence with the British Government in 1818. Principal towns—Bikánir, the capital, Churu, Rájgarh, Ratangarh, and Reni. The town of Bikánir is surrounded by a stone wall, 6 feet thick, 15 to 30 feet high, and 3½ miles in circuit, with five gates and three sally-ports. Estimated population, 60,000. The citadel is half a mile north-east of the city, and is surrounded by a rampart with bastions.

BILÁSPUR, a district of British India, in the Central Provinces, forms the northern section of the Chhattisgarh plateau, and is situated between 21° 45' and 23° 10' N. lat. and 81° 30' and 83° 15' E. long. It is bounded on the N. by the native states of Rewá and Koriá; on the E. by the Udaipur tributary state of Chhotá Nágpur, and the district of Sambalpur; on the S. by the Ráipur district; and on the W. by the hilly tracts of Mandlá and Balághát. Extreme length of the district north and south, 106 miles; extreme breadth from east to west, 136 miles; area, 7798 square miles. Biláspur district forms the upper half of the basin of the River Mahánadi. It is almost enclosed on the north, west, and east by ranges of hills, while its southern boundary is generally open and accessible, well cultivated, and closely dotted with villages embedded in groups of fruit trees. The principal hills are—(1), the Maikál range, situated in the north-western extremity of the district; (2), a chain of hills forming part of the Vindhyan range, on the north; (3), the Korbá hills, an offshoot of the Vindhyan, on the eastern boundary; and (4), the Sonákhán block of hills, in the vicinity of the Mahánadi

River. The Mahánadi is the principal river of the district, and governs the whole drainage and river system of the surrounding country. It takes its rise in a mountainous region which is described as the wildest of all wild parts of the Central Provinces, crosses the Biláspur boundary near Seorínárain, and after a course of 25 miles in the south-eastern extremity of the district enters Sambalpur district. Within Biláspur the river is everywhere navigable for six months in the year. Minor rivers—the Sakrí, Hámp, Tesuá, Agar, Maniári, Arpá, Kharod, Lilágar, Jouk, and Barerí. The most important affluents of the Mahánadi are the Seonath and Hasdú. Besides the natural water supply afforded by the rivers, Biláspur abounds in tanks,—these numbering 7018, as shown in the settlement statistics. The census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 715,398, of whom 435,379, or 60.86 per cent., are Hindus; 7024, or .98 per cent., Mahometans; 6 Buddhists; 37 Christians; and 272,952, or 38.15 per cent., belong to aboriginal tribes, such as Gonds, Kanwars, Bhumias, Binjwars, Dhanwárs, &c. Among the Hindus, the Chámárs and Pankás deserve particular notice. The former, who form the shoemaker and leather-dealing caste of the Hindu community, had always been held in utter contempt by the other Hindu castes. But between 1820 and 1830 a religious movement, having for its object their freedom from the trammels of caste, was inaugurated by a member of the caste, named Ghási Dás, who preached the unity of God and the equality of men. Ghási Dás gave himself out as a messenger of God; he prohibited the adoration of idols, and enjoined the worship of the Supreme Being without any visible sign or representation. The followers of the new faith call themselves *Satnámis*, or the worshippers of *Satnám* or God. They do not keep the Hindu festivals, and they defy the contempt of the Bráhmans. Ghási Dás, the founder of the faith, was their first high priest. He died in 1850; his son succeeded him, but was assassinated (it was said by the Hindus), and the grandson is the present high priest. The Chámárs in Biláspur number 164,388, or 21 per cent. of the total population. The Pankás, who form about a sixth of the population, are all Kabirpanthis, or followers of Kabir, a religious reformer of the 15th century. There is no great difference between the Kabir Pankás and the Satnámis. They both abstain from meat and liquor, marry at the age of puberty, ordinarily celebrate their ceremonies through the agency of the elders of their own caste, and bury their dead. The Pankás worship the Supreme Being under the name of *Kabir*, and the Chámárs under the name of *Satnám*; while each community has a high priest to whom reverence is paid. At present the majority of the Pankás are cultivators, though formerly all were weavers. The Gonds are the most numerous among the aboriginal tribes, the census of 1872 returning them at 107,359, or 15 per cent. of the total district population; but so great an intermixture has taken place between them and the Hindu races that they have lost their language and most of their ethnical characteristics, such as the flat forehead, squat nose, prominent nostril, dark skin, &c., and are scarcely distinguishable from the other classes of the Hindu labouring population. In addition to some of the Hindu deities which they worship, the Gonds have their own gods—Bara Deva and Dúá Deva. The Kanwárs are the next largest section of the aboriginal population, and number 28,419 souls. The upper class among them claim to be Rájputs, and are divided into numerous septs. Although an aboriginal tribe, the census returns them as a Hindu caste. All the northern landholders of Biláspur belong to this tribe, which consequently occupies an influential position.

Rice, wheat, pulses, oil-seeds, and cotton are the chief agricultural staples. The census of 1872 returns the total area of the district

at 7798 square miles, of which 2089 square miles are under cultivation. The following is the approximate acreage under different crops:—Rice, 882,218 acres; wheat, 79,203; other food grains, 225,443; oil-seeds, 56,039; sugar-cane, 6888; cotton, 72,922; opium, 124; tobacco, 2317; and vegetables, 12,329; total, 1,337,483 acres, or 2089.81 square miles. Of the population, 438,880 live by agriculture, while 276,518 are non-agriculturists. The chief wealth of the district consists in its agricultural produce, and it is not inaptly termed "the land of plenty" by the *Banjárs* or traders, who find here an inexhaustible store of surplus produce for export. Scarcity of food is almost unknown. Coal and iron are the minerals of the district; the former is not worked, and the latter but very slightly, the annual out-turn being reported at about 15 tons only. Sandstone, for building purposes, is quarried near Biláspur and Seorínárain. The forests produce timber, edible and medicinal roots and plants, lac and tasar-silk cocoons. Imports in 1867-68—sugar, £5274; metals and hardware, £10,985; English piece-goods, £11,194; cattle, £9240; miscellaneous, £10,531; total, £47,224. Exports—rice (as ascertained), £8659; wheat, £6803; other edible grains, £150; cotton, £16,407; molasses, £297; oil-seeds, £18; lac, £15,603; miscellaneous, £5609; total, £53,546. Among local industries the most important is the weaving trade. It is estimated that cotton and silk cloths to the value of £95,000 are every year manufactured. The traffic routes of the district are five in number, the three most important of which are rugged and inaccessible, unfit for wheeled carriages, admitting export or import only by means of pack-bullocks during six months of the year. The other two are simply tracks across the hills and through the jungle. The revenue divisions of the district correspond with its physical features; the hilly area, covering about 5000 square miles, is almost entirely held by large landed proprietors called *Zamindárs*, who have always occupied a somewhat independent position. The open country, with an area of 3000 square miles, is known as the *Khálsá* jurisdiction, or the tract under direct revenue management through Government officers. Pendra, Matín, Uprorá, Kendá, Láphá, Chliúri, Korbá, Chimpá, Sakti, Bhátgáon, Bilágarh, Katangí, Pandaria, Kawardá, and Madanpur, are the 15 *Zamindáris* comprising the hilly area, of which Sakti and Kawardá have been acknowledged as feudatories. Biláspur, Mungeli, and Seorínárain are the three *pargánás* in the *Khálsá* tract. In 1868-69, the revenues of the district were as follows:—Land-tax, £27,195; excise, £592; stamps, £2234; forest, £434; assessed taxes, £1222; total, £31,977. For the protection of person and property, Government maintained in 1868-69 a regular police of 310 officers and men, at a total annual cost of £4363, besides the village watch or rural constabulary. The executive staff of the district consists of the deputy-commissioner, with two assistants and several sub-collectors. Biláspur contained, in 1868-69, 33 Government and 58 private schools, attended by 3076 pupils. Besides Biláspur, to be separately noticed below, there are only four towns of any importance in the district:—Ratanpur, the seat of the ancient Rájás, situated at the base of the Kendá, offshoots of the Vindhyan range, highly attractive to antiquarians and archaeologists on account of its great antiquity; it is now in a dilapidated and deserted state. Population, 5111. Mungeli, a rising market-town, situated on the banks of the River Agar. Population, 3542. Kawardá, population, 6590. Seorínárain, on the Mahánadi, a favourite residence of the Ratanpur court in former days, contains a temple of the Hindu god Naráyan, from which it derives its name. Population about 1500. The climate of the district, though relaxing, is not oppressive. Cholera occasionally breaks out in the epidemic form, being generally disseminated by the Jagannáth pilgrims from Central India, whose route to Orissa lies through the district. Fever and smallpox also prevail.

The early history of the district is very obscure. From remote ages it was governed by kings of the Haihai dynasty, known as the Chhattisgarh Rájás, on account of thirty-six forts, of which they were the lords. A genealogical list of kings of this dynasty has been carefully kept up to the fifty-fifth representative in the year 1740; when the country was seized without a struggle by the Marhattás of Nágpur. From 1818 to 1830 Biláspur came under the management of the British Government, the Marhattá chief of Nágpur being then a minor. In 1854 the country finally lapsed to the British Government, the chief having died without issue. During the Sepoy mutiny a hill chief of the district gave some trouble, but he was speedily captured and executed.

BILÁSPUR, the chief town of the district of the same name, is situated on the south bank of the River Arpá. It is said to have been founded by a fisherwoman, named Bilása, three hundred years ago, and still retains her name. The place, however, came to note only about one



hundred years ago, when a Marhattá official took up his abode there, and began to build a fort which was never completed. In 1862 it was made the headquarters of the district, and is now a rising town. It lies in 22° 2' N. lat. and 82° 5' E. long. The population was estimated in 1870 at 6190, but Biláspur is not mentioned in the census of 1872 as containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants.

BILBAO, one of the principal cities of Spain, and capital of the province to which it gives its name, is situated in 43° 14' N. lat. and 2° 56' W. long., in a small but beautiful and fertile valley, bounded on three sides by mountains, about six miles from the sea, on the banks of the River Ansa, which is also known as the Nervion, or, in Basque, as the Ibaizabal. The old town lies on the left bank, while the new town, which is by far the more important, rises on the right in handsome terraces. Communication across the river is afforded by several bridges, of which the oldest, San Antonio, is of stone, and dates from the 14th century; the second was finished in 1827, the third in 1847, and the fourth, an iron structure, in 1868. The houses in the principal streets are built of hewn stone, and are several stories high, with projecting eaves that give shelter both from sun and rain. Many of the streets are very narrow, and they have an appearance of cleanliness and quiet. For a long time no carts or carriages were permitted to enter the city for fear of polluting and injuring the pavement, and the transport of goods was carried on in trucks. The principal promenades are the Paseo del Arenal, which lies along the right bank of the river, the Campo Volantin in the same neighbourhood, and the Paseo de los Caños, so called from its forming the roof of the great aqueduct for conveying the water of the river to the town. The public buildings comprise several churches, of which the oldest, Santiago, is of earlier date than the city itself, the town-hall, the palace of the *Diputacion Provincial*, an arsenal, a hospital, a theatre, and an abattoir. Of the educational institutions the most important are the *Colegio General de Vizcaya*, a nautical academy, and the schools supported by the board of trade for gratuitous instruction in design, architecture, languages, and mathematics. A bank of issue and discount was founded in 1857. The industrial establishments include iron and steel foundries (for which the town was at one time famous), anchor-forges, potteries, glass-works, paper-mills, and a cotton factory; and leather, sail-cloth, ropes, and tobacco are also manufactured. The exports consist mainly of grain and flour, iron, zinc, and lead ore, wine, madder, liquorice, lamb and goat skins, chestnuts, and oil. The wool trade has ceased for many years, and shipbuilding has greatly declined. A great stimulus was given to the import trade by the construction of the Bilbao and Tudela railway, which was completed in 1863; but the prosperity of the place is hindered by its distance from the sea. Large sums of money have been spent in improving the river, but ships of any size have to discharge at Portugalete, the average depth on the bar being 13½ feet at high tides. In spite of this disadvantage, however, Bilbao ranks as one of the principal trading ports in Spain. In 1870 the total tonnage of the ships that entered was 160,952, and the value of the imports amounted to £2,075,900. There is regular steam communication with London and Liverpool. Population, 17,649. Bilbao, or Belvao, was founded about 1300 by Don Pedro Lopez de Haro, and soon rose into importance. It was captured by the French in 1795, and was again held by them from 1808 to 1813. During the Carlist contest it was gallantly defended against Zumalacarregui in 1835.

BILDERDIJK, WILLEM, a modern Dutch poet, by some considered to be the most eminent that his country has produced, was born at Amsterdam in 1756. In 1776, after completing a wide course of study at Leyden Univer-

sity, he gained the prize from the Leyden Society of Art for his poem on the *Influence of Poetry on States and Governments*. In the following year he gained another prize for his poem *Love of Fatherland*, and in 1779 he translated the *Œdipus Tyrannus* of Sophocles. In 1786 he left Holland on account of the disturbed state of public affairs, and after residing some time in Germany crossed to England, where he remained till 1806. Returning then to his native country he was received with great favour by the new king Louis Napoleon, who made him president of the recently founded Institute of Holland. He died on the 18th December 1831. His finest poetical works are the *Buitenleven*, or Rural Life, a free imitation of Delille; *De Mensch*, similarly taken from Pope; *Die Ziekte der Geleerden*, the Maladies of the Learned; *Die Ondergang der eerste Wereld*, the Destruction of the First World. Some of his dramatic and epic poems are also highly esteemed. His second wife, besides some original work, translated the *Roderick* of Southey, who was very intimate with Bilderdijk, and resided for some time with him.

BILE. See PHYSIOLOGY

BILFINGER, GEORGE BERNHARD, was born on the 23d January 1693, at Cannstadt in Würtemberg. His father was a Lutheran minister. By a singularity of constitution, hereditary in his family, Bilfinger came into the world with twelve fingers and as many toes. From his earliest years he showed the greatest inclination to learning. He studied in the schools of Blaubeuern and Bobenhausen, and afterwards entered the theological seminary of Tübingen. The works of Wolff, which he studied in order to learn mathematics, soon inspired him with a taste for the Wolffian philosophy and that of Leibnitz,—a passion which made him neglect for some time his other studies. Returning to theology, he wished at least to try to connect it with his favourite science of philosophy; and in this spirit he composed the treatise entitled *Dilucidationes Philosophicæ; De Deo, Anima Humana, Mundo, &c.* This work, containing nothing original, but giving an admirably clear representation of Wolff's philosophy, met with great success, and contributed to the advancement of the author, who was appointed soon after to the office of preacher at the castle of Tübingen, and of reader in the school of theology. He soon after left for Halle, in order to attend the lectures of Wolff; and, after two years of study, returned to Tübingen, where the Wolffian philosophy was not yet in favour. He found his protectors there cooled, saw his lectures deserted, and perceived himself shunned, from the dislike of his new doctrines; his ecclesiastical views also suffered from the same cause. By the intervention of Wolff he received an invitation to Petersburg, where Peter I. wished to appoint him professor of logic and metaphysics, and member of his new academy. He was received in that city, where he arrived in 1725, with the consideration due to his abilities. The Academy of Sciences of Paris having proposed about this time the famous problem on the cause of gravity, Bilfinger gained the prize, which was a thousand crowns. His reputation was so much increased by this success that he was almost immediately recalled to his native country by the Duke Eberhard Ludwig of Würtemberg. He quitted St Petersburg in 1731, and in 1735 the Duke Charles Alexander appointed him privy councillor. After careful preparation Bilfinger entered on the duties of his new office, and soon approved himself one of the best and most enlightened ministers that his country had yet produced. Under his wise administration the commerce, public instruction, and agriculture of Würtemberg flourished, and the state was raised to a position it had not before attained. Bilfinger died at Stuttgart on the 18th February 1750.

BILL means generally a statement in writing, and is derived from the Latin *bullâ*. The word is used in a great many special applications.

BILL, in *Parliament*, is a form of statute submitted to either House, which, after passing both Houses and receiving the royal assent, becomes an Act. The modern system of legislating by means of bill and statute appears to have been introduced in the reign of Henry VI., superseding the older mode of proceeding by petitions from the Commons, assented to by the king, and afterwards enrolled by the judges. A bill consists of a preamble, reciting the necessity for legislation, and clauses which contain the enactments. The procedure with regard to bills is much the same in both Houses. Leave having been obtained, the bill is presented by the member in charge of it, and the first reading is usually allowed without opposition. At the second reading the principle of the bill is placed in issue; the usual form of amendment is that the bill be read a second time that day three or six months, the direct rejection of bills being incompatible with the courtesy of the House. The next stage is the committee, in which the different clauses are gone through in detail by the House sitting under the presidency of a chairman of committees. Two principles must be observed in reference to amendments:—(1), The amendment must not be irrelevant to the subject-matter of the clause; nor (2), must it propose to leave out all the words of the clause after the initial "That" in order that new words may be introduced. The bill having been fully considered the committee rises, the speaker resumes the chair, and the chairman of committee reports the bill to the House, which is up to this time supposed to be ignorant of the proceedings of the committee. A bill may be referred to a select committee (the course, followed with private bills) or recommitted as often as the House desires. On the third reading the judgment of the House is expressed on the entire bill as it leaves the hands of the committee; and after the third reading the motion that the bill do pass is usually allowed without opposition. The bill is then communicated to the other House, where it passes through the same stages. Should the one House make amendments on a bill sent up by the other, the latter considers the amendments, and if they are not agreed to the bill is laid aside, or postponed for three or six months, or a message is sent with reasons for disagreement, or a conference between the Houses is requested. Having passed through both Houses the bill receives the royal assent, and therewith the "complement and perfection of a law." Bills are divided into public and private; the latter includes every bill for "the particular interest or benefit of any person or persons," whether individuals or corporations. They are brought in upon the solicitation of parties interested, and the payment of fees is an indispensable element of their progress. Occasionally there is some difficulty in assigning a bill to its proper class, e.g., in bills relating to the metropolis, which, on account of the magnitude of the interests involved, are sometimes treated as public bills, although having, according to the definition, a purely private character. Private bills are subject to special regulations, and in case of opposition the proceedings before the select committees assume the form of an ordinary litigation. The chairman of committees in the Lords, and the chairman of ways and means in the Commons, are required to watch unopposed bills. Certain bills can only originate in one or other of the two Houses, e.g., money bills in the House of Commons, and bills for the restitution of honours and blood in the House of Lords; and any bill concerning the privileges of either House should originate in the House to which it relates.

A BILL OF EXCHANGE is defined as "an unconditional written order from A to B, directing B to pay to C a sum certain

of money therein named." A is called the drawer, B the drawee, and C the payee. When the drawer has undertaken to pay the bill he is called the acceptor. Contrary to the general rule in the law of England the benefit of a contract arising on a bill of exchange is assignable, and consideration will be presumed unless the contrary appear. Bills of exchange are believed to have been in use in the 14th century, but the first recorded decision of an English court regarding them occurs in the reign of James I. The courts long regarded them with jealousy as an exception to the common law, and restricted their use to the class of merchants, but their obvious utility overcame the scruples of the judges. The law on this subject has been evolved in a long series of judicial decisions. The following are a few of its leading principles:—A bill to be transferable must contain a direction to the order of the payee or to bearer. If payable to order it must be transferred by endorsement; but if to bearer, it may be transferred by mere delivery. A blank endorsement (e.g., the mere signature of the endorser) makes the bill payable to bearer; a special endorsement directs payment to a person named, or his order. Every endorser of a bill is in effect a new drawer, and is liable to every succeeding holder in default of acceptance or payment. Just as the original drawer contracts to pay the payee, if the acceptor do not, so the endorser contracts that, if the drawer shall not pay the bill, he, on receiving due notice of the bill being dishonoured, will pay the holder what the drawee ought to have paid. An endorsement is held to admit "the signature and capacity of every prior party," and an endorser, in default of acceptance or payment, has a right of action against all those whose names were on the bill when it was endorsed to him. When a bill is transferred by delivery without endorsement it is generally regarded as sold, and the instrument is taken with all its risks. There are, however, some exceptions to this rule, as in the case of payment by bill for a precedent debt, &c., and the transferor will be held responsible if he knows at the time of sale that the bills are good for nothing. When a bill is payable to bearer it circulates like money, and the bona fide possessor is considered the true owner. Bills should be presented as soon as possible to the drawer or his agent for acceptance, which must be in writing on the bill. They should be presented for payment at the proper time, and the laws of commercial countries usually allow three days of grace after the day on which the bill becomes due. If the bill is not duly presented by the holder, the antecedent parties are relieved from liability. If the bill is not accepted, or after acceptance not paid, the holder must give notice of dishonour to the antecedent parties within a reasonable time, otherwise their liability will be discharged. When a foreign bill is dishonoured the custom of merchants requires that it should be protested. The protest is a solemn declaration by a notary written under a copy of the bill that payment or acceptance has been demanded and refused. Bills and notes, by the usage of trade, carry interest from the date of maturity. If in an action on a bill it turn out that the bill has been lost, the action may still be maintained provided that an indemnity is given against the claims of any other persons upon the instrument. The Act 18 and 19 Vict. c. 67, gives a summary process to the plaintiff in an action on a bill of exchange or promissory note commenced within six months after the same has become due or payable. Unless the defendant has obtained leave to appear and has appeared to the action, the plaintiff may sign final judgment for the amount with costs. The defendant, if he wishes to defend the action, must pay the money into court or show by affidavit such facts as may be sufficient to induce the judge to give him leave.

Foreign Bills (as distinguished from inland Bills) are



bills drawn or payable abroad. By 19 and 20 Vict. c. 97, § 7, bills or notes drawn on one part and payable in any other part of the British Isles are inland bills. Foreign bills are usually drawn in sets or parts, each containing a condition to be payable only so long as the others continue unpaid.

When a bill is accepted by the drawee without consideration, and merely in order that the drawer may be able to raise money upon it, it is called an *accommodation bill*. Both parties are liable to the holder; but, as between themselves, the drawer is the principal and the acceptor a sort of surety. When acceptance has been refused and the bill protested, a stranger may accept it "*supra protest*," in honour of the drawer or endorser." The effect of this is to render the acceptor liable if the drawer does not pay, and the party for whose honour it was made, and parties antecedent to him, become liable to the acceptor. Payment for the honour of one of the parties may likewise be made by a mere stranger when a bill has been protested for non-payment, who thereupon acquires a claim against such person and all those to whom he could have resorted.

The negotiability of promissory notes and bank cheques is for the most part regulated by the same principles as bills of exchange. A promissory note is a "promise in writing to pay a specified sum at a time therein limited, to a person therein named or his order or to bearer." Cheques which are inland bills of exchange drawn on a banker have become subject to certain peculiar usages. See EXCHANGE.

A BILL OF LADING is a document signed by the master of a general ship and delivered to the owners of goods conveyed therein. It is usually made out in several parts or copies, of which the shipper retains one and sends one or more to the consignee, while the master keeps one for his own guidance. The following is the usual form:—Shipped in good order and well conditioned by [A. B., merchant] in and upon the good ship called [The Good Intent], whereof [C. D.] is master for this present voyage, and now riding at anchor in the [Port of Southampton], and bound to [Cadiz in Spain, twenty cases of hardware and fifty bales of cotton goods], being marked and numbered as in the margin, and are to be delivered in the like good order and well conditioned at the aforesaid port [of Cadiz], the act of God, the Queen's enemies, fire, and all and every other dangers and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigations of whatever kind or nature whatsoever excepted, unto [E. F., merchant], or to his assigns, he or they paying freight for the said goods [ ] per case; and [ ] per bale freight, with primage and average accustomed. In witness whereof, &c.

Every bill of lading requires a sixpenny stamp. By the mercantile law a bill of lading is a negotiable instrument, and the property in the goods may be transferred by endorsement. By 18 and 19 Vict. c. 111, every consigner of goods named on a bill of lading, and every endorser to whom the property of the goods mentioned therein passes by reason of the consignment or endorsement, shall have transferred to and invested in him all rights of suit, and be subject to the same liabilities in respect of the goods as if the contract contained in the bill of lading had been made with himself.

A BILL OF SALE is an assignment of personal property. It is frequently made by way of security, the property remaining in possession of the vendor. For the protection of creditors from secret or fraudulent sale, the Bills of Sale Act, 1854, and the Amendment Act, 29 and 30 Vict. c. 96, were passed. By these Acts a bill of sale of personal chattels made at any time by a defendant in an action will be void as against a plaintiff on whose behalf a writ of execution in such action shall be sued out and delivered, so far as

regards any personal chattels in defendant's possession at or after the time of executing such writ, unless such bill of sale shall be duly registered for public inspection in the Court of Queen's Bench within twenty-one days of its date. The registration must be renewed once in every five years during the subsistence of the security.

BILL IN CHANCERY. A suit in the Court of Chancery was generally commenced by a bill, addressed to the lord chancellor, containing a statement of the plaintiff's case, and praying for relief. By the Chancery Amendment Act, 1862, it is enacted that "every bill shall contain as concisely as may be, a narrative of the material facts, matters, and circumstances on which the plaintiff relies; such narrative being divided into paragraphs numbered consecutively, and each paragraph containing as nearly as may be a separate or distinct statement or allegation; and shall pray specifically for the relief which the plaintiff may conceive himself entitled to, and also for general relief." By the Judicature Act, 1873, a new form of procedure is established for all the superior courts. See ACTION. (E. R.)

BILLETING. The law as to billeting soldiers is regulated by the provisions of the Annual Mutiny Act (38 Vict. c. 7, §§ 63-67). Constables of parishes and places, police officers, high constables, and other chief officers and magistrates may billet officers and soldiers on actual service, with their horses and baggage, in victualling house, inn, hotel, livery stable, ale-house, or the house of any seller of wine by retail to be drunk in such house, or the houses of persons selling brandy, spirits, strong waters, cider, or metheglin by retail; but no officer or soldier shall be billeted in any private houses, or in any canteen under the authority of the War Department, nor on persons keeping taverns only being vintners of the city of London, nor on distillers, nor on shopkeepers whose principal dealing is more in other goods than in brandy and strong waters, so as such distillers and shopkeepers do not permit tipping in such houses. If the victualler has not sufficient accommodation in his own house he must find it in the immediate neighbourhood. The following sums are allowed as compensation:—For hot meal, to be supplied each day to soldiers on the march, 10d., with 2½d. for a bed; for other soldiers, entitled to bed, candles, use of fire and cooking utensils, 4d. per diem for each soldier; for ten pounds of oats, twelve of hay, and eight of straw, 1s. 9d. per diem. Military officers must not act as justices in billeting.

BILLIARDS is a well-known indoor game of skill, played on a rectangular table with ivory balls, which are driven into pockets and against each other according to certain defined rules. Of the origin of billiards comparatively little is known,—some considering that the game was invented by the French, and others that it was improved by them out of an ancient German diversion. Even the French themselves are doubtful on this point; for, while it is generally asserted that Henrique Devigne, an artist, who lived in the reign of Charles IX., gave form and rule to the pastime, the *Dictionnaire Universel* and the *Académie des Jeux* ascribe its invention to the English. Bouillet in the first work says—"Billiards appear to be derived from the game of bowls. It was anciently known in England, where, perhaps, it was invented. It was brought into France by Louis XIV., whose physician recommended this exercise." In the other work quoted we read—"It would seem that the game was invented in England." Strutt, a rather doubtful authority, notwithstanding the reputation attained by his *Sports and Pastimes of the People of England*, considers it probable that it was the ancient game of Paille-maille on a table instead of on the ground or floor,—an improvement, he says, "which answered two good purposes: it precluded the necessity of

the player to kneel or stoop exceedingly when he struck the bowl, and accommodated the game to the limits of a chamber." Whatever its origin, and whatever the manner in which it was originally played, it is certain that it was common in the time of Shakespeare, who makes Cleopatra, in the absence of Antony, invite her attendant to join in the pastime—

"Let us to billiards:  
Come, Charmian."—*Ant. and Cleo.* Act. ii. sc. 5.

Billiards was originally played, it seems, in a method even now adopted in the rustic game of Rural Billiards, by driving a ball through a ring which revolved on a pin or stick fixed to the table or floor. In Cotton's *Complete Gamester*, published in 1674, we are told that this "most gentle, cleanly, and ingenious game" was first played in Italy, though in another page he mentions Spain as its birthplace. At that date billiards must have been well enough known, for we are told that "for the excellency of the recreation, it is much approved of and played by most nations of Europe, especially in England, there being few towns of note therein which hath not a public billiard table, neither are they wanting in many noble and private families in the country." Since Cotton every compiler of books on games has had more or less to say about billiards; though, curiously enough, Hoyle, who is often quoted as an authority, makes no mention whatever of the game. It is only in the later editions and continuations of Hoyle that billiards, bagatelle, cricket, &c., find place. It is not, indeed, till our own day that anything like a scientific treatise on billiards has appeared, or that the game itself has been lifted out of the tavern—whence, in spite of its historians' praises, it gradually descended—to its present more favoured position as a harmless and amusing indoor game.

*The Table.*—The shape of the table has varied from time to time, probably to suit the dimensions of the room in which it was placed. At first it was square, with a hole or pocket at each corner to receive the balls driven forward with a cue or mace; then it was lengthened and provided with two other pockets; and occasionally it has been made round, oval, triangular, or octagonal, with or without pockets according to the game required. The cannon game in France is played on a pocketless table 8 feet by 4; the same game of the United States is played on a table 10 feet by 6, commonly made without pockets; but in England the regular table of the clubs and public rooms is a massive structure of timber, with a bed or surface of slate or metal 12 feet long by 6 feet wide, or two equal squares of 5 feet 10½ inches across within the cushions. It is covered by a fine green cloth, and surrounded by elastic india-rubber cushions, at the junctions of which are netted pockets—one at each corner, and one midway at each of the longer sides. The table must be perfectly level and sufficiently firm to prevent vibration; and its usual height from the floor to the surface is 3 feet. The space required between table and wall is at least four feet. Smaller tables for use in private houses have lately been introduced. Whether large or small, each table is provided with a baulk line and semicircle and several marks or spots to regulate the mode of play. The baulk line is drawn straight across the table 28 inches from the bottom or lower cushion, and from it is struck a semicircle of from 21 to 23 inches in diameter. In the middle of the baulk line is the baulk spot, and in the middle of the table the centre spot. Thirteen inches from the top cushion is the red-ball spot, and half-way between the centre and the top cushion is the pyramid spot,—all these spots being on a line which, if drawn from end to end, would divide the table into two oblong halves.

*Games.*—The principal games are three in number,—

billiards proper, pyramids, and pool; and from these spring a variety of others. The object of the player in each game, however, is to drive one or other of the balls into one or other of the pockets, or to cause the striker's ball to come into successive contact with two other balls. The one stroke is known as a hazard, the other as a cannon; and from hazards and cannons, together with misses, forfeitures, and foul strokes, are reckoned the points of the game. When the ball is forced into a pocket the stroke is called a winning hazard; when the striker's ball falls into a pocket after contact with the object ball, the stroke is a losing hazard; and these hazards count two or three to the player's score according as they are made from the white or the red ball—two points for the white, three for the red. Two points are scored for the cannon, three for a *coup*—a term used when the player's ball runs into a pocket without striking a ball; and one point for a miss, whether given purposely or accidentally. These strokes are all made with a cue, which is a long stick of ash, or other hard wood, gradually tapering to the end, which is tipped with leather and rubbed with chalk to prevent it slipping off the surface of the ball struck. The mace or hammer-headed cue, once common, is no longer used, even by ladies. The cue is taken in the right hand, generally between the fingers and thumb, and not grasped in the palm; and with the left hand the player makes a bridge, by resting the wrist and the tips of the fingers on the table, arching the latter, and extending the thumb in such a way as to allow a passage in which the cue may slide. The player then proceeds with his game, according to the following rules:—

*Billiards proper*, or the English game, consists of winning and losing hazards, cannons, and forfeitures. It is usually played 50 or 100 points, reckoned as already explained, three for each red hazard, two for each white hazard, and two for each cannon. Public matches between adepts are played 100, 500, or 1000 up, but the rules which govern them are the same. The remarks within brackets are explanatory.—1. The game of billiards proper commences by stringing for the lead and choice of balls. [The players standing behind the baulk line, strike each a ball from the semicircle up to the top cushion, and he whose ball on its return stops nearest the bottom cushion has the choice of lead and balls.] 2. The red ball is placed on the spot at the commencement of the game, and replaced when it is pocketed or forced over the table. ["Breaking the balls" is the replacing them as at the beginning of a game. The balls are said to be "broken" when the first player has struck the red or given a miss; and the player's ball when off the table is said to be "in hand."] 3. The player who makes one stroke in a game must finish that game or consent to lose it. [Intended to meet cases of dispute.] 4. In the case of foul strokes, the adversary has the option of either allowing the striker to proceed, or having the ball replaced, or of breaking the balls. No score can be reckoned for a foul stroke. [The following are foul strokes:—If the player move a ball in the act of striking; if he play with the wrong ball; if he touch a ball twice in making a stroke; if he play at a ball while it is running; if he touch a ball with his hand, cue, or person, otherwise than is necessary for the stroke; if he in any way touch his opponent's ball.] 5. If the adversary neglect to observe or to claim a foul stroke, the player proceeds with his game, and all the points he makes are marked. 6. If a ball spring from the table and hit a bystander, so as to prevent it falling to the floor, it is considered off the table. [The penalty in such a case is that the other player goes on, or if the ball has not struck another ball before flying off the table, the loss of three points, as for a *coup*.] 7. Balls lying within the baulk line cannot be played at with a ball in hand, except the player whose ball is in hand first play at a cushion beyond or outside the baulk line. 8. A line-ball cannot be played at by the striker whose ball is in hand, other than by playing his ball out of baulk against a cushion. [A line-ball is when the centre of the ball's surface lies exactly on the line across the table. The marker or umpire must decide as to whether such ball is within or without the line.] 9. A ball in hand striking a ball in baulk without having been first played out of baulk, must be replaced and played over again. 10. All misses must be given with the point of the cue. [This rule is sometimes neglected, and the player allowed to give his miss with the butt end of his cue.] 11. Should the spot be occupied so that the red ball cannot be placed on it after being pocketed, it must be placed on the centre spot, or, if that also be occupied, on the pyramid spot. [In some clubs the custom is to place the red ball on the centre spot, or on the baulk line spot, ac-