

vocalists and instrumental performers. There are 5 parks and pleasure grounds belonging to the Corporation—Aston Park and Hall, 45 acres; Calthorpe Park, about 35 acres; Cannon Hill Park, 65 acres; and Adderley and Highgate Parks, each about 12 acres. Beside these there are numerous pleasure-grounds—the Botanical Gardens, Edgbaston, open to subscribers, and the Lower Grounds, a beautiful series of gardens at Aston, in which important flower shows are periodically held. Sutton Park, about 8 miles distant, and including about 3000 acres, is also much used by the Birmingham people. The Corporation has several sets of baths and wash-houses in various parts of the town. There are several extensive cemeteries.

**Public Buildings.**—Of these the Town-Hall, a nobly-proportioned and impressive edifice, is the principal. It stands at the top of New Street, and on three sides is isolated from all other buildings by broad and handsome streets. The hall, completed in 1850 at a total cost of £52,000, is severely classic, modelled upon a Greek temple. The lower stage consists of a vast plinth or basement, 23 feet high, upon which is reared a facade of peripteral character, with 8 Corinthian columns (36 feet high) at the two principal fronts, and 13 columns on each side. These columns (imitated from those of the temple of Jupiter Stator at Rome) support a bold and enriched cornice, finished at each end with a lofty pediment and entablature. The exterior of the hall is built of Anglesea marble. The interior consists chiefly of a regularly-built room, designed specially for meetings and concerts, with an orchestra containing one of the finest organs in the kingdom. The seats are arranged for an audience of 2265 persons, but when cleared of benches, as is the case at great political meetings, 5000 persons may find standing room. On one side of the Town-Hall are the buildings of the Midland Institute and the Free Libraries (of Italian design), occupying the whole of Ratcliff Place, with fronts to Paradise Street and Edmund Street. A new Art Gallery is in course of erection, fronting the latter street. At the back of the Town-Hall is the site of the new building of the Mason College (Gothic), and in front of the hall, in Paradise Street, are Christ Church (classic), the Queen's College (Gothic), and the Post-Office. On the side of the hall in Ann Street, opposite to the Midland Institute, are the new Corporate Buildings (Italian), now being erected at a cost of nearly £200,000. These will give accommodation for the Town Council, law courts, public offices, and the mayor of the borough. Lower down New Street is the building of the Royal Society of Artists (classic), with a noble portico; then comes the Exchange (Gothic) in Stephenson Place; and at the bottom of the latter street is the Central Railway station, used by the North-Western, the Midland, and their branch railways, and fronted by the Queen's Hotel. The station is more than a quarter of a mile in length. The roof, a magnificent specimen of engineering, consists of a vast arch of glass and iron, carried on pillars on each side, and measuring 1100 feet in length, 80 feet in height, and 212 feet in width in a single span. The glass in the roof weighs 115 tons, and the iron-work 1400 tons. Below the station, in New Street, is the Grammar School; and in High Street, close at hand, is the Market-Hall, a magnificent classic building, erected in 1833 at a cost of nearly £70,000, with an area of 4380 square yards, and affording room for 600 stalls. Amongst the other public buildings are the Borough Gaol at Winson Green, with 467 cells, arranged on the separate system; near this the Lunatic Asylum, with accommodation for 600 patients; and close at hand the workhouse, which receives about 2000 inmates. The General and Queen's Hospitals are also handsome buildings, the latter especially so, it being remarkable for a very noble out-patient hall. This and the out-patient

hall at the Children's Hospital in Steelhouse Lane (Gothic) are perhaps the finest rooms of their kind in the kingdom.

Birmingham had till very recently only one public monument, the statue of Nelson, by Westmacott, in High Street; but several others have been erected—namely, those of Joseph Sturge, at the Five Ways, and of Thomas Attwood, the founder of the Political Union, in Stephenson Place, both of them by the late Mr Thomas; James Watt, a singularly beautiful work, in Ratcliff Place, by the late Mr Munro; Sir Robert Peel, in New Street, by Mr P. Hollins; the late Prince-Consort, in the Art Gallery, by Mr Foley; Sir Rowland Hill, in the hall of the Post-Office, by Mr Noble; and Dr Priestley, in New Street, by Mr F. J. Williamson. Chantrey's famous statue of James Watt is in a special chapel at Handsworth church.

**Manufactures.**—From an early period Birmingham has been a seat of manufactures in metal. Hutton, the historian of the town, claims for it Saxon or even British antiquity in this respect, but without the shadow of foundation. The first or direct mention of Birmingham trades is to be found in Leland's *Itinerary* (1538). He writes:—"I came through a pretty street as ever I entered into Birmingham town. This street, as I remember, is called Dirty (Deritend). In it dwell smiths and cutlers. There be many smiths in the town that use to make knives and all manner of cutlery tooles, and many lorimers that make bittes, and a great many naylors, so that a great part of the town is maintained by smiths, who have their iron and sea-cole out of Staffordshire." The cutlers no longer exist, this trade having gone to Sheffield; but the smiths remain, and the heavier cutting tools are still largely made here. The well-ascertained importance of Birmingham as a centre of manufactures began towards the close of the 17th century, one great source of it being the absolute freedom of the town, there being no guilds, companies, or restrictions of any kind; besides which the easy access to cheap coal and iron indirectly helped the development. It is remarkable that two important trades, now located elsewhere, were first established here. Steel was made in Birmingham until 1797, and was then disused for quite 70 years, when an experiment in steel-making (still carried on) was made by a single firm. Cotton-spinning was begun in Birmingham by John Wyatt, and Lewis Paul, and Thomas Warren as early as 1730; but the speculation was abandoned before the end of the century. The great staple of Birmingham is metal-working in all its various forms. The chief variety is the brass-working trade, which employs several hundred masters, and about 10,000 work-people, and consumes probably 50,000 tons of metal annually, which is worked up into an infinity of articles of ornament and utility. Iron-working, though largely carried on, is a much less important trade, works of this kind being chiefly established in the Staffordshire district. Jewellery, gold, silver, and gilt come next to brass. Then follow small arms of all kinds, some of the larger establishments being capable of turning out 2000 stand per week. Buttons, hooks and eyes, pins, and other articles used for dress, constitute a large class of manufactures. Glass, especially table glass, is a renowned staple of the town. Screws, nails, &c., are made in enormous quantities; indeed, Birmingham has a monopoly of the English screw trade. Steel pens are also a specialty—as much as, probably, 15 tons or more of steel being the weekly consumption of these articles; the largest maker, Sir Josiah Mason, rolls 5 tons weekly for his own consumption, and has about 60 tons of pens constantly in manufacture in various stages. About 20,000,000 pens are made weekly in the town, and are sold at prices ranging from 1½d. to 12s. per gross of 12 dozen. The fact that each gross requires 144 pieces of steel to go through

12 different processes, renders this cheapness of sale one of the greatest marvels of manufacturing skill and industry. Electro-plating, first established about 1848 by Messrs Elkington and Mason, is one of the leading trades. Amongst other branches of manufacture are wire-drawing, bell founding, metal rolling, railway carriage building (a large and important industry), steel-toy making (including cutting implements and tools of all kinds), die-sinking, papier-mache making, and a variety of others, for which reference may be made to a volume entitled *Birmingham and the Midland Hardware District*, prepared on the visit of the British Association in 1865, and extending to more than 700 pages. It is impossible, indeed, in smaller compass to give an adequate idea of the variety and extent of Birmingham industry. To quote a modern writer:—

"We cannot move without finding traces of the great hive of metal-makers—the veritable descendants of Tubal-cain. At home or abroad, sleeping or waking, walking or riding, in a carriage or upon a railway or steamboat, we cannot escape reminiscences of Birmingham. She haunts us from the cradle to the grave. She supplies us with the spoon that first brings our infant lips into acquaintance with 'pap,' and she provides the dismal 'furniture' which is affixed to our coffins. In her turn Birmingham lays the whole world under contribution for her materials. For her smiths, and metal workers, and jewellers, wherever nature has deposited stores of useful or precious metals, or has hidden glittering gems, there industrious miners are busily digging. Divers collect for her button makers millions of rare and costly shells. For her, adventurous hunters rifle the buffalo of his wide-spreading horns, and the elephant of his ivory tusks. There is scarcely a product of any country or any climate that she does not gladly receive, and in return stamps with a richer value."

These labours Birmingham performs with the aid of many thousands of willing hands, moved by busy and ingenious brains, and aided by her own great invention, the steam-engine; for by the genius of Watt and the intrepid courage of Boulton, Birmingham may claim the perfection of this discovery as her own. The memory of the great Soho factory is one of the most precious heritages of the town, and the name remains, for though the old factory has long since disappeared, the firm of Boulton and Watt still continue to make steam-engines in the immediate neighbourhood; and James Watt's own private workshop continues just as he left it, with no single article disturbed, carefully preserved in the garret of his house at Heathfield.

The mention of Watt and of Soho recalls the memories of distinguished inventors and others who have been connected with Birmingham. Johnson was a frequent visitor here to his friend Hector, the surgeon, on whose house in the Old Square a tablet (erected by the Shakespeare Club) bears witness to the residence of the great moralist. Then Baskerville, the printer, carried on his work here. The famous Lunar Society, fully described by Mr Smiles in his *Lives of the Engineers*, brought together a brilliant company—Watt, Boulton, Priestley, Josiah Wedgwood, Darwin, Parr, Withering, Edgeworth, Sir Joseph Banks, Herschel, Dr Solander, Fothergill, Roebuck, Galton, Keir, and many others. Murdoch, the inventor of gas, was a Soho man, and first used his invention to light the Soho factory at the peace of Amiens in 1802. Rickman, the reviver and historian of Gothic architecture, practised as an architect in Birmingham. Hutton, the antiquary and historian, carried on his bookselling business here. Many of the best engravers were Birmingham men, notably Willmore and Pye, the special translators of Turner's marvellous creations. In the ranks of landscape painters the name of David Cox will ever confer honour upon the town. Attwood, Joseph Parkes, and Bright speak for it in the region of politics and statesmanship. The series of inventors is continued to our own day by the names of Gillott, Elkington, Chance, Mason, and others.

In many respects Birmingham is a peculiar town, and in none more than the hold it has upon the affections of its

people. A "Birmingham man" is usually a man of strong individuality, independence of character, facility of resource, and with an enduring love for "the old town." These traits of character are the result of a variety of circumstances. Birmingham is peculiar in opening a career even to the humblest who are gifted with ingenuity and industry. The great number of trades keeps work fairly constant, the skill required in them sustains wages of artizans at a high level, and the distribution of labour, and its dependence upon direct personal aptitude, afford chances of rising in the social scale which cannot be found in places where manufactures are mainly of one class and are conducted in factories demanding large capital. It is easy in Birmingham for a man to become a small master, and gradually to push his trade until he is able to establish a factory. Many of the largest employers have either been workmen themselves or are the sons of workmen; while of the smaller manufacturers almost all take a direct part in the handicraft work carried on in their places of business.

Wealth is more evenly distributed than in most other places. There are no colossal fortunes in Birmingham, and comparatively few large ones, and of these very few are made by speculative operations. To compensate for these distinctions there is an unusually large comfortable class—people of good though not excessive incomes derived from solid trade, or from savings made by hard personal and associated work. This class, touching the actually wealthy on one side, by easy and almost imperceptible stages touches the actual working-class on the other, and this latter class is constantly rising into the middle rank.

The Birmingham work-people, in their way, are courteous and helpful. This is probably owing to the free and open and common discussion of subjects of political and social interest engaged in without distinction of class. The same principle is adopted educationally—in the Midland Institute, for example—the Act of Parliament which established the Institute providing that the governing council shall always include artizan members. Another noticeable characteristic of the town is the development of means of self-instruction and of self-help. Birmingham was amongst the earliest places to establish a mechanics' institution, the place of which is now more efficiently supplied by the Midland Institute. Birmingham, again, was the birthplace of the freehold land and building societies, by which workmen are enabled, on easy terms, to acquire houses of their own; and in addition to these institutions, which are numerous and flourishing, it has a very large number of sick and friendly societies, savings-clubs, and other organizations of a provident kind,—more in proportion to population than, probably, any other of the large towns in England. Amongst the social characteristics it should be mentioned that there are few serious disputes between masters and workmen, and that strikes are infrequent, and when they do occur are found capable of easy adjustment by friendly negotiation. One point more is worthy of record—the constancy of the town to those who serve it. Many of the leading manufacturers and other citizens are members of the local governing bodies, and these and the parliamentary representatives are rarely changed by their constituents.

**History.**—Owing to its rapid expansion, and the consequent newness of most of the public and other buildings, Birmingham is often supposed to be a modern town. It is really one of the oldest in the country, and was in existence as a community in the Saxon period. Proof of this was given in 1309 by William de Birmingham, then lord of the manor, who showed in a law-suit that his ancestors had a market in the place, and levied tolls, before the Conquest. Some authors have endeavoured to identify the town with the supposed Roman station called *Bremenium*, but this claim has long since been abandoned as fabulous. The origin of the name is untraceable; the spelling of it is traceable in about 100 different forms. Dugdale, the historian of Warwickshire, adopts Brom

wycham, and regards it as of Saxon derivation. Hutton, the historian of Birmingham, has the fanciful etymology of *Brom* (broom), *wyck* (a descent), and *ham* (a home), making together, the home on the hill by the heath. As regards the history of the town, we must agree with Hutton that "the way is long, dark, and slippery." In *Domesday Book* it is rated at four miles of land with half a mile of woods, the whole valued at £203. Two hundred years later the family of De Bermingham, the owners of the place, come into sight,—one of them, William, being killed at the battle of Evesham, in 1265, fighting with Simon de Montfort and the barons against Henry the Third. The son of this William afterwards took part in the French war, and was made prisoner; his father's estates, forfeited by treason, were restored to him. Thenceforward we find the family engaged in various local and other offices, but seemingly abstaining from politics. They held the place until 1527, when Edward de Bermingham was deprived of his property by means of John Dudley, duke of Northumberland, who trumped up a pretended charge of riot and robbery against him, and procured Birmingham for himself. On the attainder of Dudley the manor passed to the Crown, and was granted to Thomas Marrow, of Berkswell, from whom by marriage and descent it went to Christopher Musgrave, and finally, as regards the only valuable part—the market tolls—by purchase to the town itself. In the Wars of the Roses it does not seem that Birmingham took any part; but energy revived in the civil war under Charles I., when the town sided actively with the Parliamentarians. In 1642, when Charles was marching from Shrewsbury to relieve Banbury, the Birmingham people seized part of his baggage, including much plate, money, and wine, which they sent to the Parliamentary garrison at Warwick. Before the battle of Edgehill Charles rested for two nights at Aston Hall, near the town, as the guest of Sir Thomas Holte. The Birmingham people resented this by helping the Parliamentarians to cannonade the hall and to levy a fine upon Sir Thomas Holte. They also set to work, and supplied the Parliamentary army with 15,000 sword blades, refusing to make a single blade for the Royalists. These manifestations of hostility were avenged in April 1643, by Prince Rupert, who, with 2000 men and several pieces of artillery, attacked the town, planting his cannon on an eminence near Sparkbrook, still known as Camp Hill. The townspeople resisted, but were beaten, many persons being killed or wounded. Amongst the former was Lord Denbigh, one of the Royalist officers. Having captured the place, Prince Rupert allowed his troops to plunder it, to burn about eighty houses, and to set their prisoners to ransom. He also levied a fine of £30,000, equal to at least £100,000 of the present value of money. This bitter lesson kept Birmingham quiet during the rest of the civil war, though the sympathies of the people with the Parliamentarians were unabated. In 1665 Birmingham suffered heavy losses by the plague, great numbers of dead being buried in the Pest Field, at Ladbroke Wood, then a lonely place far outside the town, but long since thickly covered with buildings. In 1688 the Revolution provoked a temporary outbreak of Protestant feeling. James II. had given timber from the royal forest of Needwood, near Burton, to build a Catholic chapel and convent in a place still called Mass-house Lane. This edifice the mob promptly destroyed when James gave place to William and Mary. Rather more than a century of quiet prosperity ensued, and then occurred the serious and most lamentable outbreak of popular fury known as the Church and King riots of 1791. For some years there had been much political activity in Birmingham, the dissenters, particularly the Unitarians, being desirous of relief from the political and religious disabilities under which they laboured. The leader in these movements was the famous Dr Priestley, who kept up an active controversy with the local clergy and others, and thus drew upon himself and his co-religionists the hatred of the more violent members of the Church and Tory party. The smouldering fire broke out on the occasion of the French Revolution. On the 14th of July a dinner of Birmingham Liberals was held at the Royal Hotel to celebrate the destruction of the Bastille. This was the signal of a popular outbreak. A Church and King mob, encouraged and organized by leaders of better station, but who were too cowardly to show themselves, began an attack upon the Unitarians. Dr Priestley was not present at the dinner, but his house at Fair Hill, Sparkbrook, was one of the first to be sacked and burnt—his library and laboratory, with all his manuscripts, the records of life-long scientific and philosophical inquiries, perishing in the flames. The house and library of Hutton, the historian and antiquary, were also destroyed. The Unitarian chapel was burnt, and several houses belonging to members of the sect were sacked and burnt. The riot continued until a strong body of troops was marched into the town, but before their arrival damage to the amount of more than £60,000 had been done. Some of the rioters perished in the burning buildings, in the cellars of which they drank themselves into stupefaction. Others were tried and imprisoned, and four of the prisoners were hanged. The persecuted Unitarians recovered a small part of their losses from the county; but Dr Priestley himself, owing to the unworthy prejudice against him, was in a great measure forced to remove to the

United States of America, where he spent the rest of his life. A late atonement was made by the town to his memory in 1873, by the erection of a statue in his honour in front of the Town-Hall, and the foundation of a Priestley scholarship at the Midland Institute.

As if ashamed of the excesses of 1791, Birmingham thenceforth became a thoroughly Liberal and, with one or two exceptions, a peaceful town. In the dismal period from 1817 to 1819, when the manufacturing districts were heavily distressed and were disturbed by riots, Birmingham remained quiet. Even when some of the inhabitants were tried and punished for demanding parliamentary representation, and for electing Sir Charles Wolseley as their delegate, there was no demonstration of violence—the wise counsels of the leaders inducing orderly submission to the law. The same prudent course was observed when in the Reform agitation of 1831–32 the Political Union was formed, under the leadership of Thomas Attwood, to promote the passing of the Reform Bill. Almost the whole town, and great part of the surrounding district, joined in this agitation; vast meetings were held on Newhall Hill; there was much talk of marching upon London 100,000 strong; but, owing to the firmness and statesmanship of Mr Attwood and his associates, there was no rioting or any sign of violence. Ultimately the Political Union succeeded in its object, and Birmingham helped to secure for the nation the enfranchisement of the middle classes and other political reforms. One exception to the tranquillity of the town has to be recorded—the occurrence of riots in 1839, during the Chartist agitation. Chartism took a strong hold in Birmingham, and, under the influence of Mr Feargus O'Connor and some of his associates, nightly meetings of a threatening character were held in the Bull Ring. The magistrates resolved to put these down, and having obtained the help of a detachment of the metropolitan police—the town then having no local police force—a meeting was dispersed, and a riot ensued, which resulted in injury to several persons, and required military force to suppress it. This happened on the 4th of July. On the 15th of the same month another meeting took place, and the mob, strongly armed and numbering many thousands, set fire to several houses in the Bull Ring, some of which were burned to the ground, and others were greatly damaged. The military again interfered, and order was restored, several of the ringleaders being afterwards tried and imprisoned for their share in the disturbance. There was another riot in 1867, caused by the ferocious attacks of a lecturer named Murphy upon the Roman Catholics, which led to the sacking of a street chiefly inhabited by Irishmen; but the incident was comparatively trivial, and further disorders were prevented by the prompt action of the authorities. (J. T. B.)

**BIRON, ARMAND DE GONTAULT**, a baron and marshal of France, and a celebrated general, who signalized himself by his valour and conduct in several sieges and battles in the 16th century. He was made grand master of the artillery in 1569, and commanded at the siege of Rochelle, and in Guienne. He was one of the first who declared for Henry IV.; he brought a part of Normandy under his subjection, and dissuaded him from retiring to England or Rochelle. Biron was killed by a cannon-ball at the siege of Epernay, July 26, 1592. He was a man of considerable literary attainments, and used to carry a pocket-book, in which he noted everything that appeared remarkable. This gave rise to a proverb at court, when a person happened to say anything uncommon, "You have found that in Biron's pocket-book."

**BIRON, CHARLES DE GONTAULT**, son of the above and born in 1562, created duke of Biron and admiral of France by Henry IV., was a man of great intrepidity, but fickle and treacherous. In 1601 he was sent as ambassador to the court of queen Elizabeth to announce his royal master's marriage with Mary of Medici; but being discovered in a treasonable correspondence with Spain, he was beheaded in the Bastille at Paris, July 31, 1602. The extent to which he had carried his treason was not great, and Henry by sparing his life would not have shown undue clemency.

**BIRS NIMRUD**. See **BABYLON**, page 183.

**BISACCIA**, a city of Italy, in the Principato Ulteriore, 60 miles E. of Naples. It is a bishopric in conjunction with St. Angelo, and contains 5342 inhabitants. Formerly it was the chief city in a principality belonging to the Pignatelli family, and it is believed to occupy the site of the ancient Romulea, a Samnite town of considerable size which was captured by the Romans about 297 B.C.

**BISCAY**, or **VIZCAYA**, one of the three Basque provinces of Spain, with the title of Seignory. It is bounded on the N. by the bay to which it gives its name, E. by Guipuzcoa, S. by Alava, and W. by Santander. Its area is 845 square miles, and its population in 1867 was 183,098. The coastline, which extends from Ondarroa to a short distance to the east of Castro, is bold and rugged, and in some places is deeply indented. The only river of any size is the Nervion or Ibaizabal, on which Bilbao is situated; the others, which are numerous, are merely large mountain streams. The surface of the country is for the most part very mountainous, but at the same time is diversified with numerous narrow valleys and small plains. Some of the mountains are almost entirely composed of naked calcareous rock, but most of them are covered to their summits with forests of oaks, chestnuts, or pine trees. Holly and arbutus are also common, and furze and heath abound in the poorer parts. The province produces wheat, maize, barley, rye, flax, grapes, peaches, apples, and other fruits. The farms are generally small, and are for the most part tilled by manual labour. The wild boar, lynx, fox, and other wild animals, are found in the forests; and deer, rabbits, partridges, woodcocks, and other kinds of game are plentiful. Sheep and goats are the principal domestic animals. In minerals Biscay is very rich. Iron of the finest quality is found in almost every part, and forms a main article of export. The best mines are those of Somorostro, near the coast. The amount obtained in 1866 was about 80,000 tons. Lead, zinc, alum, and sulphur, are also present in smaller quantities; and marble, lime, and sandstone are abundant. The manufacture of the iron ore is the chief branch of industry; but porcelain, linens, copper and brass wares, ropes, and leather, are also produced. The fisheries are actively prosecuted along the coast by a hardy race of fishers, who were the first of their craft in Europe to pursue the whale, formerly abundant in the Bay of Biscay. Cod, bream, tunny, and anchovy are the principal fish taken. Bilbao is the capital of the province, with a population of 17,649; the other towns, Portugaleta, Miravalles, Durango, and Orozco, are all very small. The principal ports, besides Portugaleta, are Plencia, Bermeo, and Hea. After the fall of the Romans this Cantabrian province came successively into the hands of the Suevi, Franks, and Goths, and formed for some time an independent lordship. The legislative authority was exercised by the lord and a junta of popular representatives. The latter regularly assembled every two years, and on any emergency held an extraordinary meeting under an old tree at Guernica. Although incorporated with Spain, the Biscayans still maintain a republican form of administration, nominating their own governors and magistrates, regulating the amount of the taxes, and exercising various other privileges. They are a brave and active people, and their history is largely composed of exploits in defence of their liberties. For their linguistic and ethnographic affinities, see the article **BASQUE PROVINCES**. The name Biscay is not unfrequently employed as geographically equivalent to Basque, in that case including the three provinces of Biscay proper, Guipuzcoa, and Alava.

**BISCAY, BAY OF**, in French the *Golfe de Gascogne*, and the Roman *Sinus Aquitanicus*, an extensive gulf or bay of the Atlantic, enclosed by the northern coast of Spain and the western coast of France. It extends from the island of Ushant, on the coast of Finistère, to Cape Ortegal on the north of Galicia. In the Spanish portion of the bay the water is about 200 fathoms deep, while in the French portion it is only 20 fathoms. Navigation is impeded by strong westerly winds, and by Rennel's Current, which sets in from the west and sweeps along the southern and eastern shores sometimes at a rate of 27 miles

a day. The Loire, Charente, Gironde, and Adour, besides numerous smaller streams from the Spanish mountains, fall into the bay.

**BISCEGLIA**, perhaps the ancient *Natium*, a fortified seaport of Italy, in the province of Terra di Bari, situated on a rocky promontory on the Adriatic, 21 miles W.N.W. of Bari. It is the seat of a bishopric, and has a cathedral, numerous churches and convents, and a theatre. Some ruins still exist of a hospital, founded by Bohemund for pilgrims to the Holy Land. Its harbour is only accessible to small vessels, and it has little trade. Being destitute of springs, it has numerous reservoirs for the collection of rain-water. Population, 21,371.

**BISCHWEILER**, a town of Alsace, 14 miles N. of Strasburg, on the railway from Hagenau. It has manufactures of woollen and linen stuffs, oil, soap, earthenware, &c., and some trade in hops, hemp, leather, and tobacco. Population in 1871, 9220, including that of Hanhoffen, which numbered 689.

**BISCUIT**. See **BAKING**, page 252.

**BISHOP**, the title of an ecclesiastical dignitary set over the presbyters and deacons at a very early period in the Christian church. The word is derived from the Saxon *bisceop*, which is a corruption of the Greek word *episcopos*, which signifies an "overlooker" or "overseer," and the churches in which the order of bishops is recognized as distinct from and superior to the order of presbyters are styled "Episcopal churches." The early history of the Episcopal order is obscure, but it would appear that the first bishops were established in the chief cities of Christendom, and each bishop had a certain territorial district placed under his superintendence, whence the city was termed the see (*sedes*) of the bishop, and the district his parish (*παροικία*), and subsequently his diocese (*διοίκησις*). In course of time the districts assigned to the first bishops became too populous, whereupon the clergy of each diocese, as the case might be, appear to have assembled and to have subdivided the diocese, and to have selected a second bishop, and so bishops and dioceses were multiplied, according to the wants of the churches, until it was thought expedient to reserve the right of erecting new bishoprics to provincial councils, and this reservation was made a rule of the church by a decree of the Council of Sardica. Meanwhile the bishops of the new sees had grouped themselves round the bishops of the more ancient sees, who exercised over them a certain spiritual authority as primates, and presided in their councils; and as some of the great cities in which the sees of the first bishops had been established were distinguished by the title of "metropolis," or mother-city, and were in fact the chief cities of civil provinces of the Roman empire, the bishops of those sees came to be distinguished by the title of metropolitan bishops, and exercised a superior authority in the councils of the church in proportion to the greater importance of their respective sees. This superior dignity of the metropolitan bishops over the others was formally recognized at the Council of Nicea as being in accordance with custom. Upon the establishment of Christianity as the religion of the Roman empire a coercive jurisdiction was engrafted on the spiritual superiority of the metropolitan, and the district over which the metropolitan exercised this jurisdiction was termed his province, the earliest ecclesiastical provinces being for the most part conterminous with the civil provinces of the empire. From the circumstance that there was no metropolitan city in Western Africa, the term metropolitan was never adopted in the Carthaginian Church, the senior bishop of that church being termed the primate, and having precedence and authority as such over the other bishops.

In the Church of Rome the Pope claims of right the