

died on the 14th March 1800, and was buried in the Temple church.

SAMUEL BARRINGTON, the fourth son, was born in 1729, and died in 1800. He entered the navy at an early age, and in 1747 had worked his way to a post-captaincy. He was distinguished for his bravery and skill, and in 1778 attained the rank of rear-admiral. He held command for some time in the West-Indies, and repulsed a superior French force at Sta Lucia.

SHUTE BARRINGTON, the youngest son, was born in 1734, and died in 1826. He was educated at Eton and Oxford, and after holding some minor dignities, was made bishop of Llandaff in 1769. In 1782 he was translated to Salisbury, and in 1791 to Durham. He published several volumes of sermons and tracts, and wrote the political life of his brother, Viscount Barrington.

BARRISTERS, in England, are the highest class of lawyers who have exclusive audience in all the superior courts. Every barrister must be a member of one of the four ancient societies called Inns of Court, viz., Lincoln's Inn, the Inner and Middle Temples, and Gray's Inn. The existence of these societies as schools can be traced back to the 13th century, and their rise is attributed to the clause in Magna Charta, by which the Common Pleas were fixed at Westminster instead of following the king's court, and the professors of law were consequently brought together in London. Associations of lawyers acquired houses of their own in which students were educated in the common law, and the degrees of barrister (corresponding to apprentice or bachelor) and sergeant (corresponding to doctor) were conferred. These schools of law are now represented by the Inns of Court, which still enjoy the exclusive privilege of calling to the bar, and through their superior order of *benchers* control the discipline of the profession.

Every person not otherwise disqualified may be admitted as a student of law by passing a general examination in London, or on producing evidence of his having passed a public examination at a university. The year is divided into four terms, and every student must keep twelve terms before he can be called to the bar. A term is kept by the student's dining six (if a university man, three) times in the hall of his society. Until quite recently the Inns of Court exercised little or no supervision over the legal education of their students. Any student who had duly kept his terms might be admitted to the bar on producing either a certificate of having passed the general examination of the Council of Legal Education, or a certificate of attendance at certain public lectures, or of having read in the chambers of a barrister or special pleader for at least twelve months. The examination not being compulsory, was only used as a qualification for call by a minority of students, and neither of the other tests afforded any security as to the applicant's fitness for admission. The regulations both as to legal education and examinations have been very greatly altered. A complete staff of public lecturers and tutors has been established, and every student must pass an examination in jurisprudence, civil and international law, and English law, before being admitted to his call. Persons connected with the law in any inferior capacity (such as that of solicitor and solicitor's clerk), or with trade, will not be admitted as students; and the benchers, besides, have the right of rejecting any applicant with or without cause assigned. For sufficient reasons, and subject to an appeal to the Common Law judges as visitors, they may reject the petition of a student to be called to the bar, or expel from their society and from the profession any barrister or bencher of the inn. This power has been exercised in several cases within recent years, and the benchers appear to take cognizance of any kind of miscon-

duct, whether professional or not, which they may deem unworthy of the rank of barrister. The age at which a student may be called to the bar is twenty-one years.

The peculiar business of barristers is the advocacy of causes in open court, but in England a great deal of other business falls into their hands. They are the chief conveyancers, and the *pleadings* (i.e., the counter statements of parties previous to joining issue) are in all but the simplest cases drafted by them. There is, indeed, a separate class of *conveyancers* and *special pleaders*, being persons who have kept the necessary number of terms qualifying for a call, but who, instead of being called, take out licences to practise *under the bar*. There are still a few persons who act under such special licences, but in general conveyancing and special pleading form part of the ordinary work of a junior barrister. The highest rank among barristers is that of king's or queen's counsel. They lead the case in court, and give opinions on cases submitted to them, but they do not accept conveyancing or pleading, nor do they admit pupils to their chambers. Precedence among queen's counsel, as well as among outer barristers, is determined by seniority. The order of sergeants at law still exists, but no new appointments have recently been made, and it will probably be allowed to become extinct, the title of queen's counsel being generally preferred. Sergeants rank after queen's counsel. Although every barrister has a right to practise in any court in England, it will be found, in fact, that each special class of business has its own practitioners, so much so indeed, that the bar may almost be said to be divided into several professions. The most marked distinction is that between barristers practising in Chancery and barristers practising in the courts of Common Law. The fusion of Law and Equity contemplated by the Judicature Act, 1873, may be expected in course of time to break down this distinction; but for many years there has been a complete separation between these two great branches of the profession. There are also subordinate distinctions in each branch. Counsel at Common Law attach themselves to one or other of the circuits into which England is divided, and may not practise elsewhere unless under special conditions. In Chancery the queen's counsel for the most part restrict themselves to one or other of the courts of first instance (those of the Vice-Chancellors or Master of the Rolls). Business before the court of Admiralty, the court of Probate and Divorce, the Privy Council, and parliamentary committees, exhibits, though in a less degree, the same tendency to specialization. In some of the larger provincial towns there are now local bars of considerable strength. In Manchester and Liverpool alone there are believed to be between seventy and eighty practising barristers; and the probable extension of this system cannot fail to have a most important influence on the future character of the profession. The bar of Ireland exhibits in its general arrangements the same features as the bar of England. Every Irish barrister must have kept at least six terms in one of the English Inns of Court. There is no connection whatever between the Scotch and English bars.

Counsel is not answerable for anything spoken by him relative to the cause in hand and suggested in the client's instructions, even though it should reflect on the character of another and prove absolutely groundless, but if he mention an untruth of his own invention, or even upon instructions if it be impertinent to the matter in hand, he is then liable to an action from the party injured. Counsel may also be punished by the summary power of the court or judge as for a contempt, and by the benchers of the inn to which he may belong on cause shown.

The rank of barrister is a necessary qualification for nearly all offices of a judicial character, and a very usual

qualification for other important appointments. Not only the judgeships in the Superior Courts of Law and Equity at home and in the colonies, but nearly all the magistracies of minor rank—recorderships, county court judgeships, &c.,—are restricted to the bar. The result is a unique feature in the English system of justice, viz., the perfect harmony of opinion and interest between the bar as a profession and all degrees of the judicial bench.

Revising Barristers are counsel of not less than seven years' standing appointed to revise the lists of parliamentary voters.

Barristers cannot maintain an action for their fees, which are regarded as gratuities, nor can they, by the usage of the profession, undertake a case without the intervention of an attorney.

BARROS, JOAO DE, a celebrated Portuguese historian, was born about 1496, and died in 1570. In 1522 he was appointed governor of St George del Mina, on the coast of Guinea. Three years after, the king recalled him to court, and made him treasurer of the Indies. This appointment furnished him with the materials necessary for the composition of his valuable history, entitled *Asia Portuguesa*, the first decade of which he published in 1552, the second in 1553, and the third in 1563; the fourth was not published till 1615. Several authors have continued the work, so that it extends to twelve decades. The best edition is that published at Lisbon, in 1778, in 9 vols. 8vo.

BARROW-IN-FURNESS, a borough, port, and parish in the hundred of Lonsdale, North-West Lancashire, situated opposite the island of Walney, at the extreme point of the peninsula of Furness, which lies between Morecambe Bay and the estuary of the Duddon. It is distant 35 miles from Lancaster and 91 from Carlisle. The area of the borough, which includes Walney and the islets at its south end, is 17,000 acres, of which 8155 are land, the rest being sand and water.

The town has had a remarkable rise. The veins of pure hæmatite iron ore in the district, now so extensively wrought, have long been in repute; and more than a hundred years ago, a small traffic was carried on in the ore, with the addition by-and-by of pig-iron, which early began to be manufactured in the vicinity of the mines,—the branch of the channel, now converted into docks, serving as a harbour, and the beach as a quay, for the shipment of the material brought down from the mines and charcoal furnaces. But at the beginning of the present century the annual export was only about 1000 tons, and then, and for many years after, though the trade went on increasing, the place was the merest hamlet, the population so recently as 1847 being only 325. It may be said that the railway has created the modern town. By the opening in 1846 of the first short section of the Furness Company's line, from the mines near Dalton to Piel pier and Barrow, the trade of the district received a great impetus, and it rapidly developed with the various extensions of the railway, till in 1857, by the carrying of the line over Morecambe sands, through communication was established between Barrow and Carnforth. When the railway was opened the shipments of ore had risen to 60,000 tons a year, while within five years afterwards there left by sea and rail a total of 250,000 which again, within other five years, increased to 450,000 tons. The next great onward step was the establishment at Barrow, in 1859, of the iron-works of Messrs Schneider and Hannay, followed in 1864 by the commencement of steel-works, the two being united in 1866 under "The Barrow Hæmatite Steel Company (Limited)." In 1867 there were opened the Devonshire and Buccleuch docks, constructed at a comparatively small cost by the enclosure of the channel between the mainland and a small island on which shipbuilding works have since been

erected. The docks comprise an area of above 60 acres, are entered from Walney Channel by a gateway 60 feet wide, give a uniform depth of 24 feet, the stone quays being 1½ miles long, and the wharves supplied with hydraulic cranes, one of which is capable of lifting 100 tons. Within a few years after the opening of the docks various important branches of industry were introduced, by means of which the town has both been consolidated and increased. The census of 1871 gives a return of 17,992, while a census for municipal purposes, November 1874, showed a population of over 40,000. The inhabited houses at the same period numbered about 6000, the rateable value of the borough being £144,000. The town owes much of its prosperity to the enterprise of the dukes of Devonshire and Buccleuch, and also to the foresight, zeal, and practical ability of Sir James Ramsden, managing director of the Furness Railway Company and first mayor of the borough, who in 1872 received the honour of knighthood as an acknowledgement of the value of his work, while a massive bronze statue in the centre of the town, raised about the same time by voluntary contributions, testifies to the appreciation of his services by the community.

A great part of the town lies low, much of it being built on ground reclaimed from the sea. It is well laid out, according to a fixed plan, in regular streets running at right angles, viz., north and south, and east and west. About £19,000 have already been expended on approaches and general road improvements. Not many public buildings can be looked for, but among others are the North Lonsdale Hospital; the Workmen's Club and Institute, the gift of Mr H. W. Schneider, and others; swimming baths, presented by Sir James Ramsden; a town-hall and large covered market, besides churches, schools, and banks.

The first place among the public works must be assigned to those of the Barrow Hæmatite Steel Company. Their iron-works have sixteen blast furnaces constructed so as to save the waste gases, which are utilized in heating the boilers and hot-air ovens. At the steel-works, which are the largest in Great Britain, are eighteen converters for making Bessemer steel. The amount of ore used is about 460,000 tons annually, of which the company's own mines yield upwards of 350,000 tons. There is an annual produce of 250,000 tons pig-iron, and 110,000 tons of steel, 80,000 tons of the latter being rails. In the processes about 500,000 tons of coke and coal are consumed annually; and the company employ at their works and iron-mines nearly 5000 men, besides a large number at coal-mines which they also work.

The works of the Iron Shipbuilding Company (capital, a quarter of a million), lying between the docks and Walney Channel, cover an area of 50 acres, with a frontage of 1050 feet, where ten vessels of the largest size can be laid down. When the works are in full operation, 6000 men will be employed. There is also a graving-dock of the largest size.

The Barrow Flax and Jute Company have an extensive jute work adjoining the docks, and communicating with the railway. It covers an area of 14 acres, has an imposing and attractive exterior, and is beautifully and elaborately fitted up with the greatest possible regard to efficiency and comfort. The works employ 2000 hands. Besides the above there are large engineering-works, waggon-works, saw-mills, brick-works, and a steam corn-mill.

The trade of the port is indicated by the character of the public works. The imports are chiefly timber, coal, jute, and general produce. Ore, steel rails, and pig-iron are chief among the exports. In 1874 the vessels entering the port numbered 1620, with a tonnage of 347,800 tons register. An extension of dock accommodation is being provided in a series of basins, to be called the Ramsden dock, with a water area of 200 acres. Passenger

steamers run daily to Belfast, and there is also a regular service to Glasgow and to the Isle of Man. By rail there is connection with Whitehaven, and with the London and North-Western and Midland systems, with branches to the Lake district.

Barrow is in the diocese of Carlisle. Besides the Church of England, which has three places of worship, there are the following churches:—the Presbyterian, Congregational, Wesleyan, Methodist New Connexion, Baptist, and Primitive Methodist.

The town received a charter of incorporation in 1867, when a council of sixteen was nominated, that number being doubled by an Act obtained in 1875. The supply of water comes from Kirkby Moor, the water-works as well as the gas-works being the property of the corporation. A cemetery has been provided at a cost of £25,000, with three chapels. A complete and thorough plan of drainage is being carried out, partly on the separate system. There is a fire brigade under the corporation, and at the entrance to the harbour there is a life-boat station. The police are those of the county. Several newspapers are published; and there are branches of various banking establishments, some of them occupying large and handsome buildings.

The extensive and interesting ruins of Furness Abbey, founded by Stephen in 1127, lie within the borough, over two miles from the heart of the town. They are beautifully situated in a small wooded valley, with a hotel and railway station close by. On Piel island is the Pile of Fouldrey, or Piel castle, the ruin of a castle built in 1327 by the abbot of Furness.

BARROW, ISAAC, an eminent mathematician and divine, was the son of Thomas Barrow, a linen draper in London, where he was born in 1630. He was at first placed for two or three years at the Charter-house school. There, however, his conduct gave but little hopes of his ever succeeding as a scholar, for he was inattentive and extremely fond of fighting. But after his removal from this establishment, his disposition took a happier turn; and having soon made considerable progress in learning, he was in 1643 entered at St Peter's College, and afterwards at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he applied himself with great diligence to the study of literature and science, especially of natural philosophy. He at first intended to adopt the medical profession, and made some progress in anatomy, botany, and chemistry, after which he studied chronology, geometry, and astronomy. He then travelled in France and Italy, and in a voyage from Leghorn to Smyrna gave proofs of great personal bravery; for the ship having been attacked by an Algerine pirate, Barrow remained upon deck, and fought with the utmost intrepidity, until the pirate, unprepared for the stout resistance made by the ship, sheered off and left her to pursue her voyage.

At Smyrna he met with a most kind reception from the English consul, Mr Bretton, upon whose death he afterwards wrote a Latin elegy. From this place he proceeded to Constantinople, where he received similar civilities from Sir Thomas Bendish, the English ambassador, and Sir Jonathan Dawes, with whom he afterwards contracted an intimate friendship. While at Constantinople he read and studied the works of Chrysostom, once bishop of that see, whom he preferred to all the other Fathers. He resided in Turkey somewhat more than a year, after which he proceeded to Venice, and thence returned home through Germany and Holland in 1659. Immediately on his reaching England he received ordination from Bishop Brownrig, and in 1660 he was appointed to the Greek professorship at Cambridge. When he entered upon this office he intended to have prelected upon the tragedies of Sophocles; but he altered his intention, and made choice of Aristotle's rhetoric. His lectures on this subject having

been lent to a friend who never returned them, are irrecoverably lost. In July 1662 he was elected professor of geometry in Gresham College, on the recommendation of Dr Wilkins, master of Trinity College, and afterwards bishop of Chester; and in May 1663 he was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society, at the first election made by the council after obtaining their charter. The same year the executors of Mr Lucas, who, according to the terms of his will, had founded a mathematical chair at Cambridge, fixed upon Barrow as the first professor; and although his two professorships were not inconsistent with each other, he chose to resign that of Gresham College, which he did on the 20th May 1664. In 1669 he resigned his mathematical chair to his illustrious pupil Isaac Newton, having now determined to renounce the study of mathematics for that of divinity. Upon quitting his professorship Barrow was only a fellow of Trinity College; but his uncle gave him a small sinecure in Wales, and Dr Seth Ward, bishop of Salisbury, conferred upon him a prebend in that church. In the year 1670 he was created doctor in divinity by mandate; and, upon the promotion of Dr Pearson, master of Trinity College, to the see of Chester, he was appointed to succeed him by the king's patent, bearing date the 13th February 1672. In 1675 Dr Barrow was chosen vice-chancellor of the university. He died on the 4th of May 1677, in the 47th year of his age, and was interred in Westminster Abbey, where a monument, surmounted by his bust, was soon after erected by the contributions of his friends. By his English contemporaries Barrow was considered a mathematician second only to Newton. Continental writers do not place him so high, and their judgment is probably the more correct one. He was undoubtedly a clear-sighted and able mathematician, who handled admirably the severe geometrical method, and who in his *Method of Tangents* approximated to the course of reasoning by which Newton was afterwards led to the doctrine of Ultimate Ratios; but his substantial contributions to the science are of no great importance, and his lectures upon elementary principles do not throw much light on the difficulties surrounding the border-land between mathematics and philosophy. His *Sermons* have long enjoyed a high reputation; they are weighty pieces of reasoning, elaborate in construction and ponderous in style.

His scientific works are very numerous. The most important are:—1. *Euclid's Elements*; 2. *Euclid's Data*; 3. *Optical Lectures*, read in the public school of Cambridge; 4. *Thirteen Geometrical Lectures*; 5. *The Works of Archimedes, the Four Books of Apollonius's Conic Sections, and Theodosius's Spherics, explained in a New Method*; 6. *A Lecture*, in which Archimedes's Theorems of the Sphere and Cylinder are investigated and briefly demonstrated; 7. *Mathematical Lectures*, read in the public schools of the University of Cambridge. The above were all written in Latin. His English works have been collected and published in four volumes folio.

BARROW, SIR JOHN, Bart., was born near Ulverston, in Lancashire, June 19, 1764. His early opportunities of instruction were limited; but by self-education he matured those powers which eventually were turned to so good an account. He displayed at an early age a decided inclination for mathematical pursuits. He passed some years of his youth as superintending clerk of an iron foundry at Liverpool, and he afterwards taught mathematics at an academy in Greenwich. While in the latter situation he was fortunate in obtaining, through the interest of Sir George Staunton, a place in the first British embassy to China. He was thus enabled to put his foot on the first step of the ladder of ambition; but each step in his subsequent career may be fairly said to have been achieved by himself. The account of the embassy published by Sir George Staunton records many of Barrow's valuable contributions to literature and science connected with China. This work, together with his own subsequently published volume of

travels, is ample evidence how well his time had been employed. Few persons could, within the space of a few months, overcome all the practical difficulties of such a language as the Chinese; but Barrow soon began to converse in it, and acquired a complete knowledge of its theory. His papers on this subject in the *Quarterly Review* (to which periodical he was for many years a very frequent contributor) contain a very admirable account of that singular language.

Although Barrow ceased to be personally connected with Chinese affairs after the return of the embassy in 1794, he always continued to take a lively interest in them, and on critical occasions was frequently consulted by the British Government. His services were secured by Lord Macartney in his important and delicate mission to settle the government of the newly-acquired colony of the Cape of Good Hope. Barrow was entrusted with opening communications with the Kaffres, in which he displayed a spirit, judgment, and humanity, which unfortunately were less conspicuous in subsequent transactions with those tribes. The two volumes of his history of the colony made the public fully acquainted with the extent, capacities, and resources of that important, but till then little understood, acquisition of the British Crown. There is little doubt that it was the perusal of this valuable work which mainly decided Lord Melville to appoint Barrow, though then a perfect stranger to him, as his second secretary of the Admiralty. Barrow's subsequent career for forty years at the Admiralty (embracing the whole period of the war with France), will be for ever historically associated with the civil administration of the British navy for the same period. He enjoyed the esteem and confidence of all the eleven chief lords who successively presided at the Admiralty Board during that period, and more especially of King William IV., while lord high admiral, who honoured him with tokens of his personal regard. Barrow was a fellow of the Royal Society, and had the degree of LL.D. The honour of a baronetcy was conferred on him by Sir Robert Peel in 1835; the letter in which the honour was announced acknowledged, in highly gratifying terms, his literary and scientific eminence, and his "long, most able, and most faithful public service."

Besides the works already mentioned, Barrow published the lives of Lord Macartney, Lord Anson, Lord Howe, and Peter the Great; and he was also the author of several valuable contributions to the seventh edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

He retired from public life in 1845, in consideration of his advanced years, although still in vigorous possession of all the mental and bodily powers required for the due discharge of the functions of his office. In the course of the three following years his vital energies gradually declined, but he nevertheless continued so fully in the enjoyment of his faculties, writing a history of the modern Arctic voyages of discovery, of which he was a great promoter, as well as his autobiography, published in 1847, that his friends and relatives entertained no apprehension that his end was so near. He expired suddenly on the 23d November 1848, in the 85th year of his age, much honoured and respected by his friends and the public at large.

BARROWS. The custom of constructing barrows, or mounds of stones or earth, over the remains of the dead was the most characteristic feature of the sepulchral systems of primitive times. Originating in the common sentiment of humanity, which desires by some visible memorial to honour and perpetuate the memory of the dead, it was practised alike by nations of high and of low development, and continued through all the stages of culture that preceded the introduction of Christianity. The primary idea of sepulture appears to have been the

provision of a habitation for the dead; and thus, in its perfect form, the barrow included a chamber or chambers where the tenant was surrounded with all the prized possessions of his previous life. A common feature of the earlier barrows is the enclosing fence, which marked off the site from the surrounding ground. When the barrow was of earth, this was usually effected by an encircling trench or a low *vallum*. When the barrow was a stone structure, the enclosure was usually a circle of standing stones. Sometimes, instead of a chamber formed above ground, the barrow covered a pit excavated under the original surface, in which the interments had been made. In later times the mound itself was frequently dispensed with, and the interments made under the natural surface, within the enclosure of a trench, a *vallum*, or a circle of standing stones. Usually the great barrows occupy conspicuous sites; but in general the external form is no index to the internal construction, and gives no absolute indication of the nature of the sepulchral usages. Thus, while the long barrow is characteristic of the Stone Age, it is impossible to tell without direct examination whether it may be chambered or unchambered, or whether the burials within it may be those of burnt or of unburnt bodies.

In England the long barrow usually contains a single chamber, entering by a passage underneath the higher and wider end of the mound. In Denmark the chambers are at irregular intervals along the body of the mound, and have no passages leading into them. The long barrows of Great Britain are often from 200 to 400 feet in length by 60 to 80 feet wide. Their chambers are rudely but strongly built, with dome-shaped roofs, formed by overlapping the successive courses of the upper part of the side walls. In Scandinavia, on the other hand, such dome-roofed chambers are unknown, and the construction of the chambers as a rule is megalithic, five or six monoliths supporting a capstone of enormous size. Such chambers denuded of the covering mound, or over which no covering mound has been raised, are popularly known in England as "cromlechs" and in France as "dolmens." The prevailing mode of sepulture in all the different varieties of these structures is by the deposit of the body in a contracted position, accompanied by weapons and implements of stone, occasionally by ornaments of gold, jet, or amber. Vessels of clay, more or less ornate in character, which occur with these early interments of unburnt bodies, are regarded as food vessels and drinking cups, differing in character and purpose from the cinerary urns of the Cremation Period in which the ashes of the dead were deposited.

The custom of burning the body commenced in the Stone Age before the long barrow or the cromlech, with their contracted burials, had passed out of use. While cremation is rare in the long barrows of the south of England, it is the rule in those of Yorkshire and the north of Scotland. In Ireland, where the long barrow form is all but unknown, the round barrow, or chambered cairn, prevailed from the earliest Pagan period till the introduction of Christianity. The Irish barrows occur in groups in certain localities, which seem to have been the royal cemeteries of the tribal confederacies, whereof eight are enumerated in an ancient Celtic manuscript on Pagan cemeteries. The best known of these was the burial-place of the kings of Tara. It is situated on the banks of the Boyne above Drogheda, and consists of a group of the largest cairns in Ireland. One of these, at New Grange, is a huge mound of stones and earth, over 300 feet in diameter at the base, and 70 feet in height. Around its base are the remains of a circle of large standing stones. The chamber, which is 20 feet high in the centre, is reached by a passage 70 feet in length. (See illustration, vol. ii. p. 384.)

As in the case of the long barrows, the traditional form

of the circular chambered barrows was retained through various changes in the sepulchral customs of the people, and we find it used both in connection with burnt and with unburnt burials. It was the natural result of the practice of cremation, however, that it should induce a modification of the barrow structure. The chamber, no longer regarded as a habitation to be tenanted by the deceased, became simply a cist for the reception of the urn which held his ashes. The degradation of the chamber naturally produced a corresponding degradation of the mound which covered it, and the barrows of the Bronze Age, in which cremation was the rule, are smaller and less imposing than those of the Stone Age, but often surprisingly rich in the relics of the life and of the art workmanship of the time. In addition to the varied and beautiful forms of implements and weapons,—frequently ornamented with a high degree of artistic taste,—armlets, coronets, or diadems of solid gold, and vases of elegant form and ornamentation in gold and bronze, are not uncommon. The barrows of the Bronze Period, like some of those of the Stone Age, appear to have been used as tribal or family cemeteries. In Denmark as many as seventy deposits of burnt interments have been observed in a single mound, indicating its use as a burying-place throughout a long succession of years.

In the early Iron Age there was a partial return to the more massive construction of the earlier periods. Sometimes chambers are found formed of timber instead of stones, in which the bodies were deposited unburnt, although the custom of cremation was largely continued. In Scandinavia both of these modes of sepulture lingered till the close of the Pagan time. One of the latest examples of the great timber-chambered barrow is that at Jellinge in Jutland, known as the barrow of Thyre Danebod, queen of King Gorm the Old, who died about the middle of the 10th century. It is a mound about 200 feet in diameter, and over 50 feet in height, containing a chamber 23 feet long, 8 feet wide, and 5 feet high, formed of massive slabs of oak. Though it had been entered and plundered in the Middle Ages, a few relics, overlooked by its original violators, were found when it was recently reopened, among which were a silver cup, ornamented with the interlacing work characteristic of the time, and some personal ornaments. It is highly illustrative of the tenacity with which the ancient sepulchral usages were retained even after the introduction of Christianity that King Harald, son and successor of Gorm the Old, who is said to have Christianized all Denmark and Norway, followed the Pagan custom of erecting a chambered tumulus over the remains of his father, on the summit of which was placed a rude pillar-stone, bearing on one side the memorial inscription in Runes, and on the other a representation of the Saviour of mankind distinguished by the crossed nimbus surrounding the head. The Kings' Hows at Upsala in Sweden rival those of Jellinge in size and height. In the chamber of one of them, which was opened in 1829, there was found an urn full of calcined bones; and along with it were some ornaments of gold showing the characteristic workmanship of the 5th and 6th centuries of the Christian era. Along with the calcined human bones were bones of animals, among which those of the horse and the dog were distinguished. In much earlier times the favourite horse or dog of the deceased was frequently deposited in Etruscan tombs, and the custom continued in Northern Europe until cremation, and the barbarous rites which usually accompanied it, were abolished by the stringent prohibitions of the Christian church.

Comparing the results of the researches in European barrows with such notices of barrow-burial as may be gleaned from early writings, we find them mutually illustrative.

The Homeric account of the building of the barrow of Hector (*Il.* xxiv.) brings vividly before us the scene so often suggested by the examination of the tumuli of prehistoric times. During nine days wood was collected and brought, in carts drawn by oxen, to the site of the funeral pyre. Then the pyre was built and the body laid upon it. After burning for twenty-four hours the smouldering embers were extinguished with libations of wine. The white and calcined bones were then picked out of the ashes by the friends and placed in a metallic urn, which was deposited in a hollow grave, or cist, and covered over with large well-fitting stones. Finally, a barrow of great magnitude was heaped over the remains, and the funeral feast was celebrated. The obsequies of Achilles, as described in the *Odyssey*, were also celebrated with details which are strikingly similar to those observed in tumuli both of the Bronze and Iron Ages. The body was brought to the pile in an embroidered robe, and jars of unguents and honey were placed beside it. Sheep and oxen were slaughtered at the pile. The incinerated bones were collected from the ashes and placed in a golden urn along with those of Patroclus, Achilles's dearest friend. Over the remains a great and shapely mound was raised on the high headland, so that it might be seen from afar by future generations of men.

Herodotus, describing the funeral customs of the Scythians, states that, on the death of a chief, the body was placed upon a couch in a chamber sunk in the earth and covered with timber, in which were deposited all things needful for the comfort of the deceased in the other world. One of his wives was strangled and laid beside him, his cup-bearer and other attendants, his charioteer, and his horses, were killed and placed in the tomb, which was then filled up with earth, and an enormous mound raised high over all. The barrows which cover the plains of ancient Scythia attest the truth of this description. A Siberian barrow, described by Demidoff, contained three contiguous chambers of unhewn stone. In the central chamber lay the skeleton of the ancient chief, with his sword, his spear, his bow, and a quiver full of arrows. The skeleton reclined upon a sheet of pure gold, extending the whole length of the body, which had been wrapped in a mantle brodered with gold and studded with precious stones. Over it was extended another sheet of pure gold. In a smaller chamber at the chief's head lay the skeleton of a female, richly attired, extended upon a sheet of pure gold, and similarly covered with a sheet of the same metal. A golden chain adorned her neck, and her arms were encircled with bracelets of pure gold. In a third chamber, at the chief's feet, lay the skeleton of his favourite horse with saddle, bridle, and stirrups.

So curiously alike in their general features were the sepulchral usages connected with barrow-burial over the whole of Europe, that we find the Anglo-Saxon Saga of Beowulf describing the chambered tumulus with its gigantic masonry "held fast on props with vaults of stone," and the passage under the mound haunted by a dragon, the guardian of the treasures of heathen gold which it contained. Beowulf's own burial is minutely described in terms which have a strong resemblance to the parallel passages in the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. There is first the preparation of the pile, which is hung round with helmets, shields, and coats of mail. Then the corpse is brought and laid in the midst; the pile is kindled, and the roaring flame rises, mingled with weeping, till all is consumed. Then, for ten long days, the warriors labour at the rearing of his mighty mound on the headland, high and broad, to be seen afar by the passers by on land and sea.

The pyramids of Egypt, the mausolea of the Lydian kings, the sepulchres of the Atræidæ at Mycenæ, and the Etruscan tombs at Cære and Volci, are lineally descended

from the chambered barrows of prehistoric times, modified in construction according to the advancement of architectural art at the period of their erection. There is no country in Europe destitute of more or less abundant proofs of the almost universal prevalence of barrow-burial in early times. It can be traced on both sides of the basin of the Mediterranean, in Northern Africa, and in Asia Minor, across the plains of Mesopotamia, in the valley of Cabul, and throughout Western India. But more extended research in the archaeology of these vast regions is needed to enable us to correlate their ancient remains with those of the European continent.

In the New World as well as in the Old, the same customs prevailed over vast areas from a very remote period. In the great plains of North America the dead were buried in barrows of enormous magnitude; which occasionally present a remarkable similarity to the long barrows of Great Britain. In these mounds cremation appears more frequently than inhumation; and both are accompanied by implements, weapons, and ornaments of stone and bone. The pottery accompanying the remains is often elaborately ornamented, and the mound builders were evidently possessed of a higher development of taste and skill than is evinced by any of the modern aboriginal races, by whom the mounds and their contents are regarded as utterly mysterious.

It is not to be wondered at that customs so widely spread and so deeply rooted as those connected with barrow-burial should have been difficult to eradicate. In fact, compliance with the Christian practice of inhumation in the cemeteries sanctioned by the church, was only enforced in Europe by capitularies denouncing the punishment of death on those who persisted in burying their dead after the Pagan fashion or in the Pagan mounds. Yet even in the Middle Ages kings were buried with their swords and spears, and queens with their spindles and ornaments; the bishop was laid in his grave with his crozier and comb, his chalice and vestments; and clay vessels filled with charcoal (answering to the urns of heathen times) are found with the interments in the churches of France and Denmark.

See Bateman, *Ten Years' Diggings*; Davis and Thurnam, *Crania Britannica*; Thurnam, "Ancient British Barrows," in *Archæologia*; Canon Greenwell, Dr Angus Smith, and J. Anderson, "On Cairns in Argyle and Caithness," in *Proceedings of the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland*; Petrie, *Histories and Antiquities of Tara, and Round Towers of Ireland*; Worsaae's *Antiquities of Denmark*, translated by Thoms; Nicolaysen, *Norske Fornlevninger*; Montelius, *La Suède Préhistorique*; Cochet, *La Normandie Souterraine*; Squier and Davis, *Ancient Monuments of the Mississippi Valley*; Stevens, *Flint Chips*; Ferguson, *Stone Monuments of all Countries*. (J. AN.)

BARROW'S STRAITS, a portion of the channel which runs W. from Baffin's Bay through the islands of the Arctic archipelago to Melville Sound. It lies between 73° 45' and 74° 40' N. lat., is about 200 miles in length, and has an average breadth of 60 or 70 miles. In many places it is upwards of 200 fathoms in depth. The coasts on both sides are generally steep and rugged, with numerous bays and inlets, the most important of which is the Prince Regent Inlet, which runs S. into the Gulf of Boothia.

BARRY, SIR CHARLES, a distinguished English architect, was born at Westminster, May 23, 1795. After pursuing his elementary professional studies for six years as apprentice to a firm of architects at Lambeth, he set out, in 1817, on the customary foreign tour, visiting Greece and Italy, Egypt and Palestine, and enriching his memory and imagination by the study of the great buildings and remains of former ages. On his return to England in 1820 he settled in London, and was not slow in attaining distinction. One of the first works by which his abilities as an architect became generally known was the church of St Peter at Brighton,—an attempt in Perpendicular Gothic

completed in 1826. He built many other churches; but the marked preference for Italian architecture, which he acquired during his travels, showed itself in various important undertakings of his earlier years. In 1831 he erected the Travellers' Club in Pall Mall, a splendid work in the Italian style, and the first of its kind built in London. In the same style and on a grander scale, he erected, some years later, the Reform Club. It is unnecessary to particularize the numerous private mansions on which he was engaged, one of the latest and most magnificent of which was Bridgewater House, the town residence of the earl of Ellesmere. Birmingham possesses one of his best works in the buildings of King Edward's grammar school, in the Tudor style. For Manchester he designed the Athenæum, in the Italian style; and for Halifax, the town-hall. He was engaged for some years in reconstructing the Treasury buildings, Whitehall. But his masterpiece, and perhaps, notwithstanding all unfavourable criticism, the masterpiece of English architecture of the 19th century, is the new palace at Westminster. After the destruction of the old houses of parliament by fire in October 1834, Barry was the successful competitor for erecting the new palace. The first stone was laid in the spring of 1840; the work was steadily carried on in the face of many difficulties, and through a maze of private dissensions and public complaints, and it was at length completed in 1860. Twenty years seemed long in passing, but once past the time assuredly will no more seem too long to have been employed in the erection, or, we might say, allowed for the growth of this stately and beautiful pile, one of the truest glories of the banks of the Thames. Barry was elected A.R.A. in 1840, and R.A. in the following year. His genius and achievements were recognized by the representative artistic bodies of the principal European nations; and his name was enrolled as a member of the academies of art at Rome, Berlin, St Petersburg, Brussels, and Stockholm. He was chosen F.R.S. in 1849, and was knighted by the Queen in 1852. He died suddenly at Clapham, near London, May 12, 1860, and his remains were interred in Westminster Abbey. In 1867 appeared a life of Sir Charles Barry by his son, Dr Alfred Barry, principal of King's College, London. A claim was thereupon set up on behalf of Mr A. Welby Pugin deceased, who had been Barry's assistant, to a much larger share in the work of designing the Westminster Palace than was admitted in Dr Barry's narrative. The controversy raged for a time, but without substantiating Mr Pugin's claim.

BARRY, JAMES, an eminent painter, was born at Cork on the 11th October 1741. His father had been a builder, and, at one time of his life, a coasting trader between the two countries of England and Ireland. To this business of trader James was destined, and he actually made, when a boy, several voyages; but these being forced upon him, he on one occasion ran away from the ship, and on all others manifested such an aversion to the life and habits of a sailor, as to induce his father to relinquish all hopes of him in this line, and to suffer him to pursue his inclinations, which led strongly towards drawing and study. At the schools in Cork to which he was sent, he was distinguished above his school-fellows by his talents and industry; his habits differed from those of ordinary boys; he seldom mixed in their games or amusements, but during play-hours stole off to his own room, where he worked at his pencil, or studied some book that he had borrowed or bought. As his industry was excessive, his advances in the acquisition of knowledge were rapid, and he was regarded as a prodigy by his school-fellows. About the age of seventeen he first attempted oil painting, and between that and the age of twenty-two, when he first went to Dublin, he produced several large pictures, which decorated his father's house,