

held office for a short time under Talleyrand. In 1815 he was specially excluded from Napoleon's amnesty and fled to Belgium. After the fall of the emperor he sat for some years in the Chamber of Representatives, but his official salary could not support his extravagance, and in 1828 he took refuge from his creditors in Belgium. There he occupied himself in drawing up the *Mémoires* of Napoleon, which were published in 1829 and 1830. The revolution of 1830 and the discomforts of his private life so preyed upon his mind that his reason became unhinged, and he had to be removed to an asylum near Caen, where he died in 1834. Bourrienne's *Mémoires*, 10 vols. 8vo, 1829-31, contain much interesting information regarding Napoleon, but while lively and entertaining, they are in many points to be received with caution. Some of the inaccuracies were pointed out by Boulay de la Meurthe in *Bourrienne et ses erreurs*, 2 vols. 1830.

BOURSAULT, EDMUND, a French dramatist and satirist, was born at Muci-Eveque, Burgundy, in 1638. On his first arrival in Paris in 1651 his power of language was limited to Burgundian patois, but he soon gained such reputation as an author, that Louis XIV. directed him to draw up a book for the education of the Dauphin. In compliance with this order Boursault produced his *Veritable étude des souverains*, which pleased so greatly the king that he offered to appoint the author tutor to his son, an office which Boursault's ignorance of Latin compelled him to decline. He obtained a considerable pension as editor of a rhyming gazette, which was, however, suppressed for ridiculing a capuchin, and Boursault was only saved from the Bastille by the influence of Condé. Two of his dramas, *Esope à la Fille* and *Esope à la Cour* were highly popular, and Corneille declared his tragedy *Germanicus* to be worthy of Racine. His best comedy was *Mercur Galant*, or *Comédie sans Titre*, as it was afterwards named. He accused Molière of impiety, and assailed *L'École des Femmes* in *Le Portrait du Peintre*. Molière retaliated by contemptuously referring to him in *L'Impromptu du Versailles*. His *Satyre des Satyres* was directed against Boileau, whom, however, he afterwards generously offered to assist. In return for this kindness Boileau erased Boursault's name from his satires. Boursault died at Montluçon, where he held the office of collector of taxes, September 15, 1701.

BOUSSA, a town of Africa, situated on an island in the Niger, in 10° 14' N. lat. and 6° 11' E. long. The population is estimated at about 12,000. See BORGU.

BOUTERWEK, FRIEDRICH, a German philosopher and historian of literature, was born in Lower Saxony in 1766. He was educated at Göttingen university, and seems to have contemplated joining the legal profession; but his literary inclinations proved too powerful, and he devoted himself entirely to works of poetry and romance. He published several poems, and a romance *Graf Donemar*. Towards 1790 he began to study with great eagerness the Kantian philosophy, and in 1791 delivered a series of lectures on that subject in Göttingen. He was dissatisfied with the Kantian system, regarding it as too formal, particularly in the department of ethics, and was soon attracted to the system of Jacobi, which appeared to give the element of real existence omitted by Kant. Bouterwek's most important work, *Idee einer allgemeinen Apodiktik*, 2 vols. 1799, is deserving of serious study, both as a critique of Kantianism, and as a substantial contribution to philosophy. In 1802 he was made professor of philosophy at Göttingen, and published several valuable works, among others *Ästhetik*, 1806; *Lehrbuch der phil. Wissenschaften*, 1813; and *Religion der Vernunft*, 1824. During his later years Bouterwek was entirely devoted to an extensive literary work. To him had been entrusted the section on poetry

and eloquence in the great German series of histories of the sciences from the Renaissance downwards. The first volume of the *Geschichte des neuern Poesie und Beredsamkeit* appeared in 1805, the twelfth and last in 1815. It is a work of great research, and has very substantial merits. It is, however, somewhat unequal, the portions on German and Spanish literature being superior to any of the rest. Part of the extended work has been translated into English as a *History of Spanish Literature*. Bouterwek died in 1828.

BOVALI, BOUALI, or BOALI, a town of Africa, capital of the kingdom of Loango, situated in 4° 30' S. lat. and 12° 1' E. long., on the right bank of a river of the same name not far from the coast. The vicinity is fertile but unhealthy. A large trade is carried on in pepper, dye-woods, ivory, and slaves. Population estimated at 15,000.

BOVES, a township of Italy, in the province of Cuneo in Piedmont, situated at the foot of the Alps, about 4 miles from the city of Cuneo. There are iron-mines and marble quarries in the neighbourhood. Population, 9549.

BOVINO (the ancient *Vebinnam* or *Vibonium*), a fortified town of Italy, province of Capitanata, 18 miles S.S.W. of Foggia. It is the seat of a bishopric and of a court of primary jurisdiction, and has a cathedral and several churches and convents. Here the Imperialists defeated the Spaniards in 1734. Population, 7088.

BOW, the weapon of the archer. See ARCHERY, vol. ii. p. 371, and ARMS AND ARMOUR, p. 553.

BOWDICH, THOMAS EDWARD, an English traveller, born at Bristol in 1790, was brought up by his father for commercial life, and in 1814 obtained an appointment on the western coast of Africa. Two years afterwards, on his return home, he was sent out by the African Company as their agent to the king of the Ashantees. In 1819 he published a quarto volume giving an account of that remarkable people. He then seems to have spent a considerable time at Paris in the study of the natural sciences. During his stay in Europe he edited several works on Africa, and published an excellent pamphlet on the British settlements on the western coast of Africa. He again visited Africa in 1822, with a firm resolution of devoting himself to the exploration of its interior; but he was attacked by fever on the Gambia, and died January 10 1824. His widow, who had accompanied him, edited several productions of his pen after his death.

BOWDITCH, NATHANIEL, a self-taught American mathematician, born in 1773, of humble parents, at Salem in Massachusetts. He was bred to his father's business as a cooper, and afterwards apprenticed to a ship-chandler. His taste for mathematics early developed itself; and he acquired Latin that he might study Newton's *Principia*. In 1795 he sailed as supercargo, in which capacity he made four long voyages; and, being an excellent navigator, he afterwards commanded a vessel, instructing his crews in taking lunar and other observations. He edited three editions of Hamilton Moore's *Navigation*, and in 1802 published a valuable work, *New American Practical Navigator*, founded on the earlier treatise by Moore. In 1804 he became actuary to a Boston insurance company; and in the midst of his active and useful career published a translation of the *Mécanique céleste* of Laplace, with annotations,—a work which will better prove the great acquirements of this self-taught philosopher than any laboured panegyric. He died at Boston in 1838. A life of Bowditch was written by his son in 1839, and is prefixed to the last volume, published posthumously, of the translation of Laplace.

BOWLES, CAROLINE ANNE. See SOUTHEY, CAROLINE. BOWLES, WILLIAM LISLE, poet and critic, was born at King's Sutton, of which his father was vicar, in 1762. At

the age of fourteen he was entered on the foundation at Winchester school, the head-master at the time being Dr Joseph Warton. In 1781 he left as captain of the school, and proceeded to Trinity College, Oxford, to a scholarship to which he had been elected. Two years later he gained the chancellor's prize for Latin verse, and soon after left the university, not taking his degree as master till 1792. In 1789 he published, in a small quarto volume, *Fourteen Sonnets*, which met with considerable favour at the time, were hailed with delight by Coleridge and his young contemporaries, and have since been recognized as the first notes of the modern revolt against the artificial school of poetry, the traditions of which had descended from Pope. The *Sonnets* even in form were a revival, a return to the older and purer poetic style, and by their grace of expression, melodious versification, tender tone of feeling, and vivid appreciation of the life and beauty of nature, stood out in strong contrast to the affected common-places which at that time formed the bulk of English poetry. A second edition of the little volume was called for in the same year in which it had appeared, and there have been many subsequent editions. A few short pieces were published in 1790 and 1792, which were also received with favour. After taking his degree at Oxford he entered the church, and was soon appointed to the vicarage of Chicklade in Wiltshire. In 1797 he received the vicarage of Dumbleton in Gloucestershire, and in 1804 was presented to the vicarage of Bremhill in Wiltshire. In the same year he was collated by Bishop Douglas to a prebendal stall in the cathedral of Salisbury. In 1818 he was made chaplain to the Prince Regent, and in 1828 he was elected residentiary canon of Salisbury. He died at Salisbury in April 1850, aged 88. Of the longer poems published by Bowles none attain a very high standard of excellence, though all are distinguished by purity of imagination, cultured and graceful diction, and great tenderness of feeling. The most extensive were *The Spirit of Discovery*, 1804, which was mercilessly ridiculed by Byron; *The Missionary of the Andes*, 1815; *The Grave of the Last Saxon*, 1822; and *St John in Patmos*, 1833. Bowles is perhaps more celebrated as a critic of poetry than as a poet. In 1807 he published an edition of Pope's works with notes and an essay on the poetical character of Pope. In this essay he laid down certain canons as to poetic imagery which, with slight modification, have been since recognized as true and valuable, but which were received at the time with strong opposition by all admirers of Pope and his style. The "Pope and Bowles" controversy brought into sharp contrast the opposing views of poetry, which may be roughly described as the natural and the artificial. Bowles maintained that images drawn from nature are poetically finer than those drawn from art; and that in the highest kinds of poetry the themes or passions handled should be of the general or elemental kind, and not the transient manners of any society. These positions were vigorously assailed by Byron, Campbell, Roscoe, and others of less note, while for a time Bowles was almost solitary. Hazlitt and the Blackwood critics, however, came to his assistance, and on the whole Bowles had reason to congratulate himself on having once for all established certain principles which might serve as the basis of a true method of poetical criticism, and of having inaugurated, both by precept and by example, a new era in English poetry. Among other prose works from his prolific pen was a *Life of Bishop Ken*, 2 vols., 1830-31.

BOWLS, one of the oldest and most popular of English pastimes, the origin of which can be traced back to the 12th century. William Fitzstephens, in his *Survey of London*, written during the last quarter of that century, states that in the summer holidays youths took exercise amongst other pastimes in *jactu lapidum*, "in throwing of stones."

This might be taken as referring to throwing stones by slings or other artificial means, were it not that the next pastime mentioned is "slinging of missiles to be delivered beyond a certain mark (*amentatis missilibus ultra metam expediendis*)." Fitzstephens was both an accurate observer and a careful writer, and he clearly alludes to two distinct exercises. In early days stone spheres are known to have been used for bowling, and the like thing and name were in vogue for the next two centuries, in fact till 11 Henry IV. (1409). There is little doubt, therefore, that Fitzstephens here refers to bowls. It has been a matter of speculation whether bowling was first practised in the open air on turf or under cover in alleys, and Fitzstephens may help to decide the question. He states that the citizens went outside the city walls into the suburbs to witness these games, but the alleys were within the walls and in the midst of the population. Again, these alleys were always held up as scenes of vice and debauchery, and it is certain that had they existed at this date they would have been included in the resorts forbidden to the clergy by the constitutions of Walter de Cantilupe, bishop of Worcester, 24 Henry III. (1240). In the Close Roll, 39 Ed. III. (1366) mem. 23, *jactus lapidum*, "throwing of stones," is mentioned as one of the *ludos inhonestos et minus utiles aut valentes*, "games alike dishonourable, useless, and unprofitable." But then there was a reason for this depreciation. The king was concerned lest the practice of archery, so much more important to the military spirit of the kingdom, should suffer, and the same reason prompted the action of Parliament. By 12 Rich. II. cap. 6 (1388), servants, artificers, and labourers were forbidden—amongst other games to play at *gettre de peer*, or "casting of the stone," as the practice of archery was becoming lax. This statute was confirmed by 11 Henry IV. cap. 4. (1409-10), wherein "*gettre de peer*" is again forbidden. From 17 Ed. IV. cap. 3 (1477-8) it appears that bowling still remained in disrepute; for "half-bowl" is included among the "many new imagined plays" which were followed by all classes "to their own impoverishment, and by their ungracious procurement and encouraging do induce other into such plays till they be utterly undone and impoverished of their goods." Even murders, robberies, and felonies were the consequence. Accordingly, it was enacted that any one playing at half-bowl after the following Easter, or the occupier or governor of any "house, tenement, garden, or other place," where such games are permitted, should be punished by fines and imprisonment. Here it is probable that both the outdoor and indoor games are referred to, as "house" and "garden" are mentioned, and it may be concluded that by this time alleys had sprung into existence in towns. This then may be considered the first mention of the game as practised under cover, though it is equally clear that alleys had not entirely superseded greens.

By 3 Henry VIII. cap. 3 (1511-12) the previous statutes against unlawful games were confirmed; the word "bowls" for the first time occurs, and the game is deemed an illegal pursuit. Owing, however, to the impossibility of following the outdoor game except during the summer, and the absorption of playing fields for building purposes, public alleys continued to flourish, as they were again the cause of legislation in 27 Henry VIII. cap. 25 (1535-6), whilst 33 Henry VIII. cap. 9 (1541-2) was very severe indeed on them. They were distinctly mentioned by name, and it was enacted that no one "by himself, factor, deputy, servant, or other person, shall, for his or their gain, lucre, or living, keep, have, hold, occupy, exercise, or maintain any common house, alley, or place of bowling;" and magistrates might search suspected tenements and make arrests. Oddly enough, however, no

punishment was to be inflicted, except binding offenders over by their own recognizances, and making them find sureties not to break the law again. Artificers, servants, and the like, might play during Christmas time in their masters' houses and presence, but no one could at any time "play at any bowle or bowles in open place out of his garden or orchard," whilst a licence might be granted to any one worth over £100 per annum to play privately in his own domain, but not to keep any common or open place of play. By 2 and 3 Mary, cap. 9 (1555), these licences were cancelled, evidently for religious and political reasons, as they were considered excuses for "unlawful assemblies, conventicles, seditions, and conspiracies." The evil still continued and remained irrepressible. Stephen Gosson, in his *School of Abuse* (1579), says—

"Common bowling alleys are privy moths that eat up the credit of many idle citizens; whose gains at home are not able to weigh down their losses abroad; whose shops are so far from maintaining their play, that their wives and children cry out for bread, and go to bed supperless often in the year."

Again, twenty years later, Stow, in his *Survey of London*, states—

"What should I speak of the ancient daily exercises in the long bow by citizens of this city, now almost clean left off and forsaken? I overpass it; for by the means of closing in the common grounds, our archers, for want of room to shoot abroad, creep into bowling alleys and ordinary dining houses nearer home, where they have room enough to hazard their money at unlawful games. And there I leave them to take their pleasure."

Stow also mentions in another place that the gardens of old Northumberland House, in Coleman Street, City,

"were made into bowling alleys, and other parts into dining houses, common to all comers for their money, there to bowl and hazard; but now, of late, so many bowling alleys and other houses for unlawful gaming have been raised in other parts of the city and suburbs, that this, their ancient and only patron of misrule, is left and forsaken of her gamesters." Again, Goswell Street is described as "replenished with small tenements, cottages, alleys, gardens, banqueting houses, and bowling places."

The law, doubtless, was transgressed with impunity until the beginning of the 18th century, when power was given by 2 George II. cap. 28, § 9 (1728), and confirmed by 18 George II. cap. 34 (1745), to commit offenders to prison. From this date alleys were rigorously suppressed, whilst greens began to increase rapidly; and, during the 18th century, no country gentleman's mansion was considered complete without one. There is evidence that it was a royal game, since Stow states that bowling alleys were amongst the additions made by Henry VIII. to Whitehall, and the unfortunate Charles I. was an enthusiast of the open-air pastime. During his confinement at Holmby, Northamptonshire, he frequently went over to Lord Vaux's at Harrowden, and Earl Spencer's at Althorpe, both of which seats possessed unrivalled bowling greens. He is said to have been engaged at the game when seized by Cornet Joyce. After the suppression of alleys "long bowling," or "Dutch rubbers," was practised for a short time. It consisted of bowling at nine pins, placed on a square frame 30 yards distant, but does not appear ever to have found much favour in England. The first regular bowling club of which there exists any trace is the Willowbank Club founded in Glasgow at the commencement of the 19th century. The game is now chiefly practised in the northern counties of England and in Scotland. In the present era of violent athletic exercises its principal votaries are middle-aged and elderly persons, to whom it affords a pleasant and not too vehement exercise during summer evenings.

For the outdoor pastime the first requisite is a smooth and level plot of turf, well mown, watered, rolled, and kept in order,—hence the comparison, "as smooth as a bowling green." The earliest delineation extant of the game shows two players with a ball each, but no jack or

mark to bowl at. It is presumed from this that the first cast his bowl to constitute a mark for the second to play at and knock from its position. Probably it was soon found expedient to introduce some definite mark, and in a 13th century MS., marked 20 Ed. IV., in the Royal Library, there is a picture of a game of bowls being played with a small cone erected at each end. Here the principle was evidently the same as at present, viz., to see who could cast his bowl nearest the mark. The modern green may be laid out on any suitable piece of smooth and level turf. The dimensions vary, according to the ground available, but from 90 to 150 feet in length, with a proportionate width, is found most suitable. The bowls are made of *lignum vite*; and, instead of being perfect spheres, are more or less oval with a bias. Formerly bias was accorded them by loading one side with lead, but now the more simple method of turning one-half of the oval smaller or leaner than the other half is universally adopted. The chief difficulty of the game consists in each player's mastering the bias of his own particular bowl. The "jack" or mark to be bowled at consists of a white ball of smaller size, which has superseded the old-fashioned cones. "Pegs" are a length of cord, with one end firmly attached to a bone or wooden peg, and the other passing through a hole in a similar peg. They are used for measuring which of two bowls is nearest the jack; and, if the distance be under a yard, the "standard"—consisting of a light straw or reed—may be called into requisition. A "rub" or "set" is when a jack or bowl, *in transitu*, comes in contact with any object on the green. The "footer" is the small piece of material—cocoa-nut matting is the best—whereon each player stands in delivering his ball. "Cast," or "point," is the term for each unit in scoring the game, which is "up" or won when the number of casts agreed on have been obtained by the winning side. A "dead bowl" is one knocked off the green, or against one lying in the ditch, or an illegally played bowl, and must at once be removed from the green. Should the boundary of the green consist of fencing, touching the fence constitutes a dead bowl. "Mark," or "set a mark," means the delivery of the jack at the commencement of a game. The jack must be bowled at least 63 feet from the footer and not over 3 feet from the edge of the green. The bowling generally takes place alternately from the two "ends" of the green. A "void end" is when neither side can score a cast. "Turning the jack" is when a player claims the game to be finished as the bowls then lie, and can only occur when one side has but a single bowl to deliver, all the opposite side's bowls having been cast. For the rules of the outdoor game as now played, reference may be made to Mitchell's *Manual of Bowl-playing*, Glasgow, 1865.

In France, according to Cotgrave, there formerly existed a game termed *carreau*, somewhat similar to bowls, the jack or mark being set up on a square stone at the end of an alley.

In the United States of America a game of bowls, termed "Ten Pins," is very popular. It is strictly an indoor game, played in alleys 60 feet by 4 feet. Ten wooden pins are set up at the further end of the alley, in the shape of an equilateral triangle with the apex (termed the "king pin") towards the players. The object is to knock down the greatest number of pins with the fewest balls. These are made of *lignum vite*, unlimited in size or weight, but perfect spheres, instead of being biased. A game consists of ten "rolls" of three balls each (if necessary), or thirty in all. The score is kept on a large vertical slate with ten divisions, corresponding to the ten rolls, for each player. The chief point is to try and hit the king pin at the apex of the triangle, as this affords the best chance of knocking down all the pins. Should a player succeed in doing so with the *first* ball of a roll he

gains a "double spare," his bowling is over for that roll, and he is entitled to add whatever number of pins he knocks down with the first *two* balls of the next roll to the ten already down. Should he gain another double spare with the first ball of the succeeding roll he has to wait for the first ball of a third roll before the total score for the first roll can be ascertained, and so on in succession. Accordingly, should a player obtain a double spare in each roll—or ten in all—his total reaches 300, the highest attainable. If a double spare be scored with the first ball of the tenth roll, the player is entitled to bowl his two remaining balls at once as he has no further rolls to play. Should he knock down all the pins with the first *two* balls of a roll, he gains a "single spare," his bowling is over for that roll, and he is in a similar manner entitled to add whatever number of pins he knocks down with the *first* ball of the next roll to the ten already down. The technical name for this method of scoring is "counting old and new." There are a few ten-pin alleys in London and the suburbs, but the pastime is not much practised in England. The rules will be found in *The Modern Pocket Hoyle*, New York.

(H. F. W.)

BOWRING, SIR JOHN, an eminent English linguist, translator, political economist, and miscellaneous writer, was born at Exeter, October 17, 1792. He was a descendant of an old Puritan family; and he became in early life an ardent disciple in the school of utilitarianism and philosophical radicalism, whose prophet was Jeremy Bentham. He did not, however, share his master's contempt for poetry and the belles lettres, but was a diligent student of literature and foreign languages, especially those of Eastern Europe. His attainments as a linguist were of remarkable extent. He stated that he knew two hundred languages and could speak one hundred. This, of course, does not mean more than that he had some slight acquaintance with them; but it is certain that he had a pretty good knowledge of forty, and these were languages of various classes. This gives him a place, with Mezzofanti and Von Gabelentz, among the greatest linguists of the world. The first fruits of his study of foreign literature appeared in *Specimens of the Russian Poets*, published in two volumes in 1821-23. These were speedily followed by *Batavian Anthology* (1824), *Ancient Poetry and Romances of Spain* (1824), *Specimens of the Polish Poets*, and *Servian Popular Poetry*, both in 1827. During this period he began to contribute to the newly-founded *Westminster Review*, of which he was appointed editor in 1825. By his contributions to the *Review* he obtained considerable reputation as political economist and parliamentary reformer. He advocated in its pages the cause of free trade long before it was popularized by the eloquence of Richard Cobden and John Bright. He pleaded earnestly in behalf of parliamentary reform, Catholic emancipation, and popular education. In 1828 he visited Holland, and during his stay there the university of Groningen conferred on him the degree of doctor of laws. In the following year he was in Denmark, occupying himself with preparations for the publication of a collection of Scandinavian poetry. Bowring, who had been the trusted friend of Bentham during his life, was appointed his literary executor, and was charged with the task of preparing a collected edition of his works. This appeared in eleven volumes in the years 1838 and 1839. Meanwhile Bowring had entered Parliament in 1835 as member for Kilmarnock; and in the following year he was appointed head of a Government commission to be sent to France to inquire into the actual state of commerce between the two countries. He was engaged in similar investigations in Switzerland, Italy, Syria, and some of the German States. The results of these missions appeared in a series of reports laid before

the House of Commons. After a retirement of four years he sat in Parliament from 1841 till 1849 as member for Bolton. During this busy period he found leisure for literature, and published in 1843 a translation of the *Manuscript of the Queen's Court*, a collection of old Bohemian lyrics, &c. In 1849 he was appointed British consul at Hong-Kong, and superintendent of trade in China, a post which he held for four years. After his return he distinguished himself as an advocate of the decimal system, and published a work entitled, *The Decimal System in Numbers, Coins, and Accounts* (1854). The introduction of the florin as a preparatory step was chiefly due to his efforts. Knighted in 1854, he was again sent the same year to Hong-kong as governor, invested with the supreme military and naval power. It was during his governorship that a dispute broke out with the Chinese; and the irritation caused by his "spirited" or high-handed policy led to the second war with China. In 1855 he visited Siam, and negotiated with the king a treaty of commerce. After the usual five years of service he retired and received a pension. His last employment by the English Government was as a commissioner to Italy in 1861, to report on our commercial relations with the new kingdom. Sir John Bowring subsequently accepted the appointment of minister plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary from the Hawaiian Government to the courts of Europe, and in this capacity negotiated treaties with Belgium, Holland, Italy, Spain, and Switzerland. In addition to the works already named he published—*Poetry of the Magyars* (1830); *Cheslovak Anthology* (1832); *The Kingdom and People of Siam* (1859); a translation of *Peter Schlemihl*; translations from the Hungarian poet, Alexander Petöfi (1866); and various pamphlets. He was elected F.R.S. and F.R.G.S., and received the decorations of several foreign orders of knighthood. Bowring was twice married; his second wife survived him, with several sons, who have attained distinction in various fields. He died at Claremont, near Exeter, November 23, 1872.

BOXWOOD, the wood obtained from the Euphorbiaceous genus *Buxus*, the principal species being the well-known tree or shrub, *B. sempervirens*, the common box, in general use for borders of garden walks, ornamental parterres, &c. The other source of the ordinary boxwood of commerce is *B. balearica*, which yields the variety known as Turkey boxwood. The common box is grown throughout Great Britain, in the southern part of the European continent generally, and it appears to extend through Persia into India, where it is found growing on the slopes of the Western Himalayas. Only a very small proportion of the wood suitable for industrial uses is now obtained in Great Britain. The box is a very slow growing plant, adding not more than 1½ or 2 inches to its diameter in twenty years, and on an average attaining only a height of 16 feet, with a mean diameter of 10½ inches. The leaves of this species are small, oval, leathery in texture, and of a deep glossy green colour. *B. balearica* is a tree of considerable size, attaining to a height of 80 feet, with leaves three times larger than those of the common box. It is a native of the islands of the Mediterranean, and grows in Turkey, Asia Minor, and around the shores of the Black Sea, and is supposed to be the chief source of the boxwood which comes into European commerce by way of Constantinople. The wood of both species possesses a delicate yellow colour; it is very dense in structure and has a fine uniform grain, which gives it unique value for the purposes of the wood-engraver. In addition to the ever-increasing demand for the wood by engravers, a very large amount is used in the manufacture of measuring rules, various mathematical instruments, flutes and other musical instruments, as well as for turning into many minor articles, and for inlaying.