families from entering the profession. Such is the want of priests that the Government finds itself obliged to send to Italy for them. Among educated classes the spirit of materialism of the French writers of the 18th century made great progress, but a considerable reaction has lately taken place. The lower classes, above all in the interior, are still deplorably superstitious.

In several of the provinces contentions have arisen of late years between the church and freemasonry, and the excommunication of the members of the craft and the closing of the churches to which they belonged have awakened religious discussions and agitations. The Jesuit priests were expelled from the province of Pernambuco in 1875, and the bishop of that diocese, tried before the law tribunal, was condemned to fine and imprisonment.

Brazil is not specially a manufacturing country, and its national industries of mining (with smelting of the metals), collecting and polishing precious stones, and salt making, already referred to, with tanning and hide working, have the widest range. The state has, however, encouraged and in some cases subsidized special manufactures which were of value in developing the resources of the country. Among these seventeen foundries, manufacturing engines and agricultural implements, have supplied a great national want. The home hat factories of Brazil have now all but superseded the imported hats by their products. In almost every city there are manufactories of soap, oil, and candles, which are made, not only of stearine and tallow, but of wax, and in the north from the valuable Carnauba palm. Rum distilling is largely carried on in the sugar districts, and cigars are extensively made, especially at Bahia. Gold and silver smiths and jewel workers are foremost among the delicate handicraftsmen, and excel in their workmanship.

There are now two cotton-cloth factories in Rio, five in Bahia, two in Minas, and several in S. Paulo, and this branch of industry is extending.

Ship-building. Ship-building is diligently prosecuted in many of the ports, and Rio has launched several fine iron-clad vessels from the navy yard. A law passed in 1871 enabled Government to subsidize companies for the construction of more commodious docks, and these have been begun in Rio, Bahia, and Maranhão, at Santos in S. Paulo, and at Paranaguá in Paraná.

Fisheries. Whale-fishery is carried on to some small extent from the ports of Bahia and Sta. Catharina. The fine coastal fisheries are not yet taken advantage of to nearly their full power; on the other hand, large quantities of dried cod-fish are imported. On the upper Amazon and its tributaries a considerable quantity of oil is collected from the eggs of the turtle, and is sent down in earthen pots containing 50 to 60 lb weight each.

Jerked beef, an important article of general consumption, is chiefly prepared in the "Charqueadas" of Rio Grande do Sul.

The coastal and fluvial communications of the empire are maintained by eighteen lines of steam-vessels, which receive an annual subsidy from the state (amounting to £150,000 in 1875). A North American company, keeping up a regular traffic between the ports of Brazil and the United States, is also aided by Government. Besides these the ocean lines of large vessels from Britain, Germany, and France, touch regularly at the chief points in passing to the La Plata. Almost all the navigable rivers of Brazil have now their regular steam packets. The Amazon has been navigated by steam for nearly twenty years; and since the passing of the decree of September 1867, by which its waters were opened to the trading ships of all nations, direct commerce from foreign countries with the interior ports on its banks has begun to be developed.

Within recent times the construction of railroads has been progressing very rapidly under the Government and in private hands. In 1867 there were but six short lines working; in 1873 there were fifteen distinct railways. Three main trunk lines are being actively extended by the state: the first called the Dom Pedro II. line, passing from Rio de Janeiro to Minas Geraes, is being extended thence to the head of the navigation of the São Francisco, and is planned to reach the valley of the Tocantins and Pará; the second trunk line is designed to unite the navigation of the Amazon with that of the Paraguay, through the head of the valley of the Tocantins and Araguaya; the third line, already partly executed, beginning at Rio will pass through the capitals of S. Paulo and Paraná to Porto Alegre in Rio Grande do Sul. Many other lines have been begun or are projected under the superintendence of the provincial assemblies. The ordinary roads are in an exceedingly backward condition throughout the empire, and those which are more than rude tracks are of very small extent. A fine macadamized road, however, called the "Union and Industry," joins the capital with Minas Geraes, and others extend for short distances from the chief towns. There are also a few canals. It is but seventeen years since the first small line of telegraph was stretched in Brazil within the capital, but now a double line unites the maritime towns from Pernambuco to Rio Grande do Sul. Many other lines are being constructed, and in June 1874 submarine telegraphic cable was completed from Europe to the Brazilian ports.

The commerce of Brazil, despite the disadvantages against which it has had at various times to contend, has been on the whole uniformly progressive. These disadvantages consisted chiefly in the restrictions originally imposed on the young colony by the jealousy of the mother country, which refused to admit the Brazilian products except at certain stated seasons of the year. The exportation of native productions to the Old World was limited to the ports of Rio, Bahia, Olinda, and Paraïba. These restrictions continued in force long after analogous measures had been exploded in the commercial systems of other countries, and were not repealed till the beginning of the present century. In 1810, all the ports of Brazil were thrown open to British goods on the payment of duty at the rate of 15 per cent., and though this rate has been greatly increased by the tariff of 1844, the average annual value of manufactured goods imported into Brazil from Great Britain alone, chiefly cotton, iron, woollen, and linen goods, amounts to nearly £4,500,000.

The value of the imports and exports of Brazil in 1808 was estimated at £2260; it has gradually increased, with little fluctuation, till at the present time the annual value of trade is not less than £40,000,000. The trade of the empire is mainly with Great Britain (which sends more than a third of the imports, and receives a great share of the exports), France, the United States, Portugal, Germany, the Argentine Republic, and Belgium. In the order of their value the chief exports are coffee, hides, sugar, cotton, india-rubber, tobacco, yerba-mate, diamonds, and rum. Since 1853 the value of the exports from the country has in most years been somewhat in excess of that of the imports. The whole number of ships entering and leaving the Brazilian ports in recent years averages about 30,000.

See *Brazil and the Brazilians*, Rev. D. P. Kidder and J. C. Fletcher, 1857; *The Naturalist on the River Amazons*, H. W. Bates, 1863; *Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro*, Alfred R. Wallace, 1853; *The Amazon and Madeira*, translated by Church, Keller, 1874; *Explorations of the Highlands of Brazil*, Capt. R. F. Burton, 1869; *Journey in Brazil*, Professor Louis Agassiz, 1868; *Scientific Results of a Journey in Brazil by Professor Louis Agassiz*, by Professor C. F. Hartt, 1870; *Climat, géologie, faune, et géographie botanique du Brésil*, Emmanuel Liais, 1872; *Notions on the Chorography of Brazil*, J. Manoel de Macedo, translated by Le Sage, 1873; *The Empire of Brazil at the Vienna Exhibition*, Rio de Janeiro, 1873; *The coast of Brazil, and trade of its ports*, Lieut.-Commr. H. H. Gorringe, Washington, 1873; *Atlas do Imperio do Brazil*, por Candido Mendes de Almeida, Rio de Janeiro, 1868. (K. J.)

BRAZIL, Island of, and other imaginary islands in the Atlantic. For a long time before the discovery of America, the fancies of navigators or of cosmographers had scattered over the Atlantic a number of islands, either wholly imaginary, or so detached from the germ of truth which had suggested their existence as to represent no fact in nature. Several such islands are described in the Arabic geography of Edrisi (1153–54 A.D.), and if, passing over more than four hundred years, we take up an atlas of Münster or Mercator we shall find that the northern Atlantic, instead of presenting a vast blank as in our most recent charts, is almost as full of islands and shoals as the heaven is of stars. To our present category belongs the island of St Brandon, the supposed discovery of an Irish eremite of the 6th century, of whose voyage many wonders are related. Such also were *Antilia* and the *Island of the Seven Cities*, connected with another legend of uncertain date, which described this as the refuge of a body of Christians, who, in flight from the Saracen conquerors of the Peninsula, had, under the guidance of their seven bishops, committed themselves to the wide ocean; such were *Mayda* or *Asmaide*, the *Isla Verde*, or Green Isle (which the natives of the Hebrides still think they see beneath the western sun), but none more famous and recurrent than the *Isle of Brazil*. The name of this island connects itself with the red dye-woods known by that name in the Middle Ages, a name that possibly also may have been applied to other vegetable dyes, and so may descend from the *Insulæ Purpurariæ* of Pliny. Its first appearance on a map appears to be (*I. de Brazi*) in the Venetian portulano of Andrea di Bianco (1436), where it is found attached to one of the larger islands of the Azores. When this group became better known and was colonized, the island in question got the name of Terceira. And the conservative spirit of map-makers then sought a new position for that Island of Brazil which they found in the charts of their predecessors, and this island grew in (imaginary) importance and size. In time, better knowledge of the Atlantic showed that these must be exaggerated, but belief in the island's existence endured.

The conservative spirit just referred to has indeed preserved in some shape most of the names mentioned above. The name of the *Seven Cities* survives as applied to a volcanic district of the Island of St Michael's (Azores). *Antilia* and *St Brandon's Isle* were conspicuous on the maps which were probably in the hands of Columbus on his first western voyage. The latter name has disappeared indeed, but the former survives in a plural form, as applied to the West Indies (*Antilles*). So also it is probable that the familiar existence of "Brazil" as a geographical name led to its bestowal upon the vast continental region of South America, which was found to supply dye-woods kindred to those which the name properly denoted. The older memory, however, survived also, and the *Island* of Brazil retained its place in mid-ocean, some hundred miles to the west of Ireland, both in the traditions of the forecastle and in charts. In Purday's *General Chart of the Atlantic*, "corrected to 1830," we find the *Mayda* indeed noted as "very doubtful," but "*Isle Verte or Green Rock*" (41° 48′ N. lat., and 26°10′ W. long.) with the remark, "Existence lately confirmed;" and "*Brazil Rock* (high)," with no indication of doubt, in 51° 10′ N. lat., 15° 50′ W. long. In a chart of currents by the late Mr Findlay, dated 1853, these names appear again. But in his 12th edition of Purday's *Memoir Descriptive and Explanatory of the N. Atlantic Ocean* (1865), the existence of these islands is briefly discussed and rejected by Mr Findlay, with the intimation that their names would be entirely omitted in future editions.

Thus the official sepulture of the old tradition of the island of Brazil took place only eleven years before the date of this article (1876). And now the surface of the Atlantic, as represented in the latest Admiralty charts, shows between St Kilda and Bermuda, between Newfoundland and the Azores, but one point rising above the water, viz., the sugar loaf of *Rockall*, in 57° 35′ 52″ N. lat., 13° 42′ 21″ W. long. (H. Y.)

BRAZIL NUTS are the seeds of *Bertholletia excelsa* (*B. nobilis* of Miers), a gigantic tree belonging to the natural order *Lecythidaceæ*, which grows in the valleys of the Amazons and generally throughout tropical America. The tree attains an average height of 130 feet, having a smooth cylindrical trunk, with a diameter of 14 feet 50 feet from the ground, and branching at a height of about 100 feet. The lower portion of the trunk presents a buttressed aspect, owing to the upward extension of the roots in the form of thin prop-like walls surrounding the stem. The fruit of the tree is globular, with a diameter of 5 or 6 inches, and consists of a thick hard woody shell, within which are closely packed the seeds which constitute the so-called nuts of commerce. The seeds are triangular in form, having a hard woody testa enclosing the "kernel;" and of these each fruit contains from eighteen to twenty-five. The fruits as they ripen fall from their lofty position, and they are at the proper season annually collected and broken open by the Indians. From Para alone it is estimated that upwards of two and a half millions of fruits, equal to fifty millions of "nuts," are exported annually, in addition to the large quantities which leave other Brazilian harbours, and Demerara, Cayenne, &c. Brazil nuts are largely eaten; they also yield in the proportion of about 9 oz. to each pound of kernels a fine bland fluid oil, highly valued for use in cookery, and used by watchmakers and artists.

BRAZIL WOOD is one of several dye woods of commerce which come from the West Indies and South America, belonging to the genera *Cæsalpinia* and *Peltophorum* of the natural order *Leguminosæ*. The species to which the various woods belong have not been well determined, but commercially they are distinguished as Brazil wood, Nicaragua or Peach wood, Pernambuco wood, and Lima wood, each of which has a different commercial value, although the tinctorial principle they yield is similar. Commercial Brazil wood is imported for the use of dyers in billets of large size, and is a dense compact wood of a reddish brown colour, rather bright when freshly cut, but becoming dull on exposure. The colouring-matter of Brazil wood is freely soluble in water, and it is extracted for use by simple infusion or decoction of the coarsely-powdered wood. When freshly prepared the extract is of a yellowish tint: but by contact with the air, or the addition of an alkaline solution, it develops a brick red colour. A chemical principle, termed brazilin, has been isolated from Brazil wood. It crystallizes into hexagonal amber yellow crystals, which are soluble in water and alcohol. The solution when free of oxygen is colourless, but on the access of air it assumes first a yellow and thereafter a reddish yellow colour. With soda-ley it takes a brilliant deep carmine tint, which colour may be discharged by heating in a closed vessel with zinc dust, in which condition the solution is excessively sensitive to oxygen, the slightest exposure to air immediately giving a deep carmine. With tin mordants Brazil wood gives brilliant but fugitive steam reds in calico-printing; but on account of the loose nature of its dyes it is seldom used except as an adjunct to other colours. It is used to form lakes which are employed in tinting papers, staining paper-hangings, and for various other decorative purposes.

BRAZZA, the ancient *Brattia*, an island in the Adriatic, off the coast of Dalmatia, in the circle of Spalatro, and eight miles from that city. It has an area of 170 square miles, and a population of 15,500. The surface is rugged and mountainous, but is industriously cultivated, and its wine is accounted the best in Dalmatia. It produces also oil, figs, almonds, and saffron; but the corn crop scarcely supplies the wants of the inhabitants for three months. There are about twelve or thirteen hamlets in the island, the most important being San Pietro, Neresi, Bol, and Milnä.

BREAD. See Baking, vol. iii. p. 250.

BREAD-FRUIT. This most important food staple of the tropical islands in the Pacific Ocean is the fruit of

Artocarpus incisa (nat. ord. *Artocarpaceæ*). The tree attains a moderate height, has very large, acutely lobed, glossy leaves, the male flowers in spikes, and the female flowers in a dense head, which by consolidation of their fleshy carpels and receptacles form the fruit. The fruit is globular in shape, about the size of a melon, with a tuberculated or (in some varieties) nearly smooth surface. Many varieties of the tree are cultivated, the fruits of some ripening numerous seeds, which are eaten as chestnuts; but in the best kinds the seeds are aborted, and it is only these that are highly prized as vegetables. The tree is a native of the South Sea Islands, where its fruit occupies the important position that is held by cereals in temperate latitudes. The fruit, which on distinct varieties ripens at different periods, affording a nearly constant supply throughout the year, is gathered for use just before it ripens, when it is found to be gorged with starchy matter, to which its esculent value is due. It may be cooked and prepared for use in a great variety of ways, the common practice in the South Sea Islands being to bake it entire in hot embers, and scoop out the interior, which when properly cooked should have a soft smooth consistence, fibrous only towards the heart, with a taste which has been compared to that of boiled potatoes and sweet milk. Of this fruit Mr A. R. Wallace, in his *Malay Archipelago*, says,—"With meat and gravy it is a vegetable superior to anything I know either in temperate or tropical countries. With sugar, milk, butter, or treacle it is a delicious pudding, having a very slight and delicate but characteristic flavour, which, like that of good bread and potatoes, one never gets tired of." In the Pacific Islands the fruit is preserved for use by storing in pits, where the fruits ferment and resolve themselves into a mass similar in consistency to new cheese, in which state they emit an offensive odour; but after baking under hot stones they yield a pleasant and nutritious food. Another and more common method of preserving the fruit for use consists in cutting it into thin slices, which are dried in the sun. From such dried slices a flour may be prepared which is useful for the preparation of puddings, bread, and biscuits, or the slices may be baked and eaten without grinding. The tree yields other products of economic value, such as native cloth from the fibrous inner bark of young trees; the wood is used for canoes and articles of furniture; and a kind of glue and caulking material are obtained from the viscid milky juice which exudes from incisions made in the stem.

The bread-fruit is now found throughout the tropical regions of both hemispheres, and its first introduction into the West Indies is connected with the famous mutiny of the "Bounty," and the remarkable history of a small company of the mutineers at Pitcairn Island. Attention was directed to the fruit in 1688 by Captain Dampier, and later by Captain Cook, who recommended its transplantation to the West Indian colonies. In 1787 the "Bounty" was fitted out under command of Lieutenant Bligh to proceed to Tahiti to carry plants thence to the West Indian Islands; and it was after the cargo had been secured and the vessel was on her way that the mutiny broke out, and Lieutenant Bligh and some of his crew were turned adrift in a small boat in the open sea. The mutineers returned with the vessel to Tahiti, whence a number of them, with a few native men and women, sailed to the desolate and lone islet of Pitcairn. Lieutenant Bligh ultimately reached England, and was again commissioned to undertake the work of transplanting the plants, which in the year 1792–3 he successfully accomplished.

A somewhat similar but much inferior fruit is produced by an allied species, the Jack or Jak, *Artocarpus integrifolia*, growing in South India, Ceylon, and the Eastern Archipelago. This tree is chiefly valuable on account of its timber, which has a grain very similar to mahogany, and although at first light coloured it gradually assumes much of the appearance of that wood.

BREAKWATERS differ from piers in their not being necessarily adapted for commercial purposes. They do not, therefore, require to have roadways for the accommodation of traffic, or parapets for keeping water or spray from passing over them. Breakwaters are artificial structures consisting generally of stones or blocks of concrete, built or deposited in deep water. Their object is to tranquillize those portions of the sea which they cover, and which thus become sheltered anchorages. They may be divided into three classes:—(1.) Vertical or nearly vertical structures of built masonry for arresting the onshore progress of the waves, and for either reflecting them seawards or deflecting them laterally. (2.) Sloping structures of rubble stones dropped into the sea from timber stages or floating barges, and hence termed *pierres perdues*, having a sloping face on each side, termed a *talus* or *glacis*. These slopes, which, after the blocks have been consolidated, are generally protected above low water by stones set closely together, called *pitching*, are the angles of repose assumed by the loose blocks under the influence of the waves, and vary in steepness from above high water to below low water, where the force of waves is least. They vary from about 1 foot horizontal to 1 foot vertical to 7 feet horizontal to 1 foot vertical. (3.) What may be termed composite breakwaters are partly sloping and partly vertical, and act by causing the waves to break, and also by partially reflecting them seawards or deflecting them laterally. The new breakwater at Aberdeen and the Dover Admiralty pier, which acts also as a breakwater, are examples of the *first* class. Plymouth breakwater, which rises with a general sea-slope of from 2 to 5 horizontal to 1 vertical to a height of 23 feet above high water, is an example of the *second* class. Cherbourg, which slopes from low water to high water, above which level there is a vertical barrier rising to 12½ feet above high water, is an example of the *third* class. Breakwaters, though passive, are nevertheless real agents by which work is done in combating the waves in one or other of the three modes which have been defined. For further information regarding the design of breakwaters and the details of their construction see HARBOURS.

BRECHIN, a parliamentary burgh of Scotland in the county of Forfar, 7½ miles W. of Montrose, and connected by a branch-line with the Caledonian Railway. It is situated on an abrupt declivity on the north bank of the River South Esk, here crossed by a stone bridge of very early date. The principal buildings comprise the parish church (with steeple and spire 128 feet high)—forming part of an ancient and uncompleted cathedral, of Gothic architecture, which has been injured by modern alterations, several other churches, a town-house, the public and Smith's school, a mechanics' institute, and an infirmary. The diocesan library hall of the Episcopal church contains an extensive and valuable collection of books, many of them presented by Bishop Abernethy-Drummond, and about 2000 by the late Bishop Forbes, who erected the building. Some ruins remain in the "vennel" of the Maison Dieu, or *hospitium*, founded by William of Brechin in 1256. The most remarkable edifice, however, is the round tower, situated in the churchyard near the cathedral. This tower is similar to those so common in Ireland, but in Scotland is only rivalled by the tower at Abernethy. Like similar buildings, it contains no stair, and the only access to the top is by means of ladders placed on wooden floors, which rest on circular stone projections within the tower. The height from the ground to the roof is 86¾ feet, the inner diameter within a few feet of the bottom is 8 feet, and the thickness of the wall at that part about 4 feet; the circumference is very near 50 feet; the inner diameter at top is 6 feet 7 inches, the thickness of the wall 2 feet 10 inches, and the circumference 38 feet 8 inches. These proportions give the building a high degree of elegance. The top is roofed with an octagonal spire 18 feet high, which makes the whole height of the building 101 feet 9 inches. Brechin Castle, which was a place of some strength during the Wars of the Independence, now a seat of Lord Dalhousie, lies a little to the south of the town. There is a public park near the town, and two large nurseries. There are three extensive power-loom linen factories (one of them a building of much taste), two bleach-fields, two distilleries, a brewery, and a paper-work; and extensive freestone quarries exist in the neighbourhood. The town is lighted with gas, and an ample supply of water has been introduced at great expense. Weekly markets are held on Tuesdays; and statutory fairs for horses, cattle, and sheep are held at Trinity Muir, about a mile north of the town. Brechin unites with Montrose, Arbroath, Forfar, and Bervie in returning one member to parliament. The population of the parliamentary burgh was in 1871, 7959, and of the royal burgh, 5083.

Brechin is a place of great antiquity, and was chosen by the Culdees as the site of one of their convents. It is said to have been burned by the Danes in 1012. In 1150 it was erected into a bishopric by David I. In 1572 James VI. gave a grant for founding a hospital in the burgh, which still supplies the magistrates with funds for charity. In 1645 the town and castle were harried by the marquis of Montrose. Maitland the topographer and Gillies the historian of Greece were natives of Brechin.

BRECON, or BRECKNOCKSHIRE, an inland county in South Wales. Its greatest length from south to north is about 53 miles, and its greatest breadth from east to west about 46 miles. It possesses an area of 719 square miles, or 460,158 acres, and is thus the fourth largest county in Wales. It is said to have derived its name from Brychan, a Welsh prince, who flourished in the fifth century.

The Old Red Sandstone is the principal geological formation in this county, and occupies the whole of the central portion from east to west. Along the southern boundary there extends a narrow belt of carboniferous limestone, millstone grit ("farewell rock" of the miners), and the outcrop of the coal beds,—together forming the northern rim of the coal measures in the great South Wales coal-field. At Clydach in Llanelly, Brynmawr, Hirwaun, and a few other places on the south-eastern border of the county, there are extensive iron-works. The narrow projecting part of the county to the north, lying between Radnor and Cardigan, is occupied by the Upper and Lower Silurian beds; and there is a somewhat singular narrow peninsula of the former projecting into the Red Sandstone for a distance of ten miles, in a S.W. direction, and terminating at about five miles north of the town of Brecon. A belt of limestone extends from the town of Hay on the east, and passing in a S.W. direction through the town of Brecon, terminates at the Brecknockshire Van. A prominent band extends along the border of the Old Red Sandstone on the N.W., where it joins the Silurian beds.

The general aspect of the county is mountainous, and the scenery is marked by beauty and grandeur. A chain of the loftiest mountains in South Wales completely encircles the south, composed in the east of the Black Mountains, 2545 feet in height, and the curious Sugar Loaf rising to the height of 1760 feet. On the west of Brecknockshire are the Van and Talsarn mountains 2596 feet, and Mount Capellante 2394 feet in height; while the centre of the crescent is occupied by the masses of the Brecknockshire Beacons, the highest point of which, Cader Arthur, or Arthur's Chair, attains an altitude of 2910 feet. In the north, a range of barren hills, called Mynydd Bwlch Groes at the most westerly end and Mynydd Epynt towards the east, enters the boundary of the county at a short distance from Llandovery in Carmarthenshire, and extending in a N.E. direction, terminates near Builth.

Of the valleys the most distinguished for beauty is that of the Usk, stretching from east to west, and dividing the county into two nearly equal portions. The Wye is the chief river, and forms the boundary on the N. and N.E. from Rhayader to Hay, a distance of upwards of twenty miles; while the Towy, the Afon Claerwen, and the Elan separate the county from Cardigan and Radnor on the N.W. and N. The Usk rises in the Carmarthenshire Van on the west, and flowing in a direction nearly due east through the centre of the county, collects the waters from the range of the Beacons in the south, and from Mynydd Bwlch Groes and Mynydd Epynt in the north, by means of numerous smaller streams (of which the Tarell and the Honddu are the most important), and enters the county of Monmouth near Abergavenny. The Taff, the Hepstau, and the Tawe, all rise on the south of the Beacon range, and passing through Glamorganshire, flow into the British Channel.

Llyn Safaddu, Llangorse Lake, or Brecknioc Mere, the largest lake in South Wales, is situated at the foot of the Black Mountains, and within the county. It covers an extent of nearly 1800 acres, and is about two miles long by one mile broad. Upon an artificial island in the lake traces of habitations raised on piles have lately been discovered, together with the bones of red deer, wild boar, and *Bos longifrons*. Tradition affirms that beneath the lake is a submerged town, which has been rashly identified with the Roman station *Loventium*.

The climate is moist, but temperate and salubrious; and the soil of the valleys, often consisting of rich alluvial deposits, is very fertile. The cultivated crops consist of wheat, oats, barley, rye, turnips, pease, potatoes, and vetches; of these the greater part is consumed within the county. The uplands are chiefly in pasture, and are stocked with sheep, cattle, and ponies, which with wool, butter, and oak-bark, form the staple of a considerable trade with the adjoining English counties, and with the iron districts lying to the south. The farms are generally small, but are well cultivated in the lower parts of the county. The highland occupiers are a very humble, hard-working class of men. It is calculated that about two-thirds of the lands in the county are enclosed.

Breconshire is intersected by the Mid Wales, Brecon, and Merthyr Railway, and a branch of the London and North-Western, by means of which there is ready communication with all parts of the kingdom.

The principal towns are Brecon, Builth, Crickhowel, and Hay. The county returns one member to parliament, and has done so since 1536. The political influence is chiefly in the hands of Lord Tredegar and Sir Joseph Bailey. Constituency in 1875, 3574. Rents in the valley of the Usk and around Brecon are high, but on the mountain lands very low; it would be deceptive to give an average per acre. The annual value of real property paying income-tax is £316,208. The population of the county by the last census was 59,901, giving an average of 83 persons to a square mile, or 7·68 acres to each person. Of the total number 29,928 were males, and 29,973 females. The number of inhabited houses was 12,617, giving an average of 17·5 inhabited houses to a square mile, and 4·7 persons to each house. The following returns show an increase of population amounting to 34 per cent. during the last fifty years:—

1821	43,826
1831	47,763
1841	55,603
1851	61,474
1861	61,627
1871	59,901