

abandoned. With the exception of an attack by the prince of Sacawadi in the end of August, the enemy allowed the British to remain unmolested during the months of July and August. This interval was employed by Sir A. Campbell in subduing the Burmese provinces of Tavoy and Mergui, and the whole coast of Tenasserim. This was an important conquest, as the country was salubrious and afforded convalescent stations to the sick, who were now so numerous in the British army that there were scarcely 3000 soldiers fit for duty. An expedition was about this time sent against the old Portuguese fort and factory of Syriam, at the mouth of the Pegu River, which was taken; and in October the province of Martaban was reduced under the authority of the British.

The rainy season terminated about the end of October; and the court of Ava, alarmed by the discomfiture of its armies, recalled the veteran legions which were employed in Arakán, under their renowned leader Maha Bandoola, in vain attempts to penetrate the British frontier. Bandoola hastened by forced marches to the defence of his country; and by the end of November an army of 60,000 men had surrounded the British position at Rangoon and Kemmendine, for the defence of which Sir Archibald Campbell had only 5000 efficient troops. The enemy in great force made repeated attacks on Kemmendine without success, and on the 7th December Bandoola was completely routed by Sir A. Campbell. The fugitives retired to a strong position on the river, which they again entrenched; and here they were attacked by the British on the 15th, and driven in complete confusion from the field.

Sir Archibald Campbell now resolved to advance on Prome, about 100 miles higher up the Irawadi River. He moved with his force on the 13th February 1825 in two divisions, one proceeding by land, and the other, under General Cotton, destined for the reduction of Donabew, being embarked on the flotilla. Taking the command of the land force he continued his advance till the 11th March, when intelligence reached him of the failure of the attack upon Donabew. He instantly commenced a retrograde march; on the 27th he effected a junction with General Cotton's force, and on the 2d April carried the entrenchments at Donabew with little resistance, Bandoola having been killed by the explosion of a bomb. The English general entered Prome on the 25th, and remained there during the rainy season. On the 17th September an armistice was concluded for one month. In the course of the summer General Morrison had conquered the province of Arakán; in the north the Burmese were expelled from Assam; and the British had made some progress in Cachar, though their advance was finally impeded by the thick forests and jungle.

The armistice having expired on the 17th October, the army of Ava, amounting to 60,000 men, advanced in three divisions against the British position at Prome, which was defended by 3000 Europeans and 2000 native troops. But the British still triumphed, and after several actions, in which the Burmese were the assailants and were partially successful, Sir A. Campbell, on the 1st December, attacked the different divisions of their army, and successively drove them from all their positions, and dispersed them in every direction. The Burmese retired on Meaday and afterwards on Mellone, along the course of the Irawadi, where they occupied, with 10,000 or 12,000 men, a series of strongly fortified heights and a formidable stockade. On the 26th they sent a flag of truce to the British camp; and a negotiation having commenced, peace was proposed to them on the following conditions:—1st, The cession of Arakán, together with the provinces of Mergui, Tavoy, and Yea; 2d, The renunciation by the Burmese sovereign of all claims upon Assam and the contiguous petty states; 3d, The

Company to be paid a crore of rupees as an indemnification for the expenses of the war; 4th, Residents from each court to be allowed, with an escort of fifty men; while it was also stipulated that British ships should no longer be obliged to unship their rudders and land their guns as formerly in the Burmese ports. This treaty was agreed to and signed, but the ratification of the king was still wanting; and it was soon apparent that the Burmese had no intention to sign it, but were preparing to renew the contest. On the 19th January, accordingly, Sir A. Campbell attacked and carried the enemy's position at Mellone. Another offer of peace was here made by the Burmese, but it was found to be insincere; and the fugitive army made at the ancient city of Pagán-Myo a final stand in defence of the capital. They were attacked and overthrown on the 9th February 1826; and the invading force being now within four days' march of Ava, Dr Price, an American missionary, who with other Europeans had been thrown into prison when the war commenced, was sent to the British camp with the treaty (known as the Treaty of Yandabo) ratified, the prisoners of war released, and an instalment of 25 lacs of rupees. The war was thus brought to a successful termination, and the British army evacuated the country.

For some years the relations of peace continued undisturbed. Probably the feeling of amity on the part of the Burmese Government was not very strong; but so long as the prince by whom the treaty was concluded continued in power, no attempt was made to depart from its main stipulations. That monarch, Phagyi-dau or NOUNGDAUGYI, however, was obliged in 1837 to yield the throne to a usurper who appeared in the person of his brother, KOUNBOUNGMIN or THARAWADI. The latter, at an early period, manifested not only that hatred of British connection which was almost universal at the Burmese court, but also the extremest contempt. For several years it had become apparent that the period was approaching when war between the British and the Burmese Governments would again become inevitable. The British resident, Major Burney, who had been appointed in 1830, finding his presence at Ava agreeable neither to the king nor to himself, removed in 1837 to Rangoon, and shortly afterwards retired from the country. Ultimately it became necessary to forego even the pretence of maintaining relations of friendship, and the British functionary at that time, Captain Macleod, was properly withdrawn, in 1840, altogether from a country where his continuance would have been but a mockery. The state of sullen dislike which followed was after a while succeeded by more active evidences of hostility. Acts of violence were committed on British ships and British seamen. Remonstrance was consequently made by the British Government, and its envoys were supported by a small naval force. The officers on whom devolved the duty of representing the wrongs of their fellow-countrymen and demanding redress, proceeded to Rangoon, the governor of which place had been a chief actor in the outrages complained of; but so far were they from meeting with any signs of regret, that they were treated with indignity and contempt, and compelled to retire without accomplishing anything beyond blockading the ports. A series of negotiations followed; nothing was demanded of the Burmese beyond a very moderate compensation for the injuries inflicted on the masters of two British vessels, an apology for the insults offered by the governor of Rangoon to the representatives of the British Government, and the re-establishment of at least the appearance of friendly relations by the reception of a British agent by the Burmese Government. But the obduracy of the king—known as the Pagán-men, who had succeeded his father in 1846—led to the refusal alike of atonement for past wrongs, of any expression of regret for the display of

gratuitous insolence, and of any indication of a desire to maintain friendship for the future. Another Burmese war was the result, the first shot being fired in January 1852. As in the former, though success was varying, the British finally triumphed, and the chief towns in the lower part of the Burmese kingdom fell to them in succession. The city of Pegu, the capital of that portion which, after having been captured, had again passed into the hands of the enemy, was recaptured and retained, and the whole province of Pegu was, by proclamation of the Governor-General, Lord Dalhousie, declared to be annexed to the British dominions on the 20th December 1852. No treaty was obtained or insisted upon,—the British Government being content with the tacit acquiescence of the king of Burmah without such documents; but its resolution was declared, that any active demonstration of hostility by him would be followed by retribution.

About the same time a revolution broke out which resulted in Pagán-men's dethronement. His tyrannical and barbarous conduct had made him obnoxious at home as well as abroad, and indeed many of his actions recall the worst passages of the history of the later Roman emperors. The prince of Mendoon, who had become apprehensive for his own safety, made him prisoner in February 1853, and was himself crowned king of Burmah towards the end of the year. The new monarch, known as Mendoon-men, has shown himself sufficiently arrogant in his dealings with the European powers, but has been wise enough to keep free from any approach towards hostility, and, indeed, has latterly displayed a desire to live on peaceful terms with the Indian Government. The loss of Pegu was long a matter of bitter regret, and he absolutely refused to acknowledge it by a formal treaty. In the beginning of 1855 he sent a mission of compliment to Lord Dalhousie, the Governor-General; and in the summer of the same year Major Arthur Phayre, *de facto* governor of the new province of Pegu, was appointed envoy to the Burmese court. He was accompanied by Captain (now Colonel) Henry Yule as secretary, and Mr Oldham as geologist, and his mission added largely to our knowledge of the state of the country; but in its main object of obtaining a treaty it was unsuccessful. It was not till 1862 that the king at length yielded, and his relations with Britain were placed on a definite diplomatic basis. Much interest has been taken of recent years in the restoration of the trade between China and British Burmah by the old routes overland, and various important journeys in elucidation of the problem have been successfully undertaken. In 1863 Dr Clement Williams, at that time resident in the capital, received the king's permission to proceed to Bhamo, and safely accomplished his voyage to the upper defile of the Irawadi beyond that town in the months of January and February. His recall to the capital prevented his further advance.

In 1867 a treaty was signed by which British steamers were permitted to navigate Burmese waters, and the appointment of British agents at Bhamo or other stations for the collection of customs was formally authorized, and in the following year a Government expedition, consisting of Captain Williams as engineer, Dr Anderson as naturalist, and Captain Bowers and Messrs Stewart and Burn as representatives of the commercial interest of Rangoon, was despatched under the leadership of Major Sladen, political resident at Mandalay. The royal steamer *Yaynan-Schia*, or "The Honesty," was placed by the king at the service of the expedition, and letters of recommendation were furnished to the Burmese officials, but in other respects scant courtesy was shown to the party. Escorted by fifty armed police, the explorers advanced in safety about 135 miles north-east of Bhamo to Momié or Teng-yue-Chow, a principal town of the Mahometan insurgents, known to the Burmese

as Panthés; but beyond this it was considered imprudent to proceed on account of the disturbed condition of the country. In 1869 Captain Storer was appointed first British resident at Bhamo; and about the same time the Irawadi Flotilla Company started a monthly steamer service to that town, which has now become almost fortnightly. The king's interest in the commercial development of his country was shown by his erecting and garrisoning a series of guardhouses through the dangerous parts of the Kakhien hills. In 1874 Lord Salisbury sent another expedition, consisting of Colonel Horace Browne, Mr Ney Elias, and Dr Anderson, with instructions to proceed, if possible, right across the country to Shanghai in China; and to ensure the success of the undertaking, Mr Margary, a gentleman familiar with the Chinese language and customs, was commissioned to start from Shanghai and meet the party at Momié or the neighbourhood. The king's reception of the new mission, which arrived on December 23, 1874, at Mandalay, was favourable in the extreme. On the 15th of January 1875 the explorers reached Bhamo; and two days afterwards Mr Margary arrived from Hankow. After the mission had proceeded to the banks of the Nampoung, a river which joins the Tapeng some distance east of Ponline, they heard rumours of hostile preparations in front; and Mr Margary volunteered to proceed to Manwyne to find the truth of the reports. On receiving from him word that the way was clear, his companions advanced; but on the 23d of February their camp was attacked by the Chinese, and they were ultimately compelled to retreat with the sad knowledge that their gallant pioneer had fallen at Manwyne by the hands of cowardly assassins. The Burmese officials stood nobly by the mission, though the enemy assured them that their quarrel was not with them but with the "white devils." Some fears have been entertained of disagreements between the court of Mandalay and the British authorities, partly in regard to the allegiance of some Karen tribes, and partly in connection with the claim for a right of way for British troops through the Burmese dominions in case of active measures being required to obtain redress from the Chinese Government for the murder of Mr Margary. Happily these fears have been disappointed; the mission of Sir Douglas Forsyth has come to a peaceful if not altogether a successful termination, and a commission has been formed to settle the Karen boundary. While a certain amount of suspicion in regard to British policy still remains in the king's mind, he seems more and more disposed to co-operate with his European allies, and shows himself friendly to the European residents in his capital. His reign has been several times disturbed by internal dissensions, and the general condition of the country can hardly be regarded as one of stability. Personally he is an orthodox and devoted Buddhist, and is largely under the influence of ecclesiastical advisers. In 1874 he was recrowned at Mandalay, in compliance with the requirements of a prophecy, and he attempts to enforce stringent sumptuary laws in accordance with his creed. It is satisfactory to know that while some of his officials are undoubtedly hostile to European interests, the great mass of the people seem genuinely favourable.

See Sangermano, *Burmese Empire*; Captain Hiram Cox, *Journal of a Residence in the Burman Empire*, 1821; Syme's *Embassy to the Kingdom of Ava*, 1800; Snodgrass, *Narrative of the Burmese War*, 1827; Wayland, *Life of Judson*, 1853; Mason, *The Natural Productions of Burma*, Maulmein, 1850; C. T. Winter's *Six Months in British Burmah*, 1858; Yule, *Narrative of the Mission sent by the Gov.-Gen. of India to the Court of Ava in 1855, 1858*; Eastian, *Reisen in Birma in den Jahren 1861-1862, 1866*; Clement Williams, *Through Burmah to Western China, Notes of a Journey in 1863, 1868*; Anderson's *Expedition to E. Yunnan via Bhamo*, 1871, and *Mandalay and Momein*, 1876; Trant's *Two Years in Ava*; A. R. M'Mahon's *The Karens and the Golden Chersonese*, 1876.

BURMAH, BRITISH, the country acquired by the British Indian Government after the two wars with the Burman empire, is situated between 10° and 22° N. lat., and 92° and 100° E. long. It is bounded on the N. by Independent Burmah, on the E. by Siam, on the S. by the Indian Ocean, and on the W. by the Bay of Bengal and the Chittagong division of Bengal. The province of British Burmah extends along the eastern shore of the Bay of Bengal, and is geographically divided into four portions,—Arakán, extending from the Náf estuary to Cape Negrais, and consisting of a narrow strip of country between the sea and the high mountain chain called Yoma; the valley of the Irawadi, which, divided from the Sittang valley by the Pegu Yoma range, unites with it in its southern portion; the valley of the Salwin; and Tenasserim, a narrow strip, separated from Siam by a lofty chain of hills running from north to south. For administrative purposes the country is divided into three commissionerships, Arakán, Pegu, and Tenasserim, and into fifteen districts, viz., Akyab, Ramree, Sandoway, Northern Arakán, Rangoon, Bassein, Myanong, Prome, Thayet-myo, Toungoo, Shwegyen, Amherst, Tavoy, Mergui, and Salwin.

*Physical Aspects.*—The greater part of the province is covered with hills, forests, estuaries, and river beds. The eastern and southern part is particularly mountainous, thinly populated, and much intersected by streams. In the central part of the province the valley of the Irawadi unites with the valley of the Sittang at its lower end, and forms an extensive plain, stretching from Cape Negrais on the west to Martaban on the east. The more northern of these valleys are rugged and hilly, and are so densely covered with jungle that but little cultivation can be carried on. A chain of mountains called the Yoma range forms the boundary of the Arakán division on the east. It is the continuation of the Pátkoï and Baráil range, which shoots forth from the Himálayas at their north-eastern extremity, runs south, forms the eastern boundary of Assam and Bengal, and turning south-east, gradually diminishes both in breadth and elevation till it ends in the rocky promontory of Cape Negrais. Blue Mountain, one of its peaks, on the northern boundary of the province, is said to rise 8000 feet above the sea-level; but within the province the range nowhere attains a height much above 4000 feet. The same Yoma range forms the western boundary of the Irawadi valley; and the Pong Loung range, rising to a supposed height of 7000 feet, bounds the Sittang valley towards the east. The Pegu Yoma range forms the watershed between these two streams. The mountains of Tenasserim rise to a height of 5000 feet, with a breadth varying from 10 to 40 miles; they are covered with pathless jungle, and devoid of human habitations of any kind.

*Rivers.*—Beginning from the extreme west the following are the principal rivers:—The Náf estuary is on the western boundary. The Mroo River, an arm of the sea, about 40 miles to the eastward, is from 3 to 4 miles broad at its mouth. The Koladan or Arakán River rises near the Blue Mountain in about 23° N. lat., and is navigable for 40 miles from its mouth by vessels of 300 or 400 tons burden. The Talak, Aeng, Sandoway, Toungoo, and Gwa are streams of minor importance. The mouth of the last, however, forms a good port and haven for steamers or vessels of from 9 to 10 feet draught. The Irawadi rises in about 28° N. lat. and 97° 30' E. long., and flows for upwards of 600 miles before reaching the British possessions, through which it has a course of 240 miles to the sea in a S.S.W. direction. As it approaches the coast it divides into numerous branches, converting the lower portion of the valley into a net-work of tidal creeks. Its principal branches are the Bassein River, Thekkay-thoung, Yuay, Dayaybhyoo, Pyenmaloo, Pyengazaloo, Dalla, Phypoon, Donyan, Thana-

teat, and China Buckir rivers. It is navigable for river steamers as far as Bhamo, nearly 400 miles beyond the British frontier. The river when full runs about five miles an hour. The Hleing rises close to Prome, where it is called the Myitmakat stream, and flowing in a southerly direction nearly parallel to the Irawadi, it next takes the name of the Hleing, and finally of the Rangoon River, and falls into the sea a few miles below Rangoon. Its principal tributaries are the Nyoungdon, an offshoot of the Irawadi, and the Pegu and Poozoondoung rivers. It is navigable by vessels of the largest size for some distance above Rangoon, but owing to the Hastings shoal, formed at the junction of the Pegu, the Poozoondoung, and the Rangoon rivers, vessels of more than 6 feet draught cannot ascend beyond the shoal at low tide. The Sittang River rises far north of British territory, which it enters just about Toungoo, and flowing southwards, falls into the Gulf of Martaban, when it widens so rapidly that it is impossible to tell where the river ends and the gulf begins. Its principal tributary is the Shwegyen River. A bore, or tidal wave, sweeps up this river, and its effect is felt as far as Shwegyen town. The Biling River rises in the Pongloun hills, flows southward, and falls into the Gulf of Martaban. The Salwin River rises in Tibet, flows south through the Shan states, and falls into the sea at Moulmein. The Attaran rises in the chain of hills which forms the boundary between the kingdom of Siam and British Burmah, and flows in a south-westerly direction through dense teak forests and an almost uninhabited country. The Gyne has numerous villages on its banks, and is navigable for 180 miles by country boats. The Tenasserim River falls into the sea by two mouths, the northern of which is navigable for large ships.

There is only one canal in the province, connecting the Pegu and the Sittang rivers. The lakes are the Thoo, Lahgyin, and Kandaugyee.

A large part of the province is covered with forests, but the state reserved area only amounts to 133 square miles. The teak plantations lie in the Rangoon division. The total receipts from the forests in 1871-72 amounted to £77,240.

*Population.*—The total area of the province is 88,556 square miles; the population was returned by the census of 1872 at 2,747,148, giving an average of 31 inhabitants to the square mile. The Buddhists numbered 2,447,831, Mahometans 99,846, Hindus 36,658, Christians 52,299, and aborigines 110,514. The villages, townships, &c., numbered 14,107; the inhabited houses, 535,533. Only ten towns in the province had a population exceeding 10,000.—Rangoon, the capital, containing 98,745.

*Productions.*—Rice is the staple product of the province, and in 1871-72 1,836,021 acres were devoted to its cultivation. Other food grains covered 4860 acres; sesamum, 25,502 acres; sugar-cane, chiefly cultivated in the gardens around the cultivators' houses, 3179 acres; and cotton, principally grown in the hill clearings, 14,120 acres. The fibre of the indigenous cotton is short but strong, and it adheres with great tenacity to the seed. The export of cotton is increasing. Tobacco, grown on sandbanks or in the dry beds of streams, inferior in quality, and wholly used for home consumption, occupied 12,866 acres. The other crops produced in the province are indigo, vegetables, hemp, mixed fruits, &c. The system of cultivation known in Bengal as the *jím*, that is clearing virgin soil by burning, cultivating it for one or two years, and then leaving it again to the jungle, is here extensively practised under the name of *toungya* cultivation. Although discouraged on account of its wasteful character it cannot be altogether prohibited, as it is the only means of subsistence for a large part of the population. Seven great embankments have been constructed in the province for the protection and extension

of regular cultivation. The average rent per acre of rice land varies from 1s. to 10s., while the high land, on which other grains can be cultivated, fetches generally from 3s. to 4s. per acre. Of the total area of the province (88,556 square miles) only 3414 square miles are cultivated; 51,117 square miles are cultivable, and the rest uncultivable waste.

*Internal Communication* is chiefly carried on by water. Steamers ply on the Irawadi between Thayetmyo, Prome, Myanong, Henzada, and Rangoon. There is also steam communication from Calcutta, via Akyab, to Rangoon and Moulmein, and between Tavoy and Mergui. There were, however, 814 miles of road in the province in 1871-72.

*Mines.*—The only mines in the province are those worked for tin in the southern portion of the Tenasserim division. This mineral (a binoxide) exists over a large extent of country in the Mergui and Tavoy districts, and is obtained by removing and washing the pebble and boulder deposits of the river beds. Samples of the tin-stone, once washed, have produced about 70 per cent. of metal, and twice washed 75 per cent. The ore is therefore very rich, and the metal produced is of excellent quality. Hitherto these deposits have been washed by Chinese and natives of the country in a very rough and unscientific manner, and the tin-stone is smelted in a most primitive way, the produce realized being 68 per cent. of metal. European capitalists have now begun to turn their attention to the subject, and arrangements are being made to lease out certain tracts. Coal exists on the banks of the Tenasserim River, and in other parts of the province, but it has never been worked to any extent. Lead has been found in Toungoo, and on Maingay's Island in the Mergui Archipelago, but nothing has been done towards utilizing it. This mineral also exists in the Shwegyen district, as well as gold, antimony ore, and iron-stone. The quantity of the precious metals is, however, very small, and the workers make but a poor living. Limestone exists in several parts of the province, and quarries are worked pretty extensively in Thayetmyo and Bassein; stone might also be excavated in Sandoway if a demand existed.

*Manufactures.*—Mills are employed in the seaport towns for husking rice and for sawing timber. There were in 1871-72 twenty-six steam rice mills in the province; five years before there were only three; and the number rapidly increases with the demand for rice for shipment to Europe, to the Straits, and to China. Silk and cotton goods are manufactured in large quantities, chiefly, however, for home use, and by small hand-looms. A loom forms a regular piece of furniture in a Burmese household; it is worked by the female members of the family. The cotton cloths thus manufactured are rough but strong; some of the silk goods fetch a high price. A coarse description of salt is made on the sea-coast, used chiefly in the preparation of *Ngapee* (a mess of half-salted, half-decomposed fish and other ingredients), which forms a favourite article of food among the Burmese. The manufacture of salt has lately fallen off, owing to the introduction of Liverpool salt, which undersells the local article. The other manufactures of the province consist of gold and silver bowls (of peculiar and elaborate workmanship), lacquered ware, carved and gilt work, and dyes, especially cutch, an extract of the *Acacia Catechu*.

*Trade.*—The total value of the trade of the province in 1871-72 was £10,777,705; exports, £5,452,148; imports, £5,325,557. The value of the sea-borne trade was—exports, £4,236,997; imports, £4,220,723—total, £8,457,721; and of the inland trade—exports, £1,245,150; imports, £1,104,832. The most important article of sea-borne exports is rice. The trade increased from 380,009 tons in 1865 to 470,893 tons in 1871, and made a sudden rise to 700,784

tons in 1872. Next in importance is the timber trade, shipments of which during the year 1872 amounted to 87,545 tons, of the value of £51,210. The other articles of export are cotton, cutch, hides, horns, ivory, jade stone, petroleum, rice and paddy, precious stones, stick-lac, tobacco, &c. The articles of import consist of betel-nut, cotton twist and yarn, crockery ware, cutlery, gunny bags, hardware; cotton, silk, and woollen piece goods; raw silk, spirituous liquors, wines, beers, &c., sugar and tobacco.

*Finances.*—The gross revenue from all sources in 1871-72, £1,363,452, of which £1,217,053 was from imperial taxation, £37,320 for provincial services, and £109,079 from local funds. The land revenue of the province was £344,523. Owing to the sparse population and vast extent of country cultivable but uncultivated, the rates of assessment range low. No class of landed proprietors, like the zamindars of Bengal, exists in Burmah. The cultivators themselves hold the land from Government, the extent of their holdings averaging about 5 acres. The exceptions are, where grants of waste land have been made to Europeans or natives of India, but such grants are but little cultivated. The light land tax of the province is supplemented by a capitation tax, peculiar to Burmah; and by the rice duty, which, from the circumstances of the local trade, falls on the producer, and is equivalent to a tax of 14 per cent. *ad valorem* on this article of export. The capitation tax is a poll-tax on the male population of the province, from 18 to 60 years of age, with the exception of immigrants during the first five years of their residence, religious teachers, schoolmasters, Government servants, and those unable to obtain their own livelihood. In 1871-72 it was levied on 556,035 persons, and yielded a revenue of £226,954. The expenditure on the civil administration of the province in 1871-72 was £497,002. For the protection of British Burmah 5016 fighting men, Europeans and natives, were maintained in 1871 at a total cost of £276,200. The strength of the police in 1871 was 5319. The prisons consist of two great central gaols, Rangoon and Moulmein, chiefly for long-term convicts, with twelve subordinate gaols and lock-ups.

*Education* has not made much progress in British Burmah under the English plan of public instruction; but the people have a wide-spread system of primary education of their own in the monastic schools. Setting aside these monastic schools, the educational machinery of the province consists of seven Government schools, educating 505 boys; fifteen aided missionary schools, teaching 1494 pupils; and twenty-two other unaided schools under Government inspection, teaching 499 pupils.

Christianity has spread largely among the Karen tribes, chiefly through the work of American missions.

*Climate.*—The climate of British Burmah is moist and depressing for part of the year, but cooler than that of India. Some of the forest tracts during the monsoons, and after the cold weather has set in, are impregnated with deadly malaria; but the coast and the frontier ranges are not unhealthy. The prevalent complaints amongst Europeans are fever, dysentery, and hepatic diseases, from which the natives also suffer. On the whole, however, the climate of British Burmah seems better adapted to the European constitution than any part of India, and of late the statistics of the British troops show a very low rate of disease and mortality. The rainfall varied in 1871 from 245.85 inches at Moulmein to 54.85 inches at Thayetmyo. The average temperature is greatly affected by the sea breeze,—being 80° Fahr. at the sea-coast, and 90° in the interior.

*Form of Government.*—The highest authority in the province of British Burmah is the chief commissioner and agent to the Governor-General of India, established under a resolution of the Government of India, dated January

1862. The chief commissioner is assisted by a secretary and assistant-secretary, three commissioners of revenue and circuit, thirteen deputy-commissioners, one superintendent of hill-tracts, twenty-two assistant-commissioners, four collectors of sea-customs, a director of public instruction, an inspector-general of police, an inspector-general of prisons, and a conservator of forests. A political agent is established at the court of Mandalay, and an assistant political agent at Bhamo, for facilitating British trade with Independent Burmah and China. The judicial officers are—the recorder of Rangoon, the judicial commissioner, the judge of the town of Moulmein, the judge of the Small Cause Court, Rangoon, and three town magistrates. For history, see the preceding article.

BURMANN, PIETER (1668–1741), a Dutch classical scholar, was born at Utrecht on the 26th June 1668. He was educated at the public school in his native place, and at the age of thirteen entered the university. He devoted himself particularly to the study of the classical languages, and became unusually proficient in Latin composition. As he was intended for the legal profession he spent some years in attendance on the law classes. For about a year he studied at Leyden, paying special attention to philosophy and Greek. On his return to Utrecht he took the degree of doctor of laws (March 1688), and after travelling through Switzerland and part of Germany, settled down to the practice of law. In December 1691 he was appointed receiver of the tithes which were originally paid to the bishop of Utrecht, and five years later he was nominated to the professorship of eloquence and history. To this chair was soon added that of Greek and politics. In 1714 he paid a short visit to Paris and ransacked the libraries, bringing back a "great treasure of useful observations." In the following year he was appointed successor to the celebrated Perizonius, who had held the chair of history, Greek language, and eloquence at Leyden. His numerous editorial and critical works spread his fame as a scholar throughout Europe, and engaged him in many of the stormy disputes which were then so common among men of letters. He died on the 31st March 1741.

Of his editions of classical works the following may be noted:—*Phædrus*, 1698; *Horace*, 1699; *Valerius Flaccus*, 1701; *Petronius Arbitrator*, 1709; *Velleius Paterculus*, 1719; *Quintilian*, 1720; *Ovid*, 1727; *Lucan*, 1740. He also published an edition of Buchanan's works, continued Grævius's great work, *Thesaurus Antiquitatum et Historiarum Italice*, and wrote a small manual of Roman antiquities, *Antiquitatum Romanarum Brevis Descriptio*, 1711. His poems and orations were published after his death.

BURNES, SIR ALEXANDER (1805–1841), a traveller in Central Asia, was born at Montrose in 1805. While serving in India, in the army of the East India Company, which he had joined in his seventeenth year, he made himself acquainted with Hindostani and Persian, and thus obtained an appointment as interpreter at Surat in 1822. Transferred to Cutch in 1826 as assistant to the political agent, he turned his attention more particularly to the history and geography of North-Western India and the adjacent countries, which at that time were very imperfectly known. His proposal in 1829 to undertake a journey of exploration through the valley of the Indus was not carried out owing to political apprehensions; but in 1831 he was sent to Lahore with a present of horses from King William to the Rajah Rungit Sing, and took advantage of the opportunity for extensive investigations. In the following years his travels were extended through Afghanistan, across the Hindu Kush to Bokhara and Persia. The narrative which he published on his visit to England in 1834 added immensely to our knowledge of the countries traversed, and was one of the most popular books of the time. The first edition brought the author the sum of £800, and his services were recognized not only

by the Royal Geographical Society of London, but also by that of Paris. Soon after his return to India in 1835 he was appointed to the court of Sindh to secure a treaty for the navigation of the Indus; and in 1836 he undertook a political mission to Dost Mohammed at Cabul. On the restoration of Shah Shujah in 1839, he became regular political agent at Cabul, and remained there till his assassination in 1841 (November 2), during the heat of an insurrection. The calmness with which he continued at his post, long after the imminence of his danger was apparent, gives an heroic colouring to the close of an honourable and devoted life. A narrative of his later labours was published in 1842 under the title of *Cabool*.

BURNET, GILBERT (1643–1715), bishop of Salisbury, was born at Edinburgh in 1643, and was descended of an ancient family of the county of Aberdeen. His father had been bred to the law, and was at the Restoration appointed one of the lords of Session, with the title of Lord Crimond. Gilbert, the youngest son, was at ten years of age sent to Marischal College, Aberdeen, where he was admitted A.M. before he was fourteen years of age. His own inclination led him to the study of the civil and feudal law; but he afterwards changed his views, and, to the great satisfaction of his father, began to apply to divinity. He received ordination before the age of eighteen; and Sir Alexander Burnet, his cousin-german, offered him a benefice, which, however, he refused to accept.

In 1663, about two years after the death of his father, he went to England; and after six months stay at Oxford and Cambridge, returned to Scotland, which he soon left again to make a tour of some months, in 1664, in Holland and France. At Amsterdam, by the help of a Jewish rabbi, he perfected himself in the Hebrew language; and likewise became acquainted with the leading men of the different persuasions tolerated in that country—Calvinists, Arminians, Lutherans, Anabaptists, Brownists, Papists, and Unitarians. In each of these sects he used frequently to declare he met with men of such unfeigned piety and virtue that he became fixed in a strong principle of universal charity, and an invincible abhorrence of all severities on account of religious dissensions.

Upon his return from his travels he was admitted minister of Saltoun, in which station he served five years in the most exemplary manner. He drew up a memorial, in which he took notice of the principal errors in the conduct of the Scottish bishops, which he observed not to be conformable to the primitive institution, and he sent a copy of it to several of them. This exposed him to their resentment; but to show he was not actuated by a spirit of ambition, he led a retired course of life for two years, which so endangered his health that he was obliged to abate his excessive application to study. In the year 1668 he was appointed professor of divinity in the university of Glasgow; and, according to the usual practice, he read his lectures in the Latin language. It was apparently at this period that he laid the chief foundation of that theological learning for which he became so distinguished. In 1669 he published his *Modest and Free Conference between a Conformist and Nonconformist*. He became acquainted with the duchess of Hamilton, who communicated to him all the papers belonging to her father and her uncle; upon which he drew up the *Memoirs of the Dukes of Hamilton*, afterwards printed at London, in folio, in the year 1677. The duke of Lauderdale, hearing that he was engaged in this work, invited him to London, and introduced him to Charles II. He returned to Scotland, and married Lady Margaret Kennedy, daughter of the earl of Cassillis, a lady of great knowledge, and highly esteemed by the Presbyterians, to whose sentiments she was strongly inclined. As there was some disparity in their ages, that it might be

sufficiently evident that the match was wholly owing to inclination, and not to avarice or ambition, the day before their marriage he delivered to the lady a deed, by which he renounced all pretensions to her fortune, which was very considerable, and must otherwise have fallen into his hands, she herself having no intention to secure it. His *Vindication of the Authority, Constitution, and Laws of the Church and State of Scotland* was printed at Glasgow, in 8vo, in the year 1673. This was considered so material a service to the Government, that he was offered a bishopric, with a promise of the next vacant archbishopric; but he did not accept of it, because he could not approve of the measures of the court, the great aim of which he perceived to be the advancement of popery. The publication itself was one of those which the author could not afterwards recollect with much satisfaction.

His intimacy with the dukes of Hamilton and Lauderdale procured him frequent messages from the king and the duke of York, who had conversations with him in private. But Lauderdale, who was the most unprincipled man of the age, conceiving a resentment against him on account of the freedom with which he spoke to him, represented at last to the king that Dr Burnet was engaged in an opposition to his measures; and on his return to London he perceived that these suggestions had entirely deprived him of the king's favour, though the duke of York treated him with greater civility than ever, and dissuaded him from going to Scotland. He accordingly resigned his professorship at Glasgow, and settled in London. About this time the living of Cripplegate being vacant, the dean and chapter of St Paul's (in whose gift it was), hearing of his circumstances, and the hardships which he had undergone, made him an offer of the benefice; but, as he had been informed of their first intention of conferring it on Dr Fowler, he generously declined it. In 1675, at the recommendation of Lord Hollis, whom he had known in France as ambassador at that court, he was appointed preacher at the Rolls chapel, by Sir Harbottle Grimstone, master of the rolls, notwithstanding the opposition of the court; and he was soon afterwards chosen lecturer at St Clement's, and became one of the most popular preachers in town. The first volume of his *History of the Reformation of the Church of England* was published in folio in 1681, the second in 1683, and the third in 1715. For this great work he received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. Of the first two volumes he published an abridgment in the year 1683.

In 1682, when the administration was changed in favour of the duke of York, being much resorted to by persons of all ranks and parties, in order to avoid returning visits, he built a laboratory, and for above a year pursued a course of chemical experiments. Not long after he refused a country living of £300 a year offered him by the earl of Essex on condition that he should reside in London. When the inquiry concerning the popish plot was on foot he was frequently sent for and consulted by the king, who offered him the bishopric of Chichester, then vacant, if he would engage in his interests; but he refused to accept it on these terms. He preached at the Rolls till 1684, when he was dismissed by order of the court.

On the accession of James II. to the throne, having obtained leave to quit the kingdom, he first went to Paris, and lived in great retirement, till, contracting an acquaintance with Brigadier Stoupe, a Protestant gentleman in the French service, he made a tour with him into Italy. He met with an agreeable reception at Rome. Pope Innocent XI. hearing of his arrival, sent the captain of the Swiss guard to acquaint him he would give him a private audience in bed, to avoid the ceremony of kissing his holiness's slipper; but Dr Burnet excused himself as well as he could. Here,

with more zeal than prudence, he engaged in some religious disputes; and, on receiving an intimation from Prince Borghese, he found it necessary to withdraw from this stronghold of priestcraft, and pursued his travels through Switzerland and Germany. He afterwards came to Utrecht, with an intention to settle in some of the seven provinces. There he received an invitation from the prince and princess of Orange (to whom their party in England had recommended him) to come to the Hague, and accepted the invitation. He was soon made acquainted with the secret of their councils, and advised the preparation of a fleet in Holland sufficient to support their designs and encourage their friends. His known share in the councils of the Prince of Orange, and the pamphlets which he sent over to England, excited against him the intensest enmity of James. A prosecution for high treason was commenced against him both in England and Scotland; but having received the intelligence before it was announced to the States he avoided the storm by petitioning for, and obtaining without any difficulty, a bill of naturalization, in order to his intended marriage with Mary Scott, a Dutch lady of considerable fortune.

Being now legally under the protection of Holland, he omitted no opportunity of supporting and promoting the design which the prince of Orange had formed of delivering Great Britain; and, having accompanied him in the capacity of chaplain, he was in the year 1689 advanced to the see of Salisbury. He declared for moderate measures with regard to the clergy who scrupled to take the oaths, and many were displeased with him for advocating the toleration of Nonconformists. "As my lord of Salisbury," says the earl of Shaftesbury, "has done more than any man living for the good and honour of the Church of England and the Reformed religion, so he now suffers more than any man from the tongues and slander of those ungrateful churchmen; who may well call themselves by that single term of distinction, having no claim to that of Christianity or Protestant, since they have thrown off all the temper of the former, and all concern or interest with the latter." The same noble writer has elsewhere mentioned him in the following terms of commendation:—"The bishop of Salisbury's *Exposition of the Articles* is, no doubt, highly worthy of your study. None can better explain the sense of the church than one who is the greatest pillar of it since the first founders,—one who best explained and asserted the Reformation itself, was chiefly instrumental in saving it from Popery before and at the Revolution, and is now the truest example of laborious, primitive, pious, and learned episcopacy."<sup>1</sup>

In 1693, after the publication and condemnation of Blount's anonymous pamphlet, *King William and Queen Mary Conquerors* (see BLOUNT), an opportunity was taken by Burnet's enemies to bring a pastoral letter of his before the House of Commons. After a warm discussion the letter was condemned to be burned by the common hangman.

In 1698 he lost his wife by the small-pox; and as he was almost immediately after appointed preceptor to the duke of Gloucester, of whose education he took great care, this employment, and the tender age of his children, induced him the same year to supply her loss by a marriage with Mrs Berkeley, a widow, who was eldest daughter of Sir Richard Blake. In 1699 he published his *Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles*, which occasioned a charge against him in the Lower House of Convocation in the year 1701, but he was vindicated in the Upper House. His speech in the House of Lords in 1704 against the Bill to prevent occasional conformity was severely attacked. He

<sup>1</sup> Shaftesbury's *Letters*, p. 28, 27.