

BUCHAREST, BUKHOREST, BUKOREST, or, as it is called by the inhabitants, BUCURESCI (that is, according to their own etymology, City of Joy), is the capital of Roumania, the residence of the prince and the seat of a bishop. It is situated in a hollow on the River Dimbevitza, a tributary of the Danube, in 44° 25' 30" N. lat. and 26° 5' 24" E. long., and occupies an area of more than 20 English square miles. The number of its cupolas and minarets, and the profusion of acacia, poplar, and other trees that fill the numerous spaces of unoccupied ground, give it a picturesque appearance from a distance. The arrangement of its streets is very irregular, and in many districts it cannot be said that there are streets at all. In general the roadways are either unpaved or only laid with rough blocks of different sizes. A few streets, indeed (and notably the Podo Mogochoi, which is the most important), have been paved with Aberdeen granite. The city is lighted with gas produced from English coal; and a considerable but far from satisfactory supply of water is obtained from the river and distributed partly by water-carts and partly by iron pipes. Of the public buildings few are of much architectural importance; the national theatre is one of the largest, and the "academy" one of the finest. The latter is occupied by the university, a library of 26,000 volumes, a public museum of antiquities and natural history, and a large theatre, which is used by the senate during the parliamentary session. The palace, an insignificant building, was founded by the Goleseo family in the 18th century. There are 116 Greek churches in the city, of which the most remarkable are the Metropolitan, St George, St Spiridon, and Sarindar. The Roman Catholics have a parish-church in the centre of the town and several chapels; there are Lutheran and Calvinistic churches, with schools attached for both boys and girls; and the Jews, who number about 15,000, have ten synagogues. There are about a score of conventual establishments, the majority belonging to the Greek Church. The Brancovano hospital, founded by the family of that name, has accommodation for between 200 and 300 patients, the military hospital for 300, the Culza for 200, the Philanthropic for 100, and the Pantelemonu for 120. The Marcutza insane asylum can receive 220; and the Helena asylum, founded by the Princess Helena in 1862, has room for 220 orphan girls. There is also a children's hospital for 100 patients, and a lying-in hospital for 40. In Bucharest there is always a numerous garrison, and the arsenal and barracks on the plateau of Dealu and the cavalry and infantry barracks at St George are both extensive establishments. Cafés and coffee-gardens abound, and are allowed to remain open all night. There are two public gardens, the Cismegiu in the centre of the town, about a mile in circumference, and the Kisilev on the outskirts, which is traversed by the fashionable promenade known as the Chaussée. Public locomotion is facilitated by about 500 droshkas in summer and as many sledges in winter; and a tramway has recently been laid down by an English company. The monetary business of the city is extensive,—its principal establishments being the Bank of Roumania, founded in 1865, with a capital of one million sterling, and the *Société Financière de Roumanie*, with a capital of six million francs. The manufacturing industry is slight, the principal article being Turkish cloth; but the trade both in foreign and native goods is of very considerable extent. The mercantile portion of the community is largely composed of foreigners—Germans, Greeks, Frenchmen, Swiss—who keep themselves very much apart from each other. Division into classes and nationalities is a marked feature of the whole Bucharest population. The Boyards, though their aristocratic pretensions are no longer recognized by law, are as exclusive as ever. There are about 20,000 Transylvanians who fill subordinate positions; the droshka-

drivers are mainly Russians of the Lipovani sect; and Bulgarians, Armenians, gypsies, and many others swell the motley multitude. In spite of the fact that the number of deaths is frequently in excess of the number of births, the increase of the population is rapid, and house-rents have become very high; and that it is more the habits of the people than the unhealthiness of the city that is to blame for the death-rate is shown by the steady internal increase of the Jewish community. About eighteen newspapers are published in the city—three daily and the others twice or thrice a week. The railway system, begun by the opening of the line to Giurgevo on the Danube in 1869, is rapidly extending, and there is direct communication with Western Europe by the line to Lemberg. The population, which was 121,754 in 1859, had increased by 1870 to 200,000, and is now stated at 251,000.

Bucharest owes its foundation in the 13th century to Radel the Black of Wallachia. Burnt in 1595 by Sinan Pusha it was soon afterwards restored, but it was not till the 18th century that it appeared much in European history. It was frequently of importance in the contests for the neighbouring provinces, which so often broke out between the Turks and their northern rivals Austria and Russia; and in 1812 it gave its name to the treaty by which Bessarabia and a third of Moldavia were ceded to the latter power. In the war of 1828 it was occupied by the Russians, who made it over to the prince of Wallachia in the following year. A rebellion against Prince Bibesco in 1848 brought both Turkish and Russian interference, and the city was again held by Russian troops from 1853 to 1854. On their departure an Austrian garrison took possession and remained till March 1857. In 1858 the international congress for the organization of the Danubian principalities was held in the city; and in 1861 the union of Wallachia and Moldavia was proclaimed. Prince Couza, the first ruler of the united provinces, was driven from his throne by an insurrection in Bucharest in 1866.

BUCHEZ, PHILIPPE JOSEPH BENJAMIN (1796-1865), French author and politician, was born at Matagne-la-Petite, in the department of the Ardennes. He finished his general education in Paris, and afterwards applied himself to the study of natural science and medicine. Hatred of the Government of the Restoration, and enthusiasm for democratic ideas, were at that time widely diffused among the young men of the schools of Paris, and these passions gained full possession of the mind of Buchez. With his friends Bazard and Flotard he founded, in 1821, a secret association—a system of French carbonarism—which spread rapidly and widely, and displayed itself in repeated attempts at revolution. In one of these attempts—the affair at Belfort—which cost General Berton, Colonel Caron, and four soldiers of Rochelle their lives, he was gravely compromised, although the jury which tried him did not find the evidence sufficient to warrant his condemnation. In 1825 he graduated in medicine, and soon after he published, along with M. Trelat, a *Précis élémentaire d'Hygiène*. About the same time he became a member of the Saint-Simonian Society, presided over by Bazard, Enfantin, and Rodriguez, and contributed to its organ, the *Producteur*. He left it in consequence of aversion to the strange theological dogmas of its spiritual chief, M. Enfantin, and began to elaborate what he regarded as a Christian socialism. For the exposition and advocacy of his principles he founded a periodical called *L'Européen*. In 1833 he published an *Introduction à la Science de l'Histoire*, which was received with considerable favour, and of which a second edition, improved and enlarged, in two volumes, appeared in 1842. Notwithstanding its prolixity and discursiveness, this is both an interesting and a meritorious work. The part of it which treats of the aim, foundation, and methods of the science

of history is truly valuable. On the other hand, what is most distinctive in M. Buchez's theory—the division of historical development into four great epochs originated by four universal revelations, of each epoch into three periods corresponding to desire, reasoning, and performance, and of each of these periods into a theoretical and practical age—seems entitled to no higher commendation than that of being ingenious. (See *Flint's Philosophy of History in Europe*, i., 242-252). M. Buchez next edited, along with M. Roux Laverne, the *Histoire parlementaire de la Révolution Française* (1833-38, 40 vols). This vast, laborious, conscientious publication is one of the chief sources of information regarding the early periods of the first French Revolution. There is a review of it by Mr Carlyle (*Miscellanies*), the first two parts of whose own history of the French Revolution are mainly drawn from it. The editors worked under the inspiration of a strong admiration of the principles of Robespierre and the Jacobins, and in the belief that the French Revolution was an attempt to realize Christianity.

M. Buchez gave a general exposition of his views in his *Essai d'un Traité complet de Philosophie au point de vue du Catholicisme et du progrès* (3 vols. 1839-40). Perhaps the fundamental doctrine of this treatise is that the primitive, intellectual, moral, and religious ideas of men cannot be adequately explained as innate, or as derived from sensation, sentiment, or reasoning, but must have been imparted by divine revelation. It is substantially identical with the fundamental doctrine of De Bonald, although Buchez infers from it democratic instead of theocratic consequences. Great prominence is given to the conception of progress which is attained by generalization from a comprehensive survey of geology, physiology, and history. The author sets very distinctly before himself also the aim of organizing the sciences into a single comprehensive system. This he thought could only be accomplished through an *a priori* synthetic method, and not, as had previously been attempted, by the analytical and experimental method. It was partly owing to the reputation which he had acquired by these publications, but still more owing to his connection with the *National* newspaper, and with the secret societies hostile to the Government of Louis Philippe, that he was raised, by the Revolution of 1848, to the presidency of the Constituent Assembly. He speedily showed that he was not possessed of the firmness, decision, and political capacity needed in a situation so difficult and in days so tempestuous. He retained the position only for a very short time. After the dissolution of the Assembly he was not re-elected. Thrown back into private life, he resumed his studies, and added several works to those which have been already mentioned. A *Traité de Politique*, which may be considered as the completion of his *Traité de Philosophie*, is the most important of the productions of the last period of his life. His brochures are very numerous and on a great variety of subjects, medical, historical, political, philosophical, &c. He died in 1865. He found a disciple of considerable ability in M. Ott, who has advocated and applied his principles in various writings, the most recent of which, perhaps, places the metaphysical theory of Buchez in as favourable a light as it can be seen under. (R. F.)

BUCHU or BUKA LEAVES are the produce of several shrubby plants belonging to the genus *Barosma* (Nat. Order, *Rutaceæ*), natives of the Cape of Good Hope. The principal species, *B. crenulata*, has leaves of a smooth leathery texture, oblongo-ovate in shape, from an inch to an inch and a half in length, with serrulate or crenulate margins, on which as well as on the under side are conspicuous oil cells. The other species which yield buchu are *B. serratifolia*, having linear-lanceolate sharply serrulate

leaves, and *B. betulina*, the leaves of which are cuneate obovate, with denticulate margins. They are all, as found in commerce, of a pale yellow-green colour; they emit a peculiar aromatic odour, and have a slightly astringent bitter taste. Buchu leaves contain a volatile oil, to which evidently their therapeutic influence is due, and are said to yield a bitter extractive principle, which has received the name of diosmin. The leaves of a closely allied plant, *Empleurum serratum*, are employed as a substitute or adulterant for buchu. Buchu leaves are chiefly used in European pharmacy in inflammatory disorders of the bladder and urinary organs; in the United States they are much employed by vendors of secret medicines. An infusion of the leaves is tonic, sudorific, and diuretic. At the Cape buchu has great reputation in gout and rheumatism, and as a stomachic stimulant; and in the form of buchu brandy and buchu vinegar it is applied as an embrocation in sprains, contusions, and rheumatic pains.

BUCKEBURG, the capital of the principality of Schaumburg-Lippe, is situated at the foot of the Harriberg on the River Aue, about 6 miles from Minden, on the Minden and Hanover Railway. It has a castle surrounded by a park, a gymnasium, a normal seminary, a library, an orphanage, a synagogue, and three churches, one of which has the appropriate inscription, *Religionis non structure exemplum*. The first houses of Bückeburg began to gather round the castle about 1365; and it was not till the 17th century that the town was surrounded with walls. Population in 1871, 4686.

BUCKINGHAM, COUNTY OF, BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, or BUCKS, an inland county of England, between 51° 25' and 52° 10' N. lat., and 0° 28' and 1° 12' W. long., is bounded N. by Northamptonshire W. by Oxfordshire, S. by Berkshire, and E. by Bedfordshire, Hertfordshire, and Middlesex. It is the thirty-third in size of the English counties, measuring 53 miles at its greatest length and 27 at its greatest breadth, and containing, according to the last Ordnance survey, 467,009 acres, or nearly 730 square miles. The aspect of the country is agreeably diversified by the distribution of forests, rivers, hills, pasture, and arable land. In the southern portion of the county the forests, consisting chiefly of beeches (from the Saxon name of which tree, *boc*, the county is said to derive its name), were at one time very extensive, but have of late years been greatly thinned; woods of considerable extent are still to be found in the northern parts. The principal rivers of Buckinghamshire are the Thames, which separates it from Berkshire and Surrey, and receives as tributaries the Colne and the Thame; and the Ouse, with its tributary the Ousel, which belongs to the north of the county. The only hills in Bucks worthy of mention are the Chilterns which cross it in a north-westerly direction, and rise at two or three points to the height of about 900 feet. Of the roads which pass through the county the most important are that which connects London with Chester and Holyhead, by which the mails were forwarded to Ireland before the introduction of railways, the great western road connecting the metropolis with Bath and Bristol, and the roads to Oxford and Birmingham. The only canal of any importance is the Grand Junction, from which branches proceed to several of the larger towns. The London and North-Western Railway passes through the north-east of the county, and the Great Western through a small part of its southern extremity, while minor branches belonging to both these systems afford ready communication between the more important places. The principal junctions are Prince's Risborough, Aylesbury, Verney, and Bletchley.

The agricultural capacities of Bucks vary considerably in different parts of its extent. The vale of Aylesbury, lying between hills on either side, is one of the most fertile and

valuable districts in England, and is divided in nearly equal proportions between pasture and tillage. Towards the north, however, the soil greatly degenerates, and sometimes does little more than pay the expense of cultivation. In 1875 the proprietors holding land of less and of more than one acre in extent numbered 6420 and 3288 respectively,—the largest owners being Lord Carington with 14,835 acres, and Earl Brownlow, with 11,785. The farms are not generally large. The largest do not exceed 500 acres, while there are many of not more than 20 or 30 acres. The average size in 1871 was 70 acres. In 1874 there were 60,182 acres under wheat, 28,902 in barley, 23,257 in oats, 16,663 in beans, and 7136 in pease; 1463 were occupied by potatoes, 19,641 by turnips, 29,272 were in temporary grass, and 186,941 in permanent pasture. About 24,500 are covered with wood, and 1637 with orchards. Neither flax nor hops are grown. The quantities of cattle reared and fed in Bucks are very considerable,—the total number enumerated in the year 1874 being 37,147. The number of milch cows is estimated at upwards of 27,000; and the large supply of dairy-produce is rapidly conveyed to London by rail, where it finds a ready market. Hogs are extensively reared on many farms, and are found to be a source of considerable profit to the farmer. Their numbers amounted in 1874 to upwards of 40,500. In many parts of the county, especially at Aylesbury, great numbers of ducks are fattened for sale in the London markets.

The manufactures of Buckinghamshire are neither very extensive nor very important. The principal are those of lace and straw plait. The proportion of persons chiefly engaged in agriculture is about 13 per cent. of the population; in trade and manufactures about 18 per cent.

Bucks was originally divided into eighteen hundreds; it is now divided into eight, viz., Newport, Buckingham, Ashendon, Cottesloe, Aylesbury, Burnham, Stoke, and Desborough, the last three forming what is well known as "The Chiltern Hundreds." That of Aylesbury still retains its ancient designation of the "three hundreds of Aylesbury." The number of parishes in the entire county is computed at 202, part of those of Ibstone, Ickford, Kingsey, and Lewknor extending into Oxfordshire. The market-towns are Amersham, Aylesbury (in all respects the most important town in the county, though Buckingham is the capital), Beaconsfield, Buckingham, Chesham, Great Marlowe, High Wycombe, Ivinghoe, Newport-Pagnell, Olney, Prince's Risborough, Stony Stratford, Wendover, and Winslow. There are many other interesting, though not very important, places in Buckinghamshire, of which we may mention Chalfont St Giles—the residence for a time of the poet Milton, where he completed *Paradise Lost* and began *Paradise Regained*; Hampden, the manor-house of which was for many generations the abode of the family of that name, and in the churchyard of which the patriot (who fell at Chalgrove in 1643) is buried; Medmenham, in the old abbey of which a celebrated club of "Franciscans," of which John Wilkes, Bubb Doddington, and other political notoriety of last century were members, held their convivial meetings; Pitstone, in the abbey of which Queen Elizabeth used frequently to reside in her younger days; Beaconsfield Manor, at one time the property of the poet Waller; Stoke Poges, celebrated by Gray in his *Elegy* and *Long Story*; Slough, for many years the residence of Sir William Herschel, and the place where his great telescope was constructed and still stands; Salt-hill (not far from Slough), where the Eton Montem, now abolished, used to be held; Olney and Weston Underwood, familiar to all the readers of Cowper; Butler's Court or Gregories, the seat of Edmund Burke; Bradenham, the mansion of the elder D'Israeli; and Hughenden Manor, the well-known residence of his son. The principal seats

in Buckinghamshire are Stowe, the property of the duke of Buckingham, and celebrated for its grounds, and its collections of pictures and statues; Bulstrode, once a seat of the dukes of Portland, now the property of the duke of Somerset; Wotton House, belonging to the duke of Buckingham, Penn House to Earl Howe, the Abbey, High Wycombe, to Lord Carington, Dropmore to the Hon. George Fortescue, Aston Clinton to Sir A. Rothschild, Ditton Park to the duke of Buccleuch, Hedsor to Lord Boston, Cliefden to the duke of Westminster, Latimer to Lord Chesham, Peterley House to Lord Dorner. The antiquities of the county are comparatively few. It is traversed by the three ancient roads known as Icknield Street, Akeman Street, and Watling Street; it has remains, in some cases very slight, of the baronial castles of Lavendon and Whitechurch, of the abbeys of Missenden, Notley, and Burnham, and of the monastery of Mursley, and a number of interesting examples of early ecclesiastical architecture, the most important being the churches of Chetwode, Stewkley, and Willesdon.

Bucks is in the Norfolk circuit. The quarter-sessions are held at Aylesbury; the assizes used to be held alternately at that town and Buckingham, but are now held only at Aylesbury. The Reform Bill of 1832 reduced the number of members returned by Bucks to the House of Commons from fourteen to eleven. It now returns eight, three of whom represent the county and five the parliamentary boroughs. In 1871 the number of the county electors registered was 7610. The result of the county elections is declared at Aylesbury. Bucks is governed by a lord-lieutenant and custos, 60 deputy-lieutenants, a high sheriff, and about 200 magistrates. It lies in the ecclesiastical province of Canterbury, and for the most part in the diocese of Oxford, and in arch-deaconry of Buckingham, which comprises the deaneries of Amersham, Aylesbury, Bletchley, Buckingham, Burnham, Claydon, Ivinghoe, Mursley, Newport, Waddesdon, Wendover, and Wycombe, in all about 180 benefices. The total income of endowed charities in the county was ascertained in 1863-4 to be £16,308, of which £3305 go to education and £3034 for maintenance of alms-houses. There were 11,315 paupers in 1871, of whom 441 were lunatics or idiots, and the previous year the poor rates amounted to £94,577.

The population in 1851 was 163,554, of whom 80,990 were males and 82,564 females. In 1871 it had increased to 175,879, the males being 86,059 and the females 89,820. The increase since 1801 was 63 per cent. The parliamentary boroughs (the first of which returns two members and the others one each) are Aylesbury, with 28,760 inhabitants; Buckingham, 7545; Chipping Wycombe, 10,492; Great Marlowe, part of which is in Berkshire, 6627. The towns of more than 2000 inhabitants, not corporate towns, nor included in any parliamentary borough, are Amersham, with a population of 2726; Chesham, with 6488; Newport-Pagnell, with 3824. The number of inhabited houses in the county in 1871 was 37,257; uninhabited, 1667; building, 184.

BUCKINGHAM, the chief town of Buckinghamshire, a parliamentary and municipal borough and market-town in the hundred of the same name, 58 miles by a branch of the North-Western Railway from London, is situated on the left bank of the River Ouse, which surrounds it on every side but the north and is crossed by three bridges. The town consists principally of one long street, straggling over a considerable extent of surface. The houses, which are chiefly of brick, are neat and clean, though somewhat humble in character. The only public buildings of importance are the town-hall, a brick structure dating from the end of the 18th century, and the church, dedicated to St Peter and St Paul, which is built of freestone on the

site of the old castle, has a handsome spire, 150 feet high, and has been restored and extended under the direction of Sir G. G. Scott, who was born in the neighbourhood. There are also a jail, a union workhouse, and several dissenting churches. An endowed free school for boys, who were clad in green coats by the will of the founder, Gabriel Newton, is now incorporated with the national school, which is intended to accommodate 300 pupils. The grammar-school of the town was founded by Edward VI., and occupies the chapel of the guild of the Holy Trinity, founded by Archdeacon Stratton in 1268. The manufactures, which include bone-grinding, malt-making, and tanning, are of comparatively small importance. Lace-making with bobbins still occupies a small part of the female population. There are also some corn-mills in the neighbourhood, and a few lime quarries. The borough of Buckingham formerly returned two members to Parliament, but since 1868 it has only returned one. It is governed by a mayor, four aldermen, and twelve councillors. Population of parliamentary borough in 1871, 7545; of municipal borough, 3703. Buckingham is a town of great antiquity. It was fortified with earthen ramparts by Edward the Elder in 918, and in 1010 it was captured by the Danes. It is mentioned as an ancient borough in *Domesday Book*, but does not seem to have returned members to Parliament till the reign of Henry VIII. In the reign of Edward III it was a wool-staple, but not long after its prosperity began to decline. From Queen Mary it received a charter in 1554. It was the headquarters of Charles I. for a few days during his war with the Parliament. In 1725 a third part of the town was burnt to the ground.

BUCKINGHAM, GEORGE VILLIERS, DUKE OF (1592-1628), born August 20, 1592, was a younger son of Sir George Villiers of Brooksby. His mother, who was left a widow early, educated him for a courtier's life, and the lad, being by nature little studious and contemplative, took kindly to the training. He could dance well, fence well, and talk a little French, when in August 1614 he was brought before the king's notice, in the hope that he would take a fancy to him.

The moment was favourable. Since Salisbury's death James had taken the business of government upon himself. But he wanted some one who would chat with him, and amuse him, and would also fill the office of private secretary, and save him from the trouble of saying No to importunate suitors. It would be an additional satisfaction if he could train the youth whom he might select in those arts of statesmanship of which he believed himself to be a perfect master. His first choice had not proved a happy one. Robert Carr, who had lately become earl of Somerset, had had his head turned by his elevation. He had grown peevish toward his master, and had placed himself at the head of the party which was working for a close alliance with Spain.

The appearance of Villiers, beaming with animal spirits and good humour, was therefore welcomed by all who had an interest in opposing the designs of Spain. With such powerful backing Villiers prospered at court, became a gentleman of the bed-chamber, was knighted, and received a pension of £1000 a year. For some little time, however, Somerset's pre-eminence was maintained. But the charge of murder brought against him completed his ruin, and Villiers at once stepped into the place which he had vacated. In August 1616 he was raised to the peerage as Viscount Villiers. In January 1617 he became earl of Buckingham. In January 1618 he was a marquis by the same title. Estates to the value of some £15,000 a year were settled on him. With the exception of the earl of Pembroke he was the richest nobleman in England.

Those who expected him to give his support to the anti-Spanish party were at first doomed to disappointment. As

yet he was no politician, and he contented himself with carrying out his master's orders, whatever they were. In his personal relations he was kindly and jovial towards all who did not thwart his wishes. But James had taught him to consider that the patronage of England was in his hands, and he took good care that no man should receive promotion of any kind who did not in one way or another pay court to him. As far as can be ascertained, he cared less for money than for the gratification of his vanity. But he had not merely himself to consider. His numerous kinsfolk were to be enriched by marriage, if in no other way, and Bacon, the great philosopher and statesman, was all but thrust from office, because he had opposed a marriage suggested for one of Buckingham's brothers, whilst Cranfield, the first financier of the day, was kept from the Treasury till he would forsake the woman whom he loved, to marry a penniless cousin of the favourite.

In the meanwhile Buckingham had found an appropriate position in the mastership of the horse, which gave him control over the royal stables. In January 1619 James made him lord high admiral of England, hoping that the ardent, energetic youth would impart something of his own fire to those who were intrusted with the oversight of that fleet which had been almost ruined by the peculation and carelessness of the officials. Something of this, no doubt, was realized under Buckingham's eye. But he himself never pretended to the virtues of an administrator, and he was too ready to fill up appointments with men who flattered him, and too reluctant to dismiss them, if they served their country ill, to effect any permanent change for the better.

It was about this time that he first took an independent part in politics. All England was talking of the revolution in Bohemia in the year before, and men's sympathy with the Continental Protestants was increased when it was known that James's son-in-law had accepted the crown of Bohemia, and that in the summer of 1620 a Spanish force was preparing to invade the Palatinate. Buckingham at first had thrown himself into the popular movement. Before the summer of 1620 was at end he had swung round, and was in close agreement with Gondomar, the Spanish ambassador. He had now married Lady Catherine Manners, the daughter of the earl of Rutland, who was at heart a Roman Catholic, though she outwardly conformed to the English Church, and this alliance may have had something to do with the change.

Buckingham's mistakes were owing mainly to his levity. If he passed briskly from one camp to the other, an impartial observer might usually detect some personal motive at the bottom. But it is hardly probable that he was himself conscious of anything of the sort. When he was in reality acting under the influence of vanity or passion it was easy for him to persuade himself that he was doing his duty to his country.

The Parliament which met in 1621 broke out into a loud outcry against the system of monopolies, from which Buckingham's brothers and dependants had drawn a profit, which was believed to be greater than it really was. At first he pleaded for a dissolution. But he was persuaded that it would be a wiser course to offer to put himself at the head of the movement, and when he came forward to say that he would rather sacrifice his brother than countenance wrong doing, he only gave utterance to those sentiments of patriotism which he really felt, when patriotism did not call upon him to sacrifice his own wishes. When, at a later period of the session, Bacon's case was brought forward, he made no attempt to meet the attack directly, but he did his best to shield the falling chancellor from the extreme penalties demanded by his adversaries. It was not long before he showed on how shallow a basis impulsive generosity rests. Bacon clung, after his fall, to the possession of

York House, the home of his childhood. Buckingham desired to purchase it, and he stood in the way of the king's favour to the great philosopher till he had consented to sell him the house.

In the winter of 1621, and the succeeding year, Buckingham was entirely in Gondomar's hands; and it was only with some difficulty that in May 1622 Laud argued him out of a resolution to declare himself a Roman Catholic. In December 1621 he actively supported the dissolution of Parliament, and there can be little doubt that when the Spanish ambassador left England the following May, he had come to an understanding with Buckingham that the Prince of Wales should visit Madrid the next year, on which occasion the Spanish Court hoped to effect his conversion to the Roman Catholic Church before giving him the hand of the Infanta Maria. By this time Buckingham had gained over Charles an influence which he never lost; and when he carried him in February 1623 to Madrid it was with the hope of effecting a great political object. The Palatinate had gradually fallen into the possession of Spain and of the Catholic League, and the two young men fondly expected that the grave statesmen of the Spanish monarchy would break with their co-religionists in Germany in order to present the Palatinate as a marriage gift to Charles.

It was not long before it became plain to Buckingham that the Palatinate was not to be gained at Madrid. From that time he urged the prince to return. Charles was not to be persuaded so soon to relinquish the hope of carrying his bride home with him to England. But at last his eyes were opened, and when the two young men sailed together from Santander in September, it was with the final resolution to break entirely with Spain.

James had gratified his favourite in his absence by raising him to the highest title known in the English peerage. But the splendour which gathered round the new duke was owing to another source than James's favour. He had put himself at the head of the popular movement against Spain, and when James, acknowledging sorely against his will that the Palatinate could only be recovered by force, summoned the Parliament which met in February 1624, Buckingham, with the help of the heir apparent, took up an independent political position. James was half driven, half persuaded to declare all negotiations with Spain at an end. For the moment Buckingham was the most popular man in England.

It was easier to overthrow one policy than to construct another. The Commons would have been content with sending some assistance to the Dutch, and with entering upon a privateering war with Spain. James, whose object was to regain the Palatinate, believed this could only be accomplished by a Continental alliance, in which France took part. As soon as Parliament was prorogued, negotiations were opened for a marriage between Charles and the sister of Lewis XIII., Henrietta Maria. But a difficulty arose. James and Charles had engaged to the Commons that there should be no concessions to the English Catholics, and Lewis would not hear of the marriage unless very large concessions were made. Buckingham, impatient to begin the war as soon as possible, persuaded Charles, and the two together persuaded James to throw over the promises to the Commons, and to accept the French terms. It was no longer possible to summon Parliament to vote supplies for the war till the marriage had been completed, when remonstrances to its conditions would be useless.

Buckingham, for Buckingham was now virtually the ruler of England, had thus to commence war without money. He prepared to throw 12,000 Englishmen, under a German adventurer, Count Mansfeld, through France into the Palatinate. The French insisted that he should march through Holland. It mattered little which way he took. Without

provisions, and without money to buy them, the wretched troops sickened and died in the winter frosts. Buckingham's first military enterprise ended in disastrous failure.

Buckingham had many other schemes in his teeming brain. He had offered to send aid to Christian IV., king of Denmark, who was proposing to make war in Germany, and had also a plan for sending an English fleet to attack Genoa the ally of Spain, and a plan for sending an English fleet to attack Spain itself.

Before these schemes could be carried into operation James died on March 27, 1625. The new king and Buckingham were at one in their aims and objects. Both were anxious to distinguish themselves by the chastisement of Spain, and the recovery of the Palatinate. Both were young and inexperienced. But Charles, obstinate when his mind was made up, was sluggish in action and without fertility in ideas, and he had long submitted his mind to the versatile and brilliant favourite, who was never at a loss what to do next, and who unrolled before his eyes visions of endless possibilities in the future. Buckingham was sent over to Paris to urge upon the French Court the importance of converting its alliance into active co-operation.

There was a difficulty in the way. The Huguenots of Rochelle were in rebellion, and James had promised the aid of English ships to suppress that rebellion. Buckingham, who seems at first to have consented to the scheme, was anxious to mediate peace between the king of France and his subjects, which would set him free from foreign enterprises, and save Charles from compromising himself with his Parliament by the appearance of English ships in an attack upon Protestants. When he returned his main demands were refused, but hopes were given him that peace would be made with the Huguenots. On his way through France he had the insolence to make love to the Queen of France. Unless the testimony of his warmest admirers is false, he had convinced himself by a sad experience that women found it difficult to resist his seductive tongue and his handsome face.

Soon after his return Parliament was opened. It would have been hard for Charles to pass through the session with credit. Under Buckingham's guidance he had entered into engagements involving an enormous expenditure, and these engagements involved a war on the Continent, which had never been popular in the House of Commons. The Commons, too, suspected the marriage treaty contained engagements of which they disapproved. They asked for the full execution of the laws against the Catholics, and voted but little money in return. Charles adjourned then to Oxford, that he might plead with them more persuasively. Before they met there, the English ships had found their way into the hands of the French, to be used against Rochelle. The Commons met in an ill-humour. They had no confidence in Buckingham, and they asked that persons whom they could trust should be admitted to the king's council before they would vote a penny. Charles stood by his minister, and on August 12 he dissolved his first Parliament.

Buckingham and his master set themselves to work to conquer public opinion. On the one hand, they threw over their engagements to France on behalf of the English Catholics. On the other hand they sent out a large fleet to attack Cadiz, and to seize the Spanish treasure-ships. Buckingham went to the Hague to raise an immediate supply by pawning the crown jewels, to place England at the head of a great Protestant alliance, and to enter into fresh obligations to furnish money to the king of Denmark. It all ended in failure. The fleet returned from Cadiz, having effected nothing. The crown jewels produced but a small sum, and the money for the king of Denmark could only be raised by an appeal to Parliament. In the meanwhile the king of France was deeply offended by the treat-

ment of the Catholics, and by the seizure of French vessels on the ground that they were engaged in carrying goods for Spain.

When Charles's second Parliament met on February 6, 1626, it was not long before, under Eliot's guidance, it asked for Buckingham's punishment. He was impeached before the House of Lords on a long string of charges. Many of these charges were exaggerated, and some were untrue. But as long as Charles refused to listen to the complaints of his minister's incompetency, the only way in which the Commons could reach him was by bringing criminal charges against him. Charles dissolved his second Parliament as he had dissolved his first.

To find money was the great difficulty. Recourse was had to a forced loan, and men were thrown into prison for refusing to pay it. There had been disasters to Charles's allies in Germany, and a French war was impending in addition to the Spanish one. The French were roused to reprisals by Charles's persistence in seizing French vessels. Unwilling to leave Rochelle open to the entrance of an English fleet, Richelieu laid siege to that stronghold of the French Huguenots. On June 27, 1627, Buckingham sailed from Portsmouth at the head of a numerous fleet, and a considerable land force, to relieve the besieged city.

His first enterprise was the siege of the fort of St Martin's, on the Isle of Rhé. The ground was hard, and the siege operations were converted into a blockade. On September 27, the defenders of the fort announced their readiness to surrender the next morning. In the night a fresh gale brought over a flotilla of French provision boats, which dashed through the English blockading squadron. The fort was provisioned for two months more. Buckingham resolved to struggle on, and sent for reinforcements from England. Charles would gladly have answered to his call. But England had long since ceased to care for the war. There was no money in the exchequer, no enthusiasm in the nation to supply the want. Before the reinforcements could arrive the French had thrown a superior force upon the island, and Buckingham was driven to retreat with heavy loss.

His spirits were as buoyant as ever. Ill luck, or the misconduct of others, was the cause of his failure. He had new plans for carrying on the war. But the Parliament which met on March 17, 1628, was resolved to exact from the king an obligation to refrain from encroaching for the future on the liberties of his subjects.

In the parliamentary battle, which ended in the concession of the Petition of Right, Buckingham took an active share as a member of the House of Lords. He resisted as long as it was possible to resist the demand of the Commons, that the king should abandon his claim to imprison without showing cause. When the first unsatisfactory answer to the petition was made by the king on June 2, the Commons suspected, probably with truth, that it had been dictated by Buckingham. They prepared a remonstrance on the state of the nation, and Coke at last named the duke as the cause of all the misfortunes that had occurred. Though on June 7 the king granted a satisfactory answer to the petition, the Commons proceeded with their remonstrance, and on June 11 they informed the king that Buckingham had "so abused his powers," that it was no longer safe to continue him in office.

Once more Charles refused to surrender Buckingham, and a few days later he prorogued Parliament in anger. The popular feeling was greatly excited. Lampons circulated freely from hand to hand, and Dr Lambe, a quack doctor, who dabbled in astrology, and was believed to exercise influence over Buckingham, was murdered in the streets of London. Rude doggerel lines announced that the duke should share the doctor's fate.

With the clouds gathering round him, Buckingham went down to Portsmouth to take the command of one final expedition for the relief of Rochelle. For the first time even he was beginning to acknowledge that he had undertaken a task beyond his powers. There was a force of inertia in the officials which resisted his efforts to spur them on to an enterprise which they believed to be doomed to failure. He entered gladly into a scheme of pacification proposed by the Venetian ambassador. But before he could know whether there was to be peace or war, the knife of an assassin put an end to his career. John Felton, who had served at Rhé, had been disappointed of promotion, and had not been paid that which was due to him for his services, read the declaration of the Commons that Buckingham was a public enemy, and eagerly caught at the excuse for revenging his private wrongs under cover of those of his country. Waiting, on the morning of August 23, beside the door of the room in which Buckingham was breakfasting, he stabbed him to the heart as he came out. The man who for four years had been practically the ruler of England fell dead upon the ground. He had only completed his thirty-sixth year three days before. (S. R. G.)

BUCKINGHAM, GEORGE VILLIERS, SECOND DUKE OF (1627-1688), was born at London January 30, 1627, about a year and a half before the murder of his father. He was educated at Cambridge, returned from a Continental tour on the outbreak of the civil war, and at once threw in his lot with the king. The detachment in which he held a command was defeated at Nonsuch, and he with difficulty effected an escape from England. His estates were confiscated by Parliament, and part of them were bestowed upon Fairfax. He returned with Charles II. and took part in the battle of Worcester, after which he again fled. About 1657 he returned secretly to England and married one of Fairfax's daughters. Arrested by order of Cromwell, he was thrown into the Tower and kept in confinement for some time. After the Restoration he recovered his estates, and rose to high favour with Charles II. He was a man of great talent, but utterly without principle, versatile and whimsical to the last degree.

"A man so various that he seemed to be
Not one, but all mankind's epitome."

He was a profligate and a statesman, a musician, an alchemist, a writer of farces, and a courtier,—"everything by starts, and nothing long." He was radically fickle, and could not be faithful to any party. In 1671 his power was at its height. He had done much to bring about the dismissal of Clarendon, had formed the famous council called the Cabal, and was in fact prime minister of England. But the measures he and his associates passed were little calculated to allay the strong popular feeling against the Government. The Cabal was quickly dissolved, and Buckingham, with his usual versatility, at once became an ardent friend of the democratic leaders. Soon afterwards he seems to have been disgusted with politics, and gradually withdrew from court. After the death of Charles he retired to his seat at Helmsley in Yorkshire, and devoted himself to hunting and other country amusements. He died on the 17th April 1688, in the house of one of his tenants, having been seized with a fever produced by sitting on the damp ground after being heated with riding. He was buried in Westminster Abbey. Buckingham was the author of some farces, comedies, and miscellaneous poems, but he is chiefly remembered in English literature by the *Rehearsal*, a clever parody upon Dryden and other stilted tragedians. His works were collected in 1704.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, JOHN SHEFFIELD, DUKE OF (1649-1721), was the son of Edmund, second earl of Mulgrave, and succeeded to that title on his father's death in 1658. At the age of seventeen he joined the fleet in