

**BOLBEC**, a town of France, capital of a canton in the department of Lower Seine, 18 miles E.N.E. from Havre on the railway to Paris, which here passes over high embankments and a viaduct. It was burned almost to the ground in 1765, but is now a flourishing brick-built manufacturing town, well supplied with water-power by the Bolbec stream. The principal manufactures are cotton goods, woollen cloth, and leather; there are also linen factories and dye-works. Population in 1872, 9019.

**BOLEYN, ANNE**, or, as the name is variously spelled, Bullen, Bouleyn, Boullan, or Boulain, queen of England, and second wife of Henry VIII., was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, a distinguished politician, and Lady Elizabeth Howard, daughter of the earl of Surrey, afterwards duke of Norfolk. Considerable obscurity rests over the date of her birth, which has been variously stated as 1501 and 1507; perhaps the earlier date is the more probable. She received a very careful education, and in 1514 became maid-in-waiting to Mary Tudor, then the affianced bride of Louis XII. of France. She crossed to France in Mary's train, but did not return with her, having entered the service of Queen Claude, where she was celebrated for her beauty, talents, and accomplishments. The period of her return to England has been matter of dispute; some, following Herbert and others, would make the date about 1522, others 1527. It may be assumed with some confidence that she returned about the earlier date. About this time occurred her love affair with Percy, afterwards earl of Northumberland, which was broken off by Wolsey, acting apparently under the directions of the jealous king. Henry seems already to have begun to direct his affections towards the fair Boleyn, who was then one of the maids of honour attached to his consort, Katherine of Aragon. He advanced her family, but is said to have been repulsed by her when he made an offer of his love. In 1527, after some absence from the court, she seems to have returned, and Henry's attentions to her became more marked than before. His passion soon opened his eyes more clearly to the sin of his marriage with his deceased brother's wife, and the subject of the divorce began to be seriously discussed. Towards 1530 Anne Boleyn was accustomed to keep state almost as queen; in 1532 she was raised to the peerage with the title of marchioness of Pembroke, and accompanied Henry in his visit to France. On January 25, 1533, according to a contemporary report, her ambition was crowned by a private marriage with Henry. On the 12th of April she was openly proclaimed queen, and the marriage was again solemnized; and on the 8th of May the king's previous marriage was declared to have been null and void. The coronation took place on the 19th of May, and on the 7th September, a princess, the famous Elizabeth, was born.

Little is known of the new queen's married life. She to some extent favoured the Reformers, and countenanced the translation of the Bible. In January 1536 she gave birth to a prince, still-born. It is said that this mishap was occasioned by her suddenly becoming aware of Henry's attentions to Lady Jane Seymour. However this may be, Henry's superstitious fears seem to have been roused by the want of a male heir, and his fancy for Anne Boleyn had been replaced by a new passion. In April 1536 a committee sat privately to inquire into certain accusations of adultery against the queen. A special commission was called on the 24th April, and orders were issued for the arrest of the Viscount Rochford, the queen's brother, Sir Henry Norris, Sir Wm. Brereton, Sir Francis Weston, and Mark Smeton, all her alleged paramours. At the same time writs were issued for a new parliament. On the 2d May the queen was arrested and summoned before the privy council.

Smeton, Norris, and Weston were afterwards examined, and of these Smeton confessed, though it was said under torture. Norris is thought to have made some admission, which, however, he afterwards withdrew. All three were committed to the Tower, to an apartment in which the queen was also consigned. Henry wrote to her, holding out hopes of pardon if she would be open and honest. Her reply, however, strongly affirms her innocence, and its general tone goes far in her favour. (The authenticity of the queen's letter has been doubted, though on slight grounds, by Mr Froude.) The juries of Middlesex and Kent, before whom proceedings opened, found true writs charging the queen with adultery, committed with the above-named Rochford, Brereton, Weston, Norris, and Smeton, and all with conspiring against the king's life. On the 12th May, Brereton, Norris, Weston, and Smeton were tried at Westminster, found guilty, and condemned. On the 15th Anne Boleyn and her brother were tried before twenty-seven peers, found guilty, and sentenced. On the 17th Smeton was hanged, the others beheaded. Their remarks on the scaffold were general, and can be interpreted fairly in neither way. Before the queen's execution she is said to have confessed to Cranmer some previous impediment which rendered her marriage with the king null and void, but what the confession was is absolutely unknown. On the 19th May she suffered death on Tower Green. On the next day Henry was married to Jane Seymour. Over the whole episode of Anne Boleyn's trial and execution the deepest obscurity rests. All traces of the evidence have vanished, and the conflicting judgments of historians, it must be confessed, seem generally to be determined by the bias of the individual writer.

See *State Trials*, where Burnet and the older writers are quoted; Strickland, *Lives of the Queens of England*; Miss Binger, *Life of A. Boleyn*; and the histories of Lingard and Froude.

**BOLI**, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Anatolia, situated about 85 miles N.W. of Angora, on the Phlios Chai, to the south of the Boli Dagh, in 31° 40' E. long. and 40° 45' N. lat. It is the capital of a sandjak and the seat of a governor, and contains a ruined castle and numerous mosques and baths, nowise remarkable in their structure. Cotton and leather are manufactured; the country around is fertile, and in the neighbourhood is a forest, from which Constantinople is largely supplied with wood. There are warm springs in the vicinity. Boli is built not far from what is regarded by Leake as the ruins of Hadrianopolis, where many marble fragments with Greek inscriptions are still found. The population is conjecturally stated at 10,000.

**BOLINGBROKE, HENRY ST JOHN, VISCOUNT**, was born in October 1678. His father, Sir Henry St John, the descendant of an old and noble family, was a noted rake of the Restoration period, who continued to live his life of pleasure and indolence for upwards of ninety years. Of his mother little is known, save that she was a daughter of the earl of Warwick. The education of her son was entrusted to the care of his grandmother, Lady St John, who was a professed Puritan and of a pious disposition. His tutor was a Dr Burgess, then renowned for his wit not less than for his piety, whose instructions in divinity seem to have been somewhat distasteful, if we are to accept the pupil's account of the dreary studies he was compelled to engage in. At an early age he was sent to Eton, where he appears to have been a school-fellow, though hardly a rival, of Walpole, and then proceeded to Christ Church, Oxford. The life he led at the university was typical of his later career. His brilliant talents and unusually retentive memory enabled him to amass an immense amount of information—more, indeed, than he was given credit for; while at the same time he began to

acquire an equally high reputation for dissipation and licentiousness. He was the Rochester of the period, with more than Rochester's abilities. He sought and gained the fame of a modern Alcibiades or Petronius. Amidst all his excesses, however, he maintained a real interest in literature. He was intimate with Dryden, and prefixed a laudatory poem to the first edition of the translation of Virgil. The verses did not hold out high promise of poetic power; and his later efforts in the same direction did little for his literary reputation. His most considerable production, *Almahide, an Ode*, is a miserable tawdry affair; the light ode to the equally light *Clara* is very much better, and has some vivacity and sparkle. He seems to have been conscious of his want of poetic genius, for his verse remains are not numerous.

For two years, from 1698 to 1700, he resided on the Continent, and during that time acquired the thorough mastery of the French language which was afterwards of so much service to him. On his return his friends, in the hope of withdrawing him to some extent from his loose mode of life, negotiated a marriage with the wealthy daughter of Sir Henry Winchescomb, a baronet of Berkshire. Marriage, however, effected little or no change in St John; and, though his wife never formally separated from him, and always retained a true affection for her husband, their married life was unhappy and divided. In February of the year following he entered Parliament as member for Wootton-Basset.

The Tory party, from a combination of circumstances, were then all-powerful in the House of Commons. The Partition Treaty, a measure for which, indeed, little can be said, had not met with popular favour, while William's large grants to foreigners, together with the general coldness and repulsiveness of his manners, had rendered him most unpopular. A perfect storm of discontent had arisen, and the Tories were nearly bewildered with the power which had been suddenly placed in their hands. Harley, perhaps, at that time, from his moderation, the most influential man of the party, led the House as speaker. St John enrolled himself among the Tories with the utmost enthusiasm, and from the first displayed such brilliant powers as placed him at once in the front rank, and gave him an almost unique position. His youth and high birth, his handsome and commanding presence, and his agreeable address, no doubt contributed largely to his rapid elevation; but what above all secured for him an unequalled success was his wonderful eloquence. The powers he unexpectedly evinced as an orator and debater were unrivalled then, and, if we are to take contemporary reports as our authority, had never been equalled, and have seldom, if ever, been surpassed. Not a fragment of his many speeches has come down to us; but from the criticisms of those who heard him speak, and from his published writings, some idea of their general quality may be gathered. The most prominent characteristics seem to have been copiousness and readiness, extreme fluency, and spontaneity, combined with a brilliant felicity of phrase, the right expression seeming to spring up naturally along with the thought to be expressed. His sentences are mostly massive and balanced, yet never heavy; flowing, but rarely redundant. He is, perhaps, the first British statesman whose parliamentary oratory has been really a power; and with such splendid qualifications it was little wonder that he readily became the protagonist of the Tory party. He was their mouthpiece; he gave expression to their half-articulate wishes, hounded them on in their insane attacks on the great Whig leaders, and barbed their invectives with his own trenchant wit. But, as he has himself admitted, it would be difficult to discover what object the Tories really had in view. Their only desire seems to have been to

revenge themselves upon their political opponents and indirectly to assail the king. A definite policy they had not either at that time or throughout the succeeding reign. The Whigs had so far a basis of operations; they held by the Protestant succession, and were in favour of a war with France. The Tories, who, if thoroughgoing, were really Jacobites, were averse to the French war, because it indirectly weakened their party, and they did not favour the succession. But consistent adherence to principle is a thing one looks for in vain among the majority of statesmen in the reign of Anne. There never was a time in British history when the movements of politicians were regulated by such petty causes, and when great talents had to be turned to such paltry purposes. Politics became but a grand game, in which success meant office, power, wealth, and dignity; and to secure such success few hesitated at the most dishonourable means. Treason was a thing of common occurrence, and many names among the highest in English history are tarnished by acts of grossest treachery. Bolingbroke participates to the full in the spirit of his time. Never throughout his whole career can one observe the operation of a consistent policy, or trace the action of any motive higher than personal ambition. Mentally and morally he was well qualified to take a prominent place in the political struggle of the time.

The rush of popular favour to the Tory party was checked by Louis's acknowledgment of the Pretender as legitimate king of England. There was no opposition made to the proposed war, which was not interrupted by the death of William and the accession of Anne. Godolphin and Marlborough, both moderate Tories, were strongly in favour of the war, and consequently found themselves gradually drawn into harmony with the Whigs rather than with the extreme members of their own party. Several of the latter were removed from the cabinet, and among the new officials were Harley, and, curiously enough, St John, the former being made Secretary of State, the latter Secretary at War. It has been doubted to what influence St John owed this singular promotion. Harley's power was hardly great enough to effect it, and it is more than probable that it was in great part, if not entirely, the work of Marlborough, who had a very considerable affection and respect for St John, and who doubtless desired a friend of his to fill the office with which he had so many transactions. As secretary St John discharged his duties with great efficiency, and manifested the most enthusiastic admiration for Marlborough's military genius and success. Meantime Harley had been tampering with the secret springs which moved so much of the political machinery. His relative Mrs Masham was supplanting the imperious duchess of Marlborough, and through her influence the queen was becoming convinced that the interests of the nation should be confided to Harley and the Tories. She was ready to dismiss Godolphin at the first opportunity, but the Whigs were as yet too strong, and Harley's schemes having been discovered, he was in 1708 compelled to resign. St John, who can hardly be thought to have had no cognizance of what was afoot, resigned along with him, and spent two years in philosophical retirement, studying diligently and living loosely as before. During these years a gradual undercurrent of feeling swelled up against the Whig party. The war was distasteful, and its prolongation was looked upon as altogether the work of Marlborough. Above all, the queen was thoroughly alienated from her old friend and under the influence of Mrs Masham. Yet the strength of the Whig party might have enabled them to carry through their policy successfully had not an act of suicidal imprudence completely ruined them. The prosecution of Sacheverell was the signal for a perfect storm of insanely loyal feeling throughout the country. A Tory ministry

would evidently meet with popular approval, and Anne had therefore no hesitation in dismissing Godolphin and the Whigs. Harley became Chancellor of the Exchequer and virtually premier; St John was made Secretary of State.

The political problem, how, under all contingencies, to retain power, was somewhat complicated. The queen's health made the succession the main question. Now, the accession of the Elector meant the restoration of the Whigs to power. It was hardly possible for the Tory leaders to oust the Whig party from the graces of the House of Hanover, with whom their policy was so knit up. Prudence, therefore, as well as principle, made them lean towards the exiled House of Stuart, and for a time extreme Tory was synonymous with Jacobite. But the hopes of James to a great extent depended on the assistance of France, and consequently peace with France became their primary object. To attain it they were urged also by the loudly expressed wishes of a large section of the people, and by their hatred of the Whigs, with whom the war was identified. Active steps in the matter were taken mainly by St John, and in the beginning of 1712 he had at last brought affairs to such a pass that the duke of Ormond, who had superseded Marlborough, received secret orders not to attack the French, while private intimation of this order was sent to the French Government. Arrangements were then made with the French minister De Torcy, whereby the fundamental articles of the league with the allies were broken, Britain engaging to enter into a separate peace with France, receiving certain special advantages, and quietly abandoning some of the allies, as the Catalans. Nothing can possibly extenuate the baseness of these proceedings, and our judgment of them cannot be altered by our opinion as to the advisability of the peace. The Whig party were wholly unable to throw any obstacles in the way; their majority in the House of Lords had been swamped by the creation of twelve new peers; and Walpole had been impeached on a petty charge and committed to the Tower. Finally, St John, now Viscount Bolingbroke, visited Paris to push on negotiations so that peace might be announced to next Parliament. It has been said, though he himself denied it, that during this visit he had interviews with the Pretender. In April 1713 the famous treaty of Utrecht was signed, and the Parliament of that year had the articles read to them. This, however, had not the effect anticipated by Bolingbroke. There was a lurking feeling of discontent with regard to it, and the commercial articles, bearing on trade with France, excited great indignation among the mercantile classes.

Bolingbroke and the Tories seemed, however, to be at the zenith of their power; but the foundations of that power were unstable, and there was dissension among the leaders. Harley had become earl of Oxford, and Bolingbroke was indignant at receiving only the rank of viscount. His anger was increased on failing to receive the garter vacant by the death of Godolphin. The disputes between the former allies became open and violent. By unscrupulous bribery Bolingbroke managed to secure the interest of Mrs Masham, and through her wrought upon the queen. In the Parliament of 1714 he dealt the death-blow to Oxford's power, by compelling him to vote upon the Schism Bill; and finally, on the 27th July, after a stormy discussion, which greatly excited the queen, Oxford was dismissed. Bolingbroke, however, had but a brief taste of power, for on the 30th the queen was seized with apoplexy. At the council held upon the emergency the dukes of Argyle and Somerset boldly presented themselves, and proposed and carried a resolution that the duke of Shrewsbury should be recommended as Lord Treasurer. Bolingbroke was obliged to yield. Anne was able to give

assent; the Whig party had already made all their arrangements, and immediately on the queen's death (August 1) the Elector was proclaimed king, and special messenger were despatched to bring him over. Bolingbroke and his friends seemed bewildered; they were, indeed, thoroughly taken by surprise, and their half-formed schemes disconcerted. Atterbury alone urged Bolingbroke boldly to proclaim James, but either the courage of the latter failed, or, as is more probable, his intentions were not sufficiently definite. It is not an unreasonable supposition that, had a fair time been granted to him, he would have endeavoured to make favour with the House of Hanover. Any such hope was then out of the question; the duties of his office were transferred temporarily to Addison, and within the month in which the queen died he was formally dismissed. It was soon known that the new Parliament, who were mainly Whigs, intended to impeach Oxford and Bolingbroke for their share in the recent peace. From what we now know of the actual accusation, it is plain that it did not amount to high treason. Had there been nothing further it would have been the best plan to have stayed and faced the trial. This, accordingly, was done by Oxford; but Bolingbroke, after showing himself ostentatiously in public, fled over to France in disguise, even before the impeachment had been made in the House. In the letter he left behind him for Lord Lansdowne he gives as his excuse that he had certain and repeated informations from some who were in the secret of affairs that a resolution was taken to pursue him to the scaffold. In the famous letter to Sir Wm. Windham he takes somewhat different ground, and accounts for his flight from his intense dislike of Oxford, and his resolution not to be associated with him in any way. It was not till the 10th June that he was formally impeached on 6th August he was attainted and summoned to appear before the 10th September. On the 16th September, he not having made his appearance, his name was struck off the list of peers, and sentence of banishment was passed. Long before this, however, Bolingbroke had thrown in his lot with the Pretender. He had secret interviews with the duke of Berwick immediately after his arrival in Paris, while professing the most loyal sentiments to Lord Stair, the British ambassador, and in the month of July he was formally installed as Secretary of State to the prince. Whatever plans he might have hoped to carry through in this capacity were thoroughly thwarted by the numberless irregular agents and advisers who swarmed about the petty court, and by the impracticable disposition of the prince himself. The expedition to Scotland, undertaken against Bolingbroke's advice, proved a complete failure; and in February 1716 he was dismissed with scant ceremony from the prince's service, while a formal impeachment was drawn up, accusing him of dilatoriness and want of energy. Rumour was busy with his name, and every species of treachery was imputed to him. The celebrated letter to Sir Wm. Windham, in many respects the best of his writings, was drawn up in the following year, and contains an elaborate sketch of the events of his political career and a justification of his proceedings. The letter may have been circulated to a slight extent in print or in manuscript, but it was undoubtedly not made public till 1753, two years after Bolingbroke's death. It is a skilful piece of work, written with great apparent candour, but inconsistent with known facts, and throwing no satisfactory light on the complicated transactions in which the writer had been involved.

His efforts to ingratiate himself with the new dynasty in England were unavailing, and from this time onwards to his death he led a life of enforced inactivity. He was for ever debarred from the arena of political strife, and though he incessantly hovered round the outskirts, he was unable to effect an entrance. He plunged deeply into philosophical

studies, and would fain have had his friends believe that he had thoroughly and voluntarily resigned himself to a life of studious retirement. He took up his abode at La Source, and in 1720, two years after the death of his first wife, married the Marquise de Villette, for whom he seems to have had a sincere affection. In 1723, by bribing the duchess of Kendal, a removal of part of his sentence was attained; he was permitted to return to England, and, by a special bill, passed two years later, was allowed to enjoy his first wife's property. He bought a magnificent estate at Dawley; and, while keeping up the appearance of single-minded devotion to study, plunged eagerly into as much of political intrigue as was open to him. He had tried in vain to conciliate Walpole, and seems to have seen that during that minister's tenure of power he could never recover his position. He accordingly united himself to the dissatisfied section of the Whigs led by Pulteney, and tried to organize out of them and the remnant of the Tories an opposition to Walpole. His aid was lent not only in preparing speeches for Windham, Pulteney, and others, who for a time were little more than his mouthpieces, but in written attacks upon the minister. His papers in the *Craftsman*, which gave that journal a circulation exceeding even that of the *Spectator*, are masterpieces of vigorous English. In their collected form as the *Dissertation on Parties* and *Oldcastle's Remarks on History*, they are valuable contributions to our knowledge of the political movements of the period. At one time, indeed, it seemed that the opposition would succeed in driving Walpole from the field. The outcry against his Excise Bill was strong, and his majority in the House was seriously diminished, but he was too firmly rooted to be easily moved; and in 1735 he retaliated on Bolingbroke by a significant and threatening speech. So evident was it that he had obtained an insight into intrigues which could not stand investigation, that Bolingbroke took alarm and a second time fled to France. Other motives, such as pecuniary embarrassments, may have contributed to force him to this step, and there can be little doubt that his reputation was of a nature seriously to damage any party with whom he united. He found that Pulteney was anxious to get rid of him, and felt with some bitterness that, like an old actor, he must retire from the political stage before being hissed off. After this second retreat he settled at Chanteloup, in Touraine, whence he paid two or three visits to England. Finally, in 1743, after the death of his father, he took up his residence at Battersea, and, finding the new statesmen little disposed to hearken even to his counsels, endeavoured to devote himself entirely to philosophy. He died at Battersea on the 12th December 1751.

Of Bolingbroke as an author but little can be said. The question asked a very few years after his death, "Who now reads Bolingbroke?" may be put with tenfold significance now. The influence of his writings on English literature has been quite inappreciable, and probably the works of few men of such ability have been so little read. Yet this neglect is in some respects undeserved. His writings may be regarded in two aspects,—as specimens of English prose, and as positive contributions to history, politics, and philosophy. In the latter aspect their worth is indeed small. His historical treatises, while containing much that is of interest and importance, are over-weighted by the constant reference to the peace of Utrecht, the defence of which is almost their sole object. It would be difficult to extract from the *Dissertation on Parties*, the *Idea of a Patriot King*, or the *Letters on Patriotism* anything like a consistent philosophy of government. No one has expounded better than Bolingbroke the fundamental principles of Whig policy, and yet his ideal of a king is a sovereign who, from various qualities, is able to retain

nearly absolute power, and to govern without the intervention of party spirit. In philosophy he occupies but a subordinate place in the long line of English writers who drew their inspiration from Locke, and who gave the key-note to the religious enlightenment of the 18th century. He is a deist, and from the basis of the sensational theory of knowledge attacks revealed religion with force quite inferior to Toland or Tindal. Bolingbroke's philosophical works are indeed insufferably wearisome, and it is only in them that his style ever flags and grows cumbersome, for his other writings are in many respects the perfection of English prose style, and can stand comparison even with the finished compositions of Addison. For ease, grace, and oratorical vehemence and energy, the *Letter to Sir Wm. Windham* and the dedication of the *Dissertation on Parties* are nearly unsurpassed. Bolingbroke clearly was at his best when roused by strong feeling, and his most vigorous passages are those which would naturally have been spoken. That none of his parliamentary orations have come down to us is matter of deepest regret, even though our estimate of them be lower than Pitt's.

Bolingbroke's works were published in 5 vols. 4to, by David Mallet, 1753-54. Later editions have generally prefixed to them the *Life* by Goldsmith, a compilation of little value. Two volumes of *Correspondence* were published by Parke in 1798. Materials for Bolingbroke's life are to be found in the Stuart papers, Marchmont papers, Coxe's *Life of Marlborough*, Swift's *Journal* and *History of the last Four Years of Queen Anne*, Somerville's *Queen Anne*, and Stanhope's *Reign of Queen Anne* and *History of England*, particularly vols. i. and ii. Some special information will be found in De Torcy's *Mémoires*, and Mignet's *Négociations relatives à la Succession d'Espagne*. See also G. W. Cooke, *Mémoires of Bolingbroke*, 2 vols., 1835; Rémusat, *Angleterre au XVIII<sup>e</sup> Siècle*, vol. i.; Macknight, *Life of Bolingbroke*, 1863. (R. AD.)

BOLIVAR, SIMON, the hero of South American independence, was born in the city of Caracas, Venezuela, on the 24th July 1783. His father was Juan Vicente Bolívar y Ponte, and his mother Maria Concepcion Palacios y Sojo, both descended of noble families in Venezuela. After acquiring the elements of a liberal education at home, Bolívar was sent to Europe to prosecute his studies, and with this view repaired to Madrid, where he appears to have resided for several years. Having completed his education, he spent some time in travelling, chiefly in the south of Europe, and visited the French capital, where he was an eye-witness of some of the last scenes of the Revolution. Returning to Madrid, he married, in 1801, the daughter of Don N. Toro, uncle of the marquis of Toro in Caracas, and embarked with her for America, intending, it is said, to devote himself to the improvement of his large estate. But this plan was frustrated by the premature death of his young wife, who fell a victim to yellow fever; and Bolívar again visited Europe, in order, by change of scene, to alleviate the sorrow occasioned by this bereavement.

On his return home in 1809 he passed through the United States, where, for the first time, he had an opportunity of observing the working of free institutions; and soon after his arrival in Venezuela he appears to have identified himself with the cause of independence which had already agitated the Spanish colonies for some years. Being one of the promoters of the movement at Caracas in April 1810, he received a colonel's commission from the revolutionary junta, and was associated with Luis Lopez Mendez in a mission to the court of Great Britain. Venezuela declared its independence of the mother country on July 5, 1811, and in the following year the war commenced in earnest by the advance of Monteverde with the Spanish troops. Bolívar was intrusted with the command of the important post of Puerto Cabello, but not being supported he had to evacuate the place; and owing to the inaction of Miranda the Spaniards recovered their hold over the country.

Like others of the revolutionists Bolívar took to flight.

did not conceal their conviction that a stronger and more permanent form of government was essential to the public welfare. The latter view seems to have prevailed. In virtue of a decree, dated Bogota, the 27th August 1828, Bolivar assumed the supreme power in Colombia, and continued to exercise it until his death, which took place at San Pedro, near Santa Martha, on the 17th December 1830.

In the career of this remarkable man, which was often embittered and was perhaps shortened by the suspicions and slanders of his colleagues in the work of liberation, certain circumstances, apparently well established, stand out, which deserve particular mention. He expended nine-tenths of a splendid patrimony in the service of his country; and although he had for a considerable period

unlimited control over the revenues of three countries,—Colombia, Peru, and Bolivia,—he died without a shilling of the public money in his possession. He conquered the independence of three states, and called forth a spirit in the southern portion of the New World which can never be extinguished. He purified the administration of justice; he encouraged the arts and sciences; he fostered national interests; and he induced other countries to recognize that independence which was in a great measure the fruit of his own exertions. Bolivar's remains were removed in 1842 to Caracas, where a monument was erected to his memory; and in 1858 the Peruvians followed the example by erecting an equestrian statue of the liberator in Lima.

## BOLIVIA

Plate XVII. **T**HIS name was given in honour of Bolivar (see last article) to a state in South America, formed in 1825 from the provinces of Upper Peru which formerly constituted part of the vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres. The bulk of the country extends from 10° to 23° S. lat., and from 58° to 71° W. long., and it is bounded on the N. by Peru and Brazil, on the E. by Brazil and Paraguay, on the S. by the Argentine Republic and Chili, and on the W. by the Pacific Ocean and Peru. The greater part of Bolivia is a mountainous and elevated country, more particularly at its western and central parts; but towards the east it becomes much less so, and at length terminates in extensive plains, which are bounded on the east by Brazil. From the Pacific coast the southern boundary of Bolivia runs along the 24th parallel of latitude (the limit decided by treaty with Chili in August 1866), to as far as the crest of the Andes; turning S. it follows the line of the mountains to 26° S. lat., in which parallel it crosses the plateau to the inner Cordillera, along which it lies N.N.E. to the 22d parallel. This line of latitude forms the boundary of territory which is certainly Bolivian, as far as the River Paraguay; but Bolivia, in common with the Argentine Republic and Paraguay, has claims on the unexplored territory of the Gran Chaco, which lies south of this line, and between the rivers Pilcomayo and Paraguay. From 22° on the River Paraguay, the frontier with Brazil was decided, by treaty of March 1867, to be a line following that river northward to the Bahia Negra in 20° 11', along the Negra to its termination, and thence through the midst of the lagoons of Caceres, Mandioré, Gaiba, and Uberaba (lying immediately west of the Paraguay River), to Corixa Grande; thence in a straight line to Boa Vista and the source of the Verde; down that river to the Guapore, and along the latter to where the Beni joins it in 10° 20' S.; thence in a straight line towards the source of the River Javary (in 7° S.). The present Government of Bolivia appears inclined, however, to repudiate this treaty, and to return to the older frontier, which included the tributaries of the Amazons as far as 6° 28' S. On the Peruvian or western frontier the boundary follows a more or less northerly direction from the mouth of the River Loa in Atacama, along the Cordillera, crossing Lake Titicaca, and passing north thence to the line running from the Beni to the Javary.

Before the formation of the republic, Bolivia, or the former province of Charcas, consisted of four great districts or "intendencias," which were under the rule of the viceroy of Rio de la Plata. These were—

1. Santa Cruz, formed of the districts of its bishopric—Mojos, Chiquitos, Santa Cruz, Valle Grande, Misque, and the special jurisdiction of its capital Cochabamba;
2. La Paz, consisting of the dioceses of its bishopric;

3. Potosi, comprising Tarija, Chichas, Lipez, Atacama, Porco, and Chayanta;

4. The province of La Plata, which embraced all remaining portions of the archbishopric.

At the present time the republic is divided politically into departments, provinces, and cantons. The departments, which are named La Paz de Ayacucho, Cochabamba, Potosi, Chuquisaca, Oruro, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Tarija, Beni, and Atacama, have each one or two capital towns; the provinces and cantons have also each its chief place. Each department has a governor, who stands in direct communication with the Government; the subdivisions have their corregidores and alcaldes, who are subject to the governor.

The westerly departments of La Paz, Oruro, and Potosi are situated in the highest regions of the plateau of Bolivia, and are more valuable on account of their mineral riches than for their vegetable products, of which a coarse grass is characteristic. The first consists of a series of high ranges and deep valleys, in which the climate and production vary with the elevation; the second lies also in the high table-land or Puna region; both are rich in veins of gold, silver, and tin, but the mining of these has not yet been fully developed. The third, Potosi, belongs entirely to the highest regions of Bolivia, and is bare and dry, with a cold and rude but healthy climate; this is the greatest mining region of the country.

The central departments of Cochabamba, Chuquisaca, and Tarija lie partly on the high plateau, partly on the lower slopes and plains eastward, and pass thus through the whole series of changing climates and zones of production, from the bare high land to the tropical regions of the low lands. The first is eminently the granary of Bolivia and southern Peru, excelling in the cultivation of wheat; the industries of woollen and cotton manufactures are also most highly developed in the department, but its mines are not worked. Chuquisaca, of which only a third part lies in the high land, is also a vegetable growing region, in which wheat, barley, rice, peas, vines, and all sorts of vegetables are cultivated; cattle and horses are also numerous. The forests of this department and of Tarija, which slope down to the wooded and pastoral plains of the tributaries of the Paraguay, afford many species of valuable timber.

The departments of Beni (or Veni) and Santa Cruz de la Sierra lie altogether in the low lands of the east, stretching to the Rio Maderia and the Paraguay. The former is as yet little explored, but is a land of tropical forests, rivers, and swamps, with an unhealthy climate. Santa Cruz is also characterized by a hot, damp atmosphere, but produces garden and field fruits in astonishing richness,—coffee, cocoa, vanilla, sugar-cane, maize, and cotton. The forests of both of these departments afford an infinity of valuable

timber trees, and in the latter there is much pasture land well fitted for cattle breeding.

The department of Atacama, which belongs geographically either to Peru or Chili, forms the only part of Bolivia which comes into contact with the ocean, and is situated between the Andes and the Pacific coast. It is almost entirely desert and sterile, has many volcanoes, and is characterized by rapid changes of temperature; it is almost destitute of population, and is only inhabited in those parts of the coast in which valuable guano deposits are found, or where the nitrate deposits and silver mines in the interior are worked. Near its northern limit is situated the small port of Cobija, the only avenue by which foreign articles of commerce can enter the Bolivian Republic without the payment of transit duties. It has obtained peculiar and valuable privileges as an encouragement to the introduction of merchandise by this route, in preference to the more convenient routes by the Puertos Intermedios, belonging to the Republic of Peru. But the arid nature of the surrounding country, and the great scarcity of water, must greatly retard its advancement, since not only are the inhabitants scantily supplied with this necessary of life, but the mules employed in transporting goods into the interior are exposed to great hardships.

Western Bolivia is the highest and most mountainous country of the two Americas. Five separate systems of mountains, curving from Peru in the north-west and passing south into Chili, may be distinguished as forming its high land. Nearest the Pacific is the range of the outlying *coast mountains*, which does not exceed 5000 feet in altitude. The range of the true *Andes* rises farther inland, forming part of the vast chain which extends along the whole of America; in Bolivia it attains an average height of 15,000 feet, and has a general width of 20 miles, having its highest known point here in the volcano of Sahama, 23,000 feet in elevation. Next follows the central system of the *Cordillera Real*, also named the eastern Cordillera, presenting a succession of sharp, rugged peaks, reaching up into the region of eternal ice and snow, higher generally than the Andes, but less massive: the peaks of Illimani (21,300 feet) and Sorata (24,800 feet) are its culminating points. Between the Andes and the Cordillera Real there are various *Serrania* or isolated groups of mountains, and single cerros of less altitude, rising from the enclosed plateau to 17,000 feet in some instances. The last system is that of the numerous minor Cordilleras, which run south-eastward from the Cordillera Real into the lowlands of eastern Bolivia, of which the most important is that of Cochabamba, stretching out to 62° 40' E. long. The elevation of the snow line in the highlands of Bolivia appears to vary between 16,000 and 18,000 feet, modified in many cases by the aspect of the mountains and the nature of the country surrounding them, being raised where heat is powerfully reflected from the surface of the bare high plains, or lowered where the mountains are exposed to cold southerly winds. Volcanoes are frequent in the Andes and coast ranges; those of Sahama and Isluga, with Tua, Olca, and Ollagua farther south, are constantly smoking.

These mountain systems divide Bolivia into a high region, containing many very elevated plains stretching between the enclosing heights of the west, and a low land forming the eastern side of the country, beneath the mountains, and at a comparatively small elevation above the sea. The high plains or basins of the plateau enclose a continental water system, from which there is no outlet to the ocean, the rivers terminating in lakes, of which Lake Titicaca is the chief, or in swamps, or in vast dried up salt fields,—rapid evaporation disposing of and balancing the supply of water flowing to these by the mountain streams.

The valley or plateau which is occupied by the Lake of Titicaca and the Rio Desaguadero forms the most ele-

vated table-land in the globe, with the exception of that of Thibet, which presents only mountain pastures, covered with sheep; while this table-land of the New World presents towns and populous cities, affords support to numerous herds of cattle, *llamas*, *guanacos*, and sheep, and is covered with harvests of maize, rye, barley, and wheat, at an elevation which has nothing to equal it in any other part of the world. The Lake of Titicaca or Chuquito, which occupies its northern extremity, is 12,600 feet above the level of the sea, and its extent is equal to fourteen times that of the Lake of Geneva, or 3220 square miles, the greatest depth being upwards of 700 feet. It is surrounded by numerous towns and villages, and a rich and fertile country, and contains several islands, the largest of which is called Titicaca, and was long held in great veneration by the Peruvian Indians, in consequence of its having been the place whence Manco Capac and his consort Manco Cello Huaco, the great founders of the empire of the Incas, issued, to spread civilization, industry, and good government among the surrounding nations. The Lake of Titicaca is very irregular in its form. It admits of extensive navigation for small vessels, though not unattended with danger, as it is subject to sudden storms and violent gusts of wind from the neighbouring mountains. This lake communicates with the smaller Lake of Pansa, or of the "Pampa Aullagas," situated at the southern extremity of the valley, by means of the Rio Desaguadero, which flows out of the Lake of Titicaca, and has a breadth of from 80 to 100 yards. This river and lake form part of the western boundaries between the Republics of Bolivia and Peru. Over the river was formed, in the time of the Incas, a suspension bridge, composed of cables and cords made of the grass and rushes which grow on its borders; and the work was constantly renewed from time to time, to obviate the effects of decay, as it constituted the only line of communication between the opposite sides of the valley. These lakes, with the Desaguadero, form the only receptacles for the water of those rivers and streams which descend from the surrounding mountains and enter this extensive plain, which has no visible outlet whereby its contents can escape otherwise than by evaporation.

Those rivers which take their rise from the western *Rivera*, declivity of the Andes, and flow into the Pacific, are so inconsiderable in magnitude, and so short in their course, as scarcely to merit observation, and are only useful in supplying the means of a partial irrigation to the arid plains which separate these mountains from the Pacific. But those numerous rivers taking their origin on the eastern declivity of the Cordillera Real, which is the main water-parting of Bolivia, present a very different aspect, and are of much greater importance, since they communicate with large navigable rivers, which terminate in the Atlantic Ocean.

The River Paro or Beni, which takes its origin in the neighbourhood of the city of La Paz, and the Guapey, which rises near Cochabamba, and, sweeping round the southern and eastern bases of the Cordillera of Cochabamba, unites itself to the Mamore, flow to the north-east to mingle with the waters of the Madeira and the mighty Marañon or Amazons; while the Pilcomayo, which rises near Potosi and Chuquisaca, and the Vermejo, from the valley of Tarija, bend their courses, at a considerable distance from each other, to the south-east, until they join the Paraguay, which terminates in the Rio de la Plata. Possessing only a small extent of sea-board, and that in a perfect desert difficult of passage, and behind which the lofty range of the Andes forms a huge barrier, the whole of the rich provinces of eastern Bolivia are land-locked and almost isolated from communication with the outer world. The most natural outlets of the country appear to be in the