

I am stripped of all my honours; I am torn up by the roots and lie prostrate on the earth. . . . I am alone. I have none to meet my enemies in the gate. . . . I live in an inverted order. They who ought to have succeeded me have gone before me. They who should have been to me as posterity are in the place of ancestors."

A pension of £2500 was all that Burke could now be persuaded to accept. The duke of Bedford and Lord Lauderdale made some remarks in Parliament upon this paltry reward to a man who, in conducting a great trial on the public behalf, had worked harder for nearly ten years than any minister in any cabinet of the reign. But it was not yet safe to kick up heels in face of the dying lion. The vileness of such criticism was punished, as it deserved to be, in the *Letter to a Noble Lord* (1796), in which Burke showed the usual art of all his compositions in shaking aside the insignificances of a subject. He turned mere personal defence and retaliation into an occasion for a lofty enforcement of constitutional principles, and this, too, with a relevancy and pertinence of consummate skilfulness. There was to be one more great effort before the end.

In the spring of 1796 Pitt's constant anxiety for peace had become more earnest than ever. He had found out the instability of the coalition and the power of France. Like the thrifty steward he was, he saw with growing concern the waste of the national resources and the strain upon commerce, with a public debt swollen to what then seemed the desperate sum of £400,000,000. Burke at the notion of negotiation flamed out in the *Letters on a Regicidal Peace*, in some respects the most splendid of all his compositions. They glow with passion, and yet with all their rapidity is such steadfastness, the fervour of imagination is so skilfully tempered by close and plausible reasoning, and the whole is wrought with such strength and fire, that we hardly know where else to look either in Burke's own writings or elsewhere for such an exhibition of the rhetorical resources of our language. We cannot wonder that the whole nation was stirred to the very depths, or that they strengthened the aversion of the king, of Windham, and other important personages in the Government, against the plans of Pitt. The prudence of their drift must be settled by external considerations. Those who think that the French were likely to show a moderation and practical reasonableness in success, such as they had never shown in the hour of imminent ruin, will find Burke's judgment full of error and mischief. Those, on the contrary, who think that the nation which was on the very eve of surrendering itself to the Napoleonic absolutism was not in a hopeful humour for peace and the European order, will believe that Burke's protests were as perspicacious as they were powerful, and that anything which chilled the energy of the war was as fatal as he declared it to be.

When the third and most impressive of these astonishing productions came into the hands of the public, the writer was no more. Burke died on the 8th of July 1797. Fox, who with all his faults was never wanting in a fine and generous sensibility, proposed that there should be a public funeral, and that the body should lie among the illustrious dead in Westminster Abbey. Burke, however, had left strict injunctions that his burial should be private; and he was laid in the little church at Beaconsfield. It was the year of Campo Formio. So a black whirl and torment of rapine, violence, and fraud was encircling the Western World, as a life went out which, notwithstanding some eccentricities and some aberrations, had made great tides in human destiny very luminous. (J. M.)

BURKE, ROBERT O'HARA (1821-1861), one of the great explorers of the continent of Australia, was born in 1821 at St Clerans in Galway, Ireland. He left the Belgian college where he had been educated to enter the military

service of Austria, but in 1848 returned to Ireland, and obtained a post in the mounted police. He next went to Australia, and served for some time as police-inspector, first in Melbourne and then in the district of Beechworth, till the outbreak of the Crimean War induced him to return to Europe to take part in the campaign. Peace was restored, however, before he arrived, and he accordingly went back to Australia and resumed his connection with the police force. In 1860 he was appointed one of the leaders of a Government exploring expedition, and in this capacity had the honour of being one of the first Europeans to traverse the continent from south to north. A short account of the enterprise—so brilliantly successful in its achievements and so disastrous in its termination—is given in the article AUSTRALIA, vol. iii. p. 106; and fuller details will be found in the *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society* for 1862. The remains of the explorer were interred by Howitt's relief party in 28° 20' S. lat. and 141° E. long.

BURLAMAQUI, JEAN JACQUES (1694-1748), a celebrated writer on natural law, was born at Geneva on the 24th June 1694. He received a careful education, and while passing through his university course devoted himself with such success to the study of ethics and law of nature, that at the age of twenty-five he was designated honorary professor. Before taking possession of his chair he travelled through France and England, and made the acquaintance of the most eminent writers of the period. On his return he began his lectures, and soon gained a wide reputation, from the simplicity of his style and the precision of his views. He continued to lecture for fifteen years, when he was compelled to resign from ill-health. His fellow-citizens at once elected him a member of the council of state, and he gained as high a reputation for his practical sagacity as he had for his theoretical knowledge. He died at Geneva on the 3d April 1748. His works were *Principes du Droit Naturel*, 1747, and *Principes du Droit Politique*, 1751. These have passed through many editions, and were very extensively used as text-books. The most convenient collected edition is that by Dupin, in 5 vols., 1820. Burlamaqui's style is simple and clear, and his arrangement of the material good. His fundamental principle may be described as rational utilitarianism, and it in many ways resembles that of Cumberland.

BURLINGTON, a city and port of entry of the United States, capital of Chittenden county, in Vermont, 38 miles N.W. of Montpelier, in 44° 27' N. lat., and 73° 10' W. long. It has a fine situation on the eastern shore of Lake Champlain, and is laid out with great regularity around a central square. Its principal buildings are the Vermont University (which occupies the summit of the slope on which the city is built), the Vermont Episcopal Institute, the court-houses, a jail, a custom-house, and a marine-hospital. The university was founded in 1791, and was endowed by the State with 29,000 acres of land,—to which in 1865 were added 150,000 acres of national grant by the incorporation of the agricultural college. There is a medical school attached. Burlington carries on an extensive trade in lumber, and has the most important share in the shipping traffic of the lake. Its harbour is defended by a breakwater, and a lighthouse was erected at the mouth of the bay in 1862. To the north of the Onion River, but united to Burlington by a bridge, lies the flourishing village of Winooski, with factories and mills. The history of Burlington only dates from 1783; its first church from 1795, and its incorporation as a city from 1864. Population in 1870, 14,387.

BURLINGTON, a city and port of entry of the United States in Burlington county, New Jersey, 18 miles N.E. of Philadelphia, on the Delaware, in 40° 5' N. lat. and 73°

10' W. long. It is well built, has an abundant supply of water, and forms a favourite summer resort for the inhabitants of Philadelphia. Its educational institutions are of considerable importance, and comprise an Episcopal college, founded in 1846; St Mary's Hall, also under Episcopal management; two large boarding schools; and a number of public schools, which are well endowed. There is also a town-hall and a valuable library. Though it has greatly declined with the rise of Philadelphia, Burlington still maintains a respectable shipping trade; in 1871 it had 131 vessels with a registered tonnage of 12,525. The first settlement of the city dates from 1667, and was principally due to a number of Quakers. New Beverly, as the place was originally called, grew rapidly in importance, and was the seat of the Government of New Jersey till 1790. It had a large trade with the West Indies, and was raised to the rank of a bishopric, Queen Anne endowing the church with an extensive estate. Population in 1870, 5817.

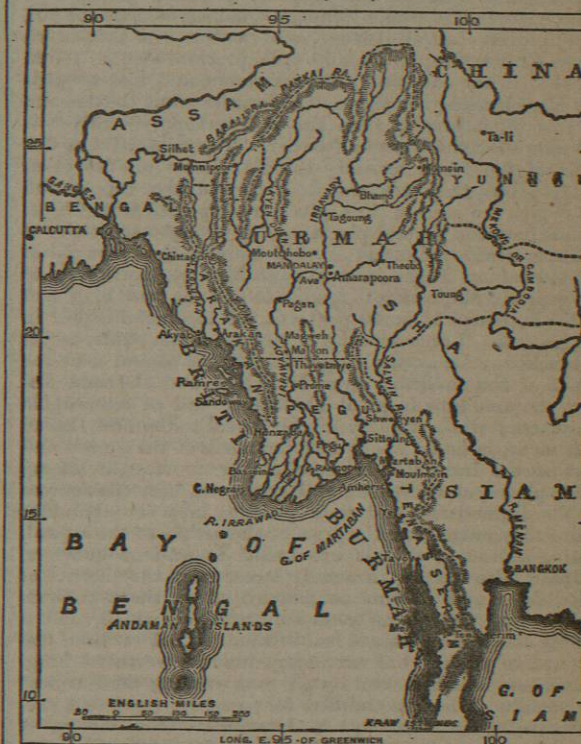
BURLINGTON, a city of the United States, the capital of the county of Des Moines in Iowa, on the right bank of the Mississippi, 207 miles by rail from Chicago. It occupies a natural amphitheatre formed by the limestone bluffs which slope backward from the river. Among the educational institutions the chief place is held by the Business College, founded in 1865, and the Baptist University, which dates from 1854. There are about eight public schools, fifteen churches, and a public library. The commercial activity of the city is very great, and is gradually increasing. Its industrial establishments comprise flour-mills, pork-packing warehouses, foundries, breweries, and soapworks; and the neighbourhood furnishes an abundant supply of coal, building stone, and lime. The city is also the centre of a considerable railway system. Laid out in 1834, it ranked for several years (1837-40) as the capital of Iowa. Population in 1860, 6706; in 1870, 14,933.

BURMAH. The Burman empire, or Independent Burmah, is situated in the S.E. of Asia, in the region beyond the mountains which form the eastern frontier of Bengal. It was formerly of very considerable extent, but its limits have been greatly contracted by British conquest. On the W. where it is continuous with the British territories in India, the Burman empire is bounded by the province of Arakan, surrendered to the British in 1826, the petty states of Tipperah and Munnepore, and the province of Assam, from which it is separated by lofty ridges of mountains; on the S. by the British province of Pegu, acquired in 1853; on the N. by Assam and Tibet; and on the E. by China and the Shan states. Its limits extend from 19° 30' to 28° 15' N. lat., and from 93° 2' to 100° 40' E. long., comprising a territory measuring 540 miles in length from north to south, and 420 in breadth, with an area of 190,520 English square miles.

That portion of Asia in which the Burman empire is situated slopes from the central mountains towards the south; and the Burmese territory is watered by four great streams, namely, the Irawadi and the Kyen-dwen, which unite their courses at 21° 50' N. lat., the Sittang or Pounloug, and the Salwin. The first two rivers have their sources somewhere in the northern chain of mountains in the interior, one head stream of the Irawadi probably coming from Tibet; the Salwin further to the east in Tibet; and the Sittang, which is the smallest of the four, in the hills to the S.E. of Mandalay; they all run in a southerly course to the Indian Ocean. The Irawadi and the Salwin are large rivers, which in the lower part of their course overflow the flat country on their banks during the season of the rains, and in the upper force their way through magnificent defiles. The former is navigable a considerable distance above Bhamo; but the latter is

practically useless as a means of communication, owing to the frequent obstacles in its channel. The Burmese empire with its present limits contains no maritime districts, and only isolated tracts of alluvial plain; it is in the main an upland territory, bounded at its southern extremity by a frontier line at the distance of about 200 miles from the mouths of the Irawadi, in 19° 30' N. lat. From this point the country begins to rise, and thence for about 300 miles farther it contains much rolling country intersected by occasional hill ranges; beyond this it is wild and mountainous.

Though inferior in point of fertility to the low-lying tracts of British Burmah, the upland country is far from being unproductive. The chief crops are rice (of which the Burmese count 102 different sorts), maize, millet, wheat, various pulses, tobacco, cotton, and indigo. The sugar cane appears to have been long known to the Burmese;



Sketch-Map of Burmah.

but, though the climate and soil are extremely favourable, it is not generally cultivated. A cheap and coarse sugar is obtained from the juice of the Palmyra palm, which abounds in the tract south of the capital. The cocoa and areca palms are not common. The tea-plant, which is indigenous, is cultivated in the hills by some of the mountain tribes at the distance of about five days' journey, and by others in still greater perfection at the distance of about ten days' journey, from the capital. It seems, however, to be another plant, probably the *Eleocharis persicum*, which furnishes the principal ingredient in the hlapét, or pickled tea, that forms one of the favourite condiments of Burmah. Cotton is grown in every part of the kingdom and its dependencies, but chiefly in the dry lands and climate of the upper provinces. Indigo is indigenous, and is universally cultivated, but in a very rude manner; it is still

more rudely manufactured, and is wholly unfit for exportation.

The most common fruits in Burmah are the mango, the orange, the citron, the pine, the custard apple, the jack, the papaya, and the plantain. The yam and the sweet potato are grown, but not extensively; the common potato is unknown. Onions are produced; and capsicum, which, after salt, is the most ordinary condiment used by the Burmese, is cultivated everywhere.

The forests of Burmah abound in fine trees. Among these the teak holds a conspicuous place; some of the finest teak forests were lost to the Burmese, however, with Pegu. Almost every description of timber known in India is produced in the Burmese forests, from which also an abundant supply is obtained of the varnish employed by the Shans and the Burmese in their manufacture of lacquered ware. Sticklac of an excellent quality is obtained in the woods.¹

Burmah is rich in minerals, and produces gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, antimony, bismuth, amber, coal, petroleum, nitre, natron, salt, limestone, and marble, the jade or yu of the Chinese, sapphires, and other precious stones. Gold is found in the sands of different rivers, and also towards the Shan territory on the eastern frontier; but the demand is very much greater than the native supply. Silver is got also near the Chinese frontier. The mountainous districts of the Shan territory contain almost all the other metals; but they are not worked, and the copper and tin, which are seen in the capital, are imported from China. Iron is found in several places, and is wrought especially at Poukpa, near a mountain of that name to the eastward of the old capital Pagán, and also at Maedoo, north-west of the capital; but, owing to ignorance and the want of proper methods, about 30 or 40 per cent. of the metal is lost in the process. Large deposits of rich magnetic oxide, as yet untouched, exist in the ridges east of the capital near the banks of the navigable river Myit-Ngé, and the same district contains lime in great abundance and of remarkable whiteness; while statuary marble, equal to the best Italian specimens, is found about 15 miles north of the capital and east of the Irawadi. Mines of amber are wrought, among other places, at Hookhong or Payendwen, near the sources of the Kyen-dwen, and their produce must be abundant if one may judge from the price of the article at the capital. Nitre, natron, and salt are found in various quarters. Sulphur also occurs in some places, as in the district of Silleh-Myo and in the neighbourhood of the petroleum wells; but the quantity is comparatively small, and a supply has to be obtained from China. Coal has been discovered in patches, but not in any quantity worth working. Petroleum, which is used by all ranks among the Burmese for burning in lamps, and also for smearing wood as a preservative against insects, is found near the village of Ye-nang-gyoung, on the banks of the Irawadi. Here are upwards of one hundred pits or wells, with a general depth of from 210 to 240 feet; though some of them are deeper, and reach to the depth of 300 feet. The shaft is of a square form, from 3 to 4 feet across, and lined with horizontal balks. The liquid appears to boil up from the bottom like an abundant spring, and is extracted in buckets, and sent to all quarters of the country. The annual yield is calculated at 11,690 tons. A good deal is now imported into England.²

The precious stones which are produced in the Burmese territories are chiefly the sapphire and the ruby. They are found about 60 or 70 miles in a north-east direction from the capital, over an area of about 100 square miles, by sinking pits in the gem beds. The varieties of the sapphire

¹ An article on the Burman flora, by S. Kurtz, will be found in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal* for 1874.

² See Appendix to Yule's *Narrative*.

found there are the *blue* or oriental sapphire, the *red* or oriental ruby, the *purple* or oriental amethyst, the *yellow* or oriental topaz, besides different varieties of chrysoberyl and spinelle. The Crown lays claim to the produce of these rivers; and all the stones that exceed the value of £10 are sent to the treasury.³ No stranger is ever permitted to approach the spots where these precious stones are found. The yu or jade mines are situated in the Mogoung district, about 25 miles south-west of Meinkhoam. During certain seasons no fewer than 1000 men—Shans, Chinese, Panthays, and Kakhyens—are engaged in the excavation of the stone, which is found in the form of rounded boulders, sometimes of considerable size. Each digger pays so much a month for the right of search, and all he finds becomes his own.⁴ Momien, in Yunnan, was formerly the chief seat of the manufacture of the jade, and still produces a considerable quantity of small articles.

The country of the Burmese, abounding in forests, affords extensive shelter to wild animals. The elephant and the rhinoceros—both the one-horned (*R. indicus*) and the two-horned (*R. sumatranus*)—are found in the deep forests of the country. The tiger and the leopard are numerous, as well as the wild hog, and several species of deer, such as the Indian roe, the axis, and the barking deer (*Cervus muntjac*). In the Irawadi is found, as far up as Bhamo, a peculiar kind of dolphin. The rivers and lakes abound with fish, from which the inhabitants prepare their favourite condiment of ngapee. A detailed description of several of the species will be found in Day's contributions to the *Proceedings of the Zoological Society*, 1869, 1870. Of birds, the jungle-fowl is common, and is seen in coveys in all the forests of the country; while domestic breeds, often of very large size, are kept in great numbers, not only for the sake of the eggs or the flesh, but also to afford amusement of a barbarous kind. Aquatic birds of various kinds are very numerous, such as geese, darters (*Flotus melanogaster*), scissor-bills (*Rhynchops nigra*), adjutants (*Leptoptilos argala*), pelicans, cormorants, cranes (*Grus antigone*, in Burmese *gyaja*), whimbrels, plovers, and ibises. There are also peacocks, and varieties of pheasants, partridges, and quails.⁵

The domestic animals are the ox, the buffalo, and the horse. Oxen are used for draught in the upper country, and buffaloes in the southern parts. They are of a good description, and, ranging in the luxuriant pastures of the plains, they commonly appear in high order. The buffalo is confined to agricultural labour, and the ox alone is used as a beast of burden or of draught. The Burman horses, which are rarely more than thirteen hands high, are never used but for riding. Elephants are kept for the pleasure of the king, and the taming of those that are newly caught is one of the favourite spectacles of the people. A white elephant (apparently an albino), when found, is greatly prized, and is kept at court as a sacred appendage of royalty. The dog is neglected, and is seen prowling about the streets, a prey to famine and disease. Cats are numerous; and about the capital a few goats and sheep, of a puny race, are kept more for curiosity than for use. A few asses are also seen, which are brought from China. The camel is not known.

The Burmese in person have the Mongoloid characteristics, common to the Indo-Chinese races, the Tibetans, and tribes of the Eastern Himalaya. They may be gene-

³ *Journal As. Soc. of Bengal*, 1833.

⁴ The specimens that are most highly prized are of an emerald green; but red and pale pink are also favourite colours.

⁵ An important addition to the natural history of the country has just been made by the representatives of the late Mr E. Blyth in the shape of a "Catalogue of the Mammals and Birds of Burmah," published as an extra number of the *Journal of the As. Soc. of Bengal*, 1875.

rally described as of a stout, active, well-proportioned form; of a brown but never of an intensely dark complexion, with black, coarse, lank, and abundant hair, and a little more beard than is possessed by the Siamese. The name they give their own race is Mram-má (as written), generally pronounced Ba-má, and from this the various forms of "Burmah" appear to have been taken. Besides the Burmese proper, there are numerous tribes of Paloungs, Toungthoos, Karens, and others toward the east, many of them in a state of semi-independence; and all round the northern frontier and along the ranges that traverse the upper regions, vast hordes of Kakhyens or Singphos maintain a rough, cateran life, and come down to levy black mail on the more peaceful inhabitants. The Shans constitute a great number of small principalities along the whole eastern border, subject some to Burmah, some to China, some to Siam, and in some cases owning a double allegiance, according to their position. The Shans everywhere profess Buddhism, and have some kind of literature and the traces of culture. To their race the Siamese themselves belong. The Kakhyens are square-faced, strong-jawed, and oblique-eyed. They are still in a low state of civilization, are destitute of letters, and continue in paganism. Their chiefs are supported by offerings in kind,—receiving, for example, a leg of every animal that is killed. One kind of industry—the manufacture of toddy and arrack—is extensively carried on, and the whole population are regular consumers of the produce.¹ Various other tribes, as the Pwons and the Kakoos, are scattered throughout the empire; but they are not of much individual importance. The population of the country has been variously estimated and grossly exaggerated by the ignorance of Europeans, who have raised it to 17,000,000, 19,000,000, and even 33,000,000. Mr Craufurd, on the best data that he could procure, rated the inhabitants at 22 to the square mile, which, under the now contracted limits of the empire, would give a total population of 3,090,000, and Colonel Yule estimated, in 1855, that, within the area between the British frontier and 24° N. lat., it probably did not exceed 1,200,000, while within the whole empire at its widest limits there were not more than 3,000,000. Count Bethlen states, in 1874, that he obtained statistics of the houses in Burmah from a Burmese official, which made the number 700,000, without including those among the Shans to the east of the Salwin; so that if we allow five inhabitants to each we have 3,500,000 for a total population, and if we include the Shans probably 4,000,000.

The Burmese government is a pure despotism, the king dispensing torture, imprisonment, or death, according to his sovereign discretion. The chief object of government seems to be the personal honour and aggrandizement of the monarch; and the only restraint on the exercise of his prerogative is the fear of an insurrection. He is assisted in his administration by a public and a privy council, known respectively as the Hlot-dau and the Byadeit; all questions, before they are submitted to the public advisers of his majesty, are debated in the privy council, which consists generally of four Atwen-woons, to whom are attached deputies, secretaries, and other officers (Tsaré dau-gyis, "great royal writers;" Than-dau-zens, "receivers of the royal voice"), who carry messages, and report from time to time the proceedings of the council to the king. The Hlot-dau also usually consists of four ministers or Woongyis, and is presided over by the crown-prince (Einsché-men, or lord of the eastern house). The paymaster-general is an officer of high importance; and the other officers of distinction are the king's armour-bearer and the master of the

¹ See for details regarding the Shans and Kakhyens Anderson's *Expédition to Eastern Yunnan*, ch. v. Appendix B contains a list of 200 words in the Shan, Kakhyen, Paloung, and Lessaw languages.

elephants, but the latter have no share in the administration of public affairs. The king may order any of those great officers to be punished at his pleasure; and a minister may, by his order, be seized by the public executioner, and laid at the side of the road for hours under the burning sun with a weight upon his breast; and after undergoing this disgraceful punishment, may continue to discharge his high function as before. The country at large is ruled by provincial governors, and is divided into provinces (or Myos), townships, districts, and villages. The civil, military, judicial, and fiscal administration of the province is vested in the governor, or Myo-woon, who exercises the power of life and death, though in all civil cases an appeal lies from his sentence to the chief council at the capital. In all the townships and villages there are judges with a subordinate jurisdiction. But from a mere detail of the provincial administration and judicial institutions of the Burmese, their extreme inefficiency can scarcely be known. No Burmese officer ever receives a fixed salary. The higher class is paid by an assignment either of land or of the labour and industry of a given portion of the inhabitants, and the inferior magistrates by fees, perquisites, and other emoluments; and hence extortion and bribery prevail amongst all the functionaries of the Burmese Government. Justice is openly exposed for sale; and the exercise of the judicial functions is so lucrative, that the two executive councils have by their encroachments deprived the regular judge of the greater part of his employment.

The Burmese laws are mainly contained in the *Dhammasat*, a code ascribed to Manu, but quite different from the Manu's Code of the Brahmans. It is said to have been introduced into Burmah from Ceylon by Buddaghosha, the traditional apostle of the Indo-Chinese nations.² The criminal code is barbarous and severe, and the punishments are shocking to humanity. Gang robbery, desertion from the king's service, robbing of temples, and sedition or treason, are considered the most heinous crimes, and are cruelly punished, the criminal being in some cases embowelled, or thrown to wild beasts. Decapitation is the general mode of execution, but crucifixion and fracture of the limbs are also practised, and women are usually put to death by the stroke of a bludgeon across the throat. For minor offences, fines, whipping, and imprisonments are the punishments adjudged. In important cases torture is applied both to principals and witnesses; and the jailers often torture their prisoners in order to extort money from them. The English and American prisoners during the war of 1824 were frequently tortured, and had to pay fines to the jailer in order to procure milder treatment. Trial by ordeal is sometimes resorted to, as well as other superstitious modes of procedure. The administration of justice, however vexatious and expensive, is far from efficient; and the police is as bad as can possibly be conceived.

There are no hereditary honours under the Burmese Government. All the public functionaries may be dismissed from their offices, and deprived of their rank at the caprice of the sovereign; while any subject, with the exception of a slave or outcast, may aspire to the first offices in the state, to which, in reality, persons of very mean origin do frequently attain. The great officers of Government hold the first rank after the king and the princes of the blood, and are distinguished by a chain or badge, which is the order of nobility, and of which there are different degrees, distinguished by the number of strings or small chains which compose the ornament. Three of open chain-work mark the lowest rank; three of neatly-twisted wire the next; there are then six, nine, twelve, and finally twenty-four, which the king alone is entitled to wear. But every article possessed

² A translation has been made into English by Richardson.