

enough to notice here that it is called by them the Great Vehicle, in contradistinction to that of the southern church, which they call, not without some contempt, the Little Vehicle; and the Great Vehicle, while holding fast to the real foundation of Buddhism, its ethical views of self-conquest and charity, has in fact developed an entirely new religion. This is based on the worship of Maitreya, the Dhyāni-buddhas, Manjūsrī, and Avalōkīteswara, personifications respectively of charity, meditation, serenity, and wisdom. The first of these appears in ancient Buddhism as the name of the Buddha to come, and the last is the holy spirit of the northern Buddhist church. Among the Dhyāni-buddhas, who are philosophical abstractions corresponding to the earthly Buddhas, Amitābha, *i. e.*, Infinite Light, is the heavenly counterpart of Gautama, and soon took the most important place. Avalōkīteswara "preceeded" from him, and manifests him to the world since the death of Buddha; and his worship in the 10th century of our era bore its full fruit in the invention of a being, Adibuddha, the origin of all things, who, using the wisdom within him, produced by meditation the five Dhyāni-buddhas, of whom Amitābha is the fourth,—a notion curiously similar to the theosophy of the Gnostics, and utterly opposed to the Agnostic materialism of Buddha.

In Tibet especially, the development in doctrine was followed by a development in ecclesiastical government, which runs so remarkably parallel with the development of the Romish hierarchy as to awaken an interest which could scarcely otherwise be found in the senseless and fatal corruptions which have overwhelmed the ancient Buddhist beliefs. The Buddhism introduced into that country in the 7th and 8th centuries of our era was a form of the Great Vehicle, already much corrupted by Siva-ism, a mixture of witchcraft and Hindu philosophy; but it worked a great change among the savage races who then inhabited those remote valleys. In the 13th century the country was possessed by independent chiefs, who struggled with the abbots of the great monasteries for power over the people; and the crozier proved itself in the long run more powerful than the sword. We then find the two leading priests or archbishops, the Pantshen Lāma and the Dalai Lāma, claiming to be official incarnations of Amitābha and Avalōkīteswara; and the latter as such succeeded in obtaining superior political and secular power, leaving to his brother pope his high ecclesiastical position and the aroma of holiness—a division of power which has again resulted in a Guelph and Ghibelin-like rivalry. Lāmaism, with its shaven priests, its bells and rosaries, its images and holy

water, its popes and bishops, its abbots and monks of many grades, its processions and feast-days, its confessional and purgatory, and its worship of the double Virgin, so strongly resembles Romanism, that the first Catholic missionaries thought it must be an imitation by the devil of the religion of Christ; and that the resemblance is not in externals only is shown by the present state of Tibet—the oppression of all thought, the idleness and corruption of the monks, the despotism of the Government, and the poverty and beggary of the people.

Of the sacred books of the Northern Buddhists, we have in the original debased Sanskrit only the "Lalita Vistara" a legendary life of Buddha, published in the *Bibliotheca Indica* at Calcutta, the translations of which are mentioned in the beginning of this article. Of the canon of the Southern Buddhists, which is about twice the length of our Bible, we have in the original Pāli only—1. the Dhammapāda, a collection of didactic poems edited by Mr Fausbøll of Copenhagen, with a Latin translation in 1855; 2. The Khuddaka Pātha, a small collection of hymns published by Professor Childers, with English translation, *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* for 1869; and 3. The Upasampāda-kammavācā, the ritual by which laymen are admitted to the order, published by Mr Dickson in the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* for 1873. The Pātimokkha, a manual of the rules of the order in Pāli, has been published by Mr Minayeff with a Russian translation, in 1867. A fuller account by the writer of this article of all the work already accomplished in the editing of Pāli texts, dictionaries, and grammars, will be found in the *Report of the Philological Society* for 1875. Of European works on Buddhism the following are the most important, and references will be found in them to the many smaller treatises on the subject:—Eugène Burnouf, *Introduction à l'histoire du Bouddhisme Indien*, 1844, and *Le Lotus de la Bonne Loi*, 1852; The Rev. Spence Hardy's *Eastern Monachism*, 1850, *Manual of Buddhism*, 1860, and *Legends and Theories of the Buddhists*, 1866, all compiled from Sinhalese sources; Bishop Bigandet's *Legend of the Burmese Buddha*, 1858, 2d edition 1866; St Julien's *Histoire de la vie de Hiouen Tchang*, 1853, and *Mémoires sur les contrées occidentales*, 1856; Professor Lassen's *Indische Alterthumskunde*, vol. ii. 1849, 2d edition 1875; Wassilief *Der Buddhismus, seine Dogmen und Literatur*, 1860, of which a French translation appeared in Paris in 1865; Köppen's *Religion des Buddha*, vol. i. on *Southern Buddhism*, 1857, vol. ii. on *Lāmaism*, 1859; The Rev. Samuel Beal's *Travels of Fa Hian and Sung Yün*, 1869, *Catena of Buddhist Scriptures from the Chinese*, 1871, and *Romantic History of Śākya Buddha from the Chinese-Sanskrit*, 1875; Captain Rogers's *Buddhaghosha's Parables* (from the Burmese), with introduction by Professor Max Müller, 1870; Schlagintweit's *Buddhismus in Tibet*, 1863; A. Schiefner, *Eine Tibetische Lebensbeschreibung Schakjamunis*, 1849; Hodgson, *Essays*, 1874. A very large number of other writings on Buddhism have also been published either separately or in different learned journals in Europe and India. Those who wish to refer to those papers will find a list, very complete up to date, of all works, large or small, on the subject in Otto and Ristner's *Buddha and his Doctrines*, a bibliographical essay published in 1869 by Messrs Trübner and Co. of London (T. W. R. D.)

BUDGELL, EUSTACE (1685-1736), a literary man of some eminence in his time, the son of Dr Gilbert Budgell, was born at St Thomas, near Exeter. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, from which he removed to the Inner Temple, London; but instead of studying law, he devoted his whole attention to literature. He was befriended by Addison, who was first cousin to his mother, and who, on being appointed secretary to Lord Wharton, lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1710, took Budgell with him as one of the clerks of his office. Budgell, who had read the classics and the best English, French, and Italian authors, took part with Steele and Addison in writing the *Tatler*. He was also a contributor to the *Spectator* and the *Guardian*,—his papers being marked with an X in the former, and with an asterisk in the latter. He was subsequently made under-secretary to Addison, chief secretary to the lords justices of Ireland, and deputy-clerk of the council, and was afterwards chosen a member of the Irish parliament. In 1717, when Addison became principal secretary

of state in England, he procured for Budgell the place of accountant and comptroller-general of the revenue in Ireland. But the next year, the duke of Bolton being appointed lord-lieutenant, Budgell wrote a lampoon against Mr Webster, his secretary, in which the duke himself was not spared. This led to his removal from his post of accountant-general, upon which he returned to England, and, contrary to the advice of Addison, published his case in a pamphlet. In the year 1720, he lost £20,000 by the South Sea scheme, and afterwards spent £5000 more in unsuccessful attempts to get into parliament. This completed his ruin. He at length employed himself in writing pamphlets against the ministry, and published many papers in the *Craftsman*. In 1733 he began a weekly periodical called the *Bee*, which he continued for above a hundred numbers. By the will of Dr Matthew Tindal, who died in 1733, a legacy of 2000 guineas was left to Budgell; but the bequest (which had, it was alleged, been inserted in the will by Budgell himself) was successfully disputed by

Tindal's nephew and nearest heir, the continuator of Rapin's *History of England*. Hence the satirist—

"Let Budgell charge low Grub Street on my quill,
And write whate'er he please—except my will."

It was thought that he had some hand in publishing Dr Tindal's *Christianity as Old as the Creation*; for he often talked of an additional volume on the subject, but never published it. After the cessation of the *Bee*, he became so involved in lawsuits that he was reduced to very distressing straits. He then studied law, and was called to the bar, attending the courts for some time; but being unable to make any progress, and finding his prospects utterly ruined, he determined to put an end to his life. Accordingly, in 1736, he took a boat at Somerset-stairs, after filling his pockets with stones, ordered the waterman to shoot the bridge, and while the boat was passing under it threw himself into the river. On his desk was found a slip of paper with the words—"What Cato did, and Addison approved, cannot be wrong."

Besides the works mentioned above, he wrote a translation of the *Characters* of Theophrastus. He never married, but left one natural daughter, who afterwards assumed his name, and became an actress at Drury Lane.

BUDGET (lit. a bag or small sack), the name applied to an account of the ways and means by which a minister of finance purposes to defray the expenditure of the state. In the United Kingdom the chancellor of the exchequer, usually in April, lays before the House of Commons a statement of the actual results of revenue and expenditure in the past finance year ending March 31, showing how far his estimates have been realized, and what surplus or deficit there has been in the income as compared with the expenditure. This is accompanied by another statement in which the chancellor gives an estimate of what the produce of the revenue may be in the year just entered upon, supposing the taxes and duties to remain as they were in the past year, and also an estimate of what the expenditure will be in the current year. If the estimated revenue, after allowing for normal increase of the principal sources of income, be less than the estimated expenditure, this is deemed a case for the imposition of some new, or the increase of some existing, tax or taxes. On the other hand, if the estimated revenue shows a large surplus over the estimated expenditure, there is room for remitting or reducing some tax or taxes, and the extent of this relief is generally limited to the amount of surplus realized in the previous year. The chancellor of the exchequer has to take parliament into confidence on his estimates, both as regards revenue and expenditure; and when the taxation and expenditure obtain the assent of parliament, the results as thus adjusted become the final budget estimate for the year. This system of annual review and adjustment of the public finances obtains not only in the British colonies, but is carried out, with remarkable despatch for so great an empire, in British India. The Indian budget, giving the results of income and expenditure in the year ending December 31, and the prospective estimates, is laid before the Imperial Parliament in the course of the ensuing session. The budget, though modified by different forms, has also long been practised in France, the United States, and other constitutional countries, and of late years has in some cases been adopted by arbitrary powers. Russia began the publication of annual budgets in 1866; Egypt has followed the example; and Turkey, if financially reinstated, will have to submit to a more strict account of her income and expenditure. Apart from national budgets, to be discriminated (1) as budgets passing under parliamentary scrutiny and debate from year to year, and (2) budgets emitted on executive authority, there are in all the greater countries local and municipal taxations and expendi-

tures of only less account than the national. The ordinary budget of the city of Paris has increased from £1,600,000 in the reign of Louis Philippe to £8,000,000 at the present time; while the extraordinary budget, relating chiefly to public improvements and the city debt, is over £4,000,000 more. In federal governments, such as the United States, the German Empire, or the Argentine Republic, the budgets of the several states of the federation have to be consulted, as well as the federal budget, for a knowledge of the finances. The local taxation of the United Kingdom is equal to nearly one half the imperial revenue, and requires in its various provinces the same process of examination. The budget is an essential part of the machinery of representative Governments; and in the rapid progress of state loans, it has begun to be acknowledged by despotic Governments as a necessary basis of confidence between them and their creditors.

BUDWEIS (in Bohemian, *Ceske Budejovice*) the capital of a circle in the Austrian kingdom of Bohemia, is situated on the right bank of the Moldau, at its junction with the Malsch, in 48° 59' N. lat. and 14° 30' E. long. It is well built and partially fortified. Chief among its public buildings are the council house—a handsome structure, and the cathedral, with a great detached tower, built in 1500; it has also an episcopal palace, two gymnasiums, a theological seminary, a training college, a deaf and dumb institution, a theatre, a hospital, and a poorhouse; and a short distance to the north stands the castle of Frauenburg, belonging to Prince Schwarzenberg. Its manufactures are very various, and comprise pottery, nails, wire, parquetry, musical instruments, black-lead pencils, sugar, beer, vinegar, and liqueurs. There are silver and gold mines in the mountains to the east of the town, which are still worked with considerable profit. The railway from Budweis to Linz, laid in 1827 for horse-cars, was the first line constructed in Germany. Budweis was founded by Ottocar II. in 1256, and was received into the number of privileged cities by Frederick II. In 1611 the town was captured by the people of Passau, but was retaken by the imperial general Bouquoi. In 1742, it was besieged by the Bavarians. Population in 1869, 17,413.

BUENOS AYRES, the largest and most important province of the Argentine Republic, is bounded on the N. by the Parana, which separates it from the province of Entre Rios, and by the provinces of Santa Fé, Cordova, and San Luis; on the E. by the Atlantic; on the S. by Patagonia; and on the S. and W. by the country of the Indians, which extends westwards to the Andes. The area of the province is estimated at about 440,000 square miles. Its seaboard along the Rio de la Plata and the ocean is upwards of 900 miles in length. According to the last census of 1869 the population was 488,706, of which 171,404 belong to the city of Buenos Ayres; in the present year (1876) it may be estimated at 600,000, of which 220,000 belong to the city, and 380,000 to the province. By the last returns the number of immigrants is from 60,000 to 90,000 per annum, the greater part of whom remain in the province of Buenos Ayres.

The general aspect of the country, as viewed from the sea, is eminently uninteresting. From the mouth of the Plata to the Bahia Blanca the sea-line presents an unbroken series of sand-dunes, varied here and there with low ridges of rock. From this latter point to the Patagonian frontier, the aspect of the coast is less monotonous, though equally destitute of life or interest. Though Buenos Ayres is the only province of the Argentine Republic that borders upon the sea, and though all the exports and imports of the country pass through it, it possesses very few harbours. One of these (that of the city of Buenos Ayres) is extremely bad; another (that of Bahia Blanca, near the southern

extremity of the province), possesses great natural advantages, which are by no means adequately appreciated. It might be turned to good account as a starting-point for vessels engaged in trade with the South American states that border upon the Pacific, but the difficult and sometimes dangerous navigation of the adjoining seas counterbalances in the meantime the other advantages which it offers. The interior of the country, except where it is intersected by the low mountain ranges of the Ventana and Vaulcan in its southern portions, and the spurs of the Andes in the west, is one vast plain, of which by far the larger part is laid out in *estancias*, or cattle farms, though the soil is in itself well adapted for producing all the European cerealia. Agricultural pursuits, however, are by no means in favour with the natives, who cannot bring themselves to engage in any pursuit that cannot be prosecuted on horseback. "Every man, woman, and child in the country rides," says Parish. "One might fancy one's self in the land of centaurs, amidst a population half-men, half-horses. Even beggars ride on horseback." Some of the cattle-farms are of immense extent; one in particular is mentioned by travellers as comprising more than 300 square miles of land, and yielding an enormous revenue to the proprietor. Some of the largest of them belong to British settlers, and are worked by British servants. The gattle were formerly hunted down and killed merely for the sake of their hides and tongues, while the carcasses were abandoned to beasts and birds of prey. They are now slaughtered in abattoirs, where every part of the animal is made available. The beef is salted for exportation; the tallow is boiled down, and now forms an important item in the farmer's revenue; and the trade in hides is steadily increasing. Beef and an infusion of the native tea are the staple food of the natives. In the province of Buenos Ayres there are 45,500,000 sheep, which give a yield of 136,500,000 lb unwashed wool; 5,116,000 cows; and 1,500,000 horses. This gives the unusual average of 200 sheep, 20 cows, and 6 horses to every inhabitant. The sheep-farms cover over 40,000,000 acres; and the number of shepherds may be estimated at 30,000, of whom at least a quarter are Irish or Scotch. The total value of exports from Buenos Ayres in 1872 was £9,148,638,—the most important being wool 203,610,000 lb, sheep-skins 72,970,000 lb, ox and cow-hides 3,121,758, jerked beef 916,220 qq., tallow 1,182,240 qq. The value of imports in 1872 may be stated approximately at £12,000,000, of which Great Britain contributed £3,800,000, France £3,200,000, Spain £800,000, Brazil £700,000, United States £700,000, Italy £600,000, Belgium £600,000, Germany £400,000, other countries £1,200,000.

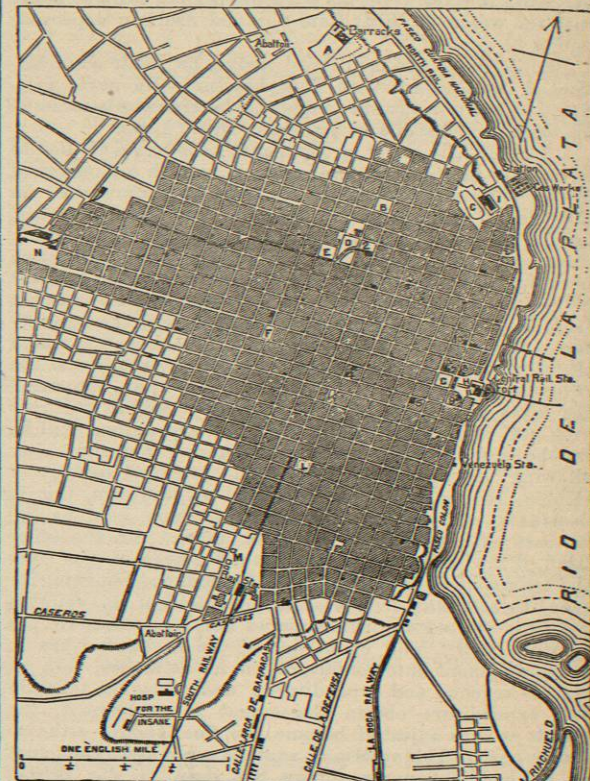
Of the cereals grown in Buenos Ayres the most important is maize, which is indigenous to the country. Wheat thrives well in the southern parts of the province, but the inhabitants rarely grow more than enough to supply their own necessities. In the event of a surplus it is commonly exported to Brazil. The vine, fig, orange, and olive have been introduced from the Old World, and are found to suit the climate admirably; but the most valuable of European fruits is the peach. A considerable fruit trade is carried on in coasting vessels by merchants for the most part Italian or French.

The geographical position of Buenos Ayres is such as to enable it completely to control the foreign commercial relations of the entire republic of which it forms a part. The exclusive policy which it has always pursued on this point has often involved it in serious quarrels, not only with many of the South American states and the other provinces of the Argentine Republic, but with England and France. Since the expulsion of General Rosas, the navigation of the Parana and Uruguay has been thrown open, and other measures have been taken to place both the province

and city of Buenos Ayres on a level with the other provinces of the republic.

The only towns of any importance, besides the capital, are San Nicolas, which is situated on the Parana, about 200 miles N.W. of Buenos Ayres, and contains a population of about 10,000; San Pedro, also on the Parana, about 150 miles from the capital, in the same direction, with a population of 1000; Chascomus, on a lake of the same name, a place of considerable importance; Dolores, 150 miles south of Buenos Ayres; Villa de Mercedes, Chivilcoy, Las Flores, and Belgrano.

BUENOS AYRES, the capital of the Argentine Republic and of the province of Buenos Ayres, is situated on the right bank of the estuary of the La Plata, in 34° 39' S. lat. and 58° 18' W. long. The river is at this point so wide that it is quite impossible with the naked eye to distinguish the



- Plan of Buenos Ayres.
- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| A Recoleta Cemetery. | H Plaza de Mayo and the Arcades. | 4. Victoria Theatre. |
| B Plaza Libertad. | I Plaza Monserrat. | 5. University and Museum. |
| C Plaza Marta or Del Retiro, and Statuo of General San Martin. | L Plaza Independencia. | 6. Colon Opera House. |
| D Plaza del Parque. | M Mercado Constitution and Railway Station. | 7. Archbishoppal Palace. |
| E Arsenal. | N Mercado de Septiembre and Railway Station. | 8. Cathedral. |
| F Plaza Lorea and Market. | 1. Barracks. | 9. Congress Hall. |
| G Plaza Victoria. | 2. Railway Station. | 10. Franco-Argentine Theatre. |
| | 3. Collisio Concert Hall. | 11. Custom House and Government House. |

opposite bank, and at the same time so shallow, that ships drawing 15 or 16 feet of water must anchor seven or eight miles from the city. Small craft generally anchor in what are called the inner roads, abreast of the city. The depth of water is never sufficient to admit of their coming to shore.

The town of Buenos Ayres is situated in a vast plain extending westwards to the Andes. The level uniformity of its outline is only broken by the spires of the various churches. The stranger, on landing, is struck with the

regularity of the streets, which are quite straight, and intersect each other at distances of 150 yards, forming squares like those of a chess-board, with the cleanly appearance of the houses, and the general air of independence that distinguishes the inhabitants. The houses till lately had never more than two stories, and commonly only one, the rooms of which open into each other, and were chiefly supplied with furniture of a very inferior description from the United States. A chimney was a thing unknown, and the old Spanish brazero alone was employed in heating the damp and white-washed rooms. A great change has, however, taken place in these respects within the last few years. A rage for building has prevailed, and now splendid edifices of three and four stories may be seen in every street. The furniture is now supplied from Europe, the walls are papered, grates and chimneys have come into fashion, and English coal is burned. These comforts are all the more valuable, as the climate of Buenos Ayres is one of the most humid and changeable in the world. The streets of the city are now tolerably paved with granite. They exceed eighty in number, thirty-one of them running from the river side due west, and fifty-one from north to south. The city is being provided with drainage and water supply, and is well lighted with gas. There are eleven parishes, containing sixteen Roman Catholic churches. There are two city hospitals, supported by the municipality, and four for foreigners, belonging to the English, French, Italian, and Irish communities. The theatres are five in number, and there is also a concert-hall. Five markets for the daily supply of the city with provisions are placed at convenient distances; and the *plazas* "11 de Setiembre" and "Constitution," are the great wool markets for the north and south districts of the camp. Floriculture is a favourite pursuit; and many English and Scotch gardeners have nurseries in the neighbourhood of the town.

Of the public buildings may be noticed the Government house, which is situated on the beach, a residence for the president of the Republic; the cathedral, which is surmounted by a handsome dome, and has a large portico with twelve Corinthian pillars; the cabildo or town-house, in which justice is administered; the churches of La Merced, San Francisco, and San Domingo; and the custom-house. The Plaza de la Victoria, round which some of these edifices are grouped, is the handsomest square in Buenos Ayres. In the centre of it is a handsome monument, erected as a memorial of the War of Independence. When the number of British residents in the town began rapidly to increase application was made to General Rosas for a site for a church. This was immediately granted, and the minister for the time being set an example of liberality and toleration to his countrymen by laying the foundation-stone of the edifice, which cost in all about £4000, half of which was defrayed by the British Government. The Scottish residents have built a small Presbyterian chapel, and the Roman Catholic portion of the English subjects are allowed the use of one of the national churches, in which a priest performs the service. In 1842 the Methodists erected a meeting-house, which is used by all denominations of the British Dissenters. The Protestant Germans, who are pretty numerous, have a church in connection with the Established Church of Prussia. To each of these places of worship schools are attached for children of both sexes. The facilities for education are very considerable, and of these the inhabitants avail themselves extensively. Besides the denominational schools already alluded to, there is a university, attended by about 500 students, and possessing a valuable library. The sons of the wealthier families of the city are very frequently sent to Europe to complete their education at some of the great schools and colleges in France and

England. The Buenos Ayreans inherit from their ancestors much of that passion for music which characterizes the Spaniard. Poetry also is much cultivated among them. Besides its university, Buenos Ayres contains many literary and scientific institutions. Of these the most important are the school of medicine, the academy of jurisprudence, a special academy of mathematics and the physical sciences, a normal school, and a society for the promotion of agriculture. The charitable societies, though not very numerous, are rather important. Spanish is the language spoken by the Buenos Ayrean descendants of the old Spanish settlers.

Buenos Ayres was founded in 1535 by a Spanish expedition under Don Jorge de Mendoza, who landing at this place after many hardships, bestowed upon it the name it now bears in commemoration of the fine weather which prevailed at that time. At first he endeavoured to conciliate the native Indians, but hostilities soon broke out, and, despite their utmost efforts, the Spaniards were obliged to abandon the new settlement; and after almost incredible difficulties succeeded in reaching Asuncion in Paraguay, with their numbers reduced by three-fourths. In 1580 another expedition under Don Juan de Garay took possession of the site of the old fort and established themselves there, founding cities and establishing settlements in every direction with such success that in 1620 a new government was erected, under the name of the government of the Rio de la Plata. Buenos Ayres became the capital, and the seat of a new bishopric created at this time by Pope Paul V., at the request of Philip III. of Spain. After the lapse of a century, Buenos Ayres began to rise into such importance as to excite the jealousy and alarm of the home Government. The insane restrictions imposed upon her foreign and internal commerce led only to continual heart-burnings with the parent country, and Buenos Ayres soon became a rendezvous for the smugglers of such nations as were strong enough to set Spain at defiance. After numerous modifications of its government, and of its relations to the parent state, the provinces of the Rio de la Plata were in 1776 erected into a vice-royalty, of which Buenos Ayres continued to be the capital. Two years later the old commercial restrictions were abolished and a new commercial code promulgated, so liberal as to be called the "Free-Trade Regulations." According to the old system the Buenos Ayreans were only allowed to export merchandise to the Portuguese settlements in Brazil, and the quantity was limited to 2000 fanegas of wheat, 500 quintals of jerked beef, and 500 of tallow. All intercourse with other countries was strictly prohibited. By the new system, nine ports in Spain, and twenty-four in the colonies were declared *puertos habilitados*, or ports of entry. The effects of the new policy was immediately visible. Of hides, for instance, the staple commodity of the country, the exports to Spain before 1778 only amounted to 150,000 annually; after that year they rose to from 700,000 to 800,000. In 1805, and again in 1807, the British invaded Buenos Ayres; and though the natives applied for assistance to the home authorities, they were told that they must defend themselves as they best might, as Spain could send them no help. They accordingly rose in arms, and twice expelled the invaders. In the following year they were threatened with invasion by the prince regent of Portugal. The resolution which they displayed on the occasion prevented that prince from insisting upon his claims. In 1810 the circumstances of the country involved the establishment of a provisional junta,—a policy which was construed by the Spanish Cortes into an act of rebellion. A civil war ensued; and Ferdinand, on his restoration after the expulsion of the French from Spain, instead of trying to conciliate the malcontents by timely concessions, obstinately refused to accede to their lawful demands. The result of this was that, on the 9th of July 1816, deputies from the provinces of the Rio de la Plata assembled in congress at Tucuman, solemnly declared their separation from Spain, and their determination to constitute a free and independent state. Buenos Ayres continued to be the capital of the new republic, which was governed by authorities constituted in that city. The exclusive policy of the capital soon bred discontent in the provinces, the governors of which began to cry out for a federation in opposition to the Central Government of Buenos Ayres. By their influence the new constitution, which conferred on a chief magistrate residing in the capital very extensive civil and military powers over the whole republic, was repudiated, and a civil war was the consequence. Various assemblies were held, and attempts were made to establish the constitution on a sufficiently wide basis to reconcile the interests of all parties—but always without success; and from 1827 till the expulsion of Rosas in 1852, no meetings of the constituent assembly took place. After 1827, the confederation was obliged to delegate to the Executive Government of Buenos Ayres the undivided charge of the national business, such as the management of the public debt, the maintenance of relations with foreign powers,

the defence of the country in the event of war, &c. While these internal dissensions were going on, war was declared between the young confederation and the empire of Brazil, and Buenos Ayres was blockaded for a year and a half by a Brazilian fleet. In 1828, however, the siege was raised by the intervention of the English, and by the decisive battle that took place at Ituzaingo favourable to the Argentine arms. This foreign war thus ended, the civil war broke out once more, and was only temporarily checked by the accession of General Rosas to power in 1835. Aiming at territorial aggrandizement, Rosas soon became involved in war with the neighbouring states of Paraguay and Uruguay. England, France, and Brazil interfered, with the intention of effecting an amicable arrangement between the belligerents. Rosas rejected their mediation; and the united fleets of England and France took possession of the Buenos Ayrean fleet which was engaged in the siege of Monte Video, and opened the navigation of the Parana to the merchantmen of all nations. In the subsequent operations Rosas sustained severe losses, yet obstinately refused to yield. In 1848 the English fleet returned home, and was followed by the French in the following year. Brazil was now left to carry on the war alone, but she found ready allies in some of the provinces of the Argentine Confederation, which had long regarded with hatred and aversion the supremacy arrogated by Buenos Ayres. With the assistance of these and the adjoining states of Uruguay and Paraguay, a large army was raised, which, under the command of General Urquiza, defeated Rosas at the battle of Monte Caseros, February 3, 1852. Rosas after his downfall fled to England. Urquiza was appointed provisional director of the confederation; but the Buenos Ayreans protested against his policy, which threatened to undermine the prerogatives they had been long struggling to secure. Civil war again broke out; and in 1853 Buenos Ayres was besieged by the forces of the other states of the confederation. On the 20th of June the siege was raised, and a temporary accommodation effected.

Since the establishment of the Argentine Republic in 1861 the city and province of Buenos Ayres have both very considerably developed their resources. In the province there are now 450 miles of railway, and 2228 miles of telegraph lines; in the city there are six lines of tramway, which traverse the town in every direction. Most of the railways and three of the tramway lines belong to English companies. There are thirteen different lines of steamers trading between Europe and the Port of Buenos Ayres. Population (1876) estimated at about 220,000.

BUFFALO, the English name of *Bubalus*, a genus of Ruminant Mammals, belonging to the family *Bovidae*, and including the well-known Indian and South African species. The Indian Buffalo (*Bubalus bubalus*) is characterized by its arched forehead, large horns compressed at the base, slightly triangular, and curved in the form of a half moon, and its thick hide covered sparingly with coarse hairs, which become still more scanty in aged individuals. It is a native of India and of the islands forming the Indo-Malay Archipelago, where it now occurs in a state of domestication, and forms a valuable beast of burden; but although it has for ages been under the control of man, the *Bainsha* or tame buffalo shows little or no variation from the wild form. The *Arna* or Wild Buffalo is found in great herds throughout India and the adjacent islands, frequenting swampy grounds in the neighbourhood of woods, eating the long, coarse grass which abounds in such localities, and loving above all things to roll itself in mire, or to plunge up to the ears in any pool or stream it may come upon. This fondness for moisture is equally marked in the tame variety, and is decidedly inconvenient when the animal, laden with goods, yields to its instinct and lies down in any stream that may cross its path. The rutting season occurs in autumn, when several females follow a single male, forming for the time a small herd. The period of gestation lasts for ten months, and the female produces one or two calves at a birth. The *Arna* is a powerful and courageous animal, capable it is said of overthrowing an elephant, and generally more than a match even for the male tiger, which usually declines the combat when not impelled to it by hunger. The Indian driver of a herd of tame buffaloes does not shrink from entering a tiger-frequented jungle, his cattle, with their massive horns, making short work of any tiger that may come in their way. Buffalo fights and fights between buffaloes and tigers form principal features in the public entertainments of Indian princes. In Ceylon the

buffalo is put to more useful purposes, where, according to Tennent, the natives make an ingenious use of it when shooting waterfowl in the salt marshes. "Being an object to which the birds are accustomed, the Singhalese train the buffaloes to the sport, and concealed behind the animal, browsing listlessly along, they guide it by ropes attached to its horns, and thus creep undiscovered within shot of the flock." These are known as "sporting buffaloes." The domestic buffalo has spread from its original home in India over the greater part of Southern Asia and of North Africa, and was introduced towards the close of the 6th century into Greece and Italy, forming an invaluable beast of burden in the marshy districts of those countries, where the great breadth of its feet, somewhat resembling in this respect those of the reindeer, give it a decided advantage over the horse and ox. It grazes in herds in the Pontine marshes, where, according to Scaliger, it will lie for hours submerged almost to the muzzle. The milk of the buffalo is plentiful and of excellent quality, the Hindoos making it into a kind of butter called *ghee*; its flesh, however, is not held in much estimation.

The Cape Buffalo (*Bubalus cafer*) is nearly equal in size and fully equal in strength and courage to its Indian congener, from which it is readily distinguished by the form of its horns, these being immensely broad at the base, where they approximate so closely as almost to meet, thus forming, especially in old bulls, a solid rugose mass impenetrable to bullet, and extending from the eye to the back of the head, then spreading horizontally and curving upwards and inwards to the tips, which are usually 4 feet apart. The hide, which is thick and tough, is thinly clad with hair, old animals being entirely naked with the exception of a slight fringe along the back and withers. This buffalo roams in herds over the plains of Central and Southern Africa, always in the near vicinity of water. Formerly herds sometimes numbered five or six hundred, but such has been the havoc wrought among them in recent years by hunters that rarely are they to be seen in companies of more than ten, while in the colonized portion of South Africa they are rapidly dying out. Nor is man their only enemy, for by night when he ceases to disturb they are liable to the attack of the lion, and by this means the wounded, of which there are great numbers, and the diseased are cut off. The Hon. W. H. Drummond, in his work on *The Large Game of South Africa* (1875), gives it as his opinion that in "a few years a buffalo will be as scarce as an elephant now is." This species has never been domesticated, probably owing more to the uncivilized condition of the native inhabitants than to any special intractability in the buffalo itself. Like its Indian ally it is fond of the water, which it visits at regular intervals during the twenty-four hours; it also plasters itself with mud which, when hardened by the sun, protects it from the bite of the great gadflies which in spite of its thick hide seem to cause it considerable annoyance. It is also relieved of a portion of the parasitic ticks, so common on the hides of thick-skinned animals, by means of the red-beaked rhinoceros birds, a dozen or more of which may be seen partly perched on its horns and partly moving about on its back, and picking up the ticks on which they feed. The hunter is often guided by these birds in his search for the buffalo, but oftener still they give timely warning to their host of the dangerous proximity of the hunter, and have thus earned the title of "the buffalo's guardian birds." The Cape Buffalo is the most formidable of the large game of South Africa. Generally, however, it attacks only when wounded, although "rogues" or "solitaires"—terms applied to old bulls which for some reason or other have been expelled from the herd and which wander about morose and savage—often attack without.