

a portrait of Seleucus (it is not said which). On doubtful authority he is also said to have been the sculptor of a group of Jupiter and Apollo with a lion at Patara, and of a statue of Serapis. Before his time there is no mention of statues of Æsculapius or Serapis, and it is supposed that the types which we now have of these deities were introduced by Bryaxis. The statue of Apollo at Daphne represented the god in his character of Musagetes, with long flowing drapery girt at the waist. The Bacchus at Cnidus must have been similarly draped; and altogether Bryaxis seems to have shown as much preference for draped and mature forms as Praxiteles displayed for nude and youthful figures.

BRYDGES, SIR SAMUEL EGERTON (1762-1837), a miscellaneous writer, was born 30th November 1762. He studied at Queen's College, Cambridge, and adopted the profession of law. In 1790 he persuaded his elder brother that their family were the heirs to the barony of Chandos, being descended from a younger branch of the Brydges who first held the title. The case was tried and lost, but Brydges never gave up his claim, and used to sign himself *Per legem terræ* B. C. of S. (i.e. Baron Chandos of Sudeley). It has been said that he underwent the labour of re-editing Collins's *Peerage*, for the sole purpose of inserting a statement about his supposed right. In 1814 he was made a baronet, and in 1818 he left England. He died at Geneva in 1837. Sir Egerton was a most prolific author; he is said to have written 2000 sonnets in one year. His first volume of poems was published in 1785; of his other numerous works, including novels, political pamphlets, and bibliographies, perhaps the most important are *Censura Literaria*, 10 vols., 1805-9, and *Autobiography, Times, Opinions, and Contemporaries of Sir S. E. Brydges*, 1834.

BRZEZANY, a town of Austria, in Galicia, S.E. from Lembergo on the River Zlota-Lipa, in 49° 30' 25" N. lat. and 24° 41' 39" long. It possesses a Roman Catholic, a Greek, and an Armenian church, a castle, a convent, and a gymnasium; and it carries on a considerable manufacture of linen and leather. The population in 1869, including some contiguous villages, amounted to 9290.

BUBASTIS, the great name of the Egyptian goddess Bast, supposed to hold the same place in the Egyptian Pantheon as Artemis or Diana. The triad of Memphis consisted of three gods—Ptah or Vulcan, the Greek Hephaistos; Bast, the wife of Ptah and mother by him of Nefer-Atum, or "the good Tum;" and Sestet, formerly called Pasht, the sister or antithesis of Bast. This last goddess was also called *Merienptah*, or "the beloved of Ptah." Although the names of Bast, Sestet, and Merienptah are written with different hieroglyphs, their types are exactly alike, being that of a lion-headed goddess having on her head the sun's disk entwined by an uræus. Sestet and Bast appear both to have personified fire acted upon by Ptah, the cosmic demiurgos, and Vulcan. Owing to the pantheistic ideas prevalent in Egypt, Bast was identified at times with Neith, the Egyptian Athene or Minerva, and Athor, the Aphrodite or Venus. Her type and attributes were also those of Tefnu or Daphne, the pupil or daughter of the sun; and it was probably from her relation to this goddess, who, with her twin brother Su or Sôs, represented the Apollo and Artemis of the religious, and the Gemini, or Twins, of the zodiacal system, that Bast was identified with Diana. Bast was supposed to be the beneficent portion of the element fire and the bringer of good fortune; her sister and rival Sestet to represent the malevolent deity of the element and the bringer of ill-fortune. At a later period Bast has the head of a cat substituted for that of a lion, and holds in her hands a vase or situlus. About the time of the 26th dynasty, figures of her, made of porcelain, abound, representing the goddess seated and sometimes holding a

sistrum. Her local worship was principally carried on at Bubastis, the modern Tel Basta. The Speos Artemidos, or Sheik Hassan, Anxtata supposed to be Letopolis near Memphis. The cat was sacred to this goddess, and mummies of this animal are found at Bubastis, the Speos Artemidos, and Thebes, sometimes in bronze or wooden figures in shape of the cat seated on a pedestal, carved in form of the vase which was the hieroglyphic name of the goddess. Connected with Bubastis were the Bubasteia or festival of the goddess, celebrated with great pomp at the city of Bubastus, and the largest and most important in Egypt. The Egyptians flocked to it by water, accompanied by music; and as many as 700,000 are said to have been present on the occasion. A nome was also named after this goddess, and the capital city called Bubastus or Bubastis was on the site of the present Tel Basta on the Bubastite branch of the Nile. In later times the canal of Necho started from it to the Red Sea, and the adjoining lands were given by Psammetichus to the Greek mercenaries. It is, however, mentioned in inscriptions of the earlier periods of history, and was an important city. Taken by the Persians under Memnon, its walls were razed, and it sunk gradually in importance. The nome struck some bronze coins of small size in the eleventh year of the Emperor Hadrian, 127 A.D., with a goddess holding in her hands a small animal, possibly a cat. Many antiquities and remains are found in the ruins of the city.

Brugsch, *Geogr. Inschrift*, i. 138-236; Jablonski, *Panth. Egypt.*, iii. p. 68; Diodorus, i. 27; Herodot. ii. 67, 137-156; *Rev. Arch.* 1863, 195; Wilkinson, *Mann. and Cust.*, iv. 277, v. 203.

BUCANEERS, a band of piratical adventurers of different nationalities united in their opposition to Spain, who maintained themselves chiefly in the Caribbean Seas during the 17th century.

The island of St Domingo was one of several in the West Indies which had early in the 16th century been almost depopulated by the oppressive colonial policy of Spain. Along its coast there were several isolated establishments presided over by Spaniards, who were deprived of a free and convenient market for the produce of the soil by means of the monopolies imposed by the mother country. Accordingly English, Dutch, and French vessels were welcomed with eagerness, and their cargoes readily bought. The island, thinned of its former inhabitants, had become the home of immense herds of wild cattle, which multiplied with great rapidity; and it became the habit of the hardy smuggler to provision his ship at St Domingo. The natives still left upon the island were skilled in preserving flesh by means of fire and smoke at their little establishments called Boucans. The adventurers learned "boucanning" from the natives; and gradually Hispaniola became the scene of an extensive and illicit butcher trade. A sailor in those days when piracy abounded was expert with his weapons, and was almost a fighting man by trade. Spanish monopolies were the pest of every port from Mexico to Cape Horn; and the seamen who had sailed the Caribbean were filled with a natural hate of everything Spanish. The pleasures of a roving life gained upon them, while the monotony of its routine was broken by occasional skirmishes with the forces organized and led by Spanish officials. Out of such conditions arose the Buccaneer, alternately sailor and hunter, even occasionally a planter,—roving, bold, not over-scrupulous, not unfrequently savage, with an intense detestation of the power and the representatives of Spain.

In the year 1625 indirect assistance and encouragement previously given culminated in a combined venture on behalf of the Buccaneers by the Governments of England and France. Each nation contributed a band of colonists, and selected the island of St Christopher, in the West

Indies, where the settlers of both nations were simultaneously planted. The English and French were, however, not over-friendly; and in 1629, after the retirement of several of the former to an adjoining island, the remaining colonists were surprised and partly dispersed by the arrival of a Spanish fleet of thirty-nine sail. Many were carried off, and threats were freely used as to the future settlement of the island. But on the departure of the fleet the scattered bands returned, and encouragement was given to their countrymen in St Domingo. For buccaneering had now become a most profitable employment, operations were extended, and a storehouse secure from the attacks of the Spaniards was required. The small island of Tortuga lying to the N.W. of Hispaniola was seized for this purpose in 1630, converted into a magazine for the goods of the rivals, and made their headquarters, St Domingo itself still continuing their lucrative hunting ground.

Spain was not indifferent to this proceeding, though she could not prudently take immediate action. Eight years, however, had not gone, ere, watching her opportunity when many Buccaneers were absent in the larger island on their ordinary pursuit, she attacked Tortuga, and massacred every settler she could seize. But the hunters to the number of 300 returned; and the Buccaneers, now distinctly seen to be in open hostility to the Spanish arms, began to receive recruits from every European trading nation, and for three-quarters of a century became the acknowledged scourge of the Spanish American trade and dominions.

France, throughout all this, had not been idle in watching over her own interests. She had named the Governor of St Christopher "Governor-General for the French West India Islands," and in 1641 he took possession of Tortuga for the Crown of France, expelled all English from the island, and attempted the same with less success in St Domingo. England had at home something vastly more important to attend to, and the Buccaneers had to maintain themselves as best they could,—now mainly on the sea.

In 1654 the Spaniards regained Tortuga from the French, into whose hands it again, however, fell after a period of six years. But this state of matters was, as may be readily conceived, too insecure even for these rovers, and they would speedily have succumbed to the perils of their mode of life, had not a refuge been found for them by the fortunate conquest of Jamaica in 1655 by the navy of Cromwell, on behalf of the English Commonwealth. These conquests were not made without the aid of the Buccaneers themselves. The taking and retaking of Tortuga by the French was always with the assistance of the roving community; and at the conquest of Jamaica the English navy had the same influence in its favour. The Buccaneers, in fact, by this time constituted a mercenary navy, ready for employment against the power of Spain by any other nation, on condition of sharing the plunder to be obtained; and they were noted for their daring, their cruelty, and their extraordinary skill in seamanship.

Their history now conveniently divides itself into three distinct epochs. The first of these extends from the period of their rise to the capture of Panama by Morgan in 1671, during which time their characteristic peculiarity as robbers was that they were hampered neither by Government aid nor, till near its close, by Government restriction. The second, from 1671 to the time of their greatest union and power, 1685, when the scene of their operations was no longer merely the Caribbean, but principally the whole range of the Pacific, from California to Chili. The third and last period extends from that year onwards; it was a time of disunion and disintegration, when the inde-

pendence and rude honour of the previous periods had degenerated into unmitigated vice and brutality.

It is chiefly during the first period that those leaders flourished whose names and doings have been associated with all that was really influential in the exploits of the Buccaneers,—the most prominent being Mansvelt and Morgan. The commerce of Spain, which had been gradually dwindling since the wreck of the Invincible Armada and the death of Philip II., had by the middle of the 17th century become utterly insignificant. The Buccaneers were thus deprived of the plunder of the Spanish mercantile marine. But Spanish settlements remained; and in 1654 the first great expedition on land, attended by considerable difficulties, was completed by the capture and sack of New Segovia in Honduras, on the mainland of America. The Gulf of Venezuela, with its towns of Maracaibo and Gibraltar, were attacked and plundered under the command of a Frenchman named L'Ollonois, who performed, it is said, the office of executioner for the whole crew of a Spanish vessel manned with ninety seamen. Such successes removed the Buccaneers further and further from the pale of ordinary civilized society, fed their revenge, and inspired them with an avarice almost equal to that of the original settlers from Spain. Mansvelt, indeed, in 1664, popular among all the Buccaneers, conceived the idea of their permanently settling as a body of regular colonists upon a small island of the Bahamas, named Providence, and Henry Morgan, a Welshman, intrepid and unscrupulous, joined him in some preliminary cruises. But the untimely death of Mansvelt nipped in the bud the only rational scheme of permanent settlement which seems at any time to have animated the members of this wild community; and Morgan, now elected commander, swept the whole Caribbean, and from his headquarters in Jamaica led triumphant expeditions to Cuba and the mainland. He was leader of the expedition wherein Porto Bello, one of the chief and best fortified ports in the West Indies, was surprised, taken, and plundered.

But this was too much for even the adverse European powers; and in 1670 a treaty was concluded between England and Spain, proclaiming universal peace and friendship among the subjects of the two sovereigns in the New World, formally renouncing hostilities of every kind, withdrawing commissions granted to privateers, and agreeing to forget the past and for the future to punish all offenders. Great Britain was to hold all her possessions in the New World as her own property (a remarkable concession on the part of Spain), and consented, on behalf of her subjects, to forbear trading with any Spanish port without licence obtained. On the proclamation of the treaty in Jamaica, the Buccaneers rose to a man, ready for the most daring exploit which it had yet been in their power to achieve; they resolved to carry the terror of their name to the shores of the Pacific.

Accordingly, in 1671 Morgan embarked 2000 men on board a fleet of thirty-nine ships, sailed for a convenient port in the Caribbean, and crossed the Isthmus to lay siege to Panama. After a difficult journey, on foot and in canoes, they found themselves nearing the shores of the South Sea and in view of the turrets of the fated city. On the morning of the tenth day they commenced an engagement which, ere the close of the evening, ended in the rout of the defenders of the town. It was taken, and, accidentally or not, it was burnt. Neither sex nor condition was spared in the barbarities which ensued; and the conquerors returned laden with spoil. Morgan was not even true to his own men in the division of the booty; he returned to Jamaica, became respectable under Government, was after a little made deputy-governor of the island, and took advantage of his position to punish his

former associates. He died, by the favour of Charles II., the "gallant" Sir Henry Morgan.

From 1671 to 1685 is the time of the greatest daring, prosperity, and maritime power of the Buccaneers. But the expedition against Panama had not been without its influence. Notwithstanding the vigour with which they executed their piratical projects in the Caribbean, and the many successes which they obtained on land, including a second plunder of the unfortunate city of Porto Bello, their thoughts ran frequently on the great expedition across the Isthmus, and they pictured to themselves the shores of the South Sea as a far wider and more lucrative field for the display of their united power.

In 1680 those longings took formidable shape. A body of marauders over 300 strong, well armed and provisioned, landed on the shore of Darien and struck across the country; and the cruelty and mismanagement displayed in the policy of the Spaniards towards the Indians were now in small part revenged by the assistance which the natives eagerly rendered to the adventurers. They acted as guides during a difficult journey of nine days, kept the invaders well supplied with food, provided them with skilfully constructed canoes, and only left them after the taking of the fort of Santa Maria, when the Buccaneers were fairly embarked on a broad and safe river which emptied itself into the South Sea. With John Coxon as commander they entered the Bay of Panama, where rumour had been before them, and where the Spaniards had hastily prepared a small fleet to quell this dangerous attempt to carry insecurity and terror into the Pacific. But the valour of the Buccaneers won for them another victory, and within a week they escaped from the confinement of canoes, and took possession of a small fleet of four Spanish ships; and now successes flowed upon them. The Pacific, formerly free from their intrusion, showed many sail of merchant vessels, while on land opposition south of the Bay of Panama was of little avail, since few were acquainted with the use of fire-arms, and defence as an art was utterly unknown. Coxon and seventy of his men returned as they had gone, but the others under Sawkins, Sharp, and Watling, roamed north and south, on islands and mainland, and remained for long ravaging the coast of Peru. Never scant of silver and gold, but often in want of the necessaries of life, they continued their practices for a little longer; then, evading the risk of recrossing the Isthmus, they boldly cleared Cape Horn, and arrived in the Indies, in the not very tender hands of the representatives of the different Governments there. Again in 1683, however, numbers of them under John Cook departed for the South Sea by way of Cape Horn, near which they hailed a Thames built ship fitted out apparently as a trader, but in reality for the purposes of privateering. Thus straight from England the Buccaneers were now receiving a great accession to their numbers and their strength; and Eaton, the commander of the new vessel, told Cook of a certain Captain Swan who would probably be met with soon, prosecuting the same dangerous business. They sailed northward, and on the death of Cook, Edward Davis, undoubtedly the greatest and most prudent commander who ever led the forces of the Buccaneers at sea, took command of his ship. Davis parted with Eaton, who left for the East Indies, but Swan arrived, and the two captains began a cruise which was disastrous to the Spanish trade in the Pacific.

In 1685 they were joined in the Bay of Panama by large numbers of Buccaneers who had crossed the Isthmus under Townley and others. This increased body of men required an enlarged measure of adventure, and this in a few months was supplied by the Viceroy of Peru. That officer, sole representative of the Spanish sovereign in the

vast kingdom, saw that the trade of the colony was cut off, that supplies were stopped, that towns were burned and cleared of the precious metals, and that settled life was broken in upon by the harassing and repeated attacks of the unsparing marauders, and he resolved by vigorous means to put an end to this state of matters. But this was not easily accomplished. In this same year, indeed, a fleet of fourteen sail hove in sight of the united forces of the Buccaneers in the Bay of Panama. The ten ships of the pirates were miserably deficient in cannon, and hung off. The Spaniards evidently were not aware of their advantage, and the two fleets, after remaining in proximity for three days, separated without testing their strength except in the way of a small and distant cannonade.

At this period the power of the Buccaneers was at its height. But the combination was now too extensive for its work, and the different nationality of those who composed it was a source of growing discord. Nor was the dream of equality ever realized for any length of time. The immense spoil obtained on the capture of wealthy cities was indeed divided equally among the crew of the attacking ships, the commander alone getting an extra share. But in the gambling and debauchery which followed, nothing was more common than that one-half of the conquerors should find themselves on the morrow in most pressing want; and while those who had prudently retained or fortunately increased their store of the precious metals would willingly have directed their course homewards, the others clamoured for renewed attacks upon the hated Spaniards. The separation of the English and French Buccaneers, who together presented a united front to the Spanish fleet in 1685, marks the beginning of the third and last epoch in their history—that of disunion, decay, and extinction as an unaided community.

The brilliant exploits begun in this third period by the sack of Leon and Realejo by the English under Davis have, even in their variety and daring, a sameness which deprives them of interest, and the wonderful confederacy is now seen to be falling gradually to pieces. The skill of Davis at sea was on one occasion displayed in a seven days' engagement with two large Spanish vessels, and the interest undoubtedly centres in him. Townley and Swan had, however, by this time left him, and after cruising together for some time, they, too, parted. In 1688 Davis cleared Cape Horn and arrived in the West Indies, while Swan's ship, the "Cygnet," was abandoned as unseaworthy, after sailing as far as Madagascar. Townley had hardly joined the French Buccaneers remaining in the South Sea ere he died, and the Frenchmen with their companions crossed New Spain to the West Indies. And thus the Pacific, ravaged so long by this powerful and mysterious band of corsairs, was at length at peace from California to Cape Horn.

The West Indies had by this time become hot enough even for the banded pirates. They hung doggedly along the coasts of Jamaica and St Domingo, but their day was nearly over. Only once again—at the siege of Carthage—did they appear great; but even then the expedition was not of their making, and they formed an accession to regular forces organized in France. After the treachery of the French commander of this expedition a spirit of unity and despairing energy seemed reawakened in them; but this could not avert and scarcely delayed the rapidly approaching extinction of the community.

The proximate causes of the disappearance of this remarkable body of men are to be found in European policy. The accession of William of Orange to the English throne in 1689 had raised the jealousy of Louis XIV., and the war which ensued was protracted and severe. French and English rovers in the Caribbean could

not but take the part of their countrymen at home, and the continuance of hostilities effected the severance of the bond of unity which had for three-quarters of a century kept the subjects of the two nations together in schemes of aggression upon a common foe. The peace of Ryswick in 1697 only left England and France free to pay court to Spain, whose king, weak in body and mind, was evidently hastening to the grave. The succession to the crown was believed to depend upon his will, and the two nations used all their influence, both in the Old World and in the New, to ingratiate themselves into the favour of the Spanish monarch. But that which really stopped the career of the Buccaneers so effectually as to prevent its being resumed was the fact, of so vast importance in the history of Spain and of Europe, that in 1700 Philip V., first of the Bourbon dynasty, ascended the Spanish throne. Spain, so little in herself, yet always great under great kings, now degraded and fallen, almost immediately rose before the eyes of astonished Europe as a gigantic power in the Old World and in the New.

But the fall of the Buccaneers is no more accounted for fully by these circumstances than is their rise by the alienation and massacre of the islanders of St Domingo. There was that in the very nature of the community which, from its birth, marked it as liable to speedy decline.

The principles which bound the Buccaneers together were, first, the desire for adventure and gain, and, in the second place, hatred of the Spaniard. The first, as that which could produce union among men of different nationalities, hardly deserves to be called a principle. There was perhaps much to gain, but it could be had nearly always by private venture under the colours of the separate European powers. Only one thing prevented this, and it is connected with their second and great principle of union, namely, that they warred not with one another, nor with every one, but with a single and a common foe. For while the Buccaneer forces included English, French, and Dutch sailors, and were complemented occasionally by not inconsiderable bands of native Indians, the instances during the time of their prosperity and growth are few in which we find them turning upon one another, and treating their fellows with the savagery which they exulted in displaying against the subjects of Spain. The exigencies, moreover, of their perilous career readily wasted their suddenly acquired gains.

Settled labour, the warrant of real wealth, was beneath the dignity of those who lived by promoting its insecurity. Regular trade—though rendered attractive by smuggling—and pearl gathering and similar operations which were spiced with risk, were open in vain to them. For, as the licence of the debauchee was in almost every case substituted for the cares and pleasures of domestic life, so a hand-to-mouth system of supply and demand rooted out gradually the prudence which accompanies any mode of settled existence. In everything permanency was what was not aimed at, because the whole policy of the Buccaneers, from the beginning to the end of their career, was one of pure destruction, and was therefore ultimately suicidal.

It has already been seen how great was the influence of the Buccaneers upon the power and the colonial tactics of Spain. But it was more beneficial to the world and more ruinous to Spain, that they opened the eyes of the world, and specially of the nations from whom these Buccaneers had sprung, to the whole system of Spanish American government and commerce—the former in its rottenness, and the latter in its possibilities in other hands. That effected, all was effected, since the extent of Spanish power was known. From this, then, along with other causes, dating primarily from the helplessness and pre-

sumption of Spain, there arose the West Indian possessions of Holland, England, and France.

A work published at Amsterdam in 1678, entitled *De Americaensche Zee Roovers*, from the pen of a Buccaneer named Exquemelin, was translated into several European languages, receiving additions at the hands of the different translators. The French translation by Oexmelin is named *Histoire des Aventuriers qui se sont signalez dans les Indes*; the English edition is entitled *The Buccaneers of America*. Other works are Raynal's *History of the Settlements and Trade of the Europeans in the East and West Indies*, book x., English translation 1782; Dampier's *Voyages*; Geo. W. Thornbury's *Monarchs of the Main*, &c., 1855; Lionel Wafer's *Voyage and Description of the Isthmus of America*, 1699; and the *Histoire de l'Isle Espagnole*, &c., and *Histoire et description general de la Nouvelle France* of Père Charlevoix. The statements in these works are to be received with caution. A really authentic narrative, however, is Captain James Burney's *History of the Buccaneers of America*, London, 1816. (T. S.)

BUCCARI, a royal free town of the Hungarian crown, situated in the comitat of Fiume, on a small bay of the Adriatic, in 45° 18' 46" N. lat. and 14° 32' 11" E. long. Its harbour is of rather limited dimensions, but the roadstead is excellent, though the approach is not unattended with danger. The staple industry is the weaving of linen; shipbuilding is also carried on, and there is an active coasting trade in fish, wine, wood, and coal. The tunny-fishery is of some importance. In the neighbourhood of the town is the old castle of Buccarizza, and further south the flourishing little port of Porto Ré or Kraljevicza. The population of Buccari in 1869 was 2116.

BUCCINO, a town of Italy in the province of Principato Citeriore, and district of Campagna, situated on the River Botta, which is here crossed by an ancient Roman bridge. Buccino is identified by means of inscriptions found on the spot, as the ancient *Volceium* or *Volcentium*, which was a considerable municipal town in Lucania. Population, 6049.

BUCER, MARTIN (1491-1551), originally **MARTIN KUHN**, an eminent German reformer, born at Schelestadt, a town of Alsace, near Strasburg. At the age of fifteen he entered the order of St Dominic, and as he was a youth of great promise he was sent to prosecute his studies at Heidelberg. There he studied the works of Erasmus and Luther, and was present at a disputation of the latter with some of the Roman Catholic doctors. He became a convert to the Reformed Church, abandoned his order, and soon afterwards married a nun. He did not, however, remain strictly a Lutheran. On the great question of the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, his opinions were decidedly those of Zwingli rather than of Luther. Although differing from them in doctrine he was anxious to be in church unity with the Lutheran party, and constantly endeavoured to bring about a coalition. In 1548 he was sent for to Augsburg to sign the agreement, called the *Interim*, between the Papists and Protestants. His warm opposition to this project exposed him to many difficulties and hardships, which induced him to accept the invitation of Archbishop Cranmer to fix his residence in England. On his arrival, in 1549, he was appointed to teach theology in the university of Cambridge. King Edward VI. had the greatest regard for Bucer. Having heard that he had suffered much from the cold, from want of a German stove, he sent him a hundred crowns to purchase one. Bucer died of a complication of disorders in 1551, and was buried at Cambridge with great funereal pomp. Five years afterwards, in Mary's reign, his body was dug up and burnt, and his tomb demolished; but it was subsequently re-constructed by order of Queen Elizabeth. Bucer's name is familiar in English literature from the use made of the reformer's doctrines by Milton in his divorce treatise.

BUCH, LEOPOLD VON (1774-1853), an eminent German geologist and geographer, was born at Stolpe in Pomerania, April 25, 1774. In 1790 he studied at the mining school of Freiberg under the celebrated Werner, one of his

fellow-students there being the illustrious Alexander Von Humboldt. At the age of twenty-three he published his *Attempt at a Mineralogical Description of Landeck*, and also an *Attempt at a Geognostic Description of Silesia*. He was at this time a zealous upholder of the Neptunian theory of his illustrious master. In 1797 he met his old school-fellow Von Humboldt at Salzburg, and with him explored the geological formations of Styria and the adjoining Alps. In the spring of the following year, Von Buch extended his excursions into Italy, where his faith in the Neptunian theory was for the first time shaken. In his previous works he had advocated the aqueous origin of basaltic and other formations; he was now not less clearly convinced that these owed their existence to volcanic action. In 1799 he paid his first visit to Vesuvius, which he did not again see till 1805, when he was accompanied by Humboldt and Gay-Lussac. They had the good fortune to witness a remarkable eruption, which supplied Buch with data for refuting many erroneous ideas then entertained regarding the activity of volcanoes. Three years before he had explored the south of France, and directed special attention to the extinct volcanoes of Auvergne. The aspect of the Puy de Dome, with its cone of trachyte and its strata of basaltic lava, induced him to abandon as untenable the doctrines of Werner on the formation of these rocks. The scientific results of his investigations he embodied in his *Geognostical Observations during Travels through Germany and Italy*, Berlin, 1802-9, 2 vols. 8vo. From the south of Europe Von Buch repaired to the north, and spent two years among the Scandinavian islands, making many important observations on the geography of plants, on climatology, and on geology. He also established the fact that the whole of Sweden is slowly but continuously rising above the level of the sea from Frederickshall to Abo. The details of these discoveries are given in his *Travels through Norway and Lapland*, Berlin, 1810. In 1815 he visited the Canary Islands in company with Christian Smith, the Norwegian botanist. His observations here convinced him that these and other islands of the Atlantic owed their existence to volcanic action of the most intense kind, and that the groups of islands in the South Sea are the remains of a pre-existing continent. The physical description of the Canary Islands was published at Berlin in 1825. After leaving the Canaries Von Buch proceeded to the Hebrides and the coasts of Scotland and Ireland. His geological excursions even into countries already repeatedly visited were continued without interruption till his 78th year. Eight months before his death, he visited the mountains of Auvergne; and on returning home he read a paper on the Jurassic Formation before the Academy of Berlin. The circumstances of Von Buch's life were singularly favourable to scientific pursuits. He inherited from his father a fortune more than sufficient for all his wants. He was never married, and was completely unembarrassed by family ties. His excursions he always undertook on foot, with a staff in his hand, and the large pockets of his over-coat filled with papers and geological instruments. Under this guise, the passer-by would not easily have recognized the man whom Humboldt pronounced the greatest geologist of his time. He died at Berlin on the 4th of March 1853. In addition to the works already mentioned Von Buch published others, of which we may specify the magnificent *Geological Map of Germany*, in 42 sheets, Berlin, 1832.

BUCHANAN, GEORGE (1506-1582), a celebrated Scottish historian and scholar, was born in February, 1506. His father, a younger son of an old family, was the possessor of the farm of Moss, in the parish of Killearn, Stirlingshire, but he died at an early age, leaving his widow and children in poverty. George, the third son, is said to have

attended Killearn school, but not much is known of his early education. In 1520 he was sent by his uncle to the university of Paris, where he prosecuted his studies with great ardour, and especially trained himself in poetical composition. In 1522 his uncle died, and Buchanan being thus unable to continue longer in Paris, returned to Scotland. After recovering from a severe illness, he joined the French auxiliaries who had been brought over by the duke of Albany, and took part in an unsuccessful inroad into England. In the following year he entered the university of St Andrews, where he graduated as B.A. in 1525. He had gone there chiefly for the purpose of attending the celebrated John Major or Mair's lectures on logic and when that teacher removed to Paris Buchanan accompanied him. In 1527 he became B.A., and in 1528 M.A. at Paris. Next year he seems to have been appointed regent or professor in the college of Ste Barbe, and taught there for upwards of three years. In 1532 he became the friend and tutor of Gilbert Kennedy, earl of Cassilis, with whom he returned to Scotland about the beginning of 1537.

While residing at Paris Buchanan had been converted to the Protestant faith, and his first production in Scotland was the poem *Somnium*, attacking with keen satire the Franciscan friars and monastic life generally. This assault on the monks was not displeasing to James V., who engaged Buchanan as tutor to one of his natural sons, and encouraged him to a still more daring attack. Under these circumstances the *Franciscanus* was written, and it is not surprising that the author became an object of bitterest hatred to all of the Roman Catholic faith. Nor was it yet a safe matter to assail the church. In 1539 there was a bitter persecution of the Lutherans, and Buchanan among others was arrested. He managed to effect his escape, and with considerable difficulty made his way to London and thence to Paris. At Paris, however, he found his resolute enemy, Cardinal Beaton, and on the invitation of Andrew Govea, proceeded to Bordeaux. Govea was then principal of the newly-founded college of Guienne at Bordeaux, and by his exertions Buchanan was appointed professor of Latin. During his residence there several of his best works, the translations of *Medea* and *Alcestis*, and his two great dramas *Jephthes* and *Baptistes*, were completed.

After three years he returned to Paris, and in 1544 was appointed regent in the college of Cardinal le Moine, a post he held till 1547. He then accepted Govea's invitation to a chair in the new Portuguese university of Coimbra, afterwards one of the most celebrated seats of learning in Europe. But he had not been long in Portugal when Govea's death exposed him to the unwearied persecution of the priests. Buchanan was several times examined by the officers of the Inquisition, and finally was confined to a monastery, where he was condemned to hear edifying lessons from the monks. During his imprisonment, which lasted several months, he began his famous version of the Psalms. On his release he sailed for England, but soon made his way to Paris, where, in 1553, he was appointed regent in the College of Boncourt. He remained in that post for two years, and then accepted the office of tutor to the son of the Marshal de Brissac.

In 1560 or 1561 he returned to Scotland, and in April 1562 we find him installed as tutor to the young queen Mary, who was accustomed to read Livy with him daily. Buchanan now openly joined the Protestant or Reformed Church, and in 1566 was appointed by the earl of Murray principal of St Leonard's College, St Andrews. Two years before he had received from the queen the valuable gift of the revenue resulting from Crossraguel Abbey. He was thus in good circumstances, and his fame was steadily increasing. So great, indeed, was his reputation

for learning and administrative capacity that, though a layman, he was made moderator of the General Assembly in 1567. He had sat in the Assemblies from 1563.

The part Buchanan took in the affairs of Queen Mary is well known. He accompanied the Regent Murray into England, and his *Detection* (published in 1572) was produced to the commissioners at Westminster. In 1570, after the assassination of Murray, he was appointed one of the preceptors of the young king, and it was through his tuition that James acquired his great scholarship. Buchanan was a strict and severe master, and kept his pupil in salutary awe and obedience. James long remembered the feelings of dread with which he was accustomed to regard his formidable pedagogue.

While discharging the functions of royal tutor he also held other important offices. He was for a short time director of chancery, and then became lord privy seal, a post which entitled him to a seat in the Parliament. He appears to have continued in this office for some years, at least till 1579. He died on the 28th September 1582.

His last years had been occupied with two of his most important works. The first was the treatise *De Jure Regni apud Scotos*, published in 1579. In this famous work, composed in the form of a dialogue, and evidently intended to instil sound political principles into the mind of his pupil, Buchanan lays down the doctrine that the source of all political power is the people, that the king is bound by those conditions under which the supreme power was first committed to his hands, and that it is lawful to resist, even to punish, tyrants. A theory such as this was not likely to be palatable to James. The book was condemned in 1584, and again in 1664; while in 1683 it was burned by the loyal scholars of Oxford.

The second of his large works was the history of Scotland, *Rerum Scotticarum Historia*, completed shortly before his death and published in 1582. It is of great value for the period personally known to the author, which occupies the greater portion of the book. The earlier part is to a considerable extent based on the work of Boece and repeats the legendary history which was for so long an article of faith to every Scotchman.

Buchanan is the greatest scholar that Scotland has produced. For mastery over the Latin language he has never been surpassed by any modern writer. His style is not rigidly modelled upon that of any classical author, but has a certain freshness and elasticity of its own. He wrote Latin as if it had been his mother tongue. But in addition to this perfect command over the instrument of expression, Buchanan had a rich vein of poetical feeling, and great powers of thought. His translations of the Psalms and of the Greek plays are more than mere versions; they have a peculiar grace and felicity. The smaller satirical poems are masterpieces of wit and expressive language, while the two tragedies, *Baptistes* and *Jephthes*, are works whose merits have not perhaps been generally recognized.

There are two complete editions of Buchanan's works, one by Ruddiman, 2 vols. fo., 1715; the other by Burman, 2 vols. 4to., 1725. His life has been written by Dr Irving, *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of George Buchanan*, 2d edition, 1817. The *Jephthah* and *Baptist* have been translated by A. Gibbs, 1870.

BUCHANAN, JAMES (1791-1868), fifteenth President of the United States, was born in Franklin County, Pennsylvania. His father, of the same name, was an Irishman who had eight years before emigrated from Donegal, and had become a well-to-do farmer. The son completed his education at Dickinson College, Carlisle, and took his degree in 1809. He then applied himself to the study of the law, was admitted to the bar in 1812, and settled at Lancaster in Pennsylvania. Notwithstanding his youth he soon gained considerable reputation, and with it a large

and growing practice. In 1812 he joined a party of volunteers who, under the command of Judge Shippen, marched to the defence of Baltimore against the British, but their services were not wanted. He was at this time a zealous federalist. In 1814 he was elected member of the State Legislature, and constantly recommended the vigorous prosecution of the war. He was re-elected the following year; and in 1820 he became a member of Congress. Among his important early speeches were those on a deficiency in the military appropriation, in January 1822; on the bankrupt law, in March following, when he successfully opposed its extension to all citizens whether traders or not; and on the tariff question, on which he maintained that duties ought to be levied for revenue only. He uttered grave warnings against forming alliances with Mexico and the South American Republics, the condition of which was not calculated to inspire hopefulness, and insisted on the immense importance of Cuba, both commercially and strategically, to the United States. In 1828 he supported General Jackson at the Presidential election, and was at the same time re-elected to Congress. In the following year he succeeded Daniel Webster as head of the judiciary committee, and in this capacity conducted the trial on impeachment of Judge Peck,—one of the *causes célèbres* of American jurisprudence. On completing his fifth term, Buchanan retired from Congress (1831), and the next year was appointed envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to St Petersburg. His mission is marked by the negotiation of the first treaty of commerce between the United States and Russia,—a treaty by which important privileges in the Baltic and the Black Sea were secured to the former. On his return from Russia he was elected United States senator; and he retained his seat till 1845. In the great struggle between President Jackson and the party headed by Mr Calhoun, Buchanan warmly defended the president and his claims. In the first years of the movement against slavery, he saw the large results which were likely to follow, and desired to suppress the agitation in its infancy, and this by suppressing the discussion of the subject in Congress. He advocated the recognition by Congress of the independence of Texas, and at a later time its annexation. During the presidency of Van Buren, Buchanan greatly distinguished himself in support of the principal measure of the Government—the establishment of an independent treasury. In 1845 he was appointed Secretary of State under President Polk; and at the close of his term of office in 1849 he retired into private life. But four years later he accepted from President Pierce the post of United States Minister to Great Britain. In 1854 he was the originator and one of the three members of the Ostend Conference on the subject of the acquisition of Cuba by the United States, and with his colleagues maintained that, on the principle of self-preservation from dangers of the gravest kind, an armed intervention of the United States and the capture of the island from the Spaniards would be justifiable. He returned from England in 1856, and the same year was elected, as Democratic candidate, to the Presidential chair. For a short time there seemed to be ground for hope that political passions and excitement would subside. But this hope was soon found to be fallacious. The troubles in Kansas and the large questions involved in them gave rise to new discussions and division. The president gave his support to the pro-slavery party, and dissensions grew during his administration to such an extent that disruption and war between North and South followed the election of his successor, President Lincoln. From the close of his administration in 1860 till his death, Buchanan led a retired life. He died at Wheatland in Pennsylvania, June 1, 1868. Two years before his death he published an account of his administration.