TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS
OF
SIAM
WITH WHICH IS INCORPORATED
AN ABRIDGED EDITION OF
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA
Twentieth Century Impressions of Siam:

ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE, INDUSTRIES, AND RESOURCES

WITH WHICH IS INCORPORATED AN ABRIDGED EDITION OF

TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA.

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

It is curious how little is known of Siam in the outside world, and how meagre, hitherto, has been the sum total of authoritative and reliable information published regarding it. And yet it is a country of peculiar interest and infinite possibilities, destined in the near future to occupy a position of great commercial importance. The Government is, in form, an absolute monarchy, but hand in hand with the monarchical system are to be found some of the best features of an enlightened and progressive democracy. The humblest subject may climb, through a well-organised educational process and a series of public scholarships, to the highest offices in the State. After passing through the local schools several of the most promising boys are sent each year to complete their education in Europe, with the understanding that upon their return they remain for a certain period in the Government service. Their records in the various colleges and schools of the West have been exceptionally good, and the possible extent of the influence such a constant stream of capable, well-trained, and efficient servants may have in the administration of the country is well-nigh incalculable. The progress made during the last quarter of a century has been remarkable; and while Siam may not have asserted her position as an independent political entity with that rapidity which has characterised Japan's emergence from comparative insignificance and entrance into the comity of nations, this may be attributed solely to the difficulties of her geographical position, which place her somewhat outside of the beaten track of Eastern commerce. In spite of such obvious disadvantages, however, the public revenue and expenditure of the country have trebled during the last twenty years—a result due, not to new or enhanced taxation, but merely to more effectual methods of financial control and the natural expansion of trade and cultivation. Larger and larger sums have been spent on the steady development of the country. The Army has been remodelled and radical reforms introduced into the methods of enlistment, with the purpose of preventing military service, as far as possible, from interfering with the exigencies of other branches of Government service or the vigorous exploitation of the country's natural resources and industrial capabilities. Railway construction is being pushed forward as rapidly as possible, so that it is reasonable to believe that quick means of communication will soon be established between those places which can now be reached only after weeks of tedious travel. The country is being gradually opened up, and on all sides there
are evident signs of the adoption of modern and progressive methods on the part of the Government for the improvement of the country's position. Siam is an independent country, intensely jealous of her independence, and her children yield to no other nationality in their love for the homeland.

The King is, in theory, the master of life and death and the owner of all land, but in practice, of course, this is not so. No one is condemned without a trial, and the expenses of the King's private property are never defrayed out of the public treasury. The religion of the State is Buddhism, and his Majesty, as the highest "supporter of the doctrine" stands at the head of the religion. But a broad spirit of religious toleration prevails; all creeds are granted full liberty of worship, nor is any one, by virtue of his religious belief, prevented from occupying any secular office under the administration or disabled in any way.

In the present volume, while due regard has been paid to historical claims, no trouble has been spared to give a true picture of Siam as it exists at the present day. There are articles showing how the country is being administered and what advance has been made under the wise and beneficent rule of his present Majesty. All the departments of State have been dealt with adequately, and proper recognition paid to the ministers to whose inspiration and genius many of the most notable reforms effected during the last quarter of a century have been due. On the commercial side the volume has exceptional claims to attention. The great rice trade, the teak industry, shipping, mining, and the multifarious trade interests centreing in Bangkok all have their share of space, and in the result is produced a record which may be consulted with advantage by every business house in Europe which desires to extend its connection with the East.

Generally, it may be stated that in carrying through the work no trouble has been spared to ensure completeness and accuracy, and in every section of the volume, governmental, industrial, and commercial, the various articles have been written by the highest authorities. In each instance the author, from long experience and training, has become a specialist on the subject of which he treats. The publishers wish to express their thanks to the Government, without whose assistance the satisfactory completion of the task would have been impossible, and especially desire to acknowledge the cordial goodwill of H.R.H. Prince Damrong, the Minister of the Interior. Throughout His Royal Highness has evinced the greatest interest in the work, and his many practical suggestions, having been acted upon, have in each instance added greatly to the value of the book. His Royal Highness also placed at the disposal of the publishers the whole of his unique collection of photographs of the interior of Siam. These, together with those the publishers themselves procured, give a pictorial representation of Siam upon a scale which has never been attempted before.

September, 1908,
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Twentieth Century Impressions of
Siam:
ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE, INDUSTRIES, AND RESOURCES

HISTORY

By ARNOLD WRIGHT

CHAPTER 1

Ancient history — The Portuguese period—
Camoes' description of Siam in the "Lusiad"—
—Early Dutch and English connection—
The English East India Company estab-
lishes factories at Ayuthia and Patani.

Siam, though one of the ancient kingdoms of
Asia, possesses a history which is compara-
tively modern. The vicissitudes of the
Siamese people have been great, and in the
overwhelming disaster of the middle of the eighteenth century, when
the Burmese devastated the country and burnt
Ayuthia, the ancient capital, the national records
were irretrievably lost. Afterwards an attempt
was made to piece together the story of the
race from fragments preserved in monasteries
and from traditions surviving among the priests,
but the result, though interesting in a literary
way from the point of view of historical ac-
curacy, leaves much to be desired. In the
main the work consists of a series of fables
and myths as monstrous and fantastic as any
to be found in the annals of Eastern nations,
rich as they are in flights of imagination. It
is not until we come to the founding of Ayuthia,
in the fourteenth century, that we get on to
anything like firm ground. It is fairly certain,
however, that before that period the Siamese
were a nation who played a considerable part
in the commercial life of Asia. Suleiman, an
Arab traveller of some note of the ninth or
tenth century, is stated by Sir Henry Yule
in his essay, "Cathay and the Way Thither," published by the Hakluyt Society, to give a
tolerably coherent account of the seas and
places between Oman and China and to mention
Siam under the name of Kadranj. From
other sources it is to be gathered that a con-
siderable Arab trade was transacted with Siam
by way of Tenasserim, which was the starting-
point on what was then the western coast of
Siam of an overland route to Ayuthia. Tavernier,
in his account of the Kingdom of Siam, observes
that "the shortest and nearest way for the
Europeans to go to this kingdom is to go to
Isphahan, from Isphahan to Ormuz, from Ormuz
to Surat, from Surat to Golconda, from Gol-
conda to Mandapatan, there to embark for
Demouserin, which is one of the ports belong-
ting to the Kingdom of Siam. From Denouerin
to the capital city, which is also called Siam,
is thirty-five days' journey—part by water, part
by land, by wagon or upon elephants. The
way, whether by land or water, is very trouble-
some—for by land you must be always upon
your guard for fear of tigers and lions; by
water, by reason of the many falls of the river,
they are forced to hoist up their boats with
engines."

Long before Tavernier's time Siamese
authority had been exercised, not only in
Tenasserim, but in the adjacent country. At
the end of the thirteenth century, Burmese
records inform us, Siam exercised sway as far
north as Martaban, and that its power was
effective is shown by the fact that the second
Siam King of that State, on ascending the
throne of his brother, had to solicit a recog-
nition of his title from the King of Siam.
Later it lost its hold on Tenasserim and Tavoy,
but in the period 1325-1350 Siamese influence
was re-established in the two provinces. The
facts, as far as they are known, go to support
the theory which has been put forward by
eminent Asiatic scholars, that the Siamese
were originally a powerful Laos tribe who,
pushing southwards from what are known as
the Shan States, ultimately established them-
A BIA in 1530. As regards the
country's designation, Siam seems to have been
a foreign—probably a Portuguese—invention,
Mrs. Leonowens, in her interesting work,
points out that it has even a contemptuous
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

signification, being derived from the Malay word sâdâm, or brown race. She says "the term is never used by the natives themselves; nor is the country ever so named in the ancient or modern annals of the kingdom." Accurate as these statements doubtless were at the time they were written, "Siam" has now become so enshrined in geographical nomenclature that it is by this name and no other that it will continue to be known and styled.

When we examine upon the period of Portuguese domination in Asia the facts in regard to Siam and the results more clearly revealed. At the very outset the "Western" adventurers appeared to have been acquainted with the country and its inhabitants and products. Preserved in the Public Library at Oporto is a manuscript written in 1497—the year of Vasco da Gama's great exploit in rounding the Cape of Good Hope—giving an account of Tenasserim. The writer said that the State which he called "Tenarca" was peopled by Christians and had a king. This, however, was probably a greater veracity he went on to describe the natural characteristics of the country. "In this land is much brass, which makes a fine vermillion, as good as the grain, and it costs here three cruzados a bahar, whilst in Quayro [Cairo] it costs sixty; also there is here aloes wood, of which Venice used to demand a great quantity. Also a merchant of Masser, a Venetian, who was commissioned as a sort of secret agent from the Republic to Portugal in the opening years of the sixteenth century, gives an account of the various voyages undertaken by the Portuguese, and in referring to the ninth voyage prosecuted by Tristan de Acunha in 1506 makes mention of Tenasserim. "At Tenarca," he writes, "grows all the verzi [ brazil] and it costs 15 ducats the bar, equal to four kantors. This place though on the coast is on the mainland. The King is a Jentile; and thence come pepper, cinnamon, cloves, mace, nutmeg, galanga, camphor that is eaten and camphor that is not eaten, and this is indeed the first mart for spices in India."

It was not until the Portuguese had accomplished the conquest of Malacca, in 1511, that they turned their thoughts seriously in the direction of Siam. In that year Albuquerque despatched Duarte Fernandez as ambassador to the King of Siam. The envoy appears to have sailed in a Chinese junk direct to the city of Hudia, and to have returned, accompanied by a Siamese ambassador, overland from Ayuthia to Tenasserim, and to have embarked at the latter port for Malacca. This mission was followed by a second one, despatched shortly afterwards by Albuquerque with the special object, it would seem from the records, of reporting on the "merchandise, dresses, and customs of the land, and the latitude of the harbours." Antonio de Miranda de Azvedo and Manuel Frasgo, the envoys on this occasion, proceeded in the first instance by sea to Taranque, and thence by land to the city of Sião (Ayuthia). On their return they reported that the peninsula was very narrow "on that side where the Chinese make their navigation" and that from thence it was only ten days' journey to the coast of Tenasserim, Trang, and Tavoy. In 1516 there was a further effort made by the Portuguese to establish intimate relations with the Siamese. The Governor of Malacca in that year despatched Duarte Coelho to Ayuthia with letters and presents to the King of Siam, in the hope that by an alliance with Siam the ancient glories of Malacca might be restored. Coelho was well received, and he was able to arrange for the establishment of the Portuguese in the city, which was accomplished by Albuquerque a few years earlier. It is recorded that, with the approval of the king, a wooden crucifix with the arms of Portugal painted upon it was erected in a prominent part of the city.

The numbers of Portuguese who made their way to Siam, says Sir John Bowring in his well-known work, must have been considerable; and their influence extended under the protection and patronage they received from the Siamese. They were more than once enrolled for the defence of the kingdom, especially in 1545, when it was invaded by the King of Pegu, who laid siege to the capital city of Siam. Indeed, it is said that they were assisted by Portuguese located in the country, but by the crew of a ship of war then anchored in the Menam; and it is reported that the most vulnerable parts of the city were those which were specially confined to the keeping of the Portuguese, who were under the ward of the King of Siam. The town was successfully defended by the valor of the Portuguese, who are said to have refused large bribes offered by the Peguian invaders.

Many Portuguese were at this period, and even before, in the service of Siam. In the year 1540 Dom João III, sent Francisco de Castro to claim Domingo de Seixas from the Siamese, he having been reported to be held in captivity by them. But, so far from the report being confirmed, it was discovered that Seixas, who had been in Siam since the year 1537, was the commander of a large force in the interior, and in great favour with the authorities. He was, however, with sixteen of his followers, from the country, after receiving liberal recompense for the services they had rendered.

Of this De Seixas, João de Barros, the old chronicler, says that he was supposed to have been a captive, but he was discovered to be the commander of a large body of men employed to subdue the mountain tribes; and he reports that the Siamese army in his day (the beginning of the sixteenth century) consisted of 20,000 cavalry, 250,000 infantry, and 10,000 war elephants, and that his army was raised without depopulating the country in any respect.

In the Portuguese records one de Mello is mentioned as having rendered signal services to the Siamese. He was put to death by a Pegu nobleman, called "Xenim of the Tuilt," and it is said that the nobleman, being himself convicted of treason and condemned to death, exclaimed, on the way to the place of execution, while passing the dwelling which De Mello had occupied, "I deserve this death, because I ordered Diogo de Mello to be killed, without reason, and on false information."

Intermittently this intercourse between the Portuguese and the Siamese went on for a good many years. It took a somewhat new turn in the second quarter of the sixteenth century, when, during theownershipship of Don Stefano da Gama, son of the famous explorer, a fleet of three Portuguese ships, manned by eighty men, sailed from Goa, in search of a mythical island of gold, supposed to exist on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal. The filibusters—for such they undoubtedly were—landed in the main part of the island, but they, nevertheless, reaped a golden harvest by levying toll on ships in Tenasserim waters. Their depredations were so systematically pursued that all trade was stopped and urgent representations were made by the King of Siam to abate the mischief. It does not appear whether any request was made to this effect. But it can hardly be supposed that the Siamese of that day were in a position to seriously oppose a force so formidable as that of the Portuguese pirates must have been. Cesare dei Pedrici, a Venetian merchant, who travelled between Malacca and Pegu in 1568, refers to the trade of the region in terms which leave it to be understood that the Chinese goods were somewhat discredited by the injury inflicted upon it. Describing Tenasserim, he says: "This city of right belongeth to the Kingdom of Sion [Siam], which is situated on a great river's side, which commeth out of the Kingdom of Sion, and where this river runneth into the sea there is a village called Mergi, in whose habitants every year, there lodge some vessels with versina, nipa, and benjamin, a few cloves, nutmegs, and mace which come from the coast of Sion, but the greatest merchandise there is versina and nipa, which is an excellent wine."

It is, however, in the "Lusiad" of Camoens that we find the most vivid early description of the country. The poet was wrecked off the Siamese coast, and it was here that the famous incident took place of his being washed ashore bearing about him the manuscript of a part of his famous poem. In these lines he introduces us to the majestic Mekon, in whose waters he narrowly escaped death:

See thro' Câmbria Melkon's river goes,
Well named the "Capitan of the waters,"
So many a sunburnt current flows
To spread its floods upon the sands, as Xile
Imbattis its green banks—
And shall I to this gentle river throw
My melancholy songs, and to its breast
Conside the wetted leaves that tell the woe
Of many a shipwreck, dreary and distraught,—
Of famine, perils, and the overthrow
Of him, by Fate's stern tyranny oppress'd—
Of him whose resonant lyre is doomet to
Be more known to fame than to felicity?

In another translation of the "Lusiad" we have this picture of Siam and adjacent lands:

Behold Tavaí City, whence begin
Siam's dominions, Reign of vast extent;
Tenassari, Queda, of towns the Queen,
That bear the burden of the hot piment.
There farther forwards shall ye make,
I ween, Malaca's market, grand and opulent,
Whither each province of the long seaboard
Shall send of mercantile rich varied hoard.
But on her Lands-end throne sis Cingapar,
Where the wide sea road shrinks to narrow way;
Thence curves the coast to face the Cynourre,
And lastly Tyours Aurora's raids by:
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See Parn, Patane, and in length obscure,
Siam, that ruleth all with Royal sway;
Behold Menam who rolls his lordly tide
From source Chiamai called, Lake long and wide.

Thou seest in spaces of such vast extent
Nations of thousand names and yet un-named;
Lao in hand and people prepotent,
Avas and Bramas for vast ranges famed.
See how in distant wilds and voids lie pent
The self-styled Gurus, savage folk untamed:
Man's flesh they eat, their own they paint and bear,
Branding with burning iron,—usage here?

only one difference they have (which is) that
they are somewhat whiter than the Bengalon
and somewhat browner than the men of
China."

For a long period the Portuguese amongst
European nations had a monopoly of inter-
course with Siam. They very cleverly turned
their position in India to advantage by extend-
ing their relations with other Eastern countries,
and European intruders were left out of the
field by the successful enforcement of the
arrogant pretensions to universal domination
Goa. Ultimately Newberry settled down as
a shopkeeper at Goa, and Leedes became a
servant of the Great Mogul. The other
member of the party, Fitch, entered upon a
lengthened course of travel, which took him,
amongst other places, to Siam. He was prob-
ably the first Englishman to visit that country,
and he must have taken home with him a
mass of highly interesting information con-
cerning it.

It is only possible to conjecture the effect
that the account of his travels produced in

ON THE MENAM.

See Mecon river first Cambodias coast,
His name by "Water Captain," men explain;
In summer only when he sweulleth most,
He leaves his bed to flood and feed the plain;
As the frowe Nile he doth his freshets beast;
His peoples hold the foul belief and vain,
That pains and glories after death are signed
To brutes and soulles beasts of basest kind.

Linschoten, a Portuguese writer who resided
at Goa at the close of the sixteenth century,
gives an exhaustive account of the Siam trade
between Ayuthia and Tenasserim. He de-
scribes the Siamese as "in forme, manner, and
visage, much like the inhabiants of China;
which was the leading feature of Spanish and
Portuguese. At irregular intervals, however,
individual traders of other nations found their
way by devious routes to the East, and several
of them visited Siam. Of the number was
Mandelslohe, the celebrated German traveller,
who seems by his writings to have been greatly
struck with the country and particularly with
Ayuthia, which he called the "Venice of the
East." In 1583 three Englishmen—Ralph Fitch,
James Newberry, and Leedes—proceeded to
India overland for the purposes of trade.
They were seized by the Portuguese and cast
into prison, first atOrmuz and afterwards at
commercial circles. But we know that when
the nascent East India Company was applying
for its first charter in 1600 it forwarded to the
authorities a memorandum in which, enum-
nerating the countries with which trade might
be freely opened by the English, it mentioned
"the rich and mightie Kingdom of Pegu and
Juncalaon, Siam, Cambola, and Canchinchina;"
thereby showing that a full appreciation existed
at the time of the possibilities for trade pre-
sented by the route across Siam. The Dutch
at the same time were casting their eyes long-
ingly in the direction of Siam. In 1602
they had so far perfected their plans that
they were able to set up a factory at Patani, on the east coast, then an important centre of Far Eastern trade. Three years after the factory was established, an attack was delivered upon it by Japanese, and it was burned to the ground. But the disaster did not deter the enterprising Hollanders from prosecuting their enterprise. They gradually built up a considerable trade between Siam and Bantam in the class of produce for which the country is celebrated. They succeeded in making a considerable impression on the King of Siam, for in 1607, on his own volition, that monarch despatched an embassy to Holland. Travelling via Bantam, the envoys met with anything but a favourable reception there from the Dutch authorities. The Admiral (Maeltief) is stated by the Dutch writer of the time to have "given them very little countenance, being angry with the merchant that brought them, and doubtful whether to take them to Holland or send them back again." Ultimately, however, members of the mission were despatched to Europe, and on September 11, 1608, were received in audience at the Hague by Prince Statesman of the United Provinces, to whom handsome presents were made. This embassy, as probably the first instance in which an Asiatic sovereign had sent representatives to a Western Court, attracted much attention at the time, and it is doubtful to the influence it exercised as much as the goodwill of the English to establish commercial intercourse with Siam. But before the enterprise was actually entered upon, in 1610, the Company had the advantage of receiving from Captain William Keeling, one of its trusted servants, a detailed report of the prospects of Siam trade from observations made almost on the spot. Captain Keeling had conducted a voyage to the Far East in 1608, and while on the way out put into Java. During his sojourn there he met an ambassador from the King of Siam, and, inviting him to dinner, gathered from him some useful facts relative to the country. He was told by the ambassador that "clothes that were bought in Siam cost in the Hague half the money" and was abundant and of such good quality as to be worth three times its weight in silver, and that precious stones were plentiful and cheap. Keeling was also assured by his guest that the king would account it a great happiness to "have commerce with so great a king as His Majesty of England," with whom the witty ambassador said he understood that "the King of Holland was not comparable."

The Company, after receiving Keeling's report on his return in 1610, gave instructions to the commander of the ship Globe, which was fitting out for despatch to the Far East to prosecute the Company's seventh voyage, to make the island of Patani one of the primary objects of the voyage. The Globe, sailing from the Downs on February 5, 1611, arrived off Ceylon, after a prosperous run, in the following August. Having touched at Pulicat and Masulipatam, the vessel directed its course to Siam. Patani was reached on June 23, 1612. The selection of this port as the objective was probably due to the fact that the Dutch had established their factory there, and in so doing conferred upon it a certain prestige. However that may be, the intrusion of the English into their preserve was hotly resented by the Dutch, who were at no pains to disguise their feelings. The Englishmen were not greatly moved by this display of ill-feeling, more especially as they had had a very friendly reception from the native ruler of the State—a vassal of the King of Siam. A few days after their arrival they went ashore in a little craft, naturalized for the purpose, and there they had a letter, also a letter from James I. placed on a gold basin. The delivery of the letter was entrusted to one part of the establishment, while the other part was left behind at Patani to look after the Company's interests there. The members charged with the mission to Ayuthia were Adam Denton, Thomas Eustis, and Lucas Anthoniuss. With them went two other Englishmen, Thomas Samuel and Thomas Driver, probably in subordinate capacities. The party proceeded to Ayuthia in a "gouden" they had built, and Denton, describing the journey, mentions that from the roadstead of Siam he and his companions journeyed "up the river somewhat," probably via Bangkok [Bangkok], where we were well received, and further 100 miles to the city [Ayuthia], where the King and people furnished us with everything we required, and a stone house three storeys high, contrary to the opinion of the Dutch. The Globe, following closely in the wake of the mission, arrived in the Road of Siam in August 15, 1612, and dropped anchor. Tidings of the vessel's arrival quickly spread and the native shahbandar (or port officer) of Bangkok went on board to tender a welcome and receive the present which he doubtless felt to be due to his trouble. There was some delay in completing the arrangements for the reception of the visitors, but eventually all preparations were made and on September 17th the factors were received in audience by the king. His Majesty seems to have been greatly gratified by the presentation of the royal letter. To each factor, with many expressions of goodwill, he tendered a small piece of embroidered cloth, which was taken as a token of friendship. What was more to the purpose, he gave the visitors permission to trade and formally allotted to them the house in which they had taken up their residence, for the purposes of a factory. Though the way had thus been smoothed for them, the Englishmen found that there were many difficulties still in their path. On the one side they were confronted with Dutch jealousy, which stopped at nothing in its efforts to confound the hated intruders; on the other, the factors had to cope with the cussedness and corruption of the local officials, whose one cry, like that of the daughter of the horse- leech, was "Give! give!" Beyond these they themselves, suffering as they did from the distracted state of the country, which left little room for mercantile enterprise. Even the elements seem to have been in league against the intrepid traders. On October 26, 1612, the Globe, while at anchor in the roadstead, was involved in a terrible cyclone. Floris, describing the events of the day in his diary, says that there "arose such stormes, that old folkes had not seen the like, renting up trees by the roots, and blowing down the King's monument, which hee had erected to his father. The ship hardly escaped by the diligence of Master Skinner and Samuel Huyts casting out a third anchor being driven, notwithstanding her two anchors, from size fathome to foure, and not passing an English mile from the land. Master Skinner was beaten from the anchor-stocke but very strangely recovered. Five men were drowned; one after the rest, whom they supposed devoured of a whale, which they saw soon after they had seen him. The storme lasted foure or five hours, and then followed a smooth sea, as if there had been no tempest. A tempest yet continued aboard the ship by reason, as was reported, of the reasonlesse masterly master, who was therefore apprehended, and Skinner placed in his room, whereby that weather also calmed."
FROM AN ANCIENT SIAMESE MANUSCRIPT IN THE ORIENTAL MANUSCRIPT DEPARTMENT OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

1. Refers to rules to be observed in building a house to ensure its being lucky.
2. Relates to the rules for finding buffaloes or bullocks stolen or strayed.
3. Relates to the happiness or otherwise of proposed marriages.
in response to an invitation, gave a display of their terpsichorean powers, greatly to the delight of the queen and her court. Meanwhile, business prospects were brightening.

At Ayuthia, Lucas Antheniuss had conducted such a brisk trade that he had to send to Patani for more goods. Furthermore he had, under the liberal licence to trade granted to the Company by the king, despatched something in the nature of a trading mission to "Zangomaye" (Chiangmai), an important trade centre in the country to the north of the capital.

At Patani itself arrangements were completed, with the financial support of the queen, for the opening up of what was thought likely to be a lucrative trade with Japan. The latter enterprise was doubtless suggested by the evidence which the factors saw all around them of the intimacy of the ties which in those days existed between Siam and Japan. At the ports were many Japanese merchants, and a large proportion of the junks trading in the Gulf of Siam were manned by Japanese crews. In the better class houses, too, were numerous evidences of the commercial potentialities of Japan in the shape of the beautiful manufactures of the country. All these circumstances combined to stimulate the activity of the factors; but, as will be seen in the sequel, their efforts were not attended by a great amount of success.

An incident which occurred at Patani towards the end of September, 1613, greatly
strenthened the position of the Englishmen. Some Javanese slaves owned by two local chiefs, having risen in revolt, started burning and destroying the property of their masters, and eventually laid waste nearly the whole town. So critical did the position of affairs become, that the Englishmen determined to see what they could do to suppress the rising. Mustering in full force, they advanced against the rebels. Their appearance was so formidable that the slaves, on seeing them, instantly fled. The local chiefs were extremely grateful to the factors for their assistance, and henceforward they became by popular acclaim "defenders of strangers." While the Englishmen could, as this episode clearly showed, unite to some purpose in the face of danger, they were in their everyday relations greatly divided by dissensions. The chief difficulties appear to have been between Captain Essington of the Globe and Floris. The former accused the latter of allowing disorders to occur, but Anthoines put it on record that "Essington had overthrown all hopes of trade at Patani if the patience of Floris and the mediation of friends had not prevented it." The fact that the Globe sailed for Masulipatam on October 22, 1613, with Floris and Denton as passengers suggests that eventually the quarrel was adjusted as far as it affected Essington and Floris. At Masulipatam Denton was transferred to the ship James, and in it set sail for Hambant and Patani on the 7th of February. In the course of the voyage the Company's ship Darling was encountered, and the two vessels, sailing in company, anchored together in Patani harbour on June 30, 1614.

The advent of the two vessels was the signal for the outbreak of new disagreements. The captain of the James, a man named Marlowe, was a tyrannical personage who is said to have "governed at sea with much brawling and little justice, and a swore with much greatness without skill, consuming much more money than was necessary." Another description of him is as that "troublesome captain of the James, who doth disquiet both house and fleet," and who gave himself up to rioting and extreme drunkenness, conduct which had brought "much disgrace upon the English nation, the master [John Davis] being an apt scholar to imitate these loose and lewd courses." The Darling's commander was only a degree less objectionable, if the picture painted of him in the records is to be relied on. He is there denounced with others for "vulgarly joining the Company's goods, deceiving private men, insolent behaviour, and vanity in wearing buckles of gold in their girdles," and for "acquiring wealth with suspicious suddenness." Nor does it appear that misconduct was confined to the seafaring branch of the Company's staff. A little time after these choice spirits were disporting themselves on the Menam in their chosen fashion, an individual who was a worthy prototype appeared on the scene in the person of Richard Pit, an assistant factor at Ayuthia. Pit is represented to have invited "James Peterson, the English unmer, to a banquet at Syam, and after to have fallen out with hym, and to have gone with ii Japones to bynd hym and take hym prisoner. But Peterson laid sore about him and he kild iij of the Japons and made Pitres and the other to run away." Peterson was in great favour with the King of Siam at the time, and there was some surprise that Pit should have had the temerity to attack him. But the suggestion was that "it was done in drink," which is probably very near the truth, for there are abundant
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

evidences in the records that the love of the
flowing bowl was very predominant amongst
the Company's servants in these early days.
The Japanese enterprise earlier referred to
was arranged by the Ayuthia factors in con-
sultation with the Company's representatives
at Hirado in Japan, where the English had been
resident since 1613. To carry on the trade a
junk was purchased and, under the name of the
Sea Adventure, was entrusted to the command
of William Adams, famous in history as the
first Englishman to settle in the Mikado's
dominions. Richard Wickham and Edmond
Sayer were deputed to accompany the junk as
factories, together with nine other merchants
for the King of Siam, as well as with gifts for
their colleagues in Siam. Quitting Cochi on
December 17, 1614, the adventurers had to
bring up off the island of Oshima, one of the
Liu-Kiu group, owing to the junk having
sprung a leak. After cruising in and about the
islands, apparently with the object of re-
pairing the leak, they had a view in the craft,
the partly returned to Hirado on June 11, 1615,
the junk "having lost her voyage for these
years." At the end of the same year another effort was made to open
up trade between Japan and Siam. The Sea
Adventure, notwithstanding her proved short-
comeings, was again selected for the mission
and Adams was re-appointed to the command.
The vessel's departure seems to have excited
great interest. Mr. Robert Cocks, the head
of the Japanese establishments of the Company,
records in his diary that "betwixt in the morn-
ying the King sent to invite us to supper,
because he understood our junk was ready
to depart towards Siam. The royal hospita-
tility apparently was generous to an extreme,
for Cocks records that he found "the drynkyn
overmucb." The Sea Adventure took with it
a letter to the factors at Ayuthia from Captain
Coppendall, of the Company's ship Osianer,
which had arrived at Hirado on September
15th. In this copy were inserted various
references to the trade of Japan, as far as there had been
experience of it, at Bantam and Patani, is
referred to in very pessimistic language.
What little profits were, he said, were
"eaten up by great presents and charges"
exported by Japanese officials. He suggested
that a trade established with Ayuthia by means
of junks sent from thence direct to Hirado,
with a corresponding trade with China, might
help to mitigate the great charges to which
the Company was put on account of the Japan
establishment. The Sea Adventure, after a fair
voyage, arrived early in 1616 in the Menam.
She returned to Japan in company with the
English ships, which had been driven into the
Menam by stress of weather. On December 21, 1616, the Sea Adventure left
the Bay of Cochi on her second voyage to Siam,
and twenty-eight days later she dropped anchor at Bangkok. Having taken on board
a cargo of 9,000 skins, she set sail again (on
May 27, 1617) for Japan. Her return voyage
was one of great peril. Stormy weather was
encountered throughout, and disease decimated
the crew. Eventually the junk crawled into
port, a mere wreck, with only twelve of a crew
of forty-six surviving. The junk was appar-
etly exclusively manned by Japanese, who
proved to be splendid seamen but so difficult
to manage that in the following year, when a
fresh voyage was projected, arrangements were
made for taking on board, to control the
Japanese crew, a "Japan omura," an official
who is described by Dr. John Anderson in
his work "Early English intercourse with Siam" as
one of the "most powerful to judge by his
powers." On January 2nd the junk set sail in
company with other junks. They had not
been many days out before very heavy weather
was encountered, necessitating the break of
the voyage at Tomari; and when a fresh start
was made the junk was struck by a typhoon
and driven onto the coast of the Liu-Kiu islands.
In consequence the January monsoon, which
was relied on to carry the Sea Adven-
ture to Siam, was lost, and it was not until
December, 1618, that Bangkok was ultimately
reached. The vessel by this time was so
battered about that the Company's representa-
tives deemed it advisable to replace her by an
entirely new craft. Apart from the discourag-
ing circumstances attending these voyages of
the Sea Adventure, the factors had by this time
discovered that the Japanese were formidable
trade competitors. How the rivalry worked
is described by Cocks in a poignant passage in
his Diary. "What chiefly spoilt the Japan
trade was the current of commerce which
shone have got all the trade of Japan into
their own hands. . . . And these fellows are
cannot to have all at their own disposing
above, but they come down to Faniad and
Nangassique [Nagasaki], where they joyne
together in selling out of juncbes for Siam,
Cochin China, and other places where they understand that good is
to be done, and arc furnishing Japan with all
sorts of commodities which any other stranger
can bring, and then stand upon their puntus
offering others what they lost themselves,
knowing no man will buy but it themselves,
or such as they please to joyne in company
with them. . . . And what is more, this country
is so large, that you shall not know for sure
how to transport it into any other port of
Japan. Which maketh me altogether avaryc of Japan." The final despairing sentence of this entry
gave a faithful foreshadowing of the fate of the
Japan trade, and with it that of the Siam con-
nection. The new junk made one voyage from
Ayuthia to Hirado in the middle of 1619, but very shortly afterwards the English
commercial connection with Japan was broken,
and the great island kingdom of the East
wrapped itself in a mantle of seclusion which
was not to be cast aside until nearly two and
a half centuries had passed away.
At this period the Company's affairs in
Europe were in a prosperous condition. A serious adverse factor was Dutch
rivalry, which at all points where the two
courses came into contact maintained a sleepless
warfare against the English interests. The
lead broke out into active hostilities towards
the close of the year 1618, when the English
factories, after taking counsel together at
Bantam, decided to correct the "insolencies
of the Dutch" by sending a fleet to prey upon
their commerce. Following upon this came
the capture of the Black Lion, a richly laden
ship bound from Patani. Hostilities continued
for some time with varying success, and
ultimately the English Company withdrew its
fleet, and with it its Bantam establishment, to
India. For some time prior to this the Patani
factory had been in a moribund condition, and
that at Ayuthia was in little better plight.
The Company was badly served by its repre-
sentatives, and, moreover, the times were not
propitious owing to local wars. Probably the
Siam establishment would have been with-
drawn long previously but for the strong
faith which the Company had in the prospects of trade
in that quarter. Then as now the country was
a great distributing centre. Traders repaired
to it from many parts of the East, and its rulers
were in frequent communication with the
chiefs of admirals. At all events, in spite of the
manner in which the favourable situa-
tion of Siam could be turned to account is
to be found in the records of 1617. In that
year an ambassador from the Kingdom of
Champa (Champa) arrived at the Siamese
court, and he was approached by the English
factor, who was making an attempt at trade
with his country. His reception of them was
so friendly and his information so encourag-
ing that the Englishmen decided to
despatch a pinnace with goods suitable for the
Champa market. The vessel, which was
manned by a Japanese crew under the
command of Peter Arendt, was fitted out in
February, 1616, and leaving the factory she
found a hearty welcome awaiting it from the
King of Champa, who freely granted the
visitors permission to trade in all parts of
his dominions. Nothing much came of the
opening thus afforded, but the goodwill shown
was probably remembered when the Company
had occasion to refer in regard to the future of the
Siam establishments. At all events, in spite of the
heavy demands made upon them elsewhere,
they decided in 1619 to despatch two ships,
the Hound and the Sansum, from the Coro-
mandel coast to "new establish both with men
and means the almost decayed factories" of
Jambi, Patani, Siam (Ayuthia), and Sukadana.
With these vessels it was planned to carry a
new factory to Patani in June, 1619, and
arrange-
ments were immediately made to reorganise
the establishment. But the Englishmen had
reckoned without their Dutch rivals in the
Straits. These, having got wind of the enter-
prise, immediately despatched three well-
provided ships in pursuit under the command
of Hetrick Johnson, one of their trusted
captains. Arriving off Patani on July 17,
1619, the Dutch squadron immediately pro-
cceeded to attack the English vessels. Jourdain
might have left the harbour and perhaps have escaped before the Hol-
landers arrived, but he preferred to remain and contest the fight in the
night of that whole town, so that the nautics might see that the
English reputation for courage was not belied.
The unequal conflict was carried on with great
spirit for some time—for "five glasses," says the
record—and then when many of the men
of the Hound and the Sansum had been
killed and wounded the English colours were
struck.
While the negotiations for surrender were
proceeding a Dutch marksman, seeing Jour-
dain, "most treacherously and cruelly shot at
him with a musket and shot him in the body
wounding the heart of which wound he dyed
within half an hour after." The two ships were seized by the Dutch, and the bulk of the English wounded were sent on board the principal Dutch ship, the Angria. Here they were shockingly ill-treated; men who had been "much burnt with gunpowder and wounded with splinters and thereby suffered miserable torment," were "most unchristianly and inhumanely caused and forced to put their legges downe by the sword, when they were seized and tyed to the capitan bars insomuch that their legges were so swelled by reason of the extraordinary Brutal tying of them that the carpenter, when a man was permitted freedom for a few minutes, "had always to be fetched to make bigger the holes to get out their legges again." Those of the unfortunate prisoners who survived this inhuman treatment were taken about from place to place in irons and shown to the natives "as trophies of their victories over the English," as one of their number put it in a petition presented subsequently to the East India Company. Some of the Englishmen were taken to Japan on the Dutch ship, and a few of them, with the help of Wil1 u. Andrews, managed to escape from her. The Dutch, highly indignant at the incident, demanded the return of the captives, and on a refusal being given made an attack on the English factory, but were repulsed. Meanwhile the Dutch were carrying matters with a high hand at Patani. According to a report made to the company, they "did draw their swords upon our people in the street" and threaten to burn their houses. In their weakness the Englishmen sought, and obtained, the protection of the queen, but they had to pay smartly for the privilege in the Company's goods. The patching up of a peace between English and Dutch in 1620 brought about a much-welcome relief from the strain of the intolerable situation which had grown up. There was a fraternisation of the two races at the various ports at which they had establishments, and generally a new spirit was infused into the trade of the peninsula. At Patani, so great was the exhilaration at the era of amity that a midnight visit to the charge of William Webb, was despatched to Ligur with the object of establishing trade relations. But the energy shown was a mere flicker of a declining organisation. The Company, absorbed with affairs of greater moment elsewhere, neglected to keep the Siamese establishments supplied with proper stocks of goods, while their servants, demoralised by a life of idleness, brought the English name into contempt by their licentious style of living. At length, in 1623, both the Patani and Ayuthia establishments of the Company were withdrawn simultaneously, apparently, with those of the Dutch. The Company, however, continued to keep an eye on Siam, and on December 23, 1625, the Geuvenants, demoralised by a letter should be procured from Charles I. and despatched to the King of Siam. The communication never reached its destination, and for a good many years there were no direct relations between the English and the Siamese.

A circumstance which, doubtless, tended to prevent a renewal of the old ties was the outbreak of hostilities between Portugal and Siam in 1632-33. The quarrel originated in the seizure in the Menam River of a vessel belonging to the Dutch. Incensed at this breach of neutrality, as they regarded it, the Hollanders made personal complaint to the King of Siam. That monarch was not slow to resent the insult to his authority which had been offered, and soon a regular state of war was created, in which the Siamese and the Portuguese preyed upon each other's commerce at sea. After a series of engagements the Portuguese blockaded the mouth of the Tung River, with the object of paralysing Siamese commerce in that direction. By a clever subterfuge the Siamese managed to raise the blockade. They despatched overland to Mergui eight Japanese on elephants, with attendant Siamese troops attired in Japanese dress. Mounted on each elephant were two guns, and with these a brisk cannonade was opened on the Portuguese ships. The issue was entirely successful. In a short time the vessels were drawn off and they did not afterwards return.

This incident marked the close of the period of Portuguese influence in Siam and the establishment of Dutch ascendancy. Van Schouten, with great and without account of the growth of Holland influence: "Before Hollanders came to this country the Portuguese were held in high estimation; the Kings of Siam showed great respect to the envoys of the Indian viceroys and the Malayan bishops, who were permitted to exercise their religion in the town of India [Ayuthia], so much so that the king gave certain appointments to the priest who had charge of this church; but they began to lose credit as soon as the Dutch set foot in the country, and finally came to an open rupture. The Portuguese intercepted the traffic of these people with Sultano and Negapatam, and in 1624 took in the Menam River a small Dutch frigate. The King of Siam waged war against them as far as the Manillas; their merchants did not, however, leave the country, but resided there without consideration and without credit, so that now only a few exiled Portuguese continue there. In 1631 the King of Siam, in reprisal, seized their ships, and took prisoner almost all on board. The Dutch being2 years afterwards they escaped by means of a pretended embassy. In the ports of Ligur and Tannasser both Spanish and Portuguese vessels were seized; but the king caused the ship's crews to be set at liberty, and charged them with letters to the Governors of Manilla and Malacca, in which he offered them permission to trade and to settle in the country, to which, therefore, they will probably return.

"As to the Hollanders, they have been established in the country for thirty years. Their commerce is considered by the East India Company of sufficient importance to induce them to appoint a Governor, after in which he offered them permission to trade and to settle in the country, to which, therefore, they will probably return. In 1633 a merchant warehouse was built, and during the four years in which I directed the affairs of the Company, I so managed matters as to insure larger profits for the future."

In 1634 I built, under the direction of General Bremer and the Indian Board of Directors, a mansion of stone, with large suites of apartments, good water-tanks, and warehouses attached, being, indeed, quite the best house belonging to the Company. Such is the information I have obtained with regard to the Kingdom of Siam during a residence of eight years in Ithilia, the capital of the country."

We must now return to the story of the growth of English influence in Siam. Not until 1660 was any further attempt made by the East India Company to re-occupy the old ground in the King of Siam's dominions. The court seems then to have been induced to take action by the reports sent home by the Company's representatives at the factory which was established in 1654 in Cambodia. In one communication the factors stated their belief that "Siam goes much beyond this place both for largeness and cheapness," and they intimated that the king "shews the English is not out of his heart." All green feasts of ye Dutch when they trim up their house, hee will have ours also soe in the same nature, and yearelly hath it repaired; this wee have from the Dutch themselves." In 1659, when the Cambodiana factory was plundered by Cochín Chinese and the factors had to fly for their lives to Ayuthia, they were received most hospitably by the king, who supplied all their material needs. On their departure he gave them a message to their employes expressive of his desire for the restoration of the old trading relations between the two countries. Encouraged by the promise of liberal treatment which these experiences of fugitive Cambodiana factors held out, the Company in 1660 gave orders for the despatch to Siam of the ship Hofcvell, under the command of Richard Bladwell. The choice of a commander seems to have been unfortunate. Bladwell was a poor navigator and, moreover, he "carried himself all ye voyage in such a scornful high of prouincie, dely and selfe conceit, that mynde made a great protractation. After a tedious voyage, protracted by Bladwell's gross miscalculations, the Hofcvell arrived in the Menam in June, 1661, and communications were at once opened up with the King, who "gladly forgave them [the Company] the old debt under hande and seale." Without delay, the old premises were re-occupied, but the fair prospect which the king's generosity opened up was warded off by Bladwell's misconduct. According to the report of John South, the principal factor, he "made us stinke in ye nostrils of all nations; and ye great men were he is rotten at harie, hopinge next yere when factory is settled, he may not be so great. South was not impressed with the advantages which Siam offered for trade, and advised that a colleague whom he recommended should be sent from Surat should bring his wife with him, as the place was peaceable, and both Dutch and Portuguese had their wives and families with them. The Council at Surat do not appear to have shared the optimism which so vividly coloured the factor's communications. The President, writing to Thomas Cotes, the
STAIRCASE TO THE SHRINE OF KHOW PHRABATR.
second factor, stated that the Hoopewul's voyage had been a loss to the Company, and that they had but little encouragement to repeat the experiment. In the circumstances he ordered that, pending further instructions from the court, Coates should return to Bantam in one of the numerous Dutch ships voyaging between Ayuthia and that port. Before leaving he was to inform the "visitors" that the Honourable Company had been advised of the king's favour, and that their answer would be communicated to him. Afterwards a letter of a similar tenor was sent to South. But it was not until the middle of the year 1664 that Coates and South were in a position to obey these instructions. In the meantime a direct trade had been established between Ayuthia and the Coromandel Coast, and the Court of Directors, influenced by the friendliness of the Hoopewul's reception, decided that the Siam trade should be placed under the control of their representatives at Madras. Before the Ayuthia dispatch was gone, the proper footing in accordance with these instructions the outbreak of hostilities between the Dutch and the Siamese introduced a new and perplexing element into the situation. The Company wished to cultivate amicable relations with the Dutch at this juncture; it was equally desirous of giving no cause of offence to the Siamese. But it was no easy matter to steer a middle course, as was speedily made evident. The landing from a Siamese ship in the Madras roads of a cargo of elephants intended for the King of Golconda was made a formal subject of complaint by the Dutch, and they also bitternest resented the determination of the Company to continue to maintain their factory at Ayuthia. Eventually, under the stimulating influence of the fear that the English would capture the trade which they had so long practically monopolised in Siam, the Dutch concluded peace with the Siamese. The treaty which was entered into on August 22, 1664, extended to the Dutch complete freedom of trade in the dominions possessed by them several valuable concessions, including a monopoly of the purchase of hides and a guarantee of the supply of ten thousand piculs of sappan-wood annually. Under the influence of the successful war they had waged, the Dutch became more powerful than ever in Siam, and the English stood correspondingly waned. Misconduct on the part of the Company's leading officials at Madras unhappily at this period tended to produce in an exceptional degree demoralisation in the Siam establishment. Private interests were prosecuted to the direct prejudice of the Company, and, in the absence of honest direction, its affairs fell into a very disorderly condition. A vivid picture is given by the account of the narrative of William Acworth, who, by a cruel mischance which landed him in Siam at a critical moment in the fortunes of the English factory, was placed in charge of the Company's interests. Acworth, after a series of complications which brought him into antagonism with some of the associates of peculiar factor whose fraudulent operations he discovered to his cost, was made the victim of a false charge of murder. He was cast into a loathsome prison, and his servants were subjected to a blood-curdling series of tortures with a view to extorting a confession. After a fortnight's incarceration Acworth was released, and the attitude of the officials was then as servile as it formerly had been arrogant. The man responsible for his arrest cried "peccavi," and fed him with "sweet words," but Acworth, smarling under the injustice of the charge and the grossness of his treatment, was not to be conciliated.

Writing home in words of burning indignation, he told his employers that if this unjust action was not avenged "twill be ashame for Enlishe to have trade here, for the whole country cry shame of this base act." In concluding his narrative Acworth gave a somewhat pessimistic opinion as to the prospects of Siam trade. "If," he said, "the trade of China should be open as it is thought, this place might be considerable, others of no vallow or unless Elishaps sell well at the coast, then from thence to Tansasere [Tenesserim] very profitable." The Company were in no mood to establish a rival port to the Dutch, and all adventurery further in Siam. With what the dishonesty of some factors, the death of others, and the extortion of a number of Portuguese who had been associated with the establishment, the factory got into a very parlous state, and eventually it was entirely closed. The King of Siam was much concerned at the cessation of trade, and wrote to the Company's agents at Bombay, inviting them to send ships from thence and from Surat to Siam. In response to the invitation the Company's ship Return, which was sent out from England in 1671, to attempt to open up a trade with Japan, called at Siam on its homeward voyage in 1674. This was the beginning of a fresh adventure, into which the factors on board the Return, smarling under the disappointments they had encountered in their abortive attempts to open up communications with Japan, entered with much zest. The king gave them a cordial welcome, and issued on their behalf a formal licence to trade. What more to their immediate purpose, they granted them a monetary loan of £2,000 for the prosecution of their enterprises.

It really seemed that the prospects of English commerce in Siam were brightening. The fair promise of the months succeeding the arrival of the Return was, however, not realised. The old troubles cropped up between the factors, with the consequence that the Company's interests suffered severely. The trade was conducted at such a substantial loss that towards the end of 1679 the Company decided to reduce the factory at Ayuthia, and in the following year determined to close it altogether. When the Siamese officials got to know of the intended withdrawal of the establishment they sent in a demand for rent, and showed themselves otherwise resolute of the action proposed to be taken. The claim for rent was met and, thereafter, the occupation of the factory continued, the Company's servants apparently finding it impossible to close the business owing to the number of outstanding liabilities. In this indeterminate fashion the connection was maintained until 1681, when there arrived at the mouth of the Menam, from Bantam, the ship Return, with, as a passenger, Mr. Geo. Gosforth, who was charged with the duty of making an examination into the complicated affairs of the Company in Siam. Mr. Gosforth's mission led to a great stirring of the somewhat muddy waters of Ayuthia trade. The Company's affairs before this official's arrival had been largely in the hands of a Mr. Burney, and it was soon discovered that this individual had been making to the Company's goods for the advancement of his private ends. Gosforth and he very speedily became at enmity, as was, perhaps, natural in the circumstances. Secure in his superior command of local influence, Burney seems to have used actual personal violence against the agent, dragging him out of his chamber and tying him up to a tree, "with other gross abuses." Gosforth, however, had the advantage of possessing the authority of the Bantam Committee, and he was not slow to use it by dismissing his pugnacious colleague. Burney went to Bantam to appeal against the decision, was put in prison, and he considered the events in Siam. But before he arrived at that port the English had left, and he had to proceed to Batavia to obtain the necessary interview with the Committee. Eventually he contrived to secure permission from them to return to Ayuthia to settle up his affairs. Two days after he had sailed orders arrived from the Court of Directors at home to the effect that the Siam factory should only be continued for a period, and that Burney should not be permitted to return to it. On arrival at Ayuthia, Burney found that during his absence the Company's agents, who had been left in charge—Samuel Potts and Thomas Ivel—had been making a special effort to clear out some of the Siam debts due to the Company, which amounted to the large sum of 67,000 dollars. In their desperation they had approached the Prime Minister with what the records describe as "a most obsequious and humble petition for justice and assistance," but they had no response, and were contemplating putting the Company's remaining stock of goods on consatlal craft, and proceeding to Bantam. The Company's affairs in Siam at the moment were at a low ebb, and they were brought still lower by the burning of the factory at Ayuthia, with all its contents, on December 6, 1682. The fire was attributed by Potts to accidental causes, but there was grave reason to suspect that Potts himself had a hand in it. Burney at the time, in a letter, bluntly attributed it to his "carelessness and debauchery," and that was the prevalent native view. Whatever the exact truth may be, the destruction of the factory put an end to Potts's career as a servant of the Company.

CHAPTER III

Rise to power of the Greek adventurers—Constantine Phaulkon—Appointed Prime Minister—English mission to Ayuthia—Quarrel between Phaulkon and an English factor—Departure of the English factors—The king's resentment—Subsequent attempts to re-establish relations.

In the record of these transactions relative to the Ayuthia factory in the period prior to the
INTERIOR OF WAT SUTHAT.
training under English auspices. He was associated for many years with Mr. George White, a famous interloping merchant who was a considerable thorn in the side of the East India Company, the edicts of which against private traders he treated with a contempt which was all the more galling because it had its justification in a long course of successful trade. Phaulkon, according to the best known facts of his life, ran away from home when he was ten years of age and took service as cabin boy in one of White's ships. White took a fancy to him and gave him permanent employment in the Eastern trade. When White went to Ayuthia in 1675 Phaulkon accompanied him, acting as his Assistant. His native shrewdness, coupled with a happy gift of ingratiating himself with those with whom he was brought in contact, led him to achieve such a considerable measure of success that when White left for England the ex-cabin boy was in a position to however, to be again wrecked. Yet a third attempt was made by him to woo fortune, and a third time he was cast away. The story goes that after this crowning disaster he fell asleep on the shore, and dreamt that he saw a person full of majesty looking down on him with a smiling countenance. As Phaulkon was wondering who he was the mysterious figure said in gracious tones, "Return, return from whence you came!" The words made such a deep impression upon Phaulkon that he decided to lavish the money he had saved from the wreck—some 2,000 crowns—in the purchase of a ship in which to return to Siam. As he was walking along the shore on the following day he met a stranger who, like himself, had been wrecked. On conversing with him Phaulkon found that he was an ambassador of the King of Siam returning from Persia. Phaulkon suggested to the envoy that he should return to Siam in the ship that he intended to purchase the connection was his appointment as chief merchant to the king. This was but the beginning of his official career. The clever Greek so ingratiated himself with the King, a man of considerable discernment and some enlightenment, that when his Foreign Minister—the Phra-klang—died in 1683 his Majesty offered the vacant post to him. Phaulkon at first declined the offer, not wishing to arouse the jealousy of the Mandarins, but eventually he was induced to withdraw his opposition and was entrusted with the entire charge of the finances of the kingdom, with the administration of the northern provinces. Nominally he was chief minister, and he actually became so not very long afterwards, drawing to himself a degree of power and influence such as no European had before his time or has since exercised in Siam.

M. Marcel le Blanc, who knew Phaulkon most intimately, gives a vivid picture of him in
THE COURTYARD IN WAT PHRA KEO.
his "Histoire de la Révolution de Siam." "This Minister of Siam," he says, "has been spoken of in the world in very different ways; his friends have drawn flattering portraits of him, his enemies have attempted to blacken his memory after his death; as much may be done with all men, just as we look at their good or bad side. To satisfy public curiosity on the subject of this minister who made so much noise in the world, and to make known, as I only know a few portly portraits of him, I proceed to render him justice. M. Constantin was of middling stature, full of face, being something sombre and melancholy in expression of his countenance, but agreeable in his conversation, and very engaging in his manners when he wished to be so. According to the genius of his nation he knew how to dissimulate; and through the habit he had had in India, of dealing only with slaves, he was proud and choleric. His wit and talent were of wide extent, and, without having regularly studied, he appeared to have learned everything. He spoke well, and in many different languages. He despised the riches which his good fortune had given him, and was ever for glory, and for that greatness which his humble birth had denied him. In the mixture of his qualities he had three that were excellent, as no one denies. He had a rare genius for 'great affairs' he had a perfect integrity and justice in his methods of transacting business, for which he never received salary or remuneration for what he served, contenting himself with the trade which that prince allowed him to carry on by sea; and in the third place, he was a sincere Christian, and the most zealous professor of Christianity in all the Orient, maintaining at his own expense all the missionaries and all the European laymen who had recourse to him." Kaempfer, who visited Ayuthia shortly after Phaulkon's death, gives an equally favourable account of him. He describes him as a man of great understanding, of an agreeable aspect, and an eloquent tongue, and says that although he had had a poor education, having passed his younger days at sea, mostly amongst the English and Dutch, he was of several years old, and had the style of a philosopher. Beyond doubt Phaulkon was a man of extraordinary ability—fit to rank amongst those rare European geniuses whose meteoric careers illuminated the course of Eastern history in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. It was unfortunate for English influence in Siam that Phaulkon's talents were not appreciated as they ought to have been by the East India Company. Probably because the Greek had been actively associated with the arch interloper—George White—and was known to entertain his views as to the desirability of freedom of trade, he was viewed with suspicion and dislike, and no attempt was made to enlist his favour. The above-mentioned sighted method of dealing with him adopted by the Company is to be found in the account which exists in the East India Company's records of a mission sent to Siam by the Company in 1683. The Company's representatives, Messrs. Strangh and Yale, went out in the *Mexic Merchant*, armed with full powers to investigate the Company's affairs and to continue or remove the Company's factory as they thought proper. On arrival they had a very friendly reception from Phaulkon, who greeted them "with profers of exceeding many services," and an intimation that the house had been prepared for their reception by order of the king. But many days had not elapsed before the factors had given cause of serious dissatisfaction to Phaulkon. They had come out filled with burning zeal against interlopers, and one of the fraternity—a certain captain P資源, who, having arrived from Madras, a few days after their arrival, Phaulkon wrote to Phaulkon indignantly asking whether his Majesty would countenance this interloper, and desiring to be informed as to the procedure to be adopted to prevent Pines from trading. A supreme touch of arrogant stupidity was given to the communication by a suggestion that if Phaulkon traded with the interloper he would be guilty of a misdeed. Phaulkon replied to the ill-advised missive in person. According to Strangh he declared that as the Company had so much slighted Siam, threatening to dissolve the factory from tyne to tyne, and never truly settled; Mr. Gosfrith carrying on the same, and the King not pleased, and making what I would do (this being a free port for all strangers to traffic in of what nation soever). The king would take it very ill that I should propound such a thing to him and if the King should grant it his subjects and other strangers would complain against me afterwards that by my means he was chased away from the factory, while the King would never do; especially such a one who with his ready cash, the best of all commodities, outdaces us. See that what arguments I could or did use of the Company's professing a constant and great trade to come directly out of Europe hither yearly from which they could expect more advantage than I, the King to whom may be they would never see again, with what more in large, signified little to his own self interest in the case that told me plainly, except I could doe soe as they have done at Suratt and the coast to prevent the interlopers buy all the goods which he would buy, I could not prevent him, nor helpe myself, for he shippes does trade of coast and Suratt goods which would stick close to him for a tyne if by this means hee did not quit himselfe of some."

Phaulkon's view of the freedom of Siamese trade was confirmed a few days later at a formal interview which Strangh had with the Phra-klang, or Foreign Minister of the Greek acting as interpreter. The details of this meeting as recorded by Strangh in a communication he sent home are of much interest for the light they throw upon the attitude of the Siam Government to foreigners. At the outset Strangh produced a letter from Charles II. to the Emperor of Japan with a request that the minister might be permitted to forward a cargo of silk to the King of Siam, an oversight which was not unnaturally resented at the Siamese court, where the punctilio of etiquette was scrupulously observed. The Phra-klang made no direct reference to this unfortunate blunder, but he treated very coolly the application that the letter should be forwarded, remarking that there was a strict prohibition by the Emperor of Japan against all Christian nations trading with his country. The only exception to this rule, the minister said, was the Dutch, who had renounced Christianity. Would the English do the same if they were permitted to trade? he asked. Strangh replied that the Company would not renounce Christianity for the wealth of the whole Indies. The Phra-klang professed himself pleased with this answer and then went on to say that nothing could exceed the character of the goods brought out in the *Mexico Merchant*, averring that they were unsuited to the Siam market, Strangh stated in reply that the cargo had been very carefully selected by men of experience, and he added that the matter would be remedied if it should be found that the goods really were not of the kind required in the market. The discussion now drifted into a general argument on the conditions of trade. Strangh invited the Phra-klang to indicate "some means whereby not a constant but great trade might be created off all such English manufactories as other Europe produces" that might suit to Siam. The minister declared to commit himself to any specific advice. The markets of Ayuthia as well as of Siam generally, he said, were open and free for all merchants and traders going or coming to sell and buy. He went on to remark that he regretted that the East India Company "could not find that encouragement in this country which might be found here in Siam," and he concluded by saying that as he was no merchant he "could not tell how to remit the same, but would recommend this trade to the King's merchants and goodorne keepers." Towards the end of the interview Strangh sought to enlist the good offices of the Phra-klang and the minister to aid the collection of the debts due to the Company; but the Phra-klang emphatically declined to interfere. His predecessor, he said, had warned the Company's representatives against trading with native merchants without his approval, and he intimated that some of the debtors were dead while others were "not worthy of it." The utmost concession he would make was to promise to hand over into the Company's custody any of the debtors who they thought were able to pay. Subsequently Strangh endeavoured to put into execution the permission given to him to coerce the well-to-do defaulters, but not much came of his efforts, as the persons summoned to appear at the factory showed a marked indisposition to respond. Nor were the efforts made by Strangh and his associates to trade any more successful. The failure in this instance was attributed by Strangh to Phaulkon, who wished to keep the English trade in his own hands and intrigued to prevent sales. It is possible that there was a certain amount of truth in this accusation, but the greater likelihood seems to be that the lack of success was due in the main to Strangh's indiscrét conduct and a lack of business capacity.

When Strangh and his associates found that they could make no headway they decided to take counsel of their sibillins, an English resident at Ayuthia, as to the best course for them to pursue in the circum-
stances. Mr. Gibbon appears to have given them sound advice, the general effect of which was that the Company should maintain a small establishment at Ayuthia rather than altogether abandon the place and by so doing lose all their debts and in addition incur the displeasure of the king. In order to obtain confirmation of Mr. Gibbon's views, Strangh called on Phaulkon, "who as yet was unsuspected," and reminded him of the promise that had been given by the minister that the king's merchants should confer with him upon the subject of a future trade. Phaulkon told Strangh it was a fact that the minister "did speak of sending the king's merchants to treat with us, but he is gone with the King and left no order to any that hee knows off. Now wee cannot help ourselves wee come to him; wee should have done this at first, and our businesse had been done. I tould him, as we had a letter from the hon. from him, as from mee, hee had it once in his thoughts to have spoke of it to the Barcalong [Prime Minister], but was overswayed by second thoughts. The hon. comp® had done very ill in not sending a letter from the King of England to this King, which would have been very acceptable, and furthered their affaire mightily, having lately had an ambas- sador from the King of France, and letters from the Prince of Orange, but contrarie soe much slighted Syam that they had ordered us away; which the King would not resent well, and did assure us iff wee did, iff ever after the Comp® did intend to settle as now, Bantam being lost, hee did not see where they could doe better. It would cost them sauce and not 20,000 Ps. [pieces of eight] would procure them such privileges again. Nor those favours they had received from the King in lending of them money and goods, &c.; and that wee had tould him about merchants accumulated and remain until the arrival of the next ship, advising the Company to that effect, and awaiting their further orders. He was sure, he said, that if Strangh did go, the President would next year send some one to settle there. Then the conversation turned on Potts, the Company's discredited factor. Phaulkon said that he "would advise mee not to adhere to Mr. Potts, who would ruin the Comp® affaires, wondering why I did not send him abroad. Hee had waited all this while to see what satisfaction we would make him by establishing an exemplary punishment on him for what afronts and abuses done to him by his tongue and penn, which he would still advise, and iff did not gett any from us, swore would take satisfaction, and bore his tongue trew with a hoot iron; which after had tould what I had in his behalfe gave him my counsell to be better desred and not to bee so revenge- full." Soon afterwards the two parted.

Comp® to him, therein [as he has scene] they recomend all their affaire to him, and assisting of us... [I] would have transferred business to him, to which [he] replied it's true, but that it would not have bee nee soe well to have come not daring to buy, there was noe such thing. ... They only came to sift us and may bee if they could run away and never pay for our goods." Finally, Phaulkon advised Strangh to despatch the ship with what goods he had Phaulkon in taking leave "bragged bee never gave any advice yet to any bodle, but what bee would maintaine and deserved thanks for." The next day Strangh met Potts and warned him of Phaulkon's ill disposition towards him.
This warning Potts slighted and thereafter a scene a day passed without great contests, but disputes, and inveotive speeches of Mr. Potts about Mr. Phaulkon and him and all his other transactions to the noe little disturbance of the house, not regarding what I said, that once weary of my life and often prayed for Peace but could not have it." The trouble with Potts continued and poor Strangh became almost demented by his disorderly beheav, and that of several of his boon companions whom he brought into the factory. Meanwhile, the general condition of the Company's affairs was not improving. Strangh and Phaulkon did not get on very well together, and as the days slipped by the breach widened. At length the coolness developed into an actual rupture. Strangh charged Phaulkon with monopolising the trade himself, either to satisfy a private grudge against the Company or out of avarice. Phaulkon retorted that the Company had been very fickle in their dealings with Siam, and that until they followed the example of the French and the Dutch they could not hope to succeed. After this fuel was added to the flames of the quarrel by Phaulkon wreaking his vengeance on Potts in a way which was very insulting to the English community. Potts, while walking near Phaulkon's residence one night, was seized by the Greek's orders and put in the "Stocks and Congees like unto that of the Pillory." Phaulkon's version of the business was that Potts was loitering about for the purpose of murdering him. But Potts himself stated that he had gone to deliver some copper to a Captain Heath who lived near Phaulkon's residence. The arrival of the Company's ship Delight from China, after an abortive attempt to open a trade with Canton, created a temporary diversion from these troubles at the factory. Accompanying the ship were Mr. Peter Crouch and Mr. John Thomas, factors, and Mr. Abraham Navarro, Chinese Interpreter. Strangh took counsel of these experienced colleagues as to the course he should pursue. At the outset it was decided to continue the factory, but on a failure to barter their goods for copper and the use by Phaulkon of threatening words relative to the debt contracted with the king, it was decided to close the factory and present a petition to the king in person representing the position of affairs created, as it was averred, by Phaulkon's malignity. The king happened to be on a hunting expedition at Louvo at the time, and thither Strangh repaired. He was accompanied by Crouch and Navarro. The latter went reluctantly because, Strangh supposed, Phaulkon had spread abroad a story that on one occasion he had a serious discourse with the king on the subject of Christianity, and that his Majesty had been so impressed with the and hee to a new Lingoe I had taken on in this wise—

"That upon his Highnesse Grant of Free Trade about any hindrance or molestation as noe lesse Mr. Phaulkon perswassion and allurest I was of the opinion to have stayed to try what possible could be done in the trade of this place, as for the recovery of those considerate Debts due to the honble Companie our Masters, in this place. Notwithstanding all the discouragement from my first arrival (as often have acquainted you' highnesse:) All wth tho it was tould mee that did proceed from Mr. Phaulkon, I could not believe, because hee gave mee, the same assurance as yo' highnesse did, until now that he has plainly discovered himself to bee the secret and hidden obstructor, not only of the former, but present trade of this country wth the honble Companie onder pretence of authoretic having lately contracted wsome merch for a parcel of kop in Barter, for other goods we noe sooner arriving his notice but hee puts a stop too lit, wth imprisoning of the Broader, and scarcourous reflections on our Masters the honble Companie. Pretending an embargo from the king; wth off had been, his Highnesse would have acquainted us therest and never bid us try the market. Wherefore seeing soe great obstruction in our Trade I was now come to take my Leave; desiring his highnesse tar to our departure wth all the ho: Complt effects and servants. And as for the debts, since recommedit to his highnesse for recovery, and that wee could effect nothing in that affaire, I desired hee would please to give comantince to Mr. Hammon Gibbon, to come and mynd his highness in that affaire &c.

"The Baralong to this gave a short reply. "That as hee was much based heere above wth States matters of the king, could not attend below, therefore had apointed Mr. Phaulkon to help and assist us as well as all other merch Mr. Phaulkon thereupon taking the word out of his Mouth, and after warning to himselfs; wth a Sterne Comtance, and investe Speech, Carried the whole discourse in Engage: thus—"

"That I should know, before whom I was, and spoke too in this nature, a Prince of this country and should not father any such thing upon him, off Free Trade and the like, Since hee himselfe not many days since, and as hee thought the day before I made this bargain, had should mee of an Embargo upon kop for this yeare, and that for any thing els I had Libertie to Barter for, but not in Cop'. Whereupon I going to interrupt him, and to tell him it was false, hee bid mee stay, and heare what his highnesse had to say, before I interrupted him, hee proceeded to tell mee, that by this Bargain Making, I had runne my selfe into a great peniumary, to compensate the kings order and Lawes, What I thought of my selfe, and what Would become of mee, iff the king like other Indian Princes, should use the rigour of this Country Law against mee: But that his Great king and master was a most gracious king, and a lover of Strangers. Iff hee had bee of his Natives I should have scene what had been done too mee. His Highnesse was of the opinion, and had the good hoopes of mee at first, that the honble Companie affaire might
NATIVE DRAWINGS FROM AN ANCIENT SIAMESE MANUSCRIPT IN THE ORIENTAL MANUSCRIPT DEPARTMENT OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.
be better regulated, then has beene illibertoe, but was sorry to see it inclined rather to worsse, and therefore gave me Free Libertie to depart, as I requested, my tara should bee readie wth in a day or two. And as for the debts standing out in this Country, my nominating Mr. Gibbon was well. Hee would afford him all the assistance hee could, But should consider that they were all desperse, and that could not trouble h3 highnesse wth such a businesse not to be recovered.

To the Strangh replied:—

"That what I have fathered on his Highnesse, was nothing but the Truth wth ought (though may not :) at all tymes to be spoken before Kings, left bee Princes. As for the Great Primoroy and dreadful punishment, I have deserved, though favored I thank him for his graciousness, though must needs tell him, if I had got his 400 chest of Kop: I had not yet my full complais according to the Tara for the Ship, wth I supposed to bee the Kings, or the Barcalongs tara, procured by himselfe, a sufficient warrant for mee, that I intended to ship soe much Kop: and was granted. Hee told me I had left it out of the Tara, and would make them at 400 Kop: if any such were, it is after the grant of the gen3 tara, wth I hoped the King would not recall. And that wth makes it more plaene and doubfull whither there bee any embargo, is that those China mens have an especiall Tarras from the King himselfe, for selling of this kop: wth would not have been granted if the embargo had been; Moreover the Queens kop: and they hire Merch. Could I or any bodie els, think hee durst oppose or stay some when had yo3 own words that had nothing to doe or durst not midle wth them. As for his Zeale and Sorrow hee had for the ho: Comp: affairs as inclining rather to worsse than heretofore, hee has shown it by this, and in it his false Zeale and Shams put upon them; And bidd him consider wth himselfe, what the ho: Comp: has to doe, to settle upon such terms as these, or how I could well ans't it to stay The greatest favor I now desired after all this, was that I might have my dispatch.

To the Strangh: Hee replied somewhat milder, That the Tara soe much stood upon, was for shipping of, of the Kop: I should have had a tara for buying as well as for shipping, they were two different things, and as for the China man hee should bee severely punished for telling a Lye that had a tara when had non. Our tara should bee readie wth a day or two, only we must pay for the King and Barcalong's letter to the Comp: wth must bee altered.

"Asking me if I had any more to say; The Barcalong was weary to sitc soe long. I told him noe, Soe I could but have my dispatch, hee should bee soone bidd of our trouble, and after made of our various service, The Barcalong as if risit from Sleepe, told mee, hee must have all our Ironworce, for wth would give us other goods, wth I should promise him, I told him, hee might. Soe thereby now further hindrance or delay may be created. Hee told mee the boats that brought donné our goods might bring up the Ironworce. For onwilling Phaulkon should have them to his newe house a building, and therefore todt

him they were for the most part on board. Yett upon his promise that should bee disparched, promissee hee should have them.

"Soo parted for this tyme: Not wout a very severe check at last to Mr. Abraham Navarre for his former threatening as hee termid it (:though was no such thing :) That if it were not for the Europe blood wth him, hee should not escape his reward in threatening so Great a King, as his Glorious master at present hee past it by:"

Still he's plain speaking in this interview of which he gives such a graphic account aroused against him a spirit of ennui which had some very inconvenient results. An immediate consequence was the withholding of the tara, or pass, without which he could not leave in proper form. In his annoyance at the inten3ional dilatoriness of the Siamese officers Strangh attempted to leave without the authorization. He was sharply pulled up, and Phaulkon, we can imagine with grim satisfaction, wrote to the Company a protest against Strangh's conduct, and concluded with the sage advice that if they wished in the future to have a connection with these parts they should make the proper checks at last to Mr. Abraham Navarre for the management of their affairs "as may be for your nation's credit and your interest." Strangh, on his part, fired a heavy parting shot in the form of this letter, every line of which breathes his hatred of the Greek and his indignation at the treatment to which he had been subjected. —

"To Mr. Constant Phaulkon,

From Wm. Strangh, dated from the Barr of Siam, 2, Jan. 16834-"

"I have two of your succincte false imputations of the 16th and 22nd December was answer to a little larger explanation of the brief though ample import of my first parenthecis charge to you of the 2nd December was my suit with your impotable weak capacity jumbled through your sudden and surprizing elevation to a sownyng Lords: or a heathenish Grace, and that I may not bee allways Imperious or contumaceous in my replies EVEN your letters relating to my former charging of you: to be the sole and only instrument of all the Honourable Company's former and present losses and sufferings in this place."

"To begin with the first as the fireing of the Factory not without some cursed treachery (which heaven detect), though cannot charge you with matter of fact, yet cannot excuse your indirect clandestines practises set by so many cunning and crafty ingins, corrupting and treacherously seducing little Ivtt and Samuel Harris to your practice and faction, with no less then Honos: and great impolicy for their reward the one a Lord forsooth, the other sent in your suits with others with that are only in the Factory when took fire, both honoured and employed, might not discover the bellowes of that flame."

"Secondly your sowing and blowing the coals of hatred and dionession biiw the two Factors, others, to that height that at last took hold of and consumed all the Honourable Companies effects in this place to ashes, what formerly and long the heat that sad and fatal accident was designit, was ready to be transported off the place to Bantam, had not your false zeal towards the Honourable Companies interest and clandestinely informing the deceased Barcalong that Polis was running away with the Company's effects, hindered his good intentions, and preferred this their great lots to serve your malitious ends."

"And above all this your insolence in heaping so many indignities upon them by imprisonment and putting in the Stocks and pillory their servants without any ceremony with other their disaffected servants and all this for your getting of Credit out of the Honourable Company's Goods. (When by your own confession not worth a gourree) for so considerable a sum as nigh [?] 400 catt' the space of 3 years without interest, and ingratitude that ought to be punished with the hightest severity. You not satisfying ... with your accursed avarice without the utter extirpating the Honos: Comp: and English nation from trading in this kingdom."

"At my arrival for preventing my true knowledge and information not only how the Company's affairs was carried on and ruified by you, but of the great change of the principle of your self interest, fearing may approach would be prejudicial to your monopolized trade of this Kingdom, did send your ... ingin and creature Ivatt to congratulate my arrival so as to know all the Honos: Comp: affairs on you, the only Great Sukon a man of this nation to meet with your insatiable avarice protested so great kindness and service to the Comp: and to 1500 pneded to be preferred by the Agent and Council at Bantam to the deceased Barcalong for procuring what they could not but you would and did undertake to procure the consent of the King and by the taking of yearly English manufactures to a considerable value, until such time you by your self to incend foolish Barcalong to whom we were recommended did inform yourself of the Honos: Comp: design by their letter to the Barcalong as by your private letter from Mr. While your creature touching the discourse the Honos: Comp: affairs with this nation to meet with your insolatable avarice with no small reflections on the management of their affairs in those parts especially not being taken notice of by them, much less a pish cash [present] of 15000 for you so turned the scale of your affection to their prejudice that notwithstanding all the fair promises and grant of free trade inferior to the Dutch and French without that Ceremony of an Ambassador from our King to this could bee no settlement."

"You by the abused authority of your great Master and favoured of our nation nor acquainted with your pranks and Tricks had not only privately but publickly, some on pain and torments with this nation threatening and imprisonment forbidden and hindered all Merchants Brokers &c. so much as peep or come near the Factory either to buy or sell with us as is evident to be proved, with your succinct reflections on the Honos: Comp: of being broke and not worth a gourree that you may well say as you falsely and inumediately do insist in yours that I have done nothing this 3 months but consider whether I
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would go or stay, neither of which I could
effect, being by you intervened from either
buying or selling; kept as a close prisoner in
blamed for falling in amongst so many dis-
affected persons to their God and country and
bless myself that I escaped so well, (through as
distinguished and not expressed in this nor
excepted to the contrary notwithstanding for
them to seek their full satisfaction in any place

the factory for above a month, on purpose to
lose the monsoons that might not arise in time
with Capt. Fines to discourse the abuses and
great injustice of him to you in the affair of Mr.
Tyler, all our household servants and the cook
and natives of the country chased from the
factory and imprisoned, myself guarded so
closely and strictly that when only upon Tryall
did attempt an escape after you had arrested
the Hon[t], Comp's effects in the place (which
was not willing to leave behind me) was dis-
gracefully brought back to the Factory with
innumerable indignities and abuses more, which
would make a volume, and shall leave to my
superiors to judge and take notice of what to
them or me committed (as you say) with whom
I never had dealings for a farthing as to my
own pletie; but must needs say that as an
Orrambarro; am rather to be pitied than
my Fatb' dogg which lost his taye) more than
now have in your possession would have faln
to your share I'm sure of it, and tho as you say
I have done with Siam yet hop the Hon't,
Comp's has not, I do believe it with you and
therefore in the name and behalf of the Hon't,
Comp's do by these solemnly and in optimus
forma Protest against you Constall Phaulkon
to be liable to answer and make satisfaction
either in body or estate for all above mentioned
damages and great losses, &c. already men-
tioned or hereafter may accrue to the Hon't,
Comp's by your detaining of this the ship
Mexico Merchant so long to the no less hazard,
as Damage of losing her Monsoon and the lives
of those that go in her Your detaining of our
second mate Mr. Anto. Williams against his
will and consent with all other losses damages
and abuses by what name soever termed or
or part of the world excepted as they best can
or may.

"William Strangh."

Within a few days of the despatch of this
letter Strangh and his associates set sail from
the Menam in the Mexico Merchant. They
were supported in their course of action by
Mr. Peter Crouch, of the Delight, who, writing
to the President of the Council at Surat, attrib-
uted their ill-success to "the sinister and
self-interested contrivances of Mr. Const.
Phaulkon, whose industry is employed in
blasting the Hon't Company's business that
see bee may the better flourish and advance
himself thereby." Sir John Child, the
President of the Surat Council, however, did
not accept the complacent view that the failure
was unavoidable. Not only did he pass a con-

WAT CHENG FROM THE RIVER.
Strain the pangs of hunger to surrender. This episode was afterwards to bear somewhat bitter fruit for Siam, but at the time it did not affect the relations between Siam and the Company. At Madras, in 1684, the Company's agents went out of their way to help the King of Siam's Indian factor, an old servant of the Company named Ivatt, by shipping his goods for him free of charge, and by giving free passages to his agents. The Surat Council took an even bolder line in their anxiety to keep on good terms with the King of Siam. Early in 1685 they decided to send their ship Falcon to Siam with the object of re-establishing their factory there. The factors on board took with them letters from Sir Joseph Child to the king and to his principal minister. The communication to the latter expressed concern at the recent unhappy misunderstandings, and gave vent to a hope that the new factors he was sending would "behave themselves." To the king, who was addressed as "ye most illustrious, renowned, generous, and truly glorious, ever good, great and mighty King of Siam," an application was addressed for permission to re-establish their settlement in Siam with the same privileges as were heretofore enjoyed. Beyond the fact that the Falcon arrived at Bangkok about September, 1685, little is recorded relative to this mission. It was doubtless overshadowed, if not completely extinguished, by a great French mission which arrived about the same period under the escort of two warships. English influence in Siam for the time being was non-existent.

CHAPTER IV

Siamese mission to France—Louis XIV. extends to it a cordial reception—Imposing French mission to Siam—Rise between Siam and Golconda—Samuel White, Shipbuilder of Mergha, summoned to Ayuthia on charges connected with the war—His appeal to Phaulkon—Returns to Mergha—Macassar rising at Ayuthia.

For a great many years after the establishment of European settlements in Siam the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the English were the only nations which maintained direct commercial relations with the country. In 1687 an important new influence was introduced with the appearance of the French on the scene, under conditions of impressive splendour. For nearly twenty years before that period French missionaries had laboured in Siamese territory, and through them the possibilities of trade centre in the Menam Valley had been made familiar in French commercial circles. But the inspiring force which directed the steps of the pioneers of French influence came, not from France, but from Siam. The King of Siam, as will have been gathered from the narrative, was a man of singular force of character and exceptionally broad-minded for an Eastern ruling prince of that day. The son of a soldier of fortune who by the agency of a
The statement of intention which directed his policy in regard to France came from the French priest, who appear to have gained such considerable influence over the mind of the king that they at one time hoped for his conversion to Christianity. The missionaries' expectations were sadly disappointed in this respect, but their patriotic advertisement of the greatness and power of their country fell on fruitful ground. Inspired by the hope of lapping a new and lucrative channel of trade, the king in 1680 despatched to France an embassy consisting of three principal representatives and thirty followers. The vessel which carried the party appears to have been wrecked on the voyage. The envoys, at any rate, never reached Europe. Undismayed by the failure of his initial effort, the Siamese monarch in 1683 sent another mission of an even more imposing character than the first. Two French priests were included in the ambassadorial suite, and six Siamese youths also accompanied the party, the intention being that they should be taught handicrafts in Europe. The ambassadors were accredited to Louis XIV., but there is reason to believe that one of them proceeded to London and opened up some sort of negotiations with the English court. A statement has been made that a treaty was actually concluded with Charles II., but if any such arrangement was made there does not appear to be any record of it.

The reception of the Siamese mission in France was cordial to a degree. Voltaire remarks that the vanity of Louis XIV. was much flattered by such a compliment from a country ignorant until then that France existed. The ambassadors were fed and feasted on all hands, and so thoroughly did they impress themselves upon the popular mind that to their visit is to be traced some of the French fashions of the day.
Louis XIV's gratification at the visit of the mission led him to despatch an imposing return mission to Siam. At the head of the embassy was M. le Chevalier de Chaumont, and in the ambassadorial suite were several notable personages. The mission was accommodated in two ships of war, La Malic and L'Oiscau. Nothing, in fact, was left undone which was likely to impress the Siamese with the power of France. On arriving at Bangkok on September 22, 1685, the mission was welcomed by the chief local officials. A little later it was received in great state by the king.

The envoys presented the following letter from Louis XIV. to the King of Siam:

"Most high, most excellent, and most magnanimous Prince, our well-beloved and good friend, may God increase your greatness by a fortunate end. I have learned with concern the loss of the Ambassadors whom you sent to us in 1681; and we have been informed by the missionary fathers who returned from Siam, and by the letters received by our ministers from the person who appears to have charge of your affairs, the cordiality with which you desire our Royal friendship. To respond to this, we have chosen the Chevalier de Chaumont as our ambassador to alone crown you with eternal bliss. We have charged our ambassador with some presents of the most curious things of our kingdom, which he will present to you as a mark of our esteem, and he will explain to you what we most desire for the advantage of our subjects in commercial matters. Above all, we pray that the Lord will crown you with all happiness.

"Given at our Palace of Versailles, the 21st day of January, 1685.

"Your attached and sincere friend,

"Colbert."

"Louis."

Accompanying the embassy was a large number of priests, keenly intent on proselytism. They secured from the king various concessions relative to the treatment of native Christians, and these were embodied in a treaty the terms of which the king caused to be published in the principal towns of his dominions. The representatives of other European nations at Bangkok viewed the advent of this splendid mission with a feeling akin to consternation. The English factors wrote home in December, 1685, to the Court of Directors informing them that in their opinion the "French ambassadors design to drive away other nations," and im-
George At that fitted man be his con war suppliant 1686. The new mission was conceived on a scale of considerable grandeur. Two principal envoys were this time sent, one, M. de la Loubère, to represent the king, and the other, M. Cébert, to look after the interests of the French East India Company. Twelve Jesuit fathers were included in the suite, and the escort was a powerful body of 1,400 troops under the command of M. des Fargès, a Field Marshal of France. The whole were embarked on seven ships, three of which were men-of-war. Before following further the fortunes of the mission it will be necessary to deal with the general course of events in Siam, which in the period between the arrival of the two missions assumed an important character.

At the time that the active assistance of France was being sought by Siam in 1683 the country became involved in a war with Golconda owing to wrongs done to the king’s commercial agents. The duty of preparing for this war fell mainly upon an Englishman, one of many to hold service under the Siam Government, who was appointed Shahbandar, or port officer, of Mergui. This official was Samuel White, a brother of George White, the famous interloper of whom mention has already been made. He was at one time in the service of the East India Company, and for some years prior to his appointment at Mergui had superintended the King of Siam’s trading operations between that seaport and the eastern seaboard of India. Though a man of considerable charm of manner and much tact, he had the conspicuous weakness of the Englishmen in the East of that period—an inordinate love of good living. We have frequent glimpses of him in the records carousing and making merry with his visiting countrymen, drinking numerous toasts to the accompaniment of gun-firing, as the custom then was, and generally scandalising the natives by a riotous mode of conduct. In his official capacity he appears to have acted with considerable shrewdness and with a proper regard for the King of Siam’s interests. At the same time, when the opportunity offered he was ready to do a service to his countrymen, and in particular to his old employers. A conspicuous example of his friendly solicitude was afforded soon after his appointment as Shahbandar. One of the Company’s ships, the Golden Fleece, having sprung a bad leak in the Bay of Bengal, put into Mergui in almost a sinking condition. White sent his own slaves to help to repair the mischief, and he provided warehouse accommodation ashore for the cargo. The vessel, after refitting with White’s assistance, was allowed to leave without the payment of any port dues. In after years, when White was a supplicant for parliamentary favour, these facts were confirmed and amplified by an Englishman who happened to be at Mergui at the time and was well acquainted with the entire circumstances.

White was instructed at the beginning of 1684 to make the necessary preparations for the prosecution of the operations against the King of Golconda. In pursuance of these instructions he fitted out several ships, receiving in the execution of the task valuable
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assistance from the East India Company's representatives on the Madras coast, who supplied them with ammunition and naval stores and the services of a number of Englishmen. Associated with White in the arrangements was another Englishman, Captain John Coates, who is impressively described in the East India Company's records as "of the King of Siam's navy." Coates, armed with full authority to make war, sailed forth from Mergui and captured in 1685 a ship belonging to the King of Golconda, valued at 100,000 crowns. Later on the hostilities were transferred to the vicinity of Madapollam, where two ships lying at anchor were captured. One of the vessels, the Red Clove, belonged to the King of Golconda, and the other, the New Jerusalem, was the property of an Armenian named John Demarcora, who had incurred the enmity of the Siamese authorities by some transactions he had carried through in Pegu. This action, which seems to have come as a surprise to the East India Company's representatives, led to complications between the factors at Madapollam and the native authorities. In hot haste the Englishmen were recalled from Coates's ship, but without much effect apparently, for later when the adventurer put into Mergui no fewer than forty Europeans were under his command. Coates, in spite of urgent protests, continued his operations in and about Madapollam. At length, when he had exhausted his opportunities of warfare and also his supplies, he directed his course to Mergui. On arrival he was bitterly upbraided by White for his indiscreet conduct of the operations, and the latter intimated that he would have to proceed to Ayuthia to account for his conduct. Coates protested against what he described as White's ungenerous conduct, and there was a fierce quarrel between the two, culminating in a tragico-comic interlude in which the commander of Siam's navy pretended to take poison, and was treated with antidotes by two doctors who were called in by White. After this there was a reconciliation between the pair, and Coates proceeded to Ayuthia by the overland route, with his colleague's assurance that he would be supported in all his proceedings on the Coromandel coast. At a somewhat later period White himself was summoned to Ayuthia. With a prescience of evil he responded to the call unwillingly. Indeed, it was not until the most peremptory orders, twice repeated, had been received that he set his face towards the capital. His plea for his dilatoriness was illness, and though at the time it was made it was baseless, he arrived at Ayuthia seriously indisposed from an attack of fever. When he had sufficiently recovered to get about he paid a visit to Phaulkon. What happened at the interview does not appear, but a letter written by White to Phaulkon and a reply to it from the latter are on record, and they give us an interesting insight into the relations between the two men. White wrote in a querulous tone complaining of Phaulkon's unwonted strangeness to him, protesting "his own innocence in all matters referring to his publick administration of his great master's affairs," and expressing a hope that his lordship would not "without just provocation take delight in plucking down the building which his own hand had raised."

Phaulkon's reply may be given in full, as it not only throws light upon the conditions of service of the early European officials in Siam, but is of interest as a revelation of the mind and character of the extraordinary man who wielded supreme power in the country at

WAT CHAIYA MONGKHON.
Right Worshipful,—We know no reason you have to charge us with strangeness in our deportment towards you, when you consider or observe our general Carriage towards all other Persons, which we hope is not offensive to any man in particular.

The jealousy you express of having private Enemies, who endeavour to estrange us from you, as 'tis on our part altogether Causeless; so it not only argues you culpable of something, you would not have discovered, but highly reflects upon us, as if we took pleasure in harrying to the malicious tightening and defraction of our bleece men, to the prejudice of those we have thought worthy of so considerable a Trust, as we upon mature deliberation, thought good to confer upon you: Nay, Sir, we must be plain and tell you, The Shalbender has no other Enemy, that we know of, than the Shalbender, which your own hand will evidently make appear.

That you are now reduced so near the Grave is matter of trouble to us, and that you may not basish yourself thither, let us, as your friend, persuade you to Temperance. As to the Protestation you make of your Zeal for His Majesties Honour and Interest, give us leave to tell you, that it is no miracle to see a man drive on his own Ambitious or Covetous designs, under a pretext of promoting his King's Interest; though we do not desire to charge you with being a Court Parasite.

The satisfaction you desire shall be granted you, so soon as you are in a condition to be Examined by our Secretary, who should long since have been sent out to you, had we not understood your Indisposition, and be cautioned to be plain, fair, and moderate in your Answers, to whatever Queries he proposes to you; avoiding all Passionate Expressions or Gestures, which may do you much harm, but cannot avail anything to your advantage.

It will be no small pleasure to us, to find you as innocent as you pretend, nor shall we ever take delight to ruine what our Hands have build up; but, if we perceive a Structure of your own raising, to begin to totter, and threaten our own ruine with its fall, none can tax us with imprudence, if we take it down in time. There is your own Metaphor returned, and the needful in answer to your Paper of yesterday's date, concluded with our hearty wishes for your recovery, as being, Your friend, Phaulkon.

Nothing hardly could be more dignified and direct than this effusion. It reveals a man of stern but not unkindly disposition, who was a thorough judge of human nature, and a writer of terse, vigorous English. What its effect upon White was not revealed. It seems probable that he underwent the examination which Phaulkon speaks of, and emerged from it with success, for not long afterwards he re-assumed the duties of his appointment at Mergul.

At the time that White was at Ayuthia a serious plot was brought to light for firing the capital and murdering the king and Phaulkon and massacring all the Europeans. The movement was directed by several disaffected Siamese of high positions, and the leaders were some Macassars who were resident at the time in Ayuthia. It was the first muttering of a storm which in the end was to involve the dynasty in ruin and drench the country with blood. A premature disclosure of the plans of the conspirators led to the adoption of precautionary measures which were effectual. Many Macassars, finding that the authorities were ready for them, surrendered, and a considerable number were put to death. Another parley was offered, and obtained, permission to leave the country, but the Government, repenting of their decision, sent orders ahead of the men for their arrest and detention. Steps to this end were taken under the direction of M. Forbin, who commanded the garrison at Bangkok; but the Macassars, enraged at what they regarded as an act of treachery, fought strenuously, killing and wounding many of the garrison, including several of the European leaders. Eventually they broke and fled, only, however, to meet death at the hands either of their pursuers or of the public executioner. A third and larger section of the Macassar colony, meanwhile, were standing upon the defensive in their own quarters. The royal clemency was offered to their chief on the condition that he and his men would lay down their arms. The tender was at first declined, but at a later period, according to Samuel White, who gives a very full account of the episode, the Prince, attended by the whole crew of desperate volatiles, all armed with creases and launces, went to the Palace Gate; whence he sent word to his Majesty, that in the sense of his late error and reliance on his Royal word, he was come to ask His Majesties pardon, and promise a peaceable demeanour for the future; and to that end desired admittance to throw himself at His Majesties feet, to which he was answered, that the posture he then was in did not correspond to his pretences, but if he would at first surrender his arms, and command his attendants to do the like, His Majesty would readily grant him liberty to come into his presence and conform the pardon he had already offered. On this he fell to his knees, and the Prince peremptorily replied, he would never be guilty of so base a submission as required the parting with their arms; adding that he was not insensible of an approaching great storm: 'But,' says he, 'tell the King I am like a great tree well rooted, and shall be able to endure any ordinary shock; but if the storm comes so violently on, that I cannot longer stand it, he may be assured my fall will not be without the ruine of much understood; and since I cannot be suffered to speak to the King with my arms if he has any further business with me, he knows where to find meat at my own House.'

All resentment of these during Expressions was seemingly smother'd, and it was thought most convenient to lull him into Security by suffering him for that time to depart without taking any further notice of it, though all necessary Preparations were with great privicy made to reduce him by force. And according the Lord Phaulkon in Person, accompanied with sixty Europeans, having first in the Night block'd up the small river, and so surrounded the Macassars Camp with about two hundred of the King's galleys and Boats, that they could not possibly fly, on the Fourteenth Instant at break of day gave order for the Onset, intending first to have fired down all the Houses before them, that so they might force their Skulling Enemies to an open Fight, who otherwise would have the opportunity of Murdaring all that came near them, and yet keep themselves unseen. But alas! the rashness of some of the Chief Europeans hurried them on at once, to the breach of orders, and their own Death, and that without any damage to the Enemy. For Captain Coates, and by his example and Command, several others landed before the time on a small Spot of a dry point, where the Macassars, ere they could well look about them, rushing out of the Houses dispatche one Mr. Alvey newly arrived in the Herbert, and forced the rest to take to the Water again in which hasty retreat, Captain Coates with the weight of his own Honour and Arms, the rest of the Water, the rest with much danger and difficulty recovering their Boats. This sad Prologue to the yet sadder Tragedy a man would have thought warning enough for them to have proceeded afterwards with more discretion, but being for the most part of them men of more Resolution than Conduct and unacquainted with the way of fighting with such an Enemy, and yet Emulous of shewing themselves every man more valiant then his Neighbor: About three hours afterwards having by burning that part of the Camp, and hol plying of the Guns out of the Gallies, put the Enemy to a retreat two Miles higher up the small River, Captain Henry Udall (who in Complement to his Lordship accompanied him to be only a Spectator) had not the Patience to continue any longer so: but (notwithstanding all his Lordships earnest dissensions from it) would needs leap ashore where he had not been long, with several other English in his Company, 'ere a parcel of Macassars, in disguise of Slammers, by hawling a small boat along the Shoalwater, got so near them, undesirous to be Enemies, as to reach them with their Hog spears, at which he fell to; and the Captain Udalls Lot to lose his life, the rest very diificultly escaping by taking the Water tho' those Macassars escapt not the small-shot from the Boats: Nor was his Lordship exempted from as Eminent Danger as any man that came off with his Life: For Captain Udall's residue going a-shore had drawn him thither also, being Job to leave the Company of one he so much respected; but the Enemies Lances (at which you know they are most expert) forced his Retreat, being glad for some time to hang on the off-side of his Boats Stern for shelter. You will no (tha' many others I believe will) wonder the Europeans small-shot could prevent their doing so much mischief with only Lances and Creases, when you call to mind their desperateness, who are a sort of People that can only value their Lives by the mischief they can do at their Deaths; and regard no more to the day than the very Muzzel of a Blunderbuss, then an Englishman would to hold his hand against a Boys pop-gun. There fell also four Frenchmen, among
whom Monsieur de Roan was one: So that now at length other mens harder fates began to make the rest more Circumspect; and continuing to burn and lay all Levell before them, about Ten in the forenoon arrived there a Recruit of Siammers, the whole number employed by Land and Water being no less than Seaven or Eight Thousand with which they began to pick them off very briskly, I mean as fast as they could spy them Sheltering in the Bambo's, Thickets, and other bushes till at length the Prince himself was slain by the Captain of his Lordships Life-Guard, and about three a Clock the fight ended; the Siammers afterwards only continuing to hem-in that place, to prevent the escape of any that might remain alive and attempt it. There was no Quarter given to any Macassers in this days Fight, save only the Princes Son, a Boy of about Twelve Years, who after his But whether the Conspiracy, wherein they were concerned will end with them, is very much to be doubted."

CHAPTER V

Sir John Child sends a fresh trading expedition to Siam—Captains Lake, the head of the party, arrested—War made on Siam by the East India Company—Massacre of the English at Mergui—Samuel White flees to England.

The Macassar trouble had barely been disposed of before another and even more ominous cloud appeared upon the Siamese horizon. Smarting under a sense of defeat and at the same time jealous of the growth of French influence at Ayuthia, Sir John Child in 1686 despatched to Siam the Prudent Mary, one of the Company's ships. Its commander, Captain Lake, like many of the Company's earlier envoys, was ill fitted for the discharge of the delicate and difficult duty of re-establishing English influence. He appears to have gone about vapouring of the hostile designs of the Company on Siam and of their intention to seize all the interloping Englishmen at Ayuthia and send them away in irons. Phaulkon was too astute a man not to take advantage of the premature disclosures of the Company's loquacious agent. A proclamation was issued enforcing payment throughout the kingdom of Custom duties upon English goods, and meanwhile orders were given for the arrest of Lake and for the confiscation of the Company's property. The duty of seizing Lake devolved upon Count de Forbin, the functionary who conducted the operations against the Macassars at Bangkok. Instead of making the arrest openly, which would have been a difficult matter, as Lake was surrounded by a well-armed body of ninety Englishmen, Forbin descended to an act of treachery. He invited the Englishman to wait on him, and when he had got his victim in his power he forwarded him to Louvo, where he was either murdered or died of ill-treatment at the hands of his jailer, a "reputed Scot," one Alexander Delgado. For some time after this a condition of warfare existed between the Siamese Government and the Company. Three ships sent out by White from Mergui, to which port he had returned in October, 1686, were captured and confiscated with their cargoes. This was followed by the seizure, in April, 1687, in the Bay of Bengal, of a large Siamese war vessel, the Revenge, manned by about seventy Europeans and commanded by an Englishman. War had by this time commenced in earnest between the two countries. Before an actual declaration was received White, at his own sugges-

SIAMESE BRAHMIN PRIESTS.
tion, was commissioned by Phaulkon to proceed to England to place before King James a true account of the affair; that King James was quite as eager as the Company that a strong line should be taken up in dealing with the Siamese. The growth of French influence in the country was the factor which moved the somewhat lethargic mind of the monarch. He saw in it—not, perhaps, without reason—a menace to the growing power of England in India, and he cordially entered into all the plans of the Company for counterpoising the Gallic interest in Siam. The plan of campaign ultimately adopted was one which contemplated the capture of Mergui with the object of establishing there a British settlement. Before White could complete his plans for departure on his mission the Company’s frigate Curtana arrived off the Siamese coast in charge of this project. The commander took with him a proclamation addressed to Burney and White recalling all the English in Siam, a demand on Phaulkon for £35,000 as damages sustained by the Company in consequence of Coates’s operations, and a letter from the President and Council at Fort St. George to the King of Siam announcing that if the demand for damages was not satisfied within sixty days hostilities would be resumed at Mergui. The original intention was that the Curtana should on making the coast hide amongst the islands of the archipelago and not appear off Mergui until October; but the captain, having lost his position in foul weather and got into shoal water, sent a boat out with instructions to discover the direction in which the port lay. Almost by accident the boat found itself in Mergui Harbour alongside the ship Resolution, which was at anchor fully laden ready to take White to England. The crew were well received by Burney and White, but White was much concerned in his mind at the visit of the ships and the menacing gestures of the natives. He told Welden, the commander, intimating that if he “came in a friendly manner no man should be more kindly treated or more honourably received than he should be in Mergui; but if he came in a hostile manner he [White] himself would bring at the least two or three thousand men to oppose him and defend the place for he was the King of Siam’s servant and would serve him faithfully.” On the following morning the Curtana, piloted by men sent out by White, entered the harbour, anchoring about two miles off the town. Later in the day Welden entered and concluded a treaty, in which he agreed to quit Mergui and other towns, to pay a pension of 800,000 Suans for the injuries suffered by the Englishmen, and to bring the two nations to a state of friendship. White’s notion was that the Company was acting entirely on its own initiative, and that the facts had only to be known for the war to be disavowed by the Government. But this view is not borne out by the facts as disclosed in the official records. King James was quite as eager as the Company that a strong line should be taken up in dealing with the Siamese. The growth of French influence in the country was the factor which moved the somewhat lethargic mind of the monarch. He saw in it—not, perhaps, without reason—a menace to the growing power of England in India, and he cordially entered into all the plans of the Company for counterpoising the Gallic interest in Siam. The plan of campaign ultimately adopted was one which contemplated the capture of Mergui with the object of establishing there a British settlement. Before White could complete his plans for departure on his mission the Company’s frigate Curtana arrived off the Siamese coast in charge of this project. 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All the Englishmen present signified their intention of obeying the summons, and they appended either their names or marks to a document expressing their satisfaction at Welden’s mission. The next day at a dinner given by Welden to Englishmen and courtiers, Welden was told that henceforward they must consider themselves as outside the service of the King of Siam. A
vessel went Mr. William Hodges and Mr. John Hill, two experienced servants of the Company, who were charged with explicit instructions to secure the occupation of Mergui. That much importance was considered to attach to the enterprise is to be gathered from a letter dated September 29, 1687, from the President and Connell at Madras to Sir John Child. In this communication the Madras authorities expressed the hope that Mr. White and his associate "will understand their allegiance, duty and interests better and prevent the trouble of a dispute by a ready, quiet surrender of the place, which has otherwise a fair chance of the French and will certainly fall into their possession." The letter stated that five Frenchmen-of-war and two thousand soldiers had gone to Siam for that purpose, but the hope was expressed that the Company would be beforehand with them. The one thing needful was his Majesty's royal letter of command to Messrs. White and Burney, which they would not have dared to disobey, but which unfortunately had been despatched by a vessel which would arrive too late to admit of its being sent to Mergui that monsoon. The royal missive, in point of fact, did not reach its destination until twelve days later, in the Pearl. It was a very directly-worded document, issuing a call upon Burney and White to leave Mergui or to give up the place. The Pearl left Madras on August 29, 1687, and twenty-four days later arrived off King Island to the west of Mergui. Two vessels were here sighted, and on coming up with them Captain Perriman of the Pearl spoke to them and was told in the Pearl that the vessel that they had hailed belonged to the King of Siam and was commanded by Captain Cropley. A command was given to Cropley to come on board the Pearl, but a direct refusal was given to the order, whereupon Perriman ordered all sail to be put on, and on coming up with the Siamese vessel poured a broadside into it. The complication was thus turned, and then the strange vessels made off in the direction of Mergui with the Pearl in pursuit. After a brief chase the Siamese vessels managed to draw away, and night coming on, Perriman thought it wise to drop anchor and await events. When the morning dawned, to his astonishment Perriman descried a flotilla of thirteen vessels bearing down upon him. After a consultation it was thought to be wise to run up a flag of truce and see what the visitors' intentions were. When the boats came near Perriman's courage revived somewhat, and he thought he would try again his old device of appealing to the Siamese commander. He therefore renewed his order to Cropley to come on board, but with no better result than previously. Indeed, the position was such that Perriman deemed it prudent to reverse the process that he had proposed and proceed on board Cropley's vessel instead of Cropley coming on board his. Perriman and Messrs. Hodges and Hill were made practically prisoners, and an English pilot was sent on board the Pearl to conduct her into harbour. Then the new-comers learned for the first time the fate that had overtaken their countrymen. Apparently from the story told them over fifty Englishmen had been killed, including Burney and a Captain Leslie. They were furthermore informed that a Frenchman had Burney's appointment as Governor, and that peace and order now reigned in the town. The Pearl was taken into the Tenasserim river on September 24th, and ten days later Messrs. Hodges and Hill set off for Ayuthia. They went there more as prisoners than as traders, for they and it was perhaps a fortunate circumstance for them that on their arrival they found the Siamese authorities immersed in the arrangements attendant upon the entanglement of the second French mission, which a little while before had arrived in Siam. The two factors in making inquiries in reference to the Mergui calamity. They discovered that the original story of the completeness of the massacre was well founded. They could only hear of three Englishmen of the sixty whom White estimated were in the place at the time who escaped. These were saved by some Dutchmen, who hid them in their houses until all danger had passed. A saving touch to the melancholy narrative was given by the apparently well-authenticated statement that the women and children, who numbered less than a dozen, were not molested. The Siamese authorities expressed abhorrence at the massacre and caused the native governor, Phaulkon, to be imprisoned at Louvo. He was then awaiting his examination when the English delegation were at Ayuthia, and Hodges was informed that to extract a confession the man would be put to the torture by having his flesh pinched off with hot irons. There is no mention of torture in the Siamese official report of the massacre. The Government had nothing particular to gain by wiping out the English colony, and they had much to lose by exciting the ill-will of the English Government and people by an act of so gravely provocative a character. The authorities at Madras, however, were persuaded by argument to send an involution to the Saudi Government, as an expression of local feeling. They attributed it to the villainy of "the great and base wretch," meaning Phaulkon, and said in a letter of burning indignation to Sir John Child that "the innocent blood of these men, 80 stranded English, cries allowed for vengeance and we doubt not but just Heaven and our masters will see it revenged." Avenged, however, it was not, for ere measures could be concerted a revolution in Siam swept away the dynasty, and with it its principal prop—the redoubtable Phaulkon. This important occurrence must be left for treatment to a subsequent chapter. Meanwhile, it may be stated, to complete the story, that the King of Siam himself declared war against the East India Company in December, 1687. The proclamation announcing a state of war carefully discriminated between the English people and the East India Company. While reprisals against the latter were enjoined, "free" English traders were invited to trade in Siam. This act of policy we may safely conjecture was due to Phaulkon's influence. The astute Greek knew that, while the invitation would placate the English people, it would touch the East India Company on the rawest of raw spots. The war was entered upon by the Siamese with a certain amount of vigour, and at many points the East India Company had reason to respect the enterprise of their foes. The operations continued for some months. Then some sort of an arrangement appears to have been patched up between the Governments. Either as an outcome of this, or by reason of some private bargain, the Pearl was released towards the end of 1688, and with Mr. John Hill on board reached Fort St. George on December 22nd in that year.

CHAPTER VI

The second French embassy—Disaffection at Ayuthia—Phra-Phet-Raxa seizes the reins of power—Phaulkon imprisoned at the palace—His tragic end—Death of the king and crowning of the successor—Overture to the East India Company for the re-opening of trade—Decline of Siamese prosperity.

In an earlier chapter the despatch was noted of the second French mission, with its imposing body of courtly and priestly personages and its formidable military force. The intention of the French Government was to produce a remarkable impression upon the Siamese authorities by the mingled panoply of diplomacy and war, and in this they were successful—perhaps a little too successful. The king, on learning the size of the force which accompanied this peaceful mission, became suspicious of the designs of the French and at first flatly declined to permit them to land. Phaulkon eventually smoothed the matter over and the troops were disembarked on the understanding that they should garrison the forts at Bangkok and a newly erected fort at Mergui. The king's distrust was shared to a marked degree by his subjects, and report started that Phaulkon was being plotted against, as an act of local feeling. They attributed it to the villainy of "the great and base wretch," meaning Phaulkon, and said in a letter of burning indignation to Sir John Child that "the innocent blood of these men, 80 stranded English, cries allowed for vengeance and we doubt not but just Heaven and our masters will see it revenged." Avenged, however, it was not, for ere measures could be concerted a revolution in Siam swept away the dynasty, and with it its principal prop—the redoubtable Phaulkon. This important occurrence must be left for treatment to a subsequent chapter. Meanwhile, it may be stated, to complete the story, that the King of Siam himself declared war against the East India Company in December, 1687. The proclamation announcing a state of war carefully discriminated between the English people and the East India Company. While reprisals against the latter were enjoined, "free" English traders were invited to trade in Siam. This act of policy we may safely conjecture was due to Phaulkon's influence. The astute Greek knew that, while the invitation would placate the English people, it would touch the East India Company on the rawest of raw spots. The war was entered upon by the Siamese with a certain amount of vigour, and at many points the East India Company had reason to respect the enterprise of their foes. The operations continued for some months. Then some sort of an arrangement appears to have been patched up between the Governments. Either as an outcome of this, or by reason of some private bargain, the Pearl was released towards the end of 1688, and with Mr. John Hill on board reached Fort St. George on December 22nd in that year.
A BRONZE BUDDHA AT AYUTHIA.
a man of low origin, who had raised himself by natural ability to a position of influence amongst his countrymen. About May the king fell severely ill at Louvo and the circumstance was taken advantage of by the conspirators. They excited the popular mind with unfounded rumours of the king's death. Then they brought up from the country a number of adherents, amongst them a plentiful sprinkling of bad characters, and with their aid caused tumults in the capital. "At the beginning," says the author of the "Histoire de la Révolution de Siam," the rising was accompanied by stratagem what they could not achieve by direct means. By various cunning devices they got the French gradually into their power and the authority of the usurper became supreme. The most active of the French officers were seized, loaded with chains, beaten with bamboo, and thrust into prison. Phaulkon, meanwhile, was subjected to every conceivable form of torture, apparently with the sole object of prolonging his misery. At last, after months of hideous suffering, he was taken to the great hall of the palace to hear his sentence. He was condemned to death as a traitor for admitting foreigners to the country and subsequently seducing the princess of the ancient line, to whom he was allied. He was cut to the ground and conducted by a strong guard to a neighbouring forest to meet his doom. Before the final act he "took his seal, two silver crosses, a relic set in gold which he wore on his breast, being a present from the Pope, as also the order of St. Michael and St. Marie, without silver death," the body was then thrown into the river, it being accounted a prophanation and a violation of the sacred respect due to a Princess of the Royal blood of Siam to be put to death in the usual manner that others are; and therefore the rites were greatly hastened and distinguished ceremonies becoming her quality, not suffering her Royal person to be polluted with the touch of any vulgar hand or instrument of mortality.

Not such respect was shown to the hated foreigner. The French were chained two and two and thrown into prison, there to die most of them lingering through want of food. The English and the Portuguese suffered a similar fate. Only the Dutch seem to have been exempted from the purge, and that fact led to the suspicion that the revolution was a business in which they had a hand. When the usurper had dealt with all the foreigners in his immediate vicinity, he bought himself to the garrisons of Bangkok and Mergui. He sought to get them into his power by stratagem. A messenger was sent to General des Farges, the commander at Bangkok, saying that the king wished to see him on urgent business. Unsuspectingly the general responded to the summons, and was accompanied by his aides and attendants. Phaulkon accompanied the mandarin sent to fetch him because he was the same individual who had accompanied the mission from France. On the journey the fact that des Farges was not allowed to hold any communication with the Jesuit Fathers aroused his suspicions, and when he arrived at the palace and was told Phaulkon was not there, he had been executed by order of the king because of his mismanagement of affairs, he was certain that all was not well. Phra-Phet-Raxa beguiled him with a story of war with the Cochin Chinese which rendered it necessary that all the French troops should march to the frontier to prevent the invasion of the kingdom. Des Farges clearly perceived that this was "a mere contrivance and like so many snares that they had laid to catch him," he thought it politic, however, to disguise, and he therefore replied "the King of France, his master, had sent him to serve the King of Siam, and that he was now ready to obey his commands. But that he thought it highly necessary to go
SIAMESE WOMEN OF THE PEASANT CLASS.
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

CHAPTER VII

Trouble state of Siam—Death of Phra-Phet-Raxa—His son, a wretched debauchee, succeeded him—Was made on Cambodia—Outbreak of civil war—Burmese invasion of the country under Alompra—Death of Alompra and retirement of the Burmese—Another Burmese invasion—Sack and destruction of Ayuthia—Anarchy in Siam—Rise of a warlike of Chinese descent—Capital established at Bangkok—Siamese expressed hope that they were increasing in power and decrement of the warper—The present Siamese dynasty established.

Phra-Phet-Raxa's reign had not far advanced before the flames of a new rebellion were kindled. A priest of Pega, who gave himself out as the eldest of the two brothers of the late king, suddenly appeared at the head of a host of several thousand men whom he had induced to array themselves under his standard by lavish promises and the hope of plunder. The rebels first sought to cut off the king's son, who was journeying from the capital to a place some miles away for sport. The youth, however, was not host and, after doubting its designs, fled, leaving behind him all his valuables. In the plunder of the deserted encampment the rebels found an occupation so congenial that they were content to allow the prince to escape. When at length they resumed their march they encountered a retinue of traders, whom they took for the royal attendants who had been sent out by the king to repel the attack. For a brief space the rebels stood their ground; but their priestly leader, though not lacking in courage, was no soldier, and soon the undisciplined mob broke and fled. The "imposer," says Turpin in his "History of Siam," wandered for some days in the woods with what remained of the party. After this there was comparative peace in the land, but the king did not live long enough to enjoy his triumph. He died as the new century was dawning, giving place on the throne to his son, a wretched debauchee, who scandalised even the easy-going Siamese of that day by marrying his father's widow. The new monarch gave himself up entirely to the guidance of his priests, who by their penances undertook to redeem his errors. By his example every one built idolatrous temples; commerce and industry languished, and the people, occupied with ridiculous ceremonies, no longer thought of securing themselves from foreign invasion. The consequences were reaped in the next reign.

The new king's army, fifty thousand strong, and his fleet, which carried twenty thousand combatants, entered the Kingdom of Cambaye, then torn by domestic dissensions. This army would have conquered if it had been led by a more skilful general, but the Siamese monarch, bemused in the luxury of his 'seraglio,' had trusted the command of it to his first minister,
A LUK-SIT—A BOY WHO Serves A PRIEST IN RETURN FOR TUITION.
born for pacific employments and totally unfit for war. This minister, who was sensible of the extent of his own abilities, had not sought for the honour of the command; but the King, who never doubted his own discernment in the choice of his agents, imagined that he who could govern empires could also conquer them. The King of Cambay, too weak to oppose the torrent which threatened to overwhelm him, ordered all his subjects inhabiting on the frontiers to retire with their effects into the capital, and to burn whatever they could not carry off. The fields were ravaged; fifty leagues of country were changed into sterile deserts, which scarcely furnished food for animals. The king declared himself the vassal of Cochín China to obtain from him the assistance of fifteen thousand foot-soldiers and three thousand on board of galleys destined to protect the coasts. The Siamese army, full of confidence in the superiority of their numbers, and still more促使 by not finding any enemy to dispute their passage, rashly penetrated into the country; but the greater their progress the faster they approached destruction. Famine, more cruel than the sword of the enemy, made the most horrid ravages in their camp. The wasted fields supplied no profit for the men nor forage for the army; they were obliged to pinch by their sumpter cattle to clothe their soldiers. Not accustomed to such food, they were attacked by dysenteries and fevers, which carried off one half of them. . . . The Siamese fleet, four times more numerous than that of the enemy, had no better success. Their small galleys reduced the city of Cambay. For Cambay—Cochín-Province—by the absence of these galleys to attack the transports, which were in the road more than four miles from the burning city. The Siamese galleys, which were detained in the river, then very low, could not come to the assistance of their vessels that suffered this blow. Famine was to be as fatal to the fleet as it had been to the army, sailed back to their country."

Not many years after this disastrous expedition civil war broke out to add to the troubles of a sorely oppressed people. The principal contestants in the struggle were uncle and nephew, respectively brother and son of the monarch who had succeeded Phra-Phet-Raxa. The former, who was dignified with the title of "grand prince," had at his call five thousand soldiers, but his rival had the advantage of the support of the four principal officers of state, and of the bulk of the army, some forty thousand in all. The contest continued for ten years, and the two bodies fought without any conspicuous advantage to either. At length, after an unsuccessful attack, led by the chief minister, upon his own palace, the grand prince caused the palace of his nephew to be assaulted at night. In the darkness a panic overtook the defenders and they were slaughtered like sheep. At last the king, betrayed and abandoned by his subjects, turned to his Malay guard and implored their assistance, making them lavish presents to secure their help. The Malays went out as if to do battle, but were scarcely beyond the precincts of the palace before they quit the standard of their benefactor. The king was now deserted by his ministers, and left a prey to his ruthless enemy. Assassins soon appeared and put an end to his life, and they would also have killed his two brothers had they not, taking advantage of the null caused by the exit of the Malays, fled to the river and escaped in a boat. As soon as the grand prince was informed that the palace was abandoned, he ordered his people to take possession of it. Several princes of the royal family remained in it, shut up in an inviolable and sacred asylum. They loaded them with chains, made them suffer every torture that ingenious vengeance can devise, and having stripped them of all their wealth then had nothing but death to hope for."

The usurper entered upon his troubled kingdom with a feeling of insecurity, which led him at the outset to practise a policy of moderation. The two ministers who had fought against him were put upon their trial, and on the judges finding that there was nothing in their conduct to justify a conviction for treason, they only obeyed the behests of their master, the king gave them honourable employment as the custodians of two important temples. This, however, was a mere blind to conceal his real designs. In the dead of night the ministers were attacked at the temples by a party of horsemen and cavalry and discharged by them. Meanwhile, by order of the monarch, a diligent search was conducted for the fugitive princes. They were discovered, after some little time, taken to the capital, and cast into prison, to die there a violent death. The usurper himself died in 1748, at the great age of eighty-four. He was tall and slender, and immediately acknowledged king by all the officers of state. He had been brought up from his tenderest infancy in the pagodas among the priests, and was little fitted for the strenuous life which was before him as monarch of this distressful kingdom. For a time he strove to carry on the duties of his position, but, harassed by a disease which deposed him, and by ill-successful schemes for the destruction of the palace, he decided to abdicate. Returning to a monastery, he strove to efface himself as one dead to the outer world. But he was not to attain the Nirvana for which his soul longed. The nation's foreign enemies swept in upon the country, carrying rain and desolation almost to the gates of the capital. The officers of state, in the crisis, implored Chaoi-Padon to resume the reins of power. Reluctantly the king assented.

Probably only the supreme crisis that had arisen in the affairs of his dominions would have tempted Chaoi-Padon from his retirement. The position was indeed critical. The hereditary enemy of the Siamese, the Burmese, were invading the country under Alompra, the famous adventurer, who had assumed royal authority, and they were ravaging the country with fire and sword. Martaban and Tenasserim were overrun, and Mergui was destroyed, and in 1756 the Burmese army was in full march on Ayuthia. Happily for the Siamese when the enemy had advanced within almost striking distance of the capital, Alompra was seized with a mortal illness. This so discomposed the invaders that their attack when delivered lacked energy, and they were ultimately compelled to beat a retreat. Under the leadership of Alompra's son, the Burmese forces were hurriedly withdrawn, but the rapidity of their movements did not save them from harassing attacks which left them a greatly weakened and disordered force before they gained the safety of Burmese territory. The Mon dynasty, threatened by this disaster, adventure sunk deep into the obscurity of the mind of the new Burmese king. During his brief reign of six years he did not venture to retrieve the lost laurels. His brother and successor, Shembuan, more venturesome, as the first object of his reign undertook the reconquest of Tavoy, the Burmese governor of which had a few years before treacherously submitted and invaded amongst the Siamese official, greatly weakened the country's power of existence.

Turpin, in his "History of Siam," vividly paints the scene: "The king, shut up in his saraglio, console himself with his concubines for the miseries of his subjects. The ministers of the crown, Telotserin and Mergui had given to believe that the danger was over and that the State had no further occasion for protectors. The king awoke from his profound sleep at the noise of the inhabitans of the country, who rushed in crowds to take refuge in the royal city. They employed them to repair the fortifications; they raised columns 40 feet high to mount cannon on. The Christians refused to advise at this labour, convinced of its inutility and that they would crumble under their own weight. The enemy, before they began the attack on the city, laid waste the territory. One of their detachments extended its ravages to the provinces which bordered which they defended the approaches to it, was destroyed; the gardens, stripped of their ornaments, were covered with ruins. A college the missionaries had established in the environs was reduced to ashes. After this excursion the incendiaries retired with precipitation to the main body of their army, and their retreat for a moment allayed the alarm. At this period two English vessels arrived. The captain, a man named Pouwly, brought the king an Arabian horse, a lion, and several valuable articles. The king, who had more confidence in his valour and talents than in his cowardly and effeminate
courtiers, begged him to undertake the defence of the city; but the Englishman, convinced that he should be badly seconded by a people void of courage, refused the honour of the command; the example of the Dutch, who had withdrawn their factory, confirmed his repugnance to accept it. He was irresolute as to the part he should take; when he suddenly found himself attacked by the Brahmas (Burmes), who, masters of Bangkok, took their dispositions to batter him with cannon. The brave Englishman, too weak to defend himself, and too brave to submit, took the wise resolution to tow his vessel up the narrows, where the barbarians were endeavouring to fortify themselves; but the fire from the ministers he went on board his ship, where he prepared to justify the opinion they entertained of his courage. He ordered descents, which were all murderous to the enemy. Their forts, scarcely erected, were destroyed; every day was marked with their defeat or flight. In order to profit by these advantages, he wrote to the Court of Siam for cannon and ammunition, but he experienced a refusal. The Siamese, suspicious, were fearful of his becoming too powerful, and of their being dependent on a foreigner. Their distrust fettered their protector: it was to forge these very chains they feared to wear. The ministers replied that as the enemy was preparing to make an attack on the other side having thus secured himself, he boldly passed before his enemies, who, instead of troubling his retreat, congratulated themselves on being freed from a rival who alone could hinder their success."

After Powny's departure the Burmese prosecuted their operations with increased vigour in every direction. At length, on the 28th of April, 1767, the city was taken by assault. The invaders celebrated their victory with characteristic ferocity. The king was slain at the gate of his palace, and the unfortunate Chaou Padou was dragged from the seclusion of his monastery and carried with his family a prisoner to Ava. An even worse fate awaited the State officials. They were loaded with artillery of the ships destroyed their works and carried death among their ranks. The inaction they experienced on board their ships wounded their pride, and, impatient to punish their aggressors, they made several descents, and throwing themselves in order on their undisciplined enemies, they made a dreadful carnage of them. Powny, forced by necessity, consented to undertake the defence of the city, on condition that they should furnish him with cannon and whatever was necessary for attack and defence. His demand was complied with, and as a pledge of his fidelity the Siamese required him to deposit his merchandise in the public magazine. This condition wounded his pride, but he was obliged to submit to it. After having settled everything with the of the city, they wanted all the cannon they had to repulse them. The Englishman, irritated at this infraction of their promises, resolved to abandon a people who could neither fight themselves nor supply their friends with the means of defending them; but before he sailed he published a sort of manifesto against the Siamese monarch to justify his desertion. He seized six Chinese vessels, one of which was loaded on the king's account; the other five came to trade at Siam, and were stopped in the gulf, where they were much surprised to find themselves stripped of their effects. The Englishman, to indemnify them for what he had taken, gave the captains letters of exchange, drawn on the King of Siam, to the amount of the goods he had deposited with him. After chains and sent to man the Burmese war-boats. As for the general population, those who were not massacred in cold blood or who had not fled were despatched as slaves to Burma. Temples were demolished, houses burnt and property plundered and destroyed. In fine, when the Burmese had worked their will Ayuthia had ceased to exist as an inhabited or inhabitable city. At length, wearied with slaughter or, what is more probable, having so wasted the country that it ceased to yield the means of subsistence, the invaders withdrew, leaving the country in the throes of anarchy. For a considerable time the kingdom remained in this hopeless condition. Ultimately, in 1769, there arose a leader in the person of a chief of Chinese descent, who,
placing himself at the head of the Siamese, in due course assumed royal powers. He seems to have been a man of intelligence and force of character. Under his guidance order was soon evolved out of chaos. The country became tranquil, and commerce and agriculture once more began to thrive. Nor was this all. Establishing his capital at Bangkok, the usurper directed operations which led to the re-occupation under Siamese authority of territory which had been either captured by the Burmese or which had been occupied by Siamese chiefs who had declared their independence. Meanwhile, the Burmese were making preparations for a new invasion of Siam. In 1771 the expedition was ready to start, but, unfortunately for the Burmese king, the troops which composed it had been mainly drawn from Pegu, a province notoriously disaffected, and when the order was given to march the men mutinied. After this the enterprise had to be abandoned. But Siam was not long left in even the comparative peace which the new dispensation had ushered in. In 1772 the king conducted an expedition into the Malay Peninsula with the object of asserting his authority at Ligore, the chief of which, amid the confusion which had been caused by the Burmese invasion, had assumed independent power. The King of Ligore, as he styled himself, hearing of the expedition, fled to Patani for protection. The ruler of that State, fearing to draw upon himself the vengeance of the Siamese, gave the prisoner up to the King of Siam. The forces of that monarch in the meantime had taken Ligore, and captured the royal family and many noblemen of rank. The King of Ligore’s daughter, a beautiful damsel, he placed in his own harem. He became so infatuated with her that he preserved the lives of all her kindred, and eventually, after she had borne him a son, sent her father back to Ligore to rule under his protection. The Ligore chief became a staunch upholder of the Siamese power. Through his instrumentality the States of Patani, Kelantan, Tringgau, and ultimately Kedah were brought under the dominion of Siam. But his dominion over this extended region was short-lived. In 1782 a Siamese official of distinction who had led the Siamese army in Cambodia broke out in revolt. With the force under his command, a formidable one, he marched to Bangkok, dethroned and killed the self-elected king, and proclaimed him-elf ruler of Siam in his place. He reigned for twenty-seven years, and dying in 1809, was succeeded by his eldest son. In this way was established the dynasty which at present constitutes the royal house of Siam.

CHAPTER VIII
Siamese invasion of Kedah—Mr. J. Crawford conducts a mission to Siam—Cool reception—Audience of the king—Failure of the mission.

During the greater part of the eighteenth century there was little regular foreign intercourse with Siam. Occasionally a ship with a more than ordinarily venturesome commander would drop anchor in the river with a view to trade, but, as a rule, the experiences of the visitors were such as not to encourage a repetition of the cruise. It was found that the king’s monopoly of trade, so far from having relaxed with the lapse of years, had grown in stringency. All imported goods had to be submitted for sale to royal agents, and they only purchased them at their own price. Commercial transactions outside these narrow limits were treated as a form of treason, to be punished with the last severity of Oriental despotism. In these circumstances the incentive to closer communication between the Western nations and Siam was slight, and there was the less temptation to embark on any adventure in that direction because the development of the trade with India and China at this period was making great headway. But the East India Company never entirely lost sight of the promise which Siam offered of trade under settled conditions of government. The course of events in that country was carefully noted, and from time to time, in the light of information forwarded by agents, reports were drafted by experienced officials bearing upon the prospects of commerce. The advance of the Siamese into the Malay Peninsula, in the manner described in the previous chapter, gave an added interest to the country and brought to a prominence the question of the desirability of the formulation of a regular policy in dealing with it. Nothing, however, was done of a practical kind, partly because the Indian authorities had their hands full of the task of resisting French encroachments, and partly because the dangers to British influence of Siamese aggression in Malaya were only dimly perceived at Calcutta. One of the first to realise the significance of the Siamese action against the Malay States was Francis Light, the founder of Penang. There is little doubt that in acquiring that island this gifted administrator had in his mind the barrier that a British occupation of territory hereabouts would interpose to the march of the restless nation in the north. While he gave the Sultan of Kedah what can only be regarded as a pledge of British support in the event of a Siamese attack, he repeatedly urged upon the Calcutta Government the desirability of actively intervening to save the State from Siamese occupation. "If they destroy the country of Kedah," he wrote, "they deprive us of our great supplies of provisions, and the English will lose no disgrace in assisting the King of Kedah to be cut off. We shall then be obliged to go to war in self-defence against the Siamese and Malays. Should your lordships resolve upon protecting Kedah, two companies of sepoys with four six-pounder field pieces and a supply of small arms and ammunition will effectively defend this country against the Siameses, who, though they are a very destructive enemy, are by no means formidable in battle." The Indian Government took a different view of their obligations to the Sultan of Kedah to that held by Light, and persistently refused to take any action to preserve the independence of the State. For a good many years the Siam authorities had no particular reason to regret their decision, but there came a day when the disadvantages of non-intervention were brought very directly home to them. In 1821 the Siamese made a sudden and unexpected descent upon Kedah. Landing on the river bank, they attacked and defeated the Sultan’s forces, and then proceeded to ruthlessly waste the country in accordance with the principles of Siamese warfare. The Sultan of Kedah, the son of the chief who
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ceded Pinang to Light, fled with difficulty to Province Wellesley, and thence proceeded to Siam, where he placed himself under British protection. A Siamese fleet was despatched to Pinang to demand the surrender of the fugitive, but it was quickly sent about its business by the British authorities, who despatched against it the gunboat *Noville*, with orders to fire upon the Siamese prahu if they did not quit the harbour. For some time the deposed Sultan was a source of contention between the Siamese and the British, and it was not until he had been shipped off to Malacca that the controversy dropped. Meanwhile the Siamese, continuing their march southwards, penetrated to Perak, which State they subdued. They then prepared to attack Selangore, but met with such a hot reception that they deemed it advisable to beat a retreat, and they did not stay their march until they arrived at the State of Ligore, from whence the expedition had started.

These events, so disturbing in their influence on the British settlements in the Straits, and so detrimental to trade, brought home to the Indian Government the imperative necessity of establishing diplomatic relations with Siam. An attempt had been made some years before to open up negotiations, but the Company’s envoy, Colonel Synes, had been treated with marked discourtesy, and nothing had come of his mission. This experience was not encouraging, and, only the pressure of the newly-created situation in the Straits, coupled with the fear of the extension of Dutch influence, led to a resumption of the efforts to negotiate. The choice of a representative fell upon Mr. J. Crawford, one of the most experienced of the Company’s officials in the Straits. Mr. Crawford was a ripe Malay scholar and a man of no mean literary ability. He served under Sir Stamford Raffles at a subsequent period at Singapore, and when the great administrator left he assumed charge of the new settlement.

FRONT OF THE MAIN BUILDING OF THE KING OF SIAM’S PALACE AS IT EXISTED IN 1824.

(From Crawford’s *Embassy to Siam.*)

A SIAMESE OFFICIAL OF THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY.

(From “The Kingdom and People of Siam.”)

His personal qualities peculiarly recommended him for a mission such as that to Siam. He was gifted in a marked degree with tact, and his manner was conciliatory and sympathetic, though he could on occasion be firm enough. Above all, he thoroughly understood Orientals. The potentate to whom the mission was accredited was a ruler with a somewhat striking personality. He signalled his accession by making a clean sweep of all whom he considered to be inimical to him. Within thirty-six hours after his father’s death no fewer than 117 personages of distinction had been executed. It is only just, however, to his memory to say that after this sanguinary act the king ruled with moderation and judgment. One of his acts enables him to be regarded in the light of a reformer. Taking note of the immense number of talopins, or priests, who lived in idleness throughout the country, he issued an order that they should serve for a period as soldiers. The edict created an immense sensation, and led to the formation of a conspiracy against the king amongst the priests. The movement coming to light, the royal despotic caused seven hundred priests to be arrested, but he dealt with them in mild fashion. The greater number were liberated almost immediately. In the few cases in which punishment was meted out the prisoners were merely stripped of their yellow robes and condemned to cut grass for the sacred white elephants. The king’s rule was capricious, but not cruel when judged by Oriental standards. But nothing hardly surpassed in ruthlessness the spirit which dominated the external policy of Siam at this period. Our territory in Province Wellesley, opposite to Pinang, was crowded with thousands of refugees, who fled thither to escape the awful horrors of a Siamese invasion. The section of the population which did not thus escape was either butchered in cold blood or sold into slavery.

The reception of the mission presaged ill for the success of the negotiations. On arrival at Paknam on March 26, 1822, “we could not,” says Mr. Finlayson, the surgeon and naturalist of the mission, “fail to remark that the different personages who had as yet visited us were either of very low rank, or of none at all.” One of the king’s boats was sent down on March 27th to convey Mr. Crawford to Bangkok. The next day the *Yellow Adam*, the ship which had brought the mission to Siam, was allowed to travel up the river. On the 29th the governor-general’s letter was delivered to a person appointed by the Phra Klang to receive it. On the 30th a habitation was provided for the British envoy, a miserable place, an outhouse with four small, ill-ventilated rooms approached through a trap-door from below, and on three sides almost entirely excluded from fresh air. A Malay of low rank was for some time the only channel of intercourse. He came and demanded the presents for the king. In the urgency to obtain and the frequency of the demands of the court for the gifts there was “a degree of meanness and avidity at once disgusting and disgraceful. For several successive days there was no end to
their importunities." The treatment of the mission did not improve with the lapse of time. Mr. Crawfurd and his colleagues were kept under a rigid surveillance—were, in fact, practically prisoners until the ceremony of introduction was over. This was postponed from time to time in circumstances which seemed to indicate a desire to humiliate the mission. At length, after more than a week's delay, the reception took place. Mr. Finlayson thus describes it:

"In the evening a message was brought by the Mahay to say that the minister would be glad to see Mr. Crawfurd. Accompanied by Captain Dangerfield, he accordingly paid him a visit. He received them in a large and lofty hall, open on one side, spread with carpets, and hung with glass lights and Chinese lanterns. They took their seats on carpets spread for the purpose and were entertained with tea, fruit, and Chinese preserves. It would appear that the conversation was of a general nature and rather formal. They were well pleased with the attention of the chief and spoke favourably of their reception. He offered to make what alterations were deemed necessary to fit the house for our convenience—an offer which he subsequently bore little in remembrance. The servility which the attendants of this man observed towards him appears to have been quite disgusting and altogether degrading to humanity. During the whole of the visit they lay prostrate on the earth before him, and at a distance. When addressed they did not dare to cast their eyes towards him, but, raising the head a little, and touching the forehead with both hands united in the manner by which we should express the most earnest supplication, their looks still directed to the ground, they whispered an answer in the most humiliating tone. The manner in which he was approached by the servants of his household was even still more revolting to nature. When refreshments were ordered they crawled forward on all-fours, supported on the elbows and toes, the body being dragged on the ground. In this manner they pushed the dishes before them from time to time, in the best manner that their constrained and beast-like attitude would admit, until they had put them into their place, when they retreated backwards in the same grovelling manner, but not turning round. How abominable, how revolting this assumption of despotic power! . . . Yet this haughty chief was himself but a minister of the fifth order in importance, doomed to take his turn of beast-like groveling, as was subsequently exhibited in visiting Chromachit, son to the king. Every man here is doomed to crawl on the earth before his superiors."

Mr. Crawfurd himself in his narrative mentions a curious circumstance connected with this complimentary feast at Paknam. While they were enjoying the good things which were provided for them their attention was attracted by a curtain suspended across one end of the apartment. Their curiosity being aroused they sought information, and were told that the hanging concealed the body of the late chief of Paknam, who had died five months previously and whose remains were awaiting an auspicious day for burial. The next day more particular inquiries were made of the host relative to this gruesome experience, and some of the members of the mission were shown the corpse, which was "wrapped up in a great many folds of cloth like an Egyptian mummy, apparently quite dry, and covered with such a profusion of aromatics that there was nothing offensive about it."

A few days after the interview with the governor of Paknam Mr. Crawfurd was received by Prince Kromchiat, the eldest son of the king. Accompanied by Lieut. Rutherford, Mr. Crawfurd proceeded at eight o'clock in the evening to the prince's palace. The visitors were ushered into a large hall "decked with European lustres of cut glass, with European and Chinese mirrors, and with a profusion of Chinese lanterns." They discovered the prince, "a heavy and corpulent figure about thirty-eight years of age but having the appearance of fifty," sitting on a mat in the upper part of the chamber. The courtiers kept at a great distance, crouching to the very ground with their hands clasped before them. Mr. Crawfurd and his companion seated themselves on a carpet which was pointed out to them between the prince and his courtiers. It had been provided that the interpreters should be admitted, but when these individuals appeared they were jostled by the attendants and forced to withdraw. A somewhat long conversation was nevertheless carried on between the prince and the envoy. After some inquiries had been made relative to the Viceroy, the prince said, "I have heard of his reputation for justice and wisdom from the merchants of all nations who have of late years resorted to this country." Later, in reference to another matter, the prince observed, "When I speak of Europeans in general I do not mean the English, for their superiority over all other people, in this respect, is well known." The audience lasted two hours, and on arriving home after it the visitors found eight large tubs of sweetmeats which had been sent as a present to them by the prince.

Ultimately the 8th of April was appointed by the king for an audience. The question of the nature of the obeisance to be made to his Majesty was settled with less difficulty than had been anticipated. "It was finally determined that upon appearing in the presence we
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should make a bow in the European fashion, seat ourselves in the place usually assigned to foreign ministers, and bow before his Majesty when seated, by raising two joined hands to the forehead, but above all things take care not to exhibit our feet or any portion of the lower part of the body to the sacred view of his Siamese Majesty.

When the eventful day arrived the mission proceeded to the palace, passing through long lines of troops and officials to a great hall much frequented by pigeons, swallows, and sparrows. They were kept waiting for some twenty minutes, and were then summoned to the royal presence. Escorted by a number of officers with white wands, they arrived at the inner gate of the principal palace. Here they had to divest themselves of their shoes.

This done, they entered the gateway, their appearance being a signal for a deafening discord from a large band placed hereabouts. Facing them in the hall of audience the visitors saw a large, interminable, and rapturously arranged audience as a screen to conceal the interior of the court. Advancing to this they were received with a great flourish of wind instruments and a discordant yell, which they subsequently discovered hailed the advent of the king. Mr. Crawford and the other members of the mission stepped forward, took off their hats, and bowed in the European manner. Meanwhile, the courtiers prostrated themselves in Siamese fashion, and in a twinkling the floor was so thickly covered with the forms of mandarins and attendants that it was difficult to move without stepping on some one. The view which was presented at the moment was more singular than impressive. The hall of audience was a well-proportioned and spacious apartment about thirty feet high. The walls and ceilings were painted a bright vermilion; the cornices of the walls were gilded and the ceiling was thickly spangled with stars in very rich gilding. A number of English lustres of good quality were suspended from the ceiling, but the effect they produced was marred by the presence on the pillars supporting the roof of some miserable oil lamps. The throne was situated at the upper end of the hall. It was richly gilded all over, was about fifteen feet high, and in shape and look very like a handsome pulpit. In front of the throne and rising from the floor in sizes decreasing as they ascended, were numbers of gilded umbrellas. The king as he appeared seated on the throne struck the mission as looking more like a statue in a niche than a sentient being. He was short and rather fat, and wore a loose gown of gold tissue with very wide sleeves. His head was devoid of a crown or any other covering, but near him was a sceptre or bâton of gold. On the left of the throne were exhibited the presents, which the envoy firmly believed were represented as tribute from the English Government. There was a few minutes of profound silence, broken at length by the king addressing Mr. Crawford.

He put a few insignificant questions, and concluded with: "I am glad to see here an envoy from the Governor-General of India. Whatever you have to say communicate to my chief minister. What we want from you is a good supply of firearms—firearms and good gunpowder." As soon as the last words were uttered a loud stroke was heard, which, as if given by a wand against a piece of wainscoting. It was a signal apparently for the closing of the ceremony, for immediately curtains were lowered and completely concealed the king and his throne from view. A great flourish of wind instruments heralded the disappearance of Majesty, and the courtiers, to further emphasize the action, stretched their faces along the ground several times. The members of the mission, in accordance with their preconceived arrangement, contented themselves with bowing. While the audience was in progress a heavy shower of rain fell, and the king graciously sent to each of the strangers a small common umbrella as a protection from the elements. But as a counterpoise to this thoughtfulness they were prohibited from putting on their boots, so that they had to march through the miry courtyard in their stocking feet. An inspection of the room revealed an imposing and fort salient white animals, brought the palace experiences to a close.

In the afternoon of the same day that the members of the mission were received by the king, they were waited on at their residence by the chief minister. "This visit," says Mr. Crawford, "in his account of the mission, afforded an opportunity of observing one of the most singular and whimsical prejudices of the Siamese. This people have an extreme horror of permitting anything to pass over the head, or having the head touched, or in short, bringing themselves into a situation in which their persons are liable to be brought into a situation of physical inferiority to that of others, such as going under a bridge, or entering the lower apartment of a house when the upper one is inhabited. For this sufficient reason, their houses are all of one story. The dwelling which we occupied, however, had been intended for a warehouse, and consisted, as already mentioned, of two stories, while there was no access to the upper apartments except by an awkward stair and trap-door from the corresponding lower ones. This occasioned a serious dilemma to the minister. A man of his rank and condition, it was gravely insisted upon, could not subject himself to have strangers walk over his head without suffering seriously in public estimation. "To get over this weighty objection, a ladder was at last erected against the side of the house, by which His Excellency, although neither a light nor active figure suited for such enterprises, safely effected his ascent about three o’clock in the afternoon. The native Christians of Portuguese descent had prepared an abundant entertainment, after the European manner, which was not served up. The minister sat at table, but without eating. His son and nephew, the youths whom I have before mentioned, also sat down, and partook heartily of the good things which were placed before them. No Oriental antipathies were discoverable in the selection of the viands. Pork, beef, venison, and poultry were served up in profusion, and there was certainly nothing to indicate that we were in a country where the destruction of animal life is viewed with horror and punished as a crime. The fact is, that in practice the Siamese eat whatever animal food is presented to them without scruple, and discreetly put no questions, being quite satisfied, as they openly avow, if the blood be not upon their heads."

Before taking leave of the visitors the minister intimated to Mr. Crawford that in accordance with Siamese custom the expenses of the mission would from that day be disbursed by the Government. The envoy sought to explain that the members of the mission were all servants of the Government of India, and as they received adequate remuneration stood in no need of the assistance offered. But the minister resolutely declined to entertain the idea that any one but his Majesty of Siam could legitimately maintain the embassy on Siamese soil, and placed on the table a small sum in silver which was not adequate to keep even the servants of the mission for forty-eight hours. After this visit the visitors saw little of the minister until one day, more than a fortnight after the reception by the king, he appeared in a state of great excitement. It was surmised from his condition that he must have some matter of great political importance to impart, but when he had recovered his breath sufficiently to speak, it was found that his visit merely referred to some glass lamps which had been offered to the king by a person on board the John Adam and afterwards clandestinely sold by him to some private individual. His Majesty had set his heart on these lamps and was greatly angered at the notion that any one else should have dared to purchase them. Impelled to vigorous action by his threats of dire punishment for all if the error was not rectified, the officials had scattered in all directions in search of the


(From "The Kingdom and People of Siam.")
this the members of the mission were aroused from their slumbers by the cries of a wretched individual who was being castigated in the street below. On inquiry the next day they ascertained that the victim was their Portuguese interpreter, who was thus punished because he had omitted to report the sale of the lamps. The chasteism failed to secure a disclosure of the objects of the royal search, because the poor man really knew nothing as to their whereabouts. The king, however, was not to be diverted from his purpose by ordinary difficulties. The lamps he knew were in the capital somewhere, and he meant to have them. Dire were the threats held over the heads of his ministers in the event of their failure to accomplish his wishes. At length, after Bangkōk had been kept for two days in a state of turmoil, the precious lamps were discovered in the house of an old Siamese woman, who with fear and trembling handed the articles over to the royal officials with a protest that all along she had intended them as a present to his Majesty. Before the echoes of this absorbing hunt had completely died away, the members of the mission were aroused one night by the arrival of a special messenger from the king. The man brought with him a great doll or puppet and conveyed an earnest wish of his Majesty that the visitors would give instructions for the dressing of the figure so as to represent Napoleon Buonaparte. Amongst the servants of the mission was a dirizee, or Indian tailor, and the man was promptly set to work to provide the desired counterfeit. In the end, with the assistance of four court tailors and two shoemakers, the dirizee turned out a very fair presentment of the Man of Destiny, greatly to the gratification of the Lord of White Elephants. Meanwhile, the serious affairs of the mission were at a practical standstill. When the king discovered, as he speedily did, that the East India Company were not prepared to embroil themselves with the King of Burma by supplying him with arms and ammunition, he became indifferent to the mission. Outwardly the visitors were treated with courtesy, but the surveillance maintained over them was never relaxed. "Every day," says Mr. Crawfurd, "brought to light some new occurrence calculated to display the ceaseless jealousy and suspicious character of the Siamese Government. A Government so arbitrary and unjust can place no reasonable reliance upon its own subjects, and seems to be in perpetual dread that they are to be incited to insurrection or rebellion by the example of strangers. This is unquestionably the true explanation of the hectic alarm and distrust which it entertains of all foreigners. One of the interpreters of the mission reported today the circumstances of a conversation which he held the day before with one of the brothers of the Prah-klang, who was much in the minister's confidence. This person said, 'that the English were a dangerous people to have any connection with, for that they were not only the ablest but the most ambitious of the European nations who frequented the East.' The interpreter answered, that it was impossible the English could have any ambitious views on Siam; 'for what,' he said, 'could they, who have so much already, and are accustomed to convenient countries, do with such a one as yours, in which there are neither roads nor bridges, would not be long in their possession before they made it such that you might sleep in the streets and rice-fields.' It may be necessary to mention that the person who made this com-

A MANDARIN OF THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY IN ORDINARY COSTUME.

(From "The Kingdom and People of Siam.")

A SIAMESE WOMAN OF THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY.

(From Crawfurd's "Embassy to Siam.")

A SIAMESE MAN OF THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY.

(From Crawfurd's "Embassy to Siam.")

munication was by birth a Siamese, and by disposition very talkative and communicative. In the conference which took place between the British envoy and the chief minister, the main difficulty—an insuperable one as it proved—was the royal right of pre-emption. The minister resolutely declined to entertain any scheme by which this would be abrogated or even weakened. It had, he said, been a royal prerogative from time immemorial, and could not be surrendered or diminished. The position thus taken up was fatal to the success of the mission. What the East India Company sought was trade, and trade in the then circumstances was hopeless. How the peculiar Siamese commercial methods worked is explained by Mr. Crawfurd in his Journal, in these words: "When a ship arrives the officers of Government, under pretence of serving the king, select a large share of the most vendible part of the goods and put their own price upon them. No private merchant, under penalty of heavy fine or severe corporal punishment, is allowed to make an offer for the goods until the officers of the court are all satisfied. A large portion, and often the whole, of the export cargo is supplied to the foreign merchant on the same principle. The officers of Government purchase the native commodities at the lowest market rate and sell them to the exporter at their own arbitrary valuation. The resident Chinese alone, from their numbers and influence, have got over this difficulty, and of course are carrying on a very large and remunerative commerce. This pernicious and ruinous practice of pre-
emption is the only real obstacle to European trade in Siam, for the duties on merchandise or on lomage are not excessive, and the country is fertile, abounding in productions suited for foreign trade beyond any other with which I am acquainted."

After remaining four months at Bangkok, the mission quitied Siam. They left behind them, anchored in the Menam, a British ship which had come for purposes of trade. The captain, thinking to propitiate the king, had brought as a present for his Majesty a white horse. The animal, which appears to have been something of a screw, did not meet with the royal approbation, and was returned to the captain without thanks. The old tar, not caring to have his decks encumbered with a useless animal, had the beast destroyed and caused the carcass to be thrown into the river. The offence of killing a horse, and especially a white horse, was a heinous one, and the fact was soon brought home to the unfortunate captain. A body of mandarins and soldiers boarded his ship, seized him, and subjected him to a severe bamboozling, with other ill-treatment. Such an episode in modern times would have been productive of very unpleasant consequences for the Siamese Government; but the doctrine of Cives Romanus sum was then only struggling for recognition as a principle of British policy, and the outrage remained unavenged, just as the graver massacre of Mergui, of the previous century, was left without punishment.

CHAPTER IX

Accession of a new king—Conclusion of the treaty of Bangkok—The United States mission to Siam in 1853—Sir James Brooke conducts an abortive mission to Siam in 1850—Unsuccessful American mission—Sir John Bowring goes as British envoy to Siam in 1855—He concludes a treaty.

A new king, Somdetch Pra Xang Klow, ascended the throne in 1824. He had a quiet, peaceful, and prosperous reign of twenty-seven years. As a sovereign he was respected and feared, and governed his kingdom successfully and well according to Siamese lights. But he maintained towards foreigners an attitude of rigid aloofness. Apparently he did not know them, but in reality he knew all about them. His eye was on them. They were simply suffered to live in the kingdom if they could do so with all the obstacles the then Government placed in their way. In those days no permission could be obtained from the Government for a native to sell land to foreigners or for foreigners to purchase land or to travel. If land was rented to them it was by great men at large sums, but apparently on their own personal responsibility. If foreigners travelled they did so without permission or pass, on their individual responsibility, liable to be seized and accounted for by any petty officer who might wish to annoy them."

"Siamese Repository."

In assuming this attitude the king only reflected the opinions of the bulk of his subjects. A genuine alarm had been excited by the conquests of the East India Company. As one after another of the Indian States succumbed to the apparently irresistible power of the Company's legions, the fear grew up that the turn of Siam was coming, and the determination was formed to have as little to do with the too intrusive foreigners as was possible. From the Siamese standpoint there was unquestionable merit in this policy. The best way to avert an evil is to keep it at arm's length, and in the light of the history of the past a connection with a European Power Raffles put the matter very clearly in a communication he addressed to the Government of India when he relinquished the administration of Singapore. "The conduct and character of the court of Siam," he wrote, "offer no opening for friendly negotiations on the footing on which European States would treat with each other, and require that in our future communications we should rather dictate what we consider to be just and right than sue for their granting it as an indulgence." Raffles concluded by suggesting that the blockade of the Menam river, which could easily be effected by the cruisers from Singapore, would always bring the Siamese to

BANGKOK IN 1824.

(From Crawford's "Embassy to Siam.")
TWELTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

slaughter of a useless horse, it is obvious that considerable danger to the life and liberty of Englishmen lurked under this proviso. In course of time, as trade between Siam and other countries increased, the features of the treaty to which exception was taken were ignored, because the Siamese, on their part, repeatedly infringed the provisions of the arrangement. The necessity of a regularisation of trade was, however, continually felt, and the British Government kept steadily in view the desirability of concluding a more acceptable compact with the Bangkok authorities. Meanwhile, the United States Government endeavoured on its own account to enter into diplomatic relations with Siam. In 1833 Mr. Edmund Roberts was despatched by the Washington authorities to Bangkok with instructions to conduct negotiations for a commercial treaty. Mr. Roberts was indefatigable in his endeavours to secure privileges for his countrymen, but the Siamese Government resolutely declined to make any greater concessions than had been granted to Great Britain, and he had to be content with a colourless treaty conferring some worthless privileges upon American traders. A particular request made by Mr. Roberts for liberty for a United States consul to reside in Siam was refused on the ground that a similar application put forward by the British Government had not been entertained. In point of fact, both the treaty of Bangkok and its American prototype were practically useless. The American ship Sachem was the only vessel that attempted to trade under the United States treaty, and her experiences were so discouraging that she did not pay a second visit to Siam. On the British part the trade was confined to three or four ships which made annual voyages to Siam, carrying on the outward trip cowries, piece goods, and dates from Bombay, and taking back with them cargoes of sugar. The meagre character of the trade is revealed by the fact that in 1833 there was only one British merchant (Mr. R. Hunter) in the entire country.

For some years the British Government was content to allow Siam to remain in the condition of isolation which she deliberately selected for herself. In 1839, however, a fresh attempt was made to break down the barriers of reserve. The man selected for the difficult task of leading this new attack was Sir James Brooke, the brilliant administrator known to history as the first English Raja of Sarawak. He entered upon his duties with a high opinion of the commercial value of Siam. Writing to a friend just before his departure from Singapore for Bangkok, he described the area as "a noble country, second only to China," and he dwelt upon the importance of opening it up to English capital and commerce. But he was under no delusions as to the character of the task which was before him. "A treaty extorted by fear (no other way could we get one) would be but a bit of wasted parchment, unless enforced, and if enforced it must be by arms alone, for as to persuasion it is thrown away with this people. Patience and time are, therefore, requisite, and unless they be mad enough to fire upon us, you may rest assured I shall not involve even the remotest chance of hostilities. It is a clumsy style of diplomacy, and with time, perfect sincerity, good intention, and scrapes of attention to the rights of Siam, must have weight; and this is high diplomacy." In another part of the communication the writer said: "The king is old and an usurer; he has two legitimate brothers, clever and enlightened men, who ought to be raised to the throne, and the least help on the reigning sovereign's decease will place one of them on it." In a subsequent letter Raja Brooke said that the Government was as arrogant as that of China, and that the king by report was inimical to Europeans. "The difficulty," he said, "is rendered greater by twenty-seven years of non-intercourse, which has served to encourage the Siamese in their self-conceit, and which has lowered us in their
opinion. . . I consider that time should be given to the work of conciliation, and that their prejudices should be gradually undermined rather than violently upset, and that as we have delayed for thirty years doing anything, that in the course of this policy we may wait till the demise of the king brings about a new order of things. Above all, it would be well to prepare for the change, and to place our own king on the throne, and the king of our choice is fortunately the legitimate sovereign, whose crown was usurped by his elder illegitimate brother. This Prince Chowfa-Mungkuk is now a priest, and a highly accomplished gentleman for a semi-barbarian. He reads and writes English—the latter in a way you may judge of—is instructed in our astronomy, and has a very high opinion of our arts, learning, and government. This prince we ought to place on the throne, and through him we might, beyond doubt, gain all we desire."

Sir James Brooke arrived off the Menam on August 9, 1850, on board H.M.S. Sphynx, which was accompanied by the East India Company's steamer Nemesis. On reaching Palknam on the 16th of August Sir James Brooke was received by the Phra Klang, and on the 22nd the mission proceeded in numerous barges to Bangkok. The envoy was somewhat disquieted to find evidences of hostile preparations for his reception in a boom across the river at its mouth, and numerous well-garrisoned forts on both banks of the stream. When he reached Bangkok he was subjected to a course of treatment which, though not directly unfriendly, was such as to leave no doubt in his mind as to the hopelessness of his mission. All his attempts to conclude a satisfactory treaty proving unavailing, he finally broke off his communications with the Siamese Government on September 28, 1850, and left the country. The Nemesis, with the British envoy on board, had not got clear of the Menam before a United States war-ship arrived, bringing Mr. Ballester, as commissioner from the United States Government, to represent the grievances of which American citizens had to complain, and to attempt to secure a more favourable treaty. Mr. Ballester had been engaged in business at Singapore, and not very success-fully, and his selection to discharge a delicate diplomatic mission was not a happy one. He had not been long in Siam before the authorities gave clear evidence that they did not regard his mission with a very friendly eye. As the vessel in which he made the voyage—the Plymouth—was too large to get up the river, he of necessity had to proceed to Bangkok in a small boat. Owing to the restrictions imposed by the Siamese Government he was compelled to make the journey unaccompanied by any escort. The Siamese authorities sought to excuse themselves for their lack of courtesy in insisting upon this undignified progress by urging that the presence of cholera in the capital rendered it undesirable that the men of the Plymouth should be allowed to land. There had been in the previous year a terrible visitation of the disease, which had carried off many thousands of the inhabitants of Bangkok, irritated, and completely outgeneralled," to adopt the phrase of a Bangkok chronicler, he left Bangkok in disgust, without having had an opportunity of securing an audience with the king. Subsequently, as if to add insult to injury, the Siamese Government sent a very damaging letter to the United States Government reflecting on Mr. Ballester's diplomatic capacity. In 1855 the British Government determined to make yet another effort to conclude a satisfactory treaty with Siam. The Government at home selected as the head of the mission Sir John Bowring, an able official and publicist, who, besides possessing a brilliant record as a writer and controversialist, held at the period of his appointment as envoy the important position of Governor of Hongkong. No doubt to this choice of a man of high standing, well known by reputation to the Siamese Government, the subsequent success of the mission was due. Sir John Bowring from first to last was treated with all respect and consideration, and after a pleasant sojourn at Bangkok, during which he made a close study of Siamese customs and institutions, he took away with him a treaty which placed the relations of Siam and Great Britain on a footing of mutual regard and friendship and paved the way for an era of prosperous trade and steady development on modern lines.

Sir John Bowring was received on arrival at Bangkok with all ceremony due to his rank. In his Diary, published in "The Kingdom and People of Siam," the British ambassador gives from day to day some interesting impressions of his visit. A few extracts may appropriately be given, as they show very clearly the course of the negotiations:

"April 1st.—Discussions have taken place as to the mode of reception, and Parkes very properly insists that the same ceremonial shall take place as when the ambassador of
LETTER FROM THE KING OF SIAM TO SIR JOHN BOWRING.

(From "The Kingdom and People of Siam").

Louis XIV. arrived. They said they had no records, but wished to receive me as the envoys of Cochinchina, Birmah, and other Asiatic sovereigns have been received. I did not deem this satisfactory, and therefore have written to the Phra Kalahom representing that my position is more elevated and that greater respect should be shown to my credentials, and I have sent a copy of my powers to the Phra Kalahom. I find he is one of forty-five brothers and that his father was the prime minister of the late king, and is still an influential person, having the title of Senior Somdej. It would seem this is the most potent family in the State, and are the principal persons to be conciliated. The grand difficulties will obviously be to deal with the monopolies which have destroyed the trade and to enable our merchants to buy and sell without let or hindrance. At two o’clock a messenger from the King with sundry presents—cakes of many sorts prepared for the Royal table, cigars, fruits of various kinds—all brought on silver salvers. The letters of the King are always conveyed in a golden cup, highly ornamented—sometimes, when borne by a prince or great dignitary, having jewels in addition to the embossing. He sent also some phalikets, a fruit of the size of a gooseberry, gathered in the jungles, but not cultivated in gardens. The betel, so salutary in cases of dysentery, was among the fruits sent. I hope these courtesies are not to be mere formalities introductory to nothing, and feel the greatest anxiety with reference to the future. I pray the interests of my country may not suffer in my hands. We got safely over the bar at a quarter past four, and before sunset anchored at Paknam, where Mr. Hunter came on board and told us we were to be visited by Phra Chan Pin Mong Kel Sripwong, the governor of the district and brother of the prime minister. We announced our arrival by a salute of twenty-one guns, and the same number returned the salute. Soon after, the Sripwong arrived, rather a gentlemanly man, who told us he had twenty brothers and ten sisters living, and that twenty were dead.

"April 3rd.—At half-past seven several boats, highly ornamented and rowed each by thirty-four rowers, came to the Rattler. I landed with my suite and Captains Keane and Mellersh, with many other officers, under a royal salute of twenty-one guns to the Siamese flag. We were met at the wharf by a General, dressed in an old English court-dress; and a body of troops, with a strange band of music, was drawn up. Thousands of persons were present, all in a prostrate state; and a park of artillery, exceedingly well served, returned the salute of twenty-one guns. The prime minister, Phra Kalahom, was on the highest stage of the reception-room—a large erection of bamboos specially raised for the purpose. There was a chair, on which he took his seat, placed on a gold richly ornamented rug. My chair was placed opposite to him. I explained to him my objects in visiting the country and that they were of an amicable and honorable character. There were spread on a table a great quantity of viands, which were afterwards sent to the ship. Cigars were introduced and many inquiries made as to the names and conditions of the gentlemen present. Both when we landed and when we departed arms were presented by the troops through whose lines we passed. Never was such music—flutes, drums, and a fiddle, played by the most grotesque-looking figures imaginable. The Phra Kalahom was dressed in a long golden jacket, with a belt of flexible gold highly ornamented with diamonds. Many embossed golden articles were about, such as betel-nut cases, cigar-boxes, spittoons, &c. At twelve o’clock eight state boats, with six accompanying boats, came to escort us to Bangkok. Mine was magnificent; it had the gilded and emblazoned image of an idol at its prow, with two flags like vanes grandly ornamented. Near the stern was a raised carpeted dais with scarlet and gold curtains. The boat was also richly gilded and had a tail like a fish. Many of the boats were painted to resemble fishes, with eyes in the stern, and had long tails. The captain stood at the head, but the boat was steered by two persons with oars, who continually exhorted the rowers to exert themselves and called up the spirit of the most active competition. The shouts were sometimes deafening as boat after boat responded to the appeal. In most particulars the procession resembled that of the French ambassador, La Loubère, from Louis XIV., and the pictorial representations given by him are very accurate. One of the songs sung had for its burden ‘Row, row, I smell the rice’—meaning the
meat at the end of the journey. They often dipped their drinking-vessels into the river and partook of the brackish waters. The boats had from twenty to forty rowers, all clad in scarlet faced with green and white, with a curious helmet-like cape having two tails pendent over the shoulders. We estimated that five hundred men must have been engaged. They serve in vassalage four months in the year, and are freed from servitude during the remaining eight.

"April 4.—The King's boat arrived at a quarter before eight p.m. to convey me to the palace; and on landing at the wooden pier on the other side of the river, I was conveyed by eight bearers in an ornamented chair to the first station. It was a semi-official reception. The troops were drawn out in several parts of the palace. We were escorted by hundreds of torch-bearers through a considerable extent of passages and open grounds, passing through gates, at each of which was a body of guards, who 'presented arms' in European fashion. When we reached one of the outer buildings near the palace walls, a brother of the Phra Kalahom met us, and we were desired to wait the pleasure of the King. Two golden ewers containing pure water were brought in, and a note from his Majesty desiring I would leave my companions, H. S. P. and J. C. B., until they were sent for; I was to come on alone. The Major-General marched before me, and told me that within the palace about a thousand persons resided, but that in the ladies' part there were no less than three thousand women. The abject state of every individual exceeds belief. While before the nobles, all subordinates are in a state of reverent prostration; the nobles themselves, in the presence of the Sovereign, exhibit the same crawling obedience.

After waiting about a quarter of an hour a messenger came, bearing a letter for me, and a pass, in the King's hand, allowing me pass the guards; and I was informed that without such credentials no individual could approach. It was beautifully moonlight, and in an open space, on a highly ornamented throne sat his Majesty, clad in a crimson dress, and wearing a head-dress resplendent with diamonds and other precious stones, a gold girdle, and a short dagger splendidly embossed and enriched with jewels. His reception of me was very gracious, and I sat opposite his Majesty, only a table being between us. The King said ours was an ancient friend, and I was most welcome. His Majesty offered me cigars with his own hand, and liqueurs, tea, and sweetmeats were brought in. An amicable conversation took place, which lasted some time; after which Mr. Parkes and Mr. Bowring were sent for, and seated in chairs opposite the King. He asked them questions about their own history and position. The observations of the King which I remember were to the effect that the discussion of a treaty would be left to four nobles—the two Somdetchs (the father and uncle of the prime minister, but related to the Royal family by mother's blood), the Phra Kalahom, the Phra Klang; and I urged on the King that my public reception might take place without delay, so that those gentlemen might be officially authorised to act, or otherwise begged to be allowed to discuss matters with them connected with the treaty. The King said so many arrangements had to be made that the public reception could not take place till Monday; but that in the meantime I might discuss the conditions of the treaty with the Phra Klang, and give him my views in writing. I said it would be better that written documents should follow than precede discussion, as I should be more embarrassed in proposing matters probably not attainable, and the ministers would feel compromised by rejecting formal propositions of mine. The King agreed to this. I went over the proceedings of the various negotiations which had taken place. Mr. Crawford's, he said, was from the East India Company, and that Mr. Crawford's position, as an envoy from the Governor-General of India, was different from mine, as sent by the Sovereign of England; that Captain Burney's mission grew principally out of local questions between the Siamese and their neighbours; and that when Sir James Brooke came, the late King was sick, and not willing to attend to such matters. The point which the King pressed was the effect the treaty would have upon the Cochín Chinese, who would represent them as making humiliating concessions to foreigners, which the Cochín Chinese would never do. I said I would go to Cochín China whenever I could settle affairs in China itself; it was a small and unimportant country, with little trade; and that though I respected his Majesty's susceptibilities with reference to a neighbouring State, he could be only strengthened by a treaty with England which led to the development of the resources of Siam.

"His Majesty said that, after the treaty was made, he would send an ambassador to England, and hoped he would be kindly received by the Queen and the Court. He asked me whether it would be better to send him round the Cape in one of his own ships, or by the overland route. I said that the overland route was shorter, and would allow the ambassador to see many foreign countries on his way. I inquired whether he would call at Calcutta, and the King said that should be considered afterwards. I assured the King that all respect and kindness would be shown him, and that the various elements of the power and civilisation of England would be accessible to him.

The first favourable impressions produced by the reception given to the mission were strengthened as time wore on. "Nothing," says Sir John Bowring in his record of the mission, "could be more just to Siamese interests, nothing more creditable to the sagacity and honourable intentions of the two Kings, than was the character of the Commission appointed to discuss with me the great subjects connected with my mission; for it was clear that my success involved a total revolution in all the financial machinery of the Government—that it must bring about a total change in the whole system of taxation, that it took a large proportion of the existing sources of revenue, that it exposed a great number of privileges and monopolies which had not only been long established, but which were held by the most influential nobles and the highest functionaries in the State. The Commission was composed of the Somdetch om Fai, the first regent, and his brother, the Somdetch om Noi, the second regent of the kingdom. These occupy the highest official rank. The second Somdetch is the receiver-general of the revenues, and was notoriously interested in the existing system, by which production, commerce, and shipping were placed at the mercy of the farmers of the various revenues, who paid the price of their many and vexatious monopolies either to the Royal treasury or to the high officials through whom those monopolies were granted. The two Somdetchs had been long the dominant rulers in Siam. Their names will be found in all the commissions and councils.
by which have been thwarted the attempts made by various envoys from Great Britain and the United States to place the commercial relations of Siam with foreign countries on a satisfactory basis. It was they who defeated Mr. Crawfurd's mission, 1822, and Sir James Brooke's negotiations in 1851. They were also, I believe, the main cause of the shortcomings and concessions found in Captain Burney's Treaty. Mr. Roberts' Treaty with the United States had become practically a dead-letter, and it contained, in truth, no provisions to secure foreigners from molestation; while the arrangements for commercial purposes are of the most crude and imperfect character. This, perhaps, may also be attributed to the same influence which nullified the exertions of British ministers. Mr. Halletier's attempt in 1850 to place the relations between Siam and the United States on improved foundations was an utter failure, and was associated with many circumstances of personal annoyance and humiliation. I have reason to know that both the British and American envoys pressed upon their respective Governments their urgent opinions that it was quite idle to pursue farther any negotiations in a conciliatory or pacific spirit; but that energetic warlike demonstrations and the employment of force were absolutely needful to bring the Siamese to reason, and ought undoubtedly to be employed.

"Besides the Somdetchs, the Kings nominated the acting prime minister (the Phra Kalahom) and the acting minister for foreign affairs (the Phra Klang). These gentlemen are the sons and nephews of the Somdetchs, and had been hitherto associated with their repulsive policy. But whether a conviction that the true interests of the country demanded a radical change in its fiscal and commercial system; whether from a conviction that this system had already caused much discontent, and was in itself fraught with many dangers; whether from a persuasion that the continued rejection of the friendly advances of the great maritime powers was not a safe or prudent policy; whether apprehensions of the power of Great Britain balance of an emancipating and a liberal policy, and I have reason to believe he had no sinister interest likely to prejudice or mislead.

"Among many other courtesies, the King desired I would choose two elephants of any age or size I should prefer, and offered me also two ponies from the Royal stables; but as I had no means of conveying them from Bangkok, I was obliged gratefully to decline these marks of his favour. I willingly accepted from him a bunch of hairs from the tails of white elephants which had been the cherished possession of his ancestors, and I had the honour of offering two of these hairs for the gracious acceptance of the Queen. I may also mention that, not having a Siamese flag to hoist according to established usages, I mentioned to the King that I was desirous of possessing one, in order that due honour might be shown to the national insignia. A flag was sent on the 1st of April, which the King desired me to retain."

The treaty concluded by Sir John Bowring was of far-reaching importance. One of its leading provisions conceded the principle of extra-territoriality, insistence on which was so essential at that period for the due protection of British traders. There were other notable arrangements designed to remove the barriers which had hitherto obstructed trade. The right of royal pre-emption, to which the Siamese authorities had so obstinately adhered in the negotiations with Mr. Crawfurd, was
abandoned, and in its place regulations were established more in harmony with the spirit of that freedom of trade which was making its vivifying influence felt in the principal trading centres of the Far East. While British commercial enterprise, and, indeed, that of all Western trading nations, gained enormously by the change, the Siamese Government had no reason to regret the action taken. The new conditions brought an accession of wealth to the country, and infused into the organisation of its life a healthy spirit, which in due time was to bring Siam into the very forefront of progressive Eastern nations.

CHAPTER X


The death of the old king in 1851 created a crisis in Siamese affairs which, but for the wisdom shown by the chief officers of state, might have resulted disastrously for the interests of the country. At that time there were two legitimate lines of succession, each with its supporters. On the one side were the king's two brothers—Chow Fa Yai and Chow Fa Noi; on the other were a number of sons, any one of whom might have occupied the throne. With a perspicacity which did them credit, two powerful noblemen took the lead in advancing the claims of the former, and they completely succeeded by their prompt and bold measures in securing for the brothers a whole-hearted acceptance at the hands of the people. Chow Fa Yai, the elder, was chosen for the supreme position, and Chow Fa Noi became "second king"—a position which gave title without power—the form of royalty without the substance. Both were remarkable men. The king—Phrabalth Somdet Paramindr Maha Mongkiat—to give him his full regal name, was, says a writer who knew him well, "a man of extraordinary genius and acquirements, a theologian and founder of a new school of Buddhist thought. At one time in the priesthood, he was eminent amongst the monks for his knowledge of Buddhist scriptures, and boldly preached against the canonicity of those whose teachings were opposed to his reason and his knowledge of modern science. His powers as a linguist were considerable, and enabled him to use an English library with facility. His majesty was well versed in mathematics and astronomy."

The second king was in some respects even more enlightened and gifted than his brother. "He was noted for his love of whatever was European, and gave himself up to the study of the arts as practised by the nations of the West. His watchword was progress. He purposed to know what gave to the people of the West their success, their power and their influence. His ear was open and his mind awake to all that commanded attention in the arts. . . . He studied navigation and the art of shipbuilding very early, even before there were resident Protestant missionaries in Siam. Captain Coffin, who took away those twin whips that have been the wonder of the world, was one of his first teachers. . . . He did not first direct his architectural skill to shipbuilding. His first essays at practical mechanism were to the no little wonder of the uninitiated. The prince also had the honour of introducing the first turning lathe and setting up a machine shop. When the Siamese had war with Cochín China, during the reign of Pra Nano Klow, Chow Fa Noi was made head of the Siamese Navy, and went by sea to aid in the war. This brought out his military character. Ever after-

SPIRE OF THE TEMPLE CALLED WATA-NAGA.

(Froin Crawford's "Embassy to Siam."

made at repairing watches. The first vessel after a European model made in Siam was built by no less a personage than the present Prime Minister. . . . The second King, while yet only a prince, built several sailing vessels from European models. . . . He fitted up the first steam engine in Siam. It was placed in a small boat, and plied up and down the Menam, ward he showed pride in the military department. None had so fine an arsenal. None surpassed him in the drill maintained among the soldiery. The naval adventure also gave him an opportunity to perfect his knowledge of navigation. He delighted in practical astronomy in all its bearings upon this department. . . . He was affable and gentlemanly in
all his intercourse with foreigners. His palace was the admiration of all who visited it. It was built after a European model, furnished after European manner, and with European furniture. And his receptions were above invidious criticism. All was order and decor, with a degree of good taste that was quite wonderful in a man who had never been beyond his own little kingdom."

An almost immediate result of this king's accession was a great widening of the avenues of Government employment for Europeans. Indeed, the modern system of anarchy may be said to date its birth from this period. Under the rule of Somdet Phra Nang Klong about the only persons of Western origin employed were persons with nautical knowledge, whose services were indispensable in the navigation of the square-rigged vessels which during the reign of his predecessors had been driven into the service of the second king, whose troops he trained. Subsequently he became Interpreter at the British Consulate, and finally Consul-General. M. Lamache, a Frenchman, was another of the earlier European officials; and there were also several Americans, notably Mr. Gardener, who was in charge of the king's printing office. The wives of the American missionaries had also a sort of official connection by their being engaged as teachers of the royal children. Their services were dispensed with after a period, and Mrs. Leonowens, the talented writer previously referred to, was engaged to perform the duties which they had discharged.

Soon after the conclusion of the treaty of 1855 the question of sending a return mission to England was debated. Eventually, in August 1857, an embassy of which Praya Monti Suriwongse was the head left Bangkok for England. A curious account of their experiences was afterwards published by the interpreter of the mission. On arrival in London the visitors were received in private audience by the Queen, but as her Majesty was in delicate health the public audience was postponed for a few days. At length the great day for the reception of the mission arrived. Having arrayed themselves in their finest robes, the members of the mission proceeded in royal carriages to Windsor Castle. "The streets were crowded as we approached our destination," says the interpreter, "and the waiting crowds lifted their hats and welcomed us with a ringing hurra! Then they spoke of us to each other, pointing out the ambassador and his associates one by one. I looked upon the beautiful ladies, most elegantly dressed, and yet I must turn away; the young will despise me, I said; I am already old. I fear the elder have hands and so are lost to me."

"When we reached the Castle some trio hurra! was raised, and we were all self-assured. The English farmers received the news of the event and left their ploughs to come and see the ambassador and his associates one by one. The English farmers were all greatly pleased and the ambassador and his associates were all greatly pleased."

"They were led into a ante-room till one o'clock, when the music of the band announced that the time had arrived to appear before her Britannic Majesty in state and present the letters from their Majesties the First and Second Kings of Siam. The general led the way to the inner chamber, where there were a band of musicians, and men armed with battle-axes and spears, while we advanced in the opening mode for us, on rich carpets."

"When we had reached the third hall (it was the room of the royal presence), Queen Victoria and Prince Consort were at the head of the room standing. He now addressed us and bowed three times at the door, before the ambassador advanced with the letters. He then went forward, standing, and placed the letters on a table prepared for the purpose, and stood; we had followed him, creeping Siamese fashion, and when the letter was placed, all bowed again three times, the ambassador and his associates, and the band of musicians. First he introduced himself and then each of us in turn and said that the object of our mission was to cement the friendship between ourselves and the British nation, making their interests as one. Mr. Fowler interpreted and then we all together bowed again three times, as we are wont to do in our kingdom. It was now the turn of the Queen to reply. First the ambassador took the royal letters to the throne and the Prince Consort received them. The Queen then graciously expressed herself as highly gratified that the embassy had been accomplished and was sure it would be for the honour and advantage of our country. She said she, will mutually receive an impulse and prosperity be accelerated as a consequence in both realms. She expressed her gratitude to the officers of the man-of-war that had accomplished for the embassy so prosperous and happy a voyage across the boisterous ocean. She said the receiving of the royal letters was so great an occasion they must not mingle with it other business. She therefore asked that any business the embassy might have to present might be postponed for another occasion. The embassy, therefore, took leave of her Majesty, and retired à la Siamese fashion from the audience hall, retiring backwards, creeping; and the officers appointed for the purpose gave them refreshments and showed them the grounds till the time arrived to depart for the city and their hotel."

"The king was a keen observer of current events, but sometimes his judgment was somewhat at fault owing to his ignorance of the conditions of life in Western countries. An amusing example of this is supplied by an incident which occurred in 1861–62. Having heard of the great extent of the United States and the wonderful progress made, his Majesty conceived the idea that he might contribute materially to the advancement of the Republic by a practical act. Writing to President Lincoln he said: 'It has occurred to us that if on the continent of America there should be several pairs of young male elephants turned loose in forests where there was abundance of water and grass, in any region under the sun's declination both north and south, called by the English the torrid zone, and all were forbidden to molest them, to attempt to raise them would be well, and if the climate there should prove favourable to elephants, we are of opinion that after a while they will increase until they become large herds, as there are here on the continent of Asia, and when they are able to catch and tame and use them as beasts of burden, making them of benefit to the country, since elephants, being animals of great size and strength, can bear burdens and travel through uncultivated woods and swamps where no carriage and cart roads have yet been made.'"

"This letter, published by the Government, was sent to a number of elephants to form the nucleus of a national herd. Old Abe Lincoln, who at that time had on his hands far more difficult matters than an experiment in elephant breeding, courteously declined the offer. 'This Government,' he said in his letter of reply, written from Washington on February 11, 1862, 'has no intention of sending any number of elephants to form the nucleus of a national herd. Old Abe Lincoln, who at that time had on his hands far more difficult matters than an experiment in elephant breeding, courteously declined the offer. 'This Government,' he said in his letter of reply, written from Washington on February 11, 1862, 'has no intention of sending any number of elephants to form the nucleus of a national herd. Old Abe Lincoln, who at that time had on his hands far more difficult matters than an experiment in elephant breeding, courteously declined the offer. 'This Government,' he said in his letter of reply, written from Washington on February 11, 1862, 'has no intention of sending any number of elephants to form the nucleus of a national herd. Old Abe Lincoln, who at that time had on his hands far more difficult matters than an experiment in elephant breeding, courteously declined the offer. 'This Government,' he said in his letter of reply, written from Washington on February 11, 1862, 'has no intention of sending any number of elephants to form the nucleus of a national herd. Old Abe Lincoln, who at that time had on his hands far more difficult matters than an experiment in elephant breeding, courteously declined the offer. 'This Government,' he said in his letter of reply, written from Washington on February 11, 1862, 'has no intention of sending any number of elephants to form the nucleus of a national herd. Old Abe Lincoln, who at that time had on his hands far more difficult matters than an experiment in elephant breeding, courteously declined the offer. 'This Government,' he said in his letter of reply, written from Washington on February 11, 1862, 'has no intention of sending any number of elephants to form the nucleus of a national herd. Old Abe Lincoln, who at that time had on his hands far more difficult matters than an experiment in elephant breeding, courteously declined the offer."
7 a.m., and intimated that the non-official portion of the community might attend two hours later, the writer says:—"A little before seven on the day appointed the prime minister appeared. He then led the way to a triangular court parting the inner audience hall, and assigned the European ladies present eligible positions, and then the favoured honours were assigned their places. Immediately a band of music sounded, and the first king-elect came forth from the inner hall robed in a waist and shoulder cloth of white, and ascended a throne in the centre of the court. A Bramin priest presented a golden bowl—the young king dipped his fingers in the water there, and lifted them to his face, and then a shower from the canopy above drenched the king-elect, making him in his feeble health tremble from the shock. Then a Bramin priest from a golden goblet drenched him anew. The oldest princes of the realm, a few venerable noble ladies, the prime minister, and high-priests of the Buddhist religion in turn poured upon the king-elect the cold and, as they supposed, the virtue-giving element. This ceremony ended, the Bramin priests presented flowers and leaves for the king's acceptance. Then his majesty descended from the throne, wound a dry robe around him, and dropping at the foot of his throne his dripping garments, retired to the inner audience hall and was immediately arrayed in apparel of golden tissue for further ceremonies. The young king now ascended an octagonal throne, having eight seats facing the eight points of the compass, at the extremity of the great inner audience hall, while the audience were assembling at the opposite extremity. Bramin priests crouching at different sides of the throne instructed him in turn in the duties and responsibilities he was about to assume, and administered the oath of office. He then came forward to a throne near the audience and Bramin priests continued the ceremony. One announced to the people that their lawful king was now before them. Another, addressing the king, pronounced him the lord of the realm and rightful sovereign of the people. They now brought him his insignia of royalty and he appropriated them as given. He arrayed himself before the people with golden chains, signet rings, his crown, his sceptre, and the habiliments of royalty, even to the golden sandals. When the crown was placed on the head, a royal land and naval salute from the ships of war honoured him as the people's acknowledged king. The king now showered among his subjects and noble spectators golden flowers, and the prime minister announced an interim of ceremonies and invited the guests to a repast that had been served for the occasion. While the repast was in progress, the company was constantly receiving new accessions, and at the close of the repast the prime minister announced that all were invited to be present at the great public audience hall of the late king to witness the continuation of the ceremonies. The hour arrived. The company all assembled as invited, and the new king ascended his throne, and his subjects, the noblemen of the realm, prostrated themselves before him. The consuls of the great countries towards the setting sun, and their subjects in this far-off land, bowed together thrice in honour of

A SIAMESE LYING-IN-STATE.
royalty. Music struck up its most cheering notes, and the boom of cannon chimed in with loudest peal from many a thundering centre in honour of the new-made king. As soon as a hearing could be secured, the great men of the kingdom, the rulers of provinces and officers of state, came forward and formally made over their respective departments to his Majesty.

The king's chief scribe announced the long title by which he was to be hereafter known. And the king made a short and graceful reply at once to all that had honoured him with the power to rule. Then came the turn of the foreign community to address the king. They chose Mr. G. F. Vianna, the Portuguese Consul-General, to represent them. He read a congratulatory address, to which the young king briefly replied, leaving a most pleasing impression by his modest and gracious demeanour."

Under the provisions of the Bowring treaty and the analogous arrangements which were made by various European Powers other than Great Britain, a regular consular system had
on men's shoulders, a large band of native and European instrumental music played cheerful marches and national airs, a long escort of soldiers headed the procession; a line of umbrella-bearers, on each side, in front and in rear of the royal seat, then the Consul and his suite on sedans followed, and the procession moved first by the street running by the south wall of Wat Poh, then up the street by the east wall of Wat Poh and the east wall of the King's Palace, then up the street by the north wall of the palace, then up that street to the north gate of the inner wall of the palace, where the procession stopped. Both sides of the streets the entire length of the procession were thronged with eager spectators, and at short intervals on each side soldiers were stationed presenting arms to the letter as it passed.

"Having reached the inner gate the Consul and his suite descended from their sedans, and following the royal letter, walked through a file of infantry and band on each side of them to the waiting-hall, where his Excellency the ex-Kralahome but now 'Chow Phya Suriwongse, head of the Senabawdee,' received the company... Just before entering the Audience Hall, the kingly insignia were deposited in the hands of the North German Consul. Having entered, the Audience Hall and sighted H.M. the King of Siam, the Consul and his company bowed, advanced a few paces, bowed the second time, advanced a few paces and again bowed, and then the Consul advanced to a centre table in front of the throne and there deposited the gold vase containing the letter of His Most August Majesty the King of Prussia, and stepping backward to the red velvet cushion provided for him he stood silently and respectfully, while the Siamese court speaker, prostrate on all-fours, addressed H.S. Majesty, introducing the N.G. Consul and his company each by name, and stating the object of the present visit.

"The N.G. Consul then made a few appropriate remarks, stating that H.M. the King of Prussia had answered the commission of presenting to H.S.M. a letter of condolence and congratulation in response to autograph letters which H.S.M. had previously sent through him to H.M. the King of Prussia. After this brief address Mr. P. Lesler stepped forward to the throne and handed the autograph letter to H.M. the King of Siam, then the N.G. Consul stepped back and he and his party sat as best they could on the carpeted floor. The Consul sat on a red velvet cushion. The high princes and nobles were prostrate throughout the entire ceremony. Before the Consul was placed a gold vase containing cigars and matches.

"After the company was seated H.M. the King of Siam said it afforded him great pleasure to receive the autograph letter of H.M. the King of Prussia, and particularly its kind expressions of sympathy and goodwill.

"Mr. P. Lesler replied he was grateful for the graciousness of the letter, in which His Majesty had arranged for the reception of the royal autograph letter of H.M. the King of Prussia, and that he would not fail to mention to the Prussian Government the honors shown.

"His Majesty then recommended Mr. Lesler in his official capacity always to communicate with H.E. Chow Phya Suriwongse, the new Minister for Foreign Affairs. The Consul replied that he would gladly comply with His Majesty's directions, His Majesty then retired. The Consul and the new Kralahome and new Minister for Foreign Affairs met, conversed pleasantly, each evidently pleased with the events of the day, and then retired."

In connection with the presentation of these letters there was made a notable change in the method of the reception of the representatives of the European Powers. Up to that time attempts had been made to enforce upon all Europeans who had an audience of the king the—to European minds—tremendous form of showing respect practiced by the native officials. In anticipation of the formalities attending the presentation of the letters the Consols met and agreed upon the presentation from them of a joint demand that they should make their obeisance to the king in European fashion. The representation was well received, and from that time forward the right of consular representatives to show respect in the manner prescribed by the usage of the country was not contested. In other ways the new order of things was revealed. When the Foreign Minister gave an evening party to the members of the European community in honour of the twentieth birthday of the king, it was noted by the chronicler that the Siamese present "all stood, moved about, and conversed freely as men. There was no humiliating prostration, no crawling about on all-fours, as is the daily practice in the houses of the representatives of Old Siam. They conversed with each other with the grace and freedom of refined Europeans, and looked on approvingly while the European ladies did their best to make the occasion, the gathering, and the amusements of the evening agreeable. Many Siamese ladies were present. They were spectacles and observers, but took no prominent part in the performances of the evening."

In 1871 the king broke through the old tradition which confined the monarch's movements to his own dominions by paying a visit to Singapore—the first of many he was destined to pay. His Majesty was received with all honours at the hands of the authorities. A guard of honour of the 75th Regiment salute him at the jetty to the accompaniment of a royal salute from Fort Canning and H.M.S. Algerine. The Acting-Governor tendered him an official welcome and accompanied him to the Town Hall, where other guards of honour were awaiting his arrival. A levee was held by the king in the principal chamber of the Town Hall, and an address of welcome was presented by the Singapore Chamber of Commerce on behalf of the mercantile community. The king replied to this address in a brief speech, in which he spoke of commerce as "one of the chief sources of
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

the wealth of nations," and affirmed his determination to follow in the footsteps of his father in extending to the mercantile community the most liberal treatment. Afterwards the king despatched to Queen Victoria a message expressive of his satisfaction on having set foot for the first time on British territory, and he had a gracious reply from her Majesty. The king, after a pleasant sojourn of upwards of a week in the chief port of the Straits Settlements, departed to Singapore, where he made acquaintance with the Dutch East Indian administration. At a later period he extended his tour to India, and as the guest of the Viceroy (Lord Mayo) travelled through the country, making observations as he went of the notable features of the British administration and winning golden opinions from the Government officials by his manly and dignified bearing and his shrewd intelligence.

The lamentable assassination of Lord Mayo brought his visit to a sudden termination, but his sojourn in the great dependency of the British Crown left an indelible impression upon his young mind, and to it may probably be attributed his indomitable resolution, subsequently adopted. Immediately on his return to Bangkok the king issued a proclamation declaring that child en of slaves should be free on their attaining their twenty-first year. In 1876 the foundations of the Royal Grand Palace (Chakrakri Maha Prasad) were laid, and the magnificent edifice was erected in a style of Western decoration by English architects. Work was being prosecuted at a rapid rate, and in due course turned out Siamese coinage with machinery of the latest patterns imported from Great Britain. The erection of other Government buildings was also begun. These were the Royal Palace, Wat Niwet, the Royal Library, and the National Museum, all of which were completed.

The Royal Grand Palace was the largest building in the kingdom, and contained a number of apartments, with a large number of servants, and was furnished with all the latest fashions. The palace was surrounded by a high wall, with a broad moat, and had three entrances, each guarded by a gate. The king's apartments were on the second floor, and were furnished with all the latest novelties of the day. The palace was surrounded by a number of gardens, and was situated in the centre of the city, near the railway station.

The British Consul-General had made a journey through the kingdom, and reported that the country was well advanced in the arts and sciences, and that the people were educated and well-behaved. The king was much pleased with the report, and expressed his intention of improving the country in every way.
A SIAMESE GIRL OF NOBLE BIRTH MAKING HER TOILET.
The work of construction was completed early in 1893, and on the 11th of April in that year the line was formally opened. It was mentioned at the time with legitimate pride that the concern, though an entirely new departure, had been carried through at the extremely low cost of £4,400 per mile, that sum including rolling-stock. From the first the Siamese took very kindly to railway travelling. The British Consul-General, in his report for 1893, noted that “large receipts are being made from pleasure-seekers, who take trips to and from the capital, and enjoy the novelty of travelling by steam.”

Some time before this little plunge into railway speculation was made by Siam another, and far more important, enterprise was undertaken. This was the construction of a line, 105 miles in length, from the capital to Korat. The course of this line for the first 80 miles is through a flat country mostly covered with rice-fields. Then for 32 miles the line is carried through a thickly-wooded, hilly tract. The last 53 miles of the railway are over a plateau. On the whole, it was a project which carried with it no great engineering difficulty. The contract was given out on December 12, 1891, to Mr. G. Murray Campbell & Co., and the first section was cut by the king on March 9th following. Subsequently difficulties arose between the Government and the contractors, and owing to the official obstruction and the consequent delays a claim was lodged by the latter for damages. There were arbitration proceedings in London over the whole of the contract. Misters Murray Campbell & Co. were awarded a considerable sum as compensation.

Siam’s growth in commercial importance brought into prominence the defects of her judicial system. These were neither few nor unimportant. The administration of the law was in the hands of a corrupt class of officials who accepted bribes in the most shameless fashion, and perverted the course of justice as their personal interests dictated. The prisons were crowded with individuals, some of whom had been left in confinement for years awaiting their trial. In civil cases the law’s delays were so protracted that it sometimes happened that one or other of the parties to the action had been dead for years when the hearing was reached. To remedy this state of affairs the Siamese Government appointed a mixed Commission of European and Siamese lawyers, charged with wide powers. This body conducted an exhaustive investigation, and fixed the time of service of justice on proper lines. Meanwhile, the new leaven of Western civilization was producing amongst the ruling classes a desire for a system of government more in harmony with the progressive spirit of the age. Up to 1893 the affairs of the country were administered by a Council of twenty ministers, acting under the direction of the king, who often presided at the Councils. In that year an important innovation was made by the creation of a new body styled a Legislative Council. The ministers were joined, as members of this authority, with a number of persons nominated by the king and six members of the royal family. Power was given to the Council to call in outsiders to give advice, and to bring the new system further into accord with European principles of government it was decreed that the meetings of the body should be held in public. It was a notable step forward on the path of reform that was thus taken. That the change was meant by the king to mark a departure from the old despotic system was shown soon after the appointment of the Council by the promulgation of a decree empowering the authority to introduce and discuss new laws and regulations, and to put the same into operation. This in itself is a very remarkable change and is a sign that Siam is moving in an entirely new path of progress. It serves perhaps more than any isolated act to accentuate the extent to which Siam in this period was dominated by the spirit of progress. In conjunction with the setting up of this quasi-constitutional system there was introduced an important scheme of reform of the police. Each province into which Siam was divided was allotted a Royal Commissioner with executive powers. These functionaries, who held office at the wish of the king, are not only responsible for the good government of the districts of which they have charge, but are intended as connecting links between the central and the outlying portions of the kingdom. Over the whole of the country these Commissioners,” says Mr. Ernest Young, in “The Kingdom of the Yellow Robe,” “was very much resented by some of the chiefs, especially by those who had previously reigned with the full title and dignity. Amongst these was the King of Luang Prabang. When the new Commissioner was thus appointed a very young man was sent to take over the government of this province. On nearing the scene of his new labours he sent word to the old chief to tell him of his arrival, and to demand a formal and elaborate reception to be made for him as a mark of respect to the sovereign whose orders he had come to execute. The old man went himself to meet the new arrival, indulging in a good deal of grumbling on the way, and wondering why there was any necessity to make such a fuss. When he found to what extent he was to be superseded in the government of his ancient domain his grief and anger knew no bounds, but as he was a man of the world he was expected to be content with grumbling and moaning. Once the Commissioner heard the deposed governor addressed by the people with the title of king. He at once forbade the repetition of the word, saying, ‘There is but one king in Siam.’ The old man smaried not a little under what he considered a new insult, but he restrained any outward expression of his feelings. Not long after this occurrence the Commissioner found that the chief had in his possession a state umbrella with the number of tiers used by royalty. He ordered two of these to be at once removed. This order was obeyed. The insulted chief got his revenge at last when the French took the province of Luang Prabang. M. Pavie, the French Commissioner, and formerly French minister at Bangkok, sent the Siamese representative about his business, and invited the old chief to an interview. When the chief arrived M. Pavie asked him if there was anything he wanted either for himself or his people. The old man related his loss of dignity and title, and begged that he might be allowed to repair his umbrella, and call himself king once more. ‘Certainly,’ said M. Pavie, with diplomatic consideration; ‘call yourself anything you like, and give me six francs, just as you please.’ The re-made king was delighted, and returned home exceedingly glad at heart.”

CHAPTER XI

French colonial expansion—Its effect on Siam—Capture of Luang Prabang by the Chine Navy—Proposals for a Franco-British understanding relative to Siam—Delimitation of the Burmese and Siamese frontiers—Mr. W. J. Archer’s report.

It was unfortunate for Siam that her noble advance along the paths of Western civilization was coincident with the occurrence of one of those fits of colonial expansion which up to a recent period seized the nations of Europe and more particularly the masses of Europe, and the time were “on the pounce,” to adopt a colloquialism applied to a famous statesman in another connection. Wherever there were unconsidered trifes of unappropriated territory there the diplomatic eye cast covetous glances. The French conquests in Tonkin, which culminated in 1885 in the occupation of an important section of the country, opened the attack in his well-known book, “L’Expansion Coloniaque de la France,” published in 1886. In this work the theory was boldly put forward that the mountainous and desert region lying between the basin of the Siamese basin and that of the Mekong ought to be under the control of France as the natural limit of her Indo-Chinese Empire on the side of Siam. “Having,” he said, “retaken the great Lao provinces, which formerly were dependent on Cambodia, and basins of the Mekong and the Se-moon, we ought to adhere to the policy of respecting and, if necessary, protecting the independence of Siam.” In writing thus M. de Lanessan did no more than crystallize the opinions of leading French Indo-Chinese officials. These functionaries wanted to round off their conquests in Tonkin, and it became a part of their deliberate policy to carry the frontier as far as possible in the
Siamese direction. One of the first moves in the game was to plant M. Pavie, an able official, as vice-consul at Luang Prabang. M. Pavie did not allow his great work to go under his feet by means of expeditions conducted in various directions. He vastly extended his knowledge of the country, accumulating information which was of immense value to his Government some years later when the relations between the French and the Siamese Governments became strained. M. Pavie’s residence at Luang Prabang continued until the middle of 1887, when it was rudely interrupted by the capture of the town from the Siamese by a body of tribesmen known as Chin Haws. These people had been greatly irritated by an act of Siamese aggression perpetrated upon them at Muang Lai, a place to the north-east of Luang Prabang, and they determined to wreak their revenge. Appearing off the town on June 7, 1887, they found there the old chief and the young Siamese Commissioner previously referred to, and M. Pavie, the French vice-consul. “M. Pavie urged upon the chief the desirability of preparing to resist the Chin Haws, but the Siamese Commissioner, being suspicious of M. Pavie, prevented the chief from taking the latter’s advice, and then, being himself panic-stricken, got into a boat and went down the river to Paklay, leaving the old chief to deal as he could with his unpleasant visitors. Some of the Chin Haws were then admitted to the city and had interviews with the chief. M. Pavie now got into his boats and went over to the other side of the river to avoid events. The Chin Haws, finding everyone in the city afraid of them, began to be insolent, and informed the chief that they had come to ransom some Muang Lai people whom the Siamese had carried off from Muang Teng during their expedition. They demanded to be lodged in the chief’s house, and this being refused them they pretended to inspect another place offered them, which they declared unsuitable, and they suddenly began a general attack on the people of Luang Prabang. They met with no serious resistance, and the chief, with difficulty, escaped in a boat sent to bring him across the river by M. Pavie. The chief and M. Pavie made the best of their way down-stream, pursued some distance by the Chin Haws.” Ultimately the two joined the Siamese Commissioner at Paklay. The Siamese Government, on receiving news of the occurrences at Luang Prabang, decided to send an expeditionary force from Bangkok against the Chin Haws. The French immediately took advantage of the opening which this enterprise offered to extend their influence in the debatable ground lying between Siam and their territory in Tonkin. They despatched two French officers with the Siamese force, and to give a colourable equality to the transaction allowed Siamese Commissioners to accompany the French forces, which at the time was moving on the outskirts of the disturbed area. No further incident of importance occurred until April 3, 1889, when the French ambassador called upon Lord Salisbury at the Foreign Office and made a proposal for the neutralisation of Siam. “(the French Government wished),” Lord Salisbury said in a despatch to Lord Lytton, the British ambassador at Paris, “to establish a strong independent kingdom of Siam with well-defined frontiers on both sides; and they desired to come to an arrangement by which a permanent barrier might be established between the possessions of Great Britain and France in the Indo-Chinese Peninsula. Such an arrangement would be advantageous to both countries, and would prevent the complications which otherwise might arise between them. It would be necessary, in the first instance, that the frontier between Cochin China and Siam should be fixed, and her Majesty’s Government would, no doubt, desire a settlement of the boundaries of Burmah. As regards the frontier of Cochin China, the French Government did not wish to extend it to Luang Prabang, but they would propose to draw a line from a point nearly due east of that place southwards to the Mekong, and below that point to make the river the dividing line between the two countries until it entered little-known country embraced within the Mekong basin. The production tended to remove misconceptions which had arisen in the public mind relative to the great value and productiveness of the districts traversed. It was shown pretty conclusively by Mr. Archer that the country was unhealthy and that the local opportunities for trade were few. The report, however, drew attention to the important position which this tract occupied in reference to the problem of through railway communication between Siam and China. “If,” Mr. Archer said, “Yunnan is to be reached by a railway from the south, it must in my opinion run up the valley of the Mekong from Chiengsen. Not only would this route offer no great engineering difficulties, but it would pass through a comparatively populous and fertile country. It is true I have not been up the right bank above Chienglap, but Mr. Garner’s party, who went the territory of Cambodia. They considered that both on the French and English side the boundaries of Siam should be defined up to the Chinese frontier.” Lord Salisbury was sympathetic towards the idea mooted, but cautiously declined to commit himself to fuller particulars as to the contemplated arrangements for frontier rectification between Cochin China and Siam. The matter was subsequently referred to the Indian Government for consideration, and their view was that a delimitation of the frontiers of Siam should precede an agreement between Great Britain and France for the neutralisation of that State. The task of delimiting the frontier between British Burma and Siam was undertaken in 1889 under the auspices of a joint British and Siamese Commission. An outcome of it was the publication of an interesting report by Mr. W. J. Archer, the head of the mission, relative to the then that way as far as Chieng Hung in the rainy season of 1897, found the route a comparatively easy one. West of this line is very broken country, and the general direction of the ridges and watercourses is west to east down to the Mekong. It is noteworthy that from Bangkok to Chieng Hung a line ascending the valleys of the Menam and the Meping to Raheng, thence the Mewang to Lakhon, thence to Chiengsen through Payao, and from Chiengsen up the main valley of the Mekong would meet with very few engineering difficulties, and only cross a low watershed and insignificant hills, while it would pass through perhaps the most promising country of Central Indo-China.” Mr. Archer, while holding these views, pointed out that the prospects of trade in Yunnan were poor, and that with the improvement in the Shan States the probability was that the little trade there would find its way to Burma.
Mr. Archer's report, apart from the light it cast on the political problem of the time—the adjustment of British, French, and Siamese rights on the debatable land in the basin of the Mekong—contained much information of interest concerning the people and their habits. Writing of the two great sections into which the population was divided, he said: "The Lao and the Laotians are so much alike that without the difference of dress it would be difficult to distinguish one from the other. The men among the Lao and the Laotians are both well groomed, small, and much fairer than their southern neighbours, with sometimes even pink cheeks. The characteristics of the people seem to me to be their extreme simplicity and good-nature, and I was much struck by the entire absence of presumption and self-importance which so often distinguish petty officials in Siam."

"Our rupees and two-anna bits were in great request, but the common currency are pieces of silver usually of the shape of a half-globe and of the diameter of a rupee. Out of this bits of the value of the article to be purchased are struck with a chisel on stones placed for this purpose in a basket in the middle of the market."

"The government of Luang Prabang, which appears to be entirely in the hands of the Siamese Commissioner, compares favourably with that of nearly any other part of Siam that I know... The real curse of the country appears to be the almost universal habit of opium-smoking amongst the Lao and Luang Prabang; boys learn its use from an early age and never seem to abandon it. The result is that the people of Luang Prabang are in point of physique a far inferior race to the Laot of Chinhgai or of Xan. The women, moreover, openly drink the native liquor, though not to an intoxicating extent. Withal, they are a remarkably light-hearted race, and Luang Prabang may well be described as the town of song and merriment. As soon as the sun sets music is heard everywhere, and the strains of the somewhat monotonous Lao organ are heard usually throughout the night. A curious custom also obtains for the female respectable members of the community to promenade the streets in the evenings singing in chorus. No men are allowed in these processions, which are never interfered with, strange to say. This and other customs prevail only in the town of Luang Prabang."

In November, 1890, M. Pavie visited Hanoï after completing a portion of his work on the frontier. During his sojourn in the city he had frequent interviews with the Siamese Minister for Foreign Affairs and endeavoured to extract from him trading privileges and immunities on behalf of the French Mekong Trading Corporation. He even suggested that they should be free trade between Siam and French Indo-China, the object aimed at doubtless being a French monopoly of trade in the northern districts of Siam. The Siamese Government emphatically declined to entertain the proposition. M. Pavie was told by the Siamese Foreign Minister that the revenues of the kingdom were too meagre to admit of their being further diminished by such a far-reaching arrangement as that contemplated. Furthermore, the minister said that Siam was itself contemplating the construction of a railway from Hanoï to Koral, to be afterwards continued to Nen Nhat on the Mekong, and he represented that it could not be reasonably expected that these extraordinary privileges would be granted to a foreign trading corporation which would be a formidable competitor for the traffic necessary for the successful working of the railway. The unyielding attitude assumed by the Siamese authorities in this matter was an argument of the French Government to further action in the disputed territory. In July, 1891, a French force occupied a position in the Mekong Prabang district. This advance was a manifest breach of the arrangement entered into with Siam, but it was justified on the ground of Siam's refusal to abet the policy of postulating bases in points far beyond the limits of territory previously occupied. Whatever may have been the truth as to this accusation, the French advance into Luang Prabang made it perfectly clear that the adjustment of the dispute would not be easily attained. In England a not unjust suspicion was excited by this new move, and there were calls on the Government to pursue a strong policy in upholding the territorial integrity of Siam. The French Government appears to have felt the desirability of coming to terms with Great Britain before they took any further step. On February 16, 1892, the French ambassador proposed to Lord Salisbury that in order to avoid differences between the two Powers they should mutually pledge themselves not to extend their influence beyond the Mekong. Neither Power, it was pointed out, had yet advanced to the bank of the river, and this engagement would prevent either Power suspecting the other of a desire to encroach upon what was essentially an Siamese territory. The proposal was referred by Lord Salisbury to the Government of India for their opinion, and this, when forthcoming, was entirely opposed to the concession of any arrangement of the kind contemplated. Later the French Government put forward a modified proposal limiting the understanding to the Upper Mekong and embodying a pledge by the French on the one side, that they would in no case extend their sphere of influence to the westward, and by the British, on the other, that they would not seek development to the south of it. The Indian Government liked this suggestion even less than the original one, and
A LAOSIAN BRIDE.
was becoming critical. A peremptory intimation was given by the French Government to the Siamese authorities that the boundary of Annam would be brought up to the eastern bank of the Mekong, and a demand was made for the withdrawal of the Siamese forces from the disputed territory. The Siamese protested against this assertion of territorial rights over an area which had hitherto been regarded as belonging to Siam, and insisted that any delimitation must be based upon actual possession. They suggested that the disputed points should be referred to arbitration. The French Government declined to entertain this idea, and replied to the Siamese protest by pushing their posts further into the debatable land. Positions were taken up at Srung-Treng and the island of Khone—both being posts of great strategical importance. The Siamese retired without firing a shot, but they made up for their inactivity on this occasion by an act of aggression which was to cost them dear.

A French convoy on its way to Khone was attacked by a body of Siamese soldiers and the officer in command, Captain Thoreux, was made prisoner and taken to Bassac. This incident tended very considerably to aggravate an already overcharged situation. Its immediate result was to induce the French Government to send into the disputed area and to conduct a more vigorous initiative all along the line. The Siamese were not at all intimidated by these measures. At the capital active steps were taken to prepare for the worst, and on the Annam border a Siamese attack was made on a body of French soldiers, which was supported by a sergeant and some seventeen soldiers were killed and all their property destroyed. In regard to the latter incident there was, it is true, at first a disavowal of responsibility on the part of the Siamese Government, but no one attached importance to this plea at the time, and it was eventually abandoned. It was day by day becoming clearer to every one at Bangkok that the war cloud was on the point of bursting.

Amongst the British commercial community the outlook was viewed with grave misgiving. British interests were enormously preponderant at Bangkok, and the chief force of any blow which might be delivered would necessarily fall upon British traders. Moreover, with a vast floating population, composed largely of low-class Chinese, there was serious danger of a rising in the event of an attack by the French. Urgent representations were made to Lord Rosebery by the Borneo Company and other great trading firms of the department, and the Government were requested to send warships to meet any eventuality that might arise. The ministry, responding, as they were bound to do, to this demand, issued the necessary orders to the naval authorities, and two small British warships soon dropped anchor at the mouth of the Menam. Their appearance on the scene excited not a little excitement in France, as the measure was accepted as a confirmation of the suspicions, held quite unjustly, that the British Government was backing the Siamese Government up in its resistance to French demands. The sentiments entertained by the French Government at the period are outlined in this despatch, dated July 3, 1893, from Lord Rosebery to Mr. Phipps, who was in charge of the British Embassy during Lord Dufferin's temporary absence:

"I received a visit to-day from the French Chargé d'Affaires, who called to furnish me with a spontaneous communication from M. Deloncle respecting the course of affairs in Siam. He said, with some strength of language, that for the last ten years France had been suffering a series of paltry wrongs and encroachments on the part of Siam, which she had hitherto been too much occupied with the difficulty of organizing her administration in Tonkin to resent. Of late, however, she had thought it necessary to do so, as well as to assert her right on the left bank of the Mekong. The Siamese had resisted these proceedings, had fired on the French troops, and had also captured a French officer, whom they had promised to deliver up, though they had not.

I asked if it were not the fact that Captain Thoreux was coming from the Mekong by land, and whether it did not take a long time to make the journey.

"M. d'Estournelles said that was the fact, and that this prolonged journey was a further aggravation. In yesterday's visit the Siamese had shown backwardness and tardiness in offering satisfaction for this outrage, and the French Government could wait no longer. He then went on to complain of the language of Sir E. Grey in the House of Commons, as tending to give an impression in Siam and in France that Great Britain was giving her support to the Siamese.

"This view I at once contested, stating that I did not think Sir E. Grey's words could be so interpreted. The despatch of British ships to Siam was rendered necessary by the fact that our merchants loudly demanded protection—not against France, but against a native rising which they feared was imminent. Complaints had been made; but I was too supine in the matter, and, if a rising had taken place, and British life and property were to be injured, I should be very seriously and justifiably attacked. I reminded M. d'Estournelles that the official map published in France showed that the places recently invaded by the French were in Siamese territory. But I had always sedulously kept aloof, and I authorised him to tell M. Deloncle that from the very inception of this business I had never seen the Siamese minister or any one connected with him. On the other hand, through Sir T. Sanderson, and through H.M.'s minister at Bangkok, I had inculcated the desirability of continuing to propose that peaceful and peaceful settlement with France, which should include all pending difficulties, and settle the frontier question on a permanent basis."

It is manifest from this despatch that French opinion at the time was very much excited against Siam, and that a strong disposition existed to push matters to extreme limits. The French Chargé d'Affaires was eloquent in his interview with Lord Rosebery about the "wrongs" inflicted by the Siamese; and no doubt there were some irritating incidents in the past relations of the French and the Siamese to exacerbate feeling in France. But
the real motive force at the back of the French claims was an earth hunger on the part of the forward school of French colonial politicians, who at that period, owing to various causes, had a predominant voice in the direction of the external policy of the Republic.

CHAPTER XIII

Growth of the war spirit in Siam—Arrival of French warships at the mouth of the Menam—They pass up to Bangkok under a fire from the Siamese forts—Constitution of Bangk—Despatch of an announcement to the Siamese Government—a blockade established—Negotiations between the British and the French Governments—A convention signed at Bangkok by the French and Siamese representatives—Franco-British agreement relative to the ‘anchor.

While the position of Siam in the face of the French demands was, as we have seen, engaging the serious attention of the British and French Foreign Offices, the war spirit in Siam was daily rising higher. The patriotic feeling was stirred to its depths by what was regarded as the unjust claims of France to territory which it was claimed had long been Siamese, and it was deemed a point of national honour to resist to the utmost these attempts at aggression. Critics of the Siamese Government censured it severely for this belligerent attitude, and no doubt its restlessness beyond a certain point was in the eyes of the world sheer folly; but it has always to be remembered that an Oriental Power has to consider seriously the effect that a tame surrender, even in the face of overwhelming odds, will have on its subjects. Moreover, it must not be overlooked that British intervention, however chimerical the idea may be, that have seemed in Whitehall, was regarded on the spot at the time, and not merely by the Siamese, as quite within the bounds of possibility. Whatever the truth may have been on this point, the Siamese Government had no doubt in its mind as to the necessity of preparing for the crisis which was obviously approaching. The defences at Paknam were overhauled, and the king himself spent some days there personally superintending the operations. Simultaneously measures were taken, not very successfully, as it turned out, to block the channel of the river. The preparations were barely completed ere the French cruiser Inconstant and the gunboat Comète appeared at the mouth of the Menam. An intimation of the fact of their arrival was given to the Siamese Government, with a notification that they would cross the bar on the evening of July 13th. To this announcement Prince Devawongse, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, replied (1) that the reasons advanced by France for sending warships were neither valid nor founded on facts; (2) that the Siamese Government objected to an interpretation of the treaty which would give any Power an absolute right to send into the territorial waters of Siam and to the capital of the kingdom as many war vessels as they should like. “The spirit of the Treaty cannot be,” it was added, “that Siam should be deprived of the natural right of any nation to protect itself, and the French Government will carefully consider all circumstances, we cannot, without abdicating our right to exist as an independent State, adopt such interpretation.” M. Pavie, the French representative at Bangkok, replied to this with a statement that he had not failed to inform his Government of the Siamese objections to the Inconstant’s entry into the river, and an intimation that he had equally made known that “I have insisted with your Highness that the Inconstant, while waiting a reply, anchors at Paknam conformably to the Treaty.” Prince Devawongse in turn wrote in answer to this: “I feel obliged to state without delay that my objections against the Inconstant passing the bar are of a general nature, and apply to its anchoring at Paknam as well as its going up to Bangkok. . . . Indeed, the reasonable interpretation which I think ought to be given to the Treaty, as not depriving Siam of the right of any State to watch over its own safety and independence, is applicable to any part of our territorial waters.” This firm attitude taken up by the Siamese authorities was proof against a strong verbal protest which M. Pavie made at an interview he had with Prince Devawongse on July 12th. After the meeting the Prince wrote to the French representative as follows: “Notwithstanding your insinuate in our interview to-day on having the Inconstant and the Comète admitted to anchor at Paknam, it is my duty to maintain my peremptory objections which I made in my preceding letter, against their entering the waters of the Menam, and to declare that under present circumstances the Government of his Majesty is unable to consent to the presence in this river of more than one warship of any State. All necessary instructions have been given to our naval and military authorities.”

Obviously the position was now such that unless one party receded hostilities were inevitable. At Paris the news of the uncompromising character of the Siamese opposition had made an impression—the greater, no doubt, because opinion in Great Britain at the time was greatly excited at the course of events in Siam, and strong pressure was being brought to bear by Lord Rosebery upon the French Government to take no action which would precipitate hostilities. Orders were sent out to the admiral in command of the French Indo-Chinese squadron to issue instructions that the French ships should remain outside the bar. Unfortunately the instructions did not reach the Menam in time to prevent the step which was fraught with so much danger to peace. On the evening of July 13th the two French warships steamed up Menam, and the Inconstant, with the master of a small French coastering ship, the T. B. Say, acting as pilot, proceeded up the river. What farther happened is narrated by Captain Jones in a despatch to Lord Rosebery of the date July 17, 1893:

“It was now approaching dusk, the tide was rapidly rising, and some trading-vessels were passing through the channel to the south. As soon as they had cleared it the commander of the Inconstant gave the signal to enter, the T. B. Say (which had already provided itself with a local pilot leading the way) a heavy thunder-cloud, with torrential rain, helped to conceal the vessels from the batteries, and as soon as they were abreast of the outer fort the Inconstant steamed ahead, going on the flood tide at the rate of twelve knots, and exchanged shots with the forts and Siamese ships which had begun to take part in the engagement. The firing on both sides seems to have been of the wildest, as comparatively few casualties happened to ships or men. The French have lost three men killed and the same number wounded; the Siamese return fifteen killed (solely by the machine-guns in the tops) and about twenty wounded. The T. B. Say was struck by a shot after leaving the channel, and foundered shortly after. The ships were under fire altogether about twenty-five minutes.

“The intelligence that the French ships had succeeded in forcing their way had scarcely reached Bangkok before the vessels themselves arrived and anchored near to the French Legation. The Siamese fleet followed closely after, intending to bring them to action in the river, but fortunately orders arrived from the King to abstain from attack, and the night passed by both parties in making preparations for the morrow.

“As those charged with the defence of the river had consistently assured the King that the passage of the bar had been rendered absolutely impracticable by the measures taken—sinking of ships, torpedoes, &c.—the news of the French success fell on the Court like a thunderclap, as no preparations had been made in case of insuccess, but everything was at once done by the King’s command to secure and maintain order, and although great excitement and alarm prevailed among the European merchants—caused chiefly by the movements round and the distant sounds of the French ships during the night—yet nothing happened to provoke riot or revolution, and tranquillity has continued until the present time.

“All danger was to be feared from the King putting into execution his original resolution of abandoning his capital and retreating into the interior, taking with him his troops, Court, and chief functionaries, under which circumstances anarchy would follow at once, and the whole city be abandoned to the criminal classes and their work of fire and plunder.

“Happily, also, nothing has occurred from stoppage of trade, &c. to force the principal traders to close their rice or tea mills up to the present time, which would have thrown out of work many thousands of Chinese coolies, the most turbulent and reckless class of the population.

“The arrival of her Majesty’s ship Lutet early on the 14th inst. tended most materially to reassure those who feared immediate riot and destruction. The presence of a Dutch gunboat also went far to restore confidence.

“Many causes have been assigned by the chief actors themselves to explain away their failure in preventing the French vessels pass-
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

The officer in charge of the defence wished to close the channel effectually and altogether on the morning of the 13th, but in view of the generally favourable and reassuring political prospects at that moment, and the expected arrival of the Austrian Crown Prince, his advice was overruled in the King's Council.

Having made good their entrance to the river, the French were content to rest on their laurels for a few days and await events. As, however, it soon became evident that their successful coup had brought them no nearer a solution of the difficulty, the French Government, on July 20, sent through M. Pavie the following ultimatum to the Siamese authorities:

1. Recognition of the rights of Cambodia and Annam to left bank of river Mekong and the Islands.

2. The Siamese shall evacuate, within one month's time, any posts which are there held by them.

3. Satisfactory for the various acts of aggression against French ships and sailors in the river Menam and against French subjects in Siam.

4. Pecuniary indemnities to the families of the victims and punishment of the culprits.

5. For various damages inflicted on French subjects and property, to the sum of 3,000,000 fr. in dollars shall be at once deposited, or, in default, the farming of the taxes of Siemrep and Battambang shall be assigned to the French.

6. As a guarantee for the claims under clauses 4 and 5 the sum of 3,000,000 fr. in dollars shall be at once deposited, or, in default, the farming of the taxes of Siemrep and Battambang shall be assigned to the French.

In the event of the non-acceptance of these terms the French Minister will leave Bangkok and the blockade of the coast will at once take place.

The Siamese Minister for Foreign Affairs, in view of the French demands for immediate surrender of the country to the east of Mekong, calls the attention of Her Majesty's Government to conditions on which Kiang Chiang was transferred to Siam.

The following reply was returned by Siam to the French ultimatum:

1. The King of Siam declares that no explicit definition has as yet ever been made to the Siamese Government as to what constitutes the rights of Cambodia and Annam on the Mekong. But as H.M. is anxious at once to secure peace and security for his people, he agrees to cede to France the country lying to the south of the 18th parallel of latitude and to the east of the Mekong.

2. The withdrawal of all Siamese posts within the above-mentioned territory to take place forthwith.

3. The loss of life which has occurred in the recent actions between the French and the Siamese forces is regretted by the King, and the satisfaction required by France will be given in accordance with ordinary justice and the independence of Siam, which the French Government affect to respect.

4. Those found guilty of illegal aggression will receive condign punishment, and the sufferers will receive due reparation.

5. The King agrees to pay the indemnity demanded on account of the claims advanced by French subjects, although the justice of many of them has been denied by the Siamese H.M., however, suggests that a joint commission should first investigate these claims.

6. The sum of 3,000,000 fr. required as guarantee will be deposited, concurrently with the exchange of notes between the representatives of France and Siam. After the equitable demands, the interpreters of the French King trusts that French justice will restore to Siam any sum which may remain over.

This compliance with the demands of France will, the King trusts, be looked upon as a proof of his sincere desire to live with the French Republic on terms of friendship.

This, however, though it conceded almost everything, did not satisfy the French. M. Pavie sent in reply a letter in which he announced that in conformity with instructions from his Government he was transferring the protection of French nationals and protected persons to the Netherlands Consul-General, and that on July 26th he intended to embark on the French circle, Acting up to this declaration, M. Pavie left Bangkok and settled at the island of Koh-si-chang. On July 28th Admiral Humann, who had just arrived with some ships of the French squadron from Saigon, issued a notice that a strict blockade would commence on July 29. The proclamation excited the greatest consternation in British circles, and the wires were set in motion to avert what was feared would prove a disastrous blow to trade. The representative mercantile bodies at home took up the question in earnest. In forcible language the Leeds Chamber of Commerce represented to the Government the great concern they, on behalf of the circle, had that Siam—action which they regarded as "threatening both the independence and the stability of a friendly and unaggressive neighbour and the large trading interests in this country." Other not less urgent representations were made by other bodies. The blockade continued with some exciting incidents until August 3rd, when, much to the relief of everybody, it was raised and diplomatic relations were restored between Siam and France. The event which had brought about this much to be desired change from the atmosphere of war to peace was the conclusion of an agreement between the British and the French Governments to make the following representations of diplomatic arrangement between themselves.

The negotiations were commenced at Paris at the end of July, when Lord Dufferin, the British ambassador, had an interview with M. Develle, the French Foreign Minister. Narrating the circumstances of this interview, Lord Dufferin, writing on July 23, says:

"After a preliminary conversation, I informed M. Develle that I had been sent with instructions to enter upon a friendly interchange of ideas with him in reference to the Siamese question, and more especially with regard to the interpretation which the French Government intended to place upon the first article of their ultimatum, namely, the demand that Siam should recognise 'the left bank of the Mekong' as the western boundary of the French possessions in Indo-China. I then communicated to his Excellency in very exact and carefully措语 the entire substance of your Lordship's instructions to me as contained in your despatch of July 26th, and I insisted at some length on the various considerations which had induced your Lordship to suppose that in using the term 'the left bank of the Mekong' his Excellency could not have intended to claim for France the immense tracts of Siamese territory lying north and west of the river. Your Lordship's instructions as to the other French possessions, on the other hand, had been adopted, and I asked for an explanation how these were to be understood in light of this omission. I then proceeded to map which I had brought with me, and, pointing out the way in which the Mekong makes a sudden bend just above the 18th parallel of latitude to the southward and westward and the subsequent bend in the same direction at the 20th parallel, I asked M. Develle to examine whether the extensive territories at these points between the Mekong and the actual French boundary depicted upon the existing French maps, comprising the Principality of Luang Prabang and other districts, were also claimed by France as lying on 'the left bank of the Mekong.' M. Develle said that they were intended to be included under the definition, and that France claimed a right to Luang Prabang and the adjacent countries as being ancient and historic dependencies of Annam; and that, furthermore, she had always insisted that her territorial sovereignty extended all along the left bank of the Mekong. I ventured to express my extreme surprise at this latter statement, and I called M. Develle's attention to the fact that on several occasions M. Waddington, in his communications with the Marquis of Salisbury, had in the most explicit terms repudiated any such pretensions on behalf of his Government. . . .

I further remarked that even if France has formally advanced the claim as M. Develle has supposed, which certainly she had not done through any authoritative channel, a claim by no means proved a right, and that many claims advanced both by nations and by individuals had been found on examination to be unsubstantial and unjust.

I then recur to the proposed absorption by France of Luang Prabang and the adjacent districts, an area comprising nearly 100,000 square miles, which had been universally recognised for years past as integral parts of the Siamese kingdom, and I recalled M. Develle's attention to that part of your Lordship's instructions in which you desire
A SIAMESE GIRL.
me to insist on the incompatibility of the conquest by France of so considerable a proportion of the kingdom of Siam with M. Develle's and the French Government's previous assurances that they had no intention to allow their dispute with Siam on the Lower Mekong to entail any measures which would jeopardise her integrity or her independence. How could these professions, I asked, which I knew had been made in perfect sincerity, be reconciled with the slicing off of what amounted to nearly a third of her?

M. Develle listened to me with his usual courtesy and attention, and it was impossible not to feel that he was giving a very anxious consideration to my arguments. He seemed particularly struck with what I told him about M. Waddington's communications to Lord Salisbury on the subject.

"I then proceeded to touch upon another aspect of the question. I said that our two Governments were pretty well agreed upon one very important point, namely, that it was desirable that France and England should not become liminal in Asia, and that Siam as an independent State should be left as a buffer between these two Powers. I pointed out that were France to take possession of the left bank of the Upper Mekong, it would bring her into direct contiguity with Burmah, in consequence of the two rapid bends which the northern Mekong takes to the westward, and that the approach of a great military Power like France to a frontier at present lying within the lands of a Power on which she could not be relied upon to attack could not be regarded by us with indifference, even if the previous considerations I had submitted to him were for the moment to be left out of account. And in this connection I called M. Develle's attention to the fact that in our recent cession to Siam of a Shan State which has hitherto been subject to Burmah, we had expressly stipulated that it should never be allowed to pass under the jurisdiction of another Power, and that, consequently, we ourselves possessed a rever- sionary interest in this portion of Siamese territory which was situated on the left bank of the Mekong."

"Although there were some further considerations which it may be desirable to submit to M. Develle, I thought that I had said enough for the present, and I therefore concluded by impressing upon him in as earnest terms as I could command the extreme gravity which the situation might assume were the French demands to be pressed upon Siam beyond what was just and reasonable and in conformity with the legitimate interests of other Powers. Was it worth while, I asked, for the sake of a violent acquisition of territory to which France herself must know she had no legal right, to risk such grave complications as must inevitably arise were the claim to the left bank of the Mekong to be pressed and unreservedly pressed? But I said that, if I rightly understood the terms of the first article of the ultimatum as verbally communicated to Mr. Phipps (for we had never received a copy of it), it had itself contained some sort of qualification in a geographical reference to Cambodia and Annam. In any event M. Develle could not have failed to understand that, although at the outset of the dispute the English Government had considered the misunderstanding between France and her Siamese neighbour in regard to obscure questions of delimitation on the Lower Mekong as beyond their purview, the situation was entirely changed when the expanding claims of the French Government jeopardised the integrity of the entire kingdom of Siam, brought France nearly half-way down to Bangkok and into actual juxtaposition with ourselves and Burmah. Such a transformation of the French protest could not but excite alarm in England and the most serious apprehensions in the mind of her Majesty's Government."

"After again listening with the most courteous attention to this further exposition of our views, M. Develle observed that the terms of the first article of his ultimatum having been published to the world, and all France being acquainted with them, he could not now alter them, especially under manifest pressure from us. Public opinion in France was equally excited. The Siamese had been guilty of various outrages and had committed considerable wrongs on French subjects. They had repeatedly been warned to desist, and we were not surprised at France pursuing a line of conduct which England herself would have adopted in similar circumstances. But he himself was quite ready to recognise the force of my observations in regard to the necessity of leaving a 'buffer' between the Asis and Englab of the Upper Mekong, and thus leave a door open for future negotiations. I thought it prudent to ask H.E. to give me an assurance that an acceptance on the part of the Siamese of the first article of the ultimatum should not militate against a settlement of this part of the question in the sense desired by us. He was good enough formally to promise that it should not, inasmuch as it referred to a different order of ideas and was a matter of joint interest to Great Britain and to France. In any event, he added, he must consult his experts. This observation filled me, I confess, with considerable misgivings. Of course, I could raise no objection to such a course, and I was perfectly satisfied that it was possible I ventured to observe that subordinates in a public office were often fanatically anxious about special points and were prone to sacrifice the larger interests of their country in pursuit of their own narrow preoccupations, and that it was his Excellency who was responsible for the peace of Europe and the world, about which these experts generally cared but little."

Lord Dufferin a day or two later had a second interview with M. Develle, when the discussion on the question of a territorial arrangement was renewed. In a despatch of the date July 26th the British ambassador recounts the results of this further exchange of views.

"We proceeded to renew our discussion on the main question, during the course of which we went over a good deal of the ground which we had covered at our interview on Saturday, M. Develle still maintaining his two previous theses: first, that Luang Prabang was an actual dependency of Annam, and, secondly, that France ab artque had vindicated her right to the left bank of the Mekong. Upon my part I urged that to adduce Annam's historical claim to Luang Prabang was a dangerous line of argument, for we might on almost equally tangible grounds demand the retrocession of Normandy, Gascony, and Guienne. M. Develle knew as well as I did that in every French Annam, in every French map, in every French geographical gazetteer Luang Prabang, until a year ago, had been described as an integral part of Siam. It was true that within the last twelve months a mysterious revolution had occurred in the French territorial and geographical authorities, but as an honest man he must he convinced, as I was, that the district in question was and had been for nearly a century bona fide Siamese territory, and that it could not be confiscated by France without a flagrant infringement of the formal assurances he had given us not to impair the integrity of Siam. As for the pretension advanced by France ab artque to the left bank of the Mekong, such a supposition was not only contradicted by M. Waddington's express declarations on the subject, but by the further fact that under the Franco-Siamese Convention of 1886 the French had claimed the right of sending a mission of inspection to this left bank of the Mekong, and this itself was an absolute proof that the locality belonged to Siam. M. Develle objected that the Convention in question had been refused ratification by the French Chambers. That, I said, did not in any degree affect my contention. The draft Convention distinctly showed in its preamble that the terms of the Convention were at that time regarded by the French Government."

"M. Develle then proceeded to reinforce his previous arguments by various other considerations—amongst them that the tribes on the western borders of Tonquin had been lately giving a good deal of trouble, and that it was necessary therefore that they should be sub- jected to French authority, and he endeavoured to minimise the character of the contemplated annexation."

"At this point M. Develle put up the shutters on this compartment by saying that the ultimatum having once been published to France and to Siam, it was impossible for the Government of Siam to evade the voice of public opinion, to withdraw or modify it."

"After expressing my great regret at so unaccountable an intention in regard to the ultimatum, which I could not help thinking had been launched somewhat 'à la légère,' I suggested to M. Develle that we should proceed to a discussion of the further aspect of the question, namely, as it affected English interests apart from those of Siam, and I again reminded him that it was quite out of the question that we should accept an arrangement which made France conterminous with our Indian Empire. France herself had always advocated the policy of introducing an independ- ence for Siam as a 'buffer' between the two countries, and it was evident that it was for the advantage of both France and England that a neutral territory should intervene between them. To this M. Develle cordially assented. He said that he fully recognised our right to intervene in the Franco-Siamese question on these grounds, and he expressed the desire to consult our wishes and interests in the matter, whether as regarded our predilection
A LAOSIAN TRIBESMAN.
in favour of the ‘buffer’ principle or our desire for facilities for trade with China in that neighbourhood. I then asked whether he had in his own mind considered the width of the area which should be left between our respective frontiers, and as we went over the map together I pointed out the Nannu, which flows into the Mekong a little to the west of Luang Prabang, as affording a suitable line of demarcation. He was driven to consider the matter further on the basis and our views in regard to Luang Prabang were to be ignored. His Excellency did not seem to be averse to this suggestion, though he subsequently said he would prefer to substitute its western watershed for the river itself, on the understanding that a parallel line should demarcate the Burmese frontier between the Salween and the Mekong. On this I told him that, to the best of my belief, such a line already existed. In right of Burma the jurisdiction of England had been extended over the Shan province of Kyaiang Chiang, which lay on both sides of the Mekong, but with the view of conñitting French susceptibilities, and in order to avoid the appearance of advancing too far eastwards, we ourselves had already re-enforced the ‘buffer’ principle by handing this province over to Siam, and retiring to a considerable distance westwards from the Mekong.

To facilitate matters the British Government sent to Captain Jones instructions to recommend to the Siamese authorities to make an arrangement with the French for mediate and unconditional compliance with the French demands. The advice thus given was taken, with the consequence that the blockade was raised, as already related, and the way paved for an amicable discussion of the territorial question. The arrival at Bangkok some days later of M. le Myre de Velers as a special Minister Plenipotentiary indicated the importance which the French Government attached to the negotiations. M. le Myre de Velers was a former Governor-General of Indo-China, and a man of much experience in the ways of Oriental diplomacy. He had not been long in the Siamese capital before he formed upon the French authorities to make the most of the situation. The question of a cemetery was not to be an easy one. The Siamese Government was sore under the series of humiliations which had been inflicted upon it, the last and not the least of which was the forced acceptance by it of a series of conditions embracing the occupation by French troops of the river and port of Chantabun and a prohibition against the stationing of Siamese troops anywhere within twenty-five kilometres of the Mekong river. The king, under the depression of the situation, had retired to his Summer Palace, a considerable distance from the capital, and was disinclined to receive any representations from the French plenipotentiary. M. de Velers, however, insisted on a full measure of respect being shown him, and eventually an arrangement was made by which he was received at the palace at Bangkok on the same day that a court function was held which necessitated the king’s presence there. Meanwhile, negotiations had been entered upon, on the Siamese side, in a half-hearted, dilatory fashion. The king retired once more to his Summer Palace, and his ministers found it practically impossible to induce him to give his attention to the pressing question of the moment. M. de Velers’ eager spirit chafed under the delay. At length, after repeated and effectual protests, he on September 27th formally handed to Prince Derawongse a convention drawn up by the French Foreign Minister in Paris, with an infinitum that he would leave Siam in four days whether the conditions set forth in the document were accepted or not. This had the effect of clearing the air, and on the 29th the conditions were accepted by the Siamese Government unconditionally, and on October 3rd the treaty and convention were duly signed.

While the pressing dangers of the situation had been removed by this surrender on the part of the Siamese Government, there yet remained the question of the arrangement of the frontier and the determination of the limits of the British and French spheres of influence in the watershed of the Mekong. In the long and important despatch of Lord Dufferin of July 23rd quoted above it is shown that at that time the British and French Governments were disposed to accept the principle of a buffer Siamese state between British Burma and French Indo-China. The somewhat stormy controversy which arose out of the enforcement by the French of a blockade of the Menam river thrust the frontier question for a time into the background, and it was not until the storm clouds which seemed to threaten a rupture between Great Britain and France had cleared away that the threads of the negotiations were once more seriously taken up. An agreement was now reached without much difficulty. On September 2nd Lord Rosebery was able to write in the following satisfactory terms to Lord Dufferin:

"The difference between France and Siam, which at one time assumed so threatening an aspect, has happily been brought to a peaceful settlement. It was one in the later and more serious phases of which Great Britain could not be otherwise than greatly concerned, on account of her preponderant commercial interest in the Menam region, and in view of her relations with that kingdom, her desire to preserve its independence, and in view of the expediency, in the interests both of France and Great Britain, of maintaining a neutral territory between the British and French possessions in that region."

The French Government have shown themselves equally alive to the importance of this last consideration, and your Excellency has been able to come to an agreement with the French Minister for Foreign Affairs as to the general principle of an arrangement for securing the object in view; and I do not doubt that when your Excellency's despatches are opened at Paris you will find M. Derawongse ready to negotiate with you the details of that arrangement."

The agreement to which Lord Rosebery referred in his despatch settled merely the principle of the establishment of a buffer State, and the exact boundaries had still to be fixed. For this purpose a joint commission was appointed by the Governments concerned. There was considerable delay in the taking of the preliminary measures, and it was not until December, 1894, that the commissioners got to work. Many months passed before they had fully completed their labours. Finally, on January 15, 1896, an understanding was reached at a conference between the two Powers which formed the basis of a treaty under which the two Powers agreed to the special treatment of that portion of Siam which is comprised within the drainage basin of the Menam and of the coast streams of a corresponding latitude. Within this area the two Powers undertook that they would not operate their military or naval forces, except so far as they might do it in concert for any purpose which might be required for maintaining the independence of Siam. They also undertook not to acquire within that area any privileges or commercial facilities which were not extended to both of them.

Lord Salisbury (who had by this time once more taken charge of foreign affairs), in a despatch of January 15, 1896, thus summarised the points of the agreement: "It might be thought that because we have engaged ourselves, and have received the engagement of France, not under any circumstances to invade this territory, that therefore we are throwing double protection to the commercial rights of Siam to the remainder of their kingdom, or, at all events, treating those rights with disregard. Any such interpretation would entirely misrepresent the intention with which this agreement has been signed. We fully recognise the rights of Siam to the full and complete exercise of all such privileges as have grown up by long usage or with existing treaties, of the entire territory comprised within her dominions; and nothing in our present action would detract in any degree from the validity of the rights of the King of Siam to those portions of his territory which are not affected by this treaty. We have selected a particular area for the stipulations of this treaty, not because the title of the King of Siam is less valid, but because it is the area which affects our interests as a commercial nation. The valley of the Menam is eminently fitted to receive a high industrial development. Possibly in course of time it may be the site of a commercial treaty with Siam, but we do not believe that any such steps as the two Powers have taken can affect the general rights of Siam while her independence is maintained."

The treaty was reserved as to its future operation, and the future relations of the two Powers as to their boundary, with France, and in relation to the Barbary States. It was agreed that the treaties, the rights, and the advantages which the Siam, under the treaties with the French and with the British, had obtained, should remain intact. The treaty was signed, dated, and written in French and English. The French Government was to have the use of the whole of the Menam river and of the Mekong and its principal tributaries as a boundary river, as well as the use of the Menam river from the Burmese frontier to the mouth of the river, and of the Mekong from the Menam river to the Moulmein Province.
an advantage in giving some security to the commercial world that in regard to the region where the British and Siamese Governments are striving to take place no further disturbances of territorial ownership are to be apprehended. Her Majesty's Government hope that the signature of this agreement will tend to foster the industrial growth of all these extensive districts; and they have been sufficiently impressed with this belief to be willing to allow it by admitting the French claims to the ownership of the Mong Hong district of Keng Cheng, a triangular portion of territory on the eastern side of the Upper Mekong. Its extent and intrinsic value are not large, and, on account of its unhealthy character, it has no great attractions for Great Britain, though her title to it as formerly tributary to Burmah appears to us evidently sound; but its retention by her might prove a serious embarrassment to the cheap and effective administration by France of her possessions in that neighboring land.

Lord Salisbury's views as to the satisfactory character of the settlement were supported by the Government of India. In a despatch of May 6, 1896, referring to the cession of Mong Hong to Siam in 1893 and the division of the new State in 1894, and though we were reluctantly compelled to accept it in 1895, we have all along recognised that this small excess on the other side of the Mekong could be of no advantage or profit to us.

"... We accept the settlement now made with France as advantages to the interests of Burma and the Shan States, and the limitation of our frontiers to the Mekong as making for economy and efficiency in the civil and political administration of the border. Under some circumstances a possible loss of prestige amongst the Shan chiefs might have been involved in the renouncing of territory formerly belonging to Burma, and so recently claimed as part of the dominions of the Queen Empress. This, however, had been discounted by the previously announced cession of Keng Cheng to Siam and the consequent doubt and uncertainty as to the future of the river. Moreover, we have now a convenient opportunity of compensating the Keng Tung State, which will gain in Cis-Mekong, Keng Cheng, and Keng Lap territory exceeding in area and value both the Tram-Mekong tracts which it now loses and also those which passed to Siam under the frontier settlement of 1894.

Thus the crisis—the greatest in modern Siamese history—passed. Siam emerged from it with greatly diminished territory, a depleted treasury, and damaged prestige. But, severe as was her trial, it is at least a debatable point whether in the long run she will not gain more than she has lost by the transaction. The disputed territory which she had to surrender was valuable more from its future possibilities than its present worth. Siamese rule over the greater part of it was very shadowy, and it brought little or nothing to her exchequer. As a set-off to it, she had the guarantee of the integrity of the acknowledged territory of Siam under an instrument to which the two greatest European colonising Powers had set their seal. Such an arrangement was calculated to have a

transquilising effect on the political relations of Siam, and at the same time a stimulating influence on her material interests. That has been the actual result. From the moment that the Siamese Government reluctantly agreed to the convention with France the country entered upon a new and prosperous era. Trade expanded, the revenue prospered, and the name and fame of Siam abroad extended.

CHAPTER XIV

Commercial Progress—Rice cultivation—Railway construction—Proposed Anglo-Siamese Agreement—Description of Kualanum—The political history of Trengannu—Conclusion.

In recent years Siam has rejoiced in the happiness which provably attaches to the country which has no history—no slavery, no history. Her record has been one of uninterrupted commercial prosperity and peaceful and progressive development. With her independence guaranteed by the Franco-British agreement, her rulers have been able to devote their energies to the consolidation of the nation's influence within the limits assigned by that instrument, and foreign capital has found in the country a safe and increasingly lucrative sphere for investment. The beneficial effects of the new régime are clearly revealed in the growing trade of the country. The following table shows the position as disclosed in the most recent official reports.

Imports and Exports.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th>Exports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>£7,927,046</td>
<td>£7,431,237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>£9,014,141</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>£9,982,733</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>£11,948,090</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are remarkable figures, and tell a story of stable trade and increasing prosperity such as few of the smaller Asiatic countries can show. One factor which has contributed very largely to the growth of commerce is the immense development of rice cultivation which has taken place in recent years under the fostering care of the Government. In 1904 the total value of the cereal exported considerably exceeded the value of the entire trade of the country ten years earlier. In 1906 rice accounted for 78 per cent. of the total exports. Thus it may be said to have attained to a predominant position amongst the industries of Siam. But great as has been the progress made in the past, it is small by comparison with what may be accomplished in the future with the extension of cultivation and the adoption of modern agricultural appliances. An official writer, whose report 1 was published in 1901, writing of the utilisation of the rich waste lands of Siam, says—

"There are thousands of miles of such waste lands still uncultivated, and it would seem that there is nothing to which the Government of

1 "Trade and Shipping of South-East Asia."

the country could with more advantage turn its immediate attention, in view of the small amount of capital required, the revenues that must accrue to the treasury, the splendid values that will be added to the country in its increased productive area, and the abundant employment afforded a people who are to-day in need of such encouragement."

The opening up of these rich rice-fields is giving a new aspect to the question of agriculture in this country. Besides the thousands who are taking up small holdings, there are also those who are buying large estates to await an increase in values and for the cultivation of rice on an extensive scale. Already the question of better methods and tools for the cultivation of the land is of importance.

"The crude wheels run by the human foot, the wooden plough with its iron shoe, the wooden-toothed buffalo rake used for a harrow, the ploughing of the seed by hand, the threshing of the grain by hand, the winnowing of grain by the shovel and the wind must soon give way to the windmill pump, the steel plough, the improved harrow, the seed drill, and the thrashing machine. Nothing has been done in these directions, for instruments adapted to the peculiar demands of the soil have not yet been invented. Some enterprising inventor should certainly be able to make agricultural implements suitable for this country and reap substantial financial benefits therefrom."

Generally speaking, it may be said that Siam is still, from the commercial point of view, largely in the making. Railways are needed to develop her magnificent resources and bring the remote districts of the interior into touch with the capital, and through that avenue with the markets of the world. Happily the Government is sufficiently enterprise, to recognise this necessity and to attempt to supply it. An important scheme of trunk communication to the eastwards is in active progress and the first section of the line to Chatanab was opened to traffic by the King of Siam on January 24, 1908. Simultaneously an additional stretch of the existing line, 138 miles, was formally declared available for public use by his Majesty. These projects, important in themselves, are of special significance as links in a great chain of railway communication which some day, probably not very distant, will bring Siam into intimate touch with the Indian railway system in Burma on the one side and the British Malay system on the other. The effect of such a junction of railway interests must be to add enormously to the commercial importance of the country by the development of its latent agricultural and mineral resources. Meanwhile, the lines will serve as civilising agencies and play a not inconspicuous part in the administrative regeneration of the country, which is greatly needed in spite of the notable advance that has been made in the arts of government in the reign of the present monarch.

As indirectly, if not directly, out of the question of railway communication in Siam, has there been mooted the desirability of the inclusion of a new agreement between the British and the Siamese Governments relative to
the territory bordering on the Federated Malay States on the eastern side of the peninsula. The negotiations at the time of writing are still in progress, but the main outlines of the proposed arrangement are generally known, and they will probably remain unaffected by the exchange of views that is passing between the two Governments. Briefly, the idea seems to be that Siam should cede to Great Britain her rights in the native States of Kelantan and Trengganu and facilitate the establishment of through railway communication between Burma and the Malay Peninsula; while Great Britain on her part should consent to an important modification of the principle of extraterritoriality under which her subjects are exempt from the operation of Siamese law. The statement that the status of British subjects in Siam was to be changed excited not a little apprehension amongst the British community and Sir Edward Grey, Foreign Secretary, announced in the House of Commons on May 5, 1908, that provisions to safeguard the interests of British residents formed a part of the proposals under consideration.

Assuming, as we may probably quite safely do, that the agreement is ratified in its main essentials, the result will be an important extension of British influence in the Malay Peninsula. Sir Frank Swettenham, in his well-known work on British Malaya, gives a description of Kelantan, which may appropriately be quoted here as it furnishes in picturesque form a sketch of the leading features of territory destined to figure very prominently in the future development of the Malay Peninsula:

"Kelantan is a sunny country on the east coast of the Malay Peninsula, six degrees north of the Equator. It is drained by a considerable river, shallow throughout its length, with a delta and several mouths, whose position is constantly changed by the rush of the China Sea battling for six months of the year against the oncoming water and a sandy shore. Twelve miles up the river, on its right bank, is a considerable Malay town, with over ten thousand inhabitants, ruled by a Malay sultan and his various chiefs, all of whom are settled in houses of some pretension in and about Kota Bharu. The people of this place have certain peculiar customs, of which it may be mentioned that, though they are Mohamedans, the women move about as freely as the men. They mind the shops and deal with customers; they wear the silk sarongs for which Kelantan is famous, and they do as much carrying and marketing, gossiping and field work as their fathers, husbands, brothers, and lovers. That is one striking peculiarity of the place, and another is that Kota Bharu is given up to various forms of relaxation in a way unknown in any other State in the Malay Peninsula. There is the season for bull-fights and the season for ram-fights, the boat-racing season, the cock-fighting

at Bangkok, and some vigorous protests were sent home against any tampering with the rights they enjoyed under successive treaties of being amenable only to British law. The representations were not without their effect, season, and the season when every one who is any one goes down to the mouth of the river, camps on the great stretches of sand which divide the fresh waters of the river from the salt waters of the sea, and there they disport
A MEMBER OF THE ROYAL FAMILY DRESSED FOR THE HAIR-CUTTING CEREMONY.
themselves after their own fashion. The occas-
ion of this festival for sea-bathing, boat-sailing,
fish-catching, and general jumeting is the
climb of the north-east monsoon, when the
China Sea ceases to lash itself furiously against
the east coast; when its mighty roar dwindles
down to the cooing of the tiny silver-crested
waves, and the people of the land feel that they
are no longer prisoners, and can set their red
and white and orange and chocolate-coloured
sails and skim out over the glistening waters to
wooded islands and deep-sea fishing-grounds.
There are few more fascinating pictures than
the Kelantan fishing fleet, in all the glory of
strange hulls, mat and cloth sails of every hue
and quaint design, standing out to sea from the
river mouth at daybreak; the sun, just rising
above the horizon and throwing shafts of light
through the lifting mist across the silver grey
of the waveless sea; the boats, several hundreds
in number, gliding in a fairy-like procession
from closest foreground to the utmost limit of
vision. They make a marvellous study in colour
and perspective, and parallel with the line of
their noiseless progress lies the shore—a long
white line of grey-green wood and yellow sand,
divided from the sea by a narrow ribbon of
white water.

"That is Kelantan from the sea. Twelve
miles of clear, island-studded river, winding
between rice-fields and palm-groves, form the
highway from the river mouth to the capital.
The Sultan's astana, or palace, which, with its
dependencies, surrounds on three sides a court
of sand, is closed on the fourth by a wooden
diapause with one great central gate flanked by
smaller gates on either side. A second and
similar set of gates forms a further enclosure,
about a hundred yards nearer the river. From
these outer portals to the river stretches a long
straight road, and on occasions of great cere-
mony the visitors whom the Sultan delights to
honour will find this road lined, on both sides
throughout its entire length, by spearmen, while
the principal chiefs and a great posse of retainers
escort the guests from the landing-stage to the
hall of audience, where the Sultan receives
them. Beyond the palace, the town, the houses
and gardens of rajahs and chiefs, the country
is highly cultivated as far as the eye can reach.
Innumerable quantities of coconuts are grown
and made into copra, all of which is exported
to Singapore."

Kelantan in the past century was a fierce
debate of contention between the British
authorities in the Straits Settlements and the
Siamese Government. Sir Stamford Raffles,
in his famous farewell memorandum to which
reference has been made in a previous chapter,
dwelt upon the necessity of saving "the truly
respectable State of Trengganu" from the fate
which had overtaken Kedah. It was probably
owing to his representations that the article in
reference to Kelantan and Trengganu was in-
cluded into the Treaty of Bangkok in 1826.
Until 1860 the neutral position assigned to the
two States in the treaty was tacitly accepted by
Siames, but in that year the Siamese Govern-
ment proposed to send to Trengganu the ex-Sultan
of Lingga, whose design to make an attack
on Pahang and so disturb the peace of the penin-
sula was, Sir Frank Swettenham says, notorious.
"At this remonstrance, made after a per-
sonal complaint from the Sultan of Lingga
to the Governor of the Straits Settlements" was
successful; but some months later the ex-Sultan
of Lingga was sent to Trengganu in a Siamese
steamer, and as Colonel Cavagnac's renewed
and energetic protest and request for the
ex-Sultan's removal met with nothing but
promises which were not performed, the
Governor deputed two vessels of war and a
Straits Government steamer to Trengganu to
demand the immediate return of the ex-Sultan
of Lingga to Bangkok; but the demand was
not complied with in the time allowed, the
Trengganu fort was shelled, and the Court of
Bangkok ultimately removed the ex-Sultan.
The shelling was merely a demonstration and
no one was hurt."

Whatever opinions may be held as to the
legitimacy of Siamese rights in Kelantan and
Trengganu, there can be no question as to the
satisfactory character of the proposed arrange-
ment. Siam gives up what is of little value
to her and Great Britain obtains an extension
of territory which will round off the splendid
heritage of which she is the guardian in the
Federated Malay States.

The future of Siam as far as human fore-
sight can sketch it is a bright one. It has no
menacing territorial questions to trouble it; it
is hampered by no undue Conservatism, whether
in the matter of caste or official traditions, and
it rejoices in a territory of enormous agricul-
tural productiveness and potential mineral
wealth. These are no mean advantages, and,
taken in conjunction with the enlightened rule
introduced by the present king, whose record
reign of forty years is being celebrated as these
pages are passing through the press, they supply
a moderate guarantee of the continued advance
of the country along the paths of peaceful
commercial development.
THE KINGS OF SIAM
FROM THE TIME THE OLD CITY AYUTTHIA WAS BUILT,
CHULA ERA 712, CORRESPONDING WITH A.D. 1850.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Chula Era</th>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Length of Reign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FIRST DYNASTY.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Sömdech P'ra Rahmah Tibaudae 1st.</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>1351</td>
<td>20 Years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sömdech P'ra Manee-dian, son of the 1st, who abdicated for</td>
<td>731</td>
<td>1371</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Sömdech P'ra Boroma-Rach'a-Tirath.</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>1371</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Chow Os-Taung-dian, son of the 3rd.</td>
<td>744</td>
<td>1383</td>
<td>7 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sömdech P'ra Ramee-dian, assassinated the 4th, being the same person as the 2nd reign.</td>
<td>744</td>
<td>1383</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Sömdech P'raya P'ra Rahm, son of the 5th.</td>
<td>754</td>
<td>1397</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Sömdech P'ra Nak'fa In.</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>1401</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Sömdech P'ra Boroma Rach'a-Tirath, son of the 7th.</td>
<td>780</td>
<td>1419</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Sömdech P'ra Borom Trai Lohkaninh, son of the 8th.</td>
<td>790</td>
<td>1425</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Sömdech P'ra Boroma Rach'a, son of the 9th.</td>
<td>811</td>
<td>1440</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Sömdech P'ra Rahmah Tibaudae 2nd.</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>1470</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Sömdech P'ra Boroma Rach'a Mahah Put'am, son of the 11th.</td>
<td>871</td>
<td>1510</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. P'ra Ratsata Tirath, son of the 12th, five years old.</td>
<td>875</td>
<td>1514</td>
<td>5 mo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Sömdech P'ra Cha'i Rach'a-Tirath, son of the 12th, killed by the 13th.</td>
<td>875</td>
<td>1514</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. P'ra Yaut Fah, son of the 14th, aged eleven years.</td>
<td>889</td>
<td>1528</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 15th was slain by K'un Wara-wong-ch'i-Tirath, who took the throne and reigned five months. Being a usurper, his name is not allowed to have a place among the names of Siamese kings. He was assassinated by K'un Fire-fell, who placed on the throne P'ra Teem Rach'a, who bore the name.

16. Sömdech Mahah Chakara phat'di Rach'a-Tirath. | 891 | 1530 | 7 |

SECOND DYNASTY.

22. P'ra Chaw Song T'am slew the 21st and reigned. | 904 | 1603 | 26 |

23. P'ra Chet'ah Tirath Otsarol, an elder brother of the 22nd. | 989 | 1628 | 17 mo. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Chula Era</th>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Length of Reign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SECOND DYNASTY—continued.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. P'ra Aht'aya-wong, a brother of the 23rd, nine years old.</td>
<td>991</td>
<td>1631</td>
<td>5 mo.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here closes this dynasty, being three reigns.

THIRD DYNASTY.

The last king was driven from the throne by his Siamese nobles and lords, and they put in his place the Prime Minister above mentioned, namely.

25. P'ra Chow Prasith Taung. | 992 | 1631 | 26 |

26. Chow Fah Ch'a, son of the 25th. | 1017 | 1656 | 9 mo. |

27. P'ra Sri-sut'ama Rach'a, killed the 26th and reigned.

28. Sömdech P'ra Narai, son of the 25th, killed the 27th.

29. P'ra Y'et Rach'a, He is called a usurper, and is not allowed an honourable place among the kings.

30. P'ra Putta Chow Sii-a, son of the 28th. | 1059 | 1698 | 10 |

31. Chow Chow Yu Han Tai Sii, son of the 30th. | 1068 | 1709 | 27 |

32. Chow Chow Y' Moo Boroma Kohl, brother of the 31st. | 1094 | 1733 | 26 |

33. Chow Fah Dauk-madi-a, son of the 32nd, and then abdicated the throne for the elder brother,

34. P'ra Chow T'Nang Suriya Marintra, With this reign closed the dynasty of Prasith Taung. There were, excluding the usurper, nine kings in all. The whole term in which the above-named thirty-four kings reigned is 417 years, averaging 121 years each. The Burmese sacked the capital in the year 1767 and carried away many captives. The chief of the Siamese army rallied the Siamese under him at Tonabear, which is now the site of his Royal Highness Krom P'ra Chakrapatpong's palace. He built a walled city in this place, and reigned as.

35. King P'raya Tahk-sin. | 1120 | 1759 | 10 days |

THE FOURTH AND PRESENT DYNASTY.

A Siamese general of great celebrity under Prayah Tahk-sin took the throne, named.

36. Sömdech P'ra Boroma Rach'a P'ra Pa'tta Yau Fah. | 1144 | 1782 | 27 |

37. P'ra Putta L'o-lah, son of the 36th. | 1171 | 1809 | 15 |

38. P'rabahl Sömdech P'ra Xong Klow, son of the 37th. | 1186 | 1824 | 27 |

39. P'rabahl Sömdech P'ra Paramendr Mahahmongkut, son of the 37th. | 1213 | 1851 | 17 |

40. P'rabahl Sömdech P'ra Paramendr Mahah Chulalongkorn Klow, the present king, son of the 39th.
H.R.H. SOMDEJCH CHAO FA MAHA VAJIRAVUDH, THE CROWN PRINCE OF SIAM.
THE ROYAL FAMILY

His Majesty Somdej Phra Paramendr Maha Chulalokkorn, King of Siam of the North and South, Sovereign of the Laos, the Malays, &c., is the fifth sovereign of the Chakratri dynasty, founded 126 years ago. His Majesty, who is the eldest son of King Maha Mongkut and of Queen Ramboli Bhanibhorn, was born on September 20, 1853, and, in accordance with the custom of Siam, where the reigning king can choose whomever he wishes from among his offspring as his successor, was selected to rule by his royal father. He was educated by Mrs. Leonowens, an English lady, and ascended the throne on the death of his father in October, 1868, when only fifteen years of age. During the first few years of his reign the affairs of state were managed by a council of regency selected from amongst the most able of the royal family, but his Majesty at a very early age gave clear indication of his ability and desire to undertake the sole responsibility for the good government of his kingdom, and the functions of the council were purely nominal during the last few years of its existence. Until 1871 his Majesty had never been outside his own dominions, but in that year he paid a visit to Java. Later in the same year he went for a tour through India, and it was upon his return from this excursion that the council of regency was finally disbanded. During the forty years of his Majesty's reign many radical changes have been made in the administration of the Government, and under his guidance and direction the natural resources and industrial possibilities of the country are being rapidly developed. His Majesty, indeed, works harder than most of his subjects, whose loyalty and affection he has gained by his consistent regard for their best interests, and Siam at the present day owes much of its prosperity to the energy and initiative displayed by her king. One reform towards which the young ruler gave early and unremitting attention was the abolition of slavery. By 1889 its worst features had been swept away, although the system, which was one of bond serfdom or debt slavery, was not made altogether illegal until 1905. His Majesty has twice undertaken tours through the countries of Europe, and on each occasion was well received and entertained by the sovereigns whose courts he visited. Upon returning from his second trip his welcome in Bangkok, the magnificent i

minations, and the scenes of general rejoicing which greeted his arrival, showed how completely his Majesty has won his way into the hearts of his people. He is a keen observer, and he brought back with him many ideas formed or gathered during his travels abroad, which have already produced good results. The king is the only independent Buddhist nature, and has on many occasions generously assisted foreign residents in times of trouble or affliction. His Majesty, of course, speaks English fluently and has a fair acquaintance with other European languages, while he is known as an erudite Pali and Sanskrit scholar. His life has been too busy for his Majesty to devote much time to sport. He, however, pre-

THE THRONE ROOM.
and endowed quite a number of charitable institutions and has done a great deal towards the furtherance of educational work amongst the women of Siam.

His Royal Highness Maha Vajiravudh, Crown Prince of Siam and Prince of Ayuthia, was born on January 1, 1881, and proclaimed heir apparent on the death of his elder brother, Prince Maha Vajirunhis, in January, 1895. From his very earliest years the Crown Prince received his education from English tutors, and when, in 1893, he was sent to complete his studies in Europe, he spent the greater part of his time in England. He entered the Royal Military College at Sandhurst in 1898 and also attended the School of Musketry, Hythe, where he obtained a certificate. He was for one month, in 1899, attached to a mountain battery at the Artillery Training Camp on Dartmoor, near Okehampton, Devon. In 1900 he went up to Oxford University, where he studied history at Christ Church, and as a result of his studies he published a book, in 1902, on the "War of the Polish Succession." After leaving Oxford his Royal Highness served some time as a lieutenant in a British Infantry Regiment. During his stay in Europe his Royal Highness represented his country at several notable functions, the most important ones being Queen Victoria's Jubilee in 1897, Queen Victoria's funeral in 1901, King Alfonso XIII's accession in May, and King Edward's coronation in June, 1902, and before returning to
DECORATIONS IN BANGKOK ON THE RETURN OF HIS MAJESTY THE KING FROM EUROPE.
Siam he visited various European Courts and made a tour in the United States of America, staying for a while in Japan on his way home. His Royal Highness has obtained no little distinction as an amateur actor. He is the President of the Saranrom Amateur Dramatic Association, which performs Siamese translations of standard English plays, and is himself the author of a play dealing with modern Siamese life, entitled "The Shield," which had a very hearty reception when produced in Bangkok recently. His Royal Highness is a keen polo-player, a good rifle-shot, and is reported by his entourage to be an omnivorous reader. Since his return from Europe he has travelled extensively in many parts of the Siamese provinces, and has thus obtained at first hand a clear insight into the resources of the country and the conditions under which his future subjects live.

His Majesty the king has two full brothers, his Royal Highness Prince Bhaourangsi, Minister of War and Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Navy, and his Royal Highness Prince Krom Luang Naresa Nawattiwongse, Minister of the Household. His Majesty has also twenty half-brothers, many of whom hold high offices in the State. Of these, perhaps the best known is his Royal Highness Prince Krom Luang Damrong, the Minister of the Interior. The whole of his life has been spent in the service of his country, and his great abilities as a statesman and administrator are recognised by all—from the king down to the humblest of his Majesty's subjects. Born in Bangkok in 1862, Prince Damrong was educated at the Royal School, Bangkok, and at an early age entered the army as a cadet. After several years' service in various capacities his Royal Highness was promoted Lieutenant-Colonel in charge of the Royal Body Guard, and acted as personal aide-de-camp to his Majesty. Subsequently he was appointed Major-General of the Headquarters Staff, but after carrying out the duties and responsibilities attaching to this high rank for a period of two years, he resigned the military service and became the Minister for Education. In 1891 his Royal Highness was sent on a special mission to Europe, and visited the courts of England, Denmark, Germany, Russia, Turkey, Greece, and Italy, and on his return journey to Siam toured extensively in Egypt and India. Upon his arrival in Bangkok in 1892 Prince Damrong was appointed Minister of the Interior, and the re-organisation of this great department, which has the control of the administration of the whole of Siam outside of the Bangkok Monthon, constitutes what may be considered his life's work. When free from official duties his Royal Highness takes a great delight in the study of the history and archeology of Siam. He is also an enthusiastic and highly skilled photographer, and during his many journeys through the interior of the country, which he probably knows better than any other living man, he has not only collected much valuable historical data, but has also obtained a most interesting and unique series of pictures of the magnificent ruins which are to be found on every side. His Royal Highness has been decorated with the highest Siamese Orders, as well as with numerous orders from European sovereigns.

The king's sons, of whom there are twenty living, have nearly all been educated in Europe and have learned various professions, so that they may be well able to take the lead in the different departments of Government administration. The sons of royal princes have the rank of Mom Chow; but in the two succeeding generations the rank diminishes in importance until, after the third generation, it entirely disappears.
CONSTITUTION AND LAW

THE CONSTITUTION.

In Siam there is no written Constitution. The Government is an absolute monarchy. All power is vested in the hands of the king, who is in theory the master of life and death, and the owner of all land.

In practice, of course, this is not so. No one is ever condemned without a trial, and a distinct line is drawn between Government property and the king's private property, the improvements of the king's property never being paid for out of the Government treasury.

His Majesty is assisted in the administration of the country by a council of ministers or "Semapati," whose members are of equal rank. In addition there is a Council of State and a Privy Council, the members of which are appointed by the King and hold their seats during his Majesty's pleasure. The Council of State carries out the functions of a Legislative Assembly. The Privy Council is purely an advisory body.

Foreign advisers are attached to several of the ministries. When a new law is required it is drafted in the form of a Bill by the department in whose sphere it naturally comes, and is then passed through the hands of those advisers whose particular functions would cause them to take an interest in the measure before it comes to the council for final discussion, preparatory to receiving the royal sanction.

In 1894 the internal administration was reorganised, and the whole of the country placed under the administration of the Ministry of the Interior with the exception of the capital and the surrounding provinces. An Act similar to the British Act applying to Burma has been adopted for the government of the great mass of the people in the provinces of the interior. Each hamlet, consisting of about ten houses, has its elected elder. The elders in their turn elect a headman for the village, a village consisting of ten hamlets. The Government appoints an "amphur" with petty magisterial powers who has jurisdiction over a group of villages. "Muangs," or provinces, are each in the charge of a governor, and the governors are in their turn directly responsible to the High Commissioners, who are at the head of the thirteen monthons, or circles, into which the country is divided.

The Commissioners meet once a year at the Ministry of Justice, and, under the presidency of the Minister of the Interior, report upon the work that has been accomplished and discuss the future programme. Gradually this assembly of the High Commissioners is becoming quite an important feature in the government of the country.

SIAMESE LAW: OLD AND NEW.

By T. Masao, D.C.L., LL.D.,
Senior Legal Adviser to H.S.M.'s Government and Judge of H.S.M.'s Supreme Court of Appeal.

In the King of Siam's preamble to the new Penal Code which was promulgated on April 1, 1908, and came into operation on September 21st, his Majesty the king said: "In the ancient times the monarchs of the Siamese nation governed their people with laws which were originally derived from the Dhamasutra of Mann, which was then the prevailing law among the inhabitants of India and the neighbouring countries." Such was also the conclusion arrived at by the writer of the present article in a paper read before the Siam Society of Bangkok in 1905, in which the writer endeavoured to show by textual comparisons that the ancient Siamese laws were derived from the Manuic laws of India. The Code of Mann divides the whole body of civil and criminal laws into eighteen principal titles as follows: (1) debt, (2) deposit and pledge, (3) sale without ownership, (4) concerns among partners, (5) resumption of gifts, (6) hiring of persons, (7) non-performance of agreement, (8) rescission of sale and purchase, (9) disputes between the owner of cattle and his servants, (10) disputes regarding boundaries, (11) assault, (12) defamation, (13) theft, (14) robbery and violence, (15) adultery, (16) duties of man and wife, (17) partition of inheritance, (18) gambling and betting (Manu VIII. 4-8). On this subject the Siamese counterpart of the Code of Mann (Phra Thai-masal) says: "The causes which give rise to lawsuits are as follows," &c., and enumerates all these eighteen titles and adds eleven more, such as kidnapping, rebellion, war, the king's property and taxes, &c. The same similarity is observable in the manner of classifying slaves. The Code of Mann classifies slaves as follows: (1) those who have been made captives of war, (2) those who have become slaves for the sake of being fed, (3) those who have been born of female slaves in the house...
of their masters, (4) those who have been bought, (5) those who have been given, (6) those who have been inherited from ancestors, and (7) those who have become slaves on account of their inability to pay large fines (Manu VIII. 4-15). The ancient Siamese Law Concerning Slaves (Laxana Turt) classified slaves as follows: (1) Slaves whom you have redeemed from other money masters, (2) slaves who have been born of slaves in a person’s house, (3) slaves a person has inherited from his father and mother, (4) slaves whom a person has received from others by way of gift, (5) slaves a person has helped out of punishment, (6) those who have become slaves by having been fed when rice was dear, and (7) those who have been brought back as captives from war. Another illustration of the close analogy between the two systems of law is found in the rules concerning witnesses. The space allotted to this article does not permit the writer to give these rules in detail. Suffice it to say that while the Code of Manu (VIII. 64-68) contains a list of some thirty odd kinds of persons who are incompetent to give evidence, the ancient Siamese Law Concerning Witnesses (Laxana Piyam) contains a list of exactly thirty-three kinds of such persons, justifying the remark made by some one that these rules “excluded everybody who was likely to know anything about the case.” The principles of the Manuic law of India, that interest ought never to exceed the capital (Manu VIII. 151-153), that if a defendant falsely denies a debt he is to be fined double the amount of the debt (Manu VIII. 59), &c., all found their counterparts in the ancient Siamese Law of Debts (Laxana Ku-ni). Of all the ancient Siamese laws the Law of Husband and Wife (Laxana Pua Mia) is the least like its Indian original. This is undoubtedly due to difference of religion, race, and custom, all which play so important a part in regulating the domestic relations of a people.

Such were the laws which the ancient Kings of Siam adopted from India. It would indeed be a hopeless task for any one to attempt to ascertain how far these laws still obtain and how far they are obsolete except for the painstaking effort of H.R.H. Prince Rajaburi, Minister of Justice, who has brought out in edition of these laws in two volumes commonly known as “Kot-Mai Rajaburi” (the Law of Rajaburi) or “Kot-Mai Song Lern” (the Law of the Two Volumes). Prince Rajaburi has edited these volumes, with numerous footnotes and a complete index showing which sections have been modified and which sections have been repealed. It follows that the present-day Siamese laws consist of such parts of the ancient laws as have not been repealed or as have been confirmed by decisions of the highest court as being still valid, such laws as have been enacted in recent times, and the decisions of the highest court. After the courts were remodelled in 1892, the first laws wanted were naturally those of procedure and evidence in civil and criminal matters. The Law of Evidence enacted in 1895, which repeals the ancient Law Concerning Witnesses in Sato, is a thoroughly up-to-date law of evidence. This was followed by the enactment of a series of other laws, such as the Law of Criminal Procedure, the Law of Civil Procedure, the Law Abolishing Slavery &c. The conclusion of a treaty with Japan in 1898, consenting to the exercise of Japanese consular jurisdiction in Siam, but providing for its eventual surrender by Japan on the completion and coming into effect of the Siamese

### PROMINENT SIAMESE OFFICIALS.

1. H.E. Phya Inthathoudi Siakraj Roy Muang (Under-Secretary to the Minister of Local Government).
2. H.E. Phya Srit Sathadhee (Vice-Minister of the Interior).
3. H.R.H. Prince Benya (Assistant Under-Secretary of Agriculture and Director-General of the Royal Sericulture Department).
4. H.E. Phya Sutthira Wohara (Under-Secretary for the Ministry of Agriculture).
5. H.E. Phya Phiwat Korn (Permanent Under-Secretary of State).
1. H.R.H. Prince Krom Luang Damrong (Minister of the Interior).
2. H.R.H. Prince Chao Fa Krom Luang Narisara Nawatiwong (Minister of the Household).
3. H.R.H. Prince Chao Fa Bhanvarangsi (Minister of the War Department).
4. Prince Krom Luang Devawongse Varoprakar (Minister of Foreign Affairs).
5. H.E. Phya Sukhum Nayvinit (Minister for Local Government).
6. Prince of Chanthaburi (Minister for Finance).
7. Prince of Rajaburi (Minister of Justice).
8. H.E. Chao Phya Vichitwongse Waderai (Minister of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs).
9. Prince Krom Luang Nares Voraridhi (Minister for Public Works).
10. H.E. Chow Phya Devesha (Minister of Agriculture).
THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.

By W. A. G. TILLEKE, ACTING ATTORNEY-GENERAL.

THE administration of the law is in the hands of the Minister of Justice, who, in the words of the Act constituting the courts of justice, has a controlling and correctional power in all matters arising out of cases, and is responsible for the due and equitable trial and adjudication of all actions and suits as opposed to responsibility for the actual conduct of the trial. The present minister is Prince Rajahuri, who graduated at Oxford with honours in law about fifteen years ago. He has been minister for the past twelve years.

The highest court is the Dika Court, which is responsible to his Majesty the king and is equivalent to a Supreme Court of Appeal. In Bangkok there are several courts, viz., a Civil Court, a Criminal Court, and three Police Courts which are also courts of preliminary inquiry into cases of serious offences. In the provinces there are the Provincial Courts, which are divided into three classes: the Monthon Court, the Muang Court, and the Kweng Court.

There are two Appeal Courts in Bangkok, one for the hearing of the Bangkok appeals and the other for the hearing of appeals from the Provincial Courts.

The jury system is not known, but as a rule the courts of Bangkok are presided over by four or five judges, while the Provincial Courts have two or three judges according to the status of the court.

There are also International Courts which try cases in which a subject of a foreign Power is plaintiff and a Siamese subject the defendant. Regarding the appointment of judges, the Act says that no appointment, promotion, or other removal of any judge shall be made without the pleasure of his Majesty the King being first obtained through the Minister of Justice.

There is also a Department of Public Prosecution in Bangkok, which is placed under the Ministry of Justice, while the provincial public prosecutors are under the Ministry of Interior.

The appointment of the Attorney-General and Assistant Attorney-General for Bangkok lies with his Majesty the King, while the public prosecutors for Bangkok are appointed by the Attorney-General with the approval of the Minister of Justice.

In addition there is the Department of the Judicial Adviser to the Ministry of Justice, a position now filled by Mr. J. Stewart Black, barrister-at-law, formerly of the British Consular Service. Again, there is a Legis-
law officers of the crown.

4. Rene Sheridan (Legal Adviser to the Court of Foreign Causes).
5. C. R. A. Neil (Temporary Judge to the Siamese Appeal Court).
6. Lawrence Tooth (Legal Adviser to the International Court).
7. C. L. Watson (Legal Adviser to the Civil Court, Ministry of Justice).
8. Dr. T. Masao (Senior Adviser to His Siamese Majesty’s Government and Judge in the Supreme Court of Appeal).

After the treaty concluded with France, this office is at present held by Monsieur Georges Padoux, who holds the rank of Consul-General in the French service. In many of the courts there sits a foreign legal adviser whose duty it is to advise the judges in any matter of difficulty. These advisers have the full status of judges and draft and sign judgments. The appointment of such advisers, however, is not a matter which is obligatory by any treaty, but is entirely voluntary on the part of the Government, the desire being simply to make the judiciary as efficient as possible. The first duty of the advisers is to learn the language, and they have to pass an examination in Siamese before being attached as adviser to any particular court.

The majority of the judges are locally educated men. There is a law school in Bangkok which was established by Prince Rajaburi when he became minister, twelve years ago. Each year there is an examination in which about twelve out of a hundred students are successful. Nearly all of these lawyers are at once posted to judgeships, and thus the judiciary is formed.

H.B.M.'s Court for Siam.

Under the treaty at present in force between Great Britain and Siam all British subjects in Lower Siam are justiciable in a British court, and those in Upper Siam in a specially constituted international court. In Lower Siam the British court was, until 1903, presided over by consular officers; in that year, by an Order in Council (amended in 1909), “H.B.M.'s Court for Siam” was created, with a judge and an assistant judge who have to be barristers. The present holders of these posts are their Honours Judges Skinner Turner and A. R. Vincent, and from their decisions there is an ultimate appeal to the Privy Council in London.

His Honour Judge Skinner Turner was born near Tonbridge, Kent, and educated at King's College School, Strand, and at London University. He was called to the Bar at the Middle Temple in 1890, and for some years afterwards practised on the Western Circuit and at the Hampshire Sessions. Joining the Foreign Office in 1900, he was appointed Registrar to the British Court in the East Africa Protectorate, and in the following year was transferred to the Uganda Protectorate to act as legal Vice-Counsel. Early in 1902 he was appointed magistrate at Mombassa and in May of the same year was transferred to Zanzibar as Acting Assistant Judge, receiving a definite appointment there as Second Assistant Judge in the following month of October. In February, 1904, he was promoted to be Senior Assistant Judge. Throughout his time there he sat as one of the judges of the Court of Appeal for the Eastern Africa Protectorates, and was present at the first sitting of that court. He was appointed to his present post in 1905 and has been named a Justice of the Peace, and is a member of the Board of Education of the Zanzibar Government.

His Honour Judge Arthur Rose Vincent was born in 1873 and educated at Wellington College and Trinity College, Dublin. He is a barrister-at-law, King's Inns, Dublin, and has a record of service covering the territories of the Eastern Africa Protectorates somewhat similar to that of Judge Skinner Turner. He was appointed to Siam in 1905.
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

MEMBERS OF THE LEGAL PROFESSION.

Mr. Henri Dusson has filled the post of Judge to the French Consular Court at Bangkok since March, 1908. He is a native of Vivrac-en-Medoc, in the department of the Gironde, and was educated for his profession at Bordeaux School, where he secured his Licence en Droit, and later at the University of the same town, where he qualified as a Doctor of Law. For seven years following his success in his examination he practised in Bordeaux as advocate, and for another year filled the position of "Sous Chef de Contenctieux" in Paris. He was appointed Magistrate to the Government at Saigon in 1903. In the beginning of 1908, and prior to his departure for Bangkok, he was appointed juge d'instruction (Legal Adviser).

Mr. John Stewart Black, who has been the Judicial Adviser at the Ministry of Justice, Bangkok, since 1902, was educated at Linlithgow Burgh School, X.B., and at St. Andrew's University. He was called to the Bar at the Middle Temple, and in 1888 entered his British Majesty's Consular Service as Student Interpreter in Siam, being appointed Assistant in 1894, and promoted to First Assistant three years later. In 1897 he was appointed Vice-Consul at Bangkok, and at a later period was for some time Acting Consul and Judge of the Consular Court at the British Legation. He resigned the Consular Service in order to take up his present office under the Siamese Government. Mr. Black is a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society, and has contributed several papers to the "Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society.

Mr. William Alfred G. Tilleke, the Acting Attorney-General of Siam, is a member of a well-known Sinhalese family. He is the son of the late Chief Madulayar, Mr. G. Goonetilleke, of Kandy, who was a justice of the peace for the Central Province, and also held the rank of Galle Mudalayar—the highest native rank which it is in the power of the Governor of Ceylon to bestow; while two of his uncles, the late Mr. William Goonetilleke and Madulayar Louis Wiljesinghe, his mother's brother, may be reckoned as two of the most eminent scholars Ceylon has produced. Mr. W. A. G. Tilleke, the subject of this sketch, was born in 1860, and educated at St. Thomas's College, Colombo, and is a member of the Calcutta University. While still at College he showed promise of that success he was afterwards able to show, and at 17 he was apprenticed to a lawyer, for he was editor of his college magazine, and a prominent member of the Debating Society. Debating his diploma he left college to commence his studies for the law, and four years later he passed one of the severest examinations for admission to the bar, and a profession which had been known up to that time. The Chief Justice of Ceylon was bent upon raising the standard of legal education, and out of the nineteen students who presented themselves at this examination, only two passed the two-days' test paper set by Chief Justice Burnside, preparatory to the final examination. When the time came, Tilleke's maturity and seriousness showed, and two years later he commenced the practice of his profession. After being called to the Bar he practised in Kandy, where, in 1885, he was elected a Municipal Councillor, and was for the two years following a magistrate of the Municipal Court. Mr. Tilleke left Ceylon about twenty years ago and settled in Siam. Here he has appeared in some very important cases, including the trial of the Siamese Frontier Commissioner, Phra Yot, But apparently success as a lawyer was not sufficient in those years to have Tilleke's energy and enterprise. In 1893, in conjunction with the late Mr. G. W. Ward, he started the Siam Observer, the first English daily newspaper, and, indeed, the first daily newspaper of any description in Siam. The paper is still flourishing, but some years since, on account of its irregular legal duties, he was unable to spare the time to devote to its supervision, Mr. Tilleke transferred the property to his brother, Mr. A. F. G. Tilleke. Apart from the many appointments attaching to such an important post as that of Attorney-General, the cares of a large private practice, Mr. W. A. G. Tilleke takes a very prominent place in the life of Bangkok. He is Chairman of the Bagam Rubber Company; a Director of the Bangkok Manufacturing Company, Ltd., the Bangkok Dock Company, Ltd., the Siamese Tramways Company, Ltd., the Prabah Railway Company, the Transport Motor Company, the Pukham Railway Company, and is interested largely in many other commercial and industrial undertakings. As a good sportsman and a lover of horse-racing, too, he has few equals in the country. He is a Committee Member of the Royal Bangkok Sports Club, and was for seven years Clerk of the Course. He has kept a large racing stable for many years, and has a private track on his own premises. His ponies always carry off a good proportion of the events at the local race meetings, while in 1903 his stable created a record by winning all the seven events on the first day. He is a member also of the Singapore Sporting Club, and has his horses there with some success.

Mr. C. R. A. Niel was born in April, 1879, at Toulon, and educated at Toulon, Paris, and Aix. He was a medallist at the Law School, and graduated as a Doctor of Law. He was called to the Bar of the Appeal Court of Aix-en-Provence in 1899, and appointed attached at the office of the Procureur général of Indo-China in December, 1900. He was promoted Assistant Judge in November, 1901, and Judge in August, 1905. In March, 1904, he was transferred to Bangkok to undertake the responsibility of Judge to the French Consular Court, but since March, 1905, he has acted as temporary Judge in the Siamese courts. Mr. Niel is an "Officier d'Académie," and a member of the fifth class of the Order of the White Elephant of Siam.

Mr. Lawrence Tooth was born at Brighton, Sussex, in 1876, and educated at St. Paul's School, Hammersmith, and London University, at which latter institution he graduated LL.B. with honours. Shortly after passing his solicitor's final he came to Siam under an appointment to his Siamese Majesty's Government. He arrived at Bangkok in 1902, and is now Legal Adviser to the International Court. Two years ago Mr. Tooth received the Order of the Crown of Siam, fourth class.

Mr. G. L. Watson, the Legal Adviser to the Civil Court at Bangkok, came to Siam in March, 1905, having passed his solicitor's final in June of the previous year. He was appointed to the position he now holds upon his arrival there.

Mr. René Sheridan, the Legal Adviser to the Court of Foreign Causes, in common with many of the Belgian lawyers who take up foreign service, has had his share of experience in the Congo State. Born in Bruges in 1873, he was educated at Brussels University, qualifying in 1879 for the Degree of Doctor of Law. He returned to Bruges as a Fellow of the Bar, but shortly afterwards sailed for West Africa, being appointed first Substitut du Procureur d'Etat and subsequently a Judge in the Congo. Returning to Europe after a year, however, he was offered and accepted an appointment under the Siamese Government and left for Bangkok in 1901.

Mr. G. K. Wright was born in Boston, Lincolnshire, in 1884, and educated privately. He was articled to a firm of solicitors in London, and passed his final examination in 1906. In February, 1907, he was appointed Legal Adviser to the Ministry of Justice, Bangkok. After devoting six months to the study of the language, he was attached to the Court at Raja-burra. He returned to Bangkok in February, 1908, and in the absence of Mr. R. C. Gosnell was appointed Acting High Sheriff.

Mr. C. J. Naylor.—The day of the Bar in Bangkok, and the leading unofficial member, is Mr. Charles James Naylor, who has since the beginning of 1894 been engaged in practically every cause célèbre in the local courts of justice. He is a barrister of the Inner Temple, a member of the Hongkong Bar, and an advocate and solicitor of the Supreme Court of the Straits Settlements. He has also had conferred upon him the title of Nabi Pundit in the Siamese courts. The son and grandson of lawyers, Mr. Naylor has had twenty-three years of legal experience in both branches of the profession.
DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR REPRESENTATIVES IN SIAM

FRANCE.

M. Pierre de Margerie, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of France to the Court of Siam, was born in 1861, and educated at the University of Paris. The various appointments he has held under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs have included Copenhagen, 1886; Constantinople, 1889; Peking, 1898 (mininstalled); Copenhagen (First Secretary), 1899; Washington (Conseiller d'Ambassade), 1901; and Madrid, 1913. He was a member of the French Mission to and Secretary of the Conference at Algeciras (1906), and prior to his appointment in 1907 to the Court of Siam was the French Delegate to the Danube Commission. M. de Margerie possesses many highly prized decorations, and is member of the Legion d'Honneur and a Chevalier du Mérite Agricole.

M. G. Osmin Laporte was born in 1875, and educated in France, securing a diploma in Oriental languages. He was appointed Consul at Bangkok on April 1, 1906, and promoted to Consul of the Second Grade on the 1st of October following.

NETHERLANDS.

Mr. F. J. Domela Nieuwenhuis, the Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipoten-

MEMBERS OF THE CORPS DIPLOMATIQUE.

1. P. de Margerie (France).
2. F. J. Domela Nieuwenhuis (Netherlands).
3. A. G. Yacovlev (Russia).
4. Ralph Paget, C.M.G., C.V.O. (Great Britain).
5. Walter Ralph D'Urge Drackett (Great Britain, acting).
6. Major F. Ceccomigola (Italy).
7. Sakuya Yoshida (Japan).
Mr. A. G. Yacovlew, the Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Russian Government in Siam, was born and educated at St. Petersburg. His first appointment was as Attaché to the Russian Embassy at Constantinople in 1876. From there he was transferred to Jerusalem in the capacity of Secretary to the Russian Consulate, but the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War found Mr. Yacovlew attached to the staff of the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian Army. At the conclusion of hostilities he was again appointed to the Embassy at Constantinople, where during a period of service extending over eighteen years he was promoted from Third to Second Dragoman, and undertook many special missions in Egypt, France, and Italy. In 1898 Mr. Yacovlew became the Consul-General at Jerusalem, a position he occupied for ten years, being transferred to Bangkok in 1908. Mr. Yacovlew possesses decorations from the Governments of Turkey, Greece, Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and Abyssinia, and the Orders of St. Stanislaus first class and the Mejida first class.

Mr. Nicholas K. Eltekoff, the Consul for Russia and Secretary of Legation, was born in 1876 in the Government of Yaroslav, Russia, and educated at St. Petersburg University. On obtaining his diploma in 1900, he entered the Foreign Office, and a year later was appointed Secretary to the diplomatic officer attached to the Governor-General of Port Arthur, a position which, in 1903, was transformed to that of Secretary to the Chancery of the Viceroy. During the Russo-Japanese War Mr. Eltekoff was attached as Secretary to the Chancery of the Commander-in-Chief (at Port Arthur). He returned to the Foreign Office at St. Petersburg in 1905, and was appointed to his present position in the year following.
GREAT BRITAIN.

Mr. Ralph Spencer Paget C.V.O., C.M.G., the son of the late Right Hon. Sir Augustus Paget, at one time His Majesty's Ambassador at Vienna, was born on November 26, 1804. He was educated at Eton and studied for a short while also with Scoues, of Garlick Street, one of the most successful crammers of that day. Having passed the competitive examination for entrance to the Diplomatic Service, he was appointed to Vienna on July 7, 1888. The following year he was transferred to Cairo, where his knowledge of Arabic obtained for him a special allowance. On July 10, 1896, Mr. Paget was promoted to be Third Secretary, and from December 15, 1891, to May 4, 1892, was employed at Zanzibar. He was transferred to Washington on July 25, 1892, and to Tokio July 1, 1893, where he acted as Chargé d'Affaires from June 5 to August 20, 1894. On January 22, 1895, he was promoted Second Secretary, and four years later was appointed for a second time to Cairo. He was transferred to Munich on October 1, 1900, and to Constantinople on January 2nd of the following year, his knowledge of Turkish once more securing for him the extra language allowance. On June 18, 1901, he was sent to Guatemala as Chargé d'Affaires, and remained there until his removal to Bangkok, in September, 1902. During his first two years' service in Bangkok he acted as Chargé d'Affaires, but on April 1, 1904, was promoted to be a First Secretary. In June, 1904, he was created C.M.G., and the following November was appointed Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of his Majesty the King of Italy, was accredited to the Court of Siam by royal decree on June 13, 1907. Born in Naples on March 1, 1869, he entered the service of the Royal Academy in 1879, and in 1880 was raised to the rank of Captain. Mr. Ciccodicola saw active service in the Italian Colony of Africa, and took part in all the campaigns against Abyssinia. After peace was concluded in 1897 he was appointed the representative of the King of Italy to the Emperor of Abyssinia.

ITALY.

Commendatore Federico Ciccodicola, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of his Majesty the King of Italy, was accredited to the Court of Siam by royal decree on June 13, 1907. Born in Naples on March 1, 1869, he entered the service of the Royal Academy in 1879, and in 1880 was raised to the rank of Captain. Mr. Ciccodicola saw active service in the Italian Colony of Africa, and took part in all the campaigns against Abyssinia. After peace was concluded in 1897 he was appointed the representative of the King of Italy to the Emperor of Abyssinia.

JAPAN.

Mr. Sakuya Yoshida, who arrived in Bangkok in August, 1908, to take up the post of Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of his Majesty the Emperor of Japan to the Court of Siam, has had some twenty-two years' experience of the Diplomatic Service. His first appointment, which he received at the age of twenty-six years, was as Consul-General to the Japanese Legation in Vienna. He was promoted Attaché the following year, and during his stay in Europe, which extended to 1893, he held official positions both at the Hague and at St. Petersburg. In 1900 he was awarded the degree of Doctor of Law by the University of Bonn. Returning to Japan, he was appointed Secretary to the Minister of Education in Tokio, and the same year became a Councillor of the Educational Department. In 1909 he once more resumed his acquaintanceship with Europe, acting as Secretary of Legation in Vienna and in Holland. The outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War occasioned his return to Japan, where he was attached to the Foreign Office until his recent departure for Bangkok.

Mr. Kumasaburu Tanabe was born in Nagasaki in 1865 and educated privately for the Consular and Diplomatic Service. On completion of his studies he was appointed to a Student Interpretership in Peking in 1885, and four years later became Chancellor of the Japanese Consulate at Chefoo, North China. In a similar capacity he served also in Hong-kong, New York, and London. He was appointed Vice-Consul at Newchwang in 1897, and was present during the Russian occupation of the port at the period of the Boxer troubles. In 1903 Mr. Tanabe came to Bang-kok as Third Secretary to the Legation, the next year he was promoted Second Secretary, and is now Consul and Chargé d'Affaires.

PORTUGAL.

Mr. Luiz Leopoldo Flores was born on October 9, 1832. Having adopted the law as a profession and passed the necessary qualifying examinations, he was nominated a Magistrate of Public Ministry at Dí, a small Portuguese possession in India. Subsequently he held various other important legal positions in Portuguese India, but, forsaking the law for the Consular Service, he was, in 1890, appointed Chancellor of the Consulate-General of Portugal at Bombay. The following year he was transferred to Rio Grande, Brazil, where, during the Revolution, his enterprise and resourcefulness proved of the greatest assistance to his compatriots. He was promoted Portuguese Consul-General of the First Class in Siam, by royal decree, on August 11, 1901, and arrived in Bangkok on December 20th of that year. Mr. Flores is a member of the Asiatic Society (Bombay Branch), the Geographical Societies of Lisbon and Berlin, and a corresponding member of the Geographical Societies of Madrid, Leipzig, Toulon, Athens, and many other cities. He is a Chevalier of the Order of St. Thilgo of Portugal (Scientific and Literary Grade).

NORWAY.

Mr. J. W. Edle, head of the Borneo Company, Ltd., in Siam, is Consul-General for Norway. His appointment, which followed the separation of Norway and Sweden, dates from April 24, 1906.
THE ARMY AND NAVY

THE ARMY.

By Major Luang Bhuvanarth Narubal, Chief of General Staff.

The Siamese Army, which is under the supreme command of His Majesty the King, is, by royal decree, placed under the immediate control of a General Commander-in-Chief, who is the direct representative of his Majesty. Attached to the Commander-in-Chief is an Assistant-General as second in command. He assists the Commander-in-Chief in his duties, and represents him in his absence, exercising his authority and undertaking his responsibilities.

The War Department is divided into numerous sections—the General Staff; the General Administration Department, under the direction of the Adjutant-General; the Intendance Department; a general Inspecting Commission for the army; and Inspecting Commissions for infantry and artillery; the Finance, Commissariat, Recruiting Departments and others, numbering altogether no less than nineteen.

By a royal decree of the year Rotana Kasandr 122 (about 1905) all able-bodied citizens are bound to serve with the flag for two years in the standing army, five years in the first line of reserve, and ten years in the second reserve, making seventeen years' service in all. During their two years' service with the regular army all recruits are retained in barracks until they are drafted to their regiments, battalions, or companies, according to the formation. The soldiers of the first line of reserve are called for

REVIEW OF THE TROOPS.
from the payment of these taxes for the rest of their lives. All males are bound under the conditions relating to military service, but, in the event of the number of men presenting themselves for service being in excess of the number required for the standing army, the surplus is called the "Kong Keum Attra," and the men, for a period of seven years, are placed in the second reserve, being called up in times of mobilisation.

The army is divided into ten divisions, each constituting a unit, and each unit complete in all sections of arms. The common sections of a division on a war footing are:

1. Two regiments of infantry (each regiment consisting of three battalions, and each battalion of four companies).
2. A regiment of cavalry or mounted infantry.
3. A battery of artillery.
4. An intelligence section.
5. A transport department.
6. An ambulance detachment.
7. A battery of field artillery.

The standing force in time of peace is about 1,200 officers and 25,000 non-commissioned officers and men. The infantry are equipped with the 1902 model repeating rifle and the purpose of instructing "minor" officers in all the military districts or Monthons. About ninetenths of the officers are now supplied by the Military College, and one-tenth only by the rank and file. Many of the officers also who are now at the head of the various departments and corps of the army have received complementary education and military training in the armies of either Germany, Austria, Denmark, or England. All the schools are under the direction of a general officer, who supervises the subjects of study.

The education of candidates for commissions in the regular army is spread over six years, spent in two schools, each having three classes. The elementary school, or the school of cadets proper, gives the students the groundwork of a good general education. The military teaching covers rules of discipline, drill, and manoeuvres. There is no limit of time for remaining in any of the three classes, but promotion follows directly upon the results of the annual examination. The military school proper is that into which the pupil enters after he becomes a "sub-lieutenant," having satisfactorily passed his final examination in the elementary school and served some months with one of the regiments.
THE ROYAL MILITARY COLLEGE.

A ROYAL PROCESSION.
In addition, however, the sub-lieutenant must have a favourable notice from his Colonel commanding, or otherwise his nomination may be delayed for an indefinite period. In the three classes of the military school the pupil obtains instruction in the higher military duties. All students who fail to pass the class examinations about a great modification in this system. The Government began to realise that the maintenance of such a standing army, besides involving the direct expenditure annually of large sums of money, was inconsistent with the healthy development of the country's natural resources and industrial capabilities. The

**“Nai-Dap” schools**

In olden days it was compulsory for all able-bodied citizens, without exception, to serve in the army. There was practically universal conscription, and the kingdom was almost entirely under arms. A period of peace, however, extending over fully a century, brought completion of this period the pupil fails in his examination, he qualifies simply for the first class of the second reserve.

In the event of the number of officers being complete, the students who have passed their six classes satisfactorily are attached as sub-lieutenants to the Military School whilst waiting for vacancies.

The sub-lieutenants in the reserve study in the forces were reduced and a large part of the remaining army was supported by the creation of taxes payable by those not called upon to serve. Certain classes, too, consisting mainly of Government serfs and alien auxiliaries, were forced to exercise military duties hereditarily as a profession. But this system had many obvious drawbacks. Besides lowering the reputation of the soldier and the prestige of the

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**A BATTERY OF MOUNTAIN ARTILLERY.**

**A SQUADRON OF CAVALRY.**

**FIELD AMBULANCE CORPS.**

**A COMPANY OF INFANTRY FIRING.**
army generally, the recruiting was not spread uniformly over all classes of the people; moreover, men coming from most distant parts often found it impossible to reach headquarters in time. A solution of the difficulty was found recently in the adoption of a system of recruiting similar to that of a militia or cantonal one, with the underlying principle that all able-bodied citizens are expected to serve a term with the colours. For purposes of military organisation the country has been divided into "Monthons," or military districts, and here the men are recruited and drilled, so that the least possible inconvenience is caused; the men are able to perform their military duties near to their own homes, and when their presence under arms is no longer required are able to return at once to their previous occupations. This system was first put into practice in Korat, and the result was so satisfactory that it was extended to all parts of the kingdom, with the exception of Monthons Phayap and Isarn, where the system in force is purely a voluntary one.

**THE NAVY.**

The Siamese Navy, though small, is efficient, and while its actual fighting strength may be insignificant if the power of European nations is taken as a basis of comparison, there has been a thorough re-organisation during recent years and reforms effected in every department have made the service a vastly different thing to what it was a decade ago.

The first step towards building up the modern navy of Siam may be said to have taken place when the first royal yacht was built for his present Majesty's father, but the proper organisation and equipment of the fleet date only from the time when Captain, afterwards Sir, John Bush, K.C.B., entered the service of the Siamese Government. He was placed in command of all vessels. A number of European officers, most of whom were of British nationality, were employed to act as instructors, and from this time onward progress, although at times slow, has been continuous. When Admiral Bush retired, his place was taken by Lieutenant Richelieu, a Dane, and gradually British officers were superseded by fellow-countrymen of the new commander, and up to the present day European officers in the Siamese Navy are mostly drawn from Denmark. At the time when Lieutenant Richelieu came into prominence as an officer of high
standing the fleet consisted of several small yachts, or despatch boats, several sailing vessels, including the Tahan Komson the shell of which may now be seen rotting at low water outside the palace of the late Prince Mathira, and two paddle yachts. There was, however, no vessel having any pretension to speed which by any stretch of the imagination could be called a war-ship, and the Han Hak Sakon, a vessel of the coast defence type, was the most formidable of them all. She carried a large Armstrong gun forward, and was the boat which fired at and nearly sunk the French merchant vessel Jean Baptiste in 1893. Other principal vessels in the navy of that date included the Ran Vook, which had previously been used as a blockade runner by the Chinese, and was one of the fastest boats in the East, and a torpedo boat which, although now very much out of date, was then looked upon as an effective fighting machine. In the early nineties it was considered that the royal yachts Akami and Suriya were not sufficiently up to date, nor large enough for the requirements of His Majesty, and it was determined that a new yacht, the Maha Chatkrat, should be built in Europe. The order was placed with the well-known Scotch firm of Fleming and Ferguson, and up to the present day the yacht is not only by far the largest ship the navy possesses, but compares quite favourably with the yachts owned by European sovereigns.

She has a speed of 14½ knots an hour, and is armed with 47 and 6-lb. guns, but is without protection except for such as the gun-shields themselves afford. The Maha Rajabatmar, the second largest ship in the navy, was built by the Hongkong and Whampoa Dock Company for the Governor of his Spanish Majesty's possessions in the Philippines. She was purchased by the Siamese Government, and gave such satisfaction that it shortly afterwards decided to obtain a further vessel from the same company. This was the Muraltha, a small gunboat practically identical with the two other vessels, the Balf and Sagar, which afterwards came from Hongkong. These three boats are between 500 and 600 tons displacement, and have a speed of about 11 knots. The latest additions to the naval strength of Siam have been three thoroughly modern and up-to-date torpedo-boats and one torpedo-boat destroyer. These were obtained from Japan, and are the first war-ships the Japanese have ever built for a foreign country. Besides these ships the navy possesses two transports, various despatch and river boats, steam launches, &c., making a total in all of something like seventy vessels.

But while the actual fighting strength of the navy has greatly advanced during recent years, as far as the number of ships, their equipment and armaments are concerned, the great necessity of raising the standard of education amongst those men who are entrusted with the care of these ships has not been forgotten. Naval education is carried on in three schools, the Naval Cadet School, the Marine Officers' School, and the Petty Officers' School; and from these establishments a good supply of well-trained, efficient officers is obtained. In the old days it did not much matter whether the sailors and firemen were physically incapable of carrying out their duties or not. Providing they lived in the recruiting districts they were all considered eligible for service. Now, however, they all have to pass a medical examination before being accepted by the naval authorities.

The Naval Yard and Arsenal are situated in Bangkok, on the west side of the river, opposite the Royal palace. The dockyard contains the Admiralty and administrative offices, barracks for the men, drilling grounds, and artillery park. The dock has been rebuilt of concrete, and is now as well a made dock as there is in the East, and is quite capable of accommodating the largest ships in the navy. The whole department has been re-arranged and improved, and during recent years practically all new machinery has been introduced. There are patent slips, workshops, iron and brass foundries, carpenters' and sailmakers' shops, &c.; two shear-legs of different lifting, and all necessary appliances for the fitting out and repair of the ships.
The Monthon, or Province of Bangkok, is policed by a force consisting of 3,398 men, of whom 2,679 are employed in the town of Bangkok and the remainder in the outlying districts.

The force is divided into seven divisions, five of which are in the town proper and two outside the town. One of these is the Chinese branch, whose duties are connected with all matters appertaining to the large Chinese community, and in addition there is the special branch whose duties are explained further on. The force is divided into the following ranks:

- Commissioner ...
- Deputy Commissioner ...
- Divisional Superintendents ...
- Assistant Superintendents ...
- Chief Inspectors ...
- Inspectors ...
- Head Constables ...
- Sergeants ...
- Constables ...

Each division is under the direct command of a superintendent, who has under him assistants and chief inspectors who supervise the work of the circles into which each division is divided. The unit is the station circle, which is under the command of an inspector, head constable, or sergeant, according to its size and importance. The number of men attached to each station varies very greatly, being dependent on the density of the population in the station area and the consequent volume of crime that has to be dealt with. The largest stations have 120 men attached to them and the smallest only 24. In addition to these, in large areas where the population is thin there are also outposts. The total number of stations and outposts of the province is 88. The force consists of men of almost all nationalities, Siamese vastly preponderating, with a considerable force of Lao officers. The officers are recruited by examination after a period of training, the successful candidates being appointed to the rank of head constable.

The most important register kept in all police stations is the daily diary. In this register every occurrence of every sort that takes place within the station area and which is reported to the station is entered, together

in which are entered all complaints of a criminal nature made by the public. These complaints form a basis of all subsequent proceedings in the criminal court. The absconded offenders' register and the register of property seized by the police are also important registers found in every station. In addition to these there is a

GROUP OF POLICE OFFICERS AND MEN.
stations every night and visit the houses of the kamnan (village headman), putting their thumb prints in a book kept at the kamnan's house as a proof of their visit.

The special branch referred to above supervises the licensed pawnshops, of which there are 98. Each morning descriptions of all property stolen are sent to the special branch office, and copies of these are sent to all pawnshops. Under the Pawnbrokers Act, a pawnbroker who has received, or may subsequently receive, any articles described in such list must immediately inform the nearest police-station. To make sure he does so all lapsed pledges are examined by the special branch to make certain that no stolen property is amongst them. If any such are found, the pawnbroker, besides having to restore the property to the owner, is liable to prosecution. In order to detect thieves who have pawned stolen property, all persons when pawning goods are obliged to impress their right thumb-print on the counterfoil of the pawn ticket, which is retained in the pawnshop. This system has been found invaluable in innumerable instances in detecting persons who have pawned stolen property. In addition to its duties under the Pawnbrokers Act, the special branch supervises the plain-clothes staff of sergeants and constables who take duty in various parts of the town in the same way
as the uniform police, but, owing to their being dressed as ordinary citizens, they do not attract the attention of the criminal classes to the same extent as the uniform police, and consequently are frequently able to effect important captures. The special branch also keeps up a register of all foreigners entering Siam, which frequently proves very useful when inquiries are received from abroad regarding missing relatives and friends. There is also a small finger-print bureau, containing the finger-prints of all men who have been dismissed or who have deserted the force, to which reference is made whenever a man is enlisted. The bureau for identification of criminals is kept up by the officials of the Ministry of Justice at the industrial prison. From April 1, 1907, to March 31, 1908, 1,796 criminals were identified by their finger-prints, and from April 1, 1908, till July 31, 1908, 808 criminals have been so identified. The class of professional criminals in the Province of Bangkok is large. In the first place, the Chinese, who yearly enter the country in great numbers, contain amongst them a very considerable leavening of the professional criminal classes. Secondly, our neighbours in the Straits are constantly deporting professional Chinese criminals from their midst, and these not infrequently leave China very shortly after their arrival from deportation, and come to Siam to practise their trade. To meet this latter class we have a reciprocal arrangement with the Straits police, each sending to the other photographs, descriptions, and finger-
prints of those Chinese who may be deported. On the arrest of a Straits deportee in Bangkok he is immediately re-deported. The systematic deportation of Chinese professional criminals was only started in June, 1907, since which date, up to July 31, 1908, 214 have been deported. In March, 1908, a reformatory school was opened. There are now 39 youthful criminals in that school. The question as to the proper method of dealing with native-born professional criminals has received the anxious attention of the Siamese Government. Here, as in other countries, what to do with the professional, the man who will not live honestly, no matter what punishment he receives, is a problem that has been found difficult to solve. The solution decided upon is that of restricted residence. The right of free choice of residence enjoyed by other members of the community has been taken away from the professional criminal, and he is now being sent to the more sparsely populated portions of the country, where he will be under the direct supervision of Government officials, and where both his temptations and opportunities for crime are very restricted.

During the year ending March 31, 1908, 18,887 cases, involving the arrest of 15,058 persons, were reported to the Bangkok police; of these cases 7,915, involving the arrest of 8,023 persons, were for petty offences. The total number of persons actually prosecuted was 15,032, of whom 11,185 were convicted and 753 were pending trial on March 31, 1908.

The Police Hospital, besides attending to cases of sickness and injuries amongst members of the force, also treats persons wounded by criminals and victims of street accidents. During the year ending March 31, 1908, 3,848 persons, of whom 2,367 were out-patients, were treated at the hospital. Of the total number of patients, 1,771 were civilians; of the 1,761 treated for wounds, 296 were policemen wounded while on duty. Ninety-two persons, of whom 7 died, were the victims of accidents caused by vehicles in the street, 21 of the accidents, involving 4 deaths, being caused by tramcars; the same number, involving 3 deaths, by motor-cars, and the remainder by horse carriages. Post-mortems to the number of 162 were made during the year, 60 laboratory examinations of weapons and articles of clothing for blood, and 3 examinations in cases of suspected poisoning. The daily average of in-patients at the hospital was 334 persons.

THE PROVINCIAL GENDARMERIE.

OUTSIDE the capital and the surrounding province the country is policed by the gendarmerie, a body of military police, at the head of which is a military officer, as inspector-general, acting directly under the orders of the Ministry of Interior.

The gendarmerie was first introduced in the Monthon (circle) of Phichin in 1897, and its working extended to the other fourteen Monthons, viz.:

Monthon Krung Kao, 1898; Monthon Nakhon Chaisi, Monthon Nakhon Rajasima, Monthon Phayab, and Monthon Ratburi, 1899; Monthon

COLONEL G. SCHAU.

(Inspector-General (Phya Vasudeb) Provincial Gendarmerie.)

Udon and Monthon Nakhon Sawan, 1900; Monthon Nakhon Sri Dharmaraj, Monthon Patani, and Monthon Phitsanok, 1901; Monthon Isan, 1902; Monthon Champorn, 1903; Monthon Petchabun, 1904; Monthon Chaniaburi, 1905.

The strength of the force is now 270 officers and 8,000 non-commissioned officers and men, of whom 600 are mounted.

There are no less than 345 stations scattered over the country, which serve as centres for
the prevention and suppression of crime. Of these 15 are at the headquarters of the circles, 75 are in provincial towns, while 235 form the outposts. From each station patrols are sent out, chiefly during the night, who report themselves to the civil officials of each district, to whom they hand over any law-breakers they have arrested, and receive information of any crime committed. The work of administration is carried on by Siamese officers, who are assisted, at the present time, by thirteen Danish officers, as inspectors and instructors, stationed in the different circles according to the exigencies of the service. The chiefs of the gendarmerie stationed in the headquarters of the circles have the rank of lieutenant-colonels or majors, while those stationed in the provincial towns have the rank of captains or lieutenants. The chiefs of the outposts are non-commissioned officers. The strength of the station at the headquarters of a circle is about one hundred non-commissioned officers and men; the strength of the provincial town stations, fifty to seventy non-commissioned officers and men; while at each outpost are stationed not less than three non-commissioned officers and eight men.

The men undergo the usual military discipline, following the rules and regulations of the Siamese Army, and are armed with the Maunlicher magazine carbine, each man being allowed eighty cartridges a year for practice. The force is recruited by conscription from the army recruiting list, and the men, after serving for two years in the gendarmerie, are transferred to the army reserve.

In 1904 an officers' residential school was opened at Prapatom, in the Province of Nakhon Chaisi, and has proved a great success. The course is a three years' one, and the cadets are trained in military discipline, law, mathematics, geography, surveying, natural science, &c.

The cost of the force, including this school, is about two and a half million ticals (£187,500) a year.

**Colonel G. Schau**, the Inspector-General of the Provincial Gendarmerie, was born in Denmark in 1859. He retired from the Danish Army with the rank of lieutenant in 1884, and came to Siam, where he was engaged as instructor in the Siamese Army. He became chief of the non-commissioned officers' school, and served in various other military capacities until 1897, when he was transferred to the Ministry of Interior in order that he might devote his attention entirely to the organisation of the force of which he is now the head. The splendid work accomplished by the gendarmerie and the recognised efficiency of the force at the present day are in themselves testimony to the manner in which he carried out the responsible duty entrusted to him by the Government. His services have been of great value to the country, and in recognition of these his Majesty has conferred upon him the title of Colonel Phya Vasudeb, the highest Siamese title it is possible to bestow upon any one outside of the royal family.
FINANCE

By W. J. F. WILLIAMSON,
Financial Adviser to the Government of Siam.

GENERAL.

In financial matters Siam has made enormous strides during recent years, and its accounts are now compiled and presented in a manner which enables the progress made to be readily seen. The monetary unit is the tical, a silver coin weighing 15 grammes, or 2311 grains troy. A few years ago its value, for exchange purposes with other countries, was about one shilling, but it has been artificially raised by a method similar to that adopted in the case of the Indian rupee, and now stands at 1s. 6d., or 131/2 ticals to the pound sterling.

The following table gives the revenue and expenditure of the country for the last seventeen years, and when the rise in the value of the tical is taken into consideration, the increase in the figures becomes still more striking.

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<td>126 (1907-08)</td>
<td>55,825,000</td>
<td>50,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>127 (1908-09)</td>
<td>55,070,000</td>
<td>60,399,011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It will be seen that the revenue has increased year by year with great regularity, and there is no reason to suppose that it will not continue to grow as population and trade advance, though naturally it cannot be expected that the rate of progress will be as rapid for the future as it has been in the last few years.

An investigation into the details shows that the country is by no means heavily taxed, and that the increases in the above table are, only to a very small extent, the result of new taxation, or of more severe burdens on the people or the land; it can nearly all be ascribed to more efficient administration, and to development of natural resources. The more the system of Government improves, the smaller is the possible increase of revenue to be obtained by better methods of administration, but the natural wealth of the country is undoubtedly great, and in normal circumstances its development must result in increased revenue for a long time to come.

The table also shows that the expenditure keeps pace with the revenue. In many ways Siam may be considered a new country, and it is possible, at present, to expend on developments and improvements—both on administration and on public works, such as railways, canals, &c.—as much money as can be got together for the purpose. This is usually the experience in most countries, but particularly so in one which has only recently come to the front as an exponent of modern and up-to-date methods of government, and whose hands are to some extent tied by treaties entered into over half a century ago, when the conditions were totally and radically different from what they are now and have been for some years. Under these treaties the rates of taxation have been rigidly fixed, so far as the subjects of the foreign Powers are concerned, and while the Government has naturally had full liberty to impose what taxes it pleased on its own subjects, it will be readily understood that it did not desire to place heavier burdens on the latter than it was able to do on persons subject to extra-territorial jurisdiction. Hence, it was not found practicable to impose any new taxation or add to existing taxes for very many years, and the only modifications of any importance which have been made since the treaties were signed are the recent ones relating to the taxation on land, and the levy of fees for harbour, light, and boat dues.

By an arrangement with Great Britain, concluded a few years ago, any land held by the subjects of that power may now be taxed at rates not exceeding those charged on similar land in Lower Burma; an opportunity was thus given for the promulgation of a new law in 1905, raising the tax on certain classes of lands up to a maximum of 1 tical per rij, which corresponds to about 24 d. or 3s. 9d., per acre. The duties leviable under the Harbour Act formed the subject of special arrangement with the Powers, and came into force three years ago. It may here be noted, however, that the question of a complete revision of the treaty stipulations as regards taxation is now under close consideration, and it is hoped that the necessary negotiations may be entered into before long. The first step to this end has already been taken, Siam having formally announced her intention of proposing new arrangements in place of those provided for in the treaties.

The table on the next page shows the principal heads of revenue and expenditure, with the estimated figures for the year 127 (1908-09).

REVENUE.

The majority of the figures speak for themselves, but it is at once noticeable that a certain proportion of the revenue is still collected under the "Farm" system—that is to say, it is put up to auction and sold to the highest bidder, who thereby becomes the "farmer" for that class of revenue. Government has then no further concern with the actual collections, but has merely to see that the amount of the bid is duly paid in by the farmer, to whom authority, carefully limited and regulated, is delegated for collecting the revenue. This system is, however, being given up as rapidly as circumstances permit, in favour of direct collection by Government agents. The Farm system has had its advantages and uses in the past, but the administrative machinery is now so greatly improved that there no longer exists any necessity for delegating important revenue-collecting functions to persons who merely undertake the duty with a view to making a profit out of it. Moreover, it is found in practice that the system of putting up large sources of revenue to bid for at auctions results in considerable fluctuations in the amount of the bids, which tends to upset the budget estimates;
and further, that owing to emulation and competition among the bidders, the price offered is frequently higher than the farmer can actually afford to pay. The result is that he fails to act up to his promises, and a more or less serious loss of revenue ensues. For these and other reasons it has been definitely decided to do away with the farms as speedily as possible, and in a form which leaves remaining apart from a few miscellaneous farms, such as that for the right of collecting edible birds’ nests, will merely have the Gambling and Lottery Farms. These will have to be retained for the present for purposes of revenue.

As regards the Gambling Farms, it may be here remarked that the Government fully realises the objections, on moral and other grounds, to the State recognition of public gaming-houses and the participation by the State in the profits arising therefrom. As evidence of this recognition it will suffice to draw attention to the fact that on April 1, 1906, the last of the licensed gambling-houses in the provinces was closed, at a loss of three million ticals of revenue, and that the only establishments of this character now in existence in Siam are situated in Bangkok, the capital. Moreover, the Government has publicly announced its intention of completing the reform it has already inaugurated by abolishing these few remaining houses, as soon as the tariff negotiations previously referred to have been carried to a successful conclusion. The principal object of these negotiations is to arrange for the increase of the general import duty from its present figure of 3 per cent. ad valorem to a maximum of 10 per cent., and the additional revenue which this change will bring in is expected to cover the loss resulting from the final abolition of all licensed gambling-establishments in Siam. In the meantime the Government has given an earnest of its intentions by closing the provincial establishments. A further instance of the policy of abolishing the farming system is afforded by the case of the opium revenue. Up to the end of the year 1906 this was farmed out, as it had been for very many years past, but in January, 1907, the Government took over the principal farm, and in the current year two more farms have been abolished—leaving only a couple of insignificant ones still existing, viz., those of the distant province of Chittagong and Udorn, where together they bring in an estimated revenue of only 135,440 ticals out of a total gross figure of over 134 million.

The opium policy of the Government is at present in a state of transition. The intention is to ultimately suppress the use of the drug entirely, except for medicinal purposes, and the first step, which has already been taken, is to bring the opium revenue under the direct administration and control of the Government. This has necessitated the formation of a separate department, charged with the purchase of the raw drug, its preparation for consumption in the form required by the smokers, the distribution and sale of the prepared product through the agency of licensed vendors, and the collection of the proceeds of the sales. By this means the whole of the profits will accrue to the Government, with the exception of such salaries or commissions as may be granted to the retailers. Moreover, through the agency of the retail vendors and the local inspecting officers, it is hoped to establish a system of registration of smokers, with a view to the prevention of the spread of the habit and its gradual suppression as the ranks of the registered smokers are reduced through death or other causes. Heroic measures are not possible in a case like this, as the immediate cessation of the regularised supply would merely have the effect of completely dislocating the Government finances, without materially checking consumption. For it has to be borne in mind that the habit is strongly ingrained in large numbers of the inhabitants of the country, mostly those of Chinese extraction, and the demand for the drug is so imperious that it would be supplied, at whatever price, from illicit sources. Smuggling is even now carried on extensively, both by sea and across the land frontiers, and an enormous trade in contraband opium would immediately spring up if, without any change in the habits of the people, the Government supply were suddenly cut off.

It has been deemed best, therefore, to attempt the reform of the opium smoker (speaking collectively) step by step. This policy is, of course, not in consonance with the views held by certain impulsive reformers in Great Britain, but those who know the East best, and particularly the parts of it where opium is most extensively used, are almost unanimous in their opinion that the control of the drug is necessary. The idea underlying the system is that the land and all physical advantages which it possesses are the property of the Crown, and are held from the Crown by tenants who pay a portion of the produce of their holding in return for the privilege of tenancy.

The present system of registration of title to land was introduced into Siam in 1901, and was modelled, with necessary adaptions, on the well-known Torrens system, which is usually considered one of the best, and which, since its introduction into Australia by Sir Robert Torrens, has been adopted as a model in many parts of Europe and the United States. Up to 1905 the land in Siam was for the most
part taxed at a fixed rate (24 ells per rd, or, approximately, 1s. 5d. per acre) on the area actually cultivated, but in certain localities lands were taxed at a lower rate (16 ells per rd, or 1s. 1d. per acre) on the whole area held. In 1905 received from these leases, there are taxes on the fishing implements employed, levied by means of licences.

Another important head is Customs, which accounts for nearly six millions of revenue.

This includes both import and export duties—the former being at present levied at the rate of 3 per cent. ad valorem on all imports, except wines, beers, and spirits, which have a special tariff of their own, while the export duty is a varying one on such of the chief products of the country as are not subject to inland or transit duties. It has been mentioned in an earlier part of this article that the Government intends shortly to enter into negotiations with the Treaty Powers for a revision of the tariff on articles of import and export—the main features of the proposed new arrangements being the increase of the general import duty up to a maximum of 10 per cent., and the abolition of the export duty on a large number of miscellaneous articles now subject to the tax. The dutiable articles of export will then be confined to rice (husked or unhusked) elephants, and certain other goods being free.

The two quasi-commercial departments Forests and Mines—each bring in well over one million ticals, especially the latter. The Forest revenue consists mainly of rents of leases, royalties, and transit duties on timber collected at the Government duty stations on the Menam and Salween rivers; while the receipts under Mines are chiefly the result of royalties and export duties on tin. A large variety of minerals of different kinds is found in Siam, but tin is the only one of any great financial importance. It occurs in small quantities in parts of Northern Siam, but practically the whole of the amount extracted is from the Siamese portion of the Malay Peninsula, and especially from the province of Puket, on the West Coast.

The revenue from Posts and Telegraphs also exceeds one million ticals, but the expenditure is somewhat in excess of the receipts, and the service is thus carried on at present a loss. This, however, is inevitable, owing to the large extent of the country, the comparative sparseness of the population, and the consequent small return on inland traffic. The position in this respect is, nevertheless, better than it was a few years ago, despite largely increased expenditure on the extension of lines of communication, and it may be expected to show continued improvement as the development of the country proceeds.

A head which is already of great financial importance, and which is expected to prove even more profitable in the future, is Railway Traffic Receipts. For the year 1908-09 this head is expected to bring in over four million ticals, against an expenditure of just under two millions, while a further evidence of the profitable nature of this undertaking is shown by the fact that the nett return upon capital has risen from a little over 2½ per cent. in 1901-02 to about 3½ per cent. in 1906-07—the latest year for which figures are available.

The policy of constructing State railways was inaugurated in the year 1897, and up to March 31, 1904, the whole of the capital required for the purpose was provided out of current receipts. The actual expenditure from that source having aggregated over thirty-one million ticals in the course of thirteen years, being an average of nearly 2½ millions per annum. From the year 1904-05 onwards the expenditure on construction has been charged to loan, as it was found impossible any longer, owing to the growing demands of the various administrative departments, to meet out of revenue the heavy annual charges involved.

The first loan, raised at the beginning of 1905, was one of £1,000,000 (the whole of which sum has been spent on railway construction), and this was followed a couple of years later by a second emission of £1,500,000, of which a considerable portion is still in hand.

The length of the open lines of the Siamese State Railways at present amounts to 777 kilometers (483 miles), as shown below:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Kms.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern line, with branch to Korat 355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patchari or Western line ... ... 158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patriew or Eastern line ... ... 63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total ... ... 777</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Slaughter Licence Fees annually bring in over one million ticals, many of which may be slaughtered for food, either in Bangkok or in the provinces, except at the Government abattoirs, or at the private licensed slaughter-houses, worked under Government supervision, which exist in certain places.

Nearly one and three-quarter million ticals appear as the gross revenue from the Octroi duties, which are payable on commodities not

W. J. P. WILLIAMSON. (Financial Adviser to his Siamese Majesty's Government.)
liable to the export duties. The net revenue from these duties is very much less than the figure above given, as the cost of collecting the expenditure is as far as possible classified according to ministries—that is to say, all amounts expended are grouped together.

year 1908-09, the first on the list is the Ministry of the Interior (11,180,758 ticats), which controls the gendarmerie (2,595,168 ticats).

Octroi is considerable. The Government is considering the question of the abolition of these duties, as it is considered that they have an indirect evil effect on the trade of the country, but the obstacle, of course, is the financial one, and this is insuperable at present. It is hoped, however, that when the new customs tariff is sanctioned to which reference has been made more than once before, it may be possible to carry out this reform along with the abolition of the remaining gambling farms.

The only other important revenue head is Capitation Taxes, which is an annual tax on males of certain classes of Siamese, in place of the compulsory service and contributions formerly rendered to the State under the old quasi-feudal system. The Chinese portion of the population is not liable to this tax, but instead of it a poll-tax is levied on every male Chinese (with certain specified exceptions) once in every three years.

EXPENDITURE.

The expenditure of the Government has, as previously stated, kept pace with the revenue, and will continue to do so, as it is clear that many years must elapse before there can be any difficulty in profitably spending money in developing the resources of the country and improving the administrative machinery. In the Government accounts the

against the ministry under which they were expended.

Taking the figures of the estimates for the Revenue Department (1,908,064 ticats), the Provincial Administration (5,646,769 ticats) and the Forest Department (477,618 ticats) for
the whole country, with the exception of the capital and the province in which it is situated. Next comes the Ministry of War (14,270,854 ticais), including the army (16,000,000 ticais), the navy (3,000,000 ticais), and War Office (570,854 ticais).

The estimated expenditure of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is 918,600 ticais, of which 606,759 ticais is for legations and consulates abroad—the remainder (311,641 ticais) being the annual cost of the central administration of the ministry.

The Ministry of Local Government, which controls the capital city of Bangkok and the province enclosing it, is responsible for an annual expenditure of 3,034,530 ticais, of which 1,644,153 ticais is for the Sanitary Department, and 1,409,577 ticais for the upkeep of the police of the city and province. The remainder is divided among the Bangkok Revenue Department, the Harbour Master's Department, and the central administration of the ministry.

The Ministry of Finance is estimated to expend 5,719,407 ticais, of which the recently formed Government Opium Administration is responsible for no less than 3,883,400 ticais, or 67 per cent.—the greater portion of the latter sum representing the cost price of the raw opium. The central administration of the ministry, the Comptroller-General's Office, Central and Provincial Treasuries, Customs Department, Royal Mint, and Paper Currency Department together cost the remaining sum of 1,836,007 ticais.

The expenditure of the Ministry of Justice amounts to a sum of 3,722,547 ticais. The greater portion of this is spent upon the courts of justice, while nearly half a million represents the cost of the maintenance of the gaols.

The Ministry of Public Instruction and Worship accounts for 1,527,270 ticais, more than half of which sum is expended on education—the remainder being divided among hospitals, the Ecclesiastical Department, and the central administration of the ministry.

The Ministry of Public Works has charge of ordinary public works, posts and telegraphs, and railways. Of these the Department of Public Works costs half a million ticais, and the posts and telegraphs 1,358,035 ticais, while the expenditure on railway traffic amounts to 1,632,104 ticais.

against estimated receipts of 4,100,000 ticais. The total expenditure of this ministry is 3,054,052 ticais.

The Ministry of Agriculture spends 3,238,363 ticais, chiefly upon the Survey and Irrigation Departments, the budgets of which amount to about one million ticais each—other heads being Land Registration and Records, Special Land Commissioners, Sericulture and Mines.

The system thus introduced was based on the one adopted in India in 1863, and is usually known as the Gold Exchange Standard—its distinctive features being a silver currency of unlimited legal tender, the value of which is raised, by restricting the output, to such a figure as may be desired, and the issues of which are made only against gold. The successful working of such a system depends, in its initial stages, entirely on the demand for the currency thus artificially raised in value, and as long as this demand continues, considerable profits are made out of the mintage. It is imperative, however, that a gold reserve be created (not necessarily in the country itself), for the purpose of supporting the standard at the exchange value fixed for it by the Government, by offering gold for currency whenever the latter shows any signs of weakness or redundancy. In principle, therefore, the system is the same in all essential features as that of any other fiduciary currency, such, for instance, as an issue of paper money, and for its ultimate establishment it depends on the provision of an adequate reserve of the metal on which the value of the tokens is based. In the case of silver coins whose value is stated in terms of gold, at a figure above that of their intrinsic worth, this reserve must necessarily be a gold one, and the least costly way of providing the required stock of the yellow metal is by gradually building it up out of the profits of the coinage. This is the method adopted by the
Indian Government. For its attainment, however, it is essential that for a long series of years after the introduction of the Gold Exchange Standard the requirements of trade shall be such that a steady demand is made on the Treasury for considerable supplies of the artificially raised currency. In such circumstances if may be possible (and in the case of the Indian currency it has been so) to accumulate a sufficient reserve out of the profits of the coinage to support the currency when, owing to adverse trade conditions, its volume is greater than the requirements of trade demand.

In cases where circumstances do not permit of this easy and inexpensive method of creating the required reserve, it becomes necessary, when the demand for gold arises, owing to an unfavourable trade position, to provide it by loan or otherwise, and this is what Siam has had to do. At the beginning of 1907 a loan of £3,000,000 was raised in Europe, of which one third was set aside for exchange purposes—the balance being destined for railway construction. With this £1,000,000 the Government has met the situation created by the trade depression of the years 1907 and 1908 by selling sterling transfers, and has thus been enabled to maintain the exchange value of the tical. A large quantity of redundant currency has thus been withdrawn from circulation, and when this is released again in conformity with the demands of trade, as it is certain to be in due course, the gold reserve of the Government will once again be replenished. Later on, when the coinage of new ticals is undertaken to meet yet further demands for currency, the profits arising from this coinage will go to swell the reserve, and eventually it is hoped that, when these accumulated profits amount to a sufficient figure, it may be possible to revalue, out of them, the £1,000,000 of loan money with which the reserve has been started.

The above is a brief general statement of the recent currency policy of the Government and its present situation, but a further development may shortly be expected in the direction of the introduction of a gold coin, of the value of 10 ticals, and of legal tender. In the latter respect, the new coin will circulate on an equal footing with the silver tical, which will at first, and probably for many years to come, remain unlimited legal tender. It is expected, however, that as time goes on the metallic currency will bear an increasingly large proportion of gold, and this tendency will undoubtedly give stability to the monetary position of the country.

The Siam Commercial Bank.

(See p. 120.)
and 5 ticals denominations, of which the circulation amounted, on March 31, 1908, to a sum of 11,754,040 ticals. This was secured by a special cash reserve, entirely distinct from the general Treasury funds, amounting to 9,003,474 ticals—the balance, representing 30 per cent, of the notes in circulation, being invested in Consols and other Government stocks. The law allows of the investment of 50 per cent, of the reserve, but the percentage actually invested is always a lower one, to provide a sufficient margin for fluctuations.

THE JOO SENG HENG BANK.

In view of the enormous amount of business in Siam which is solely in the hands of Chinese, it is somewhat remarkable that until comparatively recently there was not a Chinese banking house in Bangkok. However, encouraged by the success which had attended the opening of Chinese financial institutions in Singapore, Mr. S. Joo Seng, some four years ago, decided to establish a Chinese bank in his native city. The now well-known Joo Seng Heng Bank was the result. This institution rapidly acquired an important position in financial circles, and is now conducting an extensive and important business. Indeed, so marked has the bank's success been that it is now on the eve of being formed into a limited liability company, with a locally subscribed capital of ticals 3,000,000, while branches of the bank are about to be opened all over Siam. The new company will be under the control of a strong board of directors.

Mr. S. Joo Seng, the founder of this rapidly extending business, has a right to be styled the pioneer of Chinese banking in Siam. He was educated in English, Siamese, and Chinese in Bangkok, and since starting upon his business career has been responsible for initiating and placing on a sound basis many important commercial and financial undertakings.

BANQUE DE L'INDO-Chine.

French financial interests in Siam are represented by a branch of the Banque de l'Indo-Chine, which addition to the well-known French bank's many Eastern branches was made on February 27, 1897. The Bangkok branch conducts all the usual banking business, and buys and sells drafts, letters of credit, &c., on all the leading cities of the world. In 1899 they issued a series of local notes, but these were withdrawn at the request of the Government on the opening of the paper currency office. During recent years the business of the
bank has developed very rapidly, and in 1908 they moved their offices to the new premises which had been specially erected for them on the west bank of the river. The building has an imposing external appearance, and forms a conspicuous feature of that part of the town where it is located.

The manager of the Bangkok branch is Mr. Camille Henry. He has held his present position for the last two years, but was previously connected with the bank's business in Siam for a considerable period immediately following the opening of the branch. The staff consists of two European officers, a number of assistants and clerks, and Chinese employes under an experienced compradore.

**HONGKONG AND SHANGHAI BANKING CORPORATION, LTD.**

The growth of European business in Siam led to the opening of a branch of this famous Eastern banking corporation in 1888. The Hongkong and Shanghai Bank has thus the distinction of being the pioneer bank of Siam, for prior to that date there was no institution of the kind, either European or native, in Bangkok. The first manager of the branch was Mr. J. M. R. Smith, now chief manager for the corporation at Hongkong, and under his charge it soon began to make its influence felt in Siamese business circles. Until some years ago the bank issued its own notes for the convenience of traders, but these have now been withdrawn in favour of the Government note issue.

The bank premises are situated on the east bank of the Menam river, close to the centre of
the business portion of the town. The bank's agent in Bangkok is Mr. A. H. Barlow, who has been connected with the corporation in various parts of the East for several years past.

THE SIAM COMMERCIAL BANK, LTD.

This Siamese banking corporation was formed, under royal charter, in 1906 to take over a money-lending business up to that time carried on by a society called the Book Club. Its founders, however, soon realised the greater possibilities of their undertaking, and acquiring a capital of three million ticals, amongst both European and Siamese, they embarked upon an ordinary banking business on European lines. The bank's premises are conveniently situated in the city portion of Bangkok. The European department is under the control of Mr. P. Schwarze, whose services are lent by the Deutsche Asiatische Bank, with which corporation the Siam Commercial Bank is closely connected. The Siamese business is managed by his Excellency Phra Sanchakarn, a gentleman well known in official and financial circles throughout Siam. The bank's business is rapidly outgrowing the present premises, and these are now being replaced by a new and much larger structure on the banks of the Menam river.

THE CHARTERED BANK OF INDIA, AUSTRALIA, AND CHINA, LTD.

Opened in 1864, the Bangkok branch of this well-known banking corporation was the second bank to be established in Siam. The premises, which are situated on the river front between the French Legation and the Oriental Hotel, have been occupied by the bank for many years, but as they have now become unfit and inadequate for their purpose, a large, well-appointed, and up-to-date structure is in course of erection near the site of the present building.

The paid-up capital of the bank is £1,200,000; the reserve fund, £1,525,000, while the further liability of proprietors is £1,200,000.

The corporation grants drafts and bills and receive for collection bills of exchange on London and the principal commercial centres in Europe, India, Australia, America, China, and Japan, and transact every description of banking and exchange business. Their head office is in London, and they have branches and agencies in New York, Hamburg, Batavia, Bombay, Calcutta, Cebu, Colombo, Foochow, Hankow, Hongkong, Ipoh, Kolkata, Kuala Lumpur, Madras, Manila, Medan (Deli), Rangoon, Saigon, Shanghai, Singapore, Sourabaya, Tientsin, Yokohama, and Pinang.

The agent in Siam is Mr. W. S. Livingstone, and his staff consists of three Europeans and several native assistants.
ROYAL SURVEY WORK

By R. W. GIBLIN, F.R.G.S.,
Director of the Royal Survey Department.

Historical Sketch.

As yet present the Government surveys for triangulation, topographic, revenue, and general administrative purposes are carried out entirely by the Royal Survey Department, with some trifling exceptions, such as charts for the coast-line by the navy and maps which the army may require of routes in certain districts, &c. Before presenting any account of the work of the Royal Survey Department, it will be of interest to give an outline of the condition of survey work in Siam immediately preceding the formation of the department, and which in fact led to its creation.

About the year 1875 the necessity for surveys in connection with improvements in the city of Bangkok, and for supervision in carrying out these improvements, led to the selection of certain officers of the royal bodyguard for training in this direction. These officers were formed into a special company called "Military Engineers of the Royal Bodyguard." Their commander was the late Mr. Alabaster, his Majesty's adviser, who had under him as assistants the late Mr. Lottus, Luang Samosaw (afterwards made Praya Maha-yota), and Mom Rachawong Dung (now Mom Tewatira). The survey office was in the old Museum, now the National Library, near the royal palace.

In the year 1880 a secondary triangulation from the Eastern Frontier Series of the Survey of India Trigonometrical Branch was brought down to Bangkok under one of the officers of the Survey of India survey party, Mr. James McCarthy, and after his completion he was engaged as Government Surveyor by the Minister of War, Chao Praya Suriwong. The records of the Royal Survey Department as it exists to-day may be said to date from the employment of Mr. McCarthy's services by H.M.'s Government, though, as will be seen, its actual formation as a department did not take place till later.

The following extract from a work on the great trigonometrical survey of India, by Charles E. D. Black, published in 1891 by order of the Secretary of State for India, refers to this trigonometrical connection of Bangkok with Tavoy as follows:

"The close of the season 1875-76 saw the line of principal triangulation called the Eastern Frontier Series had been brought down to the vicinity of Tavoy, whence during 1876-77 it was carried forward in all a distance of 92 miles, first by Mr. H. Beverley and afterwards by Captain J. Hill, R.E., who assumed command. During the ensuing season, the trigonometrical measurements were advanced a distance of 65 miles, the position of the town of Tavoy was fixed, as well as that of the 'Three Pagodas,' an important and well-known mark on the boundary between Siam and Tenasserim... This series had now reached a point about 35 miles south of Tavoy, from which the direct distance to Bangkok, the capital of Siam, was only 90 miles, while the distance round the coast was fully 2,000 miles.

"As a check on the marine surveys it was very desirable for a chain of triangles to be carried across into Siamese territory, and to this the King of Siam readily assented. Singularly enough, the trail of British territory lying up to the Siamese boundary, though only 42 miles in width, proved the most difficult piece of all, the hills (composed chiefly of metamorphic rocks) being generally flat with no commanding points, while the dense tropical vegetation and unusually long rainy season of 1878 were further obstacles to speedy progress. Once across the frontier the country suddenly became more favourable, and with the ready co-operation of Siamese officials good progress was made up to within 25 miles of Bangkok, the remaining sections being completed by Captain Hill late in the following year, and by Mr. McCarthy at the beginning of the season 1880-81. Mr. McCarthy also determined the position of the six next most important towns in Siam; one of the stations selected was the celebrated Phra Prathom Pagoda, the largest in Siam. The outside circuit of its enclosure is 3,551 feet. Within this enclosure is a great bell-shaped spire springs to a height of 347 feet above the ground. Besides these places the positions of several hill peaks on both sides of the head of the Gulf of Siam were determined, compass sketches made of several of the chief rivers and canals, and a plan of Bangkok prepared on the scale of 4 miles to the inch.

"In November, 1880, Mr. McCarthy was requested by the British Vice-Consul, Mr. Newman, to accompany a Siamese telegraphic expedition then about to start for the Natya-dung Pass, on the British frontier, about 55 miles higher up than the Amya Pass, by which the survey party had crossed into Siam. The whole route up to the former pass was measured with cane ropes, and Mr. McCarthy was also enabled to get bearings to fresh peaks and to affix the names to some already observed. He returned to Moulmein on April 12, 1881, having been employed on field duty nearly eighteen months, and having won good opinions in his dealings with the Siamese officials.

"Towards the end of the year 1881 Mr. McCarthy was despatched to examine a route for a telegraph line between Bangkok and Moulmein via Raheng. The Indian Eastern Frontier Series Trigonometrical Survey had fixed the position of some mountain peaks west of Raheng, and Mr. McCarthy connected these peaks with Raheng by a small series of tri-
a Survey Department, and when Mr. McCarthy returned from Raheng in the latter half of the year 1882, H.R.H. obtained him from the Telegraph Department to assist in carrying out this idea. A school for the training of Siamese in surveying was opened under the Ministry of the Interior at Bang-pa-in, where

 trained were employed was a large scale survey of the Sampeng district of Bangkok. On December 25, 1882, Mr. McCarthy was sent north to map the country in the valley of the Menam Tun, a tributary of the Menam Ping, for the purpose of settling a dispute as to the boundary between the districts of Chiengmai and Raheng. He returned to Bangkok at the beginning of the rains in 1883, and was almost immediately despatched to the Malay Peninsula as surveyor to the commission then engaged on fixing the Kuman-Perak boundary, being absent from Bangkok from June 10 to November 9, 1883. The north-west frontier of Siam was at that time in a very disturbed condition owing to the inroads of Haw (Yun-nanese) marauders, and it was considered desirable to have a topographical survey made of certain districts in that neighbourhood.

On January 16, 1884, Mr. McCarthy, accompanied by Mr. G. Bush, seven Siamese surveyors, and an escort of two hundred soldiers under Mr. Leonowens, left Bangkok to undertake the survey of the north-east frontier. The party travelled to Saraburi by river, and then marched to Korat, which was reached on January 30th. From Korat the route taken lay through Pimai, Potasieux and Kummpawat to Nawng Kai on the Menam Kong. From here Mr. Bush was despatched to Luang Prabang and Mr. McCarthy went to Wieng Chan and thence to Chiang Kong (Maang Puen). Passing through Muang Fang and Nga, he descended the Menam Chan to the Menam Kong, by which he returned to Nawng Kai. He reached Luang Prabang by the end of May and prepared to spend the rainy season there. Fever, however, attacked the party, the escort had to be disbanded, and on June 26th Mr. Bush died of fever, and on July 13th Mr. McCarthy and the rest of the party left Luang Prabang for Bangkok. There Mr. D. J. Collins, from the Survey of India, joined Mr. McCarthy, the date of his entering the Siamese service being October 19th. On November 12, 1884, the party was accompanied by Rassamusen and thirty marines as escort, left Bangkok for the north. This time the route was by Utaradit and Muang Pek to Nan. Here the party was divided, Mr. McCarthy and Mr. Collins proceeding by different routes to Luang Prabang. From here the party went to join the Siamese army, then operating against the Haw raiders at Tung Chiang Kam, which was reached on February 22, 1885. After spending twenty days with the army the escort was sent to Luang Prabang, and Messrs. McCarthy and Collins conducted explorations and topographical surveys in the country across the Menam Kong, north and east of Luang Prabang. The party reassembled on June 1st at Luang Prabang, and Mr. McCarthy returned from thence to Bangkok.

Hitherto the Siamese surveyors had been still considered part of the royal bodyguard, in which Mr. McCarthy held the rank of captain, but on Thursday, September 3, 1885, a royal decree was issued separating the surveyors from the royal bodyguard and creating the Royal Survey Department.

Towards the end of this year Mr. McCarthy again proceeded north reaching Luang Prabang early in 1886. Here he was delayed for some months awaiting the arrival of Praya Surasak (now Chao Praya Surasak), general of the army. When the latter arrived the rains had all but commenced, and it was too late in the season to start survey operations on any extended scale. As his presence with the army under Praya Surasak was not then required, Mr. McCarthy shortly afterwards returned to Bangkok, taking with him at Praya Surasak's request, two of the European officers of the latter, Captain Sinson and Mr. Chunis. The year (1886) was spent chiefly in making surveys in Bangkok and its neighbourhood.

The closing months of that year found Mr. McCarthy again on his way to the north, accompanied by two of the European officers attached to the department, namely, Messrs.
Collins and Louis de Richelieu, the latter on loan from the navy. Travelling by Chiangmai and Luang Prabang, they reached Muang Teng, north of Luang Prabang, on December 16, 1886. The Siamese army under Praya Surasak, operating against the Haw, was then there. Surveys were required by Praya Surasak for military and administrative purposes. However, Mr. de Richelieu fell ill and had to return to Bangkok at once. Mr. McCarthy fell ill with fever in December, and on January 10, 1887, the party left for Luang Prabang, returning thence directly to Bangkok. As in 1886, surveys in Bangkok and neighbourhood were the principal work of the year. In March, 1887, Mr. L. de Richelieu was permanently transferred from the Royal Navy to the Royal Survey Department.

In the following year (1888) a contract for railway surveys was made by the Siamese Government with Messrs. Peuchard & Co., and in 1888 and 1889 Mr. McCarthy accompanied the railway surveyors as the representative of the Government on the survey of the line from Bangkok to Chiangmai.

The next work of any consequence on which the department was engaged was that undertaken in 1890 on the north-west frontier for the purpose of determining the boundary between Siam and Burma. In the latter part of 1889 the department was instructed to undertake a thorough investigation of the northern boundary of Siam. On December 1st, the party, consisting of the Director, his assistant, Luang Tesa (now Praya Sri Sathadep, Vice-Minister of the Interior), and several Siamese surveyors, left Bangkok. Mr. de Richelieu was left in charge of the headquarters office. During the following year, while the main body of surveyors was in the north, certain cadastral maps were made of the neighbourhood of Bangkok. Early in 1890, triangulation all round the northern boundary of Siam was started at Chiangmai. Near to Chiangmai it was connected with the Survey of India Eastern Frontier extension system of triangulation. During the rains of 1891 most of the party remained in Chiangmai. Towards the end of the year some route surveys with chain and compass were carried out in Pa-yupp province.

In November, Mr. Smiles, from the Railway Survey Party, joined the department, and at the end of that month the party again took the field. Actual survey operations started from Chiang Kong on the Menam Kong on January 1, 1892, and Luang Prabang was reached on April 28th. From here Luang Tesa, who had been personal assistant to the Director for some years, was recalled to Bangkok to take up the important position of Secretary to the Ministry of the Interior, and made for those days a record journey, reaching the capital in thirteen days eight hours after travelling 755 miles—Luang Prabang by boat to Paklai, 135 miles; Paklai-Pichai, overland, walking, 125 miles; Pichai by boat to Bangkok, 315 miles.

Work was resumed in October, 1892, and concluded in June, 1893, when the party was recalled to Bangkok, France having claimed the whole of the country surveyed north and east of the Menam Kong. The party returned to Paklai and Utaradit, and reached Bangkok in August, 1893.

In 1894 a small series of triangles was pushed out from the Bangkok end of the Indian triangulation in the direction of Chantabun. During 1894—5—6 topographical surveys with chain and compass were carried on in several districts with a view to adding to the material already accumulated for a map of Siam. In April Mr. de Richelieu was retransferred to the Royal Navy Department. On November 1, 1894, Mr. R. W. Giblin, the present Director, joined the department. In December, 1894, and early in 1895, an attempt was made to further extend the southern series of triangulations, which it was hoped eventually to carry round the eastern frontier of Siam to join on to the north-eastern series, already completed. Owing to various difficulties the attempt had to be abandoned, and Messrs. Smiles and Giblin were sent to carry out a survey from Siemrat to Bassac, on the Mekong, and to exchange telegraphic signals with Bangkok at Bassac, to determine the longitude of the latter place. While 1896 it was completed, though it was not until 1897 that the department was enabled to publish a large scale and a small scale map of the country in English.

WAT CHE-DI-LUANG, CHIENGMAI.

(The Pagoda is a Trigonometrical Station and the point of origin or centre of the Survey of the Province of Nakawn Chain.)

PRAPATOM PAGODA.

The want of a cadastral survey for administrative and revenue purposes had been felt for some years. In 1890 the pressing need for such a survey, which would require all the
energies of the department to be devoted to its inception, caused the temporary abandonment of trigonometrical work, and the cadastral survey was started early in that year. It was not, however, until the year 1901 that the first-fruits of this survey were obtained. The following account, prepared some years ago by the writer, gives a description of what must be regarded as by no means the least important of the many acts of his Majesty the present King of Siam for the amelioration, welfare, and happiness of his people.

Registration of Title to Land in Siam.

For some years past one of the foremost questions under the consideration of H.S. Majesty’s Government has been that relating to the issue of title-deeds based on actual survey to holders of land and the registration of all changes in ownership which might subsequently take place.

The Royal Survey Department having now completed the cadastral survey of a large area of land, it has become possible to initiate the undertaking on a proper basis.

In introducing a new law, a new scheme of land legislation, it was necessary to move with extreme caution, so that—before becoming involved in the working of an immense piece of machinery—it might be proved that that machinery was without flaw and calculated to work smoothly. To secure this preliminary trial of the new order of things, an area of closely settled country near Bang-pa-in, about 75,000 rai in extent, was taken in hand in May, 1901, by Praya Pra-cha-chip, the Commissioner specially appointed by his Majesty the King, Minister of the Interior, who has himself taken the greatest interest in and powerfully helped to forward the movement.

Thus simply in the presence of his ministers and court the King started the operation of a new law for dealing with land in Siam—a law which is likely to have far-reaching effects in confirming all property holders in indisputable possession of their land, in enabling them to transfer or dispose of it in an easy and inexpensive manner, and, not least in importance, in informing both revenue collectors and owners of the exact amount due to the Government in the shape of land taxes for each property. Under the system obtaining previously to the introduction of the cadastral survey, when the lack of such a survey rendered registration impossible, endless disputes arose as to ownership in kind and the true boundaries of properties. In many cases these disputes remained unsettled for years.

The Special Commissioner appointed by the King to make a beginning, under the new law, in the province of Ayuthia, after receiving the printed large scale maps of the Survey Department, which showed the reputed boundaries of properties and were accompanied by lists of owners and records of disputes, caused each property to be examined by the officers, maps in hand, in the presence of the owner, his adjoining neighbours, and the local officials—the former pointing out his boundaries. The Commissioner had power granted to him to exercise judicial authority where cases of dispute occurred, when the value of the land involved did not exceed a certain sum, in which case recourse to the Land Court became necessary.

Each property dealt with so far has thus had its boundaries settled beyond dispute; the question of ownership, involving the examination of old title-deeds, or, where these were wanting, possession of other claims, has been decided, and the right to a title-deed established.

The new title-deed contains a description of the land, the conditions under which it is held, and the area of the land concerned, together with a diagram of the holding. Space is left for the insertion hereafter of any changes which may take place in the whole or any part of a holding through transfer by sale, mortgage, lease (for any time over three years), or inheritance. Two title-deeds for each property are prepared. One of these is to be kept in the Land Office of the province, and the other is to be handed to the holder of the pro-
property involved. Any subsequent change which may take place is entered on the proper forms in the presence of the Land Officer, who will register the transactions both in the title-deed, in the Land Registration Office, and in the copy held by the owner, and these will be the only legal form of transfer. The fees for all transfers have been published, and have been fixed, so that there should be no inducement to would-be purchasers and sellers, or mortgagees and mortgagees, to evade payment of the proper fees and transfer taxes.

The new scheme is, in fact, a modification of the well-known system introduced by Sir Robert Torrens, which has been adapted to Siamese laws and customs. Torrens' system was first introduced into the Australasian Colonies, and has since been adopted in Prussia and part of Switzerland, and, in a private form, in the United States. The advantages to the Government and to property holders in thus having a proper registration of all changes or transactions which take place after the issue of the title-deeds are great and important.

The mode of registration is simple to maintain, and, in return, a registry of the transfers of land. Searches in the history of each parcel of land are expeditions. Owners desiring on their own land are in a position to offer better security to lenders, who, in return, can make advances on terms more advantageous to the borrowers than formerly. The possibility of fraud in connection with the title to land must be greatly minimized, and as registered changes are shown in the title-deeds, the work of the Law Courts must be made easier. But an extremely important advantage, from the point of view of the revenue collector, of a proper system of registration is, that each piece of property can be dealt with by that official with exactness and even-handed justice. The registered owner, having a known and easement area of land, is liable to the Government for a certain amount of land tax, and this tax can be calculated by the owners as well as by the tax collector, so that the full amount due must be paid. Thus the Government, on its side, knows that it cannot be defrauded of revenue in any way, and on his side each owner can estimate that he is not being called upon by the revenue officer to pay a tax in excess of the strictly legal amount due from the area in his possession. Thus every piece of property can be accounted for, and the Treasury is placed in a position to know with exactitude the proper revenue to be derived from a holding, a district, a Muang, or a province.

To sum up, there is now in force a law at once simple, effective, and useful. That law, calculated to grapple with every difficulty which can arise in connection with the possession and transfer of land, will gradually do away with the innumerable disputes still existent and will increase the revenue of the country in a perfectly legitimate manner. By adopting it Siam has given another proof of its determination to grasp and adapt to her own use what is best in the law of other nations. In this particular case her action places her in the forefront as regards land legislation.

Continuation of Historical Sketch.

Up to the year 1897 the Survey Department was under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture. From March in that year to September in 1899 there was practically no Minister of Agriculture, and the Survey Department worked under the Ministry of Finance. In 1899, when H.E. Chao Praya Tewet was appointed Minister of Agriculture, with H.E. Praya Sri Suanwa Woham as Under-Secretary, the Survey Department reverted to its old ministry, and has continued since then under the same control.

In the year 1901 Mr. James McCarthy retired from the position of Director on a well-earned pension. For twenty years he had served the king and carried through an immense amount of work. This had required from him inexhaustible patience, untiring energy, and a power of determination to overcome all obstacles met with. To show its appreciation of his work as a cartographer the Royal Geographical Society bestowed on him, in 1909, the Trow's Medal. For his great services to geological science in exploring all parts of the kingdom of Siam, for his laborious work during twelve years in collecting materials for a map to form the basis of a survey system, and for his admirable map of Siam just completed," a work by Mr. McCarthy, "Surveying and Exploring in Siam," was published in 1908.

On the retirement of Mr. McCarthy his Majesty was pleased to appoint Mr. R. W. Giblin to be Director, and, in 1902, Mr. A. J. Irwin, B.A., B.A., A.M.I.C.E., to be Deputy-Director.

It was important that all survey work should be, for the most part, carried on by Siamese, and for this purpose the Department was fortunate in the services of Mr. Irwin, who has trained many Siamese to be self-respecting, self-reliant, and trustworthy for the performance of the actual work of the cadastral survey. Mr. Irwin joined the department in 1897, and except when on leave has always been in charge of the Survey School at Sapatum. This building, which was originally erected as a residence for H.R.H. the late Crown Prince, was acquired in 1897. In 1900 began to be used as an auxiliary office, owing to the increase in the numbers of trained Siamese. It is the intention of the Ministry of Agriculture that the Survey School shall be absorbed by a Technical School to be formed under the control of the ministry, to provide trained youths for the Survey Department, the Irrigation Department, and the Department of Agriculture. At the end of 1899 Survey Schools were opened in the country districts of Petchin, Phitsanulok, and Ayutthia. It was found, however, that the Bangkok school sufficed for the purpose, and the district schools were closed, that at Phitsanulok, however, continuing to exist till March, 1904. From twenty to thirty youths are turned out annually from the Sapatum School. Reference should be made to the fact that a beginning has been made in the training of Siamese youths for the higher positions of the department. Hilthero the young students from the Survey School were qualified only to carry on chain and compass and plane-table cadastral survey. A step in advance was required, and a student with a knowledge of English was obtained from the King's College, and after some years of training in the Survey Department was sent to Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., U.S.A., where he is now undergoing the course of training in mathematics and surveying furnished by that institution.

Present Staff.

The European staff at the present time (August, 1908) is shown in the following table—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Designation</th>
<th>No. of Officers</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
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<tr>
<td>Field Staff.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siamese</td>
<td>Palat Krom</td>
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<td></td>
<td>&quot;</td>
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<td></td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panaangkan</td>
<td>Traverse Panaangkan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First grade : Siamese, 5 ; Indian, 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drafting Branch.</td>
<td>Second grade : Siamese, 16 ; Indian, 3 ; 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>&quot;</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Assistant Draftsman.

J. R. Bell.

Officer in Charge of Photographic Branch.

P. Mackenzie.

The following table gives the numbers of Siamese officers who are permanently attached to the department, and it shows the different branches to which they belong.
It is only right to mention here by name the two senior Siamese officers, the Palat Krom; these men are Siamese and have taken both these officers were with Mr. McCarthy before the department was created, and both have done good work for the Government, and have set an example to others by their industry and attention to duty to the many young Siamese who have joined the service in later years.

**WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT.**

Before giving any account of the work of the department it may be as well to state here that all maps now published by the department are prepared and printed in Siam; that is to say, that the surveys on which the maps are based having been completed by the field staff, the maps are drawn by the drafting branch, and are then printed in the photo-zincographic branch of the department. Siamese, when trained, have shown themselves very fair field-surveyors. Instances of work neat and clever draftsmen, and excellent printers.

The best way to convey to some minds work that has been carried through or is in progress is by means of a scale diagram, but to many minds they appear only as unfathomable masses of figures. A short description will therefore be given of the different stages of the cadastral survey work which have been taken, in hand and are now being completed through, after which will follow a few tables to furnish results in a more condensed form.

Reference is made to the historical sketch given above to the cadastral survey which was started in 1896. It was by no means an easy matter to get together and train a body of men capable of doing such cadastral work efficiently, on a large scale, and giving a regular out-turn of reliable work. Success arrived, however, after some years of patient work, and when a body of over a hundred officers and inspectors, all Siamese, had been trained to do plane-table surveys in a workmanlike manner, it became possible to devote attention to training the best of them to work with a theodolite and chain to provide the traverse surveys on which the detail or held to field held surveys are based. Some years before a number of Indian subinspectors had to be brought from India to carry on this work, but during the last few years it has become possible, as Siamese were gradually trained in the method, to eliminate most of these Indians.

In the early days, too, Burmans were employed on the cadastral work, but they were not satisfactory, and experience has shown that local material furnishes the best results. Knowing the language and understanding the customs of the people, they find it easier than foreigners to get hold of transport and labour when they require it, and as any European officers who may be in charge of the parties have to learn to speak and to read Siamese, the giving of instructions, inspecting work and accounts, and the control generally, is much more satisfactory when Siamese are employed to do the work.

All cadastral plans are plotted, drawn, and printed to a scale of 1 to 4,000. It so happens that 40 metres or 4,000 centimetres are equal to one square kilometre, a convenient unit of measure, and for measurement. One centimetre, therefore, on this scale represents one cent, and this is found of great convenience. One square cent is equal to one cubic centimetre, the smallest unit for measurement. Each cadastral sheet is drawn 50 centimetres square and therefore the area of each sheet is 2,500 square centimetres, a quantity equal to 1,618.76 English acres. A well-known point in each province is taken when convenient as the centre of the origin of the survey of the province, and the whole province is cut up into imaginary but properly co-ordinated squares, each 2,500 acres in extent. Drawing an imaginary line north and south, and another line east and west through the point of origin, each square is numbered according to its position; thus we might have a square called 4N—3E, or another 6S—8W, the reference in each case being to the central point. As each square has its own number, any particular holding or area of land within that square is co-ordinated with respect to the point of origin. In the province of Bangkok the point of origin, the well-known pagoda, Pu Rua Tong; in the province of Nakawn Chai the pagoda at Prapatmon was selected, and this is the trigonometric station referred to above which was connected by Mr. McCarthy with the Eastern Frontier Series of the Survey of India.

To make the squares into which the country is supposed to be divided for convenience something more than imaginary divisions, the Survey Department is now putting down stones at the corners of the squares, and it is hoped that these may remain as permanent marks in the future to define the squares and to render the work of re-survey, where such is required, an easy matter.

For some years past the area of land cadastrally surveyed in each working season of six to seven months has amounted to well over one million rai, or 70,000 square miles, or more precisely, 64,000,000 acres. In the recess—that is, during the wet season, when the rains are on and the country too much covered with water for survey work—about one-third of the time is employed computing the areas of the holdings and making out lists of the owners. It should be remarked that the cadastral survey shows every physical feature on its maps, including the ridges of land which surround the rice fields, and a rice or paddy field, even if only a dozen yards square in extent, would be shown on the printed map.

Some years ago an estimate was made of the cost of this cadastral survey. The following is an extract from the Annual Report of the Survey Department for the year ending Sept. 30, 1905:

"A very careful calculation was made by Mr. Irwin early in this year as to the present cost of cadastral survey. It was found that the cost is 215 ares per rai, or less than shilling an acre, which for detailed survey must be considered very reasonable, when it is also considered that most of this large area could bear an annual tax of three times that amount. In estimating this cost every item of expenditure was included, such as instruments, field book, station, payroll, salaries, supervision, cost of time spent on computations, printing of maps, paper and printing thereof. It has been calculated that the survey may lead to an increase of 30 per cent. in the revenue derived from the land held, so that its cost will be paid for and over again and it is believed that the above cost is that of printing supplies of maps."

Owing to a rise in exchange value of the
In connection with this class of work it may be noted that the whole area covered by cadastral survey might well be included in that of topographical survey, as the cadastral sheets furnish the best data for topographical maps. The following table indicates very well the annual output of printed maps, plans, and other productions of the Royal Survey Department:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Number of Copies Printed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Departmental Maps</td>
<td>18,507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cadastral Plans</td>
<td>26,497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photogravures</td>
<td>1,106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous Maps</td>
<td>3,732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra Departmental Maps</td>
<td>9,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title-deed Forms</td>
<td>492,010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>550,392</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As showing the progress of the work of issuing title-deeds based on the cadastral survey, a work referred to at some length in an earlier part of this article, the following table will be of interest:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land Transfer Office</th>
<th>Number of Title-deeds Issued, August, 1908.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangkok</td>
<td>59,445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krungkao</td>
<td>75,030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nakawn Chaisi</td>
<td>25,316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chon-buri</td>
<td>20,744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cha-cherring-sao</td>
<td>17,977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>208,512</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mr. Ronald W. Giblin was born on January 3, 1863, at Hobart, Tasmania, being a son of Thomas Giblin, General Manager of the Bank of Van Diemen's Land. After receiving his education at the Hutchins School, Hobart, he devoted some years to pastoral pursuits on sheep and cattle stations in Tasmania and Queensland. In 1885, being attracted to surveying as a profession, he selected New South Wales as affording the best school of practice available, and passing the necessary examinations, was admitted as a licensed surveyor under the Government of New South Wales in 1886, and later on as an authorised surveyor in Thailand, being granted in addition in each of those States a certificate to practise under the Real Property Act. After some years of Government service and private work, Mr. Giblin was selected by Mr. G. H. Knibbs, then Lecturer of Surveying at the Sydney University (and now Statistician to the Commonwealth of Australia), who had been in communication with Mr. James McCarthy, Director of the Royal Survey Department of Siam, to proceed to that country to carry on a triangulation survey, and he arrived in Siam in December, 1894. In the years 1896 and 1898 during the absence from Siam on leave of Mr. McCarthy, Mr. Giblin acted as director of the department, and in 1901, when Mr. McCarthy retired on a pension, the Siamese Government appointed him Director.

Mr. Arthur J. Irwin, Deputy Director of the Royal Survey Department, Siam, is a native of Ireland. He was educated at Beaumont College, Old Windsor, Berks, and at Dublin University, from which he graduated in Arts and Civil Engineering in 1889. After spending some time as pupil to the late Mr. J. G. Coddington, M.Inst.C.E., he was employed from 1891 to 1897 on engineering works and on surveys in Ireland and abroad. In 1897 Mr. Irwin was appointed on the staff of the Royal Survey Department, Siam. Mr. Irwin is an associate member of the Institution of Civil Engineers.
BANGKOK, the capital of Siam, is situated on both sides of the river Menam Chow Phya, some fourteen miles, as the crow flies, from the bar. It is only a few feet above sea-level, in latitude 13° 58' N. and longitude 100° 34' W. With the kingdom of Siam in general, it is protected from violent changes in weather by reason of the high mountain ranges on its borders, which cut off the effects of the cyclones so prevalent in adjacent countries. The predominating influence in the climate is, of course, that of the monsoons. The north-east monsoon sets in early in November in the Gulf of Siam, but in Bangkok its influence is not usually felt until the middle of the month has been passed. The evenings are then delightfully cool, and the minimum temperature may fall to 66, 64, or even to 62° F. The coolest portion of the twenty-four hours is between 5 and 6.30 a.m. By 9 a.m., however, the thermometer will be found above 70° F., and in a good cool season not higher than 75° F. Until between 3 and 4 p.m. the temperature steadily rises to a maximum, even in our cool weather, of 88-90° and even 95°. December is throughout the coolest month of the year, the average mean temperature for four years being 76° F. Although hot during the daytime, the atmosphere is dry and bracing and the nights are cool, the mean of the minima being 66.5° F. The average rainfall, which consists of a shower or two about Christmas-day, amounts to only about half an inch. January is pretty much the same as December, but towards the end of the month the thermometer begins to gradually rise during the day, although the nights are still cool. In the early part of February the minimum temperature may be still below 70°, and even as late as February 14th temperatures of 50° F. may be recorded, but as the month wears out the real hot weather commences. During these four "cool" months—November, December, January, and February—there are several important factors which make for health. These are: considerable dryness of the atmosphere, low night temperature, and a very considerable daily range of temperature between the shade maximum and the shade minimum. This daily range of temperature is a most important item in climate, for even although the maximum day temperature be high, provided there be a considerable fall towards the minimum, the variation gives a fillip to the system and restful nights are assured. The average range for these four months is 16°, 21°, 22°, 23°, and 19° respectively. March, in its warmth, is the precursor of April, which is the hottest month of the year, the mean temperature being 86°-85° as compared with 76°-7° for December. The nights are hot, although, as a rule, there is a fairly strong breeze from the sea. It is the exception to see a perfectly dry April. Dark clouds are seen to buck up now and again, especially to the north of the city, and heavy showers of a short duration, preceded by an oppressive sultry hour or two and accompanied by thunder and lightning, are the welcome harbingers of the coming monsoon. On April 7, 1904, half fell in Bangkok— a phenomenon which, according to Dr. Campbell, is seen once in fifteen years. The average rainfall for the month is about 2

This article forms the substance of a paper read by Dr. Highet before the Siam Society.
inches. May brings the south-west monsoon, with the first of the real rains, the average rainfall totalling 10 inches with a mean of fourteen days' fall. From then until the end of October the rains continue, the averages for June being 5.6, for July 4.1, for August 5.9, for September 13.9, and for October 14.2. These wet months, the mean temperature remains almost uniformly at about 85°F, the days are hot and moist, and the nights cool. The upper reaches of the Siamese highlands are seldom above 75°F. The daily range, too, which is so excessive even during March and April, now amounts to about 15°. During November the rains cease and the dry season is again commencing the cycle which has just been described. It will be noted, therefore, that the lowest mean temperature occurs in December, that April is the hottest month of the year, that the highest temperature has been recorded in May—i.e., 104°F.—and the lowest in December and January—i.e., 50°F.—that the wettest month is September, the driest January, and that the greatest daily range of temperature is found during January, while the mean temperature for the whole year is 81°F., and the mean annual rainfall about 54 inches. Consequently, although the climate of the place is not a suitable one for colonists, it is yet such a one after all as sub-tropical climates go. Why Bangkok has gained such an enviable reputation for health conditions for Europeans is not due to the climate itself, but to certain conditions which partly depend upon climate and partly upon the want of initiative on the part of the Siamese Government with regard to schemes of sanitation. One of the most remarkable of the many striking results of the peculiarly sub-tropical diseases of the region is the fact that a factor in disease has been robbed of many of its old terrors. Much of the old dread of tropical countries can be lessened, if not entirely done away with, by sanitary measures. Given a pure water supply and an efficient method of drainage, Bangkok might well develop into one of the healthiest cities in the East.

The selection of the most suitable man for such a climate as that of Bangkok is naturally a most important matter, not only to the intending newcomer, but also to his employer. The best way to describe the proper sort of man will be to show what diseases or bodily conditions are likely to be unfavourable to this climate. Anaemia, or poverty of blood, handicaps a resident in the tropics at once. It is a well-established fact that a physiological or natural anaemia is soon established in all hot countries, no matter how full-blooded one may be on arrival. When this does not go too far, it makes for health and comfort by lessening the chance of headaches, sunstroke, and many other diseases. After prolonged stay in the tropics, or as a result of many of the climatic diseases, anaemia may develop into a veritable disease. It is well, therefore, that persons of an anaemic type should not select the tropics as a field for a career. Another unfavourable condition is a tendency to diarrhoea, constipation, or bowel complaints generally. Owing to the fact that in the tropics the abdominal organs, in Europeans, are in a more engorged condition—that is, they are relatively fuller of blood—than in temperate climates, and further, as the chances of sudden chills due to rapid changes of atmospheric temperature, thinned clothing, and a more active skin, are greater here, it is naturally found that bowel complaints are very frequent amongst Europeans. A tendency to diarrhoea may predispose to chronic tropical diarrhoea or sprue, to dysentery, and even to cholera or typhoid fever. Constipation, on the other hand, may be just as great a cause of sickness as diarrhoea. Here in the tropics very few Europeans enjoy an active outdoor life. The rule is rather a sedentary occupation, which keeps one indoors until four or five in the afternoon, when there is only left time for an hour and a half or at most two hours' exercise before sundown. The consequence is that a sluggish state of the bowels arises which causes a condition of chronic poisoning of the system. The actual presence of the liver and kidneys become deranged, digestion suffers, and one's mental faculties deteriorate. Of lung complaints contr-a-indicating residence in Bangkok, phthisis pulmonalis and asthma may be mentioned. A strong family tendency to pulmonary consumption makes one very chary, while the actual presence of the disease should emphatically forbid the passing of such a person. In Bangkok my experience is that phthisis pulmonalis is a very common disease amongst the Siamese, and in them often runs a very rapid course, but it is nothing to what one, now and again, sees in Europeans, especially young adults. In them the disease can truly be called "galloping consumption," and the only chance of prolonging life is immediate change to a temperate climate. Asthma is a disease of surprises. It may be a torture to a man in an excellent climate, and yet disappear while residing under what one might consider adverse circumstances. Nevertheless, it is not advisable for an asthmatic subject to come to Bangkok. The disease is common amongst the natives, and generally Europeans who are subject to it suffer badly in this low-lying, damp spot. It is a well-known fact that the lower one stays in the tropics the more one's "nerves" seem to suffer, and it will, therefore, be at once apparent that any condition suggesting instability of the nervous system, or any actual disease of the same, should contraindicate one coming East. The condition of the teeth, too, is an important factor to be reckoned with. No one should come to Bangkok with teeth in an active state of decay, or with so few sound teeth that thorough masti- cation of food is an impossibility. The presence of unsound teeth has been definitely proven to be the cause of pernicious anaemia in temperate climates. In tropical climates any additional where one has to tackle tough beef and tougher drier fowls. If a dentist cannot provide an efficient substitute for lost teeth, and cannot at the same time arrest decay in teeth still in the patient's mouth, a candidate for the East should not be passed. An important point to remember, but one which is too often neglected, is revaccination. This has been brought more forcibly to one's attention during these past two years in Bangkok. Quite a large number of Europeans have suffered from small-pox, and one fatal case at least has occurred. How much trouble and even disfigurement would have been saved had all these sufferers resorted to the simple precaution of revaccination! In Europe, where, fortunately, small-pox is now so rarely seen, revaccination is advisable every seven years. In a country like this, where one may often actually rub against persons in the most in- fectious stage of small-pox, the neglect to have oneself frequently vaccinated is little short of criminal folly. Another precaution in the way of prevention of disease may be mentioned, namely, inoculation against typhoid fever. Although the system is by no means perfected, and the protection afforded is infinitely less than that obtained by vaccination against small-pox, still the results have proved satisfactory enough to warrant one giving the inoculation a trial, especially in the case of young adults.

**Advice to New Residents.**

April is the unhealthiest month of the year as well as the hottest, and February is the healthiest. The line of sickness closely corre-

sponds with the range of highest mean temperature and the period of the rains. If possible, then, no arrival should be made during any of these hot, wet, and most unhealthy months. Such a time of the year is hard enough upon well-tried residents, but it is still harder upon young and full-blooded newcomers. Not only is it very hot during March and April, but the sanitary conditions of Bangkok are then at their worst. The level of

**ST. LOUIS GENERAL HOSPITAL.**

The river is at its lowest, cholera is often epidemic, and experience has proved that typhoid fever takes on its severest aspects at
this period of the year. The nights, too, are hot, and the combination of mosquitoes and sleepless nights soon tends to lower one's vitality and so predisposes one to contract disease. Towards the end of April and during May the south-west monsoon breaks, and while this transitional period lasts sickness is common. Fevers in general are most prevalent during May, June, and July, while typhoid fever is most prevalent during May and June, when the rains are setting in, and again in December, when they have ceased. Owing to

the sudden changes of temperature incident on the squalls during these months, chills on the liver and digestive organs are frequent, and more so in the persons of new arrivals who do not yet thoroughly understand how to guard against such accidents. It is better, then, not to arrive before the end of August, preferably not until the beginning of October. The mean atmospheric temperature for the latter month is about 82°, and the nights already begin to be cool. During November, December, and January there are frequent spells of quite delightful weather, when the minimum may fall as low as 50° F, between five and six o'clock in the morning. Arriving therefore in October, one gets accustomed to the heat and so undergoes somewhat of an acclimatisation before the hot weather sets in.

CLOTHING.

During the day the clothing should be light and loose fitting, the material being white drill, light thin flannel, or one of the light Indian silks. For underwear, perhaps the best material is Indian gauze. It is a good old rule to dress with the sun—i.e., to wear light, thin clothing during the day, but to change into somewhat warmer clothing at sundown. For night-wear thin flannel, vichy, or a mixture of silk and wool makes excellent sleeping suits. The chalera belt should always be worn when asleep in order to protect the abdominal organs from chill. In the tropics the liver especially is in a continual state of engorgement, and it is the general experience of medical men in this climate that chills on

the liver, stomach, and bowels form a very large percentage of all sicknesses to which Europeans and even natives are liable.

Food.

This is one thing, anyhow, in the East upon which one should never exert false economy. At its best the beef is not of the same nutritive value as meat killed in Western countries, owing to the habit of bleeding the cattle in the slaughter-house. The fowls, too, are poor in quality, and generally very tough, owing to the careless methods of preparation adopted by the Chinese cooks. If these would have the patience to properly pluck a fowl and hang it for a few hours, instead of killing, removing the feathers by immersion in boiling water, cooking, and serving up within an hour or two after the bird has been picking seeds in one's garden, one would appreciate chicken or capon nearly as much as at home. Being poor in quality and badly cooked, as a rule, one finds that one must make up in quantity for what one loses in quality. One must try to ring the changes of fertilisation employed by the Chinese market gardeners, lettuces and other green salads are harbourers of all sorts of disease-bringing germs, and many a case of typhoid fever has been traced to a tempting green salad, even although the vegetables have been most carefully washed. Tinned foods are to be avoided, and as a rule are not required in Bangkok, where fresh food can be so easily obtained. When tinned foods have to be employed the freshest only should be used, and any with the slightest taint discarded. It is a great pity that the law does not enforce the stamping upon each tin of the date of canning, for then many old stocks would be destroyed in place of being sold by the keepers of large stores to the smaller traders. In one's dietary extremes should be avoided. Too much butcher's meat is to be deprecated, as is also a tendency to vegetarianism bare and simple. Excess of animal food throws too much work on the liver and kidneys, while a vegetarian diet is not nourishing enough and does not supply sufficient blood-forming matter to make up for the persistent tendency to anaemia from which all Europeans suffer in hot countries. Some
few Europeans have adopted a Siamese dietary entirely, and seem to thrive upon it. As an experiment intended to be applicable to the condition of the majority of Europeans would soon find it a mistake.

DINK.

St. Paul’s advice to be temperate in all things applies with especial force to the use of alcohol in the tropics. Some residents can be total abstainers for years in this climate, and they generally enjoy better health and have fewer outbreaks of fever and cholera. Others, however, continue to drink very freely, and it is likely that they are losing something of the benefit which the climate might bring them. It is easy to see how this self-affirming spirit can lead one into the ultimate of drinking. However, if one is careful to have a clear spring of water at hand, and to be sensible in the use of water, there is likely to be no harm done. It is well to bear in mind that there are no hard and fast rules in the use of alcohol in the tropics, and that the best results will be obtained by a liberal use of good wines and spirits, as well as of the most wholesome of all drinks, water, in moderation.

EXERCISE.

One of the biggest mistakes which the Britisher especially makes in the East is the neglect of exercise. Exercise in moderation, such as walking on a beach or a deck of a steamer, is excellent for the blood circulation and is generally much more refreshing and lessening the heat of the body than any other exercise. However, it is well to be sure that the exercise is not too strenuous, and that it is not done in too hot a climate. Moreover, it is well to have a proper diet and proper exercise to keep the body in good condition.

SLEEP, BATHS, AND LEAVE.

Sleep, which is one of the greatest recuperative influences in temperate climates, is even of greater value in the tropics. One really requires a good night’s sleep in this climate. “Early to bed and early to rise” is a golden rule, for the longer one lives in the tropics the more needed it will become. A word in passing may be said of cold baths. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health. One should be careful not to overdo them, as they may be dangerous to health.
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

38. Police medical work.

1. THE SANITARY SERVICE.

The system of drainage in Bangkok is by means of large open drains—the khlongs or canals, which intersect the city at all points, flow into the river and are flushed daily by the rise and fall of the tide. There are street drains to carry off the surface water. The pall system of conservatism for the removal of night soil is employed. House refuse is removed daily in carts, and is used to fill up marshy places outside the city. There is a commodious up-to-date laboratory attached to the office of the Medical Officer of Health where analyses of various waters, foods, drugs, etc., are made.

2. PORT MEDICAL WORK.

The quarantine station is at the island of

MAIN CLIMATIC DATA FOR BANGKOK.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Mean Temperature</th>
<th>Mean Maximum Temperature</th>
<th>Mean Minimum Temperature</th>
<th>Mean Daily Range</th>
<th>Rainfall in Inches</th>
<th>Number of Rainy Days</th>
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</thead>
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<td>89°F</td>
<td>60°F</td>
<td>24°F</td>
<td>6°F</td>
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<tr>
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<td>79°F</td>
<td>94°F</td>
<td>67°F</td>
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<td>95</td>
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<td>18°F</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<tr>
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<td>84°F</td>
<td>91°F</td>
<td>65°F</td>
<td>15°F</td>
<td>1°F</td>
<td>17</td>
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<tr>
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<td>84°F</td>
<td>91°F</td>
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<td>21°F</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>84°F</td>
<td>93°F</td>
<td>73°F</td>
<td>12°F</td>
<td>1°F</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td>89°F</td>
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<td>17</td>
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<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>79°F</td>
<td>87°F</td>
<td>60°F</td>
<td>20°F</td>
<td>1°F</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Year | 81°F | 99°F | 73°F | 22°F | 1°F | 17 |

Koh Phra, in the Gulf of Siam, sixty miles away from the bar of the Menam river, it was found impossible to have it nearer to the port of Bangkok, as, owing to the shallowness of the water at the bar, ships drawing more than 14 feet cannot pass over, and have, consequently, to be loaded from lighters at the island of Koh Si Chang or at Anghin, according to the monsoon. Koh Phra is conveniently situated close by both islands and was erected chiefly for the purpose of controlling the coolie immigration from China ports. About 80,000 coolies reach Bangkok each year in about 200 ships, and all have to be passed by the quarantine inspector before they are allowed to enter the port. Quarantine sheds have been built to accommodate 2,000 coolies. Last year seventy people were quarantined, but in some years the number has reached 2,000.

3. THE GOVERNMENT HOSPITALS.

Previous to April, 1906, all Government hospitals except the Police Hospital were under the charge of the Educational Department; but after that date they were transferred to the Ministry of Local Government, and the immediate supervision of the Medical Officer of Health, though in almost every case they are directly in charge of Siamese doctors.

The Bangkruk Hospital, which is under the charge of T. Heyward Hays, M.D., is situated at Bangkruk, in the European quarter of Bangkok, and chiefly treats the accidents occurring at the various mills and large works close to it.
It can accommodate about twenty Siamese and ten European in-patients.

The Samsen Hospital, under the care of Luang Pet, is situated at Samsen, close to Dusit Park Palace, and has accommodation for thirty Siamese in-patients.

The Hospital for Infectious Diseases, which is the most recent building of its kind in Bangkok, is situated on the west side of the river, on Klong Sarn. It is under the direct supervision of Moh Mun, and consists of five wards, each capable of accommodating twenty patients comfortably, or fifty patients in case of emergency. Though there is no law for the notification of infectious diseases in Siam, except for plague, the hospital is usually fairly well occupied. Beriberi and cholera are the two main diseases treated, but other cases of infectious diseases are sent here from other hospitals and from the various departments of which the Medical Officer of Health has medical charge.

The lunatic asylum, situated near the Infectious Diseases Hospital, on Klong Sarn, can accommodate about 200 males and 50 females. Patients are sent to the asylum from all parts of Siam, and room has also to be found here for criminal lunatics. The building, however, is old and out of date, and will shortly be superseded, a site having been selected and plans already drawn up for a new hospital on the most modern lines.

Statistics.

Hospitals.

Record of patients resident in hospital:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total treated</th>
<th>Total discharged</th>
<th>Percentage discharged</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Police Hospital</td>
<td>1,514</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangkok</td>
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<tr>
<td>Samsen</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>30</td>
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<td>Isolation</td>
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<td>92</td>
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<td>Asylum for Insane</td>
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<td>25.6</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>2,206</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>12.7</td>
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Record of out-patients treated at the hospitals:

- Police Hospital: 2,397
- Bangkok: 11,457
- Samsen: 128

Total: 13,052

Statistics. Hospitals.


Dysentery 10 14 4 0 0 28
Diarrhoea 5 4 6 0 7 23
Cholera 15 17 3 44 79
Plague 0 0 0 9 9
Beriberi 3 0 0 39 66 138
Small-pox 0 0 0 0 0
Fever 4 5 1 0 10 0
Wounds 28 12 1 0 41 0
Other diseases 14 10 15 0 4 43
Total 79 62 30 92 107 370

RETURN OF CASES AND DEATHS FROM CHOLERA FOR YEAR 1907.

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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total number of cases treated in the hospitals was 120. The total number of deaths in the hospitals was 74, the percentage death rate being consequently 61.6. The number of deaths reported from the Wats was 1,714, so that out of the 1,854 cases of cholera recorded during the year 1,788 proved fatal. These figures, however, may prove somewhat misleading unless attention is directed to the fact that only the deaths from cholera are reported from the Wats. Statistics relating to the number of cases treated are not available.

Vaccination is performed free of charge at fifteen stations in Bangkok during the cold season, the lymph, which has given universal satisfaction throughout Siam, being obtained from the Government laboratory at Prapathom. Last year in Bangkok 3,660 children were vaccinated at these stations, with 69 failures.

The Government abattoirs are situated at Bangkotem, about three miles from the city. Here all cattle imported into Bangkok are quarantined for a period of eight days. Cattle and sheep intended for food are only allowed to be slaughtered here, and the meat is inspected daily by the Government veterinary surgeon. The meat is transported in a specially constructed tramcar to the butchers' shops, so that perfect cleanliness is assured.

About 15,000 head of cattle are admitted into the abattoirs each year. On an average 3,000 are exported to Singapore and about 12,000 are slaughtered for food. The export figure, however, in some years has reached 8,000.

Such is the brief outline of the work under the direct control of the Government department, but there are other medical agencies in Bangkok which do not come within their jurisdiction to which brief reference should be made. The military and naval hospitals, for instance, are controlled by military and naval officers, who are answerable only to their respective departments for the efficient carrying out of their various responsibilities, while the

SIMPLE CLASSIFICATION OF DISEASES OF PATIENTS TREATED AT THE VARIOUS HOSPITALS DURING 1907.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>Police Hospital</th>
<th>Bangrak</th>
<th>Samsen</th>
<th>Isolation</th>
<th>Asylum for Insane</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dysentery</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diarrhoea</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cholera</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plague</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beriberi</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small-pox</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclassified Fever</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other diseases</td>
<td>1,066</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclassified outdoor Patients</td>
<td>2,024</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>11,457</td>
<td>1,777</td>
<td>11,895</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Wang Lang Hospital and the medical school are controlled by the heads of the Educational Department, who appoint both Siamese and European lecturers for the instruction of young students in the different branches of medical science. There are also two purely foreign medical institutions—the St. Louis Hospital and the Bangkok Nursing Home. The first-named is partially supported by the French Government, and is under the control of the French Legation. Dr. A. Poix, a French naval surgeon, is the medical officer in charge, and he has a nursing staff consisting of a Lady Superior and eleven European nurses. The Bangkok Nursing Home, which is situated near the Protestant Church, in the healthiest part of Bangkok, is supported by all the large firms, irrespective of nationality. It is in charge of a matron and three European nurses, and, there being no resident physician, the patients are attended by their respective medical advisers.

**CHINESE HOSPITAL.**

The Chinese hospital, which is situated just off the New-road, was erected some four years ago at a cost of 115,000 ticals, the money being provided by public subscription among the members of the Chinese community. The wards are large and airy, and have accommodation for some two hundred patients. The hospital is maintained by monthly subscriptions among the Chinese, and its control is vested in a committee elected annually by the subscribers. The officers for the present year are: Mr. Lam Sam, president; Mr. Tan Kai Ho, vice-president; Mr. Ng Yuk Lam, acting president; Mr. Tan Teck Joo, acting vice-president; Mr. Wong Chin Keng, director.

Dr. E. Reytter, the physician to his Majesty the King of Siam, is a native of Belgium. Born in 1866, he was educated at Brussels University, graduating in 1885. Practicing at the hospitals of St. John and St. Peter in Brussels was followed by a period of service as a military surgeon. In 1886 he received an appointment in the Congo State, and remained there as Chief Government Surgeon until 1895.

Dr. T. Heyward Hays, who now holds the combined positions of Principal Medical Officer to H.S.M.'s Navy, Medical Adviser to the Royal Railway Department, and Superintendent of the Buripah Hospital, is one of the oldest medical practitioners in Siam. He obtained his professional training in America, and arriving at Bangkok in October, 1886, he shortly afterwards entered the Government service, at the frequent and earnest solicitation of H.R.H. Prince Damrong, as the Chief Superintendent of the Government hospitals, which at one time were four in number—the Buripah, Tapaserin, Wang Lang, and Bangrak hospitals. Since then he has undertaken many responsibilities and carried out a great deal of important work tending towards the improvement of the medical administration of the country generally. He opened the present medical college, and was for some time the sole lecturer there in all branches of medical science. From 1892 to 1895 he was consulting physician to H.S.M.'s court.
IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND SHIPPING

By NORMAN MAXWELL,
Principal of the Statistical Office of H.S.M.'s Customs.

Siam's official entry into the commercial world dates from the Treaty of Amity and Commerce concluded with Great Britain on April 15, 1855. For three hundred years and more Western traders had been dealing intermittently with the port of Bangkok, the earliest records being of the arrival of a Portuguese merchantman in 1511. But the trade of those early years was the simple barter of primitive times. Even from the treaty of 1855 we can form some conception of the methods which the treaty came to regulate. A sailing ship moored by the bank of the Menam, a fair set out under the awning on her deck, and a lively exchange of goods against goods; such was the beginning of a trading centre larger already than Belfast, and developing, if statistics may be trusted, with considerably greater promise.

The treaty of 1855 not only regulated trade methods, but determined the Siamese Customs tariff. Similar treaties followed, first with France, and later with Germany, the United States, and other countries, all following the lines laid down by the British representative, Sir John Bowring, and all accepting the same tariff. These treaties, together with a later treaty regulating the sale of spirits, are in force to-day; they form the basis of all Customs regulations issued in the port of Bangkok. The import tariff is simple: Beer, 5 per cent. ad val.; wines, 5 per cent. ad val.; spirits, 2 ticals.
The export tariff contains rather more items. But all duties are low; and of the two principal exports teak wood is exported free, and rice pays an export duty of 4 or 2 ticals per coyan according to its class, approximately 4s. 6d. and 2s. 3d. per ton.

The following table shows the volume of Bangkok's foreign trade by sea since 1892. It affords striking evidence of the rapid development that has taken place, the trade of the port having increased by nearly five times in sixteen years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th>Exports</th>
<th>Volume of Trade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1892</td>
<td>£1,335,548</td>
<td>£1,420,888</td>
<td>£2,756,436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1893</td>
<td>£2,435,099</td>
<td>£439,143</td>
<td>6,089,112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1894</td>
<td>£1,805,253</td>
<td>£2,003,045</td>
<td>4,407,108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1895</td>
<td>£2,049,143</td>
<td>£2,978,608</td>
<td>4,724,157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1896</td>
<td>£2,205,123</td>
<td>£3,313,016</td>
<td>5,600,270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>£2,435,093</td>
<td>£3,050,716</td>
<td>5,406,790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>£2,591,864</td>
<td>£3,311,090</td>
<td>5,903,554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>£2,539,025</td>
<td>£3,129,683</td>
<td>5,600,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>£2,573,866</td>
<td>£3,084,542</td>
<td>5,659,348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>£2,832,754</td>
<td>£4,417,352</td>
<td>7,255,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>£3,394,026</td>
<td>£4,838,549</td>
<td>7,039,572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>£3,401,243</td>
<td>£3,039,016</td>
<td>7,401,170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>£4,263,099</td>
<td>£5,850,175</td>
<td>10,104,141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>£3,003,635</td>
<td>£5,089,100</td>
<td>9,082,735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>£4,066,849</td>
<td>£7,083,141</td>
<td>11,048,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>£5,327,816</td>
<td>£6,444,200</td>
<td>12,782,016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The staple trade is, as it always has been, and as it presumably always will be, rice. The occupation of practically the whole population is to grow rice; the industry of Bangkok is to mill rice. There are at present in Bangkok and its neighbourhood no less than fifty-six rice mills, a number more than sufficient to handle the whole crop. The result is keen competition among the buyers, and a corresponding slackness among the paddy growers—a slackness which has had the effect, in the past few years, of slightly deteriorating the quality of the rice produced. The limit of productive capacity, however, is not yet in sight; and with the development of irrigation schemes which are at present receiving the attention of the Ministry of Agriculture there is every prospect that the rice trade will largely increase.

The following table shows the more important exports for the years 1904 to 1907.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Names of Articles</th>
<th>1904</th>
<th>1905</th>
<th>1906</th>
<th>1907</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1904</td>
<td>1905</td>
<td>1906</td>
<td>1907</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hides</td>
<td>58,215</td>
<td>71,288</td>
<td>110,323</td>
<td>92,043</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rice</td>
<td>4,520,470</td>
<td>4,000,653</td>
<td>5,548,054</td>
<td>4,551,243</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sticklac</td>
<td>28,106</td>
<td>48,320</td>
<td>43,280</td>
<td>22,301</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish, Salt, Platu</td>
<td>20,230</td>
<td>38,750</td>
<td>63,845</td>
<td>43,212</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish, Salt, other than Platu</td>
<td>25,870</td>
<td>35,016</td>
<td>40,303</td>
<td>41,127</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pepper</td>
<td>72,590</td>
<td>55,145</td>
<td>67,394</td>
<td>57,265</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teak</td>
<td>500,174</td>
<td>817,300</td>
<td>830,654</td>
<td>1,021,002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silk Piece Goods</td>
<td>24,389</td>
<td>16,057</td>
<td>27,381</td>
<td>34,523</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasure</td>
<td>84,144</td>
<td>21,075</td>
<td>21,235</td>
<td>130,226</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other Goods</td>
<td>210,230</td>
<td>244,820</td>
<td>288,683</td>
<td>250,526</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goods re-exported</td>
<td>35,590</td>
<td>59,379</td>
<td>73,057</td>
<td>79,359</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5,050,175</td>
<td>5,089,100</td>
<td>7,082,144</td>
<td>6,044,200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The silk industry has been receiving particular attention from the Government. A special department has been organised under the Ministry of Agriculture, Japanese instructors engaged, and experimental farms started. But so far there is little evidence of any striking progress. Only a small proportion of the silk exported is locally produced. The bulk is foreign silk brought to Bangkok for dyeing and afterwards re-exported. This dyeing trade is old established. The dye is produced from a jungle-grown berry, which loses its quality if kept for any length of time. It is therefore necessary to bring the fabric to the place where the dye is made.

Minor exports, unimportant at present, but capable of development in the future, are cotton, leather, and various woods other than teak, agilia, sapan, box, ebony, and rose.

The cultivation of cotton is diminishing owing to increased facilities for obtaining cotton goods from Europe. But large districts in Northern Siam are believed to be well suited for the purpose, and with improved methods of cultivation a large increase in the trade might confidently be expected.

Tanning is still an infant industry, entirely in the hands of Chinese; the small exports are solely to China.
1. View from the River.
2. The Godown.
(See p. 143.)
3. The Sample Room.
NAI PIN THEP CHALERM.

1. Nai Pin Thep Chalerm and Family.
2. The Frontage of the Property.
3. The Residence.
5. The Workshop.

(See p. 143.)
Of the woods, the largest export at present is of the well-known rose-wood (Mal Pa Yung).

The following table gives the principal imports for the four years 1904 to 1907:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of Articles</th>
<th>1904.</th>
<th>1905.</th>
<th>1906.</th>
<th>1907.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotton Goods ...</td>
<td>870,739</td>
<td>852,587</td>
<td>886,603</td>
<td>981,686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotton Yarn ...</td>
<td>87,048</td>
<td>119,015</td>
<td>136,213</td>
<td>169,310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gunny Bags ...</td>
<td>108,219</td>
<td>205,791</td>
<td>223,872</td>
<td>215,249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardware and Cutlery</td>
<td>65,937</td>
<td>67,750</td>
<td>113,885</td>
<td>98,422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jewellery ...</td>
<td>49,703</td>
<td>61,545</td>
<td>130,886</td>
<td>112,722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinery ...</td>
<td>82,745</td>
<td>84,113</td>
<td>98,611</td>
<td>104,813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matches ...</td>
<td>52,385</td>
<td>38,432</td>
<td>60,096</td>
<td>60,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steel and Iron ...</td>
<td>287,047</td>
<td>116,485</td>
<td>318,796</td>
<td>251,711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other Metal Manufacturing</td>
<td>87,437</td>
<td>82,398</td>
<td>108,071</td>
<td>121,118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil, Petroleum ...</td>
<td>116,901</td>
<td>119,348</td>
<td>89,497</td>
<td>135,557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil, other sorts</td>
<td>57,031</td>
<td>62,340</td>
<td>78,818</td>
<td>104,496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisions ...</td>
<td>266,181</td>
<td>276,359</td>
<td>385,381</td>
<td>459,821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silk Goods ...</td>
<td>151,875</td>
<td>122,382</td>
<td>157,967</td>
<td>215,012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar ...</td>
<td>134,247</td>
<td>189,281</td>
<td>219,784</td>
<td>175,414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spirituous Liquors</td>
<td>84,803</td>
<td>102,447</td>
<td>111,959</td>
<td>116,527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opium ...</td>
<td>237,044</td>
<td>149,537</td>
<td>65,489</td>
<td>137,320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasure ...</td>
<td>64,727</td>
<td>471,335</td>
<td>67,431</td>
<td>775,477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other Goods</td>
<td>884,476</td>
<td>927,070</td>
<td>1,067,969</td>
<td>1,267,478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,163,966</td>
<td>3,935,635</td>
<td>4,886,849</td>
<td>5,437,816</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The great bulk of these imports arrive in Bangkok either from Singapore or Hongkong; and the Customs officers experience considerable difficulty in ascertaining quantities of origin, a difficulty enhanced by lack of legal powers. It results in that all the officially published tables large quantities of American, Japanese, and Chinese goods are credited to Hongkong, and still larger quantities of European and Indian goods are credited to Singapore. Making allowance for this, however, it may safely be said that the bulk of the cotton goods comes from the United Kingdom, India, and Switzerland, with a certain competition from Holland.

Oil comes chiefly from Sumatra, and gunny bags from India. The United Kingdom is credited with the largest share of the imports of steel, iron, and machinery, the second place being held by Germany.

SUMMARY OF SHIPPING.

A.—Nationality and Tonnage of Ships Cleared Inwards.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austrian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,374</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>121,811</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>112,242</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2,813</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>110,001</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8,246</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>104,440</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9,876</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>380,720</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5,681</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>385,003</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5,682</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>400,887</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8,544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>85,622</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5,688</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>123,570</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,607</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>153,340</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norwegian</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>85,622</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5,688</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>123,570</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,607</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>153,340</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siamese</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>28,325</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>23,398</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junks</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>640,420</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14,948</td>
<td>730</td>
<td>670,100</td>
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<td>15,183</td>
<td>793</td>
<td>731,088</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14,167</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Imports of motor-cars and motor machinery have shown a marked rise in the last few years. The cars imported are almost all private owned, conditions being unsuitable for the motor traction of heavy goods. But there is a considerable and increasing demand for petrol-driven machinery on the river. Already there are a number of motor launches at work, some private and some engaged in ferry service. The number may be expected to increase.

The import of opium is subject to restrictions. All consignments to private persons must be sold to the farmer, and the permission of the Customs obtained before importation. The whole amount comes from India via Singapore. Imports touched an unprecedented figure in 1904, but the figures since have been considerably below the average. The fluctuation was due, in all probability, to the confusion resulting from continual changes in the methods of farming. But there is some reason to suspect an actual decrease of consumption due to an increasing use of morphia and similar drugs. Measures are now being taken with a view to imposing restrictions on the import of morphia similar to those imposed by treaty on the import of opium.

Tables A and B show the shipping of the port of Bangkok during the three years 1905 to 1907.

Bangkok shipping develops always under the hampering limitation of "the bar." The twenty-five miles of river which connect the town with the sea offer an admirable highway. But the gate is open only at high water, and then only to ships of limited tonnage. The tides vary considerably with the time of year. During November there is sometimes fifteen feet of water in the channel, and the fall is seldom more than five or six feet; while in April high water seldom reaches fourteen feet, and the low water limit is under four feet. It follows that most of the export trade of the port is done by lighter to vessels lying in roadsteads at the head of the gulf, either at Kothiang or at Anghin Head, according to the monsoon. Larger vessels, such as the rice ships sailing direct to Europe and certain ships engaged in the timber trade, do not enter the river at all, proceeding to Kosichang or Anghin direct, while a still greater number even of the regular traders are compelled to cross the bar with part cargo and complete their loading outside.

1 Junks are not taken into consideration in either the total number or total tonnage of sailing ships.
EAST ASIATIC COMPANY, LTD.

1. THE ORIENTAL STORE, FIRST FLOOR.
2. THE ORIENTAL STORE, GROUND FLOOR.
   (See p. 143.)
3. WOMEN CLEANING STICKLAC.
EAST ASIATIC COMPANY, LTD.

1. The Offices.
2. Coasting Steamer, ss. "Mahidol."

(See p. 143.)
Permit for the use of these roadsteads for import purposes is given in certain cases on special application being made to the Director-General of Customs, the regular facilities being extended only to the loading of export cargo.

The largest share of the carrying trade is in German hands, the regular lines to Singapore and Hong Kong both sailing under that flag, Norway holds second place, largely owing to the presence in the port of certain Norwegian ships chartered by local firms. The tonnage of British shipping had fallen away somewhat since 1904, but is beginning to recover slightly owing to an increase of rice shipments direct to Europe, most of the vessels engaged in this trade being British owned. A French line runs regularly between Bangkok and Saigon carrying the mail, but its trade is small.

In conclusion it must be remembered that all export of tin from the peninsula, or of the caravan trade of the interior. Enough, however, has been said to show that prospects are, even now, not unpromising. And with the continual opening up of the country by means of roads and railways, with the steady rise in the standard of living which seems always to follow from contact with the capital, and with the stimulus to local industry which this very rise of standard must provide, there is every reason to believe that Bangkok will, before long, take an established place among the trading centres of the East.

Mr. E. Ambrose, the Adviser to H.S.M.'s Customs, had some twenty years' experience of the Customs Department in Great Britain before coming to Siam. He entered the service in 1880 and was engaged, at different periods, in London, Glasgow, and Aberdeen. In 1900 the Siamese Government approached the British Board of Customs to provide them with a responsible official who would be able to act as an adviser in their Customs Department. Mr. Ambrose was chosen for this special service and has filled the position with considerable success during the last eight years. In conjunction with H.H. Mom Chow Prom, the Director-General of the Siamese Customs, he has re-organised the whole department, and has brought it as far as possible up to date. He has drawn up a new tariff and a new set of trade and customs regulations, which will shortly be put into force, and has introduced many minor improvements tending towards the general efficiency of the service.

Mr. Ambrose, however, is still recognised by the British Customs Department as an official who has simply been lent for a definite period to the Siamese Government, and this period having already been exceeded, it is highly probable that by the time this volume is published, he will have been recalled to England.

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### Nationality and Tonnage of Ships Cleared Outwards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>1904</th>
<th>1905</th>
<th>1906</th>
<th>1907</th>
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<td>Sailing</td>
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<td>Sailing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
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<tr>
<td>Junk 1 1</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>609.107</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>609.107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Junks are not taken into consideration in either the total number or total tonnage of sailing ships.

### The Customs House

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TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

J. MACKAY.

(Government Marine Surveyor.)

Government Marine Surveyor, and, the partnership of Mackay & Macleod being dissolved, he has held his present post of Superintendent of Marine Surveys since 1897. Mr. Mackay was President of the St. Andrew's Society in Bangkok from 1894 to 1901. During his residence in Siam he has taken a considerable interest in a variety of commercial and industrial enterprises, and was one of the promoters of the Paknam Tachin and Meklong railway companies, the Bangkok Manufacturing Company, and the Siamese Tramway Company, Ltd.

NORDDEUTSCHER LLOYD.

The largest part of the carrying trade between Siam and the outside world is in German hands—a fact due almost entirely to the enterprise of one company, the Norddeutscher Lloyd. They have purchased several of the ships which formerly were in competition with them, and now, in many ways—more especially perhaps in the regular weekly passenger service which they maintain between Bangkok and Singapore—they have what is to all intents and purposes a monopoly. They also engage largely in the coast trade, and the extent and importance of their interests may be calculated from the preponderating number of steamers flying the German flag which may any day be seen in the river Menam.

Their agents in Bangkok are Messrs. A. Markwald & Co., and their business is under the direct personal supervision of Mr. H. Wilkins, the manager of the shipping department of that firm. Mr. Wilkins has charge, too, of the interests of the Austrian Lloyd, for which company Messrs. A. Markwald & Co. are also the agents.

BEHN, MEYER & CO., LTD.

The Bangkok branch of this large "Strait's" firm is practically in its infancy, dating only from August 1, 1907. On January 1, 1909, the company took over the business of Messrs. Schmidt Fertsch & Co., and they are now finding it necessary to enlarge their offices in order to cope with the rapid extension of their trade. The firm are importers and exporters and insurance and shipping agents.

The management of the branch is vested in Mr. E. Lanz and Mr. E. Jurgens. Mr. Lanz established the office in Bangkok, while Mr. E. Jurgens was for some time associated with Messrs. Schmidt Fertsch & Co.

WINDSOR & CO.

Founded in 1873 as Windsor, Redlich & Co., this old-established house, with the first of the European firms to start trading in Siam. Its progress is traced through the periods when Windsor, Redlich & Co., became Windsor, Rose & Co., to re-form finally as Windsor & Co. The firm carry on a large shipping trade. "Windsor's Wharf" being one of the best known wharves in the city, does a considerable business, and in such cases, bags and bales prove the size of their import and export business.

The company have their headquarters in Bangkok and a branch in Hamburg, the management of both offices being undertaken in turn by one or other of the three present partners—Messrs. Christian Brockman, Arther Frege, and Wilhelm Bremer. Messrs. Windsor & Co. are agents for the Norddeutscher Lloyd Orient Line and represent the Mercantile Bank of India and many insurance companies of note.

MESSAGERIES FLUVIALES DE COCHIN CHINE.

The development of trade relations between Bangkok and Saigon, and especially between Saigon and the British possessions in the Far East, has been of great extent is the facilities for transport. The Messageries Fluviales, which are the representatives of the British merchant marine in Saigon, and the Chargé des Régions, recognizing the necessity for regular communication, have for several years past maintained a constant service between Saigon and Bangkok, which is maintained by the steamer Donai, a vessel of some 800 tons. The company established an agency in Bangkok in 1853, but it was not until three years later that a steamer was engaged specially from Saigon to take charge of their interests.

THE EAST ASIATIC COMPANY, LTD.

One of the largest import and export businesses in Bangkok is that carried on by the East Asiatic Company, Ltd., who succeeded Messrs. Andersen & Co. In January, 1897. They are largely interested in the teak trade, holding concessions from the Government over some of the finest forests of Siam, and owning and operating a sawmill in Bangkok. Their imports consist chiefly of building materials, especially cement, of which no less than thirty four thousand casks are imported yearly; they also export, besides teak, such valuable products of the country as sticklac, rubber, gum benjamin, hides, horns, &c., which were the first company to carry teak to Europe by steamer, and now, with characteristic enterprise, they have established a new line of vessels—five in number, and of four to five thousand tons each—which have been built specially for the teak trade, and maintain a regular monthly service from Ceylon, Middlesbrough, and Dover, and from Bangkok to London and Cologne. This line, which up to the present carried the monopoly of the regular steamer traffic between England and the East, enjoys the patronage of other exporters and importers, who naturally prefer the direct service in lieu of the hitherto expensive and often, for the cargo, damaging transshipment at Singapore. But these enterpises, important as they are, by no means exhaust the catalogue of the company's activities. The credit of developing the trade of the east and west coasts of the Gulf of Siam, through the agency of a number of steamer engaged in the local coasting trade, is due to them. Since these lines have been in operation, and thanks to the regular communication thus maintained, the establishment trade has considerably increased, and in recent years the company have still further enlarged their interests on the Malay coast by starting a steamer service between the many different varieties of wood are found in abundance, and they have strengthened their foothold by erecting a first-class and up-to-date steamer in the port of Bangkok, by means of which it is their intention not only to supply Bangkok, but also the neighboring countries, with good wood, at the same time, cheap wood for building.

The local lines of steamers are at the present time being turned into a Siamese Company, and will shortly be managed by the East Asiatic Company, Ltd., with a mixed board of directors.

The company have the Oriental Stores, a large retail establishment situated off the New Road, quite close to the Oriental Hotel. This business is conducted somewhat on the lines of the "departmental store." The East Asiatic Company's offices in Bangkok form an imposing building on the east bank of the Menam. They have a branch office also at Trangconde.

BUN HONG LONG & CO.

The large share the Chinese now take in the carrying trade between Singapore and Bangkok is illustrated in the growth of such firms as Bun Hong Long & Co. They established themselves in Bangkok some thirty years ago as steamship agents, and at the present time besides owning the steamer Bun Hong Long, of 700 tons capacity, which runs regularly between Singapore and Bangkok, they are often obliged to charter other vessels to cope with the business which is placed in their hands. They export such products as Siamese sticklac, ivory, peppers, hides, gums, &c., and do a large trade with many of the European and Chinese firms in the Straits Settlements.

The firm was founded by Mr. Low Sam, and is now managed and owned by his son, Mr. Low Peng Kang. The head offices are in Singapore.

The company's shipping department is under the able management of Mr. Hong Keng Tong.

SUPHAN STEAM PACKET COMPANY.

The boats of the Suphan Steam Packet Company ply between Suphan and Tachin, sailing at Nakorn Chaisri on the way and connecting with the different train services of Petchaburi, Tachin, and Meklong. At first this company possessed only two boats, Khon Chang and Nang Phim. When, however, owing to good management they became more prosperous, additional boats were built, namely, the Khon Phaon, Pho Phai Weanart, Luang Tang Chai, and two motor boats, Gunmar Tong and Nang Bimo, now in course of completion. The company possess docks and sheds containing the necessary machinery and implements for the execution of repairs.

Nai Pin They Chalerm, Director of the company, and formerly the owner of the steamboats Sunbeam and Sandeen, which used to ply between Bangkok and Prachin, is the son of the late Phra Si Saray Pakdi Sisumu and grandson of Somdet Chao Phya Borom Mahasen. He was born in Bangkok and has two daughters, the eldest of whom is married to Mon Chao Traidsid Prabhorn, son of H.R.H. Prince Devawongse Varopran, Nai Pin They Chalerm is a member of the Order of Chula Chom Kiao (third class), which means that he is the recognized heir of the Si Sararaj family.
RICE

By A. E. STIVEN,
Manager of the Borneo Company, Ltd., Rice Mill, Bangkok.

Considering the conditions under which the crops have been worked, it says a good deal for the industry of the native farmers that the yield of grain in Siam has increased as it has done during the past fifteen or twenty years. Twenty years ago Siam rice was little known to the outside world, and the rice crop was insignificantly small; but now, the export in one year is nearly one million tons of milled grain. When it is remembered that the staple trade of the country has increased as it has done with very little help from the Government, one is struck with the great possibilities of the future.

What has contributed very greatly to the increased cultivation is the extensive irrigation work that has been going on for many years between Bangkok and the north and the Patraw river, the outcome of an edict of his Majesty King Chulalongkorn, dated about 1891, whereby concessions were granted to those opening up the land by cutting and dredging. This particular cutting, which is worked by a private concern, affects a large area of good paddy-growing land. There is considerable scope for similar works all through the country, and the subject has been under the consideration of the Siamese Government for some time. In all other parts of the country the cultivators have to depend on the usual primitive methods of regulating the water on the fields, and, naturally, they are to a large extent at the mercy of the rains and floods. Excessive rain, however, does not cause so much anxiety to the farmer as excessive drought.

The rainfall of Siam is not heavy compared to that experienced in the chief rice-growing districts of India and Burma. In the districts immediately around Bangkok the average annual rainfall is only about fifty inches, but it is somewhat heavier in other parts. The rains break usually during the month of May, and ploughing operations are begun as opportunity offers. The ploughing process is very rough and old-fashioned, and the furrow is neither deep nor wide. Buffaloes and oxen are employed to draw the plough, which is usually lightly made out of part of a tree, a metal ploughshare being fixed at the junction between the branch and the trunk; the harrow used is composed of wood and bamboo, and is also a light implement compared to those used in Europe. It must, of course, be remembered that the ground is always under water when ploughing and harrowing are being done.

Planting is generally in full swing during the month of July, although, under more favourable conditions, some fields are in an advanced state by this time. There are two distinct kinds of paddy cultivated in Siam—one the "Namuang" or field rice, and the other the "Nasuan" or garden rice. The Namuang is a small roundish grain, peculiarly red. It is grown on the lower levels, and the plants reach a great height, growing up strongly through the water as high as eight or nine feet, according to the rise of the level of floods on the fields. Nowadays the crop of Namuang paddy is small compared to Nasuan, as there is no inducement to increase the output of the inferior grain. There are certain places, however, where no other kind of rice can be reared, so that Namuang paddy will always form a portion of the crop. At present probably about fifteen or twenty per cent. of the export from Siam is Namuang. The Nasuan grain is of a very varied description, depending on the district or districts from which it comes. Real Nasuan, however, is a beautiful long grain from which excellent results are obtained in milling. The best quality of Nasuan comes from the Nacoachasee district. Unlike Namuang, Nasuan does not grow up with the water, but, being weaker, is liable to fall and " drown" when floods come too quickly or last too long. The ordinary height of the Nasuan plant is five to six feet. Namuang is sown broadcast and grows up
from the seed, but the bulk of the Nasuan grain is started in nurseries and is transplanted out into the field by hand after it reaches a growth of about a foot or a little more. This transplanting is done very adroitly by all the natives—men, women, and children alike engaging together in the work—and is an interesting feature of cultivation. The ground into which the plants are being put is, of course, covered with water to a considerable depth, and working under such conditions as these the villagers appear to be in their element. The percentage of Nasuan paddy grown from the seed which is called Na-warn is, it is to be feared, on the increase. It is hoped that the farmers will in the future try to alter this. The net result of the system of growing the two kinds would appear to be the gradual deterioration of a first-class grain. It is found that with good seed, similar to what is sown in the Naconchaisee locally, the farmers on the fine nurseries along Klong Rangsit—the area covered by the irrigation works of which mention has been made—can rear as good grain as has ever been produced in the country, but irrigation and attention to transplanting are required. Planting and transplanting are continued up to the month of October, and the early grain is being cut in November, but the reapings does not become general until late in December. Quite a large portion of the Nasuan crop is cut while there is still water on the fields, and at such times a boat is requisitioned for the purpose of conveying the paddy to the barns. All the paddy crop is cut down by hand, such a thing as a reaping machine being unknown. It is when the harvesting is in full swing that the shortness of labour is felt most by the farmers. To gather in crops expeditiously enough is impossible, and thus it happens that large quantities of grain remain too long on the fields, pass through several heavy showers, and then get sun-dried, and made so brittle as to break in the husk before reaching the mills.

The Nasuan crop, which is high in the water, does not ripen so quickly, and there is very little of this grain ready for cutting before February or March. It is generally reckoned to be three months later than the Nasuan crop.

Threshing is done on a comparatively small circular piece of ground, which is levelled off and covered with a mixture of mud and manure. When it becomes dry this preparation leaves a fine, even surface which is not liable to crack or break up. The usual procedure then is to erect a pole on the centre and attach a pair of bullocks to this pole by a piece of rope and a band made of rattans or metal and drive the bullocks around in the circle, which is kept filled with the cut paddy. Threshing in the villages furnishes an opportunity for considerable frolic, as the young people are romping about amongst the straw most of the time, while in the evening paddy upward with a stick and to allow the wind to blow away the chaff. In some districts winnowing would appear to be heaped more in the breach than in the observance!

After winnowing, the grain is stored away in bins, which are sufficiently high from the ground to keep their contents dry. The bins are protected from the rain by a roof of "attap" or other leaves and bamboo and mud walls. Here the paddy will sometimes remain for weeks or months or maybe years, and the farmer's wealth is often computed by the fulness of his rice-bins. In many cases, however, the farmer will sell, almost at once, the whole or part of his grain to a person who is usually known as the "middleman." The object of this early sale is to enable the farmer to pay Government taxes then falling due. The middleman, who is probably a Chinaman, owning a fleet of four or more paddy boats, is sure to have made a safe bargain, and this, to the ordinary onlooker, is one of the most unfortunate features of the trade, namely, that the farmer who works so hard scarcely ever enjoys the benefit of the good prices when they are in vogue. Doubtless, in time to come, this will change to a great extent, as with the opening up of the country by railways the farmers will get into closer touch with the markets. During the past few years the railway has been used to bring in 40,000 tons to 70,000 tons of paddy to Bangkok, but the remainder has come by boat through rivers and canals—those as they are called. Every description of boat may be seen on the Menam, and there is quite a variety used for carrying paddy. For transport from the places around Bangkok only small boats, carrying 5 to 15 tons, are employed, but for more distant places larger craft are engaged, some of which will carry from 30 to 45 tons. The small boats are for the most part open, but they carry bamboo frames and mat covers for use in case of rain. The big boats are all covered with a framework of wood and bamboo, and accommodation is provided at the after end for the family who make their home on the boat, while sufficient space is also allowed in the body of the boat above the
Irrigating the Land.

water, but when empty only about 2 feet. On arrival at the reaches of the river above Bangkok the boats are met by "runners" from all the different mills—and nowadays sometimes even by launches—offering to tow the boats down gratis to that particular mill to which the runner or the launch belongs. The runners inform the boatmen what is the nature of the demand for paddy and what particular mill is the strongest buyer, and also, it is quite probable, in their anxiety to bring about a "deal," give a good deal of information which is quite untrue. So the wily boat-owner when he arrives in the market at Bangkok is fully posted as to the conditions of trade prevailing and waits or sells his cargo at once to the highest bidder, according as he judges the situation. There are some boats that will go to the same mill trip after trip as a matter of course, the owner accepting the price ruling at that particular mill, which is always understood to be a fair market price. In some instances even the boats are bound to a certain mill because they have received an advance on account of the paddy. Fortunately, however, the advance system is not at all common in Siam, at least as far as the paddy crop is concerned.

As an instance of the growth of the rice trade at Bangkok one has only to look at the enormous increase in the number of mills during the past ten or fifteen years. In 1893 the total number of mills at work was 23, while at the present moment there are 49, of which all but two have been working this year. Without a doubt the mills are far in excess of requirements, and thus it is that the paddy market fluctuates so considerably. Out of the above total of mills only three are in the hands of Europeans (two British firms and one German); the remainder all belong to Chinese or Siamese, but chiefly to the former. The Chinese have always predominated in the rice trade, and quite naturally so too, seeing that the bulk of the crop has formerly gone to Hongkong and China ports. Even before the days of regular steamer communication between Siam and the port of Hongkong the Chinese used to run their fleets of sailing ships and junks to Bangkok, exchanging general merchandise for rice. In recent years there has been more business done by the mills for Europe, and the European element seems likely to become stronger as the trade expands. The three European firms represented in the trade are all firms of good standing, and most of the Chinese engaged in milling are also either of considerable wealth in themselves or else they are well backed up by their connections in Hongkong and Singapore. In some years good profits are made by millers and the way exchange has been moving up against the exporter. Probably the exchange question has had an important influence in the matter, but keen competition between the mills has also contributed towards the diminution of the profits.

In the early nineties only a small proportion of the Bangkok mills were able to make white rice, for the reason that the chief market—China—wished rough or cargo rice, which the people of China treated themselves in their pounding mills. There has, however, been a gradual change, and practically all the mills are now able to turn out well-finished white rice. The comparative figures of exports for the past seven years given below will help to illustrate how cargo rice is falling off as an export in favour of white rice.

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White Rice ... Tons</td>
<td>264,475</td>
<td>311,442</td>
<td>268,851</td>
<td>269,851</td>
<td>390,845</td>
<td>388,450</td>
<td>390,022</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Broken Rice ...</td>
<td>64,890</td>
<td>85,042</td>
<td>87,410</td>
<td>131,529</td>
<td>177,080</td>
<td>200,736</td>
<td>148,411</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Meal ... Tons</td>
<td>41,324</td>
<td>48,337</td>
<td>47,743</td>
<td>61,869</td>
<td>74,426</td>
<td>85,182</td>
<td>72,226</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cargo Rice ... Tons</td>
<td>205,344</td>
<td>340,702</td>
<td>427,574</td>
<td>338,321</td>
<td>459,352</td>
<td>199,774</td>
<td>95,829</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cargo Broken Rice ...</td>
<td>17,418</td>
<td>18,816</td>
<td>11,807</td>
<td>24,779</td>
<td>16,688</td>
<td>20,533</td>
<td>10,193</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cargo Meal ... Tons</td>
<td>4,647</td>
<td>4,908</td>
<td>6,478</td>
<td>12,003</td>
<td>13,003</td>
<td>17,080</td>
<td>11,468</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paddy ... Tons</td>
<td>2,417</td>
<td>1,609</td>
<td>943</td>
<td>2,992</td>
<td>3,044</td>
<td>5,401</td>
<td>2,805</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total ... Tons</td>
<td>684,925</td>
<td>708,460</td>
<td>585,245</td>
<td>545,084</td>
<td>820,804</td>
<td>917,682</td>
<td>683,722</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Partners in some of the Chinese firms have acquired large fortunes in times past. More recently, however, the trade has been anything but flourishing, and this notwithstanding the larger export. Some people attribute the cause of the recent unsatisfactory state of affairs to the way exchange has been moving up against the exporter. Probably the exchange question has had an important influence in the matter, but keen competition between the mills has also contributed towards the diminution of the profits.

Rice milling is one of the most interesting of industries, and it has been particularly interesting in the East during the past twenty years, as the trade has been developing at a good pace all the time. The paddy, which has been landed from the boats into godowns adjoin-
ing the mills, contains a small proportion of mud and straw, and other extraneous substances, so that the first operation is to clean it. From the godowns the grain passes, by means of an elevator, on to what is known as a paddy screen, an oblong machine about 3 feet long by 3 feet wide, driven from the centre by an upright shaft with an eccentric attachment that causes the screen to be regularly shaken. The top deck of the screen is of perforated steel with a mesh sufficiently large to let all paddy pass through; the next deck has a steel sheet with a much smaller mesh which retains all paddy, but permits anything smaller to escape. Thus paddy is "screened" or cleaned and made ready for the hulling process. The foreign matter extracted may be shot out of the mill by wooden spouts and conveyed into the river, or dealt with in any manner desired. Once the paddy leaves the godown there is no more manual labour employed on it until the finished article is finally delivered into the bagging shed, as all products pass from one machine to another, by means of elevators, shoots, metal conveyors, or conveying bands. The paddy when cleaned passes at once to the hullers, say through the medium of elevators and shoots. Each huller consists of two cast-iron discs of 4 to 6 feet in diameter, each faced, 6 or 8 inches from the edge, with a preparation of emery and cement. The discs are placed in a horizontal position, the upper one fixed and the lower one running, and they are spaced, at the outside edge, about three-eighths of an inch apart. The running disc is travelling at about two hundred revolutions per minute. Paddy is sent through an opening in the centre of the upper disc, and the feeding is a matter of importance, but it can easily be regulated. In passing between the two discs a proportion of the grain has the husk nipped off and the whole drops into the trough below, and proceeds, by means of a wooden shoot feed. As the chief aim is to treat the grain in the best possible manner, so as not to cause undue breakage, care has to be taken to have

TRANSPLANTING.

and an elevator, to the next process. In dealing with Siam rice, the general idea is to have small hullers and many of them, with a slow

We next see the product of the hullers coming over another screen where all small particles are extracted. The larger particles,

It is considered inadvisable to turn the grain out of the hullers with less than 30 per cent. unhusked.

and an elevator, to the next process. In dealing with Siam rice, the general idea is to have small hullers and many of them, with a slow
with the cone and rolls in a body against the wire cloth, and in the operation the cuticle of the grain is scoured off. The spacing between the cone and casing can be arranged to suit whatever feed or colour is required. If it is intended to scour lightly, the cone is raised a little, and, naturally, the amount of breakage of rice will depend on the way it is being scoured. Most of the meal which comes off in scouring passes out of the casing through the wire cloth, and may be noted here that small flaps of wire cloth are usually fitted on to cone casing in order to prevent the rice from dropping too quickly. The centrifugal action given by the high speed of the cone helps also to prevent the rice falling at once. Each cone would have six or eight wire-cloth flaps about 4 inches in length and width. A good many mills are now adopting the continental style of cones with rubber brakes as being more gentle with the rice, and so far as experiments have gone these rubber brakes would appear to be successful. Once the rice has gone through the cones there remains little else to be done except separating and grading, but some mills first pass the full output of the cones over polishers, in order to remove all further traces of the meal. These polishing machines are large conical drums lined with specially prepared sheepskins, with an outside casing of wire cloth of more open design than that used on the cones. In passing down between the surface of wire cloth and the sheepskin the white rice receives the final brush. It is then led over a strong aspirator to have all the light particles removed, and afterwards goes through a course of screening. Each screen throws off three grades much in the same manner as the paddy screens. The top deck will throw off only large whole grains, the next deck a mixture of small whole grains and large “brokens,” while the lower deck will discharge the remainder. By the aid of more screens on the flats below the products No. 2 and No. 3 are again treated and the required separation of rice duly arrived at. It is all a matter of size of perforations in the steel sheets forming the decks, and any result is readily achieved given a sufficient number of screens. Like the paddy screens, these also are driven from the centre and have the same sort of motion, and dip towards the front. As a matter of course they are all suspended on chain hooks to the beams above. Having passed through the screening operations the rice and “brokens” are conveyed to shots leading to the bagging shed. Thus, in making white rice the following by-products are incidentally accumulated, viz.:

1. Cargo broken rice.
2. Large white broken rice.
3. Medium " " "
4. Small " " "
5. Very small " " "
6. Mixed " " " sifted from white meal.
7. White meal.

In an ordinary rice mill capable of turning out 150-200 tons of rice per day the machinery is roughly as follows:

3 paddy screens.
12 millers.
6 screens for sifting out smalls.
by lighters, as the lightermen pilfer very freely at times, and there is frequently delay to steamers through late arrival of lighters owing to stress of weather or it may be lack of wind. In these days the steam lighter is taking the place of the sailing craft, but it will be some time before the latter disappear altogether.

As an indication of the distribution of the export trade the following figures of exports during 1907 may be of interest —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>White Rice</th>
<th>White Broken Rice</th>
<th>White Meal</th>
<th>Cargo Rice</th>
<th>Cargo Broken Rice</th>
<th>Cargo Meal</th>
<th>Paddy</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>3,270,768</td>
<td>437,370</td>
<td>644,370</td>
<td>126,730</td>
<td>2,164</td>
<td>21,896</td>
<td>47,077</td>
<td>45,973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hongkong</td>
<td>1,916,127</td>
<td>1,587,533</td>
<td>557,475</td>
<td>1,332,392</td>
<td>168,736</td>
<td>170,256</td>
<td>1,026</td>
<td>5,733,682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>425,371</td>
<td>461,460</td>
<td>38,742</td>
<td>171,874</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,007,436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>58,780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>58,780</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elsewhere</td>
<td>39,439</td>
<td>6,945</td>
<td>2,810</td>
<td>23,139</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>250</td>
<td></td>
<td>73,172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5,710,685</td>
<td>2,493,309</td>
<td>1,213,307</td>
<td>1,057,137</td>
<td>171,246</td>
<td>102,660</td>
<td>48,106</td>
<td>11,480,546</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures are given in piculs, being copied from the returns of H.S.M.'s Customs Department. A picul is equal to 133 lb., or 160 pink per ton.

In view of the importance that may be attached to the effect of exchange on trade in Siam the table given below of the average rate of four months' drafts (buying) on London may be found useful —

| Year | 1887-1888 | 1889 | 1890 | 1891 | 1892 | 1893 | 1894 | 1895 | 1896 | 1897 | 1898 | 1899 | 1900 | 1901 | 1902 | 1903 | 1904 | 1905 | 1906 | 1907 |
|------|------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 1/1  | 0.2        | 0.11 | 0.2  | 0.15 | 0.57 | 0.13 | 0.15 | 0.56 | 0.17 | 0.57 | 0.13 | 0.15 | 0.56 | 0.17 | 0.57 | 0.13 | 0.15 | 0.56 | 0.17 | 0.57 | 0.13 | 0.15 |

The country, was erected by them on the east bank of the Menam river. It is equipped with the finest modern Scotch milling machinery, and care has been taken to see that this machinery is kept up to date by the introduction of all the latest patents. The firm, however, in addition to the output of their own mill, are very large buyers of rice for export, and now head the list as the largest shippers of rice not required for the mill finds a market elsewhere. It requires considerable power to drive a rice mill, and good large furnaces and engines are necessary. Most modern mills have their own electric light plant to enable them to run during the night.

The staff to work a mill of the size described above is about twenty-five men per watch, or say fifty men per day, as the custom is to run night and day when the supply of paddy permits. The usual wages for ordinary millers is TIs. 25 to Tls. 30 per month, but one head man on each watch will probably be paid on a slightly higher scale. Then there is the European supervision. In most cases even the Chinese employ a European engineer to keep the machinery in order, otherwise a first-class native is paid Tls. 100 to Tls. 200 per month to do the work. European firms invariably have full European supervision.

The building ground required for the buildings necessary for a rice mill is very considerable, and it is essential that there is a frontage to the river, where the paddy loading and rice shipping is done in an uninterrupted scope. Shipping is done either by (1) cargo boats taking 20 to 30 tons; (2) direct to steamers; or (3) by lighters for delivery into steamers at the outer anchorage. Direct shipments are always preferred as being cheaper. The cost of shipping by cargo boats is less than 9d. per ton, but lighters to the outer anchorage costs about 3s. 6d. per ton extra. Even without the extra cost there is considerable risk in shipping...
MEMBERS AND FAMILY HOUSE OF THE FIRM OF KOH HONG LEE.

1. THE LATE Poh Chin Soo (Founder).
2. Koh Kee Hong (present Manager).
3. Mrs. Xai Xiang Phra Prinak (Owner).
4. THE LATE Poh Lee Chye (late Manager).
5. THE PRIVATE HOUSE.
from Siam. They charter a number of steamers, which are devoted exclusively to this trade, many of the largest vessels visiting Siam being requisitioned for their service. The Arracan Company’s head offices are at London, and they have also branches at Rangoon, Akyab, Moulmein, Bassein, Calcutta, and Saigon. Mr. A. A. Smith is the resident manager in Siam.

**KOH HONG LEE.**

The Koh Hong Lee rice mills, known to Europeans as Poh Chin Soo’s rice mills, are amongst the best known in Bangkok. They are three in number. The oldest has been established thirty-four years; the second has a record extending over twenty-eight years, while the third was erected some twenty years ago. From the time of their construction to the present day they have all been under the supervision of expert engineers, and have been kept thoroughly up to date by the introduction of the latest improvements in rice-milling machinery, from well known Scotch makers. The mills command an excellent river frontage and their wharves are of such large dimensions as to permit the berthing of three steamers at the same time. The mills work day and night, and have a capacity of 2,600 bags of rice a day. The firm make a speciality of No. 2 rice, and this brand, owing to the great care taken in its production, commands the favourable attention of Singapore buyers.

The mills, which are the property of the members of one family, were founded by the late Phaya Pisarn (Mr. Poh Chin Soo), a native of Bangkok and grandfather of the present manager. On his death the business passed to his son, the late Mr. Poh Lee Chye, who conducted the mills successfully during his lifetime. Mr. Poh Lee Chye had also conferred upon him the Siamese title of Phra Prisarn. On his decease the mills became the property of his wife, Nai Nieang Phra Prisarn, who entrusts their management to her son, Mr. Koh Kue Hong. The family are the oldest millers in Bangkok with the exception of one of the European firms, their connection with the city dating back for five generations. They occupy a high place in Siamese social and commercial circles.
A. MARKWALD & CO., LTD.

Established in 1850 as rice millers, importers and exporters, Messrs. A. Markwald & Co. have the distinction of being the second oldest European house of their kind in Siam. Their head offices, which are at Bremen, are those of the well-known firm of Rickmers, who are also rice millers, shipbuilders, and the owners of the large fleet of fine steamers and sailing ships trading under their name. Messrs. A. Markwald, as may well be supposed, have taken a very important part in developing European trade with Siam. Their first rice mill was erected in Bangkok in 1866, and some four years ago they established a large new mill on the east bank of the Menam river. This mill is fitted throughout with the most improved pattern of rice-milling machinery, and has a very large capacity. It is under the charge of an experienced European engineer and European millers, and, working day and night, gives employment to upwards of 400 coolies. The mill has a large frontage of deep water, and a wharf capable of accommodating the largest vessels that can come over the bar. In addition to the output of their own mill havens, Messrs. Markwald are large buyers of rice, which they send all over the world, but especially to the European markets. In this connection they provide large cargoes for the "Rickmers" vessels, and recently loaded the auxiliary steamer R. C. Rickmers, the largest vessel of her kind afloat, with a cargo of 8,000 tons of Bangkok rice. In many other directions also the firm have displayed great activity. They were the pioneers of the bulk petroleum quotes No. 1 rice at 27 ticals per croyan, and superior white sugar at 12½ ticals per picul.

Mr. A. Mohr, the firm’s manager in Siam, has been connected with the company in Bangkok for fourteen years, and, in addition to other business responsibilities, holds the honorary post of Consul for Sweden.

KWANG HAP SENG RICE MILLS.

The Kwang Hap Seng Rice Mills were established some thirty years ago on the west bank of the Menam, Bangkok, by Mr. Ngo Kim Mui, a native of Swatow, China, and a relative of Mr. Mah Wah, the founder of the firm well known in connection with the rice industry of Siam. Having been recently equipped with the best improved rice milling machinery and most up-to-date English machinery under the charge of a highly-trained engineer, the mills, two in number, have now a combined output of 3,000 bags of rice per day—one of the largest outputs in Bangkok at the present time. Large quantities are exported to Hongkong and Singapore, the firm’s branch in the former place being known as Kwang Ngoi Seng, while Mr. Tan Say Lee acts as their agent in Singapore.

For the last twenty years the mills, which employ upwards of two hundred people, have been under the able management of Mr. Ngo Luk Szu, who is also a native of Swatow and a relative of the founder of the business.

The firm’s interests in Bangkok, however, are not confined to their rice mills. They have a piece-goods shop at Sampeng, known by the name of Hak Seng; a branch, dealing with imported goods from Hongkong, styled Teck Chee Teng, and a depot known as Low Poon Min, where an extensive trade in Chinese drugs and gold leaf is carried on.

L. XAVIER RICE MILLS.

His Excellency Phya Phipat Kosa, the Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Siam, is the head of one of the oldest European families in the country. His ancestors came from Portugal to Bangkok upwards of a hundred years ago, and members of the family have held important posts under the Government almost continuously since that time. His Excellency’s father, Mr. Luiz Xavier—for Xavier is the family name, although the subject of this
A. MARKWALD & CO., LTD.

1. The Mills.  
2. Loading Rice.  
L. XAVIER RICE MILLS.

sketch is now generally known by his official title of Phya Phipat Kosan—held the post of Deputy-Minister of Finance, and also that of honorary Consul for Portugal. After spending the best years of his life in the Government service, he retired in order to have more time to devote to his many private business interests, lodging, and turns out a high quality of white rice suitable for export. The plant has a capacity of five-hundred bags in twenty-four hours. In addition to this rice mill Mr. Pan On Keng owns and operates a sawmill situated close by, and is the owner of a dockyard and slipway, where launches, cargo-boats, merchant’s business for several years, and laid the foundations of an extensive trade in by-products and other small craft are docked and repaired. Mr. Pan On Keng, however, has of late years retired from the active management of the business, leaving it to his son, Mr. Pan Tin Nat. His other sons, Messrs. Pan Sin Yoon and Pan Tin Kau, are also engaged in business in Bangkok. Amongst other interests Mr. Pan On Keng is the owner of a public market at Bonpat, and is a large shareholder in and vice-chairman of the Guan Wat Lee Chinese Bank in Bangkok.

STEEL BROS. & CO., LTD.

The Bangkok branch of this important Rangoon house was established in 1907, and is under the charge of Mr. T. Craig. The firm purchase rice and its by-products solely for shipment to Europe direct.

LI TIT GUAN.

The firm of Li Tit Guan is known throughout Siam and the neighbouring Malay States and Straits Settlements for its extensive dealings in rice and other commodities. Upwards of half a century ago the house was founded by his Excellency Phya Chudak Rajasethee (Phoook), who carried on a shipping and general

which were requiring his personal attention. Phya Phipat Kosan was born in Bangkok, and educated in England and on the Continent. Having completed his studies, he entered the Foreign Office, and was shortly afterwards attached to the Royal Siamese Legation in Paris. On returning to Siam he was given the responsible position he now holds. In addition to official responsibilities he has the control of important business interests, for he owns a rice mill and a considerable amount of land property. The mill is situated on the Klong Kat Mai, and is noted for the high quality of white rice it turns out. His Excellency has just completed the construction of a granulating mill further down the river, which is the second only of its kind in Bangkok. The mills are known by the name of the L. Xavier Rice Mills.

THE YONG SENG RICE MILL.

This mill is situated close to the mouth of the Klong Maen Ao, and is consequently easily accessible to paddy boats and lighters from the Mekong river. It was founded some ten years ago by Mr. Pan On Keng, and has since been successfully managed by him and his sons. The mill is kept running day and
1. H.E. Phya Chuduk Rajasetree (Phook) in European dress.
2. H.E. Phya Chuduk Rajasetree (Phook) in Chinese dress.
3. Luang Maitri Wanit (Li Thye Phong).
4. The Mills.
5. H.E. Phya Bariboon Kosakorn (Li Guat Chew).
6. The Private Residence.
held prominent positions in Bangkok quite apart from their business interests. His Excellency Phya Chuduk Rajasethee was an official in the Foreign Office, and all the civil cases among the Chinese were heard and decided by him, and the title of Phya Baribaon Kosdorn was conferred on Phya Chuduk Rajasethhee's son in recognition of his many services to the country. Messrs. Li Ti Guan have a family house in China and also a large and typically Chinese residence in Bangkok. This is situated close to the mill and is surrounded by a very large area of valuable ground.

MESSRS. JOO SENG.
The rice mill situated on the Klong Kait Mai and known by the name of Guan Joo Seng is operated by Messrs. Joo Seng, a Chinese Company with headquarters at Watkoks, the chief Chinese business quarter in Bangkok, and branches at both Singapore and Hongkong. The mill is equipped with the best modern machinery, and has a capacity of 1,200 piculs of rice per day of twenty-four hours. But while the export of rice constitutes the largest portion of the trade of the firm they have a variety of other interests. They import piece goods and export all kinds of Siamese products and own position, some five years ago, was for a long while connected with the Singapore branch. Mr. Hong Keng Tiong is in charge of the firm's shipping department.

TAN BAN SENG CHIANG RICE MILL.
The Tan Ban Seng Chiang mill, which is situated on the east bank of the Menam river, was established some twelve years ago by a well-known Chinese named Mr. Tan Yeong Siak. This mill and one adjoining it were, for some time, operated conjointly by Mr. Tan Yeong Siak, and the Singapore firm of Messrs. Ban Seng. In 1907, however, this partnership was dissolved and the Tan Ban Seng Chiang Mill was taken over entirely by Mr. Tan Yeong Siak, and is now managed by his son, Mr. Tan Tuan Heang. The mill is well equipped with modern machinery, which is under the charge of a European engineer, and can turn out 2,000 piculs of first quality white rice or 2,800 piculs of cargo rice during the twenty-four hours. But beside the mill Mr. Tan Yeong Siak has many other interests. He has an office at Singapore under the name of Ban Seng Soon, a branch at Kebl, where a considerable import and export trade is carried on, five or six years ago by Towkay Bang Yui Yuen, a native of the Kiang Chew province of China, who has been a resident in Siam for the last sixteen years. The mills are conveniently situated on the banks of klongs (canals) running into the Menam river, and have a combined output of 2,600 piculs of the best rice a day. Every grade of rice is produced and exported to Hongkong, Singapore, and Europe, the work of loading being greatly facilitated by the excellent wharves which each mill possesses. The firm's agent in Singapore is Tong Keng of Market Street, while We Seng and Guan Teck have charge of the firm's interests in Hongkong. In addition to his rice milling operations Towkay Bang Yui Yuen, having purchased a forest concession in the North of Siam and founded two hand saw-mills, is now carrying on a large trade in timber. He is also the Managing Director of the Guan What Lee Chinese Bank, which he and a few friends established some three years ago.

KIM CHENG RICE MILL.
Established some thirty-six years ago on the banks of the Menam Chow Phya, this mill has the distinction of being the first to have pro-

the steamer Singapore, which runs regularly between the town after which it is named and Bangkok, carrying both passengers and cargo. The proprietor of the firm is Mr. Nga Kim Seng, one of the directors of the Sze Hai Tong Banking Corporation, Singapore. The manager at Bangkok is Towkay Nga Keng, a native of Swatow, who, before taking up his present and a piece-goods shop at Samse on under the style of Seng Soon.

GUAN HENG SENG AND GUAN HENG CHAN RICE MILLS.
The Guan Heng Seng and Guan Heng Chan rice mills were established in Bangkok some
TAN BAN SENG CHIANG RICE MILL.

THE RICE MILL.
TAN YEONG SIAK (Proprietor).

THE ENGINE ROOM.
TAN THUAN HEANG (Manager).

(See p. 137.)
BANG YUI YUEN.

1. THE GUAN HENG SENG MILL
2. THE GUAN HENG CHAN MILL
(See p. 157.)
3. BANG YUI YUEN (Owner)
Some of the Milling Machinery,
Lim Teck Lian (Manager).

General View of the Mills.
St. Louis Exhibition Diploma.
mill is devoted solely to the production of the first quality of white rice, and shipments by this company have, for years past, invariably realised the highest price in the Singapore market, while an exhibit by the firm of white rice at the St. Louis Exposition was awarded a bronze medal. The mill has an output of 1,000 bags of No. 1 rice per day of twenty-four hours, and works continuously during separate periods of three months.

The mill is part of the estate of the late Tan Kim Cheng, of Singapore, and is under the management of Mr. Lim Teck Lian, who has general charge of the business in Siam. Like many of the leading Chinese business men in Bangkok, Mr. Lim Teck Lian comes from the Swatow district of China. He has had many years' experience in the rice milling industry.

years ago and now owns and operates five rice mills, a sawmill, and a dockyard, all situated in the vicinity of Samsen and on the bank of the Menam river. The firm's property at Samsen has an extensive water frontage and good wharfage accommodation. The dockyard is capable of dealing with large native craft, small steamers up to 180 feet long, launches and lighters, while attached to it is a well-equipped machine and repairing shop. Both the mills and dockyard are under the supervision of experienced European engineers. The managing partner of the enterprise is Laung Sapan, a native of Bangkok, and a man who takes a very active part in the commercial life of the city. He is one of the promoters of the new Chino-Siamese Steamship Company, and his keen business instinct, together with his ability to command a large amount of capital, has assured success of many other commercial undertakings in Bangkok.

CHOP CHAN KIM KEE.

This firm was established six years ago by Towkay Chan Kim Long, a native of Swatow, who has been resident in Bangkok and engaged in a variety of business pursuits here during the last twenty years. He started business in Sampeng as a money-changer and an importer of silk and various other Chinese products. Subsequently he extended his operations to milling, and erected the Kim Tai Seng rice mill on the bank of the River Menam. Of moderate size, and equipped with good English-made machinery, the mill, which produces all grades of rice from the very best to cargo rice, has a capacity of 50 coyans in the twenty-four hours.

LEE CHENG CHAN AND TOM YAH RICE MILLS.

At the present time few rice mills are in a more flourishing condition than those owned by the partners in the above firm. The mills are two in number and are both of comparatively recent foundation. They are situated at Bangpakok, a short distance nearer to the mouth of the river than the foreign business quarter of Bangkok, and consequently are in a very favourable locality for the unloading of paddy and shipping of rice. They have an extensive frontage of deep water and have good wharves capable of berthing large steamers. The com-
GUAN TIT LEE.

1. Koh Poh Kim (Managing Partner).
2. The Late Poh Chin Soo.
3. The Excuse Room.
4. The Engine Room.
5. The Office.
6. The Private Residence.

(See p. 165.)
LIE CHENG CHAN AND TOM YAH RICE MILLS.

1. The Mill at Bangkolem Point.

2. The Small Mill.
Siam, who in addition to the milling business is the proprietor of a brisk works and the owner of considerable landed property in
Bangkok. Nai Tom Yah is one of the promoters of the new Chino-Siamese Bank and of the new Bangkok Shipping Company, and has many other business interests also. He is an enthusiastic motorist and is the owner of two cars for which he finds ample use.

years later, and have since been conducted by various members of the family with conspicuous success. Mr. Mah Wah was a native of the Swatow district of China; his son, Mr. Koh Khee Soon, who has now succeeded him, is a Chinese scholar of distinction. He lived during the greater part of the year at Hongkong, but makes periodical visits to the various ports where business requires his personal supervision.

of the Menam, has been fitted with an excellent plant by Messrs. Douglas & Grant, the machinery, which was installed under the supervision of Mr. Set Lee, an experienced engineer, including a compound high-pressure engine with 4-feet stroke, and a low-pressure 34-inch jet condensing engine. The building is lighted with electricity, and the loading of the rice for export is much facilitated by the

KOH MAH WAH & CO. (CHOP GUAN HUAT SENG).

1. THE GUAN HOA SENG AND GUAN HONG SENG MILLS.

2. THE OFFICES.

3. THE GUAN CHENG SENG MILL.

KOH MAH WAH & CO.

The majority of the rice mills in Siam are owned by the Chinese, and most of the prominent Chinese firms in Bangkok are engaged, directly or indirectly, with the rice-milling industry. For instance, Koh Mah Wah & Co., who are known more familiarly, perhaps, by the Chop Guan Huat Seng, own and operate three large mills, and are interested as large shareholders in several others. The mills owned by the firm are: Guan Chiang Seng, Guan Hoa Seng, and Guan Hong Seng. They are all mills of large capacity, fitted with modern machinery, and they turn out all grades of rice, from the best No. 1 variety for export to Europe, to large rice for the Eastern market. The mills work the whole twenty-four hours and give employment to upwards of a thousand people. The firm's extensive interests bring them into touch with all the large business centres in the East, and during the last few years they have done much to develop the trade between Bangkok and Java.

The firm was established over fifty years ago by Mr. Mah Wah, the father of the present proprietor. The mills were built some twenty

The members of the Mah Wah family are all British subjects, and their representatives at Bangkok have been recognized as heads of the Chinese business community in Siam during the reigns of three kings.

The company's head office, which is at Hongkong, is the famous Chinese house known as the Yuan Fat Hong. They have also a branch at Singapore under the Chop Guan Huat Chan. Their offices at Bangkok are situated on the river bank, opposite the busiest part of the town. Adjoining them are extensive living quarters for their employees, and a large and well laid out Chinese garden. In addition to their large milling trade the firm also have a branch house at Sampeng, under the Chop Guan Huat Seng Chan, for the import of European goods from Singapore. The general management of the mills and business in Bangkok is in the hands of Towkay Teo Choon Kheng, who is also a native of Swatow.

GUAN TIT LEE & CO.

The rice-milling firm of Guan Tit Lee & Co. was established in Bangkok some fourteen years ago. Their mill, situated on the banks

possession of a spacious wharf capable of berthing large ships.

The managing partner of the firm is Mr. Koh Poh Kim. He is a brother of the late Mr. Poh Chin Soo, and has been for thirty-five years connected with rice milling in Bangkok.

SIENG KEE CHAN RICE MILLS.

Prominent amongst Bangkok's rice mills is the group of three known by the name of the Sieng Kee Chan Mills. The two most important of these are situated close together on the banks of the river, a short distance from the Ban Mai Road, and the other is on the bank of the Klong Kut Mai. The two larger ones are named the Sieng Kee Chan and the Seng Heng Mills, while the smaller is known by the Chop Sieng Huat. The Sieng Kee Chan mill has been established some fifteen years, but the others are of considerably later date. All, however, are under the charge of Mr. J. H. Smith, an expert engineer, and have been kept thoroughly up to date by the introduction of the various improvements made from time to time in rice-milling machinery. The three mills, which are kept working practically all the year round and both day and night, can,
I. General View of Low Ban Seng Mills.

2. Sim Kaeng Leng (Manager). 
(See p. 169)

3. Hong Keng Tong (Manager, Shipping Department).
CHOP FOOK WAH SHAN KEE.

The Fook Wah Shan Kee Mills.

Leon's Shau Shan's Private Residence.

(The p. 169.)

THE LAU BENG SENG RICE MILL.

Phra Charoen Rajathon (Lau Chong Min)

(Proprietor.)

(See p. 169.)
1. THE KHUN LEE CHAN MILLS AT SAMESN.

2. THE LONG HENG LEE MILLS.

3. TAN LIP BUOY (Present Owner).
together, turn out some 6,000 bags of No. 1 white rice in the twenty-four hours, and they give employment to between 700 and 800 hands. The Kee Chan mills are the property of a private company, of which Mr. Tan Kwong Tee, a member of the well-known Tan family of Singapore, is the manager. His brother, Mr. Tan Kwek Hong, who founded the mills, has now retired, but is still living in Bangkok.

CHOP WONG LI.

Messrs. Wong Li & Co., with whose varied interests this sketch deals, were established over thirty years ago. They are rice-millers, importers of silk from China, and of all classes of European piece-goods for the local market. In Bangkok the firm own two mills—one known as the Long Heng Lee mill and the other as the Khiam Lee Chan mill—both large and well equipped with modern and economical machinery, and have a combined capacity of upwards of 2,000 piculs of No. 1 rice per day. They are lighted throughout by electricity and have the latest type of furnaces, which burn paddy husks as fuel. The Bangkok mill is situated on an exceptionally large and valuable site, and has good wharving accommodation for ocean-going steamers. The firm's import and piece-goods trade is carried on under the name of Seng Long, their branch office for this department being situated at Sam Sen. Mr. Tan Tsu Wong, the founder of the firm, is a mandarin of the second class, and was formerly one of the most highly respected members of the Chinese community in Bangkok. He has now handed over the chief charge of his business to his son, Mr. Tan Lip Bay, and is living, with his family, in his native city of Swatow.

THE RESIDENCE OF TAN LIP BUOY.

CHOP LOW BAN SENG.

This firm, which owns several rice mills on the banks of the River Menam and has large shipping interests, was established nearly a quarter of a century ago, and is now one of the best known Chinese companies in Bangkok. Its mills, which are equipped throughout with modern machinery, and are kept working day and night and practically from one year's end to another, turn out something like 700 piculs of rice a day, the greater portion of which is exported to Singapore, where the firm has a branch under the Chop Ban Seng. The general manager at Bangkok is Towkay Sin Kaing Leng, a native of Swatow, who has had a long experience of rice-milling in Siam. The manager of the shipping department is Mr. Hong Keng Tiong, who was born in the Straits Settlements, and received an excellent education in English at the Malacca High School. He has been connected with the shipping trade in Bangkok for the last eighteen years, and, in addition to his other responsibilities, is also in charge of the shipping interests of Messrs. Bon Hong Long and Joo Seng & Co.

CHOP FOOK WAH SHAN KEE.

The firm known as Chop Fook Wah Shan Kee have been in existence in Bangkok for the past forty years. Originally they were contractors, and for a quarter of a century were continually employed by the Government, among many large contracts successfully carried out by them being the construction of most of the forts in and around Bangkok. Some few years ago, however, Mr. Loong Shau Shan, the proprietor of the firm, gave up his business as a contractor and built a large rice mill on the banks of the Menam river, which now, working as it does day and night, gives employment to over 100 people, and turns out over 1,000 piculs of the best white rice in twenty-four hours. Large quantities of the rice are exported, loading being facilitated by the fact that the firm possess their own wharves.

Towkay Loong Shau Shan is a native of Canton. He is held in the highest esteem by all classes in Bangkok, and for his services to the Government has been presented with a medal by His Majesty the king.

LAU BENG SENG.

Amongst the Chinese residents of Siam who have received honours at the hands of His Majesty the king, none are more respected than the members of the family of which Phra Charoen Rajathon (Lau Chong Min) is the head. For the last two generations this gentleman's ancestors have been amongst the leading Chinese of the city, apart from the prominence which they have acquired owing to their extensive business interests. Phra Charoen Rajathon, now the sole proprietor of the firm of Lau Beng Seng, is a large landholder in the Bangkok business quarter, the most valuable portion of his property being the important piece of river frontage occupied by Messrs. Howarth Erkine, Ltd., and Joo Seng, the agent of the ss. Singapore. Immediately opposite he has a large rice mill. This is fitted with modern machinery, and, under the management of the proprietor's brother, turns out a very high quality of white rice, which is purchased to a large extent by local European firms for the home market, while the balance is exported to Singapore and Hongkong, where the firm has a branch house under the style of Ming Joo Thye.
THE TEAK INDUSTRY

By A. J. C. Dickson.

Of Asiatic woods of established commercial value, none is of such importance as the teak (Tectona grandis), a name derived from the Malayalam “Tekka.” The tree has a well-defined range of locality, being found in Central and Southern India, Burma, Siam, the Upper Mekong territory of Indo-China, and Java. It does not appear to exist further south than Java.

METHOD OF EXTRACTING LOGS FROM JUNGLE AT ME LANG, SALWEEN.

or further north than the twenty-third degree of north latitude.

While its longitudinal range is fairly extensive, practically the forests of Burma and Siam only are of sufficient productivity to supply the demands for this valuable timber which come from all quarters of the industrial world. Perhaps Java should be included as a minor, though increasing, source of supply; but while Java teak (vernacularly termed “Djatil”) is a true teak, its greater density and heavity, together with its limitations in respect to size, seriously handicap it as a competitor with the finer and larger teak of Burma and Siam.

India, which in the earlier days of the British occupation possessed magnificent forests of teak, clothing the slopes of the west coast of the Bombay Presidency and extending through Malabar, Cochin, and Travancore, has long ceased to be an exporter, and has become, on a permanent supply of Teak timber from Malabar.” We may assume that teak became definitely known in England as an efficient substitute for English oak for naval shipbuilding some time about the beginning of last century, so that the trade is not of very ancient growth; but there is ample evidence that long before the British conquest of India the native rulers regarded teak as a “royal” tree, and that its splendid timber was highly appreciated by native craftsmen.

Burma is a much older as well as a much larger producer of Teak than Siam. On the basis of statistics for ten years (1895 to 1904 inclusive) Burma’s average yearly total export to all countries was 182,000 tons, as against Siam’s average yearly export for the same period of 50,000 tons. It should be added, however, that figures for later years are more to the advantage of Siam. It should also be pointed out that Siamese forests contribute towards the Burma total, as the entire output of teak logs from the forests situated on the Siamese side of the Salween Valley is worked into the Salween river and floated down to Moulmein, where, after undergoing conversion at the mills, it becomes indistinguishable from Burma-grown teak. From Burma Forest Administration reports it appears that the yearly supply of newly-grown teak logs to Moulmein averaged during the ten years 1894-95 to 1903-04 about 120,000 logs, but figures for later years show that the average annual arrivals at Moulmein from Siam do not now exceed 26,000 logs.

To those not technically familiar with teak some description of the tree and its timber may be of interest. The tree is of the deciduous family, and flourishes best on hilly ground in situations where the rainfall is not excessive, and where a protecting shade is afforded by the foliage of other trees. To speak of a “teak forest” is somewhat to misname things, as in its natural state teak grows intermixed with heterogeneous forest flora, and is often, indeed, the least numerous and most thinly scattered of all the varieties of trees having their habitat in the same forest area. It is distinguishable by its broad, drooping leaves, somewhat resembling elephants’ ears. The texture of the wood appears to be greatly influenced by that of the ground on which it has grown, varying from a comparatively softness to an almost flint-like degree of hardness. In its green state the tree is very liable to attack by predatory insects, chief among which is the so-called “bee-hole” borer, a destructive caterpillar of the sub-order...
Heterocera. The chief virtue of teak is its essential oil, which clogs the cellular tissues of the timber, thereby assisting its resistance to the action of water, and acting as an inherent preservative against rust and decay when used in metals. The preservative properties of the teak oil render the wood an indispensable material for the “backing” of warship armour-plate, as well as for the sheathing of warship hulls. It is an equally valuable characteristic of teak that it resists the ravages of the white ant (Termitidae), and is therefore an indispensable material in tropical countries for house-building and general constructional purposes. It possesses the further merit (to quote from the work of Thomas Haslett on “Timber and Timber Trees”), “so many valuable properties that it has long been held in great esteem as a material for construction, while its economical uses are so great that there is no carpenter or other worker in wood who does not, after having once tried it, fully appreciate its value.”

A brief retrospect of the teak trade of Siam may not be out of place before proceeding to a more detailed survey of the conditions as they exist to-day. As an organised industry, initiated and developed by European capital and enterprise, it may be said to have barely half a century old. One European company had its agents in the north, buying teak logs, as far back as 1860, but apparently it was not until 1873 that any serious attempt was made to introduce Siamese teak to the European market. Haslett refers to a “sample” shipment of 200 tons of teak timber from Bangkok having been brought to London in that year, and although his criticism of such sample is none too favourable, he encouragingly adds: “I am of opinion that if the timber is only carefully sorted over at Bangkok, good shipments might be made for the London market.” From another authority we learn that until about the year 1884 but little more than the most tentative attempts had been made to place Siam teak on the European markets. We may take it, therefore, that, as an entity of importance in the country’s exports the teak trade reached its adolescence some thirty years ago. Its growth was from modest beginnings, and the legend exists that pioneer shippers, employing native hand-sawyers, “squared” their first cargo of logs in a carefully closed-up shed, so that their novel operations might be screened from the too inquisitive eyes of their neighbours. Gradually steam-sawing machinery displaced the primitive hand-sawing methods, although for many years the innumerable hand-sawing sheds owned by Chinese constituted a very considerable industry, the aggregate output of which was more than equal to that of the European-owned steam mills. Up in the north agents of the principal Bangkok companies steadily developed their policy of acquiring supplies from first-hand sources, but the year 1883 marks approximately the point when European interests in the forest districts assumed solid importance, assisted by the protection afforded by the Chiangmai Treaty, signed in that year between the British and Siamese Governments, which extended the principle of extra-territoriality in a modified form to British subjects resident in Northern Siam. Not until about the year 1888, however, do we find a forest being worked by a European company; the Siamese Government being unwilling to grant leases to European companies, who, consequently, were put in control of supplies of timber by advancing money to native leaseholders and contractors. The year 1896 initiated another important period for the teak trade in regard, especially, to the forest-working branch of it, as in that year the Siamese Government established a Forest Department, under British-Indian officials, whose work has been to introduce measures for the conservation of the forests.

The changes introduced, including a more drastic form of lease, higher royalties, and the strict closing of various overworked areas, have not been to the immediate advantage of the trade, but it must be admitted they represent an inevitable policy on the part of any government include the most important, while of five European companies working teak in the northern forest districts four are British. Judged by the amount of capital employed by them, the British share of the trade is even more preponderating.

The teak-bearing forests of Siam are in the northern or Laos territory, lying approximately between the sixteenth and twenty-first parallels of northern latitude, having the Salween river on the west, the Mekong on the east, with the Bangkok river (the Menam) and its numerous feeders draining the centre. On the extreme west the forests drained by the tributaries of the Salween have their products worked out into that river and eventually floated down to Moulmein, hence these forests are of no direct interest to those engaged in the Bangkok trade. On the western side rich teak country exists on the Siam border, drained by the great Mekong river, but there are no water-ways communicating with the
Siamese rivers, and the efforts of French traders to utilise the Mekong for floating the timber down to Saigon have not met with any considerable measure of success owing to the river being quite unsuited for the purpose. The supplies of teak for Bangkok are the product of the workings in the central portion of the Laos country, which has its water-ways liberally supplied by the Menam and its two principal tributaries, the Me Ping and Me Yome, with their branch-streams, the Me Wang and Me Nan. The principal centres of trade and population are the towns of Chiengmai, Lakan Lanpang, Prae, and Nan. Chiengmai, about 300 miles' journey from Bangkok, is the oldest centre of forest operations, and it is computed that the teak forests in this district have been worked for well over half a century. Growing teak is found on the hills between the Menam Kwa Noi and the Menam Kwa Yai, north and north-west of the town of Kanburi, and this is probably the most southerly point it reaches in Indo-China; it is not worked, however, owing to the smallness of the streams and other natural obstacles. Excellent teak forests are reported to exist in the very northernly Chiangmai district, but the absence of river communication with the south is a serious obstacle to their working. Gener ally speaking, the more southerly forests, which are naturally those that have been longest worked, are largely depleted of their marketable trees and, where not actually closed, are worked under severe restrictions imposed by the Government. The tendency is for forest operations to extend further and further northward from the old bases, and forests which, in the early days, would have been regarded as unworkable, in these times of more strenuous competition are made workable by the ingenious adaptation of mechanical appliances for the handling of timber over hills too steep for the employment of elephants. All this makes for increased cost of extraction and delivery, and necessitates higher prices in Bangkok and from the foreign buyer for the timber. The amount of capital invested in the teak trade, both as regards the forest and sawmilling branches of it, has been variously estimated as being somewhere in the neighbourhood of £2,000,000, and although such figures are of necessity highly conjectural, it is a fact that those who engage in the business, more especially in the foresty branch, essentially require to be the possessors of very long purses. On an average some three to four years must elapse before the ginning of the rainy season, May to June or July, if the water is insufficient, the elephant is called in to assist by pushing the logs over the shallower places. Once into the main streams the fast flowing current carries them down singly to the rafting and salvage stations, where the timber is collected and made up into rafts. From the various rafting stations the rafts are floated down to Paknampho, the point at which the chief teak rivers have a common junction with the Bangkaph river, the Menam, and here the inland duty is collected by the forest officials of the Siamese Government. The duty is paid according to a fixed tariff, and varies in ratio to the length and girth of each log; the average duty per log being approximately equal to 4s. at present exchange. Once this inland duty is paid there is no additional export tax levied on teak.

The following are the approximate figures of the total arrivals of teak logs at the Paknampho Duty Station for the ten years 1898–1907 inclusive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Logs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>50,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>53,690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>120,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>64,170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>64,375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>105,530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>135,140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>140,753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>86,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>108,398</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average yearly delivery, according to the above figures, is 93,700 logs, but it is worthy of
remark that while the average for the five years 1908-1912 was 79,150 logs, that for the five years 1903-1907 was considerably larger, viz., 116,077 logs. It is clear, in face of the sustained largeness of the arrivals for the later years, that the prophecy confidently made in 1905, that that year would mark the turning-point in the direction of a reduced volume of output, has not yet shown itself to be justified. At the same time, it must be admitted that quantity has been maintained largely at the expense of quality, many reasons having combined to make it necessary or profitable to work down a class of timber which, in former years, would have been generally regarded as too poor to repay expenditure. 

Dispatched from Paknampob, after being "passed" by the duty officers, the rafts enter upon the final stage of the journey to Bangkok, and thereafter their further manipulation becomes a matter for the sawmiller. The Bangkok mills vary in size and capacity of machinery, but possess certain features in common which may be briefly described. To begin with, an ample width of river frontage is necessarily an important desideratum, as rafts of round teak require spacious storage accommodation, and the sawn logs also are moored in rafts in the water for conveyance to the exporting steamer. Next in importance to the water-frontage is the essential that there should be a "long" (or creek) leading from the river and running up one side of the mill's premises, communicating with a "dock" into which the round logs are floated, and from which dock they are hauled up on to the mill floor by power haulage. From the mill floor power-driven overhead travelling cranes pick up the logs and place them on the steel travelling tables of the large self-acting rack benches which are in general use for the conversion of the round wood into squared logs. For the rough and ready work of slicing off the "slab" and transforming the round wood into square or rectangular-shaped timber, no type of machine has been found to equal the self-acting circular saw rack bench, with its chains from 50 to 60 feet, laid flush with the mill floor, and carrying saws up to 7 feet in diameter. For the finer work of sawing the round logs into planks and similar thin material, where exact thicknessing is important, the machine in general favour is the vertical saw frame, either belt driven or with direct-acting engine overhead. These two types of sawing machines constitute what is generally termed the "breaking down" mill. For re-sawing the slabs and small material thrown off by the big machines in the process of "breaking down," the well-equipped mill would include a full complement of circular saw benches and cross-cutting benches, while in the larger establishments various other subsidiary machinery, such as deal frames, planing machinery, shingle and key-making machinery, &c., are included. The economical utilisation of all "waste" is of particular importance, having regard to the costly nature of the rough material, and the careful mill manager is at constant pains to develop the by-products of his mill and to diminish the firewood pile. The motive power in all cases is furnished by steam, the generation of which is quite inexpensive, as the sawdust and small refuse of the mill provide an ample supply of fuel for the furnaces. The sawing machinery of a teak mill requires to be of a very strong and solid construction to withstand the rough usage of native labour as well as the coarse and gritty character of the rough material, and it is interesting to know that practically all the Bangkok sawmills are equipped with machinery of British manufacture. Chinese, Siamese, and Burmese supply the labour, which, generally speaking, is inefficient, viewed from the European standpoint, nor has it the compensating advantage of cheapness, seeing that individual inefficiency has to be made up for by an increase in num-

bers. The visitor to a Bangkok sawmill will not see anything of that perfection of ingenuity in regard to labour-saving appliances which is such an interesting feature of the large American lumber mills, but he will doubtless find much to interest him in the general arrangements, intelligently planned with a view to the economic "travel" of the timber in one direction from rough to finished, the strong, heavy can of timber, the allocation of which to their proper classes for conversion in order to facilitate and expedite the work of the sawyer calls for not a little expert knowledge and practical judgment. Roughly speaking, teak round 

![RAFTING TEAK LOGS ON THE ME YOME.](image)

![RAFTING TEAK LOGS.](image)

sawing machinery made as far as practicable "fool proof," and strong but simple mechanical appliances provided in mill and yards displacing or supplementing manual labour.

As may be supposed, a teak raft—which may contain anything between a hundred and two hundred logs, according to size and other circumstances—comprises many qualities logs fall naturally into two categories, sound and unsound, the former being squared into logs for sale in bulk, the latter being cut down into smaller conversions. It is characteristic
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

of teak that an opinion founded on the external quality of the rough material is frequently upset by unsuspected internal faults being laid bare by the saw, and the eccentricities of the "heart," which is seldom straight and very seldom sound, are a constant difficulty in the way of its economical conversion. The process of squaring is, as its name implies, merely the sawing of a round log on all its sides into a square-shaped piece of timber, the object of the sawyer being to produce as good a quality as practicable with the least possible "waste" or loss of measurement. Once the log is squared it is ready for the market, excepting that immediately prior to being shipped its rough ends, which have purposely been left on as a natural protection against weather defects, are sawn off so as to present a fresh, clean appearance, the machine generally used for this purpose being the reciprocating cross-cut saw. In the conversion of planks care is taken to saw them clear of heart-wood, which explains to a large extent the higher cost per ton of first-class planks as compared with squares.

The principal markets for Bangkok teak are Europe, India, China, Japan, Straits Settlements, Colombo, Indo-China, &c., while occasional shipments find their way to America, Africa, and Australia. Manila, which years ago was a considerable customer for Siam teak, has again become a buyer since the American occupation and subsequent development of naval construction. It is interesting to recall that Java was at one time a fairly large importer of teak from Bangkok. Nowadays, Java is keenly engaged, and not unsuccessfully, in trying to elbow Siam teak out of various markets abroad and to get its own teak preferred. It may be assumed that practically all the best of each season's production of sawn timber is exported, while the residue, representing sizes or quality unsuitable for exportation, is consumed locally for house-building, boat construction, and various other purposes. About four years ago the local consumption was estimated at about 15,000 to 20,000 logs per year, but it is extremely doubtful whether, in face of the great increase in cost of teak timber delivered on the Bangkok market, which has been such a marked feature of the trade in recent years, more than half this quantity is cut at the present time. Siam is peculiarly a market which looks less at durability than at first cost, and the increasing import of cheap woods from Singapore, together with a noticeable activity in the exploitation of woods other than teak, are facts which furnish proof of the extent to which teak material is being displaced in Siam itself.

The figures of the exports of teak to all countries during the past ten years are as under, it being observed that the Customs and private statistics on which these are based can only be regarded as, in many cases, very approximate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>To Europe</th>
<th>To Eastern and other non-European Markets</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>8,859</td>
<td></td>
<td>17,036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>11,182</td>
<td></td>
<td>27,085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>13,187</td>
<td></td>
<td>37,501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>14,255</td>
<td></td>
<td>48,543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>7,543</td>
<td></td>
<td>50,093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>15,087</td>
<td></td>
<td>64,544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1904</td>
<td>15,099</td>
<td></td>
<td>85,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>17,266</td>
<td></td>
<td>101,374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>11,454</td>
<td></td>
<td>75,819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1907</td>
<td>12,654</td>
<td></td>
<td>98,478</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The foregoing table gives an average yearly export of about 63,000 tons, of which barely 20 per cent. of the quantity has gone to Europe, the remaining 80 per cent. being marketed in other countries, among which India is by far the largest consumer. Comparing the figures for the five years 1898-1902 with those for the five years 1903-1907, a falling-off in the average percentage shipped to Europe is observable, viz., 25 per cent. for the first five years as against only 16 per cent. for the second period. This falling off of about 9 per cent. in the shipments of first-class teak can only be explained in the light of what has been previously said as to the poorer quality of round timber received from the forests in recent years.

In concluding this article, it is satisfactory to record that the British Admiralty, which for many years set its face against the use of Siam teak in its dockyards, having retained with extreme conservatism a prejudice against it dating from unsatisfactory results experienced with some of the very earliest Bangkok shipments, now admits teak from Bangkok into its tenders on an equality with Rangoon and Moulmein teak.

DENNY, MOTT & DICKSON, LTD.

The business of Denny, Mott & Dickson dates from 1875. Having been carried on with exceptional prosperity as a firm for twenty-five years, it was transferred to a limited liability company in 1900, with a fully paid share capital of £200,000, the shareholders consisting entirely of the partners and staff of the old firm. In 1906, owing to the rapid expansion of the business requiring an enlargement of the capital, the company was re-registered under the same name but with a share capital of £300,000, fully paid. The public were admitted as shareholders to a limited extent, but the directors and staff of the old company retained a preponderating share in the proprietary of the company. The Bangkok premises of the company occupy a central position on the west side of the river Menam. Their business consists of the exportation of teakwood, for which purpose they own and operate a steam sawmill efficiently equipped with high-class machinery, and the importation of general goods, for which trade
they possess riverside godowns, wharfs, cranes, &c., affording excellent facilities for economical handling and warehousing of large quantities of goods.

Messrs. Denny, Mott & Dickson's direct connection with Siam dates from 1864. In that year their representative, Mr. A. J. C. Dickson, arrived in Bangkok to supervise the execution of various contracts for first-class teak timber which had been entered into by the firm with some Bangkok shippers. In the two following years several sailing-ship cargoes of teak were despatched by them and successfully marketed in the United Kingdom. The favourable results attending this venture led to the firm acquiring their own premises in Bangkok, and by the end of 1868 they had completed the erection of their sawmill, with offices, yards, sheds, and all the usual accessories of a well-organised mill, the machinery being furnished by the well-known Scotch firm of sawmill machinists, Messrs. John McDowall & Sons, whose expert representative spent over a year in Bangkok superintending the work of erection. Since then the premises have been steadily extended to provide the increased facilities demanded by an ever-growing business, and at the present time the mill is excellently situated to undertake the largest contracts for supplies of teak material, a leading "speciality" being made of the high-class conversions required by shipbuilders and rolling-stock constructors. In the European markets the name of Denny, Mott & Dickson, closely identified with the teak trade for about thirty-four years, has acquired the familiarity of a "household word" among the shipbuilding, rolling-stock, and other important teak-using industries. Although the company's Bangkok mill is the youngest among the large European teak sawmills established in Bangkok, it has, during the ten years of its career, secured for itself an important share of the teak business in the Eastern markets, besides being increasingly employed in the production of high-class conversions against home orders.

Messrs. Denny, Mott, & Dickson initiated their importing trade in 1901, and this has been a consistently progressive branch of their business, the company to-day occupying a prominent place among the large houses importing foreign merchandise into Bangkok. They import both hardware and soft goods, the very varied list of articles handled comprising practically all the leading lines in demand in the Siam market. Commodious iron-built godowns conveniently situated on the river-front, with deep-water wharfage, provide excellent storage facilities for the large stocks carried.

The manager in Bangkok is Mr. A. J. C. Dickson, the company's pioneer in the work of establishing, organising, and developing the Bangkok branch. He is now assisted by a staff of four Europeans. The headquarters of the company are at 14, Fenchurch Street, E.C., and they have subsidiary establishments at Liverpool, Glasgow, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Cardiff, Preston, and Fleetwood. In addition to their house in Siam they are also represented abroad by an important agency at Delagoa Bay.

THE BORNEO COMPANY, LTD.

The Bangkok branch of the Borneo Company, Ltd., was established in 1850, the same year as the formation of the company. Although a portion of their work in Bangkok is in connection with general imports, exports, and shipping, their attention is devoted principally to rice and teak. They possess a rice mill and teak sawmills, the latter of which are supplied with rough timber from the north of Siam, where the company hold forest concessions. They are agents for the P. and O. and N.Y.K. shipping lines, and for the Asiatic and the Anglo-Saxon Petroleum Companies, who have oil tanks in Bangkok for the storing of kerosene and liquid fuel. The Borneo Company, Ltd., are Lloyd's agents, and are the largest coal suppliers in the port.

SIAM FOREST COMPANY, LTD.

A general description of the teak trade, together with some details respecting the forests of Siam, appears elsewhere in this volume, and in this short sketch of the Siam Forest Company, Ltd., therefore, it is unnecessary to dwell upon further details. The important bearing the teak industry—furnishing employment as it does for many thousands of men—has upon the prosperity of the country is well known. In this trade the Siam Forest Company, Limited, have taken a leading part for the past quarter of a century. They have immense forest concessions in Northern Siam. From these abundant supplies of teak are obtained and floated down the rivers to their sawmills, from where, after being prepared and fashioned according to requirements, it is exported to all parts of the world, but especially to India, Europe, the United Kingdom,
Gexf.ru.

View from the River.

SIAM FOREST COMPANY, LTD.

1. General View from the River.
2. Offices and Godowns.
3. The Timber Shed.
4. The Sawmills.
America, and Japan. Their mills are known as the Bangkok Sawmills, and at all times they have large stocks of wood on hand. In 1890 their old mill was completely destroyed by fire. The new one, which stands on a plot of land having a water frontage of a quarter of a mile in length, has been equipped after the very latest and most improved methods, and contains the best pattern milling machinery. Recently the firm absorbed the business carried on in Bangkok under the name of Clarke & Co., of which Mr. L. Blech, the present managing director, and Mr. S. H. Hendrick, the manager in Siam for the Siam Forest Company, Ltd., were partners. They have branches in various parts of Siam—in Lakon-Lampang, Mg. Ngon, Mg. Prayon, Sawankaloke, Phrae, Oosteradit, and Paknampho, and employ a staff of some twenty Europeans, who have been established in Siam for over thirty years. They carry on a general timber business, and deal with every description of wood, including, especially, teak, Tabek wood, Mai Padou, and Mai Kien. The timber is cut into scantlings in their steam sawmills in Windmill-road, and is both sold locally and shipped to foreign ports. The firm also conduct for architectural and civil engineering work, and supply all kinds of household furniture.

Messrs. A. Pialet & Co. are the proprietors of the Siam Free Press, a daily paper published in French, English, and Siamese, and are the sole representatives in Siam of the well-known “du Globe” brand of tobacco and cigarettes, Messrs. Descours, Cabaud & Co., and La Société de Construction de Levallais-Perey.

Mr. A. Pialet, the head of the firm, has been associated with the timber trade for many years in Siam. He is by profession a civil and mining engineer.

THE SRIRACHA COMPANY, LTD.

The concession granted to the Sriracha Company, Ltd., was secured by the founder of the company, H. E. Chow Phya Sarasakdi Montri, in 1898, and embraces the whole district known as Srimaharacha, on the east coast of Siam, situated opposite the island of Koal Si Chang.

The area was at the time of establishment of the company about 400 square miles, but has in recent years been considerably increased. The territory is well wooded, and produces several specimens of valuable timber for which there is a great demand in ship and house building, in addition to fancy woods, suitable for furniture, and hardwoods for sleepers and heavy constructional work where strength and exceptional length are required. The soil in parts is permeable laterite gravel, and in the upper forests shows considerable traces of decomposed granite, and it is owing to such soil that the shires of the timber are rendered so compact and so much more durable than timber found in some of the other forests in Siam. The varieties of trees include the Xyilia Dolabriformis, Sarcocephalus Cadamba, Pterocarpus Indicus, Dipterocarpus (Tuberculatus, Turbinatus, Obtusifolius Lavis), Hopea Odorata, Lagerstroemia Flos Regine, Lagerstroemia Tomentosa, Cedrela Toona, Messa Perrea, Rhizophora Macromata, Heritiera Minor, Vatica Lancetifolia, and Bursera Serrata, &c.

On the property the company have a large sawmill. The main engine is of an American make, while the sawing benches were purchased from Messrs. John McDowall & Sons, Glasgow; Thomas Robinson & Sons, Ltd., Rochdale; and A. Ransome & Co. Ltd., London. The locomotives were supplied by the Brush Electrical Engineering Company and the timber trucks by Orenstein and Koppel, of Berlin.

The service railway in the concession is at present ran for about 104 miles into the forest from the sea coast, and an additional track for a further extension is being constructed. The wharves adjoining the sawmill on the coast are laid with rails, and possess every convenience to facilitate speedy shipment at that point where there is safe berthing and good water for lighters and steamers.

The increase in the territory exploited was secured by an additional concession, nearly 290 square miles in extent, which brings the total property of the company up to about 690 square miles. It is held on a long lease, which
THE SRIRACHA COMPANY, LTD.

1. View of the Sriracha Sawmills
2. View in one of the Forests, showing Huge Trees
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will enable the company to embark upon a large expenditure for the development of the timber and other articles of forest produce, such as the numerous Ficus-trees yielding rubber.

The company was formed into a limited liability company on September 1, 1908, the members of the original firm retaining the greater number of the shares, a small portion only being left for subscription. The company, realising the richness of the concession and the necessity of careful management in order to bring about the greatest possible chances of development and a successful future, invited the Borneo Company, Ltd. (the oldest of European firms in Siam), to co-operate in the working of the business. The Borneo Company, Ltd., thereby become the managing agents, and acquire a half interest in the enterprise.

Within the concession and less than an hour's ride from the mill are to be found several sulphur springs, to the excellent medicinal properties of which the robust health of the members of the staff bears fine testimony. Srimaharacha as a health resort, indeed, has much in its favour—beautiful scenery, pure sea air, and a temperature some three or four degrees lower than that of Bangkok. Visitors

doctor from Japan with several assistants, both Siamese and Japanese. The Srimaharacha Company have also a doctor in their service who comes from the Tokio Medical Society, and has had eleven years' experience in one of the largest hospitals in Japan.

Communication with Bangkok is maintained by a weekly service of the Siam Steam Navigation Company, Ltd., which runs as far as Muang Krati, calling at Srimaharacha en route.

Mr. F. V. de Jesus, who, through his connection with the Srimaharacha Company, has been long associated with the teak trade, is a member of one of the oldest families that have settled in Siam. He was born in Bangkok in 1864, and received his English education at St. Joseph's Institution, Singapore, where he remained as a student from 1875 to 1879. On returning to Bangkok he secured a position in the office of Grassi Brothers & Co., civil engineers, architects, contractors, and timber merchants. Towards the close of 1893, however, the heads of the firm returned to Europe, and their premises were taken over by Mr. E. Bonneville, a timber merchant, who retained the services of Mr. de Jesus as manager. Mr. Bonneville's death at the end of 1894 brought about another change, for the business from that date was carried on by

when the Srimaharacha Company was reconstructed and turned into a limited liability company, Mr. de Jesus joined the Board as one of the first directors, and his knowledge of various languages gives him a special advantage in handling the workmen employed. Mr. de Jesus recently compiled the guide map of Bangkok which is reproduced in this work.

KWONG NGAN FONG.

Although they have been established in Bangkok for seven years only, the firm of Kwong Ngan Fong have already secured for themselves a high reputation, both as rice-millers and teak merchants. They own what is but a moderately-sized rice-mill, it is true, but it is equipped with first-class machinery, and, when kept working day and night, it can produce 24,000 bags of rice in the month. They also own the large "Kwong Kim Loong" sawmills, situated at Samseon. They have large forest concessions at Soophan, Oottal, Kaunpang, Lukon, and Phra, from which the timber is floated down the river to the mills and made ready for export. The firm are also the agents for the Fook On Insurance Company, of Hongkong.

The founder and proprietor of the business

KWONG NGAN FONG.

THE RESIDENCE.

THE SAWMILLS.
WING SENG LONG & CO.

1. The Sawmills.
2. An Interior View of the Mill.
3. Another View of the Mill.

EAST ASIATIC COMPANY, LTD.

1. Interior of Sawmill at Bandon.
THE BOMBAY-BURMA TRADING CORPORATION, LTD.

The business of a large concern such as the Bombay-Burma Trading Corporation, Ltd., with chief offices in Bombay, Rangoon, Montmore, Sourabaya, and Bangkok, must necessarily be extensive and of a varied type, but the exploitation of teak forests is practically the main interest of the Bangkok office. From the concessions granted by the Government a large quantity of teak is sent from the interior and exported by this company from Bangkok to all parts of the world. The corporation has been established in Bangkok for about twenty years, the joint managers of the branch at the present time being Mr. Hamilton Price and Mr. W. W. Wood.

WING SENG LONG & CO.

Of the many important sawmills which line the banks of the Menam river in the vicinity of Bangkok, few surpass the one owned by Messrs. Wing Seng Long & Co. It is well constructed, well equipped with modern machinery, is under the control of men who have spent their lives in the trade, and in no way falls below the standard of those mills owned by the European companies engaged in the teak industry. The plant, in the selection of which the experience of older mills in Bangkok proved an invaluable guide, consists of a large rack bench, one edging and one planking bench, three small benches, one double deal frame, a swinging cross-cut saw, two steam cross-cuts, and all the other necessary machinery for sharpening and punching saws, &c. The furnaces are of the most effective and economical type, burning sawdust as fuel.

The firm, which is a private one established only three years ago, has, up to the present, dealt with teak-wood only, and the output is mostly disposed of locally. The capital of the company consists of 250 shares of 1,000 ticals each, and already a considerable reserve fund has been built up by careful management. The controlling partners are Messrs. Loh Snn, Wong Fui, and Lim Chun Beng, each of whom has charge of a different department of the business.

Messrs. Wing Seng Long & Co. are also importers of silk from Canton, in which city they have a branch under their own name. In Hongkong their branch is situated at No. 4, Queen Street, and is known as Wing Seng Chan. It is largely to these centres that their timber for export goes, although they also export to Singapore and Shanghai, and have their own agents in those ports.

EAST ASIATIC COMPANY.

An account of the general activities of the East Asiatic Company appears in another section of this volume. Mr. H. K. Kitzau, the manager of the company’s sawmills, photographs of which are reproduced, has been connected with the timber trade for the last thirteen years. Formerly he was stationed up-country, at one of the company’s timber depots, but now he is located in Bangkok, and has two mills under his control—the Bangkok mill, at which only teak is worked, and the Bandon mill, where all kinds of wood other than teak are prepared for export.

Mr. Kitzau is an expert in all varieties of timber, and his long experience of the trade has eminently fitted him for the important position he now occupies.

ENG LIANG YONG SAWMILLS.

The Eng Liang Yong sawmills, which are situated at Samsen, on the banks of a klong flowing into the Menam river, are the property of Mr. Eng Liang Yong. He established them four years ago, but two years after they were erected they were destroyed by fire and were then entirely rebuilt and fitted up with the most modern class of wood-working machinery. The mills give employment to a number of skilled workmen, who are under the personal supervision of their employer.

Mr. Eng Liang Yong deals in all varieties of timber, but his trade is purely local. He has had upwards of ten years’ experience as a general contractor, and has successfully carried out the construction of several large buildings in Bangkok.
STUDY of the statistics of the world's supply of tin reveals the fact that over two-thirds of the total output comes from the Malay Peninsula and its continuation to the south in the islands of Banda and Billoo. The central portion of this long stretch of country is occupied by the States of Perak and Selangor, which produce nearly half the world's tin. The northern part consists of the Siamese State of Kedah and the province of Puket.

Tin is the only mineral which is worked on a large scale in Siam at the present time. It is disseminated more or less throughout the whole of the Siamese portions of the Malay Peninsula. Just as the Federated Malay States to the south the west coast has produced more tin than the east, so in Siam the island of Puket and the province of Panggur, Taluamp, and Renong, which face the Bay of Bengal, have proved themselves far richer than the adjacent provinces on the other side of the peninsula. The island of Puket alone is responsible for nearly half the tin produced in the country. This island, known to the Siamese as Puket, is usually referred to as Tongkah in the Federated Malay States, and is marked as Junk Ceylon in the Admiralty charts.

There is no doubt that tin has been worked along the western shore of the Siamese portion of the peninsula for a very long time. Unfortunately, little is known of these earlier miners, and there are no statistics to show how much has been produced from these States in the past. There is little doubt, however, that before the arrival of the Chinese, who are now almost the sole workers for tin, the Indians mined along the sea coast. Evidence of this is afforded along the Panggur shore, where old remains, such as pottery, &c., are occasionally unearthed. Along this shore there must have been a belt of rich tin-bearing land. At the present time small patches are still discovered, but on following them up they are always found to end abruptly with evident signs of the surrounding lands having been worked out in bygone times.

On the island of Puket the tin comes almost entirely from the south-east quarters. This area is bounded by ranges of high hills on the north and east, which are principally composed of slate, and are cut by granite dykes which contain the metal. The Chinese work these dykes near the surface, where they are soft and decomposed. The whole of the valley land is covered with alluvial, which in most places consists of clay to a depth of from 20 to 40 feet; under this there is a bed of gravel containing tin varying both in thickness and in richness of its tin contents, its average thickness in the working places being about 5 feet. This thin gravel bed must have produced tin to the value of many millions sterling. The whole of its contents appear to have come originally from the granite dykes above mentioned. The hills must have gradually weathered away, the slate producing the clay of the alluvial, and the dykes the stanniferous gravel bed, the whole of the valley being then covered by the sea. The greater part of the area covered by this stanniferous bed is now worked out, though some rich patches and a good deal of the less valuable parts are left.

It has long been known that this stanniferous layer extended out into the sea at Puket Harbour. For several years the Chinese worked this submarine area by the following methods: A dam was built out from the shore so as to enclose an area of a few acres of shallow water and the sea water was then pumped out. This enclosed area was worked out, the over-burden being used to build another dam outside the first, and so enclose a second area for working. This process had been going on for a considerable time, and over 100 acres of the bay had so been worked out. The Government were then obliged to stop all further work of this kind in the harbour, as it was causing the channel to silt up so badly that at dead low water it was impossible to get to and from the town.

At this point the Government was approached on the subject of granting a concession of the whole harbour for dredging purposes, and after some negotiations a concession was given to the Tongkah Harbour Tin Dredging Company, by which they were entitled to dredge the whole harbour for tin, but must in return construct a dock and channel leading from the dock to the deep water. There is no reason to doubt that this wonderfully rich stratum, which has been proved in an unbroken line from the hills to the shore, will continue far out under the sea. The company have already one large dredge at work, and it is reported that they have ordered two more. The returns from the dredge that is working are very satisfactory under the circumstances. Naturally, on starting a new enterprise of this kind a great many unforeseen difficulties arose, but there is every indication that these difficulties have been successfully overcome, and the company should have a long and prosperous future before them.

It is also likely that we shall see other undertakings starting before long on the neighbouring bays of the island, as several applications have been made for similar rights to dredge. It must, however, be remembered that the main run of tin in the island is straight out into Tongkah Harbour, and that though in places there are stanniferous strata which appear to exist under the adjacent bays, none of them can approach in richness the main belt, and that even if the Tongkah Harbour Tin Dredging Company should prove a great success, it does not necessarily follow that similar undertakings elsewhere on the island would be equally successful.

Practically the whole of the mining on the island of Puket is carried on at the present time by Hokien Chinese. In the old days these Tongkah Chinese had the name of being the best miners in the peninsula, and undoubtedly they have shown great resource and ingenuity in their methods of work, especially in the way they have brought in water from long distances, crossing deep valleys by means of very high aqueducts constructed entirely of wood and rattan found in the vicinity, not a nail being used in their construction. At the present time their methods are in some respects behind those of the Perak Chinese, the reason of this being twofold—firstly, that they have not come so much into contact with Europeans and have not yet learnt in the same way the use of machinery; and secondly, because the deposits are fairly uniform and shallow and there is not the same necessity for mechanical aids. So far no deep layers of tin have been discovered on the island, though frequent attempts have been made to discover them by means of boring. In this respect the Government have taken a very active part, having their own boring crews continually at work.

In the provinces of Takuapa and Renong to the north of Puket, granite dykes occur similar in nature to those at Puket, but the conditions for laying down a large stratum of alluvial have not been so favourable. In Renong especially there is an enormous quantity of this granite
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material which is decomposed down to a considerable depth, and has been worked by the Chinese for many years. Old workings have recently been done by an English company in the way of prospecting this huge mass of material with the idea of hydraulic mining the large, however, they were subject to difficulties in the way, however, and the company have now abandoned the idea. They have instead taken a lease on some land which covers the alluvial derived from this granitic mass, and intend to work it by means of a dredge. The best of this alluvial has been worked out by the Chinese, who are employed to recover the lower portions owing to the quantity of water.

The most striking feature of the tin-mining in Siamese Malaya as compared with that in the Federated Malay States is the very common occurrence of these granitic dykes which form such a very evident mark of the alluvial.

On the east coast of the peninsula the mining is all on a very small scale. An attempt was made recently by a British company with a very large capital to commence mining operations on a large scale. The mine was situated near the town of Langsuan, and a short line of railway did the town to the mine. A large pipe line was put in to bring in water from a stream many miles distant, and a large steam driven dredge. The latter only not as yet justified this enormous expense. No details were ever published, as far as I am aware, of any small tin mining operations.

Another attempt at a mine on the east coast ended in a failure, as the gentlemen engaged in this enterprise do not seem to have been well acquainted with the peculiarities of their undertaking, and shipped large quantities of worthless iron ore to Singapore under the impression that it was tin.

Almost in the centre of the peninsula, in the State of Raham, there are some old tin workings which have long had a great reputation among the Malays and which have been worked for a long time by the Rajah of Raham. These old workings are on the side of a hill known as Bukit Pok, and for many years have been managed by a Chinaman of the name of Datoh Chang Wang. The work was carried on by ditching down the alluvial on the hillside and in the valley below the hill. Water was brought by a ditch line from a distance. The valley itself lies about 700 to 800 feet above sea level, and Bukit Pok is 1000 feet above sea level. The work was carried on above the valley level. The Chinese have occasionally sent coolies nearly to the top of the hill to collect the richest lumps of tin and carry them down to the water. This was done to break up and concentrate. Needless to say that rock which would pay for treatment of this kind must be very rich indeed. When the Siamese Government commenced issuing regular title-deeds through the mining department, the widow of the late Rajah of Raham was granted a lease for such land as she required in this district. In this lease the crown of the hill was not included, as the Chinese and Malays had no means of treating the alluvial at such a height, their waterways coming in at a much lower level.

Applications were received from Europeans for the right to prospect in this country. Licences were duly issued, and as a result of the prospecting applications for leases were sent in and granted. This is the origin of the two companies, the Rahman Tin Company, Ltd., and the Rahman Hydraulic Tin Company. They have taken a lease near the crown of the hill, and the latter holds a larger area surrounding the lease of the Rahman Tin Company, Ltd., and that of the Rahman Hydraulic Tin Company. The former company discovered a large vein or series of parallel veins providing an enormous quantity of excellent mineral material. They have constructed an aerial rope-way for bringing this material down from the top of Bukit Pok to the mill, which has been erected on the top of a small hill project just below. This mill consists of a fine-upump, stamp battery, with Freas vanners, by Fraser and Chalmers. Practically no development work has been done as yet. The Rahman Hydraulic Tin Company, Ltd., as their name implies, intend to work their land by means of monitors. They have a large, well-constructed ditch line about seven miles long which brings in the water from a distant stream; this stream is a small one and will probably deteriorate after a few years. They have a project for bringing in their water from the Kui, a much larger stream, but the scheme would entail a very large outlay of capital, the length of the necessary ditch being about thirty miles. This company has also a small stamp battery in course of erection for working the alluvial, and has found in large quantities scattered through the alluvial. They have also a very large quantity of material ready to hand in the form of old dumps left by the Chinese. These latter only picked out the richest lumps to carry out to their foot-stamps, leaving the poorer material. Stamps will well repay the cost of transport to the mill and of milling. Neither of these companies has got to the point of development where their prospects are certainly excellent. Their difficulties in the past have been largely connected with the alluvial, but all the efforts of the Rahman Tin Company, Ltd., have built a road twelve miles long to Baling in Kedah, the cost of transport is still very high. Great credit is undoubtedly due to these companies for the way they have overcome the many difficulties inherent in work of this kind.

I have referred above to some of the important tin-mining ventures in the country. Apart from these, a great deal of work is being done in the way of prospecting, especially in Paket and the adjoining provinces, where the Siamese Tin Syndicate, Ltd., have no less than eight sets of hand-boring tools continually at work under the experienced management of Mr. H. G. Scott, whose name is in itself a guarantee of good sound work, while the Siamese Trading Corporation, Ltd., have two Keystone drillsers in operation, and believe that the deposits will be found on the hillside and highest ground, and that the cost of transport will be less than 10 cents per ton, with an increase of revenue to the Government.

Although up to the present history of gold-mining in this country has been a tale of failure, there are some signs of a change. A considerable amount of gold has been found in the near future in the form of increased production of alluvial which has been sold, and an increase of revenue to the Government.

Here, as in all countries where mining is carried on, a great cause of failure has lain in the lack of interest shown by those who have been investors in the concern. In most cases it is looked upon merely as a side issue, small amounts of money being invested, and the results are treated as a gamble, gains or losses being regarded as a matter of luck and little trouble being ever taken to ensure that the mining should succeed. There is little doubt that extravagance and mismanagement have largely contributed in some of the above instances. It is said that the Kabin mines intend commencing work again, and with experienced and capable management there is a fair hope that they may turn the tide of past misfortunes.

Siam's very remoteness in the past has acted as an incentive to the investment of capital in mining. For this reason the fame of the Tomoh goldfields; even now it is a most difficult place to reach, and the cost of transporting goods to it is enormous. Few travellers would go to the trouble and expense of working a mine which they were certain they would only recover the materials they had earned the right to exaggerate a little when recounting the story of its riches. Hence the very remoteness of the country is a great advantage to the mining industry. Most, if not all, of the large, profitable tin mines of the country have been discovered by prospecting in the jungle, on the hillside, and in the mountains. A district is of a particularly refractory nature, and though the company have spent a good deal of money trying to work it, they have so far proved unsuccessful.
CHINESE MINING IN PUKET.
The mineral of the peninsula, tin, appears to be present in the State of Kelantan in very small quantities indeed, and the output is almost negligible.

Further north on the east coast of the peninsula, near Perlis, there was undertaken by another British effort to work gold in Siam. The effort ended in failure after the expenditure of a large amount of capital. The company, which was the British Gold Field of Siam Ltd., was floated in 1888 with a capital of £250,000, and their lease expired in 1896. As far as I know, the gold of Perlis was never worked by the company; certainly, no royalty was ever paid to the Government on gold produced.

The natives cut the streams round Bangtiphan for gold, though it can hardly be said to amount to a regular industry.

Away to the east of Bangkok lie the gold-fields of Wallem and Kabin. The former was unsuccessfully worked by a French company now no longer in existence. The latter was worked by British capital. In 1900 a company, known as the Kabin Gold Mines of Siam Ltd., was started with a capital of £250,000. Later in the year this was taken over by a new company, the Bangtiphan Gold of Siam Ltd., with a similar capital. The property was eventually transferred to the Siam Syndicate, Limited, which has done its utmost to re-opening the mine in the near future. There is a large plant on the spot, consisting of a stamp battery, boiler, pumps, &c. The proper way to work such a mine should facilitate the management of the mine considerably, bringing it into close touch with the heart of Bangkok.

Wolfram is being worked on the island of Koh Samui by the Siam Prospecting Company, Ltd. It occurs in a vein running out into the sea, which is worked for wolfram is tin, if present at all, being in very small quantities. The company have shipped over two hundred tons of ore to date. It is hardly picked on at present, though the company intend putting in crushing and concentrating machinery. Wolfram suffers, as must all the lesser known metals of this kind, from a very fluctuating market, both supply and demand being so small that an increase in either is apt to rush the price up or down in a way which would never take place with the common metals.

Other metals that have been worked within the kingdom of Siam are copper and lead. Copper has been found only in Chanthuk by a Danish company without success. Lead was worked in Jala by an English company in 1890, but the ore, as the metal is said to have been the cause of their failure. Here, again, one comes across old pieces of pipe lines and machinery in the jungle, while at Patani itself one can see parts of the smelting plant which they intended to erect. The occurrence of lead in Jala affords an interesting metallurgical problem, the lead in the form of cerasite (lead carbonate) being mixed in the alluvial with cassiterite (tin oxide). The specific gravity of the two minerals is so nearly the same that it is impossible to separate them by any ordinary process or ore dressing. Electro-magnetic separation is also impossible, as neither mineral is magnetic. They are smelted together by the Chinese, who obtain a kind of pewter, or black tin as it is called by the Siamese. The price of lead is low and the market for the metal is smelting great, so that a process of separation, could such be found, might prove very profitable.

Iron ore is still worked in the north of Siam for the manufacture of knives, &c; but it is a dying industry. Production of European steel making the work of reducing ore to a small native way unprofitable.

Other minerals, such as anthracite, bismuth, graphite, and a considerable amount of found cavity deposit, barite, and cassiterite, have not been worked. A deposit of calcium phosphate in the shape of fossil bones has recently been reported, and I understand that an attempt is being made to mine it; no work has, however, yet been done on it.

Gems in the form of sapphires and rubies have been found on the plains of Siam. At the Pattin fields, which were by far the most important, were included in the territory ceded to the French. The Ismus of Kr invaded this region, and the value of the output is very low.

Water is, perhaps, usually regarded as part of the wealth of a country, though it undoubtedly is a mineral, and of such value that no country could exist without it. I do not intend discussing the question of a water-supply for Bangkok. The subject is one of the greatest interest to all residents, and lies completely outside my province. I wish only to make a brief reference to the boring for water which has been carried on in recent years in Bangkok and the provinces. Boring has, undoubtably, proved of very great use during the last few years, and will continue to be of use until the big scheme recently sanctioned by his Majesty has been carried through.

There are at present some twenty wells in Bangkok, the large majority of which were put down by the Mines Department to the depth of these wells varying from 450 to 825 feet. The deepest of these is the one in the grounds of his Majesty's palace at Dusit Park. It has been bored down to a depth of 800 feet, and provides water for the palace. The bore which has been most used is probably that at the railway terminus, which supplies water to all the locomotives on the line. As to the purity of the supply not the least fear need be felt, the water having been repeatedly analysed and tested. It looks as if it may be used after and the sample properly taken has the result been in any way unfavourable. As the Indian mines reports of 1895 stated that since the sinking of the wells at the military barracks and the Central Gaol cholera, dysentery, and similar diseases have practically ceased to exist there.

In the provinces the following bores have been put down; two at Tachin and one at Patana, these having being put down by the railway companies; three at Prapotol, where a fourth is about to be started; one at Ban Phai, used by the Royal Railway Department; one at Ratanakosin, which has been bored down to 800 feet and provides water for the palace. The bore which has been most used is probably that at the railway terminus, which supplies water to all the locomotives on the line. As to the purity of the supply not the least fear need be felt, the water having been repeatedly analysed and tested. It looks as if it may be used after and the sample properly taken has the result been in any way unfavourable.

It is a matter of the utmost importance to the mining administration. Formerly the granting of mining concessions to foreign subjects had been in the hands of the Foreign Office, whereas the different local authorities had the power to deal with applications from Siamese subjects. The number of applications for concessions increased rapidly, and in 1891 the Government, wishing to open up the country for mining enterprise, felt that the time had come to put the administration of mining matters on a better basis. The old arrangement had proved unsatisfactory in many ways; the Foreign Office had no technical knowledge, nor were they acquainted with the local conditions of each application. On the other hand, the Bangkok authorities had insufficient control of the leases, &c., granted by the local authorities to the Siamese subjects and companies working on their domains, therefore decided to start a special department to look after mining affairs. The Royal Department of Mines was established on January 1, 1891, the Government engaging the services of two European experts to advise them and help in the work of organizing the department.

When first established the department was placed under the Ministry of Agriculture, Chao Phya Phaya, who has since been minister at the time.

The concessions that had been issued prior to the establishment of the department usually had not been fixed in advance, and the concessions were nominal; a high duty, however, was imposed on all minerals that should be won. When the concession was granted, it was stipulated that steady work must be done on them. The result of this was that many of these leases fell into the hands of regular concession-hunters, who were to be found, at a small expense in the hope that some company would buy the concessions. Thus large areas were put up, by the detriment both of the Government and of capitalists who wished to work mines in the country. All these old leases gradually lapse, until at the present time not one remains. To overcome this difficulty all leases issued by the new department included a clause stating that a definite number of men must be continually employed on the land; a fair rent was also charged.

A great deal of work was done by the staff in travelling about the kingdom investigating the mineral resources.

One of the most important duties of the department was the drafting of the Mining Act for the regulation of the industry. This could not be satisfactorily accomplished until a study of the laws of the other countries in which titles were held and mines worked. Regulations were first drafted in 1895, but they had to be redrafted several times before they could be passed into law. Finally, in 1899, the Mining Act was passed into law in 1901. In the meantime changes had taken place in the ministries with whom the department had been under H.R.H. Prince Mahom, Minister of Finance. In 1899 the Ministry of Agriculture was again established; under the orders of H.R.H. Prince Mahom, Minister of the Interior, and it is from this date that the real progress of the department has been made.

As early as 1894 a branch office had been established at Puket; the staff, however, was quite inadequate for thoroughly organising the work. It was not till 1902 that the work was thoroughly taken in hand, an efficient staff of surveyors provided, and a regular system organised. At the present time, in addition to the main Puket office, small branch offices are being established in other parts of the kingdom. The cost of the peninsula there is an office at Patani and a small branch office is being established at Belong, in lower Ban.
It cannot be said for Siam that the early years of the country's development were productive of much inventiveness. There are no signs of any mechanical contrivance to increase a given output or decrease labour that can be truly said to be the outcome of Siamese thought.

On the other hand, certainly, many of the implements used by the native workman are of such design and ingenuity that they can only have been the result of necessity and crude study. These implements are, however, all traceable to China or India, but for the most part to China.

Agricultural implements were naturally the first mechanical contrivances to which native thought was turned, and in this direction we have the most primitive of all tools. The plough is exactly a tree-branch chosen for shape and cut to length, and the share is a small flat board, which acts as a scoop. Little or no attempt is made to make this simple instrument either more efficient or lasting. The harrow is also of wood, and resembles a large rake. Both these implements are pulled by buffaloes, and these, together with a large, unwieldy knife, used by hand for the purpose of reducing the growing weeds and rank grass, constitute practically the stock-in-trade of a farmer in Siam.

It is a matter of wonder how such a state of affairs can exist in our world of enterprise and competition, when we consider that Siam's enormous output of rice forms, not only the backbone of the country's wealth, but an important factor in the world's supply. Again, notwithstanding the great number of rice-mills, it is astonishing how many small hand-mills exist throughout the city. These small mills are never idle, and their working furnishes an example of the extraordinary capacity for manual labour possessed by the Chinaman. The paddy is hulled in an apparatus having a hopper, through which the grain is fed to the stones. The basket and upper stone are revolved by a long wooden connecting rod worked by a powerful Chinaman. On the opposite side to the crank-pin is a spade-like sweeper, which discharges the hulled grains and husk at each revolution through a hole in the rim of the basket-base. The grain is then put through a hand-fan, resembling, and probably copied from, one of the small fans once common in all farms in England. In this process the necessity for modern mechanical practice, and it is noteworthy that the Chinese were the first to rise to the occasion. Labour in the mills is for the most part Chinese. The first power rice-mill in Siam was erected by the British company, Ltd., at Bangkok. The machinery was manufactured by the well-known firm of Douglas & Grant, Ltd., of Kirkcaldy, and it speaks well for the quality of the machinery that this, the oldest mill in Siam, is still turning out white rice of the finest quality. There are 60 rice-mills in Siam, of which 60 are situated in or near Bangkok, either on the main river or on the klongs or canals. All the mills of Siam now generate their steam from their own paddy husk. Time was when other fuel was used, and difficulty was experienced in disposing of the husk, which was then thought to be a worthless commodity. Special furnaces are now designed to consume the husk as fuel, and the result has proved most satisfactory. They are simple in their construction, and are very efficient when properly designed. It is difficult to say where these furnaces were first constructed, as they are used throughout the world, but it is sometimes claimed that they originated from Bangkok, while it is certain that their present-day improvements emanated from that city. They consist of an arched brick chamber, enclosed in the wall, and connected by throat tubes or flues. In front are placed at an angle flat iron bars, perforated for ventilation. The husk is fed through a hopper at the top, and gradually falls to the bottom as it is consumed. The ash is then raked out into a trough containing running water, where it is carried away to the river. It will be apparent that this mode of raising steam must constitute an enormous saving to a mill by burning what once was its waste product. Not only can a mill produce enough fuel for its own consumption, but in some instances there is a surplus for which a ready sale is found among other steam-powered industries.

Water-tube boilers are little used in Bangkok. They are only to be found in European establishments, and then not in rice or saw mills, where the economy in fuel is of little account. The Lancashire and Cornish types were the first with which the mill owners on the banks of the River Menam became familiar, and it is but reasonable to expect, having regard to the conservatism of the Chinese, that, having served their purpose well, these boilers will still retain their popularity as steam generators.

The sawmills of Siam are less numerous than
the rice mills, probably owing to the fact that teak is almost the only wood that is milled, and for the further reason that, as the teak forests are largely under concession to wealthy companies, chiefly British, smaller companies do not find it a very lucrative business. There is one large Siamese-owned sawmill, situated at Sriracha, on the east shore of the Gulf of Siam, which is turning out large quantities of timber other than teak. Another, owned by a Danish company, situated at Bandon on the west shore, produces a similar class of timber. Both the mills are well equipped with machinery, as they are of recent formation, but as the chief trade of the country is simply sawing timber into logs and planks, there is no call for the finer woodworking machinery common to sawmills at home. Frame and rack saws and ordinary circular and cutting saws are the only machines used. There is not sufficient call in the country for fancy woodwork, the little that is done being hand-wrought and crude, and there is therefore no inducement for any company to put down planing, milling, and other machines of that description.

With the advent of steamships of large tonnage small workshops with slipways and docks made their appearance, and these have since grown in number and size until they have reached important dimensions. There are, however, only two European establishments. Of the remainder, seven are Chinese and one Siamese. In the last-named are to be found the most modern of machine tools, including high-speed cutting tools. The most important engine-shop is that of the naval dockyard. It is well equipped with up-to-date tools of moderate size, well laid down on good floors. The buildings have recently been renewed and enlarged, and the Naval Department need no longer rely upon local or even upon foreign aid for the repairs necessary to their many large craft and to their flotilla of launches. Attached to most of their engine-shops are small iron and brass foundries, which turn out quite creditable work. One Chinese shop in particular manufactures a complete set of rice-milling machinery, including the castings, from their own patterns and crude hand sketches taken from existing machinery in a neighbouring mill. It surprises the stranger that so many articles can be manufactured in these shops, in many cases without the aid of any plan. Launches are built and engines are installed, and from start to finish it is doubtful if a square foot of paper has been brought to bear on the work. However, this state of things is gradually disappearing, and there is a general desire on the part of the Chinese to bring their shops more into line with European practice.

The larger shops owned by European companies receive from time to time contracts to build steel ships and lighters, which have been constructed at home and sent out in pieces. Quite a number of these craft have of late years been turned out, and form a small fleet on the river. Ships of 350 feet in length can be accommodated in the largest public dry dock, and there are several smaller docks to meet the requirements of smaller craft. Beyond the making of launch engines and boilers, however, there is little or no marine engineering, except where urgent necessary repairs are required.

Shipping in the port has reached such a stage that Lloyd's Register of British and foreign shipping have found it necessary to appoint their own surveyor in Bangkok. This step has proved most beneficial to the shipping communities, inasmuch as they can now have their ships surveyed and repairs carried out under the guidance of the surveyor without the necessity of going to Singapore or Hongkong, which, previously, were the nearest ports where Lloyd's surveyors were stationed.

Motor-cars and launches have of late years inundated Bangkok, and probably there are few larger or better collections east of Suez.

Garages have been opened in various quarters. Motors can be repaired, while large stocks of spare parts are available. Even the bodies of cars are built, only the metal-work being supplied from Europe.

The mileage of railways laid over the country, with their accompanying bridges and other monuments of engineering skill, would do credit to any of our own railway systems at home. Yet there are practically no roads out-
side of Bangkok. Cart tracks exist for a few miles around the outskirts of the city, but they soon disappear into jungle tracks, and finally fade away altogether. In this connection it is strange that development should take place in one particular direction with such rapidity, and attain a proficiency equal to many European countries, while in other quarters important issues still remain in almost prehistoric simplicity.

The wealth and resources of Siam are not yet half exploited, and undoubtedly a time will come when Bangkok will be the only one of many manufacturing towns in Siam. It is a matter for regret that there is as yet no technical college in the city. There are many young men who are not only capable, but are willing and anxious to study, who would probably develop into first-class engineers. The establishment of such a college would prove of immense benefit to the country, and it only requires the sympathy and support of an energetic minister to give effect to the proposal.

THE SIAM ELECTRICITY COMPANY, LTD.

Many of those duties and responsibilities usually associated with municipal enterprise are in Bangkok undertaken by the Siam Electricity Company—a company of Danish origin, in which Danish capital is principally employed. They contract with the Government to water certain of the streets; they supply the whole of the city with electric light, own and operate one-half of the tramways, besides being largely interested in the Siamese Tramway Company, which controls the Dusit, Hualampong, and City Wall lines, and, in addition, are responsible for the equipment and maintenance of a fire brigade.

To trace the company’s growth would be hard to sketch the career of the chairman and general manager, Mr. Aage Westenholz, who on account of his energy, powers of organisation, and financial ability is entitled to a most worthy tribute. Mr. Aage Westenholz was born in Denmark in 1859, and educated at the Polytechnic High School in Copenhagen, from which institution he graduated as a civil engineer, and after a few years of European practice came to Siam in 1886. For some time he interested himself in business on his own account, and constructed a horse tramway in Bangkok, of which he was appointed manager. An electrification of the system followed, but shortly after this Mr. Westenholz severed his connection with the company he had thus far steered in safety, and once more interested himself in private civil engineering work until he took over the management of the then existing Electric Light Company, in which position he remained until the amalgamation of this company with the Tramways Company, from which stage the concern was known as the Siam Electricity Company, Ltd. In the war of 1893 against the French, Mr. Aage Westenholz enlisted as a volunteer in the Siamese Army, and was present at the battle of Paknam. Previous to his taking over the management of company for the following particulars and details of the contents of this huge building. The engine and boiler room at the power station are iron-constructed buildings separated with a heavy brick wall. The floor is concrete, so the whole construction is made as fireproof as possible. In the boiler-room are installed eleven Babcock and Wilcox boilers with a total h.p. of 2,000. Some of the boilers are adapted for paddy husk or liquid fuel, and others for coal or liquid fuel. The husk, which is chiefly used, is supplied to the boilers by means of a screw conveyer.

The machinery in the engine-room includes—

4. For lighting (2,050 volts, single phase, alternate current, 100 complete cycles per minute)
SIAM ELECTRICITY COMPANY, LTD.

1. Arc Light Installation in Dusit Park.
2. European Staff.
3. The Fire Brigade.

Names of Staff, reading from left.
Standing—Mr. Raaf, Mr. Lund, Mr. O. Gedde, Mr. H. Hansen, Mr. Helvard, Mr. Jensen, Mr. Henshues.
Sitting—Mr. Fritzbogen, Mr. Send, Mr. Dikke Hassen, Lieut. W. L. Ghyt (Vice-Manager), Mr. Soder, Mr. V. Gedde, Mr. Nygaard.
SIAM ELECTRICITY COMPANY, LTD.

4. AND 5. THE POWER STATION.

6. THE WORKSHOP.
Four 100-kw. generators of Mordey’s type, rope-driven by Brush compound vertical engines, to which the exciters (65 v.) are connected.

Two 343-kw. Siemens-Halske generators directly connected to Burmeister & Wain triple-expansion vertical engines with exciters placed at end of the main shafts.

One 180-kw. General Electrical Company (Schenectady) generator, directly connected to a Belliss & Morcom compound engine, exciters on main shaft.

One 4-cylinder Burmeister and Wain Diesel motor, directly connected to a 150-kw. generator, exciters on main shaft.

One 300-kw. Brown-Boveri motor generator for the purpose of utilizing the tramway machinery as a reserve in case of breakdowns in the lighting plant.

For tramways (500-550 volts direct current):

One 50-kw. short dynamo, belt-driven by a Ball & Woods horizontal compound engine.

One 135-kw. Siemens-Halske dynamo, belt-driven by a Ball & Woods horizontal compound engine.

One 200-kw. Westinghouse dynamo, belt-driven by a Ball & Woods horizontal compound engine.

One 200-kw. General Electrical Company (Schenectady) dynamo, directly connected to a Ball & Woods horizontal compound engine.

One 500-kw. Dick, Kerr & Co. dynamo, directly connected to a Brown, Lindsey & Co.’s compound engine.

One 500-kw. General Electrical Company (Schenectady) dynamo, driven by a Curtis vertical steam turbine.

Within a year the company will have to add considerable units to their machinery both for lighting and tramways.

The switchboards erected in the engine-room are made of marble for the 2,050-volt alternate current and of slate for the 500-volt direct current.

The alternating current for light and power is distributed over the town by twelve different circuits fitted with automatic switches. There are ten circuits for tramway power, out of which six are for the company’s own lines. The whole distributing system consists of overhead wires fixed on wooden posts. At the spot of consumption the alternating current is transformed to 200 volts. The amount of current consumed by customers is gauged by meters at customers’ residences. The company has at its premises a meter-testing department fitted with Siemens-Schuckert’s newest instrument for this purpose.

The tramways of the Siam Electricity Company, Ltd., are of a total length of 11.83 miles, single line with 46 sidings, divided into the following sections:

- Bangkolem line: 5.03 miles
- Samsen line: 5.37 miles
- Asadang line: 0.33 miles
- Rachawongs line: 0.50 miles

The Bangkolem line runs from a point opposite the flagstaff at the royal palace through several minor streets in the city to Seekak Phya Sri, and thence along the entire length of New Road, the main artery of Bangkok, to Bangkok Point. Menam.

There is a very heavy traffic on this line, about 25,000 passengers being carried daily. It is extremely difficult to accommodate so many people on a single line, but so far the Government authorities have not given their consent to a double line being laid, owing to the narrowness of the New Road. The new line, however, will soon be put in use and will relieve the difficulty.

The Samsen line connects the suburbs Bangkraba and Samsen with the city, through which it runs to a point near the Paknam railway station, cutting the Bangkolem line at the Royal Barracks and Sam Yek.

The Asadang and Rachawongs lines connect landings on the river with the main lines. The rails are grooved, 70 lbs. per yard, joined with substantial fishplates and copper bonded. The over-head material consists of double hard drawn copper wire, No. 00, and overhead feeders. The system is divided in six feeder sections with automatic switches.

Excepting ten obsolete cars, most of the cars are of the General Electric Company (Schenectady) make. Up to the present only single motor-cars of 25.37 h.p. have been used, but double motor-cars with trailer-cars are now being introduced. The car bodies are of teakwood and constructed locally. There is accommodation for 126 cars in the company’s three car-sheds, while the workshop has room for 14 more.

The total daily car-mileage on the company’s lines is 5,130, of which 2,017 are run on the one-way line.

The Board of Directors of the company is divided into two sections. In Bangkok the Board is composed of Mr. A. Westenhola, C.E., Chairman; Mr. J. Jansen (head inspector of machinery, R.S.N.), Vice-Chairman; Mr. H. Dehlholm, C.E.; Captain T. A. Göttsche, Channnn Chong Rwa, Dr. E. Rey respected, and Captain H. Scholting (R.S.N.), while upon the
The Menom Motor Boat Company, Ltd., is a Siamese enterprise started by Mr. Westenholtz in 1905 for the purpose of maintaining a passenger service on the River Menom, which should work in conjunction with the Siames Electricity Company's tramways. There are at present three boats running on the river, one each on three different routes. The company, which is under the management of Mr. John Brown, also operates a tramway in the small town of Pakok, on the west bank of the river four miles south of Bangkok.

The Jendarata Rubber Company, Ltd.,

This firm is still in its infancy, dating only from the year 1907, but already it has accomplished much and has carried out a considerable amount of important work in various kinds in different parts of the country.

The enterprise, Mr. J. D. Macarthur & Co., Ltd., is a native of Sutherlandshire. After securing the silver medal for mathematical and mechanical proficiency at Allan Ackroyd, and several honours, including the Queen's prize on more than one occasion, at the Glasgow Technical College, he joined the marine service in 1892, and remained at sea for six years, during which period he secured the Extra First Class Certificate. In 1900 Mr. Macarthur returned to Scotland, but shortly afterwards came to Bangkok to assume the charge of the consulting engineers' business carried on under the name of Joseph Mackay. In 1901 the property at Langsam he built a railway of seven miles from the river to the mines and also a steel pipe line four miles in length and 6 inch in diameter for the purpose of conveying water to the mines from the higher level of Klong Prao. The laying of this pipe necessitated the exercise of a considerable amount of engineering skill and Mr. Macarthur successfully overcame the construction of timber bridges up to a length of 850 feet. Mr. Macarthur also had the supervision of all the mining machinery, but owing to a disagreement with his directors upon a question of management, he was recalled, and, disposing of his interest in the River Malee & Siam Company, he started on the firm of Messrs. J. D. Macarthur & Co., Ltd., which is working in Bangkok in connection with the P. & M. Company's business. Since then he has been engaged in the management of the Siam rice-milling machine; the largest boiler in Siam at the present time was imported by them. They have also built many steam and other machines, and one of the "Kelvin" makes, which appears to find special favour in Bangkok. Mr. Macarthur was recently elected a Vice-President of the Institute of Marine Engineers, London, of which he is the Denny Gold Medallist of 1903. He is also a member of the Institute of Mining and Mechanical Engineers. Associated with Mr. J. D. Macarthur are Mr. A. Lennox and Mr. C. L. Groundwater.

Mr. C. L. Groundwater dates his acquaintance with Siam from the time when he arrived to take Mr. Macarthur's place when Mr. Macarthur went to Longsonse. He resigned the management of Messrs. Mackay & Macarthur, and his friends urged him to join them and he has carried out a considerable amount of important work in various kinds in different parts of the country.

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J. D. MACARTHUR & CO., LTD.

1. The Offices and Store
3. Sketch of Babcock & Wilcox Water-Tube Boiler (4,516 square feet heating surface; 180 lbs. working pressure; supplied to the Siam Electricity Company, Ltd. by J. D. Macarthur & Co., Ltd. Much the largest boiler in Siam and one of the largest in the East).
HOWARTH ERSKINE, LTD.

1. THE WORKSHOP.
2. THE GODOWN.
3. THE CITY STORE.
4. VIEW OF THE WORKS FROM THE RIVER.
the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, and several of the largest godowns in Bangkok.

The firm also carry on trade as general merchants and keep a large stock comprising every requisite required either for civil or mechanical engineering.

Every credit is due to the general staff and the heads of the various departments in view of the rapid and continued progress the branch has made since its establishment. Mr. Murchie, the manager, was born in Yorkshire in 1865, and for many years was interested in the hardware and iron trade in Gosnall, Whibby, Birmingham, and Shropshire. He came to Singapore for Messrs. J. M. Lyon & Co., in 1891, but when this firm went into liquidation he joined Howarth Erskine, Ltd. He has represented them in Bangkok from almost the commencement of their operations in Siam, and is now one of the directors of the business.

THE SIAM ENGINEERING COMPANY, LTD.

Originally started as Mackay & Macarthur, this firm, consequent upon one or two changes in directorship, changed their name in May, 1907. Their interests are centred in work for the Government departments, and among their recently finished contracts may be mentioned the erection of a lighthouse on Chumphorn Island, an installation of an electrical power plant in the king's palace at Bangkok, and the supervision of the erection of workshops and machinery for the Royal Irrigation Department. In addition the firm have built many launches and erected numerous rice, sawmill, and ice plants.

The Siam Engineering Company, Ltd., are agents for such well-known firms as Tangyes, themselves to all branches of engineering work, the Bangkok Dock Company, Ltd., are certainly one of the busiest. Founded in 1865, the company have from time to time improved and extended their premises and plant to meet every requisite required either for civil or mechanical engineering.

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Every credit is due to the general staff and the heads of the various departments in view of the rapid and continued progress the branch has made since its establishment. Mr. Murchie, the manager, was born in Yorkshire in 1865, and for many years was interested in the hardware and iron trade in Gosnall, Whibby, Birmingham, and Shropshire. He came to Singapore for Messrs. J. M. Lyon & Co., in 1891, but when this firm went into liquidation he joined Howarth Erskine, Ltd. He has represented them in Bangkok from almost the commencement of their operations in Siam, and is now one of the directors of the business.

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1. General View of the Works from the River
2. The Motor Garage
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2. The Engine Sheds of the Royal Siamese State Railways.
3. See Yek Bridge (in course of construction; 4 spans of 10 metres).

(See p. 198.)
recently completed contracts which the firm have undertaken mention may be made of the Royal Naval Dock—a large dock of armoured concrete finished in December, 1906, at a cost of £1,400,000, and capable of accommodating the largest vessels. They have also carried out many contracts on behalf of the royal family, all the Government departments, the Melkong Railway Company, Messrs, Steel Bros., the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Boroono Company, London and Bombay Transport Corporation, Ltd., and the East Asiatic Company, Ltd.

Among the agencies held by the company are those of the War Office, the Admiralty, and Messrs. A. & J. Main, established himself in Bangkok as a consulting engineer and contractor some short time back. Born in Inverness in 1875, and educated in Scotland, he served his apprenticeship at the Rose Street Foundry and Engineering Company, Ltd., in Inverness. From Inverness he went to Glasgow, and joined Messrs. J. & G. Thompson, of Clydebank, following upon which came a few years' service in the Ben line of steamers. In 1898 he joined Messrs. Stephen, Brown, & Co., of Clydebank, for a year and a half from that date he was engaged in the drawing office of Messrs. Hudson & Son, of Glasgow. He left Scotland again in 1900, and came to Singapore to take up the position of works manager at the head office of Howarth Erskine, Ltd., of the company's branch there, but after serving for two years in this capacity he resigned and went home for a spell. On his return to Singapore he was appointed managing director of the Straits Engineering Syndicate, but two years later severed his connection with this corporation in order that he might open the business he now conducts in Bangkok.

As the representative of Messrs. A. & J. Main, he was given the contract for the supply of material for building a new engine repair shop for the Royal Siamese State Railways. The shop, which has five spans, is 354 ft. by 138 ft. 6 in. by 29 ft. 6 in. and 20 ft., and has accommodation for thirty locomotives. The shop is fitted with two 10-ton overhead cranes, transporter and travelling table, and is built of steel throughout, with corrugated iron roof and walls of ferro-concrete. Ten bridges on the Eastern line, the largest 40 metres with four spans, have also been erected. A. J. Corbett & Co. The firm have in hand at the present time many other Government contracts, including the erection of the Menam Bridge, which is of a total length of 262 metres and has three spans. The bridge is of the cantilever type, weighing 660 tons, and was built by the Cleveland Bridge and Engineering Company, Ltd., of Darlington.

THE TRANSPORT COMPANY "MOTOR," LTD.

Although their capital is practically all European, the Transport Company "Motor," Ltd., have nevertheless been registered as a Siamese company since April, 1908. They conduct an extensive ferry-boat business, and at the present time are running fourteen motor launches, including inspection boats, and five steam launches, working on five separate routes, three of them being under the direct management of Europeans.

At Wat Liep the company are engaged in the construction and building of both motor boats and steam launches, and for this purpose they have laid down two slipways capable of taking craft up to 60 feet in length. Last year 29 launches up to a maximum length of 52 feet were built at these slipways. The engine-room was well stocked with accessories and implements for which there is likely to be a demand, and any kind of machinery is imported to meet special demands. The company have also done a good deal of motor-car repairing, and are now engaged in erecting a motor garage with the view of extending their business in this direction. They are the agents for the German Daimler and Mercedes motors and for the German Fafnir Motor Works.

The manager of the Transport Company "Motor," Ltd., is Mr. H. Hamwee, who came to Bangkok in 1903, for the Siam Canals, Land, and Irrigation Company, Ltd. On the completion of the Irrigation Company's work he took an active part in promoting the present company.

CONSULTING ENGINEERS.

Mr. John M. Dunlop, M.I.E.S.S., M.I.N.A., who, like so many other members of his profession in the East, is a Scot, has, after his technical training in engineering with Messrs. Jas. Howden & Co., of Glasgow, followed by five years' apprenticeship, went to Liverpool and entered the engineering service. A sea-going engineer he visited many parts of the world. While in Java he entered the service of the Netherlands Steamboat Co., and remained there for four and a half years, while between 1881 and 1884 he interested himself in engineering work in Hongkong and China. He then returned to Europe and spent a short period during which Mr. Dunlop was engaged in the Blue Funnel Line, his next appointment of importance was as manager of Howarth Erskine, Ltd., in Selangor. F. M. S. Leaving Messrs. Howarth Erskine, he rejoined the Blue Funnel Line [Alfred Holt & Co., of Liverpool], and was for some time trading between Singapore and Australia. While still on that line he was offered the appointment of manager of the Bangkok Dock Company, and in 1900 he came to Bangkok to take up the duties connected with that responsible post. He remained with the Dock Company until 1910, when he left for Europe, and on his return he established a business for himself as consulting engineer and marine surveyor. Among his clients Mr. Dunlop's work may be mentioned the installation of the first "septic" tank in Bangkok, at the Royal Military College, and the successful introduction into Siam of the Admiralty 9.7 km. long jet system. He also conducted the recent negotiations between the Siamese Government and Messrs. Torney and Co., of London, whereby the latter firm were commissioned to build and deliver at Bangkok the new Customs cruiser, Survat Monthon.

Mr. Dunlop is the agent in Siam for several well-known firms, such as Messrs. Thorneycroft & Co., Ltd., George Jennings, Ltd., the Atlas Preserving Company, Aitken, Campbell & McLellan, and John Tullis & Son, Ltd.

Mr. H. Dehlholm was born in Denmark in 1868, and educated at Horisons. He obtained his theoretical knowledge of civil engineering in connection with the Bangkok Dock Company, and, after passing his final examination in 1894, was engaged in civil engineering work in Europe, chiefly in his native country, until 1900. In this year he came to Bangkok and joined the Siam Electricity Company, in whose employ he remained until 1901, when he entered into partnership with Mr. P. B. C. Kinch, an engineering contractor. Among the largest works carried out by Messrs. Kinch & Dehlholm was the building of the Mekong Railway, under the direction of the late Mr. Kinch. Mr. Dehlholm became the sole proprietor of the firm, and since successfully carried out many important contracts, including the construction of the Pakat Tramways. Mr. Dehlholm is a member of the Board of the Siam Electricity Company, Chairman and Managing Director of the Pakat Tramways, Vice-Chairman of the Jundala Rubber Company, and a member of the Board of the Siam Shipbuilding Company.

Mr. Sidney Smart, who is a native of Sydney, New South Wales, Australia, came to Bangkok from Hongkong some nineteen years ago. A mechanical and marine surveyor by profession, he has, during his stay in Siam, been prominently associated with the rice-milling industry, and has erected and equipped with modern machinery no less than nine large mills.

Mr. Smart has been at different periods superintendent-engineer of several local mills, but his other interests now absorb the greater part of his time, and at the present day he only carries out the duties of such a position at the mill owned by Messrs. Kim Chung & Co. Besides being associated with several public companies, Mr. Smart is chair-
MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

RIVERS, ROADS, AND CANALS.

BY J. HOMAN VAN DER HEIDE,
DIRECTOR-GENERAL OF THE ROYAL IRRIGATION DEPARTMENT.

The main river of the country is the Menam Chow Phya, which gathers the waters of numerous streams having their sources in the hill regions covering the northern part of the kingdom. The two main branches of the Menam Chow Phya into which these various small streams flow join at PakNamPho, a town some 150 miles distant from the coast. The western of these two main branches, the Nam Ping, reaches PakNamPho after a rapid course through a narrow valley. The eastern branch, the Nam Po, first passes through an extensive plain. In the upper Menam plain the eastern branch finds plenty of opportunity and leisure for dividing its waters over various arms, but these all form again into the one stream before the Nam Po reaches PakNamPho. Soon after passing through the ridge which divides the upper from the lower Menam plain, the Menam Chow Phya bifurcates into the Menam Chow Phya proper and the Supan river. The Supan river empties into the Gulf of Siam as the Tachin river, without again joining the Menam Chow Phya. Eastwards of the Menam Chow Phya there is the Bangpakong river, and westward the Meklong river, which at present both empty into the Gulf independently from the Menam Chow Phya. It is quite evident, however, that in former periods the waters of these rivers joined the Menam Chow Phya, and assisted to build up the lower Menam plain.

Soon after the north-west monsoon has set in and the rains have started, usually in May, the water in the river commences to rise. The rise continues for some time after the cessation of the monsoon rain, and generally the rivers reach their highest level in November. From thence they begin to fall again, slowly at first, but more rapidly as time goes on, until in April they reach their lowest point. In the lower plain the rise is very regular, only occasionally being interrupted by a slight fall, in consequence of periods of scanty rainfall up-country. In the upper
plain the regular rise is more frequently interrupted, while the various tributaries in the hill regions show, of course, the usual irregularities of mountain streams.

In the upper Menam plain, some time before the end of the rainy season, the level of the river usually commences to rise above the ground level, and as a consequence a great part of the upper plain is flooded annually by some ten or fifteen feet of water. The plain is turned once again into a large basin, and serves as a reminiscence of the great lake which it must have been in an earlier geological period. The filling and emptying of this enormous basin contributes greatly to the regularity of the rise and fall of the river in the lower plain.

At the end of the rainy season a great part of the lower Menam plain also becomes flooded, partly by rain water which cannot be drained off in consequence of the high level of the rivers, and partly by the overflow of the rivers themselves. The banks of the rivers, by the deposit of silt during the annual floods, have usually been raised to the height of ordinary flood level. But at some distance from the banks the field level is generally from three to six feet lower than the elevated ridges along the river banks, and as there are many natural and artificial gaps in the ridges, the river water, of course, has free scope to flood these lower lying fields. This flooding of the lower Menam plain lasts from a couple of weeks to two or three months, according to the locality and the elevation. The prospects of the rice crop—i.e., the prosperity of the country—greatly depend upon this flooding, for in October, when usually the rains cease, the rice crop still needs watering at least for one or two months more, and if at that time the flood has not yet come or does not last long enough, as repeatedly occurs, a great part of the crop is spoiled.

floods are a usual occurrence, while in the dry season the rivers are reduced to mere trickles of water.

Up to the present day the rivers form the principal means of communication in the country. In the wet season they are navigable for many miles northward, but in the dry season they are navigable only in the plains.

The Bangphong and the Meklong rivers have a similar but not quite so regular régime as the Menam Chao Phya. The hydrographical conditions of the eastern provinces are governed by the fact that nearly the whole plateau, which is a flat basin surrounded by hill ranges, drains off into the Nam Man and its tributaries. Before joining the Mekong river, the Nam Man has to pierce the hill range over a distance of about twenty miles by a series of rapids. Only the outside slopes of the surrounding hill range drain off directly into the Mekong river. In the wet season the Nam Man cannot properly drain off the country, so that a great part of it is turned into a swamp, while in the dry season the rivers run nearly or quite dry.

The rivers in the Siamese part of the Malay Peninsula bear the character of mountain streams. In the rainy season sudden high

KLONG KUT MAI.

A MODERN CANAL IN BANGKOK.
machinery a system of navigation and inundation canals, to a total length of about 300 miles, embracing an area of land of about 400,000 acres. The main canal, Kong Rangsi, connects the Menam Chow Phya with the Nakorn Nayok river, and is at both ends closed by locks, which retain the water in the territory of the company. Since 1895 nearly the whole of this area of 400,000 acres, which was formerly uncultivated jungle, has gradually been converted into valuable paddy-lands, which, with regard to inundation possibilities, are better placed than most other parts of lower Siam.

One of the most notable reforms carried through by his present Majesty has been the abolition of corvée labour; but while such a measure was most urgently desired, there can be no doubt regarding the detrimental influence it had, in the first instance, upon the upkeep of the canals. They had been hitherto constructed and maintained by corvée labour, and when this was no longer obtainable they quickly fell into disrepair. This circumstance and the heavy losses of crop which repeatedly occurred, in the fairly frequent years of scanty rainfall, however, have now led the Government seriously to take the upkeep of the canals in hand, and have caused them also, at the same time, to establish an irrigation service for the purpose of drawing up an irrigation and drainage scheme for the lower Menam plain.

between ebb and flood level of about six feet. In the dry season this difference affects the rivers up to about sixty miles, measured in a straight line from the coast, and as the rivers, so also are the canals affected. Most of the canals serve to inter-connect the main rivers, and in consequence at high tide the water enters these canals at both ends where they join the tidal rivers. The two currents meet in the middle part of the canal, and as the water is nearly stagnant, the silt which it carries is deposited here. Consequently the middle parts silt up quickly and run dry at low tide. The navigation locks are intended to keep the level at a certain desired height, so that boat traffic can continue without interruption at any time of the day. They will also serve to prevent the tidal currents in the canals and to keep the brackish water out as far as fresh water is obtainable.

In connection with this improvement scheme twelve navigation locks and six inlet and outlet sluices have been constructed, and other works are to be taken up. The expenses of the upkeep and management of these works are covered by the collection of lock fees.

IRIGATION.

As regards irrigation, the first thing to be stated is that regular irrigation does not exist in Siam, except for some tracts of land of limited extent in the narrow valleys in the north and in some parts of the peninsula.

The rice-fields in the plains depend, for their supply of water, upon rainfall, and after the cessation of the rains upon the inundation. Rainfall is not very abundant in Siam. The nor-west monsoon rains are largely intercepted by the Tenasserim hill ranges, so that the average rainfall in Siam is only about fifty inches, against about one hundred inches on the Burmese side of the hill ranges. Years of scanty rainfall are fairly frequent. Nor is the inundation always reliable. Sometimes it does not last long enough; sometimes it lasts too long.

But while, as is evident, there is great scope for irrigation and drainage works in Siam, especially as the main river has very regular and reliable discharges of great value, up to the present no such work has actually been commenced.

The principal scheme under investigation contemplates the construction of an adequate irrigation system for the greater part of the lower Menam plain. For this purpose a weir across the Menam Chow Phya near the town of Chaimat and inlet sluices have been planned, by which the water of the Menam is intended to be drawn into one new main canal, which has to be excavated, and two existing channels, which have to be improved in order to spread the water over the plain.

ROADS.

In the hill regions, where there are no navigable waterways, of course transport by
The railways in Siam naturally classify themselves under two headings, viz., privately owned lines and the Royal Siamese State Railways. The private lines, although valuable and of great utility to the country through which they pass, may be disposed of in a few words. There are in reality only two deserving the name, although a third, which runs from a place called Thara, about 100 kilometres from Bangkok on the State line to the north to Phraabat, is very busy during the season of the annual pilgrimage to the footprint of Buddha at that place. It is, however, but a miniature railway, albeit that it has proved a fair speculation.

The Paknam Railway Company, the oldest concern of its kind in Siam, owns the little line, 13 kilometres in length, which connects Bangkok with Paknam, the thriving and prosperous village at the mouth of the Menam river. A concession for a period of twenty years was granted to the company in 1889. The work of construction was commenced immediately, and in 1893 the line was formally opened to traffic. From the outset it was a great success, and has always paid handsome dividends to its shareholders. Four trains are run each way daily.

In 1902 another private company was formed to connect Bangkok with Tachin, an important fishing village some 34 kilometres to the west of Bangkok. The king granted this company a concession on liberal terms, but before the line was opened another company was formed to connect Tachin with Meklong, still further to the west. The two companies have since amalgamated, and are now known as the Meklong Railway Company, Ltd. The Bangkok-Tachin line was opened by H.R.H. the Crown Prince in 1904. The entire line from Bangkok to Meklong is 66 kilometres in length; it passes through an extremely fertile district, and is paying well.

Shortly after the concession of the Paknam railway had been granted the Government resolved to open up the country by means of a system of State railways, and have been vigorously pursuing this policy ever since. Up till March, 1904, the whole of the capital required for the purpose was provided out of current revenue, the actual expenditure from that source having aggregated over thirty-one million ticals in the course of thirteen years. From the year 1904-5 onwards the expenditure on construction has been charged to loan. The first
BANGKOK STATION.
RAILWAY YARD, BANGKOK.

PETCHABURI STATION.
THE KING'S PRIVATE STATION AT SAMSEN.
loan, raised at the beginning of 1905, was one of £1,000,000, the whole of which sum has been spent. A second loan of £3,000,000 was raised two years later, but a considerable portion of this amount is still in the possession of the Government. The railway traffic receipts are expected to bring in over four million ticals during the year 1908-09, as against an estimated expenditure of just under two millions; while a further evidence of the profitable nature of

the undertaking is shown by the fact that the nett return upon capital has risen from a little over 22 per cent. in 1901-02 to about 33 per cent. in 1905-07.

The length of the lines of the Siamese State railways at present open to traffic amounts to 777 kilometres (483 miles)—northern line, with branch to Korat, 563 kms.; Petchaburi, or western line, 151 kms.; Patrew, or eastern line, 63 kms. In addition there are about 100 kilometres of privately owned lines, bringing the total length of railways in Siam up to 877 kilometres approximately.

The object of the northern State line is to connect Bangkok with Chiangmai and the rich northern districts of Siam, but it is not expected that this consumption will be realised for another five or six years. The northern and eastern lines are of the broad gauge, as used near throughout Europe, the line to the west of the Menam Chao Phya river, which will, it is anticipated, sooner or later, be extended through the Malay Peninsula, is of the metre gauge.

The first important part of the State railways to be completed was that between Bangkok and Korat, an agricultural and commercial centre, some 264 kilometres to the east of the capital. The work of construction was for some years in the hands of a British firm of contractors, but was taken over by the Royal Railway Department. On March 25, 1897, the first section of the line, Bangkok to Ayuthia, was opened for traffic by the king, and some seven months afterwards a daily service of trains for goods and passengers was established as far as Gengkoi, which is halfway to Korat. Finally, in November, 1906, eight years after the first turf had been cut by his Majesty, the whole of the line to Korat was formally opened. The main northern line from Bangkok branches off from the eastern line to Korat at Ban Phai, which is 91 kilometres from the capital. From thence it goes by way of Lopburi, the ancient capital of Siam, and an extremely interesting place to visit. The section to Lopburi was opened in 1901, since when the line has been still further extended through Paknampho and Ooteraedit for a distance of some 200 kilometres.

Work on the south-western line, running from Bangkok westward, to Nakornchaisi to the Meklong river and then south through Rachburi to Petchaburi, was commenced in 1899. The line was opened by his Majesty the king in March, 1904. Since it was opened, surveys have been made along the east coast of the peninsula as far as Singora, an important coastal port, which is but a few hours' journey from Butterworth, which again is separated only by a narrow strait from Penang. So far no details have been made public with regard to the proposed construction of a line extending to this distance, but it is semi-officially stated that such a line will be completed within the next decade.

Early in 1906 the first section of the eastern branch of the State railways, which extends from Bangkok to Patrew, the centre of an important agricultural and mining district, some 65 kilometres to the south-east of the capital, was declared open by the king. This line will later on be pushed southward to Sriracha and Chantabun on the east coast of Siam.

Generally speaking, travelling on the Siamese railways is quite comfortable. All the trains have first, second, and third-class accommodation, and all the principal railway stations have refreshment-rooms, where meals, served in European fashion, may be obtained. Accidents on the line are extremely rare, the most serious on record being a collision between an elephant and a goods train in June, 1908. The engine was derailed, and five persons and the elephant were killed.

ON THE WAY TO KORAT.

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

In spite of peculiar difficulties, such as are to be met with in few other countries, the postal and telegraph services of Siam have made great strides during recent years, and a high state of efficiency has been reached. The Postal Department was founded in 1881, and two years later was amalgamated with the Telegraph Department. Ever since the two services have been run as one department, under a Commissioner of Posts and Telegraphs, and now the telephone service has also been placed under the same control. Siam was admitted into the Postal Union in 1885, and has since that date enjoyed equal privileges with other countries which have subscribed to the Convention.

There are now 112 post-offices and 67 telegraph offices in Siam, even the most remote districts having their own postal facilities. The difficulties of transport, in the absence of roads, railways, and other rapid means of communication—the postmen travelling for the most part by water in native boats—place some of these districts at an even greater distance from the capital, as regards the time occupied by the mails in transit, than some of the nearer European countries; but with the gradual opening up of the country great improvements are continually being effected, and in a few years' time, when the railway to Chiangmai, the capital of Northern Siam, has been completed, still greater improvements will naturally follow.

The Post Office grants a subsidy to steamers which maintain a postal service on the Gulf of Siam, and also to steam launches which run up the rivers to the interior traffic by the king.

Bangkok and other towns are provided with letter-boxes for the collection of mails, 265 having already been erected. The postal authorities undertake the delivery of letters by means of postmen, though many people prefer to have their own private boxes at the post office. The inland letters during 1907 reached a total of 3,395,862; 1,832,090 letters were received from abroad, and 970,831 were despatched abroad. Registered letters inland numbers as received reached a total of 58,812; and foreign letters
Slam is in telegraphic communication with foreign countries through Moulmein, Pinang, and Saigon. The construction of the lines involved enormous difficulties, the routes lying in some instances through almost unknown jungle, while in one district no water is to be met with for the space of a five days' journey. The maintenance of the lines is also rendered somewhat difficult, as elephants frequently knock over the poles, against which they delight to rub themselves, while the ravages of insect pests, the encroachments of vegetation, and the damage caused by thunderstorms are all factors tending to hasten their deterioration. The total length of the lines already constructed is 11,355 kilometres. The telegrams received during 1907 numbered 145,759 and those despatched 123,753.

The telephone system, which has at the present time about 1,262 subscribers, is being brought thoroughly up to date. By its means Bangkok is linked to several of the more important towns.

The Posts and Telegraphs Department cost during 1907 a sum of 622,673 francs, while the receipts only reached 582,653 francs. The reason for the excess of expenditure over revenue is to be found in the heavy cost of transport in a country where a relatively small population is scattered over a wide area.

The department is under the control of Mr. T. Gollmann, Director-General, who is assisted by Mr. G. Wolf, the Acting Deputy, and Mr. R. Gotte. These officials are all employees of the German Postal Administration, and their services are lent to Slam by the German Government.
ECCLESIASTICAL

BUDDHISM.

BY O. FRANKFURTER, PH.D.,
CHIEF LIBRARIAN OF THE NATIONAL LIBRARY, BANGKOK.

WHILE the religion of State in Siam is Buddhism and the kings hold as one of their proudest titles that of "Supporter of the Faith," all religious creeds are not only tolerated, but enjoy absolute freedom of worship in Siam. The kings bestowed on the different religious communities, such as those professing Moham medanism, Hinduism, and Christianity, land on which to build their places of worship, they received donations in money for their festivals, and none of the followers of the creeds are labouring under any disadvantage or prevented from occupying secular office under the administration. We find therefore from old times all creeds peacefully established side by side in Siam, in which country they often took refuge from religious persecutions in other countries, and in the treaties made between Siam and foreign Powers the maxim of absolute religious equality was repeated.

Judging from archaeological objects found in the neighbourhood of Nakhon Chai, such as clay tablets showing some phases of the life of the Buddha, inscriptions in a character closely akin to the South Indian one, coins, and amulets, it seems a well-established fact that the first form of Buddhism which reached Siam came from India direct, and that it was similar to that now prevailing in Thibet, China, and Japan. The date of the first introduction may be fixed between the fifth and sixth century of our era. It is that of the now so-called Northern School.

It may, however, be well to state that a fundamental difference in the doctrine does not exist between the Pali and Sanskrit canon, as MSS. which have lately been discovered in Chinese Turkestan, written in Brahmi characters, show that the Sanskrit canon, of which it contains large fragments, is identical as regards the doctrine with that of the Southern School.

Buddhism, however, as professed at the present time, is based on the Pali canon of the so-called Southern School. The sacred books are those contained in the Tipitaka, as we find also in Ceylon, Burma, and Cambodia. It came to Siam from Ceylon in the eleventh century, and in the version which was fixed in the council held in the Buddhist era 1587 (1044) by the King Parakkamabahu, in Ceylon. The MSS. in which the canon is written in Siam are in the Cambodian characters, and also in MSS. have been collected and collated, and councils have been held for the rehearsing of the text. Thus the Chiengmai Annals relate that in the Buddhist era 2020 (A.D. 1477), in the reign of King Sri Dharma Cakravati Tiloka Raja, a council was convoked by the king in Chiengmai, at which over one hundred priests were present, whose duty it was to collate the

TEMPLE OF THE FOOTPRINT OF BUDDHA AT KHOW PHRABATR.
1. The Wat (or Temple).
2. The Soles of the Feet of the Sleeping Buddha, on which are inscribed the Buddhist Laws.
3. The Courtyard.
4. The Sleeping Buddha (145 feet long).
text of the canon pure, and although texts were copied, many faults crept into them. In 1757 wars ensued with the Burmans, and in 1767 Ayuthia was destroyed, and after the interregnum of Khun Huang Tak a new dynasty came to the throne. In these wars temples had been destroyed and the sacred writings scattered about and lost; of the priests whose duty it was to preserve them many had died, and the Tipitaka may be considered to have been lost. In the reign of Khun Huang Tak, 1768–1782, who established the capital at Dhanaburi (Bangkok, on the west bank of the river), little was done for the purity of the doctrine, although the king ordered the Tipitaka, of which a copy had been got from Nakhon Sri Dharmaraj, to be copied and preserved. As the king, during the last years of his reign, claimed by virtue of his kingly office functions, prerogatives, and command over the priesthood which were not based either on the doctrine or custom, this led necessarily to controversies and dissensions. He became demented and was deposed.

In 1782 the king known as Phra Buddh Yot Fa, the first of the dynasty now reigning in Siam, came to the throne, and in 1788 he and his brother convened a council of the high priests for the purpose of rehearsing the Tipitaka. The priests in being convoked replied to the wish expressed by saying that, although they had not the wisdom of the former priests, they would endeavour to fulfil the king’s wishes for the greater glory of the religion. The archpriest of the realm then convened 218 priests, including the high priests of the realm, and twelve lay scholars. They assembled for the first time in the temple in which the archpriest presided, the Nibhanarama (now called the Wat Mahadhatu). Four commissions were appointed, and the redaction of the Sutta, Vinaya, and Abhidharmapitaka, as well as the miscellaneous writings, was finished in five months. The text which was the outcome of...
known, also present a modification of an
Indian alphabet. The edition contains the
whole text of the Tipitaka with the exception
knowledge, whilst the latter tried to acquire
spiritual insight, but in the doctrine they pro-

These labours was written on palm-leaves in
Cambodian characters, and was deposited in the
Mandradhama hall, in Wat Phra Keo,

of the Jātaka, the text of which has not yet been
published in full. These birth stories are well
known and held in high esteem in Siam, and
often form the subject of sermons. They may,
however, be said only to be considered sacred
on account of the moral precepts they inculcate,
whilst the stories are looked upon as apologetics.

The religion of the Buddhists is one and the
same in the countries which take as a basis
the Southern Canon, and that, as professed
in Siam, has kept singularly free from esoteri-
and outside influence. There are, properly
'speaking, no sects. The king, as "Supporter
of the Faith," stands at the head of the Church,
and appointments to the hierarchical order are
made by him. Titles bestowed on the ecclesiastical dignitaries designate the office
which the incumbents occupy in the Church,
and the names given are to a great extent those
we find in the history of the Buddhist Church.

Whilst the capital was in Ayuthia two con-
gregations of priests were distinguished by
name—the Gamavasi, those living in temples,
and the Aranāvavasi, those living in secluded
places or in the forest, as was already the case
in primitive Buddhism. The former were
primarily engaged in the acquisition of literary

by the Prince Chao Fa Mongkut (the King Phra Chom
Klao), who, as is known, remained in the priest-
hood during the whole reign of his half-brother
Phra Nang Kao, until he himself was called to
the throne. He laid, whilst in the priesthood,
the foundation of the Dharmayutika school.
This was officially recognised when he came
to the throne, and an archpriest was appointed
at its head. It is, however, in a very
restricted sense that the Dharmayutika can be
called a separate school. The aim of the King
in founding it was to bring the practice of
Buddhism back to its pristine purity, to con-
form to the rules laid down for the guidance of
the priesthood in the Tipitaka, to free it from
extrammons matter. With the doctrine itself
he interfered in no way, full scope was allowed to
research, and whilst he looked back to the
original source the school may be considered
orthodox, it was, in fact, more liberal. We find,
thus, at the present time, the following con-
gregations in Siam: the Northern and
Southern, and the Aranāvavasi forming the
Mahanikaya, the Dharmayutika school, and
further the Mon, the Annamese and Chinese
congregations. The Mon congregation follows
absolutely the Pali Canon, whilst the Chinese
and Annamese congregation follow the
Northern Canon. For the worldly aff airs of
the temples a layman is now appointed who
has to give an account of all financial matters
to the Ministry of Public Worship, on whom,
also, the priests and temples are dependent for
all disciplinary aff airs, with the exception,
of course, of those affecting the doctrine.

Primitive Buddhism necessarily knew of no
fixed residences for the priests, of no temples
and places of worship. The duty of the
brethren was to wander about to proclaim the
doctrine to the people, and to instruct them;
they only looked for shelter against the in-
clemency of the weather in the rainy season,
and it is thus that later on the custom was
established for the priests that they must retire
in the rainy season. The more Buddhism
developed the more the want of buildings for
shelter was felt, and in all countries where
Buddhism was professed the building of temples
and the casting and reproducing of images of
the Buddha, and of his disciples and of episodes
of the life of new founding of important
meritorious acts. In Siam itself temples were
erected by the kings to commemorate their
reigns, and also by nobles and people.

The building in the temple grounds is the Upasotha building. In
it the congregation meets, and in it all ecclesi-
asical rites and resolutions are taken. It is
being that the Path (boundary marks), and, on
sacred days, on the new and full moon,
and where the ordination service of priests
and others, or the ceremonial placing on the
vestments on the priests, take place. The
building is surrounded by semas (boundary
marks), and outside these no ceremony is
given in the building of importance and
without which no temple is complete, is

CHIEF ENTRANCE TO WAT PHRA KEO.
the Dhanna-sala, in which the priests assemble and propound the doctrine to their followers. The Vihara to which the monks may retire. In it are found the statues of the Buddha, and sometimes the one from which the temple takes its name. It may be used when the class course of pagoda is given, and in them, in many cases, the images of Buddha are kept. In the temple grounds we find the buildings designated in European writings, variously, pagoda and dagoba—i.e., ornamental shrines where relics of the Buddha are kept, or which are erected to his memory, or to the memory of a dead person. The tapering form is the Chedi, whilst the oblong form is called the Phra Prang, both, of course, having their origin in the Stupa (skt stupa), the bell-shaped shrine.

The images found in temples present all a phase of the life of the Buddha or of the Bodhisat. Of the images kept in temples the pradhana is the presiding one, from which the temple often takes its name. They cannot be considered as objects of worship to which the followers of Buddha pray for the attainment of a wish, but these images are placed in temples and private houses with a view of keeping the followers of the Buddha mindful of the merits of the "Blessed One," "the Holy one," "the fully enlightened one," and thus gladdening and delighting their hearts.

The images found remain the property of the community, and when Wat Pho at Bangkok was restored in the reign of Phra Buddha Yot Fa after the destruction of Ayuthia, the images found in the abandoned temples of the old capitals were placed in the halls of the temple, where they are kept at the present day. Moreover, the old criminal law of Siam visited with severe punishment every profanation or theft committed in the temple grounds.

The temples erected in modern times by royal and noble families and by the people are built with a view that they should form a memorial of their family, a place where their ashes may be buried, where their memory will be kept, and where, in providing for the priests, they also provide for the spiritual welfare of the people.

Famous, of course, is the Wat Phra Keo, which contains the Emerald Buddha, and which may be considered the temple of the present dynasty, for, commenced in the first reign, all succeeding kings have contributed to its embellishment. Famous also, as showing the purest style of Siamese architecture, free from all tardiness, is the temple Pancarna Pavie, erected by the present king.

The dedication of temples, the erection of Chedis, the casting of statuary of the Buddha and putting them in their appointed places, have formed since olden times occasions for festivities and rejoicings. It is only by a formal dedication that the ground, the buildings, and all found in the temple grounds are consecrated to the priesthood. We find, in the history of Siam, frequent allusions to such dedications, and the tradition is kept up at the present day. In such dedication festivals great numbers of people assemble to take part in or to witness the processions, the fireworks, and the theatricals which form a necessary complement thereto. Frequently such dedications are recorded in inscriptions, which, however, are seldom properly dated.

The annual visitation of the king to the temples to present the priests with the long robe (the Kathin ceremony) at the end of the rainy season (October—November) is one which has been maintained since olden times. It is known that in primitive Buddhism the members of the community had to seek their clothing themselves; it is, therefore, a meritorious act to provide them with such. In books written on Siam by the early travellers frequent reference is made to this ceremony, from which it would appear that it was the only one in which the king showed himself to the people. These annual visitations now take place by water and land, and the king is followed by the princes and nobles. In the most important cases the king is carried by men on a litter, dressed in full royal robes, and by water the barges are used. In the pictures of the old capital the king is seen visiting the temples by land on an elephant. In visiting the temple the king bestows on the priestly community white cloth from which to make the dresses, whilst to the high priests and to others he wants particularly to honour he gives individually the ready-made cloth for a priest. As it is the desire of the king to bestow such gifts on as many temples as possible, he deploys princes and nobles to perform the ceremony in his name and with his gifts.

It is considered as part of the education of a Siamese to spend some time in the priesthood after he has reached his twenty-first year. The ceremony of the initiation takes place by the

Kammavaca, an ecclesiastical vote, and the candidate has to answer the questions as laid down in the Vinaya. There is no restriction placed on a priest as to the length of his stay in the priestship, but whilst in it he has strictly to conform to all rules laid down. The priests were formerly exclusively in charge of primary education; the children were given over to the priests to be taught, and it is thus that few alphabets exist in Siam. The boy may become a nen (Sunnunera) after the age of seven years, and he is from that time onward supposed to follow some of the rules laid down for the priesthood, such as refraining from eating after mid-day until daybreak, &c. Of course, new laws are laid down for the education of youth, but still it is only with the help of the priests that the new development could have taken place, and this is one of their great claims to gratitude, which is fully acknowledged. Some of the priests are also physicians of the people. Siamese medical lore, which is based on that of ancient India, is studied in the priesthood, and as the priests are called in to attend the numerous domestic ceremonies, such as marriage, at hair-cutting, at death, and during illness, they naturally become the spiritual guides of the people. Naturally, therefore, the priesthood is held in high esteem, and the people are willing to supply them with all their needs.

We have already stated that the form of Buddhism as practised in Siam is that of early

Buddhist PRIESTS.
Buddhism. No foreign elements have crept into it, and it remains, therefore, to show how the two principal tenets of Buddhism—that of universal love (“maitri”) and of “kamma,” the outcome of one’s deeds, the virtuous life—are understood. In the following conversation which King Mongkut had with Mrs. Leonowens, the English governess at the Siamese court, which is recorded in her book, the king took an opportunity of explaining, in a concrete case, how “maitri” as understood by the Buddhists was the “charity” of which St. Paul speaks.

"Do you understand the word “charity” or “maitri,” as your Apostle St. Paul explains it in the thirteenth chapter of his first Epistle to the Corinthians?" said his Majesty to me one morning, when he had been discussing the religion of Sakyamuni, the Buddha.

"I believe I do, your Majesty," was my reply.

"Then tell me, what does St. Paul really mean, to what custom does he allude, when he says, “Even if I give my body to be burned, and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing.”"

"Custom! said I. "I do not know of any custom. The giving of the body to be burned is by him esteemed the highest act of devotion, the purest sacrifice man can make for man."

"You have said well. It is the highest act of devotion that can be made, or performed, by man for man—that giving of his body to be burned. But if it is done from a spirit of opposition, for the sake of fame, or popular applause, or for any other such motive, is it still to be regarded as the highest act of sacrifice?"

"That is just what St. Paul means: the motive consecrates the deed."

"But all men are not fortified with the self-control which should fit them to be great examples; and of the many who have appeared in that character, if strict inquiry were made, their virtue would be found to proceed from any other than the true and pure spirit. Sometimes it is indolence, sometimes restlessness, sometimes vanity impatient for its gratification and rushing to assume the part of humility for the purpose of self-delusion.

"Now," said the king, taking several of his long strides in the vestibule of his library, and declaiming with his habitual emphasis, "St. Paul in this chapter evidently and strongly applies the Buddhist word “maitri,” and explains it through the Buddhist custom of giving the body to be burned, which was practised centuries before the Christian era, and is found unchanged in parts of China, Ceylon, and Siam to this day. The giving of the body to be burned has ever been considered by devout Buddhists the most exalted act of self-abnegation.

"To give all one’s goods to feed the poor is common in this country with princes and people, who often keep back nothing to provide for themselves a handful of rice. But then they stand in no fear of starvation, for death by hunger is unknown where Buddhism is preached and practised.

"I know a man, of royal parentage, and once possessed of untold riches. In his youth he felt such pity for the poor, the old, the sick, and such as were troubled and sorrowful, that he became melancholy, and after spending several years in the continual relief of the needy and helpless, he, in a moment, gave all his goods—in a word, all—to feed the poor. This man has never heard of St. Paul or his writings, but he knows and tries to comprehend in its fulness the Buddhist word “maitri.”"

"At thirty he became a priest. For five years he had toiled as a gardener; for that was the occupation he preferred, because in the pursuit
WAT THONG KAM, PAKLAT.
WAT SUTHAT.
WAT THEPSUKINDR.

WAT SAKET (POO KAU TAWNG).

WAT CHENG FROM THE LAND.
THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

The Roman Catholic Mission of Siam may be regarded as the cradle of the French Congregation of Foreign Missions; for as early as 1662 the first Vicar-Apostolic, Mgr. de Lamotte Lambert, Bishop of Berythe, landed with six missionaries at Ayuthia, the ancient capital of the kingdom. Under the beneficent rule of Somdej Phra Narai, then King of Siam, the Gospel was allowed to spread, and many stations were established. At Ayuthia, which remained the principal station and the rendezvous for bishops and missionaries, several churches were built, besides a bishop’s residence, two seminaries, and other ecclesiastical buildings. The largest of the churches, dedicated to St. Joseph, was erected chiefly by the munificence of King Phra Narai, and was remarkable for its magnificent dome and graceful towers. The king further granted the mission a site, at a place called Mah Pararn, distant about half a mile from the city, upon which to build a college for the teaching of arts and sciences; and in 1673 a general hospital was founded, also at the king’s instance, and committed entirely to the supervision of the Catholic missionaries.

On April 29th of the following year the Church of the Immaculate Conception was opened at Bangkok, whilst a new station was established at Pitsanulok. The good Bishop de Lamotte Lambert laid down his burden in 1679, after fifteen years’ unremitting labour, and was succeeded by Mons. Louis Lanmeau, a scholarly man, familiar with Siamese and other oriental languages. He was the author of many instructive works in Siamese and the compiler of a Siamese grammar and dictionary.

The revolt which broke out in 1688 checked the work of the Mission for a time, but under Bishop Clercq— who succeeded Bishop Lanmeau on the latter’s death in 1697—and subsequent bishops, fair progress was made, and the number of Catholics increased to nearly 15,000.

During the invasion of Siam by the King of Ava (Burma), in 1707, Ayuthia fell into the hands of the enemy after violent assaults, on the nights of the 7th and 8th of April. The Christians had in former attacks shown great bravery, and had been publicly congratulated and rewarded by the king himself; but on the final destruction of the city their valor availed nothing, and they were slain, dispersed, or made captives in common with their unfortunate fellow-countrymen.

The fall of the capital was followed by a period of anarchy, which prevailed until Phya Tak, the courageous governor of one of the northern provinces, took to the heart the wrongs done to his country, and set himself resolutely to rid Siam of her enemies. Success attended his efforts, and in two or three years peace was restored in the land. He settled in Bangkok (Thonaburi), and ruled the country for many years. He raised no objection to the attempts made to gather the dispersed flock of the Catholics, and when Bishop le Bon and Father Corne arrived they obtained the royal grant of the land actually occupied by the Sta. Cruz Church, on September 14, 1766, and on March 22, 1772, secured land upon which to build the Calvary Church, both churches being fittingly named, in view of the hard circumstances in which the Catholics then found themselves.

Bishop le Bon died in 1785, and was succeeded by Bishop Garnault, who, taking advantage of the calm then enjoyed by the remnant of the flock of Ayuthia, refounded the clerical college of the Mission, and erected the Church of the Assumption. This church, after standing for upwards of a century, has recently been pulled down, and as soon as
funds allow will be replaced by a more adequate edifice, the foundations for which have already been laid. Bishop Flores succeeded who died March 10, 1811, but as a result of the French revolution the labourers in the field at this period were few, and the Catholic mission could make little progress. A new impetus was given to the work, however, by the arrival of the Rev. Fathers Palleloix and Deschavannes, Fathers of Charity, at Ayuthia, and erected a chapel upon the site of the old church which had been destroyed by the Burmese in 1707. He then directed his steps to the north, and laboured amongst the Laos for some years. In 1833 Bishop Flores died, and Bishop Courvey was appointed his successor.

In the following year the Siamese fleet, returning victorious from a warlike expedition in Cochlin China, brought back with them much booty and a large number of captives. Among the captives were nearly two thousand Christian Annamites, to whom Phra Chao Prasit Thong, then King of Siam, showed great gratitude, and granted to the Catholic Mission for their settlement a large area of land at Samsen. Upon this site was afterwards erected the Church of St. Francis Xavier.

By 1838 the work of the Mission had so greatly increased that it was found necessary to erect the Malay States, which up till that time had been part of the Vicariate of Siam, into a separate vicariate, and on June 3rd Father Palleloix was made Bishop of Siam, and Father Courvey became the first Bishop of the Malay States. Bishop Palleloix devoted himself to improving the existing stations, and to supplying them with doctrinal and other works. He had an intimate knowledge of the Siamese language, and his grammar and dictionary are still in use; while his history of the Kingdom of Siam remains a standard work of reference regarding the period which it covers. He died in 1850, and was succeeded by Bishop Dupont, who, being well versed in the customs and language of the Chinese, was able to devote special care and attention to the interests of the Chinese stations there, but recently opened in Petani, Banpalsai, Nakhon Halsi, and Ban nok khru (Monthon Rithuri). Bishop Dupont died in December, 1872, and had as successor Bishop J. L. Vey, the present Vicar-Apostolic of Siam.

Bishop Vey found Siam in a state of transformation, thanks to the impetus given to all forms of progress by King Chulalongkorn, who had ascended the throne some eight years previously. Western ideals had been set up, and everywhere departments were being multiplied and improved, commercial relations facilitated and increased, laws framed and administered according to international usage, posts and telegraphs introduced, and railway lines opened between the capital and far-distant parts of the kingdom. The bishop at once realised that it was incumbent upon him to foster the growing aspirations of the people, and he therefore devoted himself to the improvement of the existing means of education, and to the establishment of new primary schools in those districts which did not possess any educational facilities. In these schools native teachers, under the supervision of the reverend fathers of the Mission, gave elementary instruction in various subjects; but as the years went by the need arose for a more extended curriculum, and in February, 1885, Bishop Vey founded the Assumption College at Bangkok, and later a convent school for girls, both of which institutions are conducted by masters and mistresses who have been trained in Europe. For the benefit of the illiterate classes, upon whom he ever sought to impress a sense of the desirability of steady occupation, as being both remunerative to themselves and conducive to the general prosperity of the country, he acquired three large areas of land upon which men might earn to till the soil. Derelicts and sufferers also claimed his sympathy, and at all the principal stations he founded orphanages, hospitals, and shelters. In Bangkok he established the General Hospital of St. Louis, the benefit of which institution to the general public it would be difficult to over-estimate.

The members of the Roman Catholic Church in Siam at the present day number no less than 25,000. The work of the Mission is conducted by a bishop, 55 missionaries (European and native), and 58 catechists and teachers for Primary Schools, while the various agencies through which they reach the people include—1 Clerical College, with 78 students; 49 Primary Schools, attended by 3,077 children; 1 College for Sciences and Arts, with 600 students; 1 convent boarding-school for young ladies, conducted by the Sisters of St. Paul of Chartres; 2 convent day schools, with 127 students, conducted by the same Sisters; 16 orphanages; 4 dispensatories and hospitals for natives; 1 General Hospital for Europeans and natives; 50 churches or chapels; 1 printing press.

Two religious institutes are represented in the vicariate—one by the brothers of St. Gabriel, conducting the Assumption College, and the other one by the Sisters of St. Paul of Chartres, conducting the schools for girls and the Hospital of St. Louis.
THE PROTESTANT CHURCH.

BY REV. HENRY J. HILLYARD, M.A., LL.D.,
CHAPLAIN OF CHRIST CHURCH, BANGKOK.

At Sophaburi, a city founded about A.D. 600, the ruins of the palace of Phaulcon (the Greek minister) still exist, and there are the remains also of a Christian church founded by him, in which, some of the traditions say, he was put to death. Sir John Bowring, who came from Hongkong in 1855 on a special mission to draw up the first British treaty with Siam, discovered over the canopy of the altar the words Ιησους Ημιτριμ Σωτερ ("Jesus, Saviour of men"), and upon the altar itself was an image of Buddha. Thus we see that the Christian religion was introduced into Siam in the seventh century, but as far as the Protestant Church is concerned we find no traces of it before the beginning of the nineteenth century.

In an old book published in Bangkok in 1849 we read that the first effort for the conversion of the Siamese was made by Mrs. Ann Hassel- tine Judson, whose husband was a missionary in Rangoon, Burma. There were a great many Siamese there, and she, becoming interested in them, applied herself to the study of the language and then translated a tract, a catechism, and the Gospel of St. Matthew into Siamese. The catechism, published in 1849, was the first Christian book ever printed in Siamese. The Rev. Karl Gutzlaff, M.D., was the first Protestant missionary who called public attention to Siam. He spent three years in the country, arriving in August, 1828, with the Rev. Joseph Tomlin. These were the first Protestant missionaries to set foot on Siamese soil. They resided in Bangkok, and were allowed by the king to work amongst the Chinese. Strange to say, their best friend and the one from whom they received the greatest kindness was a Roman Catholic, the later when the Jesuits sought their expulsion. Dr. Gutzlaff opened a dispensary, where he healed the sick and did missionary work at the and they charged the missionaries with being spies, who intended to incite the Chinese to rebellion. The king, thinking the books were the main cause of alarm, ordered specimens to be translated, but finding nothing harmful, the missionaries were permitted to remain; they then began translating the Scriptures, and appealed to the American Churches, and to Dr. Judson in Burma, for missionaries for Siam. The next year Dr. Gutzlaff went to Singapore to have part of the Gospels printed in Siamese characters. He married there a Miss Newell, of the London Missionary Society, who, returning to Bangkok with her husband, was the first woman to undertake missionary work in Siam. She helped her husband in the work of translating the Scriptures into Siamese; but her health gave way, and the following year she and her baby were put to rest in "God's acre." During Dr. Gutzlaff's three years in Siam he, in conjunction with Mr. Tomlin, translated the whole Bible into Siamese, a considerable portion of it into the Laosian and Cambodian languages, and also prepared a dictionary and grammar of Siamese and Cambodian.

Dr. David Abeel, who arrived in Bangkok in 1831, was the first American missionary in Siam. He met with a great deal of opposition—the king forbidding him to distribute the books of which he had brought a large supply, saying that "if it was his object to change religions, he was welcome to do it in other countries, but not in his." At the same time there was no personal persecution. Such an attitude is in very great contrast to that adopted by the late King Maha Mongkut, who never interfered with the distribution of books nor with the teachings of the Protestants, but expressed an opinion that "it is as-likely
that the Buddhists will convert the Christians as the Christians the Buddhists." Such an attitude also contrasts strangely with the broad-minded toleration and support of his present Majesty, King Chulalongkorn, who in 1904 gave free a valuable piece of ground to erect a new church and chaplaincy for the Church of England chaplain, and allowed the committee to sell the old site and appropriate the price obtained for it. In 1833 the Rev. John Taylor Jones, D.D., of the American Baptist Board, came to Bangkok from Borneo to labour among the Siamese. He took charge of the little flock which Dr. Abel had been obliged to leave, and in December of that year he baptized three children—Dr. Guizot had previously baptized one convert—which was the firstfruits of missionary enterprise in Siam. After fourteen years of conscientious and faithful work, Dr. Jones died, and his body rests in the Protestant cemetery in Bangkok. Amongst the many missionaries in Siam the name of the Rev. D. B. Bradley, M.D., of the American Baptist Committee of Foreign Missions, stands most prominent. He came to Bangkok in 1835 and laboured in Siam for thirty-eight years. He held daily religious services at his dispensary, met with many persecutions, worked under the most heart-breaking circumstances, and yet persevered. He was the first to practise surgery in Siam. He also introduced vaccination into the country. He opened hospitals for the gratuitous treatment of all who came to him to be healed. He published an annual calendar. He prepared a Siamese and English Grammar. His magnum opus was a solid dictionary of English and Siamese, which cost him years of toil; and his translation of the Scriptures, his Bible histories, hymnbooks, and tracts are known and used all over the kingdom of Siam. Truly, as Dr. William Dale said in memoriam of him, "His life and death were a legacy richer than a kingdom." After some time the Baptist Mission left off working in Siam, as they found new friends, and so to-day the work of Christianising Siam in accordance with Protestant principles is left to the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church of America—"with the exception of Canon William Greenstock, late Church of England chaplain, who is now a missionary under the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. The American Presbyterian Church began its work by sending out the Rev. W. P. Beell and his wife in 1840. At first the missionaries met with opposition, as the Siamese were jealous of their "meri-making." Fortunately, when things were becoming unbearable the king died, and Mahn Mongkut ascended the throne. He invited the missionaries to the palace and assured them of his protection. In 1851 the missionary ladies were allowed to enter the palace and teach the women of the harem, and have been allowed to do so ever since. From that time to the present the missionaries have enjoyed the protection and favour of the reigning kings, and there is absolute toleration of every Christian belief in Siam to-day.

I should be encroaching too much on the liberty, and I should like to say the opportuni-

ity, vouchsafed were I to chronologically narrate the praiseworthy, the self-denying, and Christ-like work the American Presbyterian Mission has been doing up to the present time. But I must mention the work of the moment that they are engaged in. The Siamese Mission, which has its headquarters in Bang-

kok, has stations at Nakawn, Sri Tamarat, Pitkanuloke, Petchaburi, and Rajabari. These stations have medical missionaries and also secular schools. In Bangkok there is a hand-

some mission church, the money to build which was contributed by Siamese. The

Christian High School for Boys is doing splendid work under the Rev. W. McLure and Mrs. McLure. The staff consists of five missionaries and seven native teachers and the scholars number 240. There is a mission church and a girls' school at Wang Lang, the latter being under the control of Miss Edna Cole. Last year 12,000 copies of the Gospels were printed in the Siamese language at the Presbyterian Mission Press, which is under the management of the Rev. J. B. Dunlap, and em-

ploys seventeen printers and a foreman. The American Presbyterians have also a mission in the North of Siam, called the Laos Mission, the headquarters being at Chiangmai, with branch stations at Nang and Keng Tung. There are schools and medical missionaries at those stations, and recently a mission to the Lopers has been opened. The American Bible Society is represented by Rev. J. Carrington, M.A., who has spent thirty-nine years in Siam. He is doing a magnificent work of colportage in Bangkok and the neighbouring towns.

Until the year 1864 the Protestants in Bang-

kok had to assemble for Divine service in one of the houses of the American missionaries. A meeting was held at the British Consulate in 1865, and a memorial was drawn up soliciting

the King of Siam to grant a piece of land for the erection of a Protestant church. The king at once graciously gave the fee simple of a convenient site on the river bank. The British residents then collected £300, and the Foreign Office granted £400 on the understanding that the care and management of the church should be vested in the British Legation. The church was built in 1864, and was known as the Protestant Union Chapel. No regular chaplain was appointed, conse-

quently the services were conducted by one of the American missionaries. In the year 1884 it was decided that in future the service should be in accordance with the rites of the Church of England, and that a permanent chaplain should be appointed. Accordingly the same year Canon Wm. Greenstock, M.A., was appointed chaplain. With the exception of the Rev. Mr. Green, who was tutor to the late Crown Prince, and who officiated for some time in the Union Chapel, Canon Greenstock was the first Episcopal clergyman who entered Siam. On February 18, 1895, the Right Rev. George Hose, D.D., Bishop of Singapore, came to Bangkok at the request of Canon Green-

stock, and held a confirmation. Canon Green-

stock resigned in 1901, when he became a missionary in Bangkok under the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts—"an appointment which he holds. His successor was the Rev. W. H. Robins, who resigned the following year. In 1903 the Rev. H. De Blakeney was appointed chaplain, but by this time the Church of England community had increased so much since the Union Chapel was built, that it was decided to build a larger church. The king was again asked for the ground, which he willingly gave, and further, he allowed the committee to sell the old site. The money thus obtained helped to a large extent to defray the expense of building the present church, which was opened for service on Sunday, April 30, 1905, under the name of Christ Church. When the church was being built it was decided to build a chapelcy beside it, which was accordingly done. The church contains a Willis two-manual organ, and is fitted with electric light. There is a surplice choir, and the services are fully choral. Neither of the churches was con-

secrated, as they are not under the jurisdiction of any bishop, but it is now proposed that Siam should be placed under the See of Singapore. The Rev. H. Blakeney resigned last year (1907), when the present chaplain was appointed.
THE SIAMESE LANGUAGE

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The Siamese language, as spoken at the present day, is by no means a homogeneous tongue. In the main, its closest affinities are with Chinese, from which sources, most probably, the bulk of the root-words of the language have been either derived or taken over without much alteration. This may specially be noticed in the case of such fundamental ideas as those of number as shown by the numerals or in the names of many common animals. To this foundation is added a large proportion of words of Indian origin derived or taken directly from the Pali and Sanskrit languages, or modified by transition through the Cambodian tongue, and it is to the early spread of Brahminism and Buddhism from India that the occurrence of these elements is most probably due.

Added to these two main elements of the language are many words derived or taken directly from the vernaculars of the neighbouring nations, especially from Malay. It is a curious fact that in Siamese there appears to be hardly any trace of Burmese influence, although Burma in the past was the hereditary foe of Siam, and the two races came into frequent conflict with one another. There are, however, a very few words of Pegan or Mon derivation. There are as well a certain number of words incorporated into Siamese from various European languages, of which English has supplied the majority. The occurrence of such borrowed words is traceable to commercial intercourse and to the proneness of the Siamese to use the term in use in a foreign tongue for some previously unknown object, rather than to coin an equivalent term from words of their own language. In these cases new words have been coined, but it usually happens that the original term survives, or some popular corruption of it. Very often, too, the application of a word becomes entirely changed. Perhaps the most curious of these instances are shown by the fact that has over-taken the two English words "scarlet" and "gentleman." These two words have been corrupted by the Siamese into "saka'lai" and "yeneta'man" respectively.

The first of these words in the Siamese version means "woollen cloth of any description," and has come to have this meaning attached to it from the fact that the first variety of woollen fabric with which the Siamese were acquainted was the scarlet flannel of commerce! The second word, that much abused English term "gentleman," has been transformed into an adjective, "yeneta'-man," that of the smart well-dressed, chie, and thus in Siamese a lady may be quite "yeneta'-man."!

Excluding the various loan-words taken from other languages, Siamese words are practically monosyllabic, and possess no grammatical inflections of any kind whatsoever. Such a language must of necessity be very limited in the number of syllabic forms, and hence new elements must be introduced to extend the number of word-symbols.

This extension of the vocabulary has been effected in two ways, and it is for these reasons, coupled with the fact of the absence of grammatical inflections, that Siamese may claim to rank as one of the most difficult of the languages spoken at the present day.

Comparing Siamese with other languages, the first thing that must strike an observer is the fact that Siamese belongs to the family of "toned" languages; that is to say, a given syllable may be uttered in more than one intonation of the voice.

These different intonations have nothing to do with the differences in the length of a vowel sound, as, for example, in the two English words that are both spelled "minute," neither are they comparable with the varying sounds of certain consonants in English words that have a similar orthography.

In Siamese there are five of these different intonations—that is to say, the ordinary tone of the voice and four special tones. A set of common Siamese words may be taken as an example. There are five words which, if rendered into Roman characters, might be represented by the syllable "song." In Siamese if the above syllable be pronounced in the ordinary tone of voice it will mean "envelope." If the pitch of the voice be gradually raised during the utterance of the syllable, the meaning will be "two." Again, if the voice be pitched high, the idea conveyed will be "tumult," but if, on the other hand, the voice be sharply dropped, the meaning will be a "place of concealment." Still again, should the syllable be pronounced with a deeper pitch of the voice than the ordinary, the word that will be understood will be "to shine." The above is in reality a very simple case, but the matter is further complicated by the fact that there are several vowels and consonants which are pronounced very nearly alike; in fact, an untrained ear can at first hardly make a distinction between them. The most complicated case, however, occurs with the syllable which may be represented approximately by "kho" or "ka." This syllable has no less than fifteen different meanings and twelve different pronunciations. The meanings are, irrespective of the further modifications induced by combination with other words, as follows: glue, slip, to scratch, old, nine, nasty odour, news, white, knee, rise, to enter, he, she, they, hill, and horn! Thus it may be seen that it is possible to construct a sentence that consists of the same syllable with the various intonations. Hence many highly amusing blunders and "things that should have been said otherwise" are very often perpetuated by persons who have not taken the proverb "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing" to heart.

People who imagine that intonation may for practical purposes be disregarded labour under a grave error, as the following little anecdote will show: A new arrival was overheard giving as he thought some every-day orders to his servant. He prided himself on his knowledge of Siamese, and his speech certainly was fluent. The servants appeared at a loss, however, to be able to carry out their instructions, which were as follows:—

"Call me a two-dog carriage and put the tiger in the table. Tell the cook to prepare curried diamonds for tiffin, and see that he..."
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

boils the glue in a little doctor. He be sure that the maker of parts does not forget to repair the leak with an understanding and to pass along the medicine for the ants.

What he really meant to say was — "Call me a two-horse carriage and put the clothes in. Tell the cook to prepare curried duck for tiffin, and see that he boils the rice in an iron pot. Be sure that the gardener does not forget to repair the fence with posts and to cut all the grass."

Besides the characteristic feature of tone differences, on which the meanings of so many common words depend, another point of interest arises from many very curious (to the European mind) ways of expressing certain ideas by the simple two or three words at first sight very unlikely elements. For example, the word "po" (pronounced as the English word "po"), means "father," and the word "kruh" means "friend," but would at first sight, perhaps, be quite clear what the signification of the two words, "po kruh" (father of the kitchen), might be. The meaning, however, is "cook." Similarly we have the words "luk chit p'un gun," so with perfect propriety can a carriage or bullock ("luk p'un") be called "the son of a gun."

Occasionally the order of the component parts of a compound expression will effect an alteration of meaning; thus, the separate words used with a "chai" (heart) in composition, "di chai" — "happy!"; "chadi" — good-natured. The next point of interest in the Siamese language is the use of a curious series of phrases with nouns to indicate the number of articles in question apart from numerals. This is one of the arguments that may be added to the common origin of the Siamese and Chinese idiom. In "pigeon English" it is well known that the word "pence" may be inserted with a noun; thus, "one piecee man, three piecee hal." Siamese possesses a great number of these particles here rendered as "piecee"; but each of these particles is used with reference to some special class of objects, and a ludicrous effect is given by applying a wrong particle to any given object. In fact, the care taken in each particle may completely change the meaning of a noun.

In the usages of the personal pronoun the Siamese differ from European tongues. For all three persons there are many different forms of the pronouns "I," "you," "he," while the use of which varies with the respective ranks of the person speaking, the person spoken to, the person spoken about. For instance, a servant addressing his master speaks of himself as "that man," "that boy," which words are at variance with the respective ranks of the person speaking, the person spoken to, the person spoken about. For instance, a servant addressing his master speaks of himself as "that man," "that boy," which words are at variance with the respective ranks of the person speaking, the person spoken to, the person spoken about. For instance, a servant addressing his master speaks of himself as "that man," "that boy," which words have little meaning and have been taken by the Siamese into their language, i.e. "that child spoken to." If the word "master" is used otherwise, then it is a very insignificant; a man in addressing a prince says, "I" (under "the sole of the foot"; whereas in addressing the king the word which is used equivalent to "your Majesty" means literally "I under the fine dust adhering to the royal foot.

This brings us to the consideration of another point of interest connected with the Siamese language. In addressing or speaking about the king a totally different set of words are employed for many common objects and actions to those for ordinary use, and the whole of these words are derived from Indian sources. These words are also employed in royal proclamations, edicts, official notices, and all matters relating to royalty generally.

The Siamese written or printed character consists of 144 syllabic consonants, 14 common vowel marks, 10 characters for the numerals, and certain accent signs.

These have all been borrowed from Indian sources, and were supposed to have been instituted in the reign of Kama Somdet, circa A.D. 1281.

In order to show the structure and mode of expression of the Siamese language, an absolutely literal literal interlingual translation has here been added of the Parable of the Prodigal Son (Luke xv. 11 seq.) from the Siamese.

It should be noted that this passage has been taken as an example of the different Indian dialects in the "Linguistic Survey of India."

khon ming mi bui chai song khon le person one had child male two person and bui noi nan k' bida, bida child little that said to father said, "Father father that kong suan sap lei lok master of me please divide properly which falls yi ke khapijuan le is lo me (sign of imperative) and bida thing beng khong hai k' budi bui that person one and person people song nan le mai le mai bai two those and not slow not long child noi man kep that know jtron with p'ai little that collected goods until all went tio mang khi le dai sia journey how far and did waste properly khong ton ti nan du k' nan k' leng things (of) self there with work soundree le mita sia mit tuo k' tan and with wutu sold finished and ahan mak tua man ngan le khau khatson food much all been that and he lacked le khau p'ai samnak sad kep chao and he went abobe live with inhabitant man nan khan ming the khan with that person one and person people t'jang chai khau p'aiiang m'ugu tong nan then used him go fed swine in fields le khan yag tga im tong due fac and he wished to fill stomach with hawks food of wood, the le mai beans that swine eat those and not have p'i dai hai khan kim m'ua person anyone give him to eat. When he ni sut tuia len tjiang wak ni knew body fully finish then said, "Children children thing mi khong bia khia mi wages (servant) of father mine have ki khan mi ahim in le yang way how many person have food full and yet le kha chiphae Yuey ruak remains more than i ruined with want ahan kha tjia lumph p'ai hia biga food I will arise go to find father kha le tua k' te tan wai bida and will write this, my father udai k' khapijuan dai pi to master of me we did wrong towards sa'wan le 't'o na tan du khapijuan heaven and towards fast yours also mai somkhuan tia dai chaa wai p'en liet neet befoiling un get name say and child person khong ton kha tiao hai khapijuan pen of you please give me to be miang kun tang kon kha tonging mir gung non like child wages of you person one".

(sign of imperative)

From a study of the above the great disparity between Siamese and a European language (English) will readily be noticeable.

Those who may wish to pursue the subject further are recommended to study works bearing upon it, amongst which may be mentioned "Elements of Siamese Grammar," by D. O. Flandin, in the "Journal of the Royal Society."
MANNERS AND CUSTOMS

The manners and customs of the Siamese form an interesting study, even though, in the absence of reliable records, it is difficult to trace their origin and growth with more than approximate accuracy. The religious customs are mainly of Brahminic origin, though in many instances such changes have been wrought in them that little remains of former practices.

Shortly after a Siamese baby is born it is adorned with amulets placed round its wrists, and often around its ankles and neck. These are generally formed of thin pieces of silver or gold, having sacred characters in Pali written upon them. These slips of metal are rolled up and formed into little tubes, through which run the strings by means of which they are fastened on. In some instances the bones from the legs of birds are used in place of the metal. The amulets may often be seen upon the wrinkled limbs of very old persons. Each charm is supposed to bring good fortune of some kind or another, and it is considered very unlucky if the string bearing them breaks.

Almost from birth the children have their heads shaved, with the exception of a tuft at the top, which, when it grows long, is plaited up and tied in a knot. The cutting of this topknot is the first and greatest event in a Siamese child’s life. It would almost appear to mark the recognition of the child as a human being, as distinguished from a sort of a domestic pet. The ceremony is known as the Kawn Chook, and it is undergone nowadays by practically every girl in the country; its practice, in the case of boys, is, however, usually confined to children of royal and noble birth. In the case of the royal children the ceremony is an extremely imposing and elaborate one, which lasts for three days. A huge structure called a “golden mountain” is erected, and near this the Kawn Chook takes place. The most auspicious hour for the event having been discovered by the court astrologers (Brahmins), the topknot is divided into three parts, each of which is then severed by persons specially selected for the purpose. His Majesty the king usually cuts the first lock. Lengthy and impressive religious services are held in connection with this hair-cutting ceremony, which is considered of such importance that a veritable library of books has been written upon it and its origin.
SIAMESE ACTORS.

SIAMESE MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.
A MUSICAL PARTY.
through the only book which can be thoroughly understood by the average European reader is one which was written some years ago by Colonel Gerini, of the Royal Siamese Military College. The tonsorial implements used at these royal hair-cuttings are all of gold, and most of them are encrusted with extremely valuable jewels.

Next to the ceremonial hair-cutting the most important event in the life of a Siamese marriage. This can take place, with the consent of the parents, when the boy is fourteen and the girl twelve. As elsewhere in the East, marriages are generally a matter of commercial arrangement, if not exactly of purchase. There are numbers of regular professional "go-betweens," who make quite a comfortable living by bringing eligible couples together, receiving big commissions from the fortunate swain, and sometimes from the girl's parents as well. The bridegroom has always to furnish a house to the satisfaction of the bride's relatives, and has, further, to give the girl's mother a certain amount of gold, together with a sum of money. This latter is known as agnam mon, and literally means "mother's milk money."

In celebrating the wedding a number of religious ceremonies are performed and friends and neighbours are feasted, while, in the case of the wealthy, bands and theatrical companies are engaged to amuse the guests. Although divorces are easily obtained under Siamese law, they are, curiously enough, comparatively rare for a country where marriage is to a considerable extent a matter of bargaining. On the whole, Siamese domestic life is generally comfortable and peaceful.

The funereal customs in Siam 'differ in various parts of the country, and according to the former financial circumstances of the deceased, but among the Siamese and Laos cremation is generally in favour. Among the wealthy and those of high rank these cremations are very elaborate and costly, and are often deferred until a considerable time after death. The cremation of the late Crown Prince took place three years after the date of his death, and cost considerably over a million baht. The bodies are embalmed immediately after death, and are preserved in hermetically-sealed urns until just before the final ceremony. The embalming consists in filling the body, till it is in a state of complete saturation, with a mixture of mercury and honey. The cremations themselves are attended by elaborate religious ceremonies; and besides these there are theatrical and other entertainments, while all the principal guests are given presents as mementoes of the departed. Siamese and Chinese theatricals, fireworks, polo and foot races, and club, sword, boxing, and other exhibitions are given, while open house is kept for a week or so. Presents are given to the priests and alms to the poor, and in not a few cases families have reduced themselves almost to indigence through the lavish way in which they have celebrated these particular occasions. While the cremations of the rich are spectacular and rather picturesque ceremonies, those of the poor are much more simply conducted. The bodies, enclosed in a rough wooden shell, are placed on a pyre in a temple compound. Attendants armed with long iron forks rake the fire, and, should the wood supply be insufficient, augment it with kerosene oil, thrown on with dippers. Paupers are now cremated by the priests at certain temples without any charge; but in former days bodies were simply left on open spaces of ground, to be eaten by pariah dogs and vultures, the fleshy parts of the corpses being cut down to the bone with knives to aid these ghoulish scavengers in their work.

From cremations to ghosts is a fairly easy transition. and, according to current belief, Siam is full of them. They inhabit houses, trees, hills, rocks, streams, and every conceivable thing; and are known by the generic name of "phi." Connected with them is a colossal mass of most fancifully embroidered folklore. Everybody believes in the phi, yet everyone swears he does not, although he calls the owl the nok phi, or ghost bird. Outside every house in the country districts and outside many in the towns, even in Bangkok itself, one sees little models of houses about a foot high and with the typical Siamese roofs. These are ban phi, or ghost-houses, and it is alleged that if these are provided the spirits will take up their abode in them, and will not trouble the people residing in the neighbourhood. On certain festivals offerings of cakes, fruit, &c., are put on the little shelves in front of these spirit-houses, either to propitiate their tenants or to attract new and beneficent ones. Inside most of the dwelling-houses, too, little square pieces of paper, bearing Pali inscriptions, are affixed to all the main uprights and corner posts. These are to carry favour with the spirits of the earth, into whose domain the bottoms of the posts have intruded. Again, under the ridge-beam of the houses is placed a flag, red
on the one side and white on the other, and bearing some curious hieroglyphics on both sides. This is to apologise to the spirits of the air and the lightning for intruding on their special preserves. If one of these flags falls the house is considered doomed, and the owner moves into another as quickly as he can. In addition to these domestic ghosts there are hundreds of other varieties. Furthermore, many of the people still believe in the evil eye and half a dozen similar things. In Bangkok the visitor will often notice houses with the following mark in white, resembling chalk, on the doors or shutters —

This mark is made by Brahmín priests, not with chalk, as might be supposed, but with ashes from the bo-tree, the sacred tree under which Buddha is said to have rested. Placed on the door by a holy person, the mark is said to protect the various inmates of the house from a considerable proportion of the ills that flesh is heir to. Many similar charms are in constant and almost universal use.

There are many different forms of enchantment in Siam, the individuals practising them being known as "phoo vis-à-vis." These men are commonly supposed to be able to work all kinds of magic, black or white; they tell fortunes, cast spells, provide love potions or poisons, and, in short, gull the ignorant most unscrupulously. But apart from such tricks, which deceive none but the absurdly credulous, the "meh see" is a species of enchantment in which most of the people do believe. The following notes regarding it appeared in the "Stamat Observer" a year or two ago, and it may be added that since these appeared, the strange complaint mentioned, if complaint it be, has been investigated by a number of medical men, who have declared themselves unable to come to any definite conclusion concerning it:

"Every one who has read Mr. Hugh Clifford's stories of life in the Malay Peninsula will recollect the mention he occasionally makes of lattah or latja, that queer kind of hypnotic complaint to which Malays are sometimes subject, and which is suggested as often being the cause of their going amok and killing every one within reach. But few farangs are aware that certain Siamese, mostly women, are subject to the same complaint, which is known as 'meh see,' and among the Mohns as 'bah chee.' The method is simple enough. The victim is got to sit down in front of a rice-pounding mortar or a rice-winnowing basket with her hands together in front of her in an attitude of prayer. The operator then points at her and asks her to dance or jump about, or sing, as the case may be, and she at once does so, occasionally performing the most extraordinary antics and keeping them up until she becomes completely exhausted. Recently the present writer saw an exhibition of this sort in which a Mohn woman, employed as a servant in the house of a farang residing at Seekak, Ban Moh, was the victim, or subject, whichever the case may be. The woman, when told to dance, seemed perfectly unable to refrain from doing so, although in all other ways she seemed perfectly rational. The subject is certainly one of great medical and scientific interest, and it might well be investigated by some competent authority on such matters. It may be mentioned that Professor Skat, who made a very close study of Malay customs and superstitions, attributes it to hypnotism pure and simple, but it seems that the Siamese do not consider it precisely so. The complaint, or whatever it may be, is said not to be hereditary, although sometimes several members of a family may be good "subjects." It is further said to be more common amongst the Mohns than amongst either the Siamese or Laos, whilst the Chinese are almost free from it, and amongst the Luk Chins it is extremely rare. It would seem to be popularly looked upon as a kind of 'possession,' not necessarily by devils, as was that in Europe in the Middle Ages, but by spirits, who may or may not be beneficent ones. In some cases a kind of invocation is used which runs as follows —

'Bah chee! Bah chee! I am a victim of the spirit of humanity! I am in the power of the spirit of humanity! Mep See! Mep See! Thou Virgin, raise your hands in prayers to the Lord Buddha and you will receive the admiration and praise of all. After this the spirit is supposed to enter the body of the performer, who is then unconscious,

![Buddhist Priest and Disciple.](image)

![A Travelling Theatre.](image)
ing to find out precisely what, and also whether it is every one who has the power of influencing the subjects."

"It may be mentioned that in the case of men, a rih loob (spirit fish-trap) or phi kadok (a flat basket used for drying betel-nut) is put before the performer, and after an incantation is sung he generally seizes the first stick or other weapon handy and falls upon the spectators savagely. These performances generally take place after nightfall, and the Song Kran holi-
day is supposed to be the best time for them, as then the spirits are endowed with the greatest power."

The Siamese have an elaborate calendar of official feasts and festivals. There are two New Years, the "popular" and the "official" one, the latter being on April 1st, while the date of the other varies with the moon. There is generally a three days' holiday on each occasion. Some people go to worship at the temples, others make presents of fruit and cakes to the priests, while every one dons his or her best clothes and pays a round of social calls. The ordinary laws against gambling are also in abeyance for the time being.

The Swinging Festival, variously known as the "Thep Ching Cha" or "Sow Ching Cha," is rather curious. The Minister for Agriculture, or an official deputy, is created a kind of mock king, and is carried in procession to the big swing near the Royal Palace. Opposite this a dais has been erected, on which he sits, his right foot over his left knee. Three "teams" of Brahmin priests then get on the swing in succession, one man in each trying to catch with his teeth a bag of ticals fastened to a high bamboo. The feat is a difficult as well as a somewhat dangerous one, as the swing supports are 75 feet high. The first swingers get 12 ticals each, the second 8 ticals, and the third 4 ticals. If, while the swinging is in progress, the mock king touches the ground with his right foot, he has to pay a number of Brahmin priests who are in attendance on him a rather heavy penalty, while in the old days he was stripped to the buff and chased through the streets in disgrace. When the swinging is over the Brahmins scatter holy water over the mock king, the swingers, and the assembled crowds, and by so doing are supposed to call down a blessing on all and sundry. The pro-
cession then re-forms and the mock king returns home. The entire performance is gone through twice, once in the morning and again in the evening two days later. The processions nowadays are very elaborate as well as large, and no visitor to Siam at the time of the festival should miss seeing them. The actual origin of the custom is unknown, but it is generally thought to be some form of harvest thanksgiving. It sometimes takes place early in January, but occasionally early in December.

The Phrabat Festival is interesting from the religious standpoint. Buddhists from all parts of Siam go on pilgrimage to Phrabat, a place in the hills about a hundred miles north-west of Bangkok, where Buddha is said to have left the imprint of his foot in a rock. The footprint is certainly there, and it bears all the marks said to be characteristic of the foot of the great teacher. Nowadays one can go the whole distance by rail, and it is an agreeable trip to make, the season when the festival occurs being a pleasant one, while the scenery surrounding the temple which has been erected over the precious relic is delightful. There are, however, several other alleged footprints of Buddha in Siam, but these are for the most part admitted to be artificial and merely placed where they are for the convenience of pilgrims who cannot reach Phrabat itself.

The Kroot Thai, or old-style New Year holi-
days, are still observed throughout Siam. They usually occur within a week or so of the official New Year. Elaborate religious services are held, and each family makes a peculiar kind of cake out of the glutinous rice, which is supposed to be particularly suitable to the season. Presents of fruit and flowers are made.

DEORATIONS IN CONNECTION WITH A ROYAL CREMATION.
to the priests, to whom the wealthier people also make presents of yellow robes.

Companies of priests assemble on the palace walls, and on the night of the second day all the guns there are fired at intervals of about twenty minutes until daylight, each gun, it is said, being discharged thirty-six times. The general populace usually join in and fire crackers at intervals all through the night, all this din being created in order to drive away evil spirits, who are at this time credited with a large amount of peculiarly baleful influence. On the third day of the celebrations gambling is permitted everywhere.

The ceremony of Tu Nam, or drinking of the water of allegiance, takes place twice a year, on days established by ancient custom. The ceremony is a quaint and picturesque one. All the Government officials assemble in one of the halls of audience and take the oath of allegiance to his Majesty. They drink and sprinkle their foreheads with water in which have been dipped swords, spears, and other weapons. The idea is that, as these are the weapons with which the king executes justice upon all who have been guilty of treachery or rebellious conduct, the various officials, in drinking from the water in which these weapons have been dipped, invoke the royal vengeance upon themselves should they prove unfaithful. The custom has existed from time immemorial, and its origin cannot be traced. In former years the half-yearly salaries of all the principal officials were paid them after the completion of this ceremony. It would, of course, be a difficult matter, even with the present improved means of communication, for officials from the more distant provinces to attend the ceremony at the royal palace, and it is therefore the custom to send small quantities of the Thot Kathindi (water of vengeance) to the respective stations, where the officials may drink of it and sprinkle themselves with it in the presence of the principal provincial authorities. Although as originally instituted the custom was intended to apply to Siamese officials only, it is interesting to note that of late years many foreigners in the Government service have complied with it. It may also be noted that the priests are generally exempt from participation in this ceremony, though the chief priests from the various Bangkok temples assemble at the royal palace and perform religious services while it is in progress.

One of the most striking festivals in Bangkok is that called the Thut Kathindi, which takes place each year soon after the end of the Buddhist Lent, and in which his Majesty goes in person to present robes to the priests at the principal temples. The pageants are often very striking. On the first day his Majesty generally proceeds by water in state procession to the various Riverside temples. The boats used on this occasion are huge canoe-like structures, with high-risen bows and sterns, some of them being manned by over one hundred red-coated oarsmen. The largest of all is the royal barge, which has a pavilion in red and gold brocade erected amidships for the accommodation of the sovereign and his suite. At its bows hang peculiar white tassels, made, tradition asserts, from the hair of a mammoth goat, to which are ascribed a fabulous value. The oarsmen pause after each stroke and swing their oars high in the air, shouting as they do so, and as the men in the bow strike the water first and are followed in regular order by those behind them to the stern, a peculiar caterpillar-like appearance is given to the craft as it makes its way along the river. The state processions by land are often extremely picturesque, notably the ones in which the king is borne in a state palanquin. It is in this manner that his Majesty visits the principal of what are generally known as the "royal" temples. During the continuance of the festival either his Majesty or his direct deputy bears the much-coveted yellow robes and other gifts to every temple in the country.

The occasion of the Chalerm, or Coronation festival, is, however, the time to see Bangkok at its brightest and best. His Majesty was born on September 20th, but as that month falls in the rainy season, the anniversaries of his birthday and coronation are usually held together on the 13th and three succeeding days of November. A number of religious ceremonies take place within the Grand Palace walls, and various receptions and other functions are held, but the most popular of all is the annual ball given by the Foreign Office, to which most of the foreign residents of Bangkok are invited. At night the whole city is ablaze with illuminations. Whatever may be the artistic shortcomings of the Siamese, they have thoroughly mastered the arts of temporary decoration and of illumination, with the result that at these annual festivals the capital presents a wonderfully beautiful appearance. Both the king and queen usually go round and view the decorations by the river as well as by-land. At this festival his Majesty always makes the town a present of one or more bridges.

In addition to the above feasts and festivals there are scores of others of less importance. Some have a religious significance, others are purely secular. A few certainly are gradually dying out, but the greater part are maintained with as much as possible of their old-time ceremonial.
EDUCATION

BY W. G. JOHNSON,

ADVISER TO THE MINISTRY FOR PUBLIC INSTRUCTION AND ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

FROM time immemorial there has always been in Siam a certain amount of education carried on by the priests of the temples. When it is remembered that Siam has a total of more than 10,000 temples, containing nearly 100,000 priests, and, further, that these temples may be very aptly compared with the monasteries in Europe in the Middle Ages, it will be seen that the machinery for a national scheme of education has long been in existence. Nearly every man on reaching the age of twenty enters the priesthood for a certain period and takes up residence in the temple. The consequence is that the temples enter very largely into the life of the people. In every temple there will be found a varying number of boys who are attached to the priests as servants and pupils, and who receive from them in return a certain amount of elementary instruction, principally in reading and writing. It is only, however, in the last few years that the State has taken up the organisation and extension of this work. The first step was the formation of an Education Department, whose duty was to organise the system of elementary instruction throughout the country. H.R.H. Prince Damrong, the present Minister of the Interior, was appointed the first director of this new department. A good beginning was made; several schools were founded in the capital, and a foundation was laid of a Text Book Department, which was all the more necessary because no such books for elementary instruction were in existence. Unfortunately, Prince Damrong was very early transferred from this position to take up the organisation of the Ministry of the Interior, and for some years after this the record of the department shows a state of general inactivity. In the last ten years, however, great progress has been made, and it is safe to say that few other countries can show such rapid and real progress in their, what may be called, educational infancy as Siam has displayed during this period.

Courses of instruction have been drawn up and a large number of schools opened. As a foundation, the department recognises that every child should receive at least that certain minimum of instruction which will enable it to carry on the ordinary activities of every-day life; further, that wherever possible this instruction shall be given by the priests in the temples, thus helping to strengthen that bond between religion and education which is so necessary and desirable to Siam. Siam has progressed so rapidly of late years, and the machinery of Government has been reorganised and perfected so quickly, that it requires all the efforts of the Education Department to produce from its schools the supply of men capable of taking up the posts in the Government service. In spite of the rapid progress made, it cannot yet be said that the schools are
able to fully supply the needs of the service, the consequence being that a great number of posts are at present filled by foreigners. It is hoped as education progresses that more and more of these posts may be filled by the students trained in the Government schools.

GENERAL PLAN OF COURSES OF STUDIES.

The scheme of studies laid down by the Education Department and in use at the present time includes the following courses for boys:—

A. LOWER PRIMARY COURSE.—A three years' course in the vernacular, giving the minimum amount of instruction considered absolutely necessary for all boys without exception. In the Lower Primary branch of the English schools this course includes also first steps in the English language.

B. PRIMARY COURSE.—Two courses. Course 1—a three years' course in the vernacular, an extension of the Lower Primary course; being also a preparatory course for boys who intend to proceed to the Secondary Schools. This course contains no English. Course 2—a three years' course in the vernacular, parallel to Course 1, but containing elementary instruction in English; a preparatory course for boys proceeding to Secondary English schools (i.e., Secondary Course 3).

C. SECONDARY COURSES.—Three courses. Course 1—a three years' literary course following on naturally from Primary Course 1 and including English. This course is more a literary than a science course, and is intended for boys wishing to take up Government appointments as clerks, &c. Course 2—a three years' course following on naturally from Primary Course 1, but of a more modern character than Secondary Course 1, more attention being given to English, mathematics, and science subjects than in Course 1 (secondary). Intended as a fitting preparation for boys about to specialise in the following technical branches—army, navy, engineering, surveying, medicine, forestry, &c., &c. Course 3—a foreign language course of five years, more advanced than Course 2 above, preparing boys for special technical studies and for study abroad. The chief medium of instruction is English.

The foregoing courses cover the scheme for general education. In addition to the above, special courses are laid down for and followed by the Technical Schools under the Depart-

m ent, viz., Normal College for Teachers and the Medical College.

The chief improvements in school studies made during recent years may be briefly summarised as follows:—

1. Much more attention is paid to moral teaching in all grades.

2. Antiquated methods of teaching are being gradually superseded.

3. More attention is given to modern sub-

jects and to the teaching of English and drawing.

4. Increasing prominence is given to physical education. Systematic courses in gymnastics and physical and military drill are laid down and school sports receive suitable encouragement.

5. Schools are encouraged to form libraries to be used by the scholars for private reading. At the end of A.D. 1907 there were twenty-seven schools with such libraries.

Abstract of Course of Studies in the Last Year of Primary Siamese Course 1.

Moral Teaching.—A continuation of the course followed in previous years.

Siamese Language.—Reading, writing, dictation, and paraphrase from approved books (at least five). In composition, ability to communicate thoughts in writing or orally so as to be clearly understood, simple letter-writing.

Arithmetic.—Problems in money, simple weights and measures, easy fractions, easy decimals, measurement of simple areas, simple rule of three, simple bills and accounts, problems to be practical.

Geography and History.—Siames and her neighbours, outlines of those countries connected by trade with Siam, map-drawing.

Object Lessons and Natural Study.—A course of at least thirty suitable lessons to be approved by the Inspector.

Drawing.—From natural and familiar objects.

Physical Exercises.—Military and physical drill, using the exercises laid down in the approved manual where possible, gymnastic exercises in addition.

Abstract of Course of Studies in the Last Year of Secondary Siamese Course 1.

Moral Teaching.—The principles of right and wrong, duty to self, duty to neighbour,
Music.—An optional subject, at the discretion and ability of the teachers.

Abstract of Course of Studies in the Last Year of Secondary Siamese Course 2.

Moral Teaching.—As in Secondary Siamese Course 1.

Siamese Language.—As in Secondary Siamese Course 1, but special attention to composition and ability to express thoughts in clear language.

Mathematics.—Arithmetic, advanced; men-

Abstract of Course of Studies in the Fourth Year of the Secondary (English) Schools.

(Wherever possible all work is done in English.)

Moral Teaching.—As in Secondary Course 1.

English Language.—Reading, conversation, paraphrasing and translation; a standard author to be studied—ability to write an essay on a subject requiring thought and to read the same aloud with due expression and emphasis; grammar and précis-writing.

Mathematics.—Revision of previous years' work, with more difficult exercises; algebra up to permutations and combinations; geometry—to the end of Euclid's elements; plane trigonometry.
## Abstract of Subjects, Showing the Number of Hours Devoted to Each per Week (Five Days).

### Lower Primary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Class 1</th>
<th>Class 2</th>
<th>Class 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Arithmetic</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Reading</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dictation</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Writing</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Composition (includes grammar)</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Moral teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Object-lessons</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Geography</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Drawing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Drill</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 25 25 25

### Primary Branch.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Class 1</th>
<th>Class 2</th>
<th>Class 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Arithmetic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Reading</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dictation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Writing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Composition (and grammar)</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
<td>3 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Moral teaching</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Object-lessons</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Geography</td>
<td>2 1/2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Drawing</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
<td>1 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Drill</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 25 25 25

### Secondary Course 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Class 1</th>
<th>Class 2</th>
<th>Class 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Moral teaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Siamese language</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. English language</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mathematics</td>
<td>6 1/2</td>
<td>6 1/2</td>
<td>6 1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Geography and history</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Physiography</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Drawing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Etiquette</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>1/2</td>
<td>1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Drill...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 25 25 25

### Disease

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>R.S. 122 (1903)</th>
<th>R.S. 123 (1904)</th>
<th>R.S. 124 (1905)</th>
<th>R.S. 125 (1906)</th>
<th>R.S. 126 (1907)</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sick</td>
<td>Died</td>
<td>Sick</td>
<td>Died</td>
<td>Sick</td>
<td>Died</td>
<td>Sick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gastro-intestinal</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cholera</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venereal</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEVERS</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berli-beri</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small-pox</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumption</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vesical calculus</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other causes</td>
<td>634</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Totals: 1,904 162 967 128 1,104 101 983 130 4,824 753
2. Normal College for Teachers.—Principal, Mr. F. G. Trayes. A residential college for the training of teachers, with a two years' course. During R.s. 126 (1907) there were 65 students in training, of whom 22 obtained certificates at the end of the year. Since R.s. 113 (1893) this college has provided 242 trained teachers (of whom 180 were trained during the last six years), now distributed as follows:

1. Actually teaching in departmental schools ..... 166
2. Inspectors of schools ..... 5
3. Commissioners for education in the provinces ..... 7
4. Acting Commissioners for education in the provinces ..... 7
5. Assistant Commissioners for education in the provinces ..... 9
6. At work in the Education Department ..... 3
7. At work in other Government departments ..... 11
8. Dead ..... 31
9. Present occupation unknown ..... 242

In addition to the schools under the control of the Education Department, it may be of interest to note that there were, at the end of R.s. 126 (March, 1908) the following 7 special Government schools, with 1,361 pupils, under the control of the respective departments they specially serve:

The following is a list of schools in which fees are charged. In all other schools under the department education is free:

1. Medical College.—Students who intend to take up private practice and do not enter the Government service: (a) boarders, 10 lacs per month; (b) day students, 5 lacs per month.
2. King's College.—(a) Boarders, 270 lacs per year; (b) day boys, 108 lacs per year.
3. Swan Kalarp.—Lower school; (a) juniors, 10 lacs per year; (b) seniors, 20 lacs per year. Upper school, 30 lacs per year.
4. Mahapraland.—(a) Boys under thirteen on entrance, 30 lacs per year; (b) boys over thirteen on entrance, 40 lacs per year.
5. "Suri Vidaya" and "Socapa" Girls' Schools.—One lacs per month.

The two most important Secondary Schools belonging to the department in Bangkok are Swan Kalarp and King's College. Swan Kalarp was the first school founded in Siam. It is at the present a day school, with an attendance of nearly 300. The teaching in the higher school is done by trained Europeans, of whom at present there are five. King's College is a boarding-school with 80 pupils, most of whom are the sons of princes and ministers. This school, under the headmanship of Mr. A. Cecil Carter, has three English University men on its staff. The same course is followed in both schools, and the boys in the highest forms compete annually for the King's scholarship being held abroad. Both schools have an excellent record of work.

Pupils and Attendance (Bangkok only). At the end of R.s. 126 (March, 1908) there were 9,287 pupils in Bangkok Schools under the control of the Education Department, distributed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of School</th>
<th>Number of Pupils, 1908</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Special Schools (2)</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Secondary Schools (10)—</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Course 1</td>
<td>632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Course 2</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Course 3</td>
<td>433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Primary Schools (76)—</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Primary Course</td>
<td>7,196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Lower Primary</td>
<td>1,321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (88 schools)</td>
<td>9,287</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The average number of pupils per class, taking all schools together, was 25.

The number of pupils in the highest standard of each grade (i.e., the leaving standard) was as follows:

Primary Grade—1,717 pupils.
Secondary Grade: Course 1—112 pupils (including 6 girls); Course 2—10 pupils in a new course commenced in 1907; Course 3—13 pupils.

Special Schools—(i.) Normal College, 37 students; (ii.) Medical College, 26 students.

The average number of pupils on the roll per school for the year 1907-8 was 108, and the average percentage of attendance per pupil was 87.2. Pupils who have not been late or absent more than five times altogether during the school term (i.e., half-year) and whose conduct is satisfactory, receive a special attendance certificate. Pupils who have gained three of these attendance certificates receive a bronze medal, those who gain six certificates receive a silver medal, while those who gain nine certificates receive a gold medal. During the past year (1907) a total of 615 pupils gained attendance certificates, being an increase on the previous year of 100.

Bright pupils are encouraged to continue their studies by a system of scholarships. For example, boys who satisfactorily pass the highest standard of the Primary grade before reaching the age of eleven years are allowed to enter the Secondary English Schools without payment of the usual fees. At the present time there are thirty-three boys holding such scholarships in the Secondary Schools. Students who obtain the Elementary Teachers' Certificate while in training at the Normal College, if

Table showing Attendance Records for all Bangkok Schools under the Education Department for the Year R.s. 126 (1907-8)

| 1. Number of schools at end of year | 88 |
| 2. Average number of schools during the year | 88 |
| 3. Total number of pupils on roll at end of year | 9,287 |
| 4. Average number of pupils on roll throughout the year | 9,409 |
| 5. Average number of pupils on roll per school | 108 |
| 6. Total number of school sessions for the year (one day is divided into two sessions, morning and afternoon) | 37,344 |
| 7. Average number of sessions per school for the year | 3,339,035 |
| 8. Total number of school attendances for the year | 3,339,035 |
| 9. Average number of times each pupil attended | 351 |
| 10. Average percentage attendance per pupil for the year | 87.2 |
of exceptional ability, are allowed to take a further special course in the Secondary English Schools without fees, in special cases receiving a monthly grant-in-aid. At the end of this course those students who have shown exceptional progress may be sent abroad to continue their studies in educational work and methods on the sole condition that they agree to enter the Government service on their return for a period of at least five years.

The King’s Scholarship Examination (a competitive examination open to all Siamese boys under the age of eighteen years without distinction) provides every year that the first two boys on the list may be sent abroad to take up studies in any special branch or profession they may choose. On their return they are required to enter the Government service.

AVERAGE AGES OF PUPILS IN EACH CLASS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS, MARCH, 1869 (1908).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Lower Primary</th>
<th>Upper Primary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second Year</td>
<td>Third Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. North-Eastern</td>
<td>10'4</td>
<td>12'1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. East-Central</td>
<td>9'8</td>
<td>11'9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. South-Eastern</td>
<td>11'2</td>
<td>12'7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. South-Western</td>
<td>10'8</td>
<td>12'2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. North-Western</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>12'8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. West-Central</td>
<td>10'9</td>
<td>12'8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Primary Schools (Branches of Secondary Schools).

7. Benchamabophit   12'1 13'3 13'1 15'6
8. Rajbuna          11'2 12'2 13'2 15'3
9. Nuan Noradit     10'4 12'5 13'4 16'9

N.B.—The preparatory work of the Lower Primary Course is done in the temples by the priests.

AVERAGE AGES OF PUPILS IN EACH CLASS IN SECONDARY SIAMESE SCHOOLS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>First Year</th>
<th>Second Year</th>
<th>Third Year</th>
<th>Whole School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary (Course 1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Suan Kularb</td>
<td>13'9</td>
<td>15'3</td>
<td>14'8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Benchamabophit</td>
<td></td>
<td>15'2</td>
<td>15'5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Rajbuna</td>
<td>14'3</td>
<td>14'8</td>
<td>14'8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Soochit</td>
<td>10'1</td>
<td>15'7</td>
<td>15'9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Udom</td>
<td>14'9</td>
<td>15'3</td>
<td>15'3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Nuan Noradit</td>
<td>14'4</td>
<td>15'2</td>
<td>14'8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Secondary (Course 2), 7. Rajbuna (a) 12'82 (b) 14'57

AVERAGE AGES OF PUPILS IN THE CLASSES OF THE SECONDARY ENGLISH SCHOOLS, MARCH, 1869 (1908).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Suan Kularb</th>
<th>King's College</th>
<th>Mahapataram</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>No. in Class</td>
<td>Average Age.</td>
<td>No. in Class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Special Schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Secondary Schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Primary Schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All schools taken together</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE SHOWING THE VARIOUS GRADES OF SIAMESE TEACHERS, WITH AMOUNT OF SALARIES, MARCH, 1908.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade of Teacher</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Total Salaries, March, 1908</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Special Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Primary Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1,380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1,530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 3</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 4</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>5,745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 5</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>6,785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Pupil Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>512</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Totals               | 434*            | 21,722                       |

* The above includes 2 foreigners.

There were, in addition, 12 other foreign teachers, whose total salaries for March, 1908, was 7,660 ticals.

The total salaries for March, 1908, for 446 teachers were therefore 29,388 ticals, giving an average expenditure for teachers per pupil...
TABLE SHOWING AVERAGE EXPENDITURE FOR TEACHERS' SALARIES PER PUPIL IN MARCH, 1908.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of School</th>
<th>No. of Pupils</th>
<th>Total Salaries, March, 1908</th>
<th>Average per Pupil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Special (2)</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>5,261</td>
<td>353 Ticals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Secondary (10)</td>
<td>1,121</td>
<td>12,601</td>
<td>1124 Ticals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Primary (79)</td>
<td>8,557</td>
<td>11,526</td>
<td>134 Ticals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All Schools</strong></td>
<td>9,827</td>
<td>29,388</td>
<td>299 Ticals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Includes 1,256 ticals for special lecturers' fees.

The department still feels severely the dearth of trained teachers. The Normal College is doing useful work, but the chief difficulty still remains that few boys who have passed through the Secondary Schools elect to take up teaching as a profession. Consequently the standard of knowledge attained by those pupils who enter the Normal College is not high, and the college is unable to turn out secondary teachers. The demand for trained teachers is so great and pressing that as soon as a student in training at the Normal College has reached the standard of knowledge required for the Primary Teacher's Certificate he is at once drafted out to teach in the schools. The work of raising the standard of knowledge of the teachers is, however, greatly helped by the Teachers' Association (Sanakayacharn). The Association, of which H.R.H. the Crown Prince is president and H.E. the Director-General for Education the president, has a membership of over 600, practically every teacher in Bangkok belonging to it. The Association provides evening continuation classes, especially for teachers, which are largely attended. At the present time the following classes are held:

2. A course of lectures in Physiology.
3. A course of lectures in Geography and History.
4. A course of lectures in Mathematics.
5. Drawing, Arts and Crafts. Attended daily by over 50 students.
6. Physical Drill and Exercises and Gymnasium. Attended daily by over 50 students.

Regular examinations are held at the termination of each course and certificates granted to successful students. These certificates are recognised by the Education Department, and a teacher possessing the Primary Teacher's Certificate may, after passing successfully through certain of the above courses, count the certificates so gained towards obtaining his Secondary Teacher's Certificate. The possession of these certificates helps a teacher also in gaining promotion.

SCHOOL INSPECTION (Bangkok).

In order to secure proper supervision it is necessary that the inspectors should be well qualified, and that they be invested with sufficient authority to enforce the prescribed regulations. No person is qualified for this important position who, besides scholarship, has not had experience as a teacher. Without the latter there can be no guarantee of fitness to deal with the many details of school management. With this object in view all inspectors who have been appointed are trained men with actual experience in school as teachers. For the purposes of thorough inspection the school in Bangkok under the control of the department are divided into seven districts, as follows, H.E. Phra Bhasis being the Inspector-General:

District, Inspector
2. East-Central.
3. West-Central.
5. North-West.
6. South-West and South-East.
7. Special and English Schools.

During the year 1907-8 a total of 1,105 visits of inspection were made, being an average of 12 visits to each school. The average time occupied on each visit was just over three hours. Altogether 689 days were spent in examination work and 736 days on inspection; i.e., the average total number of days spent on inspection and examination by each inspector was 203. The average number of days the schools were open during the year was 214. Time not spent on inspection and examination was occupied with office work in the department. During the year 26 meetings of inspectors were held at the department to discuss matters affecting the work of administration, &c. Inspectors' salaries for the year totalled 25,450 ticals, and this with 2,520 ticals (travelling expenses, &c.) made a total sum of 27,980 ticals spent on inspection and examination work, showing an average expenditure on this account per pupil of 204 ticals for the year. The expenditure on this account for the previous year is R.S. 125 (1906-7) showed 336 ticals per head. The result of this thorough system of inspection is seen in the improved efficiency of the teaching and organisation in the schools. A separate board of examiners is, however, to be formed, whose work will be solely that of conducting all examinations, and the district inspectors will then be relieved of examination work in order that they may devote the whole of their time and energies to inspection and organisation.

EXAMINATIONS.

The following tables show the results of examinations conducted by the department as compared with the previous year, R.S. 125 (1906-7):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Pupils Examined</th>
<th>Number of Pupils Passed</th>
<th>Percentage of Passes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 126</td>
<td>(1907-8)</td>
<td>902</td>
<td>595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 125</td>
<td>(1906-7)</td>
<td>1,136</td>
<td>827</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The smaller number of passes obtained in R.S. 126 is due to the fact that a higher standard of attainment was required than in the previous years. Of the total of 303 pupils passing this examination 241, or 46 per cent., entered the Secondary Schools.

2. Results of examinations in the leaving standard in Secondary Course 1 (Secondary Siamese):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Pupils Examined</th>
<th>Number of Pupils Passed</th>
<th>Percentage of Passes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 126</td>
<td>(1907-8)</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 125</td>
<td>(1906-7)</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The smaller number examined in R.S. 126 (1907-8) was due chiefly to the fact that a large number of boys entered the Military College before completing the course, and thus did not come up for examination.

3. Results of examination in the leaving standard in Primary Course 2 (Elementary English):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Pupils Examined</th>
<th>Number of Pupils Passed</th>
<th>Percentage of Passes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 126</td>
<td>(1907-8)</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 125</td>
<td>(1906-7)</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Results of examination in the leaving standard in Secondary Course 3 (Secondary English):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Pupils Examined</th>
<th>Number of Pupils Passed</th>
<th>Percentage of Passes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 126</td>
<td>(1907-8)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 125</td>
<td>(1906-7)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Results of examination in the final course at the Medical College:
6. Results of examination in the final course at the Normal College for Teachers:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number Examined</th>
<th>Number of Passes</th>
<th>Percentage of Passes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R.S. 125 (1906-7)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. The King's Scholarship Examination was held in February. The first two boys on the list and to whom the scholarships were therefore awarded came from Suan Kularb School. The first place was gained by Nai Niem, aged seventeen, son of Nai In, who obtained 635 marks out of a total of 900. The second place was taken by Nai Poot, aged sixteen, son of Khun Dumrobgpukdi, with a total of 620 marks.

In the previous year R.S. 125 (1906-7) both scholarships were also gained by pupils of Suan Kularb School. Both boys were sent to England to continue their studies.

PROVINCIAL EDUCATION.

Although, as stated, there has always been some sort of elementary instruction given in the temples by the priests, it is only in the last year and a half that any serious attempt has been made to commence the organisation of education in the provinces. In initiating this work the first step the department had to take was to ascertain what work was actually being done. With this object in view officials were appointed to each of the provinces, whose duty it is, in conjunction with the chief priests of the province and the local officials, to obtain as full statistics as possible of the educational work at present done in the temples, and to gradually build on this foundation an organised system on the lines laid down by the department. The following is a list of the responsible commissioners, with their provinces:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Name of Official</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Pitsanuloke</td>
<td>Khun Phrapun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Petchabun</td>
<td>Khun Upakorn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Payup (Chiangmai)</td>
<td>Nai Adoong.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Patani</td>
<td>Luang Planuntakil.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the nature of the work and the rapidity with which it had to be carried out, it is safe to assume that the above returns are not absolutely correct, but only approximately so. In any case, however, they are certainly sufficiently correct to serve as a valuable guide in the practical work of future organisation.

Allowing for incomplete and inaccurate returns, it will be seen that there are at least 13,000 temples, with more than 90,000 priests. There are at least 350,000 boys of school age in Siam. Assuming that the whole of these boys at the temples are receiving instruction, there still remains a total of 200,000 boys receiving no instruction whatever. The work before the department is, therefore, twofold: firstly, to aid the priests in the educational work they are now doing; secondly, and more important still, to provide for the instruction of the 200,000 boys who are at present receiving no instruction whatever.

At a meeting held in the offices of the department on September 12, R.S. 125 (1906), which was attended by H.I.H. the Minister for the Interior and the High Commissioners of thirteen provinces, the question of organisation of education in the provinces was discussed. The importance of taking immediate steps to organise a widespread system of education for the people was fully recognised, and the following points were unanimously agreed upon, the cordial co-operation of the Ministry of the Interior being assured in any measures adopted for the proper carrying out of the same:—

(a) It was agreed that all boys of school age ought to be required to receive instruction, and that this instruction, wherever possible, should be given by the priests in the temples;
(b) That the instruction provided should not be less than the minimum necessary to be of use to the boys in their future life's work;
(c) That means should also be provided...
branches of study pursued by the various students:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch of Study</th>
<th>No. of Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Educational (teachers)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Civil and Diplomatic Service</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Civil engineering</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Medicine</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Law</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Army</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. General education</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the institution by his Majesty the King in the year R.S. 118 (1896) of an annual open competitive examination for scholarships to be held abroad, 29 scholarships have been awarded. In addition, other students of approved ability have been selected for special studies abroad. The result of this wise policy is becoming every year more evident the valuable work being done by those students who have returned to their country. During the last ten years 38 of these students have returned, only 3 of whom were reported on as not having been satisfactory. There was 1 death, and 3 returned on account of ill-health. The remainder finished their courses of study with credit. The average time occupied in studies abroad in the various branches by those students who have returned to Siam was approximately as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch of Study</th>
<th>No. of Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Educational (teachers)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Law</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Diplomacy and Civil Service</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Army</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Finance</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Civil engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Civil engineering and law</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Irrigation engineering</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Agriculture</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Forestry</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Electrical engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Marine engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It must be remembered that the above table represents only those students who were under the control of the Education Department at the time. There are, in addition, students abroad who are under the control of other Government departments.
SPORT

SPORT of almost all kinds in Siam may be safely divided into three main divisions, viz., as practised by Europeans and as practised by the Siamese and Chinese. Siam is essentially a country where the "all work and no play" policy is in disfavour, and although the climate would seem to militate, to some extent, against the ardent pursuit of many field sports, most of them, nevertheless, have eager votaries. The question is often asked, "Is there any big-game shooting in Siam?" There is, but details concerning it are not easy to obtain. Yet the country abounds with big game, some of it within easy reach of the capital and the railway centres. There are elephants, rhinoceros, sladang, wild buffaloes, tapir, wild pig, tiger, panther, leopards, and half a score of other members of the feline tribe, and deer, ranging from the lordly sambar and Schomburgk deer to the little barking deer. Of these, elephants may by no means be shot unless they be "rogues," and moreover they must be certified as such by the local authorities. There are no restrictions with regard to the shooting of the animals; but the sportsman, unless he has unlimited time at his disposal and speaks the language well, will have difficulty in finding them, for the country-folk, being followers of Buddha, have a kind of passive objection to the life of any creature being taken. Also, it should be remembered that the more remote places where big game is usually found are very sparsely populated; there are no roadways, and the country is often covered with more or less impenetrable jungle. Given the power to overcome these obstacles and a strong constitution, the sportsman can be assured of good bags. The best months for the pursuit of big game are from December to March, both inclusive. Tigers and their kind and various species of deer can be obtained in the Korat district, to the east, and rhinoceros, tigers, sladang, tapir, &c., along the Burma frontier. The Siamese tiger is not so big as his Bengal brother, the largest
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

The writer has seen measuring only 10 ft. 7 ins. Leopards are fairly plentiful in the Siamese portion of the Malay Peninsula, and Club, and his Majesty the king not only granted the new club a royal charter, but made it a present of a lease of the land on

meetings held a year—in December (the King's Cup Meeting), February, and April. As a general thing, racing is confined to Siamese ponies, although there are occasional events for Walkers and Arabs. The Siamese pony, small though he is (12 hds. 2 ins. is the maximum height allowed), is a wonderful little animal and runs extremely well. With weights ranging from 7 st. 6 lbs. to 8 st. 11 lbs. fairly good times for him are:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Min. secs.</th>
<th>1 mile</th>
<th>2 mile</th>
<th>3 furs.</th>
<th>4 furs.</th>
<th>½ mile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 15</td>
<td>1 35</td>
<td>1 20</td>
<td>1 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Taking into consideration the fact that the pony has no particular breeding, spends his early youth in rice-swamps or jungles, and does not see a racecourse till he is five or six years old, his record is an exceedingly good one.

Pony racing among the Siamese, which is often to be seen in the provincial towns and sometimes at Bangkok, furnishes a somewhat curious spectacle. The course is a straight one; a rope is stretched down the middle of it, and a flag is planted at the winning end. Only two ponies start, one on either side of the rope, and the winning rider has to grab and carry away the flag as he passes it. Not infrequently the ponies swerve just before the flag is reached. Accidents are by no means uncommon, but the races seem to provide a great deal of amusement for the onlookers, and the glorious uncertainty of the results only seems to add a zest to the gambling which is taking place.

Among the purely Siamese sports, however, which attract most attention are the kite-flying contests held at Bangkok Premane Ground every year in March. The "wow," or kites, are

AN ELEPHANT HUNT, OUTSIDE THE KRAAL AT AYUTHIA.

here, also, may be found sladang, wild buffalo, tapir, and deer. Crocodiles may be shot within a very few miles of Bangkok, while hares, scaly ant-eaters, and jackals are fairly common. Game birds of many kinds are quite common. Peacock, jungle-fowl, argus, and crested fire-back pheasants, francolin, golden plover, teal, and duck may be obtained within easy reach of the capital, while from September to March snipe are to be found in vast numbers in the paddy fields right up to the outskirts of the town. The record bag of snipe for one gun is 167 birds in five hours, and this was made at a spot eight kilometres from the Bangkok railway terminus.

Up to 1902 Bangkok possessed its separate gymkhana, golf, cricket, gun, sailing, and other clubs. But since that year most of these have been merged into the Royal Bangkok Sports Club, which has some 500 members, Europeans and Siamese. Polo, rifle-shooting, sailing, and rowing, all of which forms of sport have had their day in Siam, have now almost entirely disappeared, but at the present time, in addition to racing, there are mounted paper-chases, and such games as golf, cricket, football hockey, trap-shooting, and tennis are frequently played.

The history of racing in Bangkok is rather an interesting one. Some thirty years ago a Mr. Newman, then British Consul, measured off a mile of level ground, which now forms the road passing the racecourse, and here he and some of his friends raced their carriage and other ponies. Gradually a Gymkhana Club came into existence and regular race meetings were held on the Premane Ground, near the royal palace, his Majesty the King showing his approval of the sport by presenting a gold cup to be competed for annually. Under the royal patronage horse-racing soon became highly popular. In 1897 the present course was laid out; in 1902 the old Gymkhana Club became merged into the Royal Bangkok Sports

A NATIVE RACING CANOE.

which the course stood. The club then erected suitable and handsome buildings and laid out the entire course in such a manner that to-day it compares favourably with any in the East. There are generally three race-

divided into two classes, male and female. The large male kites are star-shaped and strongly built; the female kites are diamond-shaped, much smaller, and more fragile. The male kites soar high, and often sail along at
the end of a mile of cord. It is the object of
the owners of the female kites to entangle their
strings with the cord attached to a male kite
and so haul it down. If they accomplish this
successfully they are the victors; but the odds
are against them, as, owing to their small
superficies, the female kites are unable to carry
strong and heavy string and their finer thread
frequently gets broken. Very considerable
sums of money often change hands over these
competitions, and some of the kites are looked
upon almost as family heirlooms. Kite-flying,
simple as it appears, is quite an art, and experts
can make the kites perform extraordinary
gyrations in the air.

The "pla kat," or fighting fish of Siam, are
a species of stickleback, the male members
of which family are endowed with extraordinary
pugnacity. When in repose they are but
dingy-looking creatures, but upon becoming

enraged they display a marvellous range of
iridescent colouring which shifts about in kalei-
doscope fashion. They are fed with the larve
of mosquitoes, for the sake of which there are
regular shops in the Sampeng district of
Bangkok. Large sums are wagered on the
fighting powers of the finny warriors, and in
many cases their owners refuse to sell them
for hundreds of bahts.

Siamese boxing, a favourite amusement with
the soldiery, is distinctly interesting to witness.
The contestants are allowed to use the feet, as
in the French sauté, while their arms are
swathed up to the elbow in strips of cloth
or coconut fibre. Siamese football is a game
in which four men usually take part. Their
object is to keep a small rattan ball in the air
as long as possible by knocking it to one
another in shuttlecock fashion. The ball may
be struck with the feet, knees, head, or

shoulders only. In this game the Siamese
youths display a remarkable agility; during
the visit to Siam of Prince Henry of Prussia
some years ago a quartette of players kept a
ball in motion in this way for fifty-five minutes,
a truly wonderful performance.

Among the now prohibited forms of "sport"
which were previously quite common in Siam
are cock-fighting and the "awphlong suam lang
tao hai wing khieng kan," a species of amuse-
ment derived from making tortoises run races
with small fires upon their backs. This
latter pastime, it would seem, however, could
hardly have possessed an excessively lively
interest for any one but the tortoise.

During recent years motoring and motor-
boat racing have become exceedingly popular
among the more wealthy members of the com-

munity, while football on European lines has
been started in some of the schools.
BANGKOK

Bangkok, the capital of Siam (or, to give it its official designation, "Krung Thep"), stands on the huge, alluvial plain surrounding the mouth of the river Chao Phya Menam (lit. "Mother of Waters"), and is some fourteen miles in a direct line from the sea, or thirty-four miles distant if the windings of the stream are followed. The city was founded in 1768 by Phya Tak, a generalissimo of Chinese descent, who drove out the Burmans and seized the reins of government after the sacking of Ayuthia, the ancient capital. He commenced building on the west bank, and it was not until 1850, or thereabouts, that the city began to cross the river eastwards. Today, however, the main portion of it lies on the east side of the river, and although the west bank is thickly populated, the district beyond is merely overgrown with jungle, containing here and there a few ruins only. The trip from the bar at the mouth of the Menam to the anchorage just below the town itself is a pleasant one: Although at first the low-lying banks, fringed with mangroves, are slightly monotonous, they soon assume quite a picturesque appearance, and interest is awakened before reaching Paknam, a thriving little village where all vessels have to report their arrival or departure to the Customs. Just above the village and near the west bank of the river is a typical Siamese wat, or temple. It is neither a large nor important structure, but is prettily...

GENERAL VIEW OF BANGKOK.
THE BRITISH LEGATION.

VIEW IN DUSIT PARK.

NEW ROAD—THE MAIN ARTERY OF BANGKOK.

THE SUMMER-HOUSE IN DUSIT PARK.
situated and forms a pleasing picture to the eye, while the presence of a wooden fort in the neighbourhood strikes a curious note of contrast in the general surroundings. The river from Paknam onward flows in a succession of serpentine curves and is filled with a great variety of shipping, native boats, steam and other launches, and occasional sea-going steamers. The flat banks on both sides are clothed with a wealth of tropical jungle, with little plantations, temples, and villages appearing at irregular intervals, while at several of the points commanding the longer stretches of the river are to be seen ancient white-walled forts, which may in the past have proved very formidable defences, but are now, of course, quite useless. At one spot on the west bank there is an extensive settlement of Peguans, or Mohns, as they are generally known to the Siamese, and here there is a modern fort and barracks and a very interesting temple, built in the style common to Lower Burma a couple of centuries ago. After this is passed the approach to the capital is marked by the increasing number of craft, while a large rice mill and some oil-tanks loom up, and seem a trifle incongruous in their typically Eastern setting. From Bangkolem Point, where Bangkok may be said to have its beginning, for a distance of six or seven miles there is a quaint intermingling of wharves, temples, rice mills, floating houses, and shops. The River Menam as it passes through the town is about a couple of hundred yards wide. The limited depth of water on the bar prevents vessels with a draught of more than twelve or thirteen feet from reaching the capital, but a ship with no larger draught than ten feet can go fully 100 miles higher up the stream if necessary, and there is never any lack of small craft in port.

Bangkok city proper, which is partly enclosed by a wall, contains the Grand Palace, most of the principal Government offices, and the residences of the greater part of the Siamese nobility, while the suburbs extend from Samsen in the north to Bangkolem in the south. The whole covers an area of about nine square miles, and contains over two hundred and eighty miles of public roads. All of these have
been constructed within the past sixty years, and furnish a record of activity which reflects the greatest credit on the Local Government Department. The method of construction adopted at first was curious. Bricks were laid on their sides upon the ground and layers of sand spread over them. The roads thus formed looked like horizontal brick walls, but in wet weather they proved quagmires of red clay and in dry weather became inches thick in dust.

The opening up of the railways to places where regular road metal could be obtained, however, has remedied this state of things. The roads are being gradually improved each year, and as there are over 300 motor-cars now in use in Bangkok the improvement has naturally been appreciated. But, although roads are coming into existence in all directions, an immense amount of traffic still takes place on the canals, or "klongs," which traverse the city in all directions. All the perishable market merchandise is brought to the capital by these waterways; but the floating shops and floating houses, once such a conspicuous feature of the place, are rapidly disappearing, and in but a few years will have become curiosities. Within the town limits there are some 2,000 bridges, many of which are very handsome structures. Upon each of his birthdays his Majesty the King presents one or more to the town, the fifty-fifth being the last. Of late years the authorities have made several attempts to introduce a satisfactory system of drains, but without success. The failure has been attributed generally to the absence of a regular water supply. This matter, however, is now receiving attention, and it is expected that about the year 1912 the entire city will be supplied with filtered water, brought from the river some sixty miles up-stream.

The river at Bangkok is somewhat like the figure 3, and the principal thoroughfare in
the city, called the Charoen Krung, or New Road, follows, in the main, the direction of the river. It extends from the palace walls to Bangkolem, and the electric tramway runs along it for a distance of about six miles. To the north-east of the city proper is Dusit Park, which forms what may be termed the aristocratic suburb of Bangkok. A new palace is in course of erection here, and a large number of princes, nobles, and others connected with the Court have of late years built residences in the neighbourhood. The locality, formerly nothing but a jungle swamp, has undergone a marvellous transformation during the past ten years. Electric trams run through it, and link it with practically all the more important portions of Bangkok, and it is connected with the Grand Palace by a magnificent boulevard, which, with its three parallel avenues, is fully one hundred yards wide. To the south-east of this district lies the walled city itself, containing the Grand
TYPES OF MEN IN SIAM.

1. A Beggar.  
2. Kamfex Tribemen.  
4. A Siamese Nobleman in Court Dress.
Palace, royal mint, military headquarters, lawcourts, &c., besides numerous large and picturesque temples. Opposite the Grand Palace, and on the west side of the Menam, is the Klong Law, or naval dock. The walls which encircle the city proper are themselves not altogether without interest. They are constructed of brick, and are about twenty feet high, and from fifteen to twenty feet thick at the base; the upper portion forms a platform, protected with a wall perforated throughout its length with ornamental machicolations. At intervals the walls are surmounted by towers, with embrasures for artillery, but these are fast falling into decay, and in many places the handsomely ornamental and fortified gateways have been removed to allow for the widening of the roads. The bricks used in these walls are small but extremely durable.

South of the walled city is to be found the main commercial part of Bangkok. Along the riverside is a knotted conglomery of narrow lanes, known as Sampeng, which in all their characteristics are an exact replica of a Chinese native city. Here are to be found piece goods and steamboats. The district has a somewhat unsavoury atmosphere, but is as orderly as any other district in Bangkok, and apparently, for the Chinaman, just as healthy. There is here a somewhat European resident in Bangkok, who rarely go there except for business purposes, but it should not be entirely ignored by the tourist, who will probably find much to interest him both in the habits of the people and in their methods of conducting their trade. A little to the south and east of Sampeng is Bangkok, where most of the foreign legations and the majority of the banks and offices of Western business people are situated, and from thence to Bangkolen Point there is a long straight line of rice and saw mills, docks, ironworks, &c. All the principal streets in Bangkok are lighted by electricity, supplied under contract to the Government by the Siam Electricity Company, Ltd., a Danish concern, which also owns one half of the twenty-five odd miles of electric tramways, and has what is tantamount to a controlling interest in the remainder.

The visitor's first impression of Bangkok is not favourable. After landing at Windsor's Wharf, he has to pass through the lower part of the town, which has not yet received the same amount of attention that has been bestowed upon some of the other districts, and many of the old squalid bamboo and attap hovels still line the roadway. But in its human element the street life is extremely interesting. It is wonderful to see the representatives of so many nationalities rubbing shoulder to shoulder in the different thoroughfares or jostling one another in the market-place. The crowds which throng the streets are composed of Siamese, Chinese, Malays, Tamils, Bengalis, Madrassis, Pathans, and half a score of other tribes and castes of British India, Burmese, Ceylonese, Javanese, Cambodians, Annamites, Laos, Shans, and Mohns, all of whom retain sufficient of their national dress and characteristics to impart an idea of their origin. The spectacular effect of such a gathering is enhanced by the kaleidoscopic variety of the colours worn. The national dress of the Siamese is the "panung," a form of clothing not altogether dissimilar to the Malay sarong, which is worn by all classes and both sexes. Although about as simple as it is possible to imagine, the panung is by no means an easy garment for the tyro to don satisfactorily. It consists of a single strip of cloth about one yard wide and four or five yards in length. The approximate centre is placed at the back of the waist and the cloth is then wrapped round the loins and a portion passed between the knees and tucked into the part round the waist at the back, so that something like a very baggy pair of knickerbockers is formed. Queer garment though it is, the panung is exceedingly comfortable, and suits the people well. It is made of all manner of materials, and costs from a few cents up to hundreds of ticals. In addition to the panung the men wear short white tunics and European shoes and stockings, while the women content themselves with a long strip of cloth about half a yard wide, known as a "pahom," which is generally wrapped loosely under the arms or draped gracefully over their shoulders. In former years it was considered lucky to wear panungs of a certain colour on the different days of the week, members of the royal house only wearing red panungs all the time.

The fact that a majority of the women in Siam wear their hair cropped short occasionally makes it difficult to distinguish their sex, as the clothing of the men and women is sometimes almost identical. The origin of this custom among the women of keeping their hair short is variously explained; but the most pleasant and the one which gains the most credence, is that which tells how the women, by their muscular and warlike appear-
ance, once saved their country from invasion. On one occasion, during the days when Lopuri was capital and alarms and excursions from Burmans, Shans, Peguans and other neighbours were the order of the day, a strong Burman force put in an appearance. It was harvest-time, and most of the men-folk were at work in the fields. Some genius suggested that if the women cut their hair, took what arms they could muster, and "manned" the battlements, the enemy, seeing such a strong force on the qui vive, would promptly retire. All transpired just as had been predicted, and the enemy, taken by surprise, retreated in confusion. The women of Lopuri, on seeing this, started in pursuit and chased them to a safe distance.

The women of Lopuri, on seeing this, started in pursuit and chased them to a safe distance. Such is the tradition, which may or may not be founded on fact. It seems, however, to be generally credited throughout Siam.

THE GRAND PALACE.

The veritable centre of Bangkok, social as well as official and political, is the Grand Palace. Not only is it the official residence of H.M. King Chulalongkorn, but it contains a number of the principal Government offices, the royal Wat, or temple, in which is enshrined the emerald image of Buddha, and the royal Treasury. In reality it is a walled town covering an area of over half a square mile. Some portions of it are absolutely private; others may be viewed only when an order has been obtained from the High Chamberlain or Minister of the Royal Household. Among the latter are the Halls of Audience, which, with their mingling of the modern Italian and Siamese styles of architecture, form rather a striking building. There are also a number of old cannon, boats, and other curiosities to be seen in the neighbourhood, which are of interest to the antiquary. The National Library contains a large number of very ancient and valuable Pali and Sanskrit books bearing upon the history, not only of Siam, but of neighbouring countries, while the
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF SIAM

interesting little museum of its own, which is open to visitors. The Treasury and Finance Department offices, which are in the same block of buildings, possess no particular interest, but every one who visits the royal palace should see the white elephants, housed near by. There are usually four or five of these animals, each in its separate stable and with its own attendants. They are mottled rather than white, and have pink toenails and ear-tips. Apparently they are no longer viewed as sacred; upon arrival in Bangkok they have titles conferred upon them, but otherwise they seem to be treated little better than the ordinary working elephants. Wat Prakeo, the temple within the palace walls, is the shrine of the so-called "Emerald Buddha," a little figure made of green jade and standing about eighteen inches high. This temple contains also a number of bungas, or gold and silver trees presented to the sovereign at stated periods by the various small suzerain States in the Malay Peninsula. They are both interesting and valuable.

Outside the Grand Palace to the north is the spacious Premare Ground, formerly used for royal cremations, but which now is simply a recreation-ground, used for occasional military reviews. To the west is the Royal Education Department, to the east the Royal Law Courts, and to the north the Royal Museum and Mint. The Royal Museum is worth a visit, but, unfortunately, has been a good deal neglected of late years; the Mint possesses several points of interest, but admission to it is somewhat difficult to obtain. Near to the Museum, on the river side, are the spacious sheds containing the State barges, used in the annual water pageants. Some of them are large enough to carry a hundred rowers, and they look strikingly picturesque in the river, with their gold, red, and white pavilions and red-coated crews. The Royal Courts of Justice contain, beside the court-rooms, the judge's chambers and the various offices of the department. The courts themselves range from the "Borispah," or Magistrates' Court, to the Supreme Court, known as the "Dika," and all are open to the public during trials. It is interesting to compare them with the Siamese courts of only thirty years ago, when judges, accused, accusers, witnesses, and spectators squatted on the floor in a circle and ate betel-nut and smoked. He who paid the highest figure invariably gained his case. Near the Law Courts are the barracks and military prison and the Saraton Palace, the official residence of H.R.H. the Crown Prince. The gardens attached to the latter are now occupied by the Dvi Panya Club. In this locality also are other Government departments, most of which are large modern buildings well worth inpection.

BANGKOK WATS, OR Temples.

The officially recognised urban area of Bangkok contains no less than 398 Buddhist wats, or temples. No two of them are exactly alike and yet all possess many features in common; unfortunately, however, numbers of them are now literally falling to pieces. They generally comprise a central pagoda containing a big image of the Gautama Buddha; a bote, or hall where ordinary services and certain religious festivals are held; a sodi, or building in which pilgrims or other homeless persons may encamp; numerous courtyards, a tank for bathing, and homes for the priests. Some contain quadrangular cloisters filled with images of Buddha, while others have their

A STREET SCENE AT PAKNAM.

SELLERS OF BUDDHA IMAGES IN SAMPENG.
A CARPENTER'S SHOP.
The walls adorned with quaint frescoes. The central shrines are usually surmounted by either phra phangs or prachts. Smaller phrachts, which have been erected by persons desirous of “acquiring merit,” are also very often found scattered in immense numbers about the courtyards, while in some of the temples small images of Buddha are to be seen on every available edging of vulture. But the great glory of most of the wats lies in their tiled roofs, the triple gables of which are characteristically Siamese. The ornamentation by means of coloured tiles, which is a common feature of most of the temples, may be seen to the best advantage in Bangkok at Wat Phra Keo. The best view of the city is obtained from the terrace of Wat Pho Kao Taweng. The temple stands on an artificial hill, built of brickwork, pieces of rock, and masses of concrete, and contains a relic of Buddha sent to Siam from Ceylon. Wat Rachabopit, near the Local Government Department, is interesting on account of the prachts and phra phangs which are memorials to the queens of the last reign. Wat Pho, Wat Mahan, Wat Suthal, and Wat Cheng all contain numbers of very quaint Chinese carvings; while at Wat Saket, near the Golden Mountain, and at Wat Yannawa, in the Bangrak district, cremations are very frequent, and may be witnessed almost any day. All the wats are open to the public day and night, and the visitor may wander through them at will. Practically every Siamese enters the priesthood at some time of his life, and in the larger of the monasteries are to be found all sorts and conditions of men wearing the yellow robe. At a low estimate the number of priests in Bangkok alone averages between twelve thousand and fifteen thousand. Some of the priests are experts in the process of making the fireworks used in cremations, while others occupy themselves in fashioning images of Buddha or in copying Pali religious works. Their advice even in the most trivial matters is sought after by all classes of the people, and in Bangkok they are often credited with the ability to predict the winning numbers in the “buay,” or Chinese lottery, which is drawn nightly. The cremations of priests, especially of the more venerable ones, is attended with elaborate ceremonial. The body, enclosed in a gilded casket, is placed on the summit of a very tall pyre; immediately beneath it is a large quantity of highly combustible matter, from which long strings extend to the ground. After appropriate religious services, fireworks attached to the strings are ignited, and these set fire to the whole structure.

**CLUBS AND THEATRES.**

Of social clubs Bangkok possesses several. The British Club, Bangkok United Club, and German Club are the most important of the purely social European institutions, but the Siamese nobles have an excellent club also known as the Dwi Panyo Club, situated in the charming Saramom gardens, near the royal palace. Then, again, there is the Royal Bangkok Sports Club, which combines the functions of a social and sporting institution; the Engineering Society of Siam, which, besides affording its members opportunities for the discussion of technical subjects, often arranges pleasant social parties to visit places of interest in the immediate neighbourhood; the Siamese Society, which has for its object the consideration of literary, historical, and archaeological matters; the Bangkok Chess Club, and a Library Association. Of theatres, in the European sense of the term, Bangkok possesses none; although there are one or two buildings suitable for dramatic performances. The best
of these belong to H.E. Chao Phya Devar, whose royal theatrical troupes perform at intervals in the classic Siamese plays. The Siamese drama proper, or lakhun, consists of ancient plays performed by troupes of women who have been trained in the art from their youth. Posturing and posture-dancing are a great feature of the productions, which are interesting from a spectacular point of view, even though the music is unappreciated and the dialogue unintelligible. The lekay, or leekay, a species of burlesque, is a more modern form of entertainment, and one that is very popular among the masses, who greatly enjoy its rather broad humour. Of late years the Sarnanom Amateur Dramatic Association, composed of young Siamese nobles, have produced such plays as Finero's "Gay Lord Quex" and Sheridan's "School for Scandal" in Siamese. The last production of the society was a play called "The Shield," illustrative of modern Bangkock life, which was written by no less a personage than the Crown Prince himself.

THE BANGKOK GAMBLING HOUSES.

In any list of those places which are likely to interest the visitor to Bangkok the licensed gambling-houses should be included. There are half a dozen altogether, the principal one being Phra Boon Yot. They are open all day and half the night, are extensively patronised, and form a rich source of revenue for the Government. Four games of chance are played—all of Chinese origin—the most popular being that known as "luk," a modification of Chinese fan-tan. This is played on a large circular mat, some twenty to thirty feet in diameter, around which squat players of all ages and of both sexes. There is no limit to the stakes, which range from a few small coins up to thousands of ticals. The dexterity, acquired from long practice, with which the croupiers rake the money about on the mats with huge bamboo implements, seldom or never making a mistake, is marvellous. In addition to the gambling in the regular gambling-houses, however, certain games with cards and dice are permitted upon those premises where the practised in Bangkok may be formed from the large number of little tables, lighted with small square lamps, and presided over by Chinamen, which may be seen in all the business thoroughfares after nightfall. The Chinamen collect the money and distribute the lottery tickets. A little before midnight the duplicates of the tickets are collected and taken to the headquarters of the gambling farm, where the drawing takes place. During the Siamese year 1907-08 the manager of the lottery paid the Government 3,055,000 ticals for his privileges, while the other forms of gambling produced revenue for the Government amounting to 3,909,548 ticals—these two sums being equivalent to £490,000.

PLACES OF INTEREST IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD.

Bangkok to-day is undergoing a rapid process of transformation. In place of bamboo and thatched teak-wood houses, buildings of more substantial nature are continually springing up, and old landmarks are being removed. In conjunction with the spread of Western ideas, too, a good many of the old customs of the people, both civil and religious, are slowly but surely dying out. The Siames have a proverb, "He who has once tasted of the water of the Chao Phya Menam must perform return to drink of it again." Literally none but a hopeless lunatic would drink the unfiltered water of the Menam; but certain it is that most Europeans who have once dwelt for any length of time in Bangkok, and have left the town, are generally only too willing to return to it. It is hot in the early summer months and wet during the months following them, but has a really enjoyable climate in winter. A mean of temperature taken for ten years was 81° F., the mean range for that period being 23° F. per day. It is this daily range of temperature, coupled with the fact that during the greater portion of the year cool evening breezes come from the sea, which makes the place as healthy as it is. Serious epidemics are practically unknown.

Of late years the extension of the railway system has brought within easy reach of Bangkok a good many places of more than passing interest. Of these, the first in importance is undoubtedly the ancient capital, Ayuthia, situated some fifty miles up the Menam river. It is a quaint and straggling town, built on a group of islands, on one of which the ruins of the temples were destroyed by the Burmans in their raid in 1767. Recently much of the jungle with which these ruins were enveloped has been cleared away. Other places of interest easily reached by train are—Petchaburi, where there are fine limestone caves and a royal palace; Raiburi, an important garrison town, where there is also an ancient palace; and Prapatom, which possesses one of the finest temples in Siam. The summer palace at Bang-pa-in, the Mohn villages of Pakret and Pakkhi, and the irrigated district at Klong Rangsit are worthy of a visit, while archaeologists will find much to study in the gigantic ruins of the buildings of the ancient Khmers, at Phi Mai, near Korat.

FISHING BOATS, PAKNAM.

POPULATION.

No satisfactory official census has yet been taken in Bangkok, and it is difficult to estimate, even approximately, what the population may be. A rough guess would place the number of persons resident in the town at between 200,000 and 600,000, including about 1,000 Europeans and Americans. The Chinese population, by the returns of the poll tax in 1903, was 65,144, and the entire estimated Chinese population, allowing for old men, women, and children, who pay no tax, 85,000. In 1907 the number rose to 108,000, and has certainly risen 25 per cent. since that time. Competent judges who have considered the subject of the relative disposition between the sexes among the Siamese estimate that there are about 130 women to 100 men.

THE NATIONAL LIBRARY.

By O. Frankfurter, Ph.D.

In memory of King Mongkut his direct descendants founded, in 1882, the hundredth anniversary of the establishment of Bangkok as the capital of Siam, a library, which was called by the name the King held whilst in the priesthood, the Vajiravdhana. This library was not a State institution, although from its very beginning generous assistance was lent to it by the donation of books and by the provision of furniture, &c. In connection with it a magazine was issued, the Vajiravdhana Magazine, and in its columns information may be found regarding the early history, literature, and customs of Siam. The library was originally conceived as a general one; and as the libraries of King Mongkut and his brother Phra Vajiravdhana were incorporated with it, the collection of books in foreign literature, especially English, was for that time a valuable one. With regard to Siamese literature an endeavour was made to print all books published in Siam, and copies were added of some of the valuable and unique MSS. contained in the Royal Scribe Department. Members were admitted by election to the committee. They had to pay an annual subscription of twenty ticals, and the friendly
A YOUNG PRINCESS.

A JINRICKSHA.

THE DAUGHTER OF A SIAMESE NOBLEMAN.
intercourse thus established on neutral ground was one of the great benefits derived from that institution.

which would redound to his glory," he decreed, with the unanimous consent of the other members of the royal family

of 25,000 ticals being made by the Government towards its upkeep.

The administration of the library was vested in a council consisting of a president and four members. They are appointed by the king and hold office for a term of three years, one member retiring each year. The chief librarian and the librarians are also appointed by the king, whilst the necessary number of clerks and minor officials are appointed by the council. The first council consisted of His Royal Highness the Crown Prince, as President, T.R.H. Prince Damrong and Prince Damrong, Phya Prajakit, and Phya Boramuranuraks as members. This council was confirmed in office by his Majesty after the first year for a succeeding year.

It was quite apparent that the scope of the library had to be a restricted one, however desirable it might have been to form a general library in which all scientific branches were included. After mature consideration the committee decided, owing to the limited means at their disposal, to give their whole attention to the acquisition of the Thai literature, rightly thinking that printed books in foreign languages could be acquired at a future date, whilst any delay in the acquisition of Thai MSS. might prove fatal. According to the statutes three divisions were therefore formed—(1) the Buddhist Section, (2) the Thai Section, (3) the General Section. In the Buddhist Section were included the MSS. and books which had formerly formed the Ecclesiastical Library or had been kept in the Mandradharma Hall, built during the reign of Phra Buddha Yot Fa to contain the sacred books. It was also to contain books in all languages having reference to Buddhism in its various aspects. The Thai Section was to include the literature written in the different languages dialects spoken or used by the Thai people, whilst the Foreign Section was to contain books written in foreign languages other than those added to the preceding section.

The task which was thus incumbent on the council was admittedly an arduous one, but no one could foresee its scope. Nothing was practically known about Thai literature. Printing was only introduced into Siam in 1839, and came into general use only in the reign of King Mongkut. In the troubles that followed the destruction of Ayuthia many valuable MSS. had been lost; those which were found were with few exceptions carelessly copied; old and original MSS. did not seem available, and every scribe, it appeared, thought he was justified in altering and correcting MSS. In many cases simply the name of the author used, and his name remains unknown, whilst the dating of MSS. leaves much to be desired. Generally speaking, it is not the author but rather the work, as such, which is honoured.

However, as soon as it was shown that the committee were in real earnest, donations poured in and are still pouring in from all sides; from priest and layman, MSS. could be acquired at a small cost, and were placed in the library, and the time of scholars employed in the library is now fully taken up in cataloguing these treasures, for such they may be well described. It will necessarily take a long time before a catalogue raisoné of the MSS. can be issued, showing the literary activity of the Thai race, and at best it can only be considered a first attempt by which attention of scholars is directed to hitherto uncultivated fields.

The library has been able to collect and preserve for future generations MSS. which would otherwise have been destroyed. Illustrated MSS. have also been added; and whilst they all show Indian influence, they bear testimony to the artistic taste of Siam. Inscriptions and other valuable MSS. are collected, transcribed, and described, so as to be one

In 1889 the library, having grown considerably since its foundation, was transferred to the building in which it is now housed, and when, in 1904, the king was desirous of commemorating the hundredth anniversary of the birth of his august father, H.M. the King Chom Klao, "by an institution of public utility

as founders of the Vajrañāna Library, "that it should be established as the National Library."

The library was thus made accessible to all persons interested in researches the benefit of which can be derived from books," and was opened on November 14, 1905, an annual grant
day incorporated in a Corpus Inscriptionum. Photographs and seals are likewise collected in so far as they bear on history and customs. Lately also the archives of the Ministry for the Interior have been added, and Government reports issued by the different departments are collected and made accessible. In the collection of Buddhist MSS. the library has been also singularly lucky, and it has been able to add a great many MSS. to the large numbers it originally possessed. These MSS. came from all parts of the country, and they show that princes and commoners vied with each other in translating into the vernacular languages the sacred writings in Pali, in order to spread the Buddhist doctrine amongst the people.

Of course, the Foreign Section is still the weakest, even though the committee have already succeeded in adding to it some ancient books which throw light on Siamese history. Siam is a new country. References to Siam by ancient writers and travellers are very casual and few, and it is only through the intercourse which took place with European nations in the seventeenth century that we get an idea of how Siam presented itself to foreign observers. Since the destruction of Ayuthia in 1767 and the establishment of the capital in Bangkok, very few books have been published on Siam, and there are only occasional references to Siam in periodicals. These are, of course, as far as possible acquired. More attention was paid to Siam after the treaties with foreign Powers were made in 1855, and especially during the present reign more foreign publications treating on Siam have been issued. They will be acquired in time, even if an honest reviewer could only say about most of them that they are written without sufficient knowledge and with a certain bias and under preconceived ideas.

DR. O. FRANKFURTER.

The foundation of the Historical Research Society, under the presidency of his Majesty the king, has also given a new impetus to those engaged in research work. The chief aim of the council is and must for some years to come be, to collect in the library everything which has reference to and shows the literary activity of the Thai race, so that it may truly deserve the name of a "National" library.

Oscar Frankfurter, Ph.D., the chief librarian of the National Library, Bangkok, was born on February 23, 1852, and educated at the Universities of Göttingen and Berlin. He joined the Siamese Government Service in 1884 and was employed in various capacities prior to his appointment to his present office in 1902. He is the President of the Siam Society, and, in 1902, was the delegate of the Government at the British Medical Congress in Hamburg. Among Dr. Frankfurter’s publications are a handbook of Pali and a small volume dealing with the elements of Siamese grammar. He has also written a number of papers on Siamese law, &c., for various scientific and other journals, and is the author of the interesting article on Buddhism which appears in the Ecclesiastical Section of this volume.

THE MUSEUM.

The Museum in Bangkok was established for educational purposes in connection with the Ministry for Education in 1878. In it were shown, in the first instance, articles of foreign manufacture and objects of natural history. When in 1882 a national exhibition was held to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of Bangkok as the capital of Siam, the exhibits then made were collected in the museum, and thus the foundation of the National Museum was laid.

THE ROYAL MUSEUM.

1. Front View.  2. Siamese Instruments.  3. The White Elephant.
The British Club was started in 1903 by a number of residents in Bangkok, who combined to form a proprietary club. The constitution of the club was passed at a meeting of debenture-holders on April 24, 1903, and the club was opened on the following 6th of July. The first committee being: W. E. Adams, J. Stewart Black, J. W. Edie, Hon. R. A. Forbes, Sempill (hon. secretary), R. W. Giblin, W. A. Graham, T. Jones, H. G. Maud, and W. J. F. Williamson. The ownership of the club is vested in the debenture-holders, who alone are responsible for all club debts and liabilities. The membership consists of ordinary and honorary members. Ordinary members must be British residents in Siam, and are divided into those holding and those not holding debentures; honorary members comprise residents of Siam, other than British, who may be elected to the club. Candidates for admission are balloted for by the debenture-holders, but while ordinary members pay an entrance fee of 100 ticals (about £5 10s.) and a monthly subscription of 15 ticals (about £1 2s. 6d.), honorary members are only called upon to pay the monthly subscription.

The club is under the sole control of the debenture-holders, who annually elect a committee of nine from among their number to manage the affairs of the club. Ladies belonging to the families of members are entitled to the use of such rooms in the club as the committee may from time to time declare open to ladies.

The club premises are situated in a very central and convenient position; but they are now scarcely adequate to the requirements, and recently there have been several proposals for either extending the buildings or purchasing a piece of land in the vicinity and erecting a new club-house altogether. At the present time (August, 1908) the club has a membership of 90—65 ordinary and 5 honorary members. The committee consists of Messrs. W. R. D. Beckett, J. Stewart Black, A. C. Carter, E. W. Edie, R. W. Giblin, H. Gittins, Dr. Highet, H. Price, and W. J. F. Williamson, with S. Brighouse, hon. secretary.

The Deutscher Klub, which was founded, with an original membership of 40, some eighteen years ago. During the first years of its existence the Klub had a small rented house as its headquarters, for its present premises in Surinwongse Road were not erected until 1896. The building is surrounded by well-laid-out grounds, containing tennis-courts, &c., and the Klub has now 135 members, which means practically every German resident in Siam. Membership is not rigidly confined to Germans, but is open to all persons who have German sympathies and speak the German language fluently. H.R.H. Prince Nekansonwan, on his return to Siam after completing his military education in Germany, was elected a member of the Klub at his own request. Ladies are admitted to the Klub on all ordinary occasions.

The United Club, which was established upwards of twenty years ago, may perhaps be considered the most popular resort for foreign residents in Bangkok. It occupies large premises, surrounded by well-laid-out grounds, at the corner of New Road and Siphaya Road. The club is purely social in its character. The wives and daughters of members are admitted to certain privileges, including, for instance, the free use of the reading-room and library, and often dances and other social functions take place in the club buildings. The club contains very comfortable dining, reading, card, and billiard rooms, and possesses also a fine bowling-alley and several good tennis-courts, which are constantly in use. The affairs of the club, which in 1908 had a total membership of 225, are conducted by a paid secretary.
They have their own reading-room, and are entitled to make free use of the library, which is an excellent one, comprising German, English, and French books. The club is also provided with billiard-tables, a bowling-alley, and a gymnasium for the entertainment of the members. The management of the Klub is vested in a committee, elected annually. The office-holders for 1908 are—President, H.R.H. the Crown Prince; vice-president, Phra Bhumibol; treasurer, A. Osann; committee: E. Guergen, P. Hein, and M. Mansfeldt.

**THE DVI PANYA CLUB.**

The Dvi Panya Club, which name, translated literally, means "Increased Wisdom," was founded in April, 1904, by H.R.H. the Crown Prince of Siam, and owes its success to the liberality with which his Royal Highness has supported it. The membership is confined rigidly to princes, nobles, and leading members of the Siamese community.

The original members, who numbered 30, were all attached to the household of the Crown Prince; the membership roll now contains no less than 300 names. The club buildings are situated at Saranrom, in the midst of a fine and well-laid-out park, the whole of which property belongs to the Crown Prince. They contain billiard, reading and dining rooms, and a library, and are, indeed, equipped with every convenience and luxury calculated to add to the comfort of the club members.

The club issues a monthly magazine, of which H.R.H. the Crown Prince is the editor and Luang Abhiraks Rajaridhi the sub-editor. His Royal Highness carries out his duties under a nom de plume. A Debating Society has also been formed in connection with the club, and in these and various other ways the members engage in physical as well as mental exercises. The tennis-courts in the grounds are continually in use, and a sports meeting, which is always well attended and well patronised, is organised by the members of the club each year. The financial position of the club cannot be accurately gauged, for members are not pressed for their subscriptions or posed if they do not pay. It is a system which has many obvious advantages from the point of view of the private member, but it is one that could not be continued successfully for any length of time provided the club's banking account was not supplemented very frequently by the royal patron. The officers for 1908 are: President and Patron, H.R.H. the Crown Prince of Siam; vice-president, Prince Asdang; honorary treasurer, Phra Sanpakarn; and honorary secretaries, Luang Abhiraks Rajaridhi.

Attached to the club, and formerly part of it, is the small but pretty theatre used by the Saranrom A.C.C. This was previously maintained out of the club funds, but as the cost of its upkeep was found to be too heavy, it was separated from the club and is now maintained entirely by H.R.H. the Crown Prince, whose interest in amateur theatricals is well known.

**SOCIAL.**

**SIAMESE.**

H.E. Chow Phya Bhaskarawongse, who, after a long and highly successful official career, is now living quietly in retirement in a fine home on the west bank of the river, presented to him by his Majesty the king, was born at Chumphon and educated privately, both in England and on the Continent of Europe. Returning to Bangkok in 1867, he became private secretary to his late Majesty, and subsequently was for some time also private secretary to his Majesty King Chulalongkorn. In 1879 he was Minister for Siam at the Court of St. James, but returning to Bangkok the same year, he became the Superintendent of Title Deeds and afterwards the Superintendent of the Customs, several very considerable
reforms in the latter service being effected during the period of his administration. Among other high positions he has held have been those of Minister for Agriculture and Minister for Ecclesiastical Affairs and Public Instruction. His Excellency retired from official life, with a well-earned pension, in 1904.

H.E. Chow Phya Surasakdi Montri, the founder and concessionaire of the Siriracha Company, Ltd., is a member of one of the oldest Siamese families in the country, and during his long official career has held some of the highest positions in the State. Born in Bangkok in 1851, he was educated privately with a view to entering the army; and upon the completion of his studies he was drafted into the king's bodyguard, where he held the post of aide-de-camp to his Majesty. In this capacity he was sent on a special mission to England and represented the King of Siam at the marriage of Kaiser Wilhelm in Berlin. Returning to Siam with the rank of Major-General, he devoted himself to the re-organisation of the military forces and introduced many far-reaching and effective reforms. He was quickly promoted Lieutenant-General and subsequently became Commander-in-Chief of the army. He was the leader of the two expeditions, each occupying two years, which were despatched for the purpose of quelling the "Black Flag" rebellions on the Tonkin border, and he was not only successful in achieving the object of his mission, but at the same time, also, determined the limits of the French and Siamese territories. Returning to Bangkok, he was appointed Minister of Agriculture, but after carrying out the responsibilities of this office for several years, he resigned and was granted a pension by the Government in recognition of his long and valuable service. In 1901, however, he was again in request for frontier duty and was placed in charge of the force sent to quell the disturbances in the Shan States. Since his retirement from the Government, H.E. Chow Phya Surasakdi has turned his attention to commercial matters, and it is to his initiative and enterprise almost solely that the Siriracha Company owes its present important position. The formation of the company was the direct outcome of his Excellency's far-sighted and subsequent visit to Siriracha. Having a good knowledge of forestry, he was impressed with the size, quality, and quantity of the trees there; and having obtained a concession, immediately floated a company for the exploitation of the timber in the Siriracha district.

Phya Varabongsa Bihadana, Chamberlain of His Majesty's Household and Chief of the Pages, was born and educated in Bangkok. After completing his scholastic course he entered the Government service and was attached to the Privy Purses Department as Superintendent of Buildings and Houses, which office he retained until his transfer to the royal household. He accompanied His Majesty on his last tour in Europe and is the possessor of many foreign decorations.

Dr. Yai S. Sanitwongse's career furnishes a striking example of the success which a man may sometimes achieve in a totally different sphere to that which he was marked out, both by education and training, to occupy. Dr. Sanitwongse, who is a son of Prince Sai Sanitwongse, after completing his scholastic course in Bangkok, was entered as a student at Edinburgh University in order that he might qualify for the medical profession. He obtained the degree of A.B.C.M. in 1885, and, returning to his native town the same year, was appointed a medical officer in the Government service. Four years later he acted as secretary to a special mission despatched by the Siamese Government to Europe, and received many honours and decorations from the Governments of those countries he visited. Upon arriving in Bangkok again in 1900, he resigned his medical work, and assuming the directorship of the Siam Canals, Land, and Irrigation Company, Ltd., has devoted his energies to the work of irrigation almost exclusively since that date. The company was formed for the purpose of irrigating waste pieces of ground, and so making them suitable for cultivation, and with the object, also, of establishing intercommunication between the large rivers. The whole system of canals is now under the supervision of a special Government department, but a great deal of excellent work was carried out by the company while it was in existence, and the valuable services of Dr. Sanitwongse in creating many facilities for the transport of goods and passengers in various parts of the country are generally recognised.

Phra Sanpakarn Hiranakitch is the third son of Phra Phromaphibarn, and officer in the king's bodyguard, and an official well known and highly respected in Siam. After completing his education he entered the Government service, where he remained for about ten years, being for the greater part of the time under H.R.H. Prince Makra, the Minister of Finance. The establishment of the Siam Commercial Bank, however, and his appointment as its manager brought about his retirement from Government employment. He has
H.E. PHRA SANPAKARN HIRANJAKITCH.

1. THE LARGE VILLA.
2. THE SMALL VILLA.
3. THE RECEPTION ROOM.
since devoted the whole of his time to the conduct of this enterprise, and the success and stability of the bank form in themselves a high tribute to his organising ability and sound financial training. Phra Sanpakarn, who is an enthusiastic collector of antiques, has travelled extensively in the Federated Malay States and the East Indies, and his private residences, which are reputed to be the finest in Bangkok, outside the royal palaces, are fitted with most interesting mementoes of his journeys.

The park surrounding his two villas, which is at all times open to the public, also contains an excellent little theatre, replete with every convenience for the staging of a modern dramatic production. Phra Sanpakarn's second brother has been twice to Europe, and upon his recent tour he was accompanied by his youngest brother, who has also decided to enter the banking business, and is now receiving a thoroughly sound English education in London. Phra Sanpakarn is married to Khoon Sap, a daughter of a prominent Siamese official.

Phra Montri Potchanakit, the chairman of the Siam Commercial Bank, has had a very interesting career. After leaving school he studied medicine in the United States, graduating in New York in 1879. Returning to his birthplace, Bangkok, the same year, he joined the bodyguard of H.M. the King of Siam as assistant-surgeon. Afterwards he was appointed surgeon in the army, and while holding this position he accompanied two expeditions under Chow Phya Surasoe against the rebellious Haws, his services, under the trying circumstances of active warfare, being such as to bring about his promotion to the post of Surgeon-General of the Siamese Army. In 1892 he was elected an honorary member of the Association of Military Surgeons of the National Guard of the United States of America. Resigning the army, he carried out for six years the duties attaching to the civic post of Inspector-General of Hospitals in Bangkok; in 1898, however, he joined the Ministry of the Interior, receiving the official title by which he is now so well known, but after four years he was compelled to resign this position on account of sickness, and was placed on the pension list. Since his retirement Phra Montri Potchanakit has taken a great interest in commercial matters, and besides being the chairman of the Siam Commercial Bank, is also the owner of a large and well-equipped rice mill.

Luang Riddhisakdi, who recently resigned the Government service in favour of a commercial career, was born in Bangkok in 1880, and educated at the Normal School. He was successful in his examinations, and upon leaving school was appointed a teacher at King's College. He retained this position for two years, and was then transferred to the Government Civil College. Two years later, however, he abandoned the scholastic profession and joined the Government service. He was employed by the Ministry of the Interior in different parts of the country for some little time, and was subsequently made Assistant-Governor at Cholburi, a post he held for eighteen months. Altogether he remained in the Government employment for six years. He resigned in order to start business on his own account. He floated a private company with a capital of 80,000 ticats for the purpose of opening large factory of good quality in Bangkok. His enterprise has been entirely successful, and the returns of the business hope, in a very short time, to have as many as twenty depots in different parts of Bangkok.

Chamun Chong Kwa, Chamberlain to His Majesty the King of Siam, has had an interesting career. Born in Bangkok in 1871, he went to Edinburgh at the age of fourteen years. Having completed his education there, he returned to Siam in 1890, and the same year was appointed one of the bodyguard to His Majesty King Chulalongkorn. He held the appointment for three years, and for his services was given the title of Chamun Rajah Nubarn. In 1893 he visited Europe again, on this occasion accompanying H.R.H. Prince Yugalala to England. At the conclusion of the tour he received his present title. Chamun Chong Kwa married, in 1890, Lady Kraluon Chong Kwa, his cousin. Lady Chong Kwa was educated at Biarritz for five years, and in Paris for a further term of three years. She speaks both French and English fluently, and has literary and artistic gifts of no mean order.
COMMERCIAL.

SIAMESE.

"SIDDHIBHAND."

The premier Siamese store in Bangkok is the "Siddhibhand," which is situated within easy reach of the palace and Government offices at Feung Nakara Road, Charoen Krung Square. The company hold an appointment from H.R.H. the Crown Prince, and enjoy the patronage and support of many of the princes and nobles of Siam. Their chief business, perhaps, is that of house-furnishing, in which department of activity they are recognised specialists, some of the work which they have carried through rivalling, both in regard to style and tasteful arrangement, anything that might have been done by the large European houses. In addition to the furnishing department there is a general department, where the stock includes such diverse articles as saddlery, statuary, jewellery, and soft goods.

The Rattanilitch carriage works are carried on in conjunction with the "Siddhibhand." Here also a very high class trade is done; for this country, is rarely heard of in Europe. Preserved fruits, conserves, and delicacies find great favour with the larger portion of the Siamese public; but when, some ten years ago, the factory established on the west side of the Menam at Bangkok under the name of "Sandhabhojana, Ltd.," commenced the manufacture of these preserves, the great object of the promoters of the undertaking was to secure a large export trade in addition to the local patronage which was assured. In this they were successful. Their goods found a ready market in America, and were awarded a gold medal at the St. Louis Exhibition. In 1908 the company began to extend their operations, and opened two shops in Charoen Krung. These premises include an up-to-date restaurant, bar, lounge, and store, and are largely patronised by the Siamese nobility for whom the company especially cater. Their enterprise had developed in other directions also, for an outfit department for ladies has recently been opened, as well as a branch devoted to dispensing of Siamese and European medicines.

The company is a Siamese one entirely, and owes its success to the efforts of Chow Phya Bhaskharavongse, Lady Bhaskharavongse, and Nai Thouay and his brother. Lady Bhaskharavongse is an expert in Siamese embroidery, and as superintendent of this branch of the enterprise has earned a world-wide reputation.

KEE CHIANG & SONS.

The business of Kee Chiang & Sons, which was established in quite a small way some sixteen years ago, has now grown into one of the largest enterprises of its kind in Bangkok. This success has been due to good organisation and largely to the good management of the business on the part of its founder, Mr. F. X. Yew Nguang and his son, Mr. Joseph Kuang Ngaung. As the trade grew branches were opened first in the Talatnol quarter, and afterwards in the city proper; for as the firm hold an appointment from H.R.H., the Crown Prince, and are continually receiving royal support and patronage, it was considered essential that, for the convenience of their royal customers, they should have premises as near as possible to the King's palace and the Government offices.

Mr. Joseph Kuang Ngaung was born and educated in Bangkok. He showed a special aptitude for languages, and was soon able to speak English, French, and Chinese quite fluently. After leaving school, in order to complete his education and for the purpose of studying business methods in different countries, he paid visits to all the chief commercial towns of Europe and the East. Mr. Kuang Ngaung is a believer in the Christian religion, and during his tour was received in audience by Pope Pius X., the Archbishop of Westminster, and

SANDHABHOJANA, LIMITED.

Nai Thouay (Partner).
"SIDDHIBHAND."

1. The Store.  
2. The Stores Department.  
3. The Jewellery Department.  
(See p. 257.)
1. THE HEAD OFFICE.
2. THE CITY BRANCH.
3. THE CHAROEN KRUNG BRANCH.
4. AN INTERIOR VIEW.
5. JOSEPH KUANG NGOANG.
6. F. X. YEW NGOANG (father).

(See p. 257.)
the Archbishop of Paris. In addition to his business responsibilities he now carries out the honourable duties attaching to the office of page to H.R.H. the Crown Prince of Siam. Mr. Kuang Nguang is married to Lim Sew Hong, the daughter of a prominent Bangkok merchant.

Sri Ratanart Chamun Rajaphan Tharraks Phra Siriaysawan, was born in Bangkok and educated at King's College for a period of five years. On leaving school he joined the Education Department, and afterwards the Government Printing Office, being subsequently appointed to the staff of the royal household. Following upon this came his promotion to the Ministry of Finance, and he remained in the Treasury till the year 1891, and received the added title of Phra Siriaysawan in recognition of his services. He built and started the Aksorani Printing Office with his own capital, investing a sum of 300,000 ticals in the undertaking. He has opened a school, attached to the office, for the teaching of those arts, such as writing, engraving, modelling, etc., a knowledge of which is calculated to raise the standard of his workmen, and with the help of his students he has invented several new processes in the printing trade, and has introduced a new type-founding machine.

THE AKSORANIT PRINTING OFFICE.

The Aksorani Printing Office stands as a testimony to the steady perseverance and enterprise of Phra Siriaysawan. Phra Siriaysawan, or to give him his full titles, Phun Khun

THE AKSORANIT PRINTING OFFICE.

Appointed to the staff of the royal household. Following upon this came his promotion to the Ministry of Finance, and he remained in the Treasury till the year 1891, and received the added title of Phra Siriaysawan in recognition of his services. He built and started the Aksorani Printing Office with his own capital, investing a sum of 300,000 ticals in the undertaking. He has opened a school, attached to the office, for the teaching of those arts, such as writing, engraving, modelling, etc., a knowledge of which is calculated to raise the standard of his workmen, and with the help of his students he has invented several new processes in the printing trade, and has introduced a new type-founding machine.

THE BAMRONG NUKUL KITCH

A considerable proportion of the Government printing is done at this office, which is one of the largest of its kind in Bangkok. The establishment contains ten machines—all of which are driven by oil-engines—and these are practically always engaged on official work of various descriptions. The business was founded in 1895 by its present proprietor, Luang Damrong Thamasar.

Luang Damrong Thamasar was born in Bangkok in 1853. His education included a study of Siamese Law, and after seven years spent as an accountant, he was appointed Judge in the Criminal Court, and subsequently occupied a similar position in the Civil Court. He resigned this legal work in order to start in business as a printer. His success has been considerable, and having always retained a belief in the inestimable value of a good education, he recently opened and still continues to support, a school for girls in Bangkok. Here the children of poor parents may receive a sound education in both English and Siamese free of all cost, while those whom it is considered are in a position to pay for their instruction are charged a small fee of two ticals a month. At the present time fully fifty pupils attend the school and the teaching staff consists of three well-qualified mistresses. Luang Damrong Thamasar's son, Nai Thuan, who was formerly a student at King's College, from which he gained a Government scholarship to Oundle's School, Northampton, has recently proceeded to Oxford to study law.

THE VIRATCHAN-THORN DISPENSARY.

This dispensary was established in 1901 by Khun Virat, who has had altogether over twenty years' medical experience in the Siriraj Medical College and under Dr. Cowen. He holds a special appointment to H.R.H. the Crown Prince, and was in the King's suite when his Majesty went upon his recent tour in Europe. Attached to the dispensary is a tailoring department, in the conduct of which business Khun Virat has the direct patronage of their Majesties the King and Queen of Siam.
LUANG SUWANAKIT CHAMNARN.

1. The Premises.
2. The Sale Room.
3. The Workshop.
4. Luang Suwanakit Chamnarn.
LUANG DAMRONG THAMASAR.

2. The Shop in Bamrong Muang Road.
3. An Interior View of the Printing Office.
4. The Staff and Pupils of the Darunni Vithaya School (founded by Luang Damrong Thamasar).
5. Luang Damrong Thamasar (Proprietor).

(See p. 260.)
PHAN SUWANAKITCH.

Considering the short time it has been established, the jeweller's business now carried on by Phan Suwanakitch in Charoen Krung Road has made remarkable progress. Eight years ago, when Phan Suwanakitch first started trading as a gold and silversmith in Bangkok, he used a room in his own house as his head-quarters, and this accommodation proved ample for his purpose. The high standard of the work done by his few assistants, however, soon attracted general attention, and the result was a continually increasing stream of customers. Since he has removed to a more convenient locality for business purposes the large number of orders entrusted to him necessitates the constant employment of over forty workpeople.

EUROPEAN.

SIAM IMPORT COMPANY.

This company was established in the year 1906 as general import merchants, and is under the management of Mr. H. V. Bailey. Amongst other things, the company hold the agency for the well-known Kelvin safes, Ailsa Craig motors, and St. Marceaux champagne, and are largely interested in all classes of engineering business.

Mr. H. V. Bailey, who is a fully qualified engineer, came to Bangkok in the early part of 1906 to join the staff of the Bangkok Dock Company, Ltd., but shortly afterwards secured the appointment of Engineer-in-Chief to the Royal Mint Department and superintended the entire construction of the new mint. On the expiration of his agreement with the Government, he started business on his own account as consulting and superintending engineer, and at the same time promoted the above-named firm. In addition to being managing partner of the Siam Import Company, however, Mr. H. V. Bailey is the sole proprietor of Kerr & Co., one of the oldest established businesses in Bangkok.

Carr & Co. represent Messrs. John Dewar & Sons, Ltd., whose whisky has gained such a world-wide reputation, and also act as the agents for the Yorkshire Fire Insurance Company, Ltd., and the National Assurance Company of Ireland.

E. G. MONOD ET FILS.

The senior partner in this firm first came to Bangkok in 1897 as manager to the Banque de l'Indo-Chine. Two years later, however, he resigned this post and opened business as a general merchant and commission agent. Mr. Monod took his son into partnership in 1906.

The firm now do a considerable trade in Manchester and other goods, and the introduction of French goods into Siam is largely due to their enterprise. They represent in this country the Societe Generale d'Industrie Laitiere, of Yverdon, Switzerland, manufacturers of a new brand of natural sterilised liquid milk, which is rapidly commanding an extensive sale, and hold a number of other important agencies.

Mr. E. C. Monod, who is a "Conseiller du Commerce Extérieur de la France," is the doyen of the French colony in Siam. Prior to his coming to Bangkok he was for seventeen years in Bombay in the Comptoir National d'Escompte.

THE STANDARD OIL COMPANY OF NEW YORK.

It is practically impossible to visit any commercial centre in the East without finding either a branch or an agency of the Standard Oil Company of New York. Bangkok does not furnish an exception to the general rule. The growth in the oil trade during the last few years has been considerable, and although godowns have sufficed the needs of the company until the present date, tanks for the storage of oil in bulk have now become essential, and these are at the present time being rapidly constructed.

The branch of the Standard Oil Company was established in Bangkok in 1904 by Mr. Charles Roberts, the present manager, and under his able supervision their business with the interior is being rapidly developed.

THE BARMEN EXPORT-GESELLSCHAFT m.b.H.

The Barmen Export Company, whose operations extend over a considerable portion of Central and South America and the Far East, deal largely with Barmen hardware, which, on account of its many high qualities, has secured a reputation that is world-wide. The head offices of the company are at Barmen, Germany. The Siam branch is under the charge of Mr. Walter Koch, who came to Bangkok from Sumatra in 1906. The Siam office, besides importing the hardware, does a considerable trade also in general goods.

BRITISH AMERICAN TOBACCO COMPANY, LTD.

Prior to the year 1903 the interests of the British American Tobacco Company, Ltd., were left in the hands of a representative occupying a seat in the agent's office. But so rapidly was their business increasing, that it was found necessary to establish a separate branch in that year; and the extent of their progress may be gauged by the fact that three Europeans are now fully employed, in addition to a fairly large native staff. Mr. Reginald Page is in charge of the branch.

FALCK & BEIDIK.

It is no exaggeration to say that practically everything which a resident in Bangkok needs, with the exception, perhaps, of piece goods, may be purchased from Messrs. Falcik and Beidik, a firm of importers and wholesale and retail merchants who have been firmly established in Siam now for some thirty years. The business was founded in 1875 by Messrs. Falck, Bramann, and Beidik, and
BUSINESS MEN OF BANGKOK.

BUSINESS MEN OF BANGKOK.

has, since its inception, been known by the
Haug name of "Haug Sing Toh." Some idea
of the extent of the trade carried on by
the firm and the resources at their command may
be gathered from the size of their new
premises, which are situated on an extensive
piece of ground just off the New Road, and
adjoining their old site, which will shortly be
occupied by the Chartered Bank's building
now in course of erection. Their premises
form, undoubtedly, the finest business house in
Bangkok. The whole of the material used in
their construction was imported from abroad,
even to the very bricks. They are absolutely fire-
proof, and are so arranged that every facility
is given for the effective display of the goods.
The building is three storeys high on each side
and two storeys high in the centre, so that,
including the godowns, the amount of floor
space at disposal altogether is something like
35,000 feet. The house, both in regard to its
size and the wide range of selection provided
by the amount of stock, compares favourably
with any of the leading stores in either Singa-
apore or Hong Kong. Hardware, stationery, furni-
ture, safes, machinery, pumps, machine fittings,
china, glass, crockery, trunks, travellers' re-
quaints, fancy goods, typewriters, duplicators,
bicycles, clocks, and many other articles, all
come within the scope of the enterprise.
These goods are imported direct from the
leading houses in Europe and America, and
the name and standing of the firm are suffi-
ciently high, in themselves, to guarantee their
quality.
Mr. Ch. Kramer, who has been a partner
of the firm since 1896, has been connected
with the business for the last twenty years.
New premises were built under his supervision,
and according to instructions founded on his
long observation of the requirements of the
trade in Bangkok.

THE STRAITS-SIAM MERCANTILE
COMPANY.

The Straits-Siam Mercantile Company has its
head office in Singapore. The branch office in
Bangkok is under the care of Mr. P. Sempere,
Curios, silks, teak, and rice form the bulk of
the firm's exports, but they do a considerable
trade also in general goods.

LOUIS T. LEONOWENS, LTD.

The business of Louis T. Leonowens, Ltd.,
owes its present position of importance entirely
and Continental woven and fancy goods, which
have a ready sale among the general public.
They are also agents for some of the principal
Continental fire and marine insurance com-
panies.
The manager for the company in Siam is
Mr. Fritz Lentzholder. He had served previously
in the company's offices at both Saigon and
Singapore, but came to Bangkok as soon as the
branch here was opened. He has under him
three European assistants and a large staff of
natives.

B. GRIMM & CO.

It is the proud boast of Messrs. Grimm & Co.
that as general importers, outfitters, and
merchants they have the most varied stock
in Bangkok. Their business was established
in May, 1877, and now they are suppliers to the
B. GRIMM & CO.
OFFICES AND GODOWNS OF MESSRS. DIETHELM & CO., LTD.

(See p. 267.)
Royal Palace, and have branches all over the town. There can be no question, therefore, as to the progress they have made. The senior partner in the firm is Mr. F. Lotz, and with him is associated Mr. P. Bopp, who has charge of the head office at Pak Klong Tabat. There is a special iron department, and a special outfitting department at headquarters, and a market department where Bangkok business men and residents generally may order direct from European houses from samples displayed. In addition to the ordinary interests of such a house, the firm have also a large dispensary connected with their head office. At the Pratu Samyot store the company make a specialty of ironware. Their staff comprises eleven European and many Siamese, Chinese, and Indian assistants.

THE BANGKOK MANUFACTURING COMPANY, LTD.

The remarkable progress the Bangkok Manufacturing Company have made from the date of their establishment in 1901 shows how urgently such a commercial enterprise was needed. The important bearing a good water supply has upon the general health of a community is everywhere recognised; Bangkok can boast of nothing of the sort, and the formation of this company, whose principal objects are the manufacture of both ice and aerated water, was consequently welcomed as a boon by all foreign residents. Starting at first with a 6-ton ice plant, the business has steadily increased until at the present time the plant consists of one 26-ton and two 6-ton ice machines, together with machinery capable of turning out 2,000 dozen bottles of aerated water a day. The ice plant, which undoubtedly is one of the finest and most complete in the East, is constructed on the ammonia principle, all the machines being supplied by the Frick Company, U.S.A. The aerated water plant by Bradly and Hinchcliffe, Manchester, is of the latest design, and is fitted with all modern improvements. A constant supply of exceptionally pure and moderately hard water, so essential to the successful conduct of their undertaking, is obtained from an artesian well, some 700 feet deep, which the firm sunk on their own premises. This water, which is pumped direct from the well through no less than three large filters and finally passes through a large Berkenfeldt germ-proof filter, is used exclusively by the company for their ice and aerated waters, and as it has been repeatedly analysed by and has received the highest encomiums from the Siamese Government and Singapore Government analysts, the safety and high quality of the products are guaranteed. All the waterpipes used in the factory are of pure tin, so that contamination, it would seem, is absolutely prevented. But these are by no means the only precautions taken to guard against the possible introduction of any form of impurity, for the greatest and most scrupulous care is exercised in every detail of manufacture from first to last. The filters and pipes are regularly sterilised, and when the empty bottles are received from the consumers and the rubber rings have been removed, they also are sterilised, soaked, brushed inside and out by machinery, and finally rinsed by a powerful jet of filtered well water, for in none of the processes is anything but well water used.

Artesian well water is supplied to steamers, and is delivered in special tank wagons to the houses of residents, with whom, naturally, it is in great demand. Ice, too, is delivered twice daily to customers' houses, a convenience which is certainly not enjoyed in many eastern towns. During 1901 the company erected a public drinking fountain in front of their headquarters. This they keep supplied with feed artesian well water, and here on a hot summer day it is estimated that upwards of 4,000 people will stop and slake their thirst. But while the manufacture of ice and aerated waters constitutes undoubtedly the chief part of the firm's business, their enterprise, as should be pointed out even in so brief a sketch of their activities as this, does not stop at this point altogether. They have excellent cold storage accommodation, and import Australian meat, fresh butter, &c., which articles, as most Bangkok residents will agree, lend a quite agreeable variety to an otherwise limited menu.

MESSRS. HARRY A. BADMAN & CO.

For a quarter of a century and over Messrs. Harry A. Badman & Co. have held a leading position amongst the large retail stores in Siam, the rapid development of their business and the continual patronage and repeated marks of royal favour which they receive testifying to their popularity. The house was established by Mr. Badman on January 1, 1884, close to the Royal Barracks, and became known as No. 1, Bangkok, a name it retains to the present day.

With the growth of the city and the large demand for every kind of naval and military requirements the trade accruing to the firm increased from year to year, until recently the proprietors found it necessary to move into more spacious premises specially erected for them in the vicinity of the King's palace and close to the Government offices. The building,

GENERAL VIEW OF THE PREMISES OF THE BANGKOK MANUFACTURING COMPANY, LTD.
THE PREMISES OF J. R. ANDRÉ.

which is an unusually handsome one, was opened by his Majesty on December 9, 1907, and special appointments have been granted to the firm by their Majesties the King and Queen and the Crown Prince, who take a great interest in the business.

The store is splendidly appointed and the goods in the various departments are displayed in most attractive fashion. The firm do not confine themselves to any particular branch of trade, but conduct a business on the line of the departmental stores. They have their specialties, however, and as naval, military and civil tailors and outfitters have a reputation which is unequalled in Siam. They are direct importers from Europe and America, and have their own buying house in London, at 45, Finsbury Pavement.

In 1892 Mr. Badman retired from the business in Siam, and established himself as the firm’s buying agent in London, Mr. Hooker being admitted to partnership. Mr. C. S. George then joined the firm, and in 1897 became a partner. Ten successful years followed, and in 1907 Mr. George retired, leaving Mr. Hooker sole proprietor. Mr. A. C. Warwick, who had been for upwards of ten years manager of the Army and Navy Co-operative Society, Bombay, became associated with the enterprise on Mr. George’s retirement; and in March, 1908, when Mr. Hooker, who had been for twenty-five years resident in Siam, also retired, he took over the business in partnership with Messrs. J. P. Gandy and L. T. Gandy, both of whom had been with the firm for many years.

J. R. ANDRÉ.

Mr. J. R. André, who first came to Bangkok in 1907, started business in 1904 as a general importer and Government contractor. One of his chief agencies is that of J. Friedmann’s, Nachholder, Court jewellers, of Frankfort-on-Main, and in this department of his business Mr. André has the patronage and support of H.M. the King.

JOHN SAMPSON & SON.

It is somewhat surprising to an English visitor to find a branch of Messrs. Sampson & Son’s well-known Bond Street establishment in Bangkok. It was founded, however, at the direct request of his Majesty King Chulalongkorn, who, when in England, dealt very largely at the firm’s headquarters. Acting upon his Majesty’s advice, Mr. F. Sampson, the son of the proprietor of the London house, came to Bangkok nine years ago, and having secured large premises in the city, started business. The firm have never had reason to regret their enterprise. They have always retained the support and patronage of his Majesty the King and his Royal Highness the Crown Prince of Siam. They are the Court tailors, ladies’ and gentlemen’s outfitters, hatters, &c. They make a specialty of saddlery and harness-making, and have always a large stock of the best quality of English goods. Ties are indeed a typical high-class English trade. They are sole agents for Messrs. Maple & Co., London, and have furnished several of the royal palaces.

Mr. F. Sampson is the sole proprietor of the Bangkok business, which is now conducted quite separately from the London house. Their London connection, however, brings many advantages and gives the Bangkok branch every facility for securing a well-selected and up-to-date stock.

SOCIETA ITALO-SIAMESE.

This company, which is a private one, consisting of four partners, Messrs. T. Pozzi, E. Fournot, A. Marangoni, and M. Marangoni, was established in 1890 to carry on a general import, export, and Government contracting business. The partners now do a large import trade in sundries and make considerable shipments of buffalo and cow hides and horns to Europe and rice to South America. They are agents for G. Borsalino’s hats; Wilkinson, Heywood, and Clark’s paints; Thomas Hubbock & Co.’s oils; A. Binda & Co.’s paper (Milan); and last, but not least, the well-known makes of motor-cars, such as the Fiat, Brixia, Zisst, and Dall’Allo A. Clement. Their recent contracts have included the supply of clothing, caps, and blankets to the Siamese army.

Mr. T. Pozzi has been personally in charge of the firm’s interests in Bangkok since 1901.

SOCIETE ANONYME BELGE.

This company was established in July, 1907, by Dr. A. de Keyser, for the express purpose of placing Belgian goods on the Siamese market on such terms as to ensure for them the favourable patronage now enjoyed by the manufactures of other countries. The firm deal in all classes of fancy goods, jewellery, and general goods, and possess in addition several important agencies to which they devote special attention.

Dr. de Keyser, before commencing his commercial career, won a deservedly high reputation among the members of the medical profession in Siam. He was one of the first men to discover the existence of plague in Siam, and subsequently, the successful perfor-
F. GRAHLERT & CO.

Front View of Premises and Specimens of Silverwork manufactured by the Firm.
The dispensary was established some twenty years ago by the late Dr. Gowin, Physician to the Majesty the King, and subsequently passed into the hands of Dr. T. Hayward Hays, the chief medical officer to the Royal Siamese Navy and the medical officer of the Government Railway Department. Shortly after Dr. Hays became the proprietor of the undertaking, a branch, which is still carrying on a flourishing trade, was established in Bangkok city proper. In 1906 Dr. Hays disposed of his interests in the firm to Mr. McBeth, who had been associated with him in the business since 1898. Mr. McBeth is assisted now by Mr. Davies, a qualified chemist, who has had many years' English and Continental experience.

**TAPAN LEK DISPENSARY.**

Dr. G. Bossioni, the proprietor of the Tapan Lek Dispensary, was born in the province of Brescia, Italy, in 1881, and educated at the Universities of Florence and Parma, obtaining in 1904 his diploma at the School of Pharmacy, and in July, 1905, his degree of Doctor of Chemistry (Dottore in Chimica). He practised in the Government Hospital at Florence for a year, and then came to Bangkok, Dr. Bossioni has made a special study of alkaloidal substances, such as morphine, codeine, &c., and now holds the appointment of Analytical Chemist to the Customs House. In 1906 Dr. Bossioni married Edalina Angelucci, a lady also devoted to the study of medicine, who secured her degrees in medicine and surgery at Florence in January, 1905, and has now been appointed to a position in the Local Sanitary Department, Bangkok.

**THE BANGKOK DISPENSARY.**

There are a vast number of dispensaries in Bangkok, but they are by no means all of the same relatively high standing, and by far the greater part of the dispensing business is carried on by a few leading houses. Among these the Bangkok Dispensary must be included.

The firm occupied a foremost place as apothecaries, but while this branch of their business is un...

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**THE BRITISH DISPENSARY.**

The British Dispensary, situated in the New Road, right in the heart of the European quarter of the city, cannot fail to attract the notice of the visitor to Bangkok. It is an up-to-date establishment with a large and varied stock of such goods as are naturally to be found in the shops of high-class chemists and druggists, while, in addition, there is a well-arranged department devoted specially to the sale of cameras and photographic supplies. It will be interesting to amateur photographers to know that in connection with this department-also there is a dark-room which is always at their disposal free of charge. The business carried on by the firm is an extensive one, and reaches far beyond the confines of the city. Besides its large European connection the house does a considerable trade with the natives, among whom it has a very high reputation, and furnishes a good proportion of the drugs, medicines, and other commodities of a like nature to the planters and residents in the interior of Siam. Among the agencies it holds are those for Mellin's Food, Scott's Emulsion, Perry Davis's Painkiller, and Chamberlain's remedies. It is also the appointed depot for Burroughs Welcome & Co.'s line products.

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**VACUUM OIL COMPANY.**

The trade of the Vacuum Oil Company in Siam has been built up in the last few years by Mr. E. H. V. Mayne, who came to Bangkok in 1898, and established himself as the agent of a firm of British houses and of the Vacuum Oil Company. By their special request the Vacuum Oil Company's agency was turned into a branch office, and from the year 1902 Mr. Mayne has devoted himself entirely to their interests. The company possess a large godown, where the stock is never allowed to fall below 800 barrels of all oils, their various brands, especially the lubricants, commanding constant sales.

Prior to coming East, Mr. Mayne was engaged in the scholastic profession in England.

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**L. TH. UNVERZAGT.**

Mr. Unverzagt's acquaintance with Siam dates from the latter end of the year 1902, when he came to Bangkok and joined the well-known shipping and mercantile house of Messrs. Markwald & Co. He remained with them for two and a half years, and then started business on his own account as an importer, exporter, and commission agent. He exports chiefly rice and old metal, and imports general goods of all descriptions. His offices are situated in Klong Kat Mai.

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**F. GRAHLERT & CO.**

Mr. F. Grahlt came to Bangkok some eighteen years ago as jeweller to His Majesty the King. A few years later he started business on his own account, his shop, which is in close proximity to the royal palaces, being the first of its kind opened in the city. He still enjoys the patronage of His Majesty the King; for the firm are jewelers to the Court by special appointment, and are constantly being entrusted with the execution of important commissions by His Majesties the King and Queen of Siam and his Highness the Crown Prince. The company employ upwards of fifty native craftsmen, who are highly skilled in the art of fashioning gold and silver into articles of most artistic and delicate design, and their work very justly and naturally is held in the highest favour. The firm's premises would well repay an inspection; their stock is a large and varied one, and is effectively and tastefully displayed. Whether the articles are of Oriental or European design, their quality can be guaranteed.
THE SEEKAK DISPENSARY.

1. The Dispensary.
2. Dr. H. Adames.
3. Thresher used by Dr. Adames on his Farm.
4. Disc Harrow and Plough used on Dr. Adames' Farm.
5. At Work on Dr. Adames' Farm.

(See p. 278.)
THE BRITISH DISPENSARY.

1. The New Road Premises.
2 & 3. Interior Views.
   (See p. 275).
4. The City Branch.
with the highest European standard. The firm enjoy the direct patronage of their Majesties the King and Queen of Siam. They are royal photographers by special appointment, and practically all the princes and nobles of Siam are numbered among their clients. Their collection of photographs of Bangkok and the interior of Siam is perhaps unequalled. Many of the illustrative pictures in this volume were obtained from their negatives, while all the personal photographs reproduced were taken in their studio by their representatives.

M. T. S. MERICAN.

Mr. M. T. S. Merican, who comes from India, has by perseverance and keen business methods worked up quite a large trade in Bangkok. For many years he travelled in the East Indies and India, buying and selling precious stones. Some few years ago he migrated to Singapore to carry on and personally supervise a business which previously had been left to an agent, and as this increased he enlarged his field, with the result that he opened his shop in Rachawongse Road, Bangkok. Although the trade in rough and polished stones was large enough to command the whole of his time and attention, Mr. Merican found such a good market in Bangkok for piece goods that he soon began to devote his chief energies to the sale of such articles. He makes a specialty of Indian and other silks, but deals very considerately too in English flannels, velvets, serges, and cottons.

Mr. Merican also exports tea and rice. He possess no mills, but buys for foreign importers.

SEEKAK DISPENSARY.

Dr. H. Adamsen, the proprietor of the Seekak Dispensary, can look back with pride upon his record in the medical world of Siam, the land of his birth. He left home at the age of twelve and joined the Marine Service, returning to Siam at the age of eighteen, in time to leave for America with Mr. J. H. Chandler, a missionary from Bangkok, to whom Dr. Adamsen is indebted for much help in the early stages of his medical career. He received a preparatory education at the Suffield Institution, Conn., U.S.A.; his collegiate course was passed at Bucknell University, Louisburg, Penn., and his medical course at Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia, where he graduated in 1888, returning again three years later, when called, his first arrival in Bangkok he started a private practice, and at the same time opened the Seekak Dispensary. On the outbreak of plague in 1894, when plague was declared against Hongkong, Dr. Adamsen was appointed Quarantine Officer, being the first occupant of such a post in Siam. He held the office for four years, and built the Quarantine Station, which was originally at Koh Pae but has since been removed to Phra Prang. While experiments were being carried on, and after the production of lymph, the Government medical officers within two years vaccinated, free of charge, something like 350,000 people, while upwards of 7,000 cattle were inoculated against rinderpest. Dr. Adamsen became the medical missionary of the Baptist Union in 1896, and subsequently was appointed Resident Hospitals of the Kingdom and Health Officer of the Interior, the Government furnishing 25,000 bails a year for the purpose of distributing medicines among the residents in the various towns and villages. The people of the most northerly tribes, who were up till that time quite unacquainted with European medicine, received quinine and other drugs and derived considerable benefit from the experienced medical treatment provided. The Seekak Dispensary was the fourth district established in the Kingdom and the first within the city wall. In this department of his business Dr. Adamsen is now assisted by Dr. W. B. Toy, While in America Dr. Adamsen was in the habit of spending his vacations in the country, and became familiar with farming in all its branches. Always retaining in mind the possibility of introducing farming machinery into Siam, he purchased, in 1904, a farm of 450 acres in the Klong Rangsit district, and with imported American and British machinery—comprising threshing and reaping machines, disc ploughs and harvesters—he succeeded, in the end, to proving to the natives that machinery can be used as successfully in Siam as elsewhere. Dr. Adamsen's grain was the first reaped by machinery in Siam. Since, however, he has achieved success, companies and syndicates have been formed to cultivate large areas of land in similar manner.

THE ORIENTAL HOTEL.

The leading hotel in Bangkok and the one at which visitors invariably stay is the "Oriental." Here, on the ground floor, in the centre of the city, on the east bank of the Menam, possesses good accommodation, and is comfortably furnished throughout. It is unquestionably the largest and best hotel in Siam, and contains forty bedrooms, several private suites, a large dining-room, and a concert-hall capable of holding four hundred persons. Many of the European papers and periodicals are to be found in the lounge at the entrance to the hotel, while opening out from the dining-room is a spectacle commanding an excellent view of the river.

The hotel has been established for over a quarter of a century, but has been under the charge of its present proprietors for two years only.

MITSUI BUNSSAN KAISHA.

The numerous departments of the house of Mitsui cover practically every phase of commercial and industrial enterprise. Their head-quarters are in Tokyo, but their branches and agencies are found in every large centre in the East, while their name is known throughout the world. The Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, which forms one section of this vast organisation, opened a branch in Bangkok in 1905, and during the last three years has built up a considerable business, comprising importing and exporting, Government contract work, and agencies of various kinds.

Mr. Danso, the manager of the branch, originally intended to follow the legal profession and studied English law at the Imperial University, Tokyo. After graduating, however, he decided upon a commercial career, and, in 1899, joined the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha. He served them in various capacities in Tokyo, Yokohama, and the Straits Settlements until 1905, when he was entrusted with the responsibility of opening the Bangkok office, and has been in charge of the firm’s interests in Siam since that date.

W. KRUSE.

Mr. W. Kruse is the eldest son of the late Captain August Ludwig Bernard Kruse, a native of Lassan in Pomerania, Germany, who was formerly a pilot at the Port of Bangkok. He was born in Bangkok 1874, and after completing his education he joined the service of the Siamese Government, being attached at one time or another to many of the administrative departments. He was for a long while engaged in the interests of a private company in forest work up-country, and during this period obtained a good knowledge of all the details of the teak trade. In July, 1908, he opened offices in Charoen Krung Road and started business on his own account as an auditeur, contractor, land and concession agent, and valuer.

Mr. Carl Kruse, a brother to Mr. W. Kruse, who was educated with him at the Assumption
THE ORIENTAL HOTEL.

1. Front View of the Hotel.
2. The Dining Room.
3. The Lounge.
C. PAPPAYANOPULOS, MANUFACTURER OF EGYPTIAN CIGARETTES.

1. Cigarette-making by hand.  
2. Cigarette-making by machinery.  
3. Sorting the leaf.  
4. The factory and store.  
5. G. PAPPAYANOPULOS.
College, Bangkok, holds the position of an accountant of the first grade in the Revenue Station of the Royal Forest Department at Paknampo.

C. PAPPAYANOPULOS.

Egyptian cigarettes find their way into every corner of the earth, and are greatly in evidence in Bangkok, where Mr. C. Pappayanopulos employs a large staff for manufacturing them at his factory in the New Road. The imported leaf is carefully sorted by a number of Siamese women, and the cigarettes are given to the public in the form of the "Royal" and other special brands. Mr. C. Pappayanopulos, who is, by royal appointment, tobacconist to His Majesty the King and to his Royal Highness the Crown Prince, makes his cigarettes from the best tobaccos only. He caters for the local clubs and retail stores, and the high quality of his products is recognised on all sides. A special and somewhat unique department of the factory is that devoted to the manufacture of Siamese cigarettes, which are turned out in immense numbers by machinery. All the better class cigarettes, however, are handmade, no less than forty-two people being employed for this purpose.

Mr. Pappayanopulos hails from Greece, and has had considerable experience in the tobacco trade in Africa and Europe.

CHINESE.

CHEE TSZE TING.

The construction of railways in the interior of Siam has been a difficult and often dangerous undertaking, requiring considerable enterprise and perseverance, coupled with no small amount of engineering skill, to bring it to a successful conclusion. The work is, of course, done by contract, and the man who has perhaps carried through more of such contracts than any other is Mr. Chee Tsze Ting, or, to use his more familiar name, Mr. See Fa Soon. He has been living in Siam for over twenty years, and for upwards of seventeen he has been engaged in railway construction. He built the line from Korat to Petchaburi, and the Lakorn, Lampong, and Chiengmai line, besides a railway in the Kohpong district, some 545 kilometres from Bangkok, while the contracts upon which he is engaged at the present day necessitate the employment of 1,000 men. Mr. Chee Tsze Ting, or his brother, Mr. Chee Yuke San, personally supervise the whole of the work.

Mr. Chee Tsze Ting was born in Borneo and is a Dutch subject. He has now, however, made his home in Bangkok, and has just erected a fine house at Sam Yek Hua Lampong called the "Swan Kong Tong." He was the founder of the Lee Bee Mo Chinese temple, situated at Phib Phi Fa Street, and still contributes largely towards its maintenance.

THE "MONOPOLE" STORES

Among the smaller stores in Bangkok the "Monopole" appears to enjoy the largest patronage and to possess the most varied stock of general goods.

The proprietor, Mr. Louis Choi, was born in Bangkok and educated at the Assumption College. After leaving school he took over the management, and subsequently, following his father's retirement, became the proprietor of his father's business, which included the "Monopole" Stores and the agency of a rice mill at Petriew. In 1904 Mr. Choi was appointed agent for the "Docks et Appointments de Tongkou" Company of steamers, but, of course, the agency dropped when this line was transferred to North China. Perhaps the two principal agencies of the firm in Bangkok at the present time are those of Eugene Gourry and E. C. Monnet et Cie.

Recently Mr. Louis Choi has extended his operations to the interior of Siam, and at Reaburi and Petriew he represents the Borneo Company, the Sriracha Wood Company, the Bangkok Manufacturing Company, and the Siam Steam Packet Company.

Mr. Louis Choi speaks English, French, Siamese, and Chinese quite fluently.

THE UNION DISPENSARY.

In a city such as Bangkok it is more than usually essential that there should be an ample supply of drugs, medicines, chemicals, &c., for the native as well as the European population. Some years ago there were but few reliable dispensaries available for the middle and poorer classes of the Siamese and Chinese, while now, in New Road alone, there are many such establishments under competent management. Amongst these the Union Dispensary deserves to be mentioned. The business, which was only established in 1906, has grown rapidly during the last twelve months, and is now one of considerable importance. The proprietors of the dispensary also carry on a large wholesale and retail trade as general merchants.

H. SWEE HO.

The well-known business house carried on under the above title is conveniently situated
at Pht Sisien Bridge, the centre of the business quarter of the city. The firm trade as general importers, commission agents, manufacturers, chemists, and wholesale and retail drugstills, and are proprietors of the National Chemical Depot.

The business was founded, some forty years ago, by Mr. Hoon Tong Dui, a man highly respected and esteemed by all who came in contact with him. During his lifetime he gave liberally towards the funds raised on behalf of various local charities, and by many private acts of generosity showed, in a practical manner, the sympathy he always felt for those placed in the less fortunate circumstances of life. After a long and successful commercial career he died at the ripe age of sixty-three years, leaving a widow, seven sons, and two daughters, besides a wide circle of friends and acquaintances, to mourn their loss. Since his death the business has been managed by his eldest son, Mr. Hoon Kim, with the assistance of his brother, Mr. Hoon Kim Huat. Their grandfather, on their mother's side, is the owner of the Talat Noi Public Market, one of the most important and well-known business places in Bangkok.

CHOP YONG TET HIN TAI.

In and around the Sampeng district of Bangkok there are many hundreds of Chinese business houses engaged in the import or export trade—indeed, Sampeng has become the recognised centre for this class of business. Amongst these houses one of the best known is that owned and managed by Mr. Yong Hieng Siew, under the chop of Yong Tet Hin Tai. Mr. Yong Hieng Siew, who is a native of China, has been residing in Bangkok for the last thirty years, and during that time has built up an extensive business connection. There are several branches of the firm in the city, each devoted to a special class of trade. The export branch is known by the chop Ngan Hin Tai; the import branch is styled Tai On Tong; while in another quarter of Sampeng the owner of these enterprises also conducts an extensive business in Chinese drugs. Mr. Yong Hieng Siew exports ivory and other products of Siam's jungles, and imports piece and general goods such as meet with a demand in the local market. Mr. Yong Hieng Siew's father was a very prominent merchant in Bangkok, and for three generations members of his family have been well known as traders in Siam. Mr. Yong Hieng Siew, who lives in a fine house on the west bank of the river, has two sons and one daughter—one of the former being at present in China studying his own language after having received a good education in English and Siamese at the Bangkok educational establishments.

THYE GUAN ENG KEE STORES.

The importing of wines and spirits forms an important branch of Bangkok's trade, and in this, as in all other classes of business, Chinese firms take a large share. One of the largest of such firms owns the Thye Guan Eng Kee Stores, which were established some three years ago, and are situated at Talat Noi, on the east bank of the river. The firm import all kinds of European wines, spirits, and beers direct from the manufacturers, as well as considerable quantities of Japanese beer and Chinese wines.

Mr. Tan Hong Eng, the founder and proprietor of the business, has for many years been connected with this class of trade in Bangkok. He was for some time chief cashier to the well-known firm of Tan Tai Guan, of which his brother was the proprietor, and after his brother's death he became manager of the enterprise, a position he resigned only when commencing business in his own interest. Mr. Tan Hong Eng recently opened a branch in the Yawaraj-road, at the corner of Raja-wongti-road, under the Chop Tan Thye Seng, and he contemplates further extensions shortly.

TAN KENG WHAY.

Probably no business man at Bangkok, whether European, native, or Chinese, is better known than Mr. Tan Keng Whay. He has been in business in the city for the last thirty-three years, and up to the present time has been Bangkok's leading Chinese auctioneer. A native of Malacca, Mr. Tan Keng Whay received a good English education, which has since paved his way to fortune. On coming to Bangkok he joined the Borneo Company as assistant to his father, Mr. Tan Teck Weo, who had been for many years with that firm. Four years later he obtained a better position with Messrs. Badman & Co., and remained with them until some years later, when he opened business on his own account as a tailor and general outfitter. This business he conducted successfully for some time, but subsequently gave it up in favour of auctioneering and general broking, for which style of trading there seemed to be an excellent opening. The success which Mr. Tan Keng What has achieved proves the soundness of his judgment. His business is now an important and
I. YONG HIANG SIEW WITH HIS WIFE AND SON.
2 & 3. THE FATHER AND MOTHER OF YONG HIANG SIEW.
4. THE PRIVATE RESIDENCE.

THE OFFICES AND AUCTION ROOMS.

TAN KENG WHAY.
CHINESE BUSINESS MEN AND MILLERS OF BANGKOK.

flourishing one, and during the last eighteen years the great bulk of valuable properties which have come under the hammer in Bangkok have passed through his hands. Mr. Tan Keng What also acts as a general broker and commission agent. In the years 1896-98 he was adviser to the Bangkok Opium Farm, and he was also formerly the proprietor of a distillery at Ban Ghce Khan. Now, however, he devotes the whole of his time to his ever increasing auctioneering business. His auction rooms and office are situated in the New Road, Tapanhek, the busiest part of the city.

YONG LEE SENG.
A branch of the well-known Singapore firm of Messrs. Yong Lee Seng was established in Bangkok in 1903. The company are general importers and high-class storekeepers, carrying on an extensive trade among all sections of the community—Europeans, Chinese, and Siamese. Their principal department in the Bangkok branch of their business is the one devoted to the sale of provisions, but they have also special departments for wines and spirits, soft goods, glass and crockery, and fancy goods, while quite recently they have opened a bakery, where bread and assorted confectionery of a very high quality are made.

Mr. Lim Choon Heng, the local manager, is also a partner in the firm. He is a native of the Straits Settlements, and has, like all his assistants, a good command of the English language. The firm's premises are situated in the Oriental Buildings, near the Oriental Hotel.

CHOP CHOO KWANG LEE.
Although the teak and rice mills represent practically the whole of the industrial enterprise in Bangkok at the present time, it must not be supposed from this fact that the resources of the country do not furnish ample scope for industrial activity and initiative in many other
1. The Family House.  
2. Tan Hong Joo.  
3. The Late Tan Boo Wee.  
4. Seow Hood Seng.  
5. The Family Group.
TAN TAI GUAN.

The firm of Tan Tai Guan, which was established some thirty years ago by the Late Mr. Tan Boo Wee, is one of the largest importers of European wines, spirits, and beers in Bangkok. The business was for many years personally conducted by its founder; on his death it passed into the hands of his wife, Mrs. Koh She. The business has an average turn-
generally by Mr. Seow Hood Seng, the proprietor of the Chino-Siamese Daily News, who acts as her attorney.

TAN GUAN WHAT.

The headquarters of the well-known firm of Tan Guan What are situated in the New Road, Talat Noi. The business was founded some five years ago by Mr. Tan Guan What, a native of Bangkok, and has been steadily growing in importance ever since. The firm, which engages in both the wholesale and retail trade, imports very largely from European business houses, and makes a specialty of boots, shoes, and hats, which it purchases direct from the manufacturers.

PROMINENT CHINESE BUSINESS MEN.

Mr. Wong Hang Chow has been connected for the past fifteen years with the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, and during two-thirds of this period has carried out the responsible duties attaching to the position of chief compradore. He is a son of Cantonese parents, but was born and educated and received his early business training in Hongkong. He is now one of the most prominent but its formation was due largely to the efforts of Mr. Wong Hang, and he and his friends have in the past contributed very considerable sums towards its maintenance.

Mr. Cheah Chee Seng, who has been the compradore to the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China at Bangkok since the Siamese branch of the bank was opened, is a native of Pinang and, like so many of the Pinang Chinese holding prominent positions in Bangkok, he received an excellent education in English at the Pinang Free School. He is responsible for the whole of the bank’s Chinese business and has an able staff of Chinese assistants under him. Mr. Cheah Chee Seng is well known and highly respected in Pinang, where several members of his family have, for many years, held prominent positions in the business life of the town.

Mr. Sam Hing Si, the compradore to the Banque de l’Indo Chine at Bangkok, is a native of the Portuguese colony of Macao. He received his English education at St. Joseph’s College and at Queen’s College (late Victoria School), Hongkong. After completing his studies he entered the service of the Mercantile Bank of India at Hongkong, under the Hon. Mr. W.G. Yu, C.M.G., and there received a valuable training in matters financial and a good insight into the banking business of the

BANGKOK COMPRADORES AND CASHIERS.

1. CHIN WONG TENG.  2. LEE EOK NGEEK (Cashier, Borneo Company, Ltd.).  3. KOK SOON HUAT (Cashier, East Asiatic Company).  4. LIM CHEH CHUAN.

over of 100,000 ticals per mensem, and employs over thirty people. The firm’s headquarters are situated on the river front at Talat Noi.

The manager of the firm is Mr. Tan Hong Joo, and Mrs. Koh She’s interests are supervised members of the Chinese business community in Bangkok. At the time of writing he is the hon. sec. of the Chinese fire brigade and hon. sec. of the local Chinese Club. The fire brigade is now partly supported by a Government grant, East. In September, 1902, he was offered the important post of compradore to the local branch of the Banque de l’Indo-Chine. This he accepted, and has been in complete charge of their compradore’s department since that
TOWKAY TAE HONG (YI KOH HONG).

YI KOH HONG'S RESIDENCE.
THE FAMILY OF YI KOH HONG.
(See p. 292.)
time. Mr. Sam Hing Si is still a young man, being not many years of age, but he has already had a large rice and general broker, handling a large business in the Central Powder Mills in Bangkok. He is a member of the committee of the local Chinese Club of the Chinese Hospital, and of the new Chinese School which has recently been established in Bangkok. In 1862, Mr. Kwok Chinh, who has for twenty-six years been connected with the shipping of Bangkok, is the head of the principal Chinese compradore establishment in the city and contractor to Messrs. Windsor & Co. for the loading and unloading of the fleet of the Norddeutscher Lloyd, through the Norddeutscher Lloyd Co.'s service for fourteen years. Some three years ago he obtained his present position of cashier to the Standard Oil Company of New York.

Mr. Tae Hing, or as he is familiarly known in Bangkok, Mr. Yi Koh Hing, is a native of Siamese, and a Grand Chamberlain under the Government of the Siamese Empire. He has been a prominent business man both in this country and in Burma, having come to Bangkok from the Taichew Province of China (Sawat). After completing his education in Chinese, Yi Koh Hing started business in Bangkok on his own account, and has now, for upwards of twenty years, been a letterer, gambler, and general Government farmer. During this period he has accumulated a large fortune, in spite of having to pay many millions of ticals into the Treasury. Mr. Yi Koh Hing is fifty-eight years of age, and has six sons, some of whom are in China completing their education, while others have been received into the father's extensive undertakings. Mr. Yi Koh Hing is a mandarin of the fourth class, a member of the Order of the Grand Dragon of the Emperor Napoleon III, and a holder of the Légion d'Honneur. He manifests a great interest in the welfare of the native people of his family village, and has spent large sums of money in making good roads and building comfortable houses for them.

Towkay Tay Koon Teo is one of the oldest and wealthiest of the Chinese business men of Siam. A native of Sawat, he came to Bangkok when quite a young man, and is now sixty-one years of age. His business career has extended over a period of forty years; and although during this time he built up a considerable import and export trade and established branches in Hongkong and Singapore, his time has been chiefly taken up with opium, spirit, and gambling farms. He paid many hundreds of ticals to the Treasury for these undertakings, but it has been invested from a personal point of view, for they brought him in a large fortune. The Towkay is highly respected by his fellow-countrymen, and has been received as a grand chamberlain under the Government, and has also been invested with the Peacock's Feather by the Chinese Government. He has now retired from business, and has become the owner of the Chinese Hospital of various interests to Mr. Tay Cheng, his son, and is passing his remaining years quietly with his family in his splendid home, situated just off the New Road.

Mr. Tan Kal Ho, who holds during the present year the position of Vice-President of the local Chinese Hospital, has built up a large business and amassed a considerable fortune during the twenty-five years he has been resident in Bangkok. At different periods he has been a member of the Government, but latterly he has turned his attention to rice-milling, and has acquired and still holds an interest in the Seng Heng mill. He has also invested in the new commercial enterprises. He has always taken a deep personal interest in medical work among the Chinese, and has been a generous supporter of many public and charitable movements instituted on their behalf.
THE HIGHWAYS AND SANITATION OF BANGKOK

BY L. R. DE LA MAHOTIÈRE,

City Engineer and Chief Engineer of the Sanitary Department, Bangkok.

Not only in quite recent years have thoroughfares with any real pretensions to the name existed in Bangkok. Formerly the traffic was confined to the klongs, and even now the chief means of transport are the small native craft which ply up and down these waterways. Fifty years ago, indeed, the city was known as "the Venice of the East." The first streets laid out were constructed in a very primitive manner. It was considered sufficient to take the earth from the sides of the roads in order to raise the centre, with the result that the roads were edged with swamps, at the rear of which the houses were constructed on piles. To make the roads firmer it was usual to spread a light layer of broken bricks and stones on the surface; consequently in the rainy season the thoroughfares were reduced to sloughs and puddles and quickly became impassable. Within the last decade or so the advantages of macadamising the roads with broken bricks and slabs have been recognised, but the system has not been undertaken with any degree of thoroughness, the materials being merely spread over the roads, and the work of rolling them in being left to the chance instrumentality of the vehicular traffic. In that portion of the city, however, between the river and the city wall wherein are the King's palace and the residences of many of the Siamese princes, the work of road-making has been carried out with more care; better materials have been used, and the steam-cutter has been employed with advantage. The improvement has been the more marked since the King and other members of the royal family have taken to motoring; indeed, some of the thoroughfares are maintained in a far more efficient condition than is actually demanded by the traffic upon them.

As the water of the river is not stored anywhere, street watering is effected by the most primitive means by Chinese coolies bearing watering-cans, which they fill from the klongs or from the gutters by the roadside. They carry the cans suspended from a yoke, and as they run along they tip up the buckets which they hold, one in each hand, as the water taken from the gutters is usually in a state of putrefaction, it is perhaps needless to add that there are serious objections to the methods of street-watering which now obtain.

A system of revolving watering appliances has, however, been tried, but has had to be abandoned on account of the weight of the appliances, while other schemes which have been suggested to the Government have not yet been put to the test.

The first streets were made without pavements. Now, however, pavements are found in all the new streets, and have been added even to the old ones; but the lower classes make use of the pavement as annexes to their houses and shops to such an extent that in many places the pavements have entirely disappeared. No law has yet been passed to prevent this overrunning of the side-walks, so that even when it is possible—as, for example, after a fire—to re-establish the alignment of the streets, there is difficulty in remedying the evil. Differences and disputes which arise on these occasions as to boundaries are usually settled easily and amicably when Siamese only are concerned; but such is not the case when foreigners are the interested parties. They regard such adjustments as sales of land on their part and demand high prices accordingly. Similar difficulties present themselves when new roads have to be cut; it is often necessary to deviate the direction and make detours to avoid the property of foreign subjects and protégés.

SANITATION.

No proper system of drainage exists in Bangkok. The klongs are used as sewers by the people dwelling on their banks, and are scoured twice daily by the action of the tide. In the streets away from the klongs sullage and sewage matter is discharged into the drains which run by the roadside. Some of these drains are now closed, but originally they were all open. They are usually built of brick and concrete, and in many instances are connected with the klongs by sluice-gates, so that their cleansing may be easily effected by means of the tide, sweepers being employed to assist the process. The drains also serve to carry off the surface-water. Suggestions for the further improvement of the drainage of the city have been made on several occasions, but as these have not been adopted by the Government, there is no system of proper drainage in the city.

Refuse is removed from the neighbourhood by means of carts provided by the authorities for the purpose, and is deposited in various places along the roadside, and in uninhabited parts of the town. The suggestion to build furnaces for the incineration of refuse has been put forward, but has not yet been acted upon.

THE WATER SUPPLY.

Bangkok possesses no water supply. The lower classes use the water from the river and klongs, with deplorable results from the point of view of health. In the dry season, and more especially during the months of February,
March, April, and May, a lamentable state of things prevails, cholera claiming thousands of victims from among the poorer classes. The European population exercise more wisdom in this respect, never using water even for washing and bathing without the addition of alum. For household purposes rain-water is used. It is collected in steel tanks, into which it flows from the roofs; and during the heavy rains every effort is made to store sufficient water for the needs of the dry season, which lasts from November till May.

Unsuccessful attempts have been made to solve the question of water supply by deep borings. An artesian stream was tapped at a depth of 425 feet, but analyses at Bangkok and at the Pasteur Institute at Saigon proved that the water was impure. Further borings were made, but at a depth of 650 feet difficulties manifested themselves, and, proving insuperable, brought the work to a standstill. At present the only wells in Bangkok are those owned by commercial houses.

Besides the scheme for artesian well boring water has been drawn from the Menam, at a point some fifteen miles above the city, and brought by means of a canal to the centre of the town, where it is pumped into a reservoir, 60 ft. in height. It is filtered, and purified with ozone, and is then ready for use. The scheme, which was advocated and carried through in its experimental stage by Mr. Mahotière, city engineer, has received the approval of Government, but for want of sufficient funds has not been put into general use.

In a city traversed in all directions by canals there must of necessity be a number of bridges; and, for the reason that clearance must be given to the roofs of boats plying on the various water-thoroughfares, the bridges in Bangkok are carried to a considerable height above ground-level, and are therefore steep and awkward for vehicular traffic. The earlier bridges were simply structures of beams and cross-planks, resting on brick supports. Owing to the unsuitable nature of the ground, and to the little care exercised in their erection, these supports have, in many cases, sunk into the bed of the klong, leaving insufficient room for boats to pass beneath them. The reconstructed and new bridges are of iron, and are built to carry a macadamised roadway. His Majesty the king takes great interest in this work, as in other matters concerning the public welfare; and every November, on the anniversary of his birthday, the foundations of a new bridge are laid, the cost of the bridge being partly defrayed by his Majesty. On these "anniversary" bridges a slab is fixed bearing the king's initials, the date, and his Majesty's age. The bridge to be built this year (1908) will be of importance as commemorating also the forty-first year of the king's reign. It will be constructed of armoured concrete, ornamented with enamelled sandstone, and will have a length of 27 feet.

Mr. C. Allegri, the Engineer-in-Chief of the Public Works Department in Bangkok, was born in Milan in 1862, and was educated at the Milan Technical School and at the University of Pavia. Having completed his studies and passed his professional examinations, he was for the following six years engaged in engineering work in various parts of Italy, taking a share in the construction of the St. Gothard railway and in the erection of several of the large public buildings in Milan. In 1889 he came to Siam for a firm of contractors, but the following year resigned this post and joined the Siamese Government as Assistant-Engineer in the Public Works Department. He was promoted to his present position two years later. The department under his supervision has carried out a great deal of very fine work in Bangkok, with the result that in some districts the whole appearance of the town has been changed. For his valuable services in these and other directions his Majesty the king some years ago conferred upon Mr. Allegri the Order of the White Elephant, third class.

Mr. L. R. de la Mahotière, City Engineer and Chief Engineer of the Sanitary Department at Bangkok, has had considerable experience of engineering work abroad. Having qualified as a certificated engineer of the Central School of Arts and Crafts of Paris, and on becoming a member of the Society of French Civil Engineers, he sailed for Chile, where he took up the position of engineer to the Antofagasta Railway and Nitrates Company. He then joined the Public Works Department of the Chilian Government, and during his tenure of office was engaged upon the construction of the railway from Victoria to Osorno and in completing the general survey of the nitrate concession and territories in the province of Tarapaca. The revolution and subsequent overthrow of President Balmaceda forced him to leave Chile, and he found employment with the Huanchaca de Bolivia Gold-mining Company, for whom he engineered a system of canals whereby water was obtained from the River Cagua for the hydraulic electrification of the various departments of the mine. He was next engaged on behalf of a French firm to superintend the exploitation of mahogany and other woods in Bolivian forests, and subsequently proceeded on a geographical mission to the Congo in the interests of a Parisian house. Upon his return to France he was chosen by the French Government to enter the Siamese service. Mr. de la Mahotière was a member of the Commission appointed to determine the boundary between Siam and Indo-China.

C. ALLEGRI.
(Engineer-in-Chief, Public Works Department.)
THE PRESS

Siam, or rather Bangkok, to-day boasts a newspaper press of its own, which, to a very considerable extent, indicates the progressive spirit abroad in the country. Besides the official Gazette, which is issued regularly every Monday, with frequent special editions, there are no fewer than five daily newspapers, two printed in English and Siamese, a third in English, French, and Siamese, while the remaining two are intended for circulation among the Siamese and Chinese only. There are also several small weekly and monthly publications, but these are of such ephemeral life that it is unnecessary to take them into consideration.

According to tradition, which is to some extent borne out by archeological discoveries, the art of printing was known in Siam, as in various other Far Eastern countries, long before it was re-invented in Europe. As in China, the necessary characters were cut in relief in slabs of wood, inked, and then transferred by hand-pressure to various materials. It was not, however, until June, 1839, that a printing press on Western lines and with movable types was erected in Bangkok. It was introduced by some American missionaries, and a newspaper followed as a kind of natural sequence. In the year 1844 Mr. D. B. Bradley, of the American Presbyterian Mission, started a small paper in Siamese, but transport was difficult, there were neither regular mails nor telegraphs, and after struggling along for one year the issue was discontinued. There was apparently no scope for journalistic enterprise in these days, for while various papers and periodicals were started, they all very speedily came to grief. In 1854 Mr. J. H. Chandler commenced the publication of a weekly journal called the Bangkok Times. It was printed in English, and seemed to be on the high-road to success until, in the second year of its existence, the proprietor, editor, and manager became involved in a lawsuit, when publication ceased forthwith. The career of the Bangkok Recorder, a small paper founded about this time by the Rev. N. A. Macdonald, of the American Presbyterian Mission, and afterwards conducted by the Rev. D. H. Bradley, was cut short in a somewhat spirited fashion. Legal proceedings were instituted against him by some aggrieved person, and the result, as far as the paper was concerned, was financial ruin. A Bangkok Recorder was afterwards published in Siamese; but fortune did not smile upon the enterprise, and, after the failure of this undertaking, Bangkok was left for two years in the Arcadian-like and peaceful condition of being without a newspaper of any description. After this period of rest, however, three journals sprang into being almost simultaneously. The Siam Weekly Monitor, a paper started by Mr. E. d'Encour, an American, was first in the field, but after a hard fight it succumbed before its two more powerful rivals, the Bangkok Daily Advertiser and the Siam Daily Advertiser. These papers, which contained little but shipping intelligence and a few advertisements, struggled along for a while in the deadly embrace of an Elysianilian combat, and then the Bangkok Daily Advertiser ceased publication suddenly, while its former competitor made its final bow to the public a few months later. In August, 1889, the Siam Weekly Advertiser was established, and was published regularly during what must be considered a record period, up to that time, of seventeen years. In 1896, however, the editor was faced with a serious libel suit, and he then decided to abandon an enterprise which had never been a real commercial success. "It became manifest," he said, "that when those who ought to have supported it vigorously and substantially were eager to prosecute for libel, and sought remuneration for, on his part not dreamt of, but by them supposed harm, it was best to discontinue a non-remunerative concern."

For the greater part of a year Siam's capital was again without a newspaper of its own. Then, at the beginning of 1897, the Bangkok Times was established by Mr. T. Lloyd-Williams, as a small weekly journal. During the first two years of its existence it had to compete for public favour with the Siam Mercantile Gazette, but whereas the Gazette was discontinued the Times prospered, and was converted by its proprietors into a bi-

THE OFFICES OF THE "BANGKOK TIMES."
weekly paper. In October, 1891, the Siam Free Press, a paper devoted largely to French interests and supported by French capital, was started by Mr. J. J. Lillie, while in 1902 the Siam Observer was founded by Mr. W. A. G. Tilleke, the present Acting Attorney-General of Siam, and the late Mr. G. W. Ward, a journalist of considerable experience, who later acted as the special correspondent of the Pall Mall Gazette through the Chino-Japanese War and the Omdurman campaign. The Observer was a daily paper, and, being launched during a period of unrest and just after the blockade of Bangkok by the French fleet, when news was eagerly looked for, it achieved a considerable measure of success and established itself upon a firm and sound basis. In order to keep abreast with their new contemporary, the Bangkok Times and the Siam Free Press were both converted into daily journals. During the last three years two new daily papers, printed in Siamese and Chinese, have been started in Bangkok, and both enjoy large circulations, but so far as the foreign residents are concerned, the Times, the Observer, and Free Press continue to hold sway. The old order of things, when newspaper libel actions appeared to be the general rule, has entirely changed. The papers now work in complete harmony with the Government; they are generally kept well posted with official news, and it is an open secret that they receive Government subsidies. Both the Times and the Observer issue weekly mail editions in English and Siamese, for transmission abroad and through the provinces.

"BANGKOK TIMES."

The Bangkok Times, which is the oldest established newspaper in Bangkok, and may be said to have the largest circulation among the European residents, was founded by Mr. T. Lloyd Williams in January, 1889. It was first published as a small weekly journal containing six pages and thirty columns of printed matter. It met with a considerable share of success from its inauguration, was subsequently converted into a bi-weekly paper, and was afterwards published three times a week, and in the early nineties became a daily evening journal. It has been considerably enlarged, and now comprises eight pages, containing forty-eight columns.

Four years ago a limited liability company was formed to take over the paper, which, up to that time, had been conducted as a private enterprise, by Mr. C. Thorne, who had been largely interested in the undertaking for many years previously, being appointed managing director of the company. The editor of the paper is Mr. W. H. Mundle, M.A., and he has two European assistants, Mr. R. Adey Moore and Mr. E. B. Gatenby.

"SIAM OBSERVER."

Prior to the trouble with France in 1903 there had been no daily newspaper published with Bangkok. There had been several attempts made to establish such a journal, but all had ended in failure. In 1891, however, when these international difficulties culminated in the blockade of the Siamese capital by the French fleet, and when rumours of the wildest kind were rife and no one knew exactly what might happen, opinions were expressed on all sides that a daily newspaper was badly needed. At last Mr. W. A. G. Tilleke, the present Acting Attorney-General of Siam, and Mr. G. W. Ward, who had formerly been a member of the staff of the Bangkok Times, took counsel together to see how the want could be supplied.

They had neither printing plant nor anything that went towards the mechanical production of a daily paper but, after casting about for some time, they entered into an arrangement with the Rev. S. Smith for the use of his printing-office at Bangkok; and here, after the vexations delays which always seem inseparable from the starting of a newspaper, the first issue of their publication was made. The Observer was in those days one-tenth of the size that it is today. The first copy had an eccentric-looking title heading, and to make this appear all the more striking the editor gave it a sub-heading, which took the form of a prophecy. It was, "The French have not left Chantabun, but they will very soon." Parenthetically it may be remarked that it was over ten years ere the prophecy was fulfilled. Just when the Observer had firmly established itself a dispute arose between Messrs. Ward & Tilleke, and Mr. Ward left Bangkok for Hongkong. He afterwards represented the Pall Mall Gazette in the Chino-Japanese War and the Soudan campaign, and died under rather painful circumstances in London, in 1899. For some time after Mr. Ward's departure from Siam, Mr. Tilleke conducted the newspaper himself; but finding that his editorial duties, by occupying a large portion of his time, interfered sadly with his legal practice, he engaged Mr. Harry Hillman, an English journalist, to relieve him of his responsibilities in this direction. Mr. Hillman was succeeded in the editorial chair by Mr. P. Mackenzie Skinner, a barrister-at-law, who had previously controlled the destinies of the Hiogo News and the Straits Times. Mr. Skinner, however, very shortly afterwards decided to commence the practice of his profession in Bangkok and, resigning, was succeeded in November, 1899, by Mr. William W. Fegen, who had been a correspondent with the American troops in the Philippines campaign. Early in 1902 Mr. H. G. Gough, then a leader-writer on the staff of the Glasgow Herald, was engaged as editor-in-chief, and under his supervision the paper was enlarged and, now it consists of ten pages. Mr. Gough resigned in August, 1908, and his place was taken by Mr. F. Lionel Pratt, an Australian journalist who had been a leader-writer on the China Mail and previously a war-correspondent for the Sydney Morning Herald in the Boxer campaign and the Russo-Japanese War.

THE "CHINO-SIAMESE DAILY NEWS."

The most important newspaper enterprise in Bangkok, apart from the English daily papers, is probably the Chino-Siamese Daily News. This journal, as its name indicates, is published in both the Chinese and Siamese languages. It consists of twelve pages, eight printed in Chinese and four in Siamese, and is conducted with considerable vigour. Its policy, indeed, may be described as candid and highly independent, and it is, perhaps, hardly surprising, therefore, that it has had a somewhat troubled career. Its large
circulation, both in Siam and abroad, however, may be taken as an indication that it has gained the public favour. It numbers many friends immediate predecessor, the Menam King Poh, was forced to discontinue publication because of the strong forces arrayed against it. The property was purchased by Mr. Seow Hood Seng, who upon the old foundation built up the Chino-Siamese Daily News; and, while the policy of the new journal is very similar to that of the old, the paper, under his skilful management, has secured for itself a position from which it cannot easily be shaken.

Mr. Seow Hood Seng, in addition to his responsibility as proprietor and manager, also carries out the duties of chief editor of the paper. He is a native of Bangkok and a distinguished Chinese scholar, so that he is not only well qualified to write on Siamese affairs, but is also able to bring expert knowledge to bear upon those subjects which intimately concern the welfare of the inhabitants of the Middle Kingdom. He is the son of an old resident of Malacca who built up a considerable business in Bangkok, and Mr. Seow Hood himself, in spite of his necessarily onerous duties connected with the successful conduct of a daily newspaper, still finds time to take an interest in a variety of commercial undertakings. He is the managing attorney for the firm of Tai Guan, Bangkok’s largest Chinese firm of wine and spirit merchants and importers, and is associated, directly or indirectly, with several other large enterprises. He also takes a prominent part in social and charitable work, and has just been successful in raising a large public subscription for the establishment of a school for Chinese boys. His brother, Mr. Keng Leon, a good English and Siamese scholar, who would otherwise have been of great assistance in the carrying on of the newspaper, has recently been called to take up a responsible appointment in the Government service.

Mr. Chan King Wah, the Chinese editor, is also a man of strong character. A native of Canton, he came to Bangkok some years ago and founded the Menam King Poh, to which
reference has already been made. He is an accomplished Chinese journalist, and now in the *Chino-Siamese Daily News* finds that scope for the expression of his views upon Chinese public affairs which was previously denied him.

**THE "SIAM FREE PRESS."**

The *Siam Free Press*, the first Radical newspaper ever published in Siam, was established in the year 1891 by the late Mr. John Joseph Lillie, a journalist of much spirit, whose fearless outspokenness led to actions for libel being taken against the paper, and eventually, in 1895, to his expulsion from the country. Some of the cases brought against him were, indeed, subject-matter for discussion in the British House of Commons, the political relations between Great Britain, France, and Siam being at that time somewhat strained. From Mr. Lillie the paper passed into the hands of a French company, who, however, have always committed its conduct to Britshers. Mr. J. Ward succeeded to the editorial chair under the new régime, and remained in Siam for two years, relinquishing the appointment to take up that of editor of the *Siam Times*. Mr. Ward subsequently went to Manchuria as a war correspondent, and at the conclusion of the campaign published a book on the Russo-Japanese War. For a few months the *Free Press* was edited by Mr. E. Martin; then, in 1899, Mr. O'Leary Dempsey assumed the editorial responsibilities, and has had charge of the paper up to the present day.

Originally the *Free Press* was a comparatively small newspaper, published only in English; it has now been increased to three times its original size, and contains news in English, French, and Siamese.

Mr. O'Leary Dempsey, who has spent about eighteen years in the tropics, is an Irishman, and was educated at the De La Salle College, Queen's County. He afterwards became a professor at St. Joseph's School, Singapore, where he had charge of a special class, several of his pupils obtaining Queen's Scholarships.

In 1893 he took up a position in the Assumption College, Bangkok, as head English professor, and here also his pupils distinguished themselves by obtaining several scholarships given by his Majesty the King of Siam.

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**THE OFFICE OF "THE CHINO-SIAMESE DAILY NEWS."**
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TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS
OF
BRITISH MALAYA
Twentieth Century Impressions
of
British Malaya:
ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE,
INDUSTRIES, AND RESOURCES

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England.
HIS EXCELLENCY SIR JOHN ANDERSON, K.C.M.G., GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES, AND CONSUL-GENERAL FOR BRITISH NORTH BORNEO, BRUNEI, AND SARAWAK.
PREFACE

HIS work is the outcome of an enterprise designed to give in an attractive form full and reliable information with reference to the outlying parts of the Empire. The value of a fuller knowledge of the "Britains beyond the Sea" and the great dependencies of the Crown as a means of tightening the bonds which unite the component parts of the King's dominions was insisted upon by Mr. Chamberlain in a memorable speech, and the same note ran through the Prince of Wales's impressive Mansion House address in which His Royal Highness summed up the lessons of his tour through the Empire, from which he had then just returned. In some instances, notably in the case of Canada, the local Governments have done much to diffuse in a popular form information relative to the territory which they administer. But there are other centres in which official enterprise in this direction has not been possible, or, at all events, in which action has not been taken, and it is in this prolific field that the publishers are working. So far they have found ample justification for their labours in the widespread public interest taken in their operations in the colonies which have been the scene of their work, and in the extremely cordial reception given by the Press, both home and colonial, to the completed results.

Briefly, the aim which the publishers keep steadily before them is to give a perfect microcosm of the colony or dependency treated. As old Stow with patient application and scrupulous regard for accuracy set himself to survey the London of his day, so the workers employed in the production of this series endeavour to give a picture, complete in every particular, of the distant possessions of the Crown. But topography is only one of the features treated. Responding to modern needs and tastes, the literary investigators devote their attention to every important phase of life, bringing to the elucidation of the subjects treated the powerful aid of the latest and best methods of pictorial illustration. Thus a work is compiled which is not only of solid and enduring value for purposes of reference and for practical business objects, but is of unique interest to all who are interested in the development of the Empire.

Following closely upon the lines of the earlier works of the series on Western Australia, Natal, and Ceylon, this volume deals exhaustively with the history, administration, peoples, commerce, industries, and potentialities of the Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay States—territories which, though but comparatively little known hitherto, promise to become of very great commercial importance in the near future. By reason of their
scattered nature, wide extent, undeveloped condition, and different systems of government, the adequate treatment of them has presented no little difficulty to the compilers. But neither trouble nor expense has been spared in the attempt to secure full and accurate information in every direction, and, wherever possible, the services of recognised experts have been enlisted. The general historical matter has been written after an exhaustive study of the original records at the India Office, and it embodies information which throws a new light upon some aspects of the early life of the Straits Settlements. For the facilities rendered in the prosecution of his researches and also for the sanction freely given to him to reproduce many original sketches and scarce prints in the splendid collection at the India Office Library, Whitehall, the Editor has to offer his thanks to the India Council. In the Straits much valued assistance has been rendered by the heads of the various Government Departments, and the Editor is especially indebted to his Excellency Sir John Anderson, K.C.M.G., the Governor of the Straits Settlements and High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States, who has given every possible encouragement to the enterprise.
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## METEOROLOGY

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**Geology of the Federated Malay States.** By J. B. Scrivenor, Government Geologist,

*Federated Malay States*  
Harbours  

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Nature has marked out as one of the great strategic centres of the world alike for purposes of war and of commerce. "Within its narrowest limits," wrote the gifted statesman to whom Britain owes the possession to-day of the most important unit of this magnificent group of colonies, "it embraces the whole of the vast Archipelago which, stretching from Sumatra and Java to the Islands of the Pacific and thence to the shores of China and Japan, has in all ages excited the attention and attracted the cupidity of more civilised nations; an area whose valuable and peculiar productions contributed to swell the extravagance of Roman luxury, and one which in more modern times has raised the power and consequence of every successive European nation into whose hands its commerce has fallen; and which, further, perhaps in its earliest period among the Italian States, communicated the first electric spark which awoke to life the energies and the literature of Europe."

England's interest in this extensive region dates back to the very dawn of her colonial history. The foundations of the existing colonies were laid in "the spacious age" of Elizabeth, in the period following the defeat of the Spanish Armada, when the great Queen's reign was drawing to its splendid close in a blaze of triumphant commercial achievement.

Drake carried the English flag through the Straits of Malacca in his famous circumnavigation of the world in 1579. But it was left to another of the sturdy band of Elizabethan adventurers to take the first real step in the introduction of English influence into the archipelago. The Empire-builder who laid the corner-stone of the noble edifice of which we are treating was James Lancaster, a bluff old sailor who had served his apprenticeship in the first school of English seamanship of that or any other day. It is probable that he accompanied Drake on his tour round the world; he certainly fought with him in the great struggle against the Armada. After that crowning victory, when the seas were opened everywhere to vessels bearing the English flag, men's thoughts were cast towards that Eldorado of the East of which glowing accounts had been brought back by the early adventurers. Then was laid the corner-stone of the structure which, in process of time, developed into the mighty Eastern Empire of Britain. The first direct venture was the despatch of three small ships, with Lancaster as second in command, to the East. Quitting Plymouth on April 10, 1591, these tiny vessels, mere cockboats compared with the leviathans which now traverse the ocean, after an adventurous voyage reached Pulo Pinang in June of the same year. The crews of the squadron were decimated by disease. On Lancaster's ship, the Edward Bonaventure, there were left of a complement of upwards of a hundred "only 33 men and one boy, of which not past 22 were found for labour and help, and of them not past a third sailors." Nevertheless, after a brief sojourn Lancaster put to sea, and in August captured a small Portuguese vessel laden with pepper, another of 250 tons burthen, and a third of 750 tons. With these valuable prizes the daring adventurer proceeded home, afterwards touch-
ing at Point de Galle, in Ceylon, to recruit. The return voyage was marked by many thrilling episodes, but eventually the ships got safely to their destinations, though of the crew of 198 who had doubled the Cape only 25 landed again in England.

The terrible risks of the adventure were soon forgotten in the jubilation which was caused by the results achieved. These were of a character to fire men's imaginations. On the one hand the voyagers had to show the valuable booty which they had captured from the Portuguese; on the other they were able to point to the breaking of the foreign monopoly of the lucrative Eastern trade which was implied in their success. The voyage marked an epoch in English commercial history. As a direct result of it followed the formation of the East India Company. The various steps which led up to that important event lie beyond the province of the present narrative. It is sufficient for the purposes in hand to note that when the time had come for action Lancaster was selected by the adventurers to command the Company's first fleet, and that he went out duly commissioned by the authority of the Queen as their Governor-General.1 Established in the Red Dragon, a ship of 600 tons burthen, and with three other vessels under his control, Lancaster sailed from Woolwich on February 13, 1600-1.

1 This point, which has been overlooked by many writers, is made clear by this entry to be found in the Hatfield Manuscripts (Historical Manuscripts Commission), Part xi. p. 14; 1600-1, Jan. 24th. Letters patent to James Lancaster, chosen by the Governor and Company of the Merchants of London trading to the East Indies as their Governor-General. The Queen approves of their choice, and grants authority to Lancaster to exercise the office.2

On June 5th following the fleet reached Achin. A most cordial reception awaited Lancaster at the hands of the King of Achin. The fame of England's victory over Spain had enormously enhanced her prestige in the Eastern world, and in Achin there was the greater disposition to show friendliness to the English because of the bitter enmity of the Achinese to the Portuguese, whose high-handed dealings had created a lively hatred of their rule. Lancaster, who bore with him a letter from the Queen to the native potentate, seems to have been as clever a diplomat as he was a sailor. The royal missive was conveyed to the native Court with great pomp. In delivering it with a handsome present, Lancaster declared that the purpose of his coming was to establish peace and amity between his royal mistress and her loving brother the mighty King of Achin. Not to be outdone in courtesy, the Sumatran prince invited Lancaster and his officers to a magnificent banquet, in which the service was of gold, and at which the King's damsels, richly attired and adorned with jewellery, attended, and danced and sang for the guests' edification. The culminating feature of the entertainment was the investiture of Lancaster by the King with a splendid robe and the presentation to him of two kris—the characteristic weapon of Malaya, without which no honorable dress is considered complete by the Malays. What was more to the purpose than these honours, gratifying as they were to the Englishmen, was the appointment of two nobles, one of whom was the chief priest, to settle with Lancaster the terms of a commercial treaty. The negotiations proceeded favourably, and in due course Lancaster was able to congratulate himself on having secured for his country a formal and explicit right to trade in Achin. The progress of events, meanwhile, was being watched with jealous anxiety by the Portuguese, who knew that the inclusion of so formidable a rival as England into their sphere of influence boded ill for the future of their power. Attempts were actually made to stabilise the negotiations, but Lancaster was too well acquainted with Portuguese wiles to be taken at a disadvantage. On the contrary, his skill enabled him to turn the Portuguese weapons against them. By the terms sent to Achin he got information which led to the capture of a rich prize—a fully laden vessel of 900 tons—in the straits of Malacca. Returning to Achin after this expedition, Lancaster made preparations for the homeward voyage, loading his ships with pepper, then a costly commodity in England owing to the monopolising policy of the Portuguese and the Spaniards. He seems to have continued to the end in high favour with the King. At the farewell interview the old monarch asked Lancaster and his officers to favour him by singing one of the Psalms of David. This singular request was complied with, the selection being given them with much solemnity. On November 9, 1602, the Red Dragon weighed anchor and proceeded to Bantam, where Lancaster established a factory. A second trading establishment was formed in the Moluccas. This done, the Red Dragon, with two of the other vessels of the fleet, steered a course homeward. The little squadron encountered a terrible storm off the Cape, which nearly carried them to disaster to the enterprise. Lancaster's good seamanship, however, brought his vessels through the crisis safely. It says much for the indomitable spirit of the man that when the storm was at its height and his own vessel seemed on the point of founding he wrote, for transmission by one of the other ships, a letter to his employers at home, assuring them that he would do his utmost to save the craft and its valuable cargo, and concluding with this remarkable sentence: "The passage to the East Indies lies in 62 degrees 30 minutes by the N.W. on the America side."3 Lancaster reached England on September 11, 1603. The country resounded with praises of his great achievement. Milton, as a boy, must have been deeply impressed with the episode, for it inspired some of his satirist verse. Obvious references to Lancaster's voyages are to be found, as Sir George Birdwood has pointed out,4 in "Paradise Lost," in the poet's description of Satan. Thus, in Book II, we have a presentiment of the Evil One as he "puts on swift wings and then soars Up to the fiery concave towering high."

2 Hatfield's "History of Sumatra," l. 436. 3 "Paradise Lost," l. 102. 4 Report on the Old Records of the East India Company."
And again in Book IV.:

"So on he fares, and to the border comes
Of Eden . . .
A sylvan scene . . .
Of statelest view. . . .
All sadness but despair; now gentle gates
Fanning their odoriferous wings, dispense
Native perfumes, and whisper whence they stole
Those balmy spoils. As when to them who sail
Beyond the Cape of Hope, and now are past Mozambique, off at sea North East winds blow
Saharan odours from the spicy shore
Of Araby the Blest; with such delay
Well pleased they shook their course, and many a league
Cheer'd with the grateful smell Old Ocean smiles;
So entertain'd those odorous sweets the fiend
Who came their bane."

This fine imagery shows how deep was the impression made upon the nation by Lancaster's enterprise. But it was in its practical aspects that the success achieved produced the most striking results. The immediate fruit of the voyage was a great burst of commercial activity. The infant East India Company gained adherents on all sides, and men put their capital into it in confident assurance that they would reap a golden return on their investment. So the undertaking progressed until it took its place amongst the great established institutions of the country. Meanwhile Lancaster dropped into a wealthy retirement. He lived for a good many years in leisureed ease, and dying, left a substantial fortune to his heirs.

The history of the East India Company in its earliest years was a chequered one. The Dutch viewed the intrusion of their English rivals into the Straits with jealous apprehension, and they lost no opportunity of harassing the trading operations of both. But the conditions of the compact were flagrantly disregarded by the Dutch, and soon the relations of the representatives of the two nations were on a more unfavourable footing than ever. Up to this time, says Sir George Birdwood, the English Company had no territory in sovereign right in the Indies excepting the island of Lantore or Great Banda. This island was governed by a commercial agent who had under him 50 Europeans as clerks, and these, with 250 armed Malays, constituted the only force by which it was protected. In the islands of Banda, Pulo Roon, and Rosengyn, and at Macassar and Achin and Bantam, the Company's factories and agents were without any military defence. In 1620, notwithstanding the Treaty of Defence, the Dutch expelled the English from Pulo Roon and Lantore, and in 1621 from Bantam. On the 17th February, 1622-23, occurred the famous massacre of Amboyna, which remained as a deep stain on the English name until it was wiped out by Cromwell in the Treaty of Westminster of 1654. In 1624 the English, unable to oppose the Dutch any longer, withdrew again raised to an independent presidency, and for some years continued to be the chief seat of the Company's power in the Straits. The factory was long a thorn in the Dutch side, and they adopted a characteristic method to extract it. In 1677 the Sultan of Bantam had weakly shared the regal power with his son. This act led to dissensions between parent and child, and finally to open hostilities. The Dutch favoured the young Sultan and actively assisted him. The English threw the weight of their influence into the scale in favour of the father. They acted on the sound general principle of upholding the older constituted authority; but either from indecision or weakness they refrained from giving more than moral support to their protégé. When, as subsequently happened, the young Sultan signally defeated his father and seated himself firmly on the throne as the sole ruler of the State, they paid the penalty of their lack of initiative by losing their pied à terre in

**SPECIMENS OF THE MALAY KRIS.**

Company's agents. In 1619 a treaty was concluded between the English and the Dutch Governments with a view to preventing the disastrous disputes which had impeded the
Bantam. On April 1, 1682, the factory was taken possession of by a party of Dutch soldiers, and on the 12th August following the

to repair the mischief caused by the Dutch. The outcome of their deliberations with the authorities at the Western India factory was

place of the one which had existed at Bantam. On arrival at their destination the envoys found established upon the throne a line of queens. The fact that a female succession had been adopted is thought by Marsden, the historian of Sumatra, to have been due to the influence exercised by our Queen Elizabeth, whose wonderful success against the Spanish arms had carried her fame to the archipelago, where the Spanish and Portuguese power was feared and hated. However that may be, the English mission was received with every mark of respect by the reigning Queen—Anayet Shah. Suspicions appear to have been entertained by the visitors that her Majesty was not a woman, but a eunuch dressed up in female apparel. Marsden, however, thinks that they were mistaken in their surmise, and he cites a curious incident related in the record drawn up by Messrs. Ord and Cawley of their proceedings as conclusive evidence that his view is the correct one. \"We went to give an audience at the palace this day as customary,\" write the envoys; "being arrived at the place of audience with the Orang Kayos, the Queen was pleased to order us to come nearer, when her Majesty was very inquisitive into the use of our wearing periwig, and what was the convenience of them, to all of which we returned satisfactory answers. After this her Majesty desired of Mr. Ord, if it were no affront to him, that he should take off his periwig that she might see how he appeared without it; which, according
to her Majesty's request, he did. She then told us she had heard of our business, and would give her answer by the Orang Kayos, and so

proof against English determination. Gradually but surely the East India Company's authority at the chosen centres was consolidated, and within a few years Bencoolen assumed an aspect of some prosperity. But its progress was limited by an unhealthy situation, and by natural disadvantages of a more serious character. In the beginning of the eighteenth century the old settlement was abandoned in favour of a better site about three miles away on the bay of Bencoolen. The new town, to which the designation Fort Marlborough was given, was an improvement on the original settlement, and it attained to a certain position of dignity by reason of the circumstances that it was the headquarters of the Company's power in these regions. But Nature never intended it for a great commercial centre, and of the leading factories of the East India Company it represents probably the most serious failure.

In the early half of the eighteenth century the course of British commerce in the Straits ran smoothly. It is not until we reach the year 1752 that we find any event of importance in the record. At that period a forward policy was initiated, and two new settlements were established on the Sumatra coast. To one the designation of Natal was given; the other was founded at Tappamuli. Natal in its time was an important factory, but as a centre of British commerce it has long since passed into the limbo of forgotten things. In 1758, during our war with France, a French fleet under Comte d'Ecalat visited the Straits and destroyed all the East India Company's settlements on the Sumatra coast. But the mischief was subsequently repaired, and the British rights to the occupied territory were formally recognised in the Treaty of Paris of 1763. Up to this period Bencoolen had been subordinate to Madras, an arrangement which greatly militated against its successful administration. The establishment was now formed into an independent presidency, and provided with a charter for the creation of a mayor's court. The outbreak of the war with Holland brought the station into special prominence. In 1781 an expedition was dispatched from it to operate against the Dutch establishments. It resulted in the seizure of Pedang and other important points in Sumatra. The British power was now practically supreme on the Sumatran coasts. But it
merce in the Straits and for the protection of our important China trade. The occupation of Pinang in 1785, in circumstances which will be detailed at a later stage of our narrative, was its possession less burdensome. It continued to the end of its existence a serious drag on the Company’s finances.

The year 1802 is memorable in Straits history

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as the surveys of the archipelago at that period were very inadequate, and no small peril attended the advice. The result was the triumph of a fleet of transports as that which carried the expeditionary force. The course which Raffles advised for the passage of the ships was severely criticised by naval authorities. But Lord Minto placed confidence in his intelligence officer's knowledge and judgment, and elected to take the risk. The result was the triumphant vindication of Raffles. The fleet, sailing from Malacca on June 11, 1811, reached Batavia early in August without a serious casualty of any kind; and the army, landing on the 4th of that month, occupied Batavia on the 9th, and on the 25th inflicted a signal defeat on the Dutch forces under General Janssen. The battle so completely broke the power of the Dutch that Lord Minto within six weeks was able to re-embark for India. Before leaving he marked his sense of Raffles's services by appointing him Lieutenant-Governor of the newly conquered territory. Raffles's administration of Java brought out his greatest qualities. Within a remarkably short time he had evolved order out of chaos and placed the dependency on the high road to affluent prosperity. When at the end of five years the time came for him to lay down the reins of office, he left the island with an overflowing treasury and a trade flourishing beyond precedent. Returning to England in 1816 with health somewhat impaired by his arduous work in the tropics, Raffles hoped for a tangible recognition of his brilliant services. But his success had excited jealousy, and there were not wanting detractors who called in question certain aspects of his administration. It is unnecessary for present purposes to go into those forgotten controversies. Suffice it to say that the attacks were so far successful that no better position could be found for Raffles than the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bencoolen, a centre whose obscurity had become more marked since the occupation of Pinang.

Raffles assumed the office which had been entrusted to him with the cheerful zeal which was characteristic of the man. But even his sanguine temperament was not proof against the gloomy influences which pervaded the place. An earthquake which had occurred just before he landed had done great damage to the station, and this disaster had accentuated the forlornness of the outlook. Raffles drew a vivid picture of the scene which confronted him in a letter written on April 7, 1818, a few days after landing. "This," he wrote, "is without exception the most wretched place I ever beheld... the roads are impassable, the highways in the town overrun with rank grass, the Government house a den of ravenous dogs and potbellies. The natives say that Bencoolen is now a Turai wali (dead land). In truth I could never have conceived anything half so bad. We will try and make it better, and if I am well supported from home the West Coast may yet be turned to account." The moral condition of the place was in keeping with its physical aspect. Public gambling and cock-fighting were not only practised under the eye of the chief authority, but publicly patronised by the Government. This laxity had long been the subject of much scandal and contamination of criminality. Murders were daily committed and robberies perpetrated which were never traced; profligacy and immorality obtruded themselves in every direction.

The truth is that Bencoolen at this time was decaying of its own rootlessness. Throughout its history it had been a scene of corruption, fraud, and official extravagance, and these qualities had honeycombed it to a point almost of complete destruction. A story familiar in the Straits illustrates aptly the traditions of the station. At one period there was a serious discrepancy—amounting to several thousand dollars—between the sum to the credit of the public account and the specie in hand. Naturally the authorities in Leadenhall Street demanded an explanation of this unpleasant circumstance. They were told that the blame was due to white ants, though it was left to conjecture whether the termites had demolished the money or simply the chest which contained it. The directors made no direct comment upon this statement, but a little later despatched to Bencoolen, unasked, a consignment of files. At a loss to know why these articles had been sent out, the Bencoolen officials sought an explanation. Then they were blandly told that they were to be used against the teeth of the white ants should the insects again prove troublesome. It is probable that this was a sort of Leadenhall Street Roland for a Bencoolen Oliver, for just previous to this incident the home authorities had made themselves ridiculous by solemnly enjoining the Bencoolen officials to encourage the cultivation of white pepper, that variety being most valuable. On that occasion it had been brought home to the dense Leadenhall Street mind that black and white pepper are from identical plants, the difference of colour only arising from the method of preparation, the latter being allowed to ripen on the vine, while the former is plucked when green. Mistakes of the character of this one, it appears, were not uncommon in the relations of the headquarters with Bencoolen. An almost identical incident is brought to light in one of Raffles's letters. After he had been some time at Bencoolen a ship was sent out to him with definite instructions that it should be loaded exclusively with pepper. Owing to its extreme lightness, pepper alone is an almost impossible cargo, and it was the practice to ship it with some heavy commodity. Acting on these principles, Raffles, in anticipation of the vessel's arrival, had accumulated a quantity of sugar for shipment. But in view of the peremptoriness of his orders he withdrew it, and the vessel eventually sailed with the small consignment of pepper which was possible having regard to the safety of the vessel.

Bencoolen from the beginning to the end of its existence as an English trading centre was but a costly white elephant to the East India Company. Raffles's opinion upon it was that "it was certainly the very worst selection that could have been made for a settlement. It is completely shut out of doors; the soil is, comparatively with the other Malay countries, infertile, and the only realising of it, as Raffles contemptuously put it, was "a few tons of pepper." In the view of the energetic young administrator the drawbacks of the place were accentuated by the facility with which the pepper trade was carried on by the Americans without any settlement of any kind. In a letter to Marsden, with whom he kept up an active correspondence, Raffles wrote under date April 28, 1818: "There have been no less than nineteen Americans at the northern ports this season, and they have taken away upwards of 60,000 pecks of pepper at nine dollars. It is quite ridiculous for us to be confined to this spot in order to secure the monopoly of 500 tons, while ten times that amount may be secured next door without any establishment at all."

The wonder is that, with practically no advantages to recommend it, and with its serious drawbacks, Bencoolen should so long have remained the Company's headquarters. The only reasonable explanation is that the directors held it as a counterpoise to the Dutch power in these waters. Dutch policy aimed at an absolute monopoly, and it was pursued with an arrogance and a greed which made it imperative on the guardians of British interests in these latitudes that it should be resisted with determination. Resisted it was, as the records show, through long years, but it cannot truly be said that in dissipating energies and substance at Bencoolen the Company adopted a sensible course. By their action, indeed, they postponed for an unnecessarily protracted period the settling of British power in the Straits in a position adequate to the great trade and the commanding political interests which Britain even at that period had in the East. But no doubt the consolidation of our position in India absorbed the energies and the resources of the Company in the eighteenth century, and prevented them from taking that wider view which was essential. That the authorities in India were not unmindful of the importance of extending British influence in the Straits is shown by the readiness with which, when the value of the position had been brought home to them by Light, they took the necessary steps to occupy Pinang in 1786. Still, the full lesson of statesmanship had yet to be taught them, as is indicated by the fact that within eight years of the hoisting of the British flag on Prince of Wales Island, as it was officially designated, its abandonment in favour of a station on the Andamans was seriously proposed. It remained for Raffles to teach that lesson. How his instruction was given and the results which flowed from it, are matters which must be dealt with in a separate section.
SINGAPORE.

CHAPTER I.

THE OCCUPATION AND THE FIGHT AGAINST DUTCH PRETENSIONS AND OFFICIAL JEALOUSY.

The retrocession of Malacca under the terms of the Treaty of Vienna was almost universally felt throughout the Straits to be a great blow to British political and commercial influence. Regarded at home as a mere pawn to be lightly sacrificed on the diplomatic chess-board, the settlement throughout the Eastern seas enjoyed a prestige second to that of hardly any other port east of Calcutta, and its loss to those on the spot appeared a disaster of the first magnitude. There was substantial reason for the alarm excited. The situation of the settlement in the very centre of the Straits gave its owners the practical command of the great highway to the Far East. It was the historic centre of power to which all Malaya had long been accustomed to look as the seat of European authority; it was a commercial emporium which for centuries had attracted to it the trade of these seas. But these were not the only considerations which tinged the minds of the British community in the Straits with apprehension when they thought over the surrender of the port, with all that it implied. From the Dutch settlements across the sea were wafted with every

man, the Governor of Pinang, to number twelve thousand men, including a considerable proportion of highly-trained European troops, the absolute domination of the Straits of Malacca and of the countries bordering upon that great waterway.

One of the first public notes of alarm at the ominous activity of the Dutch was sounded by the commercial men of Pinang. On June 8, 1818, the merchants of that place sent a memorial to Government inviting the attention of the Governor to the very considerable interest now carried on by British subjects in India "with the countries of Perak, Selangore, and Rihou in the Straits of Malacca, and the island of Singha, and Pontiana and other ports on the island of Borneo," and suggesting—in view of the transfer of Malacca and the probable re-adoption by the Dutch of their old exclusive policy, by which they would "endeavour to make such arrangements with, and to obtain such privileges from, the kings or chiefs of those countries as might preclude British subjects from the enjoyment of the present advantageous commerce they now carry on."—the expedition of the British Government endeavouring to make such amicable commercial treaties and alliances, with the kings and chiefs of these places as may effectually secure to British subjects the freedom of commerce with those countries, if not on more favourable terms, which, from the almost exclusive trade British subjects have carried on with them for these twenty years past, we should suppose might even be done at the conceded."

There is no evidence that any formal reply was ever made to this representation, but that it was not without fruit is shown by the subsequent action of the Government. They penned an earnest despatch to the Supreme Government, deploring the cession of the port and pointing out the serious effect the action taken was likely to have on British trade and prestige. Meanwhile Mr. Cracroft, Malay translator to the Government, was sent on a mission to Perak and Selangor, with instructions to conclude treaties if possible with the chiefs of those States. At the same time a despatch was forwarded to Major Farquhar, the British Resident at Malacca, directing him to conduct a similar mission to Riau, Lingen, Pontiana, and Siack. Mr. Cracroft, after a comparatively brief absence, returned with treaties executed by both the chiefs to whom he was accredited. Major Farquhar's mission proved a far more difficult one. Embarking at Malacca on July 19th, he made Pontiana his first objective, as he had heard of the despatch of a Dutch expedition from Batavia to the same place, and was anxious to anticipate it if possible. He, however, brought up off Riau for the purpose of delivering letters, announcing his mission, to the Raja Muda, the ruling authority of the place, and to the Sultan of Lingen, who could be reached from that quarter. After a tedious passage he arrived at Pontiana on August 3rd, but, to his mortification, found that the Dutch had anticipated him and had occupied the place. Dissembling his feelings as best he

ship rumours of preparations which were being made for the new régime which the reoccupation of Malacca was to usher in. An imposing military force, estimated by Colonel Banner-

THE ROADS, BATAVIA.

(From Von de Veld's "Gezigtenuit Nederlands Indië.")

CHANTREY'S BUST OF SIR STAMFORD RAFFLES.

(From the "Memoir of Sir T. Stamford Raffles.")

had been concentrated in Netherland India. With it was a powerful naval squadron, well manned and equipped. These and other circumstances which were brought to light indicated that the reoccupation of Malacca was to be the signal for a fresh effort on the part of the Dutch to secure that end for which they had been struggling for two centuries—the
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA 21

could, he after a brief interval weighed anchor and directed his course to Lingen. Here he was told by the politi agency was vested in the Raja Musa of Riau, to whom application for the treaty must be made. Acting on the suggestion, Farquhar went to Riau, and concluded what he then regarded as a very satisfactory arrangement. Subsequently he visited Bukit Bala and Bandoeng, and concluded a like treaty there on August 31st. Returning to Malacca, Farquhar forwarded the treaties to Pinang with a covering despatch of much interest in the light of subsequent events. In this communication the writer expressed his desire to put before the Governor of Pinang some considerations relative to the situation created by the retrocession to the Dutch of Malacca, "the Key of the Straits"—an event which, in his view, could not be too much deplored. The provident measures adopted of concluding alliances with native States would, he said, prove of much ultimate benefit in preserving an open and free trade. But however strong might be the attachment of the native chiefs to the British, and however much they might desire to preserve the terms of the treaties inviolate, it would be quite impossible for them to do so unless strenuously supported and protected by our influence and authority. In the circumstances it seemed to him that "the most feasible, and indeed almost only, method to counteract the evils which at present threaten to annihilate all free trade to the Eastern Archipelago would be by the formation of a new settlement to the eastward of Malacca." "From the observations I have been able to make on my late voyage, as well as from former experience, there is," Farquhar continued, "no place which holds out so many advantages in every way as do the Karimun Islands, which are so situate as to be a complete key to the Straits of Sincapore, Dryon, and Soban, an advantage which no other place in the Straits of Malacca possesses, as all trade, whether coming from the eastward or westward, must necessarily pass through one or other of the above straits. A British settlement, therefore, on the Karimus, however small at first, would, I am convinced, very soon become a port of great consequence, and in not only defray its own expenses, but yield in time an overplus revenue to Government." The Karimus, Farquhar went on to say, were uninhabited, but as they were attached to the dominions of the Sultan of Johore, he suggested that means should be adopted of obtaining a regular transfer of the islands from that potentate.

In forwarding Farquhar's despatches to the Governor-General, Colonel Bannerman drew attention in serious terms to the menace of the Dutch policy in regard to native States. He pointed out that they had twelve thousand troops in their possessions, and that the presence of this force between India and China involved a distinct danger to British interests.

Before he had received any intimation as to the views held by Colonel Bannerman, Farquhar, deeming that the matter was one of urgency, took upon himself the responsibility of writing to the Raja Musa of Riau, asking him if he were willing to forward the transfer of the Karimun Islands to the British. The Raja replied cautiously that, though he had no objection to the British examining the islands, he did not deem himself in a position to come to any definitive arrangement. In transmitting this information to Colonel Bannerman, Farquhar reasserted the desirability of acquiring the Karimus, and stated that he thought a small force—"two companies of native infantry, with a proportion of artillery assisted by a few hundred convicts"—would be sufficient to garrison it.

While the arrangements for the transfer of Malacca were in progress a claim was raised by the Dutch to the suzerainty of Riau and Perak on the ground that they were dependencies of Malacca, and reverted to them with that settlement. In spite of the fact that immediately after the capture of Malacca in 1795 the Sultan of Riau was restored to the full enjoyment of his sovereign rights by the British, Farquhar, writing from Malacca to Bannerman on the 22nd of October, stated that he had been questioned by the Dutch Commissioners as to the intentions of his Government in regard to the formation of a settlement to the eastward of Malacca, and had informed them officially that friendly communications had already been made with the constituted authorities of Lingen and Riau, and their permission obtained for examining and surveying the Karimun and neighbouring islands, and also a general concurrence in the views of his Government.

Farquhar enclosed a communication from the Dutch Commissioners raising definitely the question of the vassalage of the States of Lingen, Riau, etc., arising out of old treaties said to have been formed with those States thirty or forty years previously. In the letter from the Dutch was intimated in the most explicit terms a firm determination on the part of their Government not to permit the Raja of Johore, Pahang, etc., to cede to the British the smallest portion of his hereditary possessions.

In a despatch dated November 21, 1818, Bannerman forwarded Farquhar's letter and the Dutch Commissioners' communication to the Governor-General with the remark, "No sanction or authority has been given to Major Farquhar to negotiate for the Karimun Islands, or even to discuss the question with the Dutch authorities." "My letters to the Governor-General," Bannerman added, "exemplify to his Excellency in Council rather the prevalence of an opinion adverse to their occupation than any sanction to the discussion of the question itself." The communication proceeded: "It appears to the Governor in Council that the late discussions have had a tendency to stamp the Karimun Islands with a degree of importance which their value cannot sanction; but at the same time they have led to a more complete development of the views of general aggregate with which the Netherlands Government are actuated, and it may be feared that the pretensions of that Power to the undivided sovereignty in the Eastern seas, or the tenacity with which they are prepared to support their claims, will be productive of considerable disadvantage to British interests unless counteracted by timely arrangements."

Such was the position of events at the end of
November as far as Pinang was concerned. But in the interval between the first raising of the question and the transmission of Colonel Rannerman’s warning despatch to the Governor-General there had been important developments in another quarter.

In the early days of his exile at Bencoolen, brooding over the situation in which the Treaty of Vienna had placed British power in the Straits, Raffles was quick to see that the time had come for a new departure in policy if British power was to hold its own in this part of the globe. His earliest correspondence from the settlement indicates his anxiety on the point. On 30 April 1818, and despatched a week or two after his arrival, he wrote: “The Dutch possess the only passes through which ships must sail into this archipelago, the Straits of Sunda and of Malacca; and the British have not now an inch of ground to stand upon between the Cape of Good Hope and China, nor a single friendly port at which they can water or obtain refreshments. It is indispensable that some regular and accredited authority on the part of the British Government should exist in the archipelago, to declare and maintain the British rights, whatever they are, to receive appeals, and to exercise such wholesome control as may be necessary to the preservation of British honour and character. At present the authority of the Government of Prince of Wales Island extends no further than Malacca, and the Dutch would willingly confine that of Bencoolen to the almost inaccessible and rocky shores of the West Coast of Sumatra. To effect these objects contemplated some convenient station within the archipelago is necessary; both Bencoolen and Prince of Wales Island are too far removed, and unless we succeed in obtaining a position in the Straits of Sunda, we have no alternative but to fix it in the most advantageous position we can find within the archipelago; this would be somewhere north of the mouth of the Bintang, or Bintan, as it is now called, an island in the Riau Straits, about 300 miles from Singapore at the nearest point. The reference shows that Raffles had a clear conception of the importance of a good strategic as well as a favourable trading position, and knew exactly where this was to be found. There is reason to think that he actually had Singapore in his mind even at this early period. His correspondence suggests that his thoughts had long been cast in that direction, and other circumstances make it inherently probable that a definite scheme for establishing a British settlement there was actually formed by him before the arrival of Bintang. The point is not now material. Even assuming that Raffles had not the individed honour of discovering, or, more properly, rediscovering, Singapore, it was beyond all reasonable question he who gave the proposal for the occupation of the point would have the priority of the occupation of the point, living force, and ensured its success by a series of well-planned and cleverly executed measures, followed by the initiation of an administrative policy marked by statesmanlike judgment.

Once having got into his mind the idea of the necessity of counteracting Dutch influence by the establishment of a new settlement, Raffles, with characteristic energy, proceeded to enlist the support of the authorities. Within a few months of his landing at Bencoolen he was on his way to India to lay his plans before the Supreme Government. At Calcutta he had several conferences with the Marquess of Hastings, the then Governor-General, and put before him the case for the adoption of a forward policy. He advocated, his biographer says, no ambitious scheme. “In his own words, he neither wanted people nor territory; all he asked was permission to anchor a line-of-battle ship and hoist the English flag at the mouth either of the Straits of Malacca or of Sunda, by which means the trade of England would be secured and the monopoly of the Dutch broken.” As a result of the discussions it was decided to concede to the Dutch their pretensions in Sumatra, to leave to them the to be completely within our power, but the Dutch may be beforehand with us at Rio. They took possession of Pontiano and Malacca in July and August last, and have been bad politicians if they have so long left Rio open to us.” In a letter penned twelve days later to the Duchess of Somerset, Raffles says: “I have at last succeeded in making the authorities in Bengal sensible of their sinfulness in allowing the Dutch to exclude us from the Eastern seas, but I fear it is now too late to retrieve what we have lost. I have full powers to do all that we can; and if anything is to be done I think we must assure our grace that it shall be done and done with dispatch. The interval in the time between these two letters information had reached Calcutta of the Dutch occupation of Rio (Rial). Whether or not, Raffles, it is clear from a later letter addressed to Marsden from “off the Sandheads” on December 12, 1818, had by the time he started on his homeward voyage turned his thoughts from Riau to the direction of Singapore. We are now,” he writes, “on our way to the eastward in the hope of doing something, but I much fear that the Dutch have hardly left us an inch of ground to stand upon. My attention is principally turned to Johore, and you must not be surprised if my next letter to you is dated from the coast of Sumatra. This letter is important as an indication that Raffles’s designs were tending towards Singapore before he left Calcutta and had had an opportunity of consulting Major Farquhar.

On arrival at Pinang, Raffles found a very discouraging situation. He was met with the probably not unexpected orders that the Dutch had compelled the Rajahs of Riau and Lingen to admit their troops into the former settlement and to permit their colours to fly at Lingen, Pahang, and Johore; while an additional example of their aggressiveness was supplied by the arrest of the Sultan of Palembang and the occupation of his capital with a thousand troops by several hundred Europeans in a high state of discipline. In transmitting information of these acts to the Governor-General, Colonel Rannerman had penned a despatch in terms which were no doubt communicated to Sir Stamford Raffles. In this document the Governor of Pinang observed that he thought that the Dutch action “must prove to the Supreme Government the full nature of those encroachments and monopolies to which these acts will naturally tend. The Governor in Council was satisfied that nothing less than the uncontrolled and absolute possession of the Eastern trade would satisfy the rapacious policy of the Dutch Government. The despatch closed with the important point of that the Dutch had now complete control of every port eastward of Pinang, and had besides every means, in a very superior military and naval armament, to frustrate any attempt of the British Government “to negotiate even a common commercial alliance with any one of the States in the Eastern seas.” Finally the despatch dismally remarked, “To effect therefore among them any political arrangements as a counterpart to the influence of that nation, it is needless to disguise, is now beyond the power of the British Government in India.” These concluding words supply a keynote to

FRANCIS RAWDON, FIRST MARQUESS OF HASTINGS.

(From an engraving by Clint in the British Museum.)

exclusive command of the Straits of Sunda, and “to limit interference to measures of precaution by securing a free trade with the archipelago and China through the Straits of Malacca.” In order to effect this and at the same time to protect the political and commercial interests in the Eastern seas generally, it was deemed essential that some central station should be occupied to the south of Malacca. Finally, it was agreed that Raffles should be the agent of the Governor-General to carry out the policy decided upon, and Major Farquhar was directed by the Calcutta Government to postpone his departure and join Raffles in his mission. Raffles, writing to Marsden under date November 14, 1818, himself sums up the results of his mission in this way: “I have now to inform you that it is determined to keep the command of the Straits of Malacca by establishments at Achin and Rio, and that I leave Calcutta in a fortnight as the agent to effect this important object. Achin I conceive

1 Memoir of Sir T. S. Raffles, p. 307.

2 Ibid., p. 370.
the attitude of Colonel Bannerman. He had clearly been overwhelmingly impressed with Dutch activity and the resolution with which they pursued their aims, and thought that the position was beyond retrieval. He was not a strong officer. His dispatches show him to have been an opinionated and somewhat irascible man, intolerant of criticism, and, though genial in his social relations, endowed with more than a common share of official arrogance. Mingled with these qualities was a constitutional timidity which prevented him from taking any course which involved risk or additional responsibility. He was, in fine, the very worst type of administrator to deal with a crisis such as that which had arisen in the Straits. In receiving Raffles and communicating his views on the complicated situation that had developed, he seems to have given full rein to his pessimism. He was, indeed, so entirely convinced that the position was irretrievable that he had apparently made up his mind to thwart Raffles's mission by every means in his power. It is doing no injustice to him to say that wedded to a sincere belief in the futility of further action was a feeling of soreness that this important undertaking had been launched without reference to him and placed under the charge of an official who held a less exalted position than himself. In the recorded correspondence between himself and Raffles we find him at the very outset taking up a position of almost violent hostility and obstructiveness. The controversy was opened by a letter addressed by Bannerman to Raffles immediately after the latter's arrival, detailing the acts of Dutch aggressiveness and affirming the undesirability of further prosecuting the mission in the circumstances. To this Raffles replied on January 1, 1819, saying that although Riau was prooccupied, "the island of Singapore and the districts of Old Johore and the Straits of Induseergee on Sumatra offer eligible points for establishing the required settlement, and declaring his inclination to the policy of proceeding at once to the eastward with a respectable and efficient force. Bannerman, in answer to this communication, wrote on the 3rd of January protesting against Raffles's proposed action and refusing to grant the demand which apparently had been made for a force of 500 men to assist him in carrying out his designs. In taking up this strong line Bannerman does not appear to have carried his entire Council with him. One member—Mr. Erskine—expressed his dissent and drew upon himself in consequence the wrath of his chief, who in a fury minute taunted him with vacillation on the ground that he had at the outset been in agreement with his colleagues as to the unreasonableness of the prosecution of the mission. Raffles was not the man to be readily thwarted, and we find him on the 4th of January directing a pointed inquiry to Bannerman as to whether he positively declined to aid him. Thus brought to bay, the Governor found it expedient to temporise. He wrote saying that he was willing to give military aid, but that he did so only on Raffles's statement that he had authority from the Governor-General apart from the written instructions, the terms of which were relied upon by Bannerman as justifying the attitude he had assumed. The bitter, unreasonable spirit which Raffles encountered produced upon him a natural feeling of depression. "God only knows," he wrote to Marsden on January 16, 1819, "where next you may hear from me, but as you will be happy to learn of the progress of my mission, I will not lose the present opportunity of informing you how I go on. Whether anything is to be done to the eastward or not is yet very uncertain. By neglecting to occupy the place we lost Rhio, and shall have difficulty in establishing ourselves elsewhere, but I shall certainly attempt it. At Achin the difficulties I shall have to surmount in the performance of my duty will be great and the annoyance severe, but I shall persevere steadily in what I conceive to be my duty." In this letter to Marsden ignorance is professed by Raffles as to his destination, but that he had a definite idea in his mind appears from a letter he wrote the same day to Mr. Adam, the Secretary to the Supreme Government. In this he said: "The island of Singapore, independently of the straits and harbour of Johore, which it both forms and commands, has, on its southern shores, and by means of the several small islands which lie off it, excellent anchorage and smaller harbours, and seems in every
islands which lie off this part of the coast. The larger harbour of Johore, he added, "is declared by professional men whom I have consulted, and by every Eastern trader of experience to whom I have been able to refer, to be capacious and easily defensible, and the British flag once hoisted, there would be no want of supplies to meet the immediate necessities of our establishment."

Three days after the despatch of this letter Raffles sailed on his eventful mission. Major Farquhar, who from the records appears to have been at Pinang at the time, was completely won over to his views—"seduced" is the phrase which Colonel Bannerman used later—and accompanied him. It says much for the strained character of the relations which existed at the moment between Raffles and the Pinang Government that in quitting the harbour the former neglected to notify his departure. Slipping their anchors, the four vessels of his little fleet left at night-time without a word from Raffles to the Government. His mission being a secret one of the highest importance, he probably felt indisposed to supply more information about his movements than was absolutely necessary to the hostile officialdom of Pinang. However that may be, the omission to give notice of sailing appears to have been part of a deliberate policy, for when some weeks later one of Raffles's vessels had again to leave port, its commander departed without the customary formality, with the result that Colonel Bannerman penned a flaming despatch to the Governor-General invoking vengeance on the culprit.

The mystery in which Raffles's intentions and movements were, we may assume, purposely enshrouded at this period has resulted in the survival of a considerable amount of doubt as to the actual course of events. It has even been questioned whether he was actually present at Singapore when the British flag was hoisted for the first time. The records, however, are absolutely conclusive on this point. Indeed, there is so much direct evidence on this as well as on other aspects of the occupation that it is remarkable there should have been any room for controversy as to the leading part which Raffles played in the transaction.

When Raffles sailed from Pinang, it is probable that he had no fixed design in regard to any place. He knew generally what he wanted and he was determined to leave no stone unturned to accomplish his end. But beyond a leaning towards Singapore as in his view the best centre, he had, it would seem from the nature of his movements, an open mind on the question of the exact location of the new settlement. In the archives at the India Office there exists a memorandum by Mr. Benjamin S. Jones, who was at the time senior clerk at the Board of Control, detailing the circumstances which led up to the occupation of Singapore. This document is dated July 20, 1819, and it was probably prepared with a view to the discussion then proceeding with the Dutch as to the legality of the occupation. As a statement of the official views held at the time in regard to Raffles's action it is of peculiar interest, and it may be examined before we come to deal with the movements of the mission. At the outset there is given this explanation of the causes which led to its despatch:

"The Governor-General in Council, deeming it expedient to secure the command of the Straits of Malacca in order to keep open a channel for British commerce, apparently endangered by the schemes of exclusive policy pursued by the Netherlands Government, determined to despatch Sir T. S. Raffles for the purpose of improving the footing obtained at Rhio. In his instructions dated December 5, 1818, it was observed that if the Dutch had previously occupied Rhio it might be expedient to endeavour to establish a connection with the Sultan of Johore; but as so little was known respecting that chief, Sir T. S. Raffles was informed that it would be incumbent upon us to act with caution and circumspection before we entered into any engagements with him. It was further observed that there was some
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

reason to think that the Dutch would claim authority over the State of Johore by virtue of some old engagements, and though it was possible that the pretension might be successfully combated, it would not be consistent with the policy and views of the Governor-General in Council to raise a question of this sort with the Netherlandish authorities. But in the event of his procuring satisfactory information concerning Johore, Sir T. S. Raflies was instructed, on the supposition of Rho being preoccupied by the Dutch, to open a negotiation with the chief of Johore on a similar basis to that at Rho.

Then follows a relation of the circumstances under which Singapore was selected by Raflies.

"In order to avoid collision with the Dutch authorities, Sir T. S. Raflies determined to avoid Rho, but to endeavour to establish a footing on some more unoccupied territory in which we might find a port and accommodation for our troops, and where the British flag might be displayed pending a reference to the authorities in Europe. With this view he proceeded to Singapore. On his arrival off the town a deputation came on board with the compliments and congratulations of the chief native authorities and the commercial centre of the object of the visit. Having inquired whether there was any Dutch settlement and flag at Singapore and at Johore, and whether the Dutch had by any means attempted to exercise an influence or authority over the ports, the deputation requested, as R hoop Old Johore, had long been deserted; that the Dutch authority over Singapore and all the adjacent islands (excepting those of Lening and Rhio) then resided at the ancient capital of Singapore, where no attempts had yet been made to establish the Dutch power and where no Dutch flag would be received."

Such were the bald facts of the occupation as officially related about eighteen months after the hoisting of the British flag in the ancient Malay capital. The account may be supplemented with evidence from other quarters. Nothing is said in Mr. Jones's memorandum about visits paid by Dutch vessels to any other spot than Singapore, but it is familiar knowledge that before proceeding to Singapore Raflies put in at the Karimun Islands and at Slack. His reasons for visiting these places may be conjectured from the recital given of the events which preceded his arrival at Pinang. Major Farquhar, as we have seen, was strongly in favour of the establishment of a port on the Karimun Islands—so strongly, indeed, that he had gone beyond his official province to prepare the way for an occupation, if such were Government-decided by the higher authorities. What would be more natural in the circumstances than that he should induce Raflies at the very earliest moment to visit the spot which had struck him on his voyage to Pontiana as being so peculiarly adapted to the purposes of the new settlement? Whatever the underlying motive, interest in the evidence of the circumstances that the Karimunns were visited, and that Raflies found there ample and speedy proof that the port was entirely unsuitable. The facts are set forth in a report dated January 3, 1819, presented to the Pinang Government by Captain Ross, of the East India Company's Marine. This functionary, it appears, had on the 19th of January proceeded to the Karimun Islands to carry out a survey in accordance with official instructions, prompted, doubtless, by Major Farquhar's advocacy of the port. His report was entirely unfavourable to the selection of the islands.

"The Small Karimun," he wrote, "lies abruptly from the water all round, and does not afford any situation for a settlement on it. The Great Karimun on the part nearest to the small one is also very steep, and from thence to the southward forms a deep bay, where the land is principally low and damp, with much mangrove along the shore, and three fathoms water at two and a half miles off. The channel between the two Karimans has deep water, fourteen and fifteen fathoms, in it, but it is too narrow to be used as a harbour."

Sir Stamford Raflies was furnished with Captain Ross's opinion immediately on his arrival, and he at once resolved to turn his attention to Singapore. Recognising the value of expert marine opinion, he took Captain Ross with him across the Straits. The results of the survey which that officer made were embodied in a report, which may be given as indicating the general and official opinion associated with the earliest days of the life of the settlement.

Captain Ross wrote:

"Singapore Harbour, situate four miles to the NNE. of St. John's Island (in what is commonly called Singapore Strait), will afford a safe anchorage to ships in all seasons, and being close to the island, the approach to it has been rendered easy by day or night. Its position is also favourable for commanding the navigation of the strait, the track which the ships pursue being distant about five miles; and it may be expected from its proximity to the Malayan islands and the China Sea that in a short time numerous vessels would resort to it for commercial purposes.

"At the anchorage ships are sheltered from ENE. round to north and west as far as SSW. by the south point of Johore, Singapore, and many smaller islands extending to St. John's, and round to the north point of Batangas (bearing ESE.) by the numerous islands forming the southern side of Singaporea Strait. The bottom, to within a few yards of shore, is soft mud and holds well.

"The town of Singapore, on the island of the same name, stands on a point of land near the western part of a bay, and is easily distinguished by the pleasant-looking hill that is partly cleared of trees, and between the point on which the town is situate and the western one of the bay there is a creek in which the native vessels anchor close to the shore, so it might be found useful to European vessels of easy draft to refit in. On the eastern side of the bay, opposite to the town, there is a deep inlet lined by mangroves, which would also be a good anchorage for native boats; and about north from the low sandy point of the bay there is a village inhabited by fishermen, and a short way to the eastward there is a passage through the mangroves leading to a fresh water river.

"The coast to the eastward of the town of bay is one continued sandy beach, and half-mile to the eastward of the eastern point of the bay, or two and a half from the town, there is a point where the depth of water is six or seven fathoms at three or four hundred yards from the shore, and at eight hundred yards a small bank with about three fathoms at low water.

"The point offers a favourable position for batteries to defend ships that may in time of war anchor near to it."

"The tides during the monsoon are irregular at two or three miles off shore, but close in other wise. The rise and fall will be about 10 and 12 feet, and it will be high water on full and change at eight and a half hours. The latitude of the town is about 1° 15' North, and variation of the needle observed on the low eastern point of the bay is 2° 9 East.""

Nothing hardly could have been more satisfactory than this opinion by a capable naval officer upon the maritime aspects of Singapore. With it in Raflies's possession, he had no difficulty in coming to a decision. His experienced eye took in the splendid possibilities which the island offered for the purposes in hand. A practically uninhabited island with a fine roadstead, it could, with a minimum of difficulty and expense, be made into an entrepot and a permanent military and trading position in the narrowest part of the Straits of Malacca. He took it as a political value beyond estimate. Impressed with these features of the situation, and swayed also, we may reasonably assume, by the classical traditions of the spot, Raflies on January 25, 1819, ten days after quitting Penang, hoisted the British flag on the island. The natural jubilation he felt at the accomplishment of his mission found vent in a letter to Marsden dated three days later. In this he wrote: "Here I am at Singapore, true to my word, and in the enjoyment of all the pleasure which a footing on so classic ground must inspire. The lines of the old city and of its defences are still to be traced, and within its ramparts the British Union waves unmolested. In the midst of his self-gratulation Raflies was not unmindful of the dangers which still bordered his plans from the proximity of his rival, the British and the Dutch."

"He made a special appeal to Marsden for support on behalf of his most recent attempt to extend British influence. "Most certainly," he wrote, "the Dutch never had a factory in the island of Singapore; and it does not appear to me that their recent arrangements with a subordinate authority at Rhio can or ought to interfere with our permanent establishment here. I have, however, a violent opposition to surmount on the part of the Dutch Government."

Raflies no doubt had in his mind when he penned this appeal the possible effects of Dutch strenuousness combined with Pinang hostility on the weak and vacillating mind (as it appeared markedly at this time) of the Indian Government and the India Board. His position, however, had been greatly strengthened by arrangements which, after landing on the island, he had found it possible to make with the Dato' Temenggung of Johore, 1


2. In Raflies's "Memoir," under the date of the hoisting of the flag is given as the 29th of February, but this is an obvious blunder.
a high state official with great ill-defined powers, which placed him in a position almost of equality with the Sultan. This individual was resident on the island at the time of the visit of the mission, and he sought an interview with Raffles, in order to offer the British envoy his assurance in the execution of his designs. It is probable that the offer was prompted more by hatred of the Dutch than love of the British. But Raffles was in no mood to examine too closely into the motives which dictated the Temenggong's action. Realising the value of his support, he concluded with him, on January 30th, a provisional understanding for the regularising of the occupation of the island. The Temenggong appears to have represented himself as the possessor of special rights, but Raffles deemed it expedient to secure the confirmation of the grant at the hands of the Sultan. It happened that at this time the ruling chief was Sultan Abdul Rahman, a man who was supported by the Dutch and was completely under their influence. No arrangement was possible with him, and Raffles must have known as much from the very first. But his fertile intellect speedily found a way out of the difficulty. The British envoy gathered from the Temenggong, and possibly was aware of the fact previously, that Abdul Rahman was the younger of two sons of the previous Sultan, and as his brother was living he was consequentially a usurper. Without loss of time Raffles, through the Temenggong, sent to Riau for the elder brother, Tunha Husein, and on the latter's arrival in Singapore duly proclaimed him Sultan of Johore. Afterwards a formal treaty, dated February 6, 1819, was drawn up in which the new Sultan joined with the Temenggong in granting the British the right to settle on the island. This treaty was strengthened by three further agreements, one dated June 26, 1819, another June, 1823, and the third, November 19, 1824. But before the final treaty was concluded, and Raffles's dream of British domination at this point was realised, many a battle against prejudice and stupidity had to be fought.

In a despatch dated February 13, 1819, reporting to the Supreme Government the occupation of the island, Raffles gave a masterly summary of its features and advantages. "Our station at Singapore," he wrote, "may be considered as an effectual check to the rapid march of the Dutch in the Eastern Archipelago, and whether we may have the power hereafter of extending our stations or be compelled to confine ourselves to this factory, the spell is broken, and one independent port under our flag may be sufficient to prevent the recurrence of the system of exclusive monopoly which the Dutch once exercised in these seas and would willingly re-establish. Situated at the extremity of the peninsula, all vessels to and from China via Malacca are obliged to pass within five miles of our headquarters, and generally pass withi that half a mile of St. John's, a dependent islet forming the western point of the bay, in which I have directed a small post to be fixed, and from whence every ship can be boarded if necessary, the water being smooth at all seasons. The run between these islands and the Carimons, which are in sight from it, can be effected in a few hours, and crosses the route which all vessels from the Netherlands must necessarily pursue when bound towards Batavia and the Eastern islands. "As a port for the refreshment and retentment of our shipping, and particularly for that portion of it engaged in the China trade, it is only requisite for me to refer to the able survey and report of Captain Ross, and to add to it that excellent water in convenient situations for the supply of ships is to be found in several places, and that the industrious Chinese are already established in the interior and may soon be expected to supply vegetables, &c., equal to the demand. The port is plentifully supplied with fish and turtle, which are said to be more abundant here than in any part of the archipelago. Rice, salt, and other necessaries are always procurable from Siam, the granary of the Malay tribes in this quarter. Timber abounds in the island and its vicinity; a large part of the population are already engaged in building boats and vessels, and the Chinese, of whom some are already engaged in smelting the ore brought from the tin mines on the neighbouring islands, and others employed as cultivators and artificers, may soon be expected to increase in a number proportionate to the wants and interests of the settlement. . . .

"A measure of the nature of that which we have adopted was in some degree necessary to evince to the varied and enterprising popula-

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**THE JOHORE RIVER.**

(From "Skizzen aus Singapur und Džohor.")
tion of these islands that our commercial and political views in this quarter had not entirely sunk under the vaunted power and encroachment of the Dutch, and to prove to them that we were determined to make a stand against it. By maintaining our right to a free commerce with the Malay States and inspiring them with a confidence in the stability of it, we may contemplate its advancement to a much greater extent than has hitherto been enjoyed. Independently of our commerce with the tribes of the archipelago, Singapore may be considered as the principal entrepôt to which the native traders of Sumatra, Java, Champa, Cochin China, and China will annually resort. It is to the Straits that their merchants are always bound in the first instance, and if on their arrival they can find a market for their goods and the means of supplying their wants, they will have no possible inducement to proceed to the more distant, unhealthy, and expensive port of Batavia. Siam, which is the granary of the countries north of the Equator, is rapidly extending her native commerce, nearly the whole of which may be expected to centre at Singapore. The passage from China has been made in less than six days, and that number is all that is required by the favourable monsoon for the passage from Singapore to Batavia, Pinang, or Achin, while two days are sufficient for a voyage to Borneo."

Singapore at the time of the British occupation was a mere equal fishing village, backed by a wild, unformed country, the home of the tiger and other beasts of prey. But it was a place with a history. Six centuries before it had been the Constantinople of these Eastern seas, the seat of Malay learning and commerce, the focus of the commerce of two oceans and of part of two continents. In the section of the work treating of the Federated Malay States a lengthy sketch is given of the rise of the Malay power, and it is only necessary here to deal very briefly with the subject. The most widely accepted version of the foundation of Singapore is that contained in the "Sejara Malaya," or "Malay Annals," a book traced back to a date in the early seventeenth century from a Malay manuscript. The story here set forth brings into prominence a line of Malay kings whose ancestry is traced back by the record to Alexander the Great. The first of the line, Raja Bachitram Shah (afterwards known as Sang Sapurba), settled originally in Palembung Sumatra, where he married a daughter of the local prince. He had a son, Sang Nila Utama, who was domiciled in Bentan, and who, like his father, formed a connection by marriage with the reigning dynasty. Finding Bentan too circumscribed for his energies, Sang Nila, in 1160, crossed the channel to Singapore and laid the foundations of what subsequently became known as the Lion City. Concerning this name Sir FrankSWettenham, the historian of the Malays, writes: "Singa is Sanscrit for a lion and Pura for a city, and the fact that there are no lions in that neighboorhood, as far as I can disprove the statement that Sang Nila Utama saw in 1160, or thereabouts, an animal which he called by that name—an animal more particularly described by the annalist as very swift and beautiful, its body bright red, its head jet black, its breast white, in size rather larger than a le-gato.' That was the lion of Singapura, and whatever else is doubtful the name is a fact; it remains to this day, and there is no reason why the descendant of Alexander should not have seen something which suggested a creature unknown either to the Malay forest or the Malay language. It is even stated, on the same authority, that Singapura had an earlier name, Tamassak, which is explained by some to mean 'a place of festivities.' But that word, so interpreted, is not Malay, though it has been adopted and applied to other places which suggest festivities far less than this small tropical island may have done, even so early as the year 1160. It is obvious that the name Singapura was not given to the island by Malays, but by colonists from India, and if there were an earlier name, Tamassak or Tamasha, that also would be of Indian origin. The fact proves that the name Singapura dates from a very early period, and strongly supports the theory that the Malays of our time are connected with a people who emigrated from Southern India to Sumatra and Java, and thence found their way to the Malay Peninsula."

Under Sang Nila's rule Singapore grew and flourished, and when he died, in 1208, he left it a place of considerable importance. His successors strengthened its position until it attained to a degree of prestige and importance without parallel in the history of any city in the East. Its prosperity appears to have been its ruin, for it attracted the jealous notice of a Javanese prince, the Raja of Majapahit, and that individual formed a design to conquer the city. He was beaten off on the first attempt, but a second expedition despatched in 1377 achieved its object through the treachery of a high official. The inhabitants were put to the sword by the conquerors, and those of them who managed to escape ultimately settled in Malacca, where they founded a new city. After this Singapore declined in power, until it finally flickered out in the racial feuds which preceded the early European advent.

Raffles remained only a short time at Singapore after the occupation. His mission to Achin, which was associated with the succession to the throne, brooked no delay. Moreover, he doubtless felt that, as far as the local situation was concerned, he was quite safe in leaving British interests in the capable hands of Major Farquhar. That Raffles appreciated to the fullest extent the value of the new settlement he had established is shown by his correspondence at this period. In a letter to the Duchess of Somerset from Pinang, whither he had returned to take up the threads of his new mission, he wrote under date February 22, 1810, describing the position of Singapore. "This," he said, "is the ancient maritime capital of the Malays, and within the walls of these fortifications raised not less than six centuries ago. I have planted the British flag, where, I trust, it will long triumphantly wave." On June 10th, when he had returned to Singapore after the completion of his work in Achin, he wrote to Colonel Addenbrooke, the equerry to Princess Charlotte, explaining in a communication of considerable length the political aspects of the occupation. "You will," he said, "probably have to consult the map in order to ascertain from what part of the world this letter is dated. I shall say nothing of the importance which I attach to the permanence of the position I have taken up at Singapore; it is a child of my own. But for my Malay studies I should hardly have known that such a place existed; not only the European but the Indian world was ignorant of it. I am sure you will wish me success; and I will therefore only add that my plans are confirmed at home, it is my intention to make this my principal residence, and to devote the remaining years of my stay in the East to the advancement of a colony which, in every way in which it can be viewed, bids fair to be one of the most important, and at the same time one of the least troublesome and expensive, which we possess. Our object is not territory, but trade; a great commercial emporium and a fulcrum whence we may extend our influence politically as circumstances may hereafter require. By taking immediate possession we put a check to the Dutch expansion, and at the same time revive the drooping confidence of our allies and friends. One free port in these seas must eventually destroy the spell of Dutch monopoly, and what Malia is in the West, that may Singapore be in the East."

These and other letters we have quoted, interesting in themselves as reflections of the mind of Raffles at this eventful period, are of special value from the light they throw on the controversy which from time to time has arisen as to Raffles's title to be regarded as the founder of Singapore. From beginning to end there is no sort of suggestion that the scheme, as finally carried out, was not Raffles's own. On the contrary, there is direct evidence that he acted independently, first in the statement of Lady Raffles that the plan was in his mind before he left England, and, second, in his letters written from Singapore, in which he specifically indicates Singapore as the possible goal of his mission.

Sir FrankSWettenham very fairly states the case in favour of Raffles in the chapter in his work in which he deals with the early history of Singapore. "It is more than probable," he says, "that Raffles, by good luck and without assistance from others, selected Singapore as the site of his avowedly anti-Dutch pro-British station. The idea of such a port was Raffles's own; for it is probable that his instructions were drafted on information supplied by himself, and in that case it is noticeable that Rhio and Johore are indicated as likely places and not Singapore; he went south with the express object of carrying out his favourite scheme before his masters would have time to change their minds, or his rivals to anticipate his design. Colonel Farquhar was only too happy to help.

Colonel Farquhar was only too happy to help.

The actual occupation of Singapore was only the beginning of Raffles's work. Obviously as


"British Malaya," p. 70.
the advantages of the situation were to those
who knew the Straits, and palpable as was the
necessity of strengthening British influence in
these seas if it was not entirely to be wiped
out, there continued a resolute opposition to
the scheme on the part of the Pinang author-
ities. The hostility of these narrow-minded
bureaucrats went to lengths which seem per-
factly incredible in these days. Immediately
on receipt of the news of the occupation, on
February 14, 1819, Bannerman sat down and
indited a minute which, with perfect frankness,
revealed the jealous sentiments which animated
the writer. He wrote: The time is now
coming for removing all these undue delinquen-
cies, as the occupation by the Dutch of Java, Banca,
the Moluccas, Rhio, the greater part of the
Celebes, and of Borneo must enable that
Power to engross the principal share. The
petty spite of this diatribe is only exceeded by the
colossal self-complacency and shortsighted-
ness which it displays by himself. In a letter to
thoroughly in keeping with the dealings of the
Pinang Government with the infant settlement.
After Raffles had left Singapore to prosecute
his mission to Achin, information was brought to
the new settlement by Captain Ross, the
officer who made the preliminary survey of
Singapore: that the Dutch Governor of Malacca
had strongly recommended the Government of
Java to send up a force to seize the British
detachment at Singapore. As in duty bound.
Farquhar communicated the news to Colonel
Bannerman, with a request for reinforcements
to enable him to maintain his post in the event
of attack. Colonel Bannerman's reply was a
vigorously worded despatch refusing the aid
asked.

"It must be notorious," he wrote in a minute
he penned on the subject, "that any force we
are able to detach to Singapore could not resist
the overpowering armament at the disposal of the
Batavia Government, although its presence
would certainly compel Major Farquhar to
resist the Netherlands, even to the shedding of
blood, and its ultimate and forced submission
would tarnish the national honour infinitely
more seriously than the degradation which
would ensue from the retreat of the small party
now at Singapore.

"Neither Major Farquhar's honour as a
soldier nor the honour of the British Govern-
ment now require him to attempt the defence
of Singapore by force of arms against the
Netherlands, as he knows Sir Stamford Raffles has occupied that island in
violation of the orders of the Supreme Governor
and as he knows that any opposition from his
present small party would be an useless and
reprehensible sacrifice of men, when made
against the overwhelming naval and military
force that the Dutch will employ. Under these
circumstances I am certain that Major Farquahr
must be certain that he would not be justified
in shedding blood in the maintenance of his
post at present."

Colonel Bannerman went on to state that he
therefore proposed to send by the despatch
prah to Major Farquhar a letter in this tenor,
together with other papers, and at the same
time to forward a temperate and firm remonstrance
to the Dutch Government of the propriety of
which he hoped any violent projected
measures would be deprecated without affect-
ing in the slightest degree the national honour
and credit. He also proposed that, as no
other opportunity would probably occur for
several weeks, a transport should be sent to
Singapore with a further supply of ten
thousand dollars. This last I am, however,
surprised to learn that he should require so
soon, for his small detachment has not been
forty days at Singapore before it appears to
have expended so large a sum as 15,000 dollars
which was taken with it.

The minute proceeded: "In proposing to
send the despatch prah to Major Farquhar I have
another object in view. I have just had reason
to believe that the Ganges and Necharus (the
only two vessels now at Singapore) are quite
incapable of receiving on board the whole
of the detachment there in the event of Major
Farquhar's judgment deciding that a retreat
from Dutch Government be advisable. If, there-
fore, one of the transports is victualled
equal to one month's consumption for 250 men
and sent to Singapore with authority given to
Major Farquhar to employ her should her services be requisite, that officer will then
have ample means for removing, whenever indis-
ceptually necessary, not only all his party, but
each of the native inhabitants as may fear the
Dutch vengeance, and whom it would be most
cruel to desert.

The minute went on to say that the transport
would be a means of withdrawing the Singa-
apore garrison in a British ship and saving the
national character from a very great portion of
the disgrace and mortification of having Major
Farquhar embarked by the Dutch on their own
ships.

Colonel Bannerman concluded as follows:

"However invidious the task, I cannot close
this minute without pointing out to the notice
of our superiors the very extraordinary conduct
of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bencoolen.
He posts a detachment at Singapore under very
equivocal circumstances, without even the
means of coming away, and with such de-
flective instructions and slender resources that,
before it has been there a month, its com-
mander is obliged to apply for money to this
Government, whose duty it becomes to offer
that officer advice and means against an event
which Sir Stamford Raffles ought to have ex-
pected, and for which he ought to have made an
express provision in his instructions to that
officer.

"My letters of the 13th and 17th February
will prove that upon his return from Singapore
I offered him any supplies he might require
for the detachment he had left there, and also
earnestly called upon him to transmit instruc-
tions to Major Farquhar for the guidance of his
conduct in the possible event of the Nether-
landers attempting to dislodge him by force of
arms. Did he avail himself of my offer?

"No. He certainly did not. He decided to
shift for himself. In fact, he acted (as a
friend of mine emphatically observed) like a
man who sets a house on fire and then runs
away."

"This extraordinary effusion reveals the
animus and stupidity with which Raffles was
pursued in the prosecution of his great design.
Full it does not stand alone. While Bannerman
was doing his best to destroy Raffles's work by
withholding much-needed support from the
tiny force planted at Singapore, he was inditing
highly-coloured despatches to the authorities in
Calcutta and at home on the mischievousness
of the policy that had been embarked upon.

"We heard of it from a certain correspondent
sent in the despatch from Singapore by the Court of Directors on March 4, 1819, shortly
after the news of the occupation had been
received at Pinang, the irate official wrote:

"My honourable employers will observe that
the Governor-General in Council was pleased
to grant the Lieutenant-Governor of Bencoolen
a special commission, with authority to
transmit despatches and convey important duties belonging to this
Government, and already recommended by me
under the most favourable auspices, and to
make me the instrument of assisting that
gentleman to aggrandize his own name and
settlement at the expense of the character,
dignity, and local influence of this Govern-
ment. I hope the last consideration will
persuade you to complete this mission with the
utmost speed, and to convey to the Governor-General
his despatches condemining in unsparing
terms the action that had been taken, and
confidently looking for support in the line of policy he had
pursued in opposition to Raffles. There was at
the outset a disposition on the part of the
Supreme Government to think that in despatch-
ing Raffles on his mission they had been
quite precipitate. Influenced by the news of Dutch
aggressiveness, and impressed also probably
by Bannerman's gloomy vaticinations upon
the situation, they addressed a letter to Pinang
expressing the view that it might be desirable
to relinquish the mission. But their hesitation
was only temporary. With the receipt of the
despatch in which communications were
borne in upon them the importance of upholding
his action. Then the storm broke upon
Colonel Bannerman for the part he had played in
obstructing the mission. In a despatch dated
April 8, 1819, the Governor-General poured
upon the unfortunate Governor a volume of
censure such as has rarely been meted out to
a high official. "With regard to the station
established at Singapore," said the Governor-
General, "though we are not prepared to
express any final opinion upon the determina-
tion adopted by Sir Stamford Raffles to occupy
that harbour, we cannot think it was within
the province of your Government to pronounce

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1 "Straits Settlements Records," No. 1824.
a decisive opinion upon a violation of his instructions. Commissioned and entrusted by this Government, to this Government alone he was answerable. The instructions under which he acted, and which were communicated to your Government that you might the more readily promote the object, were adapted to the port of Raffles初衷, and the probability that the Dutch might anticipate us there rendered it necessary to prescribe a line which was in that contingency to be followed with the utmost exactness. The same principle was in the subsequent instructions extended to Johore. In both cases the injunctions referred to the possible event of an apparent right having been actually advanced by the Dutch. But though the spirit of retaliation to avoid collision with the Dutch applied itself to any other position, it necessarily did so with a latitude suited to circumstances.

"We have your Excellency entirely wrong in determining so broadly against the propriety of the step taken by Sir Stamford Raffles on a simple reclamation from the Governor of Malacca, which, whether well or ill founded, was to look for as certain. . . ." Under these circumstances it does not appear to us that this conduct which may be being freed from the call to act upon our instructions, that we fear you would have difficulty in excusing yourselves should the Dutch be tempted to violence by the weakness of the detachment at Singapore and succeed in dislodging it. Fortunately there does not appear the likelihood of such an extremity. Representations will be made to this Government, and investigations must be set on foot; in the interval which these will occupy, we have to request from your Government every aid to the factory at Singapore. The jealousy of it which would have been avowed and recorded would find no tolerance with the British Government should misfortune occur and be traceable to neglects originating in such a feeling. Whether the measure of occupying it should ultimately be judged to have been indiscreetly risked or otherwise, the procedure must be upheld, unless we shall be satisfied (which is not now the case) that perseverance in maintaining the port would be an infraction of equity."

In a private letter, of somewhat earlier date, the Governor-General explained at some length the principles which had guided him in entrusting the mission to Raffles. He wrote: "It is impossible to form rational directions for the guidance of any mission without allowing a degree of discretion to be exercised in contingencies which, though foreseen, cannot be exactly described in the particular plan by which Sir Stamford Raffles was to be ruled was so broadly and positively marked as to admit no excuse for proceedings inconsistent with its tenor. For that reason I have to infer the unlikelihood of his hazardous anything contrary to our wishes. . . ."

"We never meant to show such obsequiousness to the Dutch as to forbear securing those interests of ours which they had insidiously and basely assailed out of deference to the title which they were disposed to advance of supremacy over every island and coast of the Eastern Archipalago. It was to defeat that profligate speculation that we commissioned Sir Stamford Raffles to aim at obtaining some station which would prevent the entire command of the Straits of Malacca from falling into the hands of the Dutch, there being many imposingly by them and not standing within any unmerited assertions."

Bannerman replied to this letter in a "hurried note," in which he said that he bowed with deference to his lordship's views. "I have," he went on, "received a lesson which shall teach me how I again presume to offer opinions as long as I live." He trusted his lordship would perceive from their despatch in reply that "our respect and attachment have in no degree abated, and that though we have not the elation of success we still do not possess the sullenness of discomfiture." The despatch referred to (dated May 18, 1819), entered at length into the controversy, extenuating the steps which they had taken in the matter, and asking that if Singapore was retained it should be placed under the Pinang Government. The despatch concluded:

"I am sorry, my lord, to have trespassed so long on your time, but I have a whole life of character to defend, and in this vindication I hope to prove what is necessary upon Sir S. Raffles and others. I have taken particular care to have here no personal controversy or cause of personal dispute with that gentleman. On the contrary he and his amiable lady have received from me since their first arrival from Calcutta every personal civility and attention which your Excellency had desired me to show them in your lordship's private communication of the 29th of November, and which my public situation here rendered it incumbent on me to offer. Illiberal or malicious revenge, I thank God, may be destined only to the avowed enemies of the British Government. The revenge which may be apparent in this address is only such as justice imperiously required and morality sanctioned. Its only objects were to procure reparation for the injury I have sustained, and to promote the just ends of punishment."

Just prior to the receipt of the final crushing despatch from the Governor-General, Colonel Bannerman had forwarded to the Court of Directors at home a long communication, in which he was marshalled, not without skill, the familiar arguments against the occupation of Singapore. He concluded with this passage:

"It will now remain for the Honourable Court to decide whether the occupation of Singapore by Sir Stamford Raffles is an equivalent for the certain ill-will it has excited against us from the Dutch authorities in India, for the enormous expenses of the India Company, and for the probable disaster it has entailed on all the negotiations contemplated between the two Courts in Europe." This communication was written on the 24th of June. A week later another letter was forwarded. It was couched in terms indicative of the heaviness of the blow which had fallen upon the old soldier-administrator. Bannerman wrote: "We now beg leave to submit to your Honourable Court the letter which we have received from the Most Noble the Governor-General in Council in reply to all our despatches and references on the subject of the Achiin mission and Sir Stamford Raffles's Eastern mission, and we feel the most poignant sorrow in acquainting your Honourable Court that this despatch conveys to us sentiments of reproof and animadversion from that exalted authority instead of approval and commendation, which we confess to have had with the fullest confidence of.

"We had as full a knowledge of the instructions of the Supreme Government on these matters as Sir S. Raffles himself had, unless (which our duty will not allow us to believe) Sir S. Raffles had actually, as he always stated to your Excellency, other verbal orders from the Governor-General which imposed diametrically opposite to the spirit and letter of his written instructions, and we had certainly as lively and a more immediate interest from proximity to uphold the welfare and advantage of the public interest in this quarter."

The despatch of the Governor-General stated that the Governor and his Council offered "such an explanation as a sense of duty and a regard for our personal honour and reputation point out to us;" and then added that if their remarks had the effect of averting from that Government the accusation of its being actuated by jealousy or any motives of an injudicious nature they would be fully satisfied. Then followed this parting shot at the occupation:

"Relative to the new establishment of Singa- pore, your Honourable Court will now be enabled to judge whether the violent measure of occupying such in defiance of the Dutch claims will eventually prove more beneficial to your or the national interests in the Eastern Archipelago than would have been effected by the adoption of the mild, conciliating, and, we may say, economical policy recommended so strenuously by this Government in pursuance of the personal views of the General. The commercial advantages of Singapore, whilst the Dutch hold the places of growth and manufacture of the great staples of the Eastern Archipelago, appear to us more than problematical. Your Honourable Court may recollect that the first occupation of this island gave rise to similar extravagant prognostications of great commercial benefits, so little of which have ever been realised, although it has cost the India Company a debt of nearly four million sterling in enlarging and improving its capacity. . . .

On the other hand, the political advantages of Singapore in time of war appear to us still less, and by no means necessary whilst in possession of such immense resources in India, which we can always bring in less than a month after the declaration of war against any settlements that the Dutch may form in these Singapore Settlement Records," No. 1824A.
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

me out in the declaration which I now solemnly and
on my honour and conscience utter, that
the interests and only the interests of my
honourable employers have influenced
and directed the whole of my conduct, and that I
had on the occasion no other personal interest
exceeding a very strong one not to do what I
considered my duty from the view of the very
event which has now happened—the possibility
of my opposition to Sir Stamford Raffles being
imputed to so base and ignoble a motive as
petty jealousy. The Court of Directors proved
scarcely more sympathetic than the Supreme
Governor, although I maintained that in their
depth of despair, which I expressed to the
Governor, they declared that "any difficulty with
the Dutch will be created by Sir Stamford Raffles's
temperance of conduct and language." They
graciously intimated, however, that they would
await the further explanations of Lord Hastings
before retaining or relinquishing Sir Stamford
Raffles's acquisitions at Singapore of character
necessary in such a situation as that in which he
found himself in the closing days of his career.
His treatment of Sir Stamford Raffles and his
general handling of the crisis precipitated by
the aggressive policy of the Dutch will always
remain a monumental example of official
impeachment.

While the authorities at home were not
disposed to back up Colonel Bannerman, they were
little inclined to support Sir Stamford Raffles.
When news of the occupation reached London,
the Secret Committee of the East
India Company, who had previously written
to Lord Hastings disapproving of the mission,
were not surprised to learn that force was not
in the beginning a successful expedition to the
company's designs; that all the letters,
shewn by their excellencies, were full of
manipulation and abuse, which, it was feared, would
be fatal to the company's designs. No
such thing, however, happened; and the
letters, instead of being entirely discredited,
were, on the contrary, even more highly
esteemed than before.

Downing Street joined with Leadenhall
Street in angry pronouncements upon what
both regarded as an ill-advised and ill-timed
display of excessive zeal on the part of a
reckless subordinate. A premonition of the
storm must have been borne in upon Raffles,
for at the very earliest stage of the occupation
he took care to press the importance of Singapore
in the sight of the influential personages at home
who would be able to raise their voices with
effect in the event of any retrograde policy
being favoured. To Marsden he wrote at
regular intervals with the express object, we
may assume, of enlisting his powerful support.
On January 28, 1840, the day of the signature
of the treaty with the Dato Temenggong,
Raffles addressed the following to his friend:

"This place possesses an excellent harbour
and everything that can be desired for a British
port, and the island of St. John's, which forms
the SW. point of the harbour. We have com-
manded an intercourse with all the ships
passing through the Straits of Singapore. We
are within a week's sail of China, close to
Siam and in the very seat of the Malayan
Empire. This, therefore, will probably be my
last attempt. If I am deserted now I must
fain return to Bencoolen and become philo-
popher."

Writing later, on February 19th, Raffles says:

"In short, Singapore is everything we could
desire, and I may consider myself most for-
tunate in the selection; it will soon rise into
importance, and with this single station alone
I should have exceeded the knowledge of Mynheer;
'it breaks the spell, and they are no
longer the exclusive sovereigns of Eastern
seas.'"

Again, under date June 15, 1819, Raffles
writes:

"I am happy to inform you that everything
is going on well here; it bids fair to be the
next port to Calcutta; all we want now is
the certainty of permanent possession, and this,
of course, depends on authorities beyond our
control. You may take my word for it this is
by far the most important station in the East,
and as far as naval supremacy and commercial
interests are concerned, of much higher
value than any of the other stations, from
Singapore to the Bay of Bengal.

Raffles's unwavering confidence in the future
of Singapore, expressed so trenchantly in these
letters, convinced his friends at home of the
value of the acquisition he had made; but his
enemies and rivals were persistent, and for
so long a time the fate of the settlement hung
in the balance. Raffles was not able to
reach Singapore until the 15th of August, 1819,
when he was naturally affected by them.
More in sorrow than in anger we find him writing on
July 17, 1820: "I learn with much regret the
prejudice and the malignity by which I am
attacked at home for the desperate struggle I
have maintained against the Dutch. Instead of
being supported by my own Government, I find
them deserting me and giving way in every
instance to the unscrupulous and enorm-
ous assertions of the Dutch. All, however,
is safe so far, and if matters are only allowed
to remain as they are, all will go well. The
great blow has been struck, and, though I may
personally suffer in the scuffle, the nation
must be benefited. Were the value of Singapore
properly appreciated, I am confident that all
England would be in its favour. It positively
takes nothing from the Dutch, and is to us
everything; it gives us the command of China
and Japan, the road to India, and the
possessions of the East. I look forward to see the
interests of our Company much strengthened
by the acquisition of these islands, and
their constitutional influence in the
East Indies."

The commercial importance of the
present drop every idea of a direct trade to
China and, let them concentrate their
interests in supporting Singapore, and they will do
ten times better. As a free port it is as much
to them as the possession of Macao; and it is here
they should flourish. Singapore may be a
democracy and the annexation of
Malacca to the British crown would
the unjust and harsh terms they use towards
me, render it doubtful what course they will
adopt."

Happily his confidence in the convincing
strength of the arguments for retention was
justified. The Marquess of Hastings, after his
first lapse into timidity, firmly asserted the
British claim to maintain the occupation.
In replying to a despatch from Baron Vander
capellen, Governor-General of Nether-
lands India, protesting against the British
action, his lordship maintained that the chiefs
who ceded Singapore were perfectly independent
of the Dutch and that they had no
right to speak with respect to Singapore. He
intimated, however, that if it should prove on fuller
information that the Netherlands Government
possessed a right to the exclusive occupation
of Singapore, the Government would, "without
hesitation, obey the dictates of justice by with-
drawing all our establishments from the place."
Some time later, in July, 1819, the Marquess of
Hastings addressed another despatch, in which he
outlined at some length the views of the
Supreme Government of India in reference to
the Dutch claims. He affirmed that a manifest
necessity existed for counteracting the Dutch
exertions to secure absolute supremacy in the
East Indies, which the British Government had always been
confined to the
security of British commerce and the freedom of
other nations; that it was held that the
Dutch had no just claim founded on engage-
ments which might have been made with the
native princes before the transfer of Malacca
by the Dutch; and, should the treaty concluded at
Riau on November 26, 1818, be accepted by the
Government of Malacca, the Dutch
authorities who transferred Malacca in 1795 had
declared that of the British to be null and
void; and that the Dutch authorities who
transferred Malacca in 1795 had declared that
Riau, Johore, Pahang and Lingen, through
the first of which the Dutch claimed Singapore,
were not independent of Malacca. In a
further despatch, dated August 21, 1819,
Hastings closed the controversy, as far as his
Government was concerned, by reaffirming
the untenability of the Dutch claims and
declaring that the sole object of the British
Government was to protect its own interests
against what had appeared an alarming
increase of the pretensions and
monopoly on the part of the Nether-
lands authorities in the East Indian
islands.
the reward of his prescient statesmanship in the knowledge that he had won for his country this great strategical centre in the Eastern sea.

It is a chapter in British colonial history which redounds little to the credit of either the British official world or the British people. Their sole excuse is that they were ignorant and acted ignorantly. The age was one in which scant thought was given to questions of world policy, which now are of recognised importance. Moreover, long years of war, in which the country had been reduced to the point of exhaustion, had left people little in the mood to accept new responsibilities which carried with them the possibility of international strife. Still, when every allowance is made for the circumstances of the time, it must be conceded that the treatment of Raffles at this period, and the subsequent neglect of his memory, have left an indelible stain upon the reputation of his countrymen for generosity.

CHAPTER II.

The Building of the City.

Viewing the Singapore of to-day, with its streets thronged with a cosmopolitan crowd drawn from every quarter of the globe, its bustling wharves instinct with a vigorous commercial life, and its noble harbour, in which float every kind of craft, from the leviathan liner of 10,000 tons to the tiny Malay fishing boat, it is difficult to realise that less than a century ago the place was nothing more than a small Malay settlement, in which a mere handful of natives eked out a precarious existence by fishing, with an occasional piratical raid on the adjoining coasts. Yet if there is one fact more conclusive than another in the history of this great port, it is that it is a pure product of British foresight, energy, and commercial aptitude. Discovering an incomparable position, the Empire builders, represented by Raffles and his lieutenants and successors, dug deep and wide the foundations of the city, and the genius and enterprise of British merchants did the rest. Sometimes it has happened that a great colonial city has attained to eminence through accidental causes, as, for example, in the cases of Kimberley and Johannesburg. But Singapore owes nothing of its greatness to adventitious aids. As we have seen in the extracts cited from Raffles's letters, its ultimate position of importance in the Empire was accurately forecasted; before one stone had been laid upon another the founders knew that they were designing what would be no "mean city"—a commercial entrepôt which would vie with the greatest in the East.

From the practical point of view there were many advantages in the situation which Raffles found when he occupied Singapore. Rights of property there were none outside the interests of the overlords, which were readily satisfied by the monetary allowance provided for under the treaties with the Sultan and the Temenggong. There was no large resident population to cause trouble and friction, and there were no local laws to conflict with British juridical principles. In fine, Raffles and his associates had a clean slate on which to draw at their fancy the lines of the settlement. They drew with perspicacity and a courageous faith in the future. We catch occasional glimpses of the life of the infant settlement as reflected in the official literature of the period or in the meagre columns of the Pinang newspaper. In the very earliest days of the occupation an incoming ship from China reports, we may imagine with a sharp note of interroversion, the presence of four ships in the roadstead at Singapore and of tents on the shore. The Stores Department is indented on for building materials, food supplies, and for munitions of war, including a battery of 18-pounder guns, with a hundred rounds of ammunition per gun. Invalids from the island arrive, and are drafted to the local hospital for treatment. Then comes crowning evidence that the settlers are working and thriving in this interesting domestic announcement in the columns of the Prince of Wales Island Gazette of August 7, 1819: "Singapore birth. On the 24th of July, Mrs. Barnard of a daughter. This is the first birth at the new settlement and...

The first official step in the creation of the new Singapore was the issue on February 6, 1819, by Sir Stamford Raffles, of a proclamation announcing the conclusion of the treaty which made the place a British settlement. Simultaneously Raffles addressed to Colonel Farquhar (as he had now become) a letter instructing him as to the course he was to pursue in all matters affecting the settlement. By this time the general lines of the new town had been provisionally settled. The site of the settlement was fixed on the identical spot where Raffles believed, from the perusal of Malayan history, was occupied by the old city. Beyond the erection of a few temporary buildings and the tracing of one or two necessary roads, little seems to have been done during the first few months of the occupation, though the importance of the new site had already been enshrined in consequence of the political complications. But on Raffles's return to Singapore on the completion of his mission to Achin, he devoted himself in earnest to the task of devising arrangements for the administration of the important port which his instinct told him would spring up phoenix-like out of the ashes of the dead and half-forgotten Malay city. The plan which he finally evolved is sketched in an elaborate letter of instructions, dated June 20, 1819, which he addressed to Farquhar, addressed to Bencoolen—Dr. Lamdsdun and Captain Salmond of Beneleun—to assist him in fixing a new site for the town. After much consideration it was decided to level a small hill on the south side, on the site of what is now Commercial Square, and with the earth from this hill to raise the land on the south bank of the river and so create new building sites. This scheme was ultimately carried out, and in association with it were executed arrangements for the expropriation on fair terms of all who had built with the Resident's permission on the north bank. A few of the buildings on this side were allowed to remain and were subsequently used for public offices. While the levelling operations for the new settlement were proceeding the workmen unearthed near the mouth of the river a flat stone bearing an inscription in strange characters. Of the finding of this relic and its subsequent fate we have a vivid contemporary description in a Malay work written by Abdullah, Raffles's old assistant. Abdullah wrote: "At the time there was found, at the end of the Point, buried in jungle, a smooth square-sided stone, about 6 feet long, covered with chiselled characters. No one could read the stone, so it had been exposed to the action of the sea-water for God knows how many thousands of years. When the stone was discovered people of every race went in crowds to see it. The Hindus said the writing was Hindu, but they could not read it. The Chinese said it was Chinese. I went with Sir Stamford Raffles and the Rev. M. Thompson and others, and to me it seemed that the letters resembled Arabic letters, but I could not decipher them owing to the ages during which the stone had been subject to the rise and fall of the tides. Some of the people came to read the inscription; some brought soft dough and took an impression, while others brought black ink and smeared it over the stone in order to make the writing plain. Every one exhausted his ingenuity in attempts to ascertain the nature of the characters and the language, but all without success. So the stone remained where it lay, with the tide washing it every day. Then Sir Stamford Raffles decided that the writing was in the Hindu character, because the Hindus were the first people to come to these parts, to Java, Bali, and Suma, whose people are all descended from Hindus.
But not a man in Singapore could say what was the meaning of the words cut on that stone: therefore only God knows. And the stone remained there till Mr. Bonham became Governor of Singapore, Pinang, and Malacca (1837-43). At that time Mr. Coleman was the Government engineer at Singapore, and he, perhaps, was the first to interpret the mark. In my opinion it was a very improper thing to do, but perhaps it was due to his stupidity and ignorance and because he could not understand the writing that he destroyed the stone. It never occurred to him that there might be others more clever than himself who could unravel the secret; for I have heard that there are those in England who are able to read such a riddle as this with ease, whatever the language, whoever the people who wrote it. As the Malays say, 'What you can't mend, don't destroy.'

It is difficult to find a more adequate characterization of this piece of silly vandalism on the part of Mr. Coleman than that found by Mr. A. H. Fullard in a Monthly Nautil in Abdullah's scathing criticism. The motives which prompted the act are difficult to conceive, but whatever they were the secret of the stone was effectively concealed by the destructive operations. Some fragments collected subsequently found their way to Calcutta, which may be left to tell the story of this problem to puzzle over, and from time to time discussion has arisen in Singapore itself over the historic débris. We are still, however, as far even by discovering the key to the mystery. Perhaps the most plausible explanation is that of Lieutenant Begbie, who writing in 1824, suggested that the stone was identical with the so-called Meridional Mark which the 'Malay Annals' and relating to a conflict between a Singapuri Samson named Badang and a rival from the Coromandel coast. Badang won great fame as the victor in the fight, and when he died he was buried at the mouth of the Singapore river, and the Coromandel warrior lost his life on the spot. The stone unearthing at the building of the town, it was argued by Lieutenant Begbie, must have been one of these. The controversy may be left at this point. It is really now only of interest to illustrate the paucity of the antiquarian remains of which Singapore can boast.

Farquhar's share in the building of the new settlement was a considerable one. He cleared the jungle and drove roads in all directions, always with a keen eye to future possibilities. Perhaps his finest conception was the esplanade, which is still one of the most attractive features of the city. While the work of laying out the new port was proceeding the European and native, attracted by the news of the occupation and the promise it brought of future prosperity, were flocking to the spot, eager to have a share in the trade which they rightly calculated was bound to grow up under the protecting shadow of the British flag. Farquhar may be left to tell the story of this early "rush." In a letter to Raffles, dated March 21, 1820, he wrote: "Nothing can possibly exceed the rising trade and general prosperity of this infant colony; indeed, to look at our harbour just now, where upwards of twenty junks, three of which are from China and two from Cochin China, the rest from Siam, and other vessels are at anchor, besides ships, brigs, pros, &c., &c., a person would naturally exclaim, Surely this cannot be an establishment of only twenty months' standing! One of the principal Chinese merchants was told me in the course of conversation that he would be very glad to give 5000 dollars for the revenue of Singapore five years hence; merchants of all descriptions are collecting here so fast that nothing is heard in the shape of complaint but the want of more ground to build on. The swampy ground on the opposite side of the river is now almost covered with Chinese houses, and the Bugis native has become an extensive town. Settlements are forming up the different rivers, and from the public roads which have been made the communication to various parts of the country is now quite open and convenient."

In July of the same year Raffles himself, in a letter to a friend in England, describes in glowing terms the progress of the work of development. "My settlement," he wrote, "continues to thrive most wonderfully; it is all and everything I could wish, and if no unlimited fate awaits it, it promises to become the emporium and pride of the East. Happily no unlucky contests are to support it; despite the jealousy and obstructiveness of Pinang, notwithstanding the indifference and neglect of the home authorities and apprehensions born of "a craven fear of greatness," the progress of the port was continuous. Two years and a half after the occupation we find Raffles estimating that the exports and imports of Singapore by native vessels had exceeded four millions of dollars in the year, and that during the whole period of the brief life of the settlement no fewer than 2,580 vessels had entered and cleared from the port, of which 383 were owned and commanded by Europeans. In 1822 the tonnage had risen to 150,650 tons, and the annual trade exceeded six millions of dollars. Two years later the annual trade had increased in value to upwards of thirteen millions of dollars. It would be difficult to discover in the whole history of British colonisation, fruitful as it is in instances of successful development, a more remarkable example of rapid growth."

No small share of the brilliant success achieved in the founding of Singapore was unquestionably due to the liberal policy Raffles introduced from the outset. He foresaw that to attempt to build up the prosperity of the place on the exclusive principles of the Dutch, or even on the modified system of restrictive trade obtaining at Penang, would not only have resulted in the settlement to failure. The commerce of the port, to obtain any degree of vigour, he understood, must be absolutely unfettered. Again and again he insists upon this point in his correspondence, pleading and fighting for the principle with all the earnestness of his strenuous nature. Free the trade was from the beginning, and though later attempts were made to tamper with the system, Singapore has continued to this day in the enjoyment of the liberal and enlightened constitution with which Raffles endowed it.

Many stupid things were done by the authorities in connection with the early history of Singapore, but it will always remain to their credit that they entrusted to Raffles the task of establishing the administrative machinery there on a permanent footing. Ordered from Bencoolen to Singapore in September, 1822, Raffles, with a light heart and heightened expectations, embarked on the voyage to which he devoted himself. It was to be a prison to him a labour of love. His wide experience in Java and at Bencoolen, aided by his natural ability, enabled him without difficulty to devise a sound working constitution for the new colony. Recognising that the prosperity of the settlement depended upon adequate facilities for shipping, he caused the harbour and the adjacent coasts to be carefully surveyed from Diamond Point to the Karimun Islands. The sale of land was carefully regulated, with due regard, on the one hand, to Government interests, and on the other to the development of trade. For the better safeguarding of rights he caused a land registry to be established, which proved of immense value in the later history of the colony. A code of regulations designed to suit the needs of a mixed community of the class that already settled in the town was drawn up, and Raffles himself sat in court to enforce them. He also established a local magistracy and the framing of a scheme for the founding of an institution for the study of Chinese and Malay literature. Early in 1822 the project assumed a practical shape in the establishment of the famous Singapore Institution. It was Raffles's desire to give further stimulus to the cause of education and philanthropy by the establishment of a College, to be called the Anglo-Chinese College at Malacca. But his proposals under this head were thwarted by the action of a colleague and the idea had reluctantly to be abandoned. By the beginning of June, 1823, Raffles had so far advanced the work entrusted to him that he was able to hand over the charge of the settlement to Mr. Crawford, who had been appointed to administer it. Somewhat earlier Raffles is revealed writing to a friend contrasting the bustle and prosperity of Singapore with the stagnation and costliness of his old charge. "At Bencoolen," he wrote, "the public expenses are more in one month than they are at Singa-apore; they amount to about a million and a half. The expenses on the Anglo-Chinese College at Malacca never exceeds 400,000 dollars in a year, and nearly the whole of this is in Company's bills on Bengal, the only returns that can be made; at Singapore the capital turned in a year exceeds eight millions, without any Government bills or civil establishment whatever." Further suggestions were sent by Raffles in a letter he wrote to the Supreme Government on January 15, 1823. In this he stated that the average annual charge for the settlement for the first three years of its establishment had not exceeded 66,000 Spanish dollars. "I had..."
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

anticipated," he proceeded, "the satisfaction of constructing all necessary public buildings free of expense to Government and of delivering over charge of the settlement at the end of the present session, with a wholesome revenue nearly equal to its expenses, and it is extremely mortifying that the irregularities admitted by the local Resident obliged me to forego this arrangement." The irregularities alluded to in this despatch were committed by a local official employed in connection with the land transfers. He was a man of indifferent character, who, should I have never to have been appointed to the post, and Farquhar's laxity in this and other respects drew upon him the severe censure of Raffles. The relations between the two became exceedingly strained in consequence. Eventually Farquhar resigned, and his resignation was accepted, Mr. Crawford, as has been stated, being appointed as his successor. If the course of official life at Singapore in these days did not run smoothly, nothing could have been more harmonious than Raffles's relations with the mercantile community. In striking contrast with the contemptuous indifference displayed by the Indian bureaucrats who ruled in the Straits towards the civil community, Raffles deferred to it in every way compatible with the Government interests. The principles which guided him in this particular are lucidly set forth in a despatch he wrote to the Supreme Government, dated March 29, 1823. "I am satisfied," Raffles wrote, "that nothing has tended more to the comfort and constant jarrings which have hitherto occurred in our remote settlements than the policy which has dictated the exclusion of the European merchants from all share, much less credit, in the domestic regulation of the settlement of which they are frequently its most important members." These liberal sentiments supply the key to Raffles's remarkable success as an administrator, and they help to an understanding of the affectionate warmth with which the European community took leave of him in the farewell address they presented on his departure from the settlement.

"To your unwearied zeal, your vigilance, and your comprehensive views," the memorialists said, "we owe at once the foundation and the maintenance of a settlement unparalleled for the liberality of the principles on which it has been established; principles the operation of which has converted, in a period short beyond all example, a haunt of pirates into the abode of enterprise, security, and opulence. While we acknowledge our peculiar obligations to you, we reflect at the same time with pride and satisfaction upon the active and beneficent means by which you have promoted and patronised the diffusion of intellectual and moral improvement, and we anticipate with confidence their happy influence in advancing the cause of humanity and civilisation."

In the course of his reply in acknowledgment of the address Raffles wrote: "It has happily been consistent with the policy of Great Britain and accordant with the principles of the East India Company that Singapore should be established as a free port, that no sinister, no sordid view, no considerations either of political importance or pecuniary advantage, should interfere with the broad and liberal principles on which the British interests have been established. Monopoly and exclusive privileges, against which public opinion has long raised its voice, are here unknown, and while the free port of Singapore is allowed to continue and prosper, as it hitherto has done, the policy and liberality of the East India Company, by whom the settlement was founded and under whose protection and control it is still administered, can never be disputed. That Singapore settlement, I beg that you will accept my most sincere thanks. I know the feeling which dictated it, I acknowledge the delicacy with which it has been conveyed, and I prize most highly the flattering terms to me personally in which it has been expressed."

An affecting description of Raffles's departure from Singapore has been left in the Malay work already referred to by his servant and friend, Abdullah. After mentioning various gifts that

[Image]: Photographed specially for this work by permission of the Dean of Westminster.}

will long and always remain a free port, and that no taxes on trade or industry will be established to check its future rise and prosperity, I can have no doubt. I am justified in saying this much, on the authority of the Supreme Government of India, and on the authority of those who are most likely to have weight in the councils of our nation at home. For the public and peculiar mark of respect which you, gentlemen, have been desirous of showing me on the occasion of my departure from the

were made to him by the administrator and letters recommending him to officials as one to be trusted, Abdullah writes: "I could not speak, but I took the papers, while the tears streamed down my face without my being conscious of it. That day to part with Sir Stamford Raffles was to me as the death of my parents. My regret was not because of the benefits I had received or because of his greatness or attractions; but because of his character and attainments, because every word he said was sincere.
and reliable, because he never exalted himself or depreciated others. All these things have remained in my heart till now, and though I have seen many distinguished men, many who were clever, who were rich, who were handsome—for character, for the power of winning affection, and for talent and understanding, I have never seen the equal of Sir Stamford Raffles; though I die and live again, I shall never find his peer. . . . When I had received the two letters, Sir Stamford and his lady went down to the sea, accompanied by an immense crowd of people of every nationality. I also went with them, and when they reached the ship they went on board. A moment later preparations were made to heave up the anchor, and Sir Stamford sent for me. I went into his cabin, and saw that he was wiping the tears from his eyes. He said, 'Go home; you must not grieve, for, as I live, we shall meet again.' Then Lady Raffles came in and gave me twenty-five dollars, saying, 'This is for your children in Malacca.' When I heard that my heart was more than ever fired by the thought of their kindness. I thanked her and shook them both by the hand; but I could not restrain my tears, so I hurriedly got into my boat and pulled away. When we had gone some distance I looked back and saw Sir Stamford gazing from the port. I saluted him and he waved his hand. After some moments the sails filled and the ship moved slowly away."

This was Raffles's last view of Singapore. He proceeded to his charge at Bencoolen to resume the old life of masterly inactivity. But he fretted under the chains which bound him to the Far East, and longed to be once more in the Old Country to spend what he felt would be the short remaining period of his life.

Broken in health, weary in spirit, but with eager anticipations of a pleasant reunion with old friends, he with Lady Raffles embarked on February 2, 1824, on a small vessel called the Fame for England. Before the ship had barely got out of sight of the port a fire broke out in the spirit store below Raffles's cabin, and within a short period the entire vessel was a mass of flames. With difficulty the passengers and crew escaped in boats, but all Raffles's manuscripts and his natural history collections, the product of many years' assiduous labour, perished. The loss was from many points of view irreparable, and, coming as it did after a succession of misfortunes, told on Raffles's already enfeebled constitution. But outwardly he accepted the calamity with philosophic calm, and prepared at once to make fresh arrangements for the return voyage. Another ship was fortunately available, and in this he and his wife made the voyage to England. There he met with every kindness from influential friends, and he settled down to a country life at Highwood Hill, Middlesex, having as his neighbour William Wilberforce, between whom and him there was a close tie of interest in their mutual horror of the slave trade. Here he died, after an attack of apoplexy, on July 5, 1826, and was buried in Hendon churchyard. His last days were clouded with troubles arising out of claims and charges made against him by the narrow-minded out-party of Leadenhall Street, who dealt with Raffles as they might have done with a refractory servant entitled to no consideration at their hands. It has remained for a later generation to do justice to the splendid qualities of the man and the enormous services he rendered to the Empire by his vigorous and far-seeing statesmanship.

Singapore's progress in the years immediately following Raffles's departure was steadily maintained by a wise adherence to the principles of administration which he had laid down. Mr. Crawford, his successor in the administration, was a man of broad and liberal views, who had served under Raffles in Java, and was imbued with his enlightened sentiments as to the conduct of the administration of a colony which depended for its success upon the unrestrained operations of commerce. In handing over charge to him Raffles had provided him with written instructions emphasizing the importance of early attention to the beauty, regularity, and cleanliness of the settlement, and desiring him in particular to see that the width of the different roads and streets was fixed by authority, and "as much attention paid to the general style of building as circumstances admit." These directions Crawford kept well in mind throughout his administration, with the result that the town gradually assumed
CHAPTER III.

EARLY DAYS.—THE FIRST NEWSPAPER.

During the period of Crawford's administration Singapore was under the control of the Supreme Government; but in 1826 the settlement was incorporated with Pinang and Malacca in one Government, and Mr. C. B. Buckley, in his erudite "Anecdotal History of Old Times in Singapore," in alluding to this journal, states that in 1884 it was not possible to find any copy of the paper before 1831, and "there is not probably one in existence." Mr. Buckley, happily for the historian of Singapore, is mistaken. At the India Office there is preserved a practically complete file of the paper, commencing with the first printed number, published on January 4, 1827. From inscriptions on the papers it appears that copies were regularly forwarded to Leadenhall Street for the information of the Court of Directors, and were bound up and kept for reference among the archives of the Secret Committee. It is unfortunate that the three earliest years' files over the press in these settlements as in other territories under the administration of the East India Company. In the second number of the surviving copies of the journal we are confronted with this letter:

"Sir,—By desire of the Hon. Governor in Council I beg to forward for your guidance the enclosed rules applicable to the editors of newspapers in India and to intimate to you that the permission of Government for the publication of the Singapore Chronicle and Commercial Advertiser is granted to you with
the clear understanding that you strictly adhere to these regulations.

"As you will now refrain from publishing anything in your paper which will involve an infringement of these rules it will no longer be necessary for you to submit for approval the proof sheet of each number of the Chronicle previous to its publication.

"I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

John Prince,
Resident Councillor.

Singapore, Feb. 20, 1827."

The "Hon. Governor in Council" of this communication was, of course, Mr. Fullerton. This gentleman came from India filled with the characteristic hatred of the Anglo-Indian official of a free press. The smallest criticism of official action he resented as an insult; a slighting reference to himself personally he regarded as a personal affront. Apparently he had expected that his edict would be received with submissive respect by those whom it concerned. But he had reckoned without the spirit of independence which characterised the budding journalism of the Straits. The editor of the Chronicle, in publishing the Resident Councillor's letter, accompanied it with this comment:

"We cannot err in saying that we receive these regulations with all the deference which an intimation of the wishes of the Government ought to command. They can form, however, but a feeble barrier against offensive remarks whilst the Legislature of that country, no matter how contraband, will find its way round the Cape, and will be here read by all those, a man, who would have read them had they been printed originally on the spot. When this is so very plain, it is really no easy matter for the governed to discover the object of such regulations, unless, indeed, it be to prevent the evil effect which the remarks of wicked editors might be expected to produce upon the 'reading public' among that lettered, and to the influence of the press most susceptible people, the Malays."

This was bad enough in the eyes of the autocrat of Pinang, but there was worse to follow. On February 15, 1827, the editor, in referring to the suspension of a Calcutta editor for criticisms of official action in the Burmese War, remarked sarcastically that "however culpable the editor may have been in other respects, he has not perpetrated in his remarks the sin of novelty." Mr. Fullerton was furious at the audacity of the Singapore scribe, and caused to be transmitted to him a copy of the Chronicle in its issue of March 20th described as "a very secretarial reprimand." He was still not intimidated, as is shown by the pointed announcement in the same number of the issue in Bengal of "a very ably conducted paper" under the name of the Calcutta Gazette, with the motto, "Freedom which came at length, though slow to come." However, the official toils were closing around him. Peremptory orders were issued from Pinang for the muzzling of the daring journalist. The editor seems to have got wind of the unpleasant intentions of the Government, and indulged in this final shriek of liberty:

"GHOST OF THE CENSORSHIP.

"We thought that the censorship had been consigned to the 'tomb of the Capulets,' that common charnel-house of all that is worthless. Either we were mistaken, however, in supposing it thus disposed of as a ghost, a spirit of unquiet conscience, continues to haunt these settlements. It is said that we have been wandering to and fro, and to have arrived lately from Malacca in a vessel from which we would it had been exercised and cast into the sea.

"The paper is going to the press, and we have but brief space in which to say that if this moment heard that it is currently and on strong authority reported that Government has re-established the censorship in this settlement. That this is not yet the case we know, having received no official intimation to that effect, and until we receive this 'damning proof' we will not believe that Government can have lapsed into a measure which will reflect on them such unspeakable discredit. We have heard much alleged against the present Government of Pinang, some part of which, since kings themselves are no longer deemed impeccable, may be just... but we never heard our rulers deemed so weak, so wavering, so incapable of such a step as to promulgate a set of admirable regulations to-day, and presto! to revile them to-morrow, restoring a censorship which of their own free motion and magnanimous accord they had just withdrawn, for what reason no sane person will be able to divine, unless it should chance to be for the purpose of making the Government appear somewhat unjust to the public, as to promulgate such regulations as that world, if it ever hears of it) will very naturally conclude that the removal of the censorship was a mere bait for applause in the expectation that Government would never be called upon for the exercise of the virtues of magnanimity and forbearance, and that editors could on all occasions shape their sentiments and the expression of them by the line and rule of secretarial propriety."

The "intelligent anticipation" displayed by the editor in this clever and amusing comment was speedily justified by facts. On the morning after the publication of which it appears, the journalist received a letter from the Government at Pinang informing him that in future he must submit a proof of his paper previous to publication to the Resident Councillor. The official version of the episode is to be found in a letter from Mr. Fullerton to the Court of Directors, dated August 29, 1827. In this letter the Governor wrote: "In consequence of some objectionable articles in the Singapore Chronicle, we considered it necessary to establish rules similar to those established by the Supreme Government in 1818. This order was given under the supposition that the press was perfectly free, but it appearing that the censorship had been previously imposed and that the very first publication subsequent to its removal having contained matter of a most offensive nature, we were under the necessity of reimposing the censorship and censoring the editor. The proof sheet of each paper was also directed to be submitted in future to the Resident Councillor, which was assented to by Mr. Loch.

From this point the Singapore Chronicle presents the spectacle of decorous dullness which might be looked for in the circumstances. But the Old Adam peeps out occasionally, as in a recent article on an intimation of a Bavarian editor that he intended to answer all attacks on Dutch policy in his journal, or in the rather wicked interpolation of rows of asterisks after an article from which the singing tail has obviously been excised. Later, Mr. Loch again got into collision with Pinang, and there must have been rejoicing in official circles when, on March 30, 1829, he intimated that he was retiring from the editorship. The new editor was a man of a somewhat different stamp, judging from his introductory article. In this he intimated that he made no pretensions whatever to literary or scientific attainments. "The pursuits to which from a young age we have been obliged to devote ourselves," he wrote, "have precluded the possibility of our giving much attention to the cultivation of letters, so that our readers must not expect such valuable dissertations on the subjects we have alluded to as appeared in the first and second volumes of this journal."

"It is hoped that the new editor's reliance on his qualifications, he was not less strong in his opposition to the censorship than his predecessor. Shortly after he was inducted into the editorial chair he thus inveighed against the apathy of the general public on the subject:

"An individual here and there touched with plebeianism may entertain certain unanxiously towards the Old-fashioned Bavarian notion of censorship, but, Monsieur monsieur, le peuple may depend upon it that the mass of the public are not affected by this levant, nor can be spurred into complaint by anything short of a stamp regulation or some other process of abstraction, the effects of which become more speedily tangible to their senses than the evils arising from restriction upon the freedom of publication."

Harassed by official autocrats and hampered by mechanical difficulties, the Singapore journalism of early days left a good deal to be desired. Nevertheless, in these "brief and abstract chronicles" of the infant settlement we get a vivid picture of Singapore life as it was at that period. Sir Stamford Raffles' shadow still rested over the community. Now we read an account of his death with what seems a very inadequate biography culled from "a morning paper" at home, and almost simultaneously appears an account of a movement for raising some monument to his honour. Later, there are festive gatherings, at which "the memory of Sir Stamford Raffles" is drunk in solemn silence. Meanwhile, a cutting from a London paper gives us a glimpse of Colonel Farquhar as the principal guest at an influentially attended banquet in the city. Local news consists mostly of records of the arrival
of ships. Occasionally we get a significant reminder of what the good old times in the Straits were like, as, for example, in the announcement of the arrival of a junk with a thousand Chinese on board on the verge of starvation because of the giving out of supplies, or in the information brought by incoming boats of bloody work by pirates a few miles beyond the limits of the port. Or again, in a report (published on September 11, 1828) of the arrival of the Abercrombie Robinson, an East Indiaman from Bombay, after a voyage during which twenty-seven of the crew were carried off by fevers. On April 17, 1837, there is great excitement over the arrival in port of the first steamship ever seen there—the Dutch Government vessel, Van der Capellen. The Malays promptly christen her the Kajal Asat, or smoke vessel, and at a loss to discover by what means she is propelled, fall back on the comfortable theory that her motion is caused by the immediate agency of the evil one. Socially, life appears to run in agreeable lines.

Now the handful of Europeans who compose the local society are foregathering at the annual assembly of the Raffles Club, at which there is through the European firm the memory of the great administrator who had just passed away. At another time there is a brilliant entertainment at Government House in honour of the King's birthday, with an illumination of the hill which evokes the enthusiastic admiration of the reporter. Some one is even heroic enough to raise a proposal for the construction of a theatre, while there is a lively polemic on the evergreen subject of mixed bathing.

From the point of view of solid information these early Singapore papers are of exceptional interest and value. In them we are able to trace political currents which eddied about the settlement at this juncture, threatening at times to overwhelm it. One characteristic effusion of the period is an editorial comment on an announcement conveyed by a Pinang correspondent of the Government there containing some custom-house regulations for Singapore, and was about to convene a meeting of Pinang merchants for the purpose of approving them. "Offensive remarks levelled at Councillors are prohibited," wrote the scribe in sarcastic allusion to the press regulations, "otherwise, though not disciples of Rousseau, we might have ventured to doubt whether the merchants of Penang are precisely the most impartial advisers that Government could have selected as guides in a course of custom-house legislation for the port of Singapore."

"It is to be hoped the merchants of Penang may be cautious in what they approve. Trade may be as effectually injured by regulations as by customs-house exactions, and every new regulation added to the existing heap may be looked upon as an evil. Here it is the general opinion that the extent of the trade of these ports is already known with sufficient accuracy for every wise and beneficent purpose; that perfect exactness cannot be attained, and if it could, would be useless; but that if the Court of Directors shall, notwithstanding, with the minutiae of retail grocers, persist in the pursuit of it and adopt a system of petty and vexatious regulations (the case is a supposed one), it will be attended with inconvenience to the merchants and detriment to the trade and prosperity of these settlements."

These spirited words are suggestive of the prevalent local feeling. At the same time as to the interference of Pinang. Obviously there was deep resentment at the attitude implied in the reported statement that the concerns of Singapore were matters which Pinang must settle. Singapore at this time was decidedly feeling its feet, and was conscious and confident of its destiny. A Calcutta paper having ventured upon the surmise that "Singapore is a bubble near exploding," the editor promptly took up the challenge in this fashion:

"Men's predictions are often an index to their wishes. Fortunately, however, the prospects of this firm foundation to be shaken by an artillery of surmises. Those who lift up their voices and prophesy against this place may, therefore, depend upon it they labour in a vain vocation unless they can at the same time render a reason for the faith that is in them by showing that the causes which have produced the past prosperity of the settlement either have ceased to operate or soon will do so. Till this is done their predictions are gratuations and childish."

Side by side with this note appeared a description of the Singapore of that day written by a Calcutta visitor. It was intended, it seemed, as a refutation of the bustling bubble theory, and it certainly is fairly conclusive proof of its absurdity. "Here," wrote the visitor, "there is more of an English port appearance than in any almost place I have visited in India. The native character and peculiarity of the trade here are more into the English aspect than I imagined possible, and I certainly think Singapore proves more satisfactorily than any place in our possession that it is possible to assimilate the Asiatic and the European very closely in the pursuits of commerce. The new appearance of the place is also very pleasing to the eye, and a great relief from the broken down, rotten, and decayed buildings of other ports in the peninsula. The regularity and width of the streets give Singapore a cheerful and healthy look, and the plying of boats and other craft in its river enfolds the scene not a little more pleasant than three ships of large burden loading for England. The vessels from all parts of the archipelago are also in great numbers and great variety. At Penang and Malacca the godowns of a merchant scarcely tell you what he deals in, or rather proclaim that he does nothing in the little books that prevails in them; here you stumble at every step over the products of China and the Straits in adequate preparation for being conveyed to all parts of the world."

These shrewd observations speak for them:

  "Ibid., March 13, 1827,"

The points of interest in this table are the similarity of the European population and the numerical strength of the Chinese community. The latter, it will be seen, numbered more than half the entire population and considerably exceeded the Malays. The circumstances show that from the very outset of Singapore's career the Chinese played a leading part in its development. Keen traders as a race, they recognised at once the splendid possibilities of the port for trade, and they no doubt appreciated to the full the value of the equal laws and opportunities which they enjoyed under the liberal constitution with which Raffles had endowed the settlement.

Mr. Fullerton, besides placing shackles on the press, distinguished himself by a raid on "interlopers," as all who had not the requisite licence of the East India Company to reside in their settlements were regarded. Most writers on Singapore history have represented his action in this particular as an independent display of autocratic zeal. But the records clearly show that he was acting under explicit instructions from the Court of Directors to call upon all European residents in the settlement to show their credentials. The circular which Fullerton issued brought to light that there were 26 unlicensed persons in the settlement, besides those who had no other licence than that of the local authority. The matter was referred home for consideration, with results which appear in the following despatch of September 30, 1829:

"The list which you have furnished of Europeans resident at this last settlement (Singapore) includes a considerable number of persons who have received no licence from us. We approve of your having made known to each of these individuals his liability to removal at our pleasure. Under the peculiar circumstances of this settlement it has not been our practice to discourage the recruit of Europeans thither for the purpose of following any creditable occupation, and we perceive that all those who have recently arrived there have obtained respectable employment. We therefore shall make no objection to their continuance at the settlement while they fulfill
what you are to consider as the implied condition of our sufferance in all such cases, that of conducting themselves with propriety."

This incident made Mr. Fullerton very unpopular with the European inhabitants, and about the same time he incurred the disfavour of the native population by the introduction of drastic land regulations based on the Madras model. The necessity for some action seems to have been urgent, judging from the tenor of an entry in the Singapore records under date August 29, 1827. It is here stated that during the administration of Mr. Crawfurd great laxity of payment at the rate of two rupees per acre of the land surveyed. Up to September 18, 1829, the ground covered included 4,909 acres of Singapore, 1,038 of St. George's in Blakang Mati Island, and 215 of Gage Island. It was then recommended that the survey should embrace the Bugis town, Rockar river, and Sandy Point, "by which the brick kilns and all the uncoupled land in that direction will be brought into the survey, as well as all the forts connected with the plan of defence." The proposals were adopted, and the survey finally completed by Mr. Coleman.

was manifested in respect of the grant of location tickets. Those outstanding issues, Mr. Crawfurd alone (all for land in the vicinity of the town) amounted to within 14,000 acres of the whole computed area of the island, "although but a very inconsiderable space is cleared, and the greater part of the island is still an impervious forest." An almost necessary outcome of the new land system was the commencement of a topographical survey of the island. The work was entrusted to Mr. George D. Coleman, the gentleman responsible for the act of vandalism narrated in the previous chapter. Mr. Coleman erred on this occasion, but his name will always be linked with some of the most useful work associated with the building of Singapore. The survey was undertaken by Mr. Coleman independently on the basis of


CHAPTER IV.

INTRODUCTION OF THE JUDICIAL SYSTEM—THE DAWN OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

The arbitrariness shown by Mr. Fullerton in his administrative acts was extended to his relations with his official colleagues, and brought him into collision more than once with them. The most violent of these personal controversies, and in its effects the most important, was a quarrel with Sir J. T. Claridge, the Recorder, over a question relating to the latter's expenses on circuit. Sir J. T. Claridge contended that the demand made upon him under the new charter to hold sessions at Singapore and Malacca entitled him to special expenses, and that these should be paid him before he went on circuit. Mr. Fullerton demurred to this, and declined to make any advance without direct authority. Thereupon the Recorder refused to proceed to Malacca and Singapore. Finding him obdurate, the Governor himself went to discharge the judicial duties in those ports. Before leaving he made a call for certain documents from the Court of Judicature, and received from Sir J. T. Claridge a flat refusal to supply them. Not to be frustrated, Mr. Fullerton summoned a full court, and he and the Resident Councillor, as the majority, carried a resolution directing the documents to be supplied, and as a consequence they were supplied. Following upon these incidents Sir J. T. Claridge paid a visit to Calcutta, with the object of consulting his judicial brethren there on the points at issue in his controversy with the Governor. Apparently the advice given to him was that he had made a mistake in declining to transact his judicial duties. At all events, on returning to Phang he intimated his readiness to proceed to Malacca and Singapore. The journey was undertaken in due course, but on arriving at Singapore Sir J. T. Claridge cast a veritable bomb into Government circles by a declaration from the bench that the Gaming Farm, from which a substantial proportion of the revenue of the settlement was derived, was illegal. Reluctantly the authorities relinquished the system, which had proved so convenient a means of filling their exchequer, and which
they were prepared to defend on the ground even of morality. In the meantime the struggle between the Assessors and the Board of Revenue transferred to Leadenhall Street, and from thence came, in the latter part of 1829, an order for Sir J. T. Claridge’s recall. The Recorder was at first disposed to complete the judicial work upon which he was engaged, but Mr. Fuller ton would not hear of his remaining in office a minute longer, and he eventually embarked for England on September 7, 1829, much, no doubt, to the relief of his official associates at Pinang. On arrival home Sir J. T. Claridge appealed to the Privy Council against his recall, but without avail. The Council, while holding that no imputation rested upon his capacity or integrity in the discharge of his judicial functions, considered that his conduct had been such as to justify his dismissal. The effect of the decision was to re-establish the court under the old charter, and Sir Benjamin Malkin was sent out as Recorder. He assumed his duties in the Straits in 1832.

The introduction of a regular judicial system had one important consequence not contemplated probably by the officialdom of the Straits when the charter was given. It opened the way to municipal government. Early in 1827 a body called the Committee of Assessors was appointed in Pinang to supervise the cleansing, watching, and keeping in repair of the streets of the settlement, and the following editorial notice in the Singapore Chronicle of April 20th of the same year appears to indicate that an analogous body was set up in Singapore:

“We adverted a short time ago to the improvements carrying on and contemplated by the Committee of Assessors, and we hope that the kindness of our friends will enable us in a future number to give a detailed account of them all. We understand that the Government, with their accustomed liberality wherever the interests of the Island are concerned, have not only warmly sanctioned, but have promised to bear half the expenses of the projected new roads; and we hope that their aid will be equally extended to the other improvements which are now contemplated.’’

The editor went on to suggest the holding of a lottery as a means of raising funds. This question of funds was a difficulty which apparently stabilised the nascent activities of the pioneer municipal body. At all events its existence was a brief one, as is evident from a presentment made by the grand jury at the quarter sessions in February, 1829, over which Sir J. T. Claridge presided. The grand jury requested the authorities “to take into consideration the expediency and advantage of appointing a committee of assessors, chosen from amongst the principal inhabitants of the settlement, for the purpose of carrying into effect without delay a fair and equitable assessment of the property of each inhabitant in houses, land, &c., for the maintenance of an efficient night police, and for repairing the roads, bridges, &c.” The suggestion called forth the following observations from the Recorder:

“As to that part of your presentment which relates to roads and bridges and that which relates to the police, I must refer you to the printed copies of the charter (page 46) by which the court is authorised and empowered to hold a court of quarter sessions for the trial and punishment of the peace, and to give orders touching the making, repairs, and cleansing of the roads, streets, bridges, and ferries, and for the removal and abatement of public nuisances, and for such other purposes of police, and for the appointment of peace officers and the trial and punishment of misdemeanours, and doing such other acts as are usually done by justices of the peace at their general and quarter sessions in England as nearly as circumstances will admit and shall require.”

The Recorder then stated the manner in which these matters were conducted in England, and concluded by observing that “as it would be unjust to empower the court of quarter sessions to give orders touching the several matters specified unless they have also the means of carrying such orders into effect, I think the court of quarter sessions may lawfully make a rate for the above purpose.”

In consequence of this the magistrates convened a meeting of the principal inhabitants to discuss the matter. At this gathering they proposed as a matter of courtesy to admit a certain number of merchants to act with them as assessors, but at the same time gave the understanding that the same persons should also exercise the power to enforce the payment of the assessments. None of the merchants, however, would consent to act. They declined on the ground that as they possessed no legal authority to act they could exercise no efficient check. They intimated, furthermore, that they had complete confidence in the integrity of the present bench. Subsequently the magistrates issued a notification that a rate of 5 per cent. would be made on the rents of all houses in Singapore. There was at the outset some disposition on the part of the officials to question the legality of this assessment, but in the end the magistrates’ power to make a rate was acknowledged and Singapore entered smoothly upon its municipal life.

Some years later the Committee of Assessors here and at Malacca and Pinang developed into a Municipal Board, constituted under an Act of the Legislative Council. The Board’s authority consisted of five Commissioners, two of whom were nominated by the Government and three elected by ratepayers who contributed 25 dollars annually of assessed taxes.

Though to a certain extent these were days of progress in Singapore, some of the official records read strangely at the present time. When Singapore is one of the great coaling stations and cable centres of the world. Take the following entry of June 21, 1826, as an example:

“We are not aware of any other means of procuring coal at the Eastern settlements excepting that of making purchases from time to time out of the ships from Europe and New South Wales. Under instructions received from the Supreme Government we made a purchase a short time since of forty tons of the article from the last-mentioned country at the price of 14 Spanish dollars per ton. The spectacle of the Singapore government repaying upon passing ships for their supplies of coal is one which will strike the present-day resident in the Straits as comic. But it is not, perhaps, so amusing as the attitude taken up by the Leadenhall Street magnates on the subject of telegraphy. In 1827, the Inspector-General having urged the expenses of the telegraphic communication between several points on the main island, the local Government directed him to submit an estimate of the probable cost of three telegraph stations, and meantime they authorised the appointment of two Europeans as signalmen on a salary of Rs. 50 a month. In due course the minute relating to the subject was forwarded home, with a further proposal for the erection of a lighthouse. The Court of Directors appear to have been astounded at the audacity of the telegraphic proposal. In a despatch dated June 17, 1829, they wrote: “You will probably not find it expedient to erect the proposed lighthouse at Singapore, and we positively interdict you from acting upon the projected plan for telegraphic communication. We can conceive no rational use for the establishment of telegraphs in such a situation as that of Singapore.” No rational use “for telegraphs in Singapore! How those old autocrats of the East India Office would rub their eyes if they could see Singapore as it is to-day—the great nerve centre from which the cable system of the Eastern world radiates! But no doubt the Court of Directors acted according to the best of their judgment. When Singapore in those far-off times wanted many things, and telegraphic communication might well appear an unnecessary extravagance beside them. For example, the island was so defenceless that in 1827, on the receipt of a false rumour that war had been declared against Great Britain in Spain, orders had to be given for the renewal of the carriages of guns at the temporary battery erected on the occupation of the island, and for “the clearing of the Point at the entrance to the creek for the purpose of landing a platform battery.” About the same time we find the Resident Councillor urging the necessity of erecting public buildings, “the few public buildings now at Singapore being in a very dilapidated state, and others being urgently required to be built.” Meanwhile, he intimates that he has “engaged a new house, nearly completed, for the Council and the Recorder’s chambers at a yearly rental of 6,000 dollars for three years, it being the only house in the island adapted for the purpose.” Another passage in the same communication states that owing to the “very improper and inconvenient situation of the burial ground on the side of Government Hill” the Inspector-General had selected “a more suitable spot in the vicinity of the town, which we have directed to be walled in.”

Sir J. T. Claridge’s judicial dictum that “gambling was an indefensible vice” was a source of considerable embarrassment to the Government. The substantial sum derived from the farming of the right to keep licensed gambling-houses could not be readily sacrificed. On the other hand, it was manifestly impossible to disregard the opinion of the highest judicial authority on the settlement. In the spirit of indecision, the Government reluctantly suspended the Gaming Farm system. The disorganisation to the finance which resulted from the action was considerable, and with the departure of Sir J. T. Claridge it seems to have
been felt that his opinion might be disregarded. The machinery consequently was set in motion again after the issue of a minute by Mr. Fullerton affirming the legality of this method of raising the revenue. The effect upon the revenue was very marked. The receipts advanced from Rs. 95,482,110 in 1829-30 to Rs. 177,880,15 in the year 1830-31.

The Singapore administration as a whole at this juncture was in a state of no little confusion, owing to changes which were impending in the constitution of the Straits. In 1827 Lord William Bentinck, the Governor-General, had descended upon the settlements infused with what the local officials regarded as an unholy zeal for economy. On arriving at Pinang he professed not to be able to see what the island was like for the number of cocked hats in the way. Forthwith he proceeded to cut down the extravagant establishment maintained there. He visited Singapore, and his sharp eye detected many weak points in the administrative armour. The official shears were exercised in various directions, and retrenchment was so sternly enforced that Mr. Fullerton felt himself constrained to withdraw the official subsidies, or, as they preferred to regard them, subscriptions, from the local press. The Malacca editor kicked against the pricks, and found himself in difficulties in consequence. At Singapore a more philosophical view was taken of the Government action. It was argued that if Government was at liberty to withdraw its subscription the editor was free to withhold his papers and close his columns to Government announcements. Acting on this principle, he informed the authorities that they could no longer be supplied with the eleven free copies of the journal they had been in the habit of receiving. The officials retorted with a more rigorous censorship. And so the battle was waged until Mr. Fullerton finally shook the dust of the Straits from his feet in the middle of 1830. Before this period arrived a great change had been made in the government of Singapore. As a result of Lord William Bentinck's visit the settlement, in common with Pinang and Malacca, were in 1830 put under the control of the Government of Bengal. The change was sanctioned in a despatch of the Supreme Government dated May 25, 1830. In this communication the headquarters of the new administration was fixed at Singapore, with Mr. Fullerton as "Chief Resident" on a salary of Rs. 39,000. Under him were a First Assistant, with a salary of Rs. 24,000; and a Second Assistant, with Rs. 10,000. The chief officials at Pinang and Malacca were styled Deputy-Residents, and their emoluments were fixed at Rs. 30,000 for the former and Rs. 24,000 for the latter. Two chaplains, with salaries of Rs. 9,600, and a missionary, with Rs. 2,500, were part of the establishment.

Mr. Fullerton remained only a few months in chief control at Singapore. Before he handed over control to his successor, Mr. Ibbetson, he penned a long and able minute on the trade of the three settlements. He gave the following figures as representative of the imports and exports for the official year 1828-29:

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Rs.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Imports</td>
<td>1,76,40,993½</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exports</td>
<td>1,58,75,997½</td>
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This paragraph relative to the method of
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

trading followed in Singapore is of interest from the light it throws on the early commercial system of the settlement: "In considering the extent of the trade at Singapore, rated not in goods but in money, some reference must be had to the peculiar method in which all commercial dealings are there conducted; the unceasing drain of specie leaves not any scarcely in the place. Specie, therefore, never enters into any common transaction. All goods are disposed of on credit, generally for two months, and to intermediate native Chinese merchants, and those at the expiration of the period deliver in return not money, but articles of Straits produce adapted to the return cargo; the value on both sides of the transaction is rated from 25 to 30 per cent. beyond the sum that would be paid in ready cash; and as the price current from which the statement is rated is the barter and not the ready money price, the real value of the trade may be computed 30 per cent. under the amount stated." 1

About this period a curious question, arising out of the occupation of the island, gave a considerable amount of trouble to the authorities. By the terms of the Treaty of 1815 the United States trade with the Eastern dependencies of Great Britain was confined to Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Pinaq. The construction put upon this provision by the Straits officials was that Singapore, even when under the government of Pinaq, was not a port at which the citizens of the United States could trade. The consequence was that American ships, then very numerous in these seas, touched only at Singapore and proceeded to Riau, where they shipped cargo which had been sent on from the British port. The practice was not only irksome to the Americans, but it was detrimental to British trade in that it diverted to the Dutch port much business which would otherwise have been transacted at Singapore. Eventually, in March, 1830, the Singapore Government, yielding to the pressure which was put upon them, agreed to allow American vessels to trade with Singapore. But they intimated that "it must be understood that such permission cannot of itself legalise the act should other public officers having due authority proceed against the ships on the ground of illegality." The concession was freely availed of, and the mercantile marine of the United States played no small part in the next few years in building up the great trade which centred at the port.

Mr. Isherton retired from the government in 1833, and was succeeded by Mr. Kenneth Murchison, the Resident Councillor at Singapore. After four years' tenure of the office Mr. Murchison proceeded home, handing over charge temporarily to Mr. Samuel G. Bonham. Mr. Church was sent out from England to fill the vacant office, but he remained only a few months. On his departure Mr. Bonham was appointed as his successor, and held the appointment until 1843. During his administration the trade of the port greatly increased. Ships of all nations resorted to the settlement as a convenient calling place on the voyage to and from the Far East, while it more and more became an entrepôt for the trade of the Eastern

seas. On the outbreak of the China War its strategic value was demonstrated by the ready facilities it afforded for the expeditions despatch of troops and stores to the theatre of war. For nearly three years it formed the rendezvous as well as in great measure the base of the expeditionary force, and unquestionably no small share of the success of the operations was due to the fact that the Government had this convenient centre with its great resources at its disposal. These were halcyon days for Singapore merchants, and, indeed, for residents imagine that these waters were almost within living memory infested with bloodthirsty pirates, who prosecuted their operations on an organised system, and robbed and murdered under the very guns of the British settlements. Such, however, was the case, as is attested not merely in the works of passing travellers but in the formal records of Government and the proceedings of the courts. Singapore itself, without doubt, was, before the British occupation, a nest of pirates. Thereafter the piratical base was transferred to the Karimn Islands, and from

CHAPTER V

PIRACY IN THE STRAITS—STEAM NAVIGATION—FISCAL QUESTIONS.

A BLOT, and a serious one, upon the government of the Straits Settlements up to and even beyond this period was the piracy which was rife throughout the archipelago. At the present day, when vessels of all classes sail through the Straits with little apprehension as they navigate the English Channel, it is difficult to of all descriptions. So flourishing was the settlement that there were some who thought that the progress was too rapid to be really healthy. One writer of the period confidently declared that the trade of the port had reached its maximum, and that the town had attained to its highest point of importance and prosperity. "Indeed," he added, "it is at the present moment rather overbuilt." Alas! for the reputation of the prophet. Since the time his prediction was penned Singapore has considerably more than quadrupled in trade and population, and its maximum of development is still apparently a long way off.


to grapple with the evil, but, apart from a little bloodshed and a liberal expenditure of ammunition, the results were practically nil. The elusive pirates, in the face of the superior force which went out after them, showed that discretion which is proverbially the better part of valour. They lived to fight another day, and not infrequently that other day was one in the immediate future, for the Intelligence system of the bands was well organised, and they usually knew the exact limits of the official action.

The commercial community of Singapore waxed very restive under the repeated losses to which they were subjected by the piratical depredations. In an article on piracy on June 17, 1830, the Singapore Chronicle stigmatised in sharp terms the supineness of the British and Dutch authorities in permitting the organised system of piracy which then existed in the Straits. After stating that there was a total stagnation of trade owing to vessels hovering within gunshot of Singapore river, the writer proceeded: “Our rulers say: ‘Let the galled jade whine.’ They wander the Straits in well-armed vessels, but they feel little security, but were one of the select, a governor or resident or deputy, to fall into the hands of pirates, what would be the consequence? We should then have numerous men-of-war, cruisers, and armed boats scouring these seas. Indeed, to produce such an effect, though we wished not to arouse, we would not go too far in our efforts, for almost for his release, we would not care to hear of such an event. We have heard or read of a bridge in so dilapidated a condition that in crossing it lives were frequently lost. No notice was ever taken of such accidents! At length, woe to the time! on an unlucky morning the servant maid of Lady Mayo, unfortunately died, and the public, let a favourite pug dog (a poodle) drop over the parapet into the water. The poor dear animal was drowned. What was the consequence of such a calamity? Was the bridge repaired? No, but a new one was built!”

The lash of the writer’s satire was none too severe, for we have been without effect, for shortly afterwards a man-of-war was sent to cruise about the entrance to the harbour. But the measure fell very short of what was needed. The pirates, fully advertised of the vessel’s movements, took care to keep out of the way, and when some time afterwards it was reported from the station their operations were resumed with full vigour. So intolerable did the situation at last become that in 1832 the Chinese merchants of the port, with the sanction of the Government, equipped at their own expense four large trading boats fully armed to suppress the pirates. The little fleet on sailing out fell in with two pirate prahus, and succeeded in capturing them, and the Government, shamed into activity by this display of private enterprise, had two boats built at Malacca for protective purposes. They carried an armament of 24-pounder guns, and were manned by Malays. It was a very inadequate force to cope with the widespread piracy of the period, and the condition of affairs was not materially improved; petitions were in 1835 forwarded by the European inhabitants of Singapore to the King and to the Governor-General, praying for the adoption of more rigorous measures. In response to the appeal H.M. sloop Wolf was sent out with a special commission to deal with the pirates. Arriving on March 22, 1836, she conducted a vigorous crusade against the marauders. The pirates were attacked in their lairs and their boats either captured or destroyed. One of the prahus seized by the Wolf was 54 feet long and 15 feet beam, but the general length of these craft was 56 feet. They were heavily armed, pulling 36 oars—18 on each side. The rowers were of the lowest castes or slaves. Each prahu had a stockade not far from the bow, through which was pointed an iron 4-pounder. There was another stockade aft on which were stuck two swivels, and around the sides were from three to six guns of the same description. The brilliant work done by the Wolf was greatly appreciated by the mercantile community at Singapore. To mark “their grateful sense of his unwearied and successful exertions” the European and Chinese merchants presented to Captain Stanley, the commander of the Wolf, a sword of honour, and a public dinner was given to him and his officers on June 14, 1837, at which the most complimentary speeches were delivered. Severely as the pirates had been handled by the Wolf, the iniquitous trade had only been scotched. It developed into activity again and again subsequently, and was not finally wiped out until after repeated expeditions had been conducted against the marauders. As far as can be judged from statements, the development of steam navigation did more than anything else to remove the curse from the Straits. The first experience of the ruffians of the new force had it in an element of grim amusement. In 1837 the Diana, a little steam consort of the Wolf, was cruising in the Straits when she fell in with a prahu. The marauders, thinking she was a sloop-on fire, and therefore an easy prey for them, bore down upon her, firing as they approached. To their horror the Diana came up close against the wind and then suddenly stopped before the leading prahu, pouring a deadly fire into the pirate ranks. The process was repeated before each craft of the islands, with the result that the force in the end was almost annihilated. Profiting by their bitter experience on this and other occasions, the pirates confined their operations to those parts of the coast on which the shallow waters and numerous creeks provided a safe refuge. In case of attack by war vessels, and so they continued to resist until the inevitable end of the system which had flourished for ages in the archipelago.

The introduction of steam navigation into the Straits had such wide-reaching effects on the trade of Singapore that a reference to the subject falls naturally into a survey of the history of the settlement. In an earlier part of this work we have seen that to the Dutch belongs the honour of placing the first steam vessel on the Straits. The first of the class was not what would be considered in these days a success. It steamed only a few knots an hour, could keep the sea merely for a very short time, and its passages were frequently interrupted by breakdowns of the machinery. Still, its performances were sufficiently remarkable to suggest the enormous possibilities of the new force in the usually calm waters of the Straits. After its appearance a scheme was mooted for the establishment of a steam service between the settlements, Pinang, Pintab, and Calcutta. The expectation was that the passage from the former port to Calcutta, which in the case of sailing ships occupied five weeks, would not take more than eight days. Nothing came of the project immediately. The pioneers were before their time, and we may say that in the middle of the year published an article enthusiastically recommending the introduction of steam navigation. The Singapore editor in the issue of his paper of October 23rd, commenting on this, said: “That it would be an agreeable, if not in other respects a very useful, thing to have a steam vessel steam the settlements, which might visit now and then Calcutta, Java, or China, everyone is agreed. The only question, but rather a material one, is—would it pay? Supposing the vessel purchased and ready for sea, would the money received for freight and passage pay the interest of the outlay and the constantly recurring charges of a competent commander, an engineer, a crew, the expenses of frequent repairs, including the loss of time consumed in them?” The Malacca scribe, not deterred by this copious dash of cold water, reiterated his strong belief in the virtues of steam power. Thereupon the Singapore Chronicle remarked that it did not know how its Malacca contemporary reconciled his contempt of rhetoric “with the bold dash of it contained in his assertion that a steam vessel or two in the Straits would have the marvellous effect of doubling the commerce of those settlements.” The Malacca Journal retorted by citing the fact that fifty years previously it took more than a fortnight to go from London to Edinburgh, while the proprietors of the wagons used to advertise days previously for passengers. “Now,” he went on, “there are no less than two thousand coaches which daily leave and arrive at London from all parts of the kingdom.” But upon this the Singapore Chronicle replied, despite its costliness and the difficulties which attended it, was bound to be successful. While this lively polemic was

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1. "Anecdotal History of Singapore."
proceeding the Government of the settlements had before it a serious proposal to provide a steamer to maintain communication between Pinang, Malacca, and Singapore. The suggestion arose out of the difficulty of holding the courts of quarter sessions at each of the three ports at the regular periods enjoined in the charter. Sir J. T. Clarke, the Recorder, pointed out that if sailing vessels were used at least two months of his time would be occupied annually in travelling between the ports. He urged that the solution of the difficulty was the provision of a steamer which would enable him to do the journey from Pinang to Singapore in three days, and to return via Malacca in the same period. The Supreme Government declined to provide the steam vessel on the ground that the cost would be prohibitive.

After this the question of steam navigation slumbered for some years. When next it was seriously revived it was in the form of a proposal for a monthly service from Singapore to Calcutta. A company was formed under the name of the New Bengal Steam Fund, with shares of Rs. 600 each. As many as 3,475 shares were taken by 765 individuals, and the project, with this substantial financial backing, assumed a practical shape. Eventually, in 1841 the committee of the fund entered into an agreement with the P. & O. Company, and transferred its shares to that company. From this period development of steam navigation was rapid, until the point was reached at which the Straits were traversed by a never-ending procession of steam vessels bearing the flags of all the great maritime nations of the world.

An early outcome of the establishment of steam navigation in the Straits was the introduction of a regular mail service. The first contract for the conveyance of the mails was made between the P. & O. Company and the Government in 1845. Under the terms of this arrangement the company contracted to convey the mails from Ceylon to Pinang in forty-five hours, and from thence to Singapore in forty hours. The first mail vessel despatched under the contract was the Lady Wood, which arrived at Singapore on August 4, 1845, after an eight-day passage from Point de Galle. She brought the mails from London in the then marvellous time of forty-one days. The first homeward mail was despatched amid many felicitations on the expedition which the new conditions made possible in the carrying through of business arrangements. Unhappily, before the mail steamer had fairly cleared the harbour it was discovered that the whole of the prepaid letters had, through the blundering of some official, been left behind. This complication naturally caused much irritation, but eventually the community settled down to a placid feeling of contentment at the prospect which the mail system opened up of rapid and regular intercourse with Europe and China and the intermediate ports.

From time to time, as Singapore grew and its revenues increased, attempts were made to tamper with the system of Free Trade on which its greatness had been built. As early as 1829, when the temporary financial difficulty created by the enforced suspension of the Gaming Farm system necessitated a consideration of the question of creating new sources of revenue, we find Mr. Presgrave, who was in temporary charge of the administration at Singapore, suggesting a tax on commerce as the only means of supplying the deficiency. He expressed the view that such an impost would not injure the rising commerce of the island provided regulations arrangements were made for exempting native trade from some of those restrictive measures usually attendant on customs-house regulations. "The policy of exempting the trade from all impositions on the first establishment of Singapore," he proceeded to say, "was considered as a leading string in question; but as the trade has now passed the stage of its infancy I am of opinion there is little to apprehend from casting away the leading strings." The "leading strings" were, fortunately, not cast away. The Supreme Government was opposed to any change in the Court of Directors, though not conspicuously endowed with foresight at this time, were wise enough to realise that Singapore's prosperity was bound up in its maintenance as a free port. The re-establishment of the Gaming Farm set at rest the question for the time being; but there was an effort made on the principle in 1876, when the efforts for the suppression of piracy imposed a burden upon the Supreme Government which it was disinclined to bear. The idea then mooted was the levying of a special tax on the trade of the three settlements to cover the charges. A draft bill was submitted to Mr. Murchison, the Resident, for his opinion, and he in turn consulted the mercantile community. Their reply left no shadow of doubt as to the unpopularity of the proposals. A public meeting of protest, summoned by the sheriff, held on February 4, 1876, passed strongly worded resolutions of protest and adopted a petition to Parliament to disallow the scheme. In August, Lord Glenelg, the Secretary for the Colonies, wrote saying that the measure was deprecated by the Government and would find no countenance from this quarter, and when directed by the Supreme Government to suspend the proposals, if not enacted, and if enacted to repeal them. The Indian authorities, defeated on the question of a direct impost, in 1876 returned to the charge with a tonnage duty on square-rigged vessels. The scheme came to nothing at the time, but it was revived about twenty years later. A protest was promptly forwarded to the home authorities from Singapore against the project. The Court of Directors, on receiving this, wrote to the Governor-General on March 25, 1877, to inquire if there was any foundation for the statement that duties were to be levied. "You are doubtless aware," the Court wrote, "that when this subject was under our consideration in the year 1852 we signified our entire approbation of the abolition of port dues at Singapore; and that in the following year we expressed our opinion that the establishment of duties on imports and exports at that settlement would be inexpedient. The success which has hitherto attended the freedom of trade at these ports has confirmed the opinion expressed to you in these despatches, and we should deplore the imposition of any burden on the commerce of the Straits Settlements excepting under circumstances of urgent necessity."

The Government of India replied that they had no intention to impose customs duties at Singapore. They explained that with regard to the levy of port dues, after the Port Regulation Act of 1855 was passed a request was made to the Straits Government, in common with other local administrations, for certain information to enable the Government to pass a supplementary Act for the regulation of Customs. On February 10, 1876, the Governor of the Straits Government replied that if not considered to interfere with the freedom of the port he was inclined to agree with the imposition of a duty of half an anna per ton on all square-rigged vessels, and would further recommend that all native ships clearing out of the harbour should pay a fee of two rupees for junk and one rupee for boats of all descriptions. "The amount so realised would," the Governor said, "provide for all present expenses and enable us to do all that may be necessary for the efficient management of the harbours and their approaches." The despatch pointed out that dues were abolished at Singapore in 1823, not because they were contrary to any sound principle, but because they were unfairly assessed and were incomprehensible in amount. The strong expression of opinion from the Court of Directors was not without its effect. The scheme was conveniently shelved, and amid the larger questions which speedily arose in connection with the transfer of the government of India to the Crown it was forgotten.

Apart from this matter of imposts on the trade, there was from time to time serious dissatisfaction with the control of the Government of India of the settlement. In 1847 the discontent found vent in two petitions to Parliament, one with reference to an Indian Act (No. III. of 1847) transferring the appointment of police officers from the court of Directors to the Governor-General. The one was from a group of merchants, and the other asking that municipal funds should be placed under the management of a committee chosen by the ratepayers, which had always been the case, but which practice was rendered doubtful in the opinion of the Recorder (Sir W. Norris) by another Act. An able statement in support of the petition was drawn up by Mr. John Crawford, a leading citizen. The facts set forth in this document constituted a very striking picture of the progressive growth of the settlement. Mr. Crawford wrote:

"The industry of the inhabitants of Singapore has created the fund from which the whole revenues are levied. This is made evident enough when the fact is adverted to that eight-and-twenty years ago the island, which has now fifteen thousand inhabitants, was a jungle with 150 Malay fishermen imbued with a strong propensity for piracy, and no wealth at all, unless it were a little plunder. At the present time the entire revenues may be safely estimated at not less than £50,000 per annum, being equal to a pound sterling per head, which is equal to about five-fold the ratio of taxation yielded by the population of Bengal."
The revenues are divided into two branches, although the division be in reality little better than arbitrary—the general and the police; or taxes and rates. The first consists of excise on wine, spirits, and opium; of quit-rents; of the produce of the sale of wild lands; of fees and fines; of postages, &c. The second is a percentage on the rental of houses. The general revenue amounted in 1845-46 in round numbers to £14,000 and the local one to

industry of the inhabitants—a fund wholly created within the short period of twenty-eight years. I cannot see, then, with what show of reason it can be said that the Executive Government pays the police, simply because it is the mere instrument of disbursement."

Mr. Crawfurd went on to say that the practice with respect to the colonies under the Crown had of late years been rather to extend than to curtail the privileges of the inhabitants, settlements from the control of the Government of India to that of the Colonial Office. However that may be, the mercantile community of Singapore was unquestionably becoming less and less disposed to submit their increasingly important concerns to the sole arbitrament of the prejudiced and sometimes ill-informed bureaucracy of India.

One notable interest which was at this time coming rapidly to the front was the planting industry. One of Raflies's first concerns after he had occupied the settlement was to stimulate agricultural enterprise. On his initiative the foundations of a Botanical Department were laid, and plants and seeds were distributed from it to those settlers who desired to cultivate the soil. The first-fruits of the undertaking were not encouraging. Compared with Pinang, the settlement offered little attraction to the planter. The soil was comparatively poor, the labour supply limited, and the island was largely an uncleared waste, ravaged by wild beasts. Gradually, however, the best of the land was taken up, and, aided by an excellent climate, the various plantations flourished. A statement prepared by the Government surveyor in 1848 gives some interesting particulars of the extent of the cultivation and the results accruing from it. There were at that time 1,190 acres planted with 71,400 nutmeg-trees, the produce of which in nutmegs and mace amounted to 650 piculs, yielding an annual value of 39,900 dollars. There were 28 acres planted with clove-trees. Coconut cultivation occupied 2,658 acres, the number of trees being 342,608, and the produce yielding a value of 10,800 dollars. Betel-nut cultivation absorbed 445 acres, and upon this area 128,281 trees were planted, yielding 1,650 dollars annually. Fruit trees occupied 1,037 acres, and their produce was valued at 9,508 dollars. The gambier cultivation covered an extent of 23,320 acres, and the produce was valued at 80,000 dollars. The pepper cultivation was stated at 2,014 acres, yielding 108,230 dollars annually. Vegetable gardens covered 370 acres, and the produce was stated at 34,675 dollars. The siri or pomegranate trees were also imported, and planted in 22 acres, and yielded 10,900 dollars. A few wax and sugar-cane, pineapples, rice, or paddy, engrossed 1,902 acres, and the estimated produce was valued at 32,386 dollars. The quantity of ground under pasture was 402 acres, valued at 2,000 dollars annually. The total gross annual produce of the Island was valued at 328,711 dollars.

At a later period the planting industry sustained a disastrous check through the failure of the crops consequent upon the exhaustion of the soil. Many of the planters migrated to better land across the channel in Johore, and formed the nucleus of the great community which flourishes there to-day.

The question of providing dock accommodation at Singapore was first seriously broached. The proposal put forward was for a dock 300 feet long, 68 feet wide, and 15 feet deep, to cost 80,000 dollars. Inadequate support was accorded to the scheme, and the question slumbered until a good many years later, when the famous Tanjong Pagar Dock Company came into existence and commenced the great undertaking, which was taken over by the

RIVER IN THE PRIMEVAL FOREST, JOHORE. (From "Stüzen aus Singapur und Ojohor.")
Government in 1866 at a cost to the colony of nearly three and a half million pounds.

The dock scheme was suggested by the growing trade flowing through the Straits, with Singapore as an almost inevitable port of call. Identical ideas had irremediably a few years later to an eager discussion of the practical aspects of telegraphic communication. The authorities had outgrown the earlier attitude which saw "no rational use" for a telegraphic system in Singapore, but they were still very far from realising the immense imperial potentialities which centred in an efficient cable system. When the subject was first mooted in a practical way in 1828 by the launching of a scheme by Mr. W. H. Reed for the extension of the Indian telegraph lines to Singapore, China, and Australia, the Australian colonies took the matter up warmly, and promised a subsidy of £5,000 for thirty years, and the Dutch Government, not less enthusiastic, offered a subsidy of £8,500 for the same period. But the Home Government resolutely declined to assist, and though repeated deputations waited upon it on the subject; it refused to alter its policy. Nevertheless the project was proceeded with, and on November 24, 1859, Singapore people had the felicity of seeing the first link forged in the great system of telegraphic communication that now exists by the opening of the electric cable between Singapore and Batavia. Congratulatory messages were exchanged, and the community were getting used to the experience of having their messages flashed across the wire, when there were ominous delays due to injuries caused to the cable either by the friction of coral rocks or by anchors of vessels dropped in the narrow straits through which the line passed. Not for a considerable time was the system placed on a perfectly satisfactory basis. In 1866 a new scheme was started for a line of telegraphs from Rangoon through Siam to Singapore, from Malacca through Sumatra, Java, and the Dutch Islands to Australia, and through Cochin China to China. This project was not more favoured with official countenance than the earlier one, and it remained for private interests alone to initiate and carry through the remarkable system by which Singapore was brought into touch with every part of the civilised world by its cables radiating from that point.

In political as in commercial matters the policy of the East India Company in relation to the Straits Settlements was narrow-minded and lacking in foresight. In some cases it showed an even more objectionable quality—it was unjust. It is difficult to find in the whole range of the history of British dealings with Asiatie races a more flagrant example of wrong-doing than the treatment of the Sultan of Kedah, or Quedah, from whom we obtained the grant of the island of Pinang. The story is told in the section of the work dealing with Pinang, and it is only necessary to say here that, having obtained a valuable territorial grant under conditions agreed to by its representative, and tacitly accepted by itself, the Government declined to carry out those conditions when circumstances seemed to make ratification inexpedient. At Singapore an almost exact parallel to the Company’s action, or, to speak correctly, inaction in this instance, was furnished in its dealings with the Sultan Tunku Ali, the son of Sultan Husein, who, jointly with the Dato’ Temenggong Abdil Rahman, had ceded the island to the British Government in 1819. Sir Frank Swettenham is at great pains in his book to unravel the rather tangled facts, and it is with a sense of humiliation that they must be read by every self-respecting Briton small account, but the influx of Chinese planters created a revenue, and it became important to know to whom that revenue should be paid. Governor Butterworth, in a communication to the Supreme Government of October 21, 1846, spoke of the Temenggong having "irregularly" collected the small revenue—an impost on timber—previously existing, and recommended that the proceeds of an opium farm who values the name of his country for fair dealing. The narrative is too long to give in detail here, but briefly it may be said that the dispute turned on the respective rights of the Sultan and the Temenggong. The controversy directly arose out of a request made by Tunku Ali that he should be installed as Sultan of Johore. The matter first assumed importance in the early days of the Chinese migration to Johore. Before that Johore was a territory just established should be equally divided between the two. Accompanying this letter and recommendation was an application which had been made by Tunku Ali that he should be acknowledged and installed as Sultan. The reply of the Government was to the effect that "unless some political advantage could be shown to accrue from the measure the Honourable the President in Council declined to adopt it." In 1854 the question was again raised by
Mr. A. Blundell, who was officiating as Governor at the time. This functionary expressed his inability to find any ground of expediency to justify the step, but he strongly urged the impolicy of allowing "such an apparently clear and undisputed claim" as that of Tunku Ali to remain any longer in abeyance.

An unfavourable reply was given by the Supreme Government for some years, and then, Mr. Blundell, undeterred by this, raised the matter afresh in a letter dated January 14, 1853. In this communication Mr. Blundell reaffirmed with emphasis the justice of Tunku Ali's claims to recognition, and intimated that he had induced both the Sultan and the Temenggong to agree to an arrangement under which the revenue, calculated at no dollars per annum, should be divided between the two for a period of three years, at the expiration of which time a new calculation should be made. The Supreme Government on March 4, 1853, sent a curious answer to Mr. Blundell's proposal of compromise. They intimated that they had desired the Sultan and the Temenggong, but that "if the arbitration in question should be proposed and the Temenggong be willing to purchase entire sovereignty by a sacrifice of revenue in favour of the Sultan, the Governor-General in Council conciliates that the measure would be acceptable to one and all parties.

There was, of course, no question of the Temenggong purchasing entire sovereignty by a sacrifice of revenue. What had been suggested was an amicable agreement as to revenues of which the Sultan had hitherto been, to adopt Colonel Butterworth's phrase, "irregularly" deprived. Broadly speaking, however, the despatch may be accepted as sanctioning the proposal put forward by Mr. Blundell. An interval of some months elapsed after the receipt of the communication, and when the subject again figures on the records it assumes a different aspect. Colonel Butterworth, who had been away on leave, finding Tunku Ali "entangled in an important movement to the proposal, Singapore," declined to arbitrate, and went to Pinang. Afterwards negotiations apparently were carried on by Mr. Church, the Resident Councillor, and finally, as an outcome of them, a proposal was submitted to the Supreme Government that Tunku Ali should be installed as Sultan, should be allowed to retain a small strip of territory known as Kesang Muar, in which the graves of his ancestors were situated, that he should receive 5,000 dollars in cash, and that he should be paid 500 dollars a month in perpetuity. In consideration of these concessions he was to renounce absolutely all sovereign rights in Johore. After a considerable amount of time had elapsed between these terms were embodied in a treaty dated March 10, 1855, which Tunku Ali reluctantly signed. Sir Frank Swettenham, whose sympathies are very strongly displayed on the side of the Sultan, significantly mentions that the annual revenues of Johore "have amounted to over a million dollars for some years, and they are now probably about 1,200,000 dollars, or, say, £140,000." The latter phases of this disagreeable episode may be related in his words.

"Sultan Ali is dead, and his son would still be in receipt of 500 dollars a month from Johore (originally about £1,200 a year), but the district of Muar has also passed away from him and his family to the Temenggong's successors. When that further transfer took place about twenty years ago, the allowance was by the efforts of Governor Sir Wm. Robinson raised to 1,250 dollars a month, divided amongst the late Sultan's family. Lastly, it must be noted that there was no provision in the agreements submitted by the Temenggong on April 3, 1854, read, 'Tunku Ali, his heirs and successors to be recognised as Sultan of Johore,' the son and heir of Sultan Ali was never more than Tunku Alamin, while the son and heir of the Temenggong became 'the Sultan of the state and territory of Johore,' and that is the title held by his grandson, the present Sultan. The grandson of Sultan Ali is to-day Tunku Mahmut. If Sultan Ali sold his birthright in 1855 to secure the recognition of his title by the Government of India he made a poor bargain. The Government of India doubtless disclaimed any concern with the relations between the Sultan and the Temenggong, however indifferent the plea, it is one to which neither the local nor the British Government can lay any claim in their subsequent proceeding."

CHAPTER VI.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE CROWN COLONY SYSTEM.

While this act of injustice was being perpetrated the sands of the Indian government of the Straits Settlements were running out. In the two and a half centuries of its connexion with the archipelago the East India Company had never shown conspicuous judgment in its dealings with its possessions. Its successes were achieved in spite of its policy rather than because of it, and if there is one thing more certain than another about these valuable possessions of the Crown, it is that they would not be to-day under the British flag if the governing power, represented by the autocracy of Leadenhall Street, had had their way. The failings of the system did not diminish with age; rather they developed in miskinest strength as the settlement grew and flourished. The mercantile commerce clashed for years under the restrictions, financial and administrative, imposed upon the colony. At length, on the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny, the feeling burst out into an open movement for the transfer of the administration from the Government of India to the Crown. The petition presented to the House of Commons in 1858 as a result of this agitation was, however, rejected. But, as the change in the system of administration on the systematic disregard of the wants and wishes of the inhabitants by the Government of India, and the disposition of the Calcutta authorities to treat all questions from an exclusively Indian point of view. It was pointed out that the settlements were under the control of a Governor appointed by the Governor-General.

"Without any council to advise or assist him, this officer has paramount authority within the settlements, and by his reports and suggestions the Supreme Government and Legislative Council are in a great measure guided in dealing with the affairs of these settlements. It may, and indeed does in reality frequently, happen that this functionary, from caprice, temper, or defective judgment, is opposed to the wishes of the whole community, yet in any conflict of opinion so arising his views are almost invariably adopted by the Supreme Government upon statements and representations. Sometimes they do not even have knowledge of and no opportunity of impugning." The memorialists pointed out that measures of a most obvious and harmful character had been introduced by the Government of India, and that they had only been defeated by the direct appeal of the inhabitants to the authorities at home. Moreover, Singapore had been made a dumping ground for the worst class of persons from the continental India, and these, owing to the imperfect system of discipline maintained, exercised a decidedly injurious influence on the community. In a statement appended to the report it was shown that, exclusive of disbursements for municipal purposes, the expenditure in 1854-55 amounted to an income of £103,187, but it was shown that the deficiency was more than accounted for by charges aggregating £75,338 imposed for military, marine, and convicts establishments — "charges which are never made against a local revenue in a royal colony."
in an eloquent passage of a memorable speech, to bring home to the people of Great Britain the vast strategic value of Singapore.

The financial doubts raised by the Home Government led to the despatch to the Straits of Sir Hercules Robinson (afterwards Lord Rosmead) to investigate on the spot a point which really should have been plain enough if the Colonial Office had been endowed with ordinary discernment. Sir Hercules Robinson's report was favourable, and the Government, acting upon it, passed through Parliament in the session of 1866 a measure legalising the status of the three settlements as a Crown colony, under a governor aided by a legislative council of the usual Crown colony type. The actual transfer was made on April 1, 1867. It was preceded by some rather discreditable blundering in reference to the executive. The arrangement made between the India and the Colonial Offices was that all uncovenanted officials should remain, but that the covenanted servants should revert to their original appointments in India.

The functionaries concerned were not formally notified of the change, but were left to gather the information from the newspapers. Even then they did not know the conditions under which their transfer was to be carried out. The question was raised in the House of Commons on March 8, 1867. In the course of the discussion Mr. John Stuart Mill commented severely on the action of the Government in withdrawing these experienced officials at a time when their knowledge of local affairs would be of great value. “He wanted to know what the colonial system was. He hoped and trusted there was no such thing. How could there be one system for the government of Demerara, Mauritius, the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, and Canada? What was the special fitness of a gentleman who had been employed in the administration of the affairs of one of those colonies for the government of another of which he knew nothing, and in regard to which his experience in other places could supply him with no knowledge? What qualifications had such a man that should render it necessary to appoint him to transact business of which he knew nothing in the place of gentlemen who did understand it, and who had been carrying it on, not certainly upon the Indian system, and he believed upon no system whatever but the Straits Settlements system?” As a result probably of this protest the arrangement for the withdrawal of the old officials was not carried out. But the Government, instead of appointing as the first Governor some man acquainted with the peculiar conditions of the Straits, sent out as head of the new administration Colonel Sir Harry Ord, C.B., an officer of the corps of Royal Engineers, whose administrative experience had been gained chiefly on the West Coast of Africa. Though an able man, Sir Harry Ord lacked the qualities essential for dealing with a great mercantile community. He was autocratic, brusque, and contemptuously indifferent to public opinion. Moreover, he had an extravagant sense of what was necessary to support the dignity of his office, and rushed the colony into expenditure which was in excess of what it ought to have been called upon to bear. His worst defect, however, was his ignorance of Malay affairs. Knowing nothing of the special conditions of the archipelago and of the peculiar characteristics of the inhabitants of the colony, he perpetrated many blunders which a man differently equipped would have avoided. His worst mistake was his support of the exchange of our interests in Sumatra for Dutch concessions which made us masters of the inhospitable wastes of the Gold Coast in West Africa. By this transfer we renounced rights centuries old in one of the richest islands of the tropics for the dubious privilege of exercising supremacy over hostile tribes and a dominion over a fever-stricken region of small commercial importance. The penalty of our shortsightedness in making the bargains was paid in the Ashanti War, and it is small consolation to reflect that the Dutch on their side have found the transaction even less advantageous, since they have been involved in practically continuous warfare with the Achinese ever since.” Sir Harry Ord erred in this matter and in others of less importance through a blindness to the great imperial interests which centre in the Straits. But it must be conceded that his vigorous administration, judged from the standpoint of finance, was brilliantly successful. When he assumed office the colony was, as we have seen, not paying its way, and there was so little prospect of its doing so that the Home Government hesitated to assume the burden. On the conclusion of his term of office the revenue of the settlements exceeded the expenditure by a very respectable sum. His administration, in fact, marked the turning-point in the history of the Straits. From that period the progress of the colony has been continuous, and the leisured doubts of timid statesmen have changed to a feeling of compunctious satisfaction at the contemplation of balance-sheets indicative of an enduring prosperity.

Some facts and figures may here be appropriately introduced to illustrate the marvellous development of the settlements since the introduction of Crown government. The financial and trade position is clearly shown in the following table given in Sir Frank Swettenham's work and brought up to date by the inclusion of the latest figures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Revenue in Dollars</th>
<th>Expenditure in Dollars</th>
<th>Trade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value of Imports in Dollars</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1868</td>
<td>42,149,788</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1869</td>
<td>43,086,322</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>54,440,388</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>59,010,601</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1872</td>
<td>65,690,212</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1873</td>
<td>64,705,135</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1874</td>
<td>67,179,079</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1875</td>
<td>63,177,719</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1876</td>
<td>63,180,938</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1877</td>
<td>100,513,222</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1878</td>
<td>127,043,092</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1879</td>
<td>172,074,553</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1880</td>
<td>326,163,851</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the grant of Crown government to the settlements the administration broadened out into a system which, as years went by, became more and more comprehensive of the interests of Malaya. In other sections of the work will be found a detailed description of the origin and growth of the existing arrangements by which the government of the three original settlements is added the control of the Protected Malay States, a vast territory rich in mineral and agricultural wealth and of high future commercial promise. All that it is necessary to note here is that the marvellous development of this important area had its natural influence on the trade of Singapore as the chief port of
the Straits. Another and still more potent factor was the opening of the Suez Canal and the consequent impetus given to steam navigation. In 1868 the tonnage of Singapore was 1,300,000; twenty years later it had increased to 6,200,000; and to-day, after another twenty years, it is over 13,000,000 tons. The population of the city has shown an equally remarkable increase. In 1870 an official return issued by the Supreme Government placed the number of the inhabitants at 57,421. Each successive year there was a large accession to the number of inhabitants until 1881, when the census showed a population of 139,308. Ten years later the number of inhabitants had risen to 184,554, and in 1901 the return gave a population of 228,555. To-day the population of Singapore is estimated to be above 250,000, or nearly five times what it was fifty years since. Remarkable as the growth of the port has been in the past, its progress seems likely to be not less rapid in the future. Sir Frank Swettenham anticipates the time when Singapore will have at least a million tons per annum, if it is true that, from the volume of its trade—"the largest in the British Empire next to London, Liverpool, and Hong-kong. Side by side with commercial progress there has been a steady growth in municipal efficiency. The history of the municipality is treated in detail elsewhere, but it may be noted here that the municipal revenues, which in 1839 amounted to 95,407 dollars against disbursements totalling 129,359 dollars, in 1905 reached the enormous sum of 2,149,951 dollars, as compared with an expenditure of 2,158,645 dollars. In the five years ending 1905 the municipal income was almost doubled.

The question was debated for a good many years in the Straits was the contribution exacted by the Imperial Government from the colony for military defence. The view of the settlements as a purely local territory which had obtained in the years of the East India Company's administration was one which Whitehall adopted with complacency, and forthwith it proceeded to charge against the revenues of the colony the very heavy cost of maintaining a garrison which, if it had any raison d'être at all, was placed where it was to uphold imperial as distinct from colonial interests. When the Imperial Government assumed the control of the colony the annual contribution of the colony towards the military expenses was fixed at £50,000. At or about this figure it remained until 1886, when, following upon the completion of an extensive system of fortification associated with the general scheme of protecting naval coaling stations abroad, the Colonial Office presented a peremptory demand for the increase of the contribution to £100,000. There was a rapid falling exchange and a practically stationary revenue, the doubling of the military contribution constituted a grievous burden upon the colony. The payment of the larger sum meant the complete stoppage of many useful works urgently needed in the development of the settlements. Alarmed at the prospect which was opened up, and irritated at the despotic manner in which the change was introduced, the mercantile community of Singapore set on foot a vehement agitation against the proposal. Official opinion in the colony was in strong sympathy with the movement, but the terms of the despatch of Lord Knutsford, the Secretary for the Colonies, in which the demand was preferred gave the local government no option in the matter. Accordingly on February 13, 1890, the necessary resolution to give effect to the Home Government's views was introduced in the Legislative Council and passed. The circumstances under which the vote was sanctioned, however, left no doubt as to the view taken by official and non-official members alike. While the latter delivered strenuous protests against the action of the Imperial Government and voted without exception against the resolution, the former maintained an eloquent silence. The official reticence was confined to the debate. When the proceedings of the Council were sent home the Governor, Sir Clementi Smith, accompanied them with a powerfully reasoned plea against the increase, and this was supplemented by minutes of the same tenor from other members of the Government.

**LORD CANNING, VICE-ROY OF INDIA.**

Though hopelessly worded in argument, Lord Knutsford—declined to be moved from his position. He brushed aside with a few out-of-date quotations of earlier opinions of Straits people the view emphatically asserted in the communications he had received that Singapore is a great imperial outpost, the maintenance of which in a state of military efficiency is an imperial rather than a local concern. The Government, he said, did not think that the contribution was excessive or beyond what the colony could easily pay, and they would make no abatement in the demands already made. On the receipt of the despatch (of January 16, 1891) embodying this decision the Colonial Office to persist in their exhortation claim, the fires of agitation were kindled with new vigour in Singapore. When the votes came up at the Legislative Council for sanction on March 5, 1891, strong language was used by the non-official members in characterising the attitude assumed by the Home Government on the question. One speaker declared that the interests of the colony were being "betrayed"; another remarked that this colony should be condemned literally to groan under a curse inflicted upon it by a handful of people utterly ignorant of the conditions of our society is a disgrace to civilized government. He, furthermore, reminded his Majesty's Government that loyalty is a hardy plant which asks for a fair field and no favour; it withers under injustice. Once more a great number of protests were poured into the Colonial Office against the demand. The only jarring note to the chorus of condemnatory criticism was a despatch by Sir Charles Warren, the officer commanding the troops, who took the view that the Singapore people got good value for their money in the military protection afforded them and were quite able to bear the burden. Lord Knutsford, entrenched behind the ramparts raised by an exciting Treasury, still declined to make any reduction in the charge, and the port in the promise, however, that "if unfortunately the revenues of the colony should decrease," her Majesty's Government would be prepared to review the situation. The revenues of the colony unfortunately did decrease in 1890 and in 1891 as compared with 1889, and promptly a request was preferred to the Colonial Office for the redemption of the pledge.

After a considerable amount of additional controversy and a vigorous agitation of the question both in the Straits and at home, the Marquess of Ripon, who had succeeded Lord Knutsford as Colonial Secretary on the change of Government, in a despatch dated November 9, 1894, announced that the Government were prepared to reduce the colonial contribution to £80,000 for 1894 and £100,000 for 1895. At the same time it was intimated that the contributions for the years 1896-97-98 were provisionally fixed at £100,000, £110,000, and £120,000. This re-arrangement of the contributions left in doubt precisely where it was, and not unnaturally the colony emphatically declared to accept Lord Ripon's view that "sensible relief" had been afforded. A further period of agitation followed, culminating as a final protest in the resignation of three members of the Legislative Council, of eighteen justices of the peace, and of the whole of the members of the Chinese Advisory Board—an important body which is a link between the Government and the Chinese community. This dramatic action convinced the Imperial Government at length that the inhabitants of the Straits Settlements were in earnest in their determination not to submit to the burden of the military contribution. In a despatch dated June 28, 1895, Lord Ripon intimated that the Government were prepared to settle the question of a military contribution on the basis of an annual payment equivalent to 1% per cent. of the total revenue of the colony. In this arrangement the colonists were "entitled perpetually to acquiesce. But they have never acknowledged the justice of the principle upon which the payment is fixed. The imperial authorities on their part have every reason to congratulate themselves on the change introduced in the method of assessing
the payment, for the military contribution in 1905 was 1,911,585 dollars—practically double the amount which the colonists regarded as so excessive.

Raffles's development as a great imperial outpost and commercial enterprise is proceeding on lines commensurate with the magnificence of its strategical position and the vastness of its trade. The acquisition by Government of the Tanjung Pagar Dock Company's property in circumstances which are fully dealt with elsewhere in these pages has strengthened the naval position enormously by providing under absolute Government control a base for the refitting and repair of the largest vessels of His Majesty's navy in Far Eastern seas. On the purely commercial side an equally important step forward has been taken by the acceptance of the tender of Sir John Jackson, Ltd, for the construction of new harbour works involving an immediate expenditure of about a million and a quarter sterling. With these striking evidences that the importance of Singapore both for imperial and trade purposes is fully realised in the highest quarters, there is every reason to hope that its future will be one of uninterrupted and ever-increasing prosperity. It has been said that you cannot set limits to the march of a nation. He would be a wise man who would set limits to the march of Singapore. With the great markets of China still to be opened up to trade, and with the Malay countries only as yet in the first stage of their development, it may very well be that the port, phenomenal as its past progress has been, is only on the threshold of its career. Certainly nothing short of a calamity which will paralyse the trade of the world is likely to put a period to its advancement to a position in the very first rank of the cities of the Empire.

As we began this historical survey of Singapore with a reference to its great founder, so we may appropriately end it by quoting the eloquent words used by Sir Frederick Weld, the then Governor of the Straits Settlements, in unveling the Raffles statue at Singapore on the occasion of the Jubilee celebration in 1887. "Look around," said his Excellency, "and a greater monument than any that the highest art or the most lavish outlay can raise to Raffles is visible in this, that his name is still held in affectionate veneration by all our races, that all acknowledge the benefits that have resulted from his wise policy. See that crowd of splendid shipping in the harbour in front of his statue. Cast a glance at the city which surrounds it, on the evidences of civilisation—churches, public buildings and offices, law courts, educational establishments, the vicinity of this spacious recreation ground on which we stand and near which he landed. Were this all, it would be still sufficient to say, Si monumentum requiris circumspice. But this is only a small part of the monument. Look for it in other parts of the colony. Look for it in the native States... Look for it in the constantly increasing influence of the British name in these parts, and you will say with me that in Raffles England had one of her greatest sons."

PINANG (INCLUDING PROVINCE WELLESLEY AND THE DIDTINGS).

CHAPTER I.

THE FOUNDATION OF THE SETTLEMENT.

PINANG, like Singapore, owes its existence as a British possession mainly to the statesmanlike foresight, energy, and diplomatic resourcefulness of one man. Raffles's prototype and predecessor in the work of Empire-building in the Straits was Francis Light, a bold and original character, who passed from the position of trader and sea captain to that of administrator by one of those easy transitions which marked the history of the East India Company in the eighteenth century. Light was born at Dallinghoo, in Suffolk, on December 15, 1740. His parentage is somewhat obscure, though the presumption is that he came of a good stock, for he claimed as a relative William Negro, son of Colonel Francis Negro, who held high office in the court of George I, and who was the owner of extensive estates at Dallinghoo and Melton. Light received his early education at the Woodbridge Grammar School, and afterwards was sent into the navy, serving as midshipman on H.M.S. Arrogant. In 1765 he quit the service and went out to India to seek his fortune, after the manner of many well-bred young men of that day. Arrived at Calcutta, he was given the command of a ship trading between India, Lower Siam, and the Malay ports. From that time forward he found practically exclusive employment in the Straits trade. An excellent linguist, he speedily acquired the Siamese and several languages, and through their medium, assisted no doubt by the sterling integrity of his character, he won the confidence of the native chiefs. His headquarters for a good many years were at Salang, or Junk Ceylon, as it was then known, a large island on the north-west side of the peninsula. Here he lived amongst the Malay population, honoured and respected. The ties of intimacy thus formed with the native population brought abundant fruit in a prosperous trade and, what is more to our immediate purpose, a close personal knowledge of native politics. Experience of the Straits taught him, as he taught Raffles a good many years later, that if British influence was to hold its own against Dutch exclusiveness a more efficient and central settlement than Bencoolen must be found. Impressed with this idea, he, in 1771, held a definite proposal before Warren Hastings, the then Governor-General, for the acquisition of Pinang as "a convenient magazine for Eastern trade." The great man had already, in his statesmanlike vision, seen the necessity of planting the British flag more firmly in this sphere of the Company's influence. But for some reason Light's proposal was coldly received. Undismayed by the rebuff, Light continued to press the importance of establishing a new settlement, and in 1780 he proceeded to Calcutta to lay before Hastings a definite scheme for the creation of a British port on Salang. The illustrious administrator received him kindly, and probably would have fallen in with his views had not the outbreak of war with the French and the Dutch diverted his attention to more pressing issues. The matter was shelved for some years, and then Mr. Kinloch was despatched by the Supreme Government to Achin to attempt to found a settlement in that part of the Straits. The mission was an entire failure owing to the hostile attitude assumed by the natives. Light chanced to be in Calcutta on Mr. Kinloch's return, and he seized the opportunity afforded by the contrivance of again pressing the desirability of the acquisition of Pinang upon the attention of the authorities. In a communication on the subject dated February 15, 1786, he pointed out to the Government that the Dutch had been so active in their aggression that there was no place left to choose from but Junk Ceylon, Achin, and Quedah (Kedah). He went on to show that Achin could not be adopted without subduing all the chiefs, and that if Junk Ceylon were chosen it would take five or seven years to clear the jungle sufficiently to furnish enough produce to supply the needs of the fleet, though the island was rich in minerals and could be easily fortified. There remained for consideration Quedah, or (as in deference to modern spelling we had better call it) Kedah, and in regard to this situation Light stated that he was able to report that the Sultan of Kedah had agreed to cede the island of Pinang. He enclosed a letter from the Sultan, in which the chief set forth the terms upon which he was willing to make the cession. The communication was as follows:—

"Whereas Captain Light, Dewa Raji, came here and informed me that the Rajah of Bengail ordered him to request Pulau Pinang from me to make an English settlement, where the
agents of the Company might reside for the purpose of trading and building ships of war to protect the island and to cruise at sea, so that if any enemies of ours from the east or the west

should come to attack us the Company would regard them as enemies also and fight them, and all the expenses of such wars shall be borne by the Company. All ships, junks or prows, large and small, which come from the east or the west and wish to enter the Kedah river to trade shall not be molested or obstructed in any way by the Company, but all persons desirous of coming to trade with us shall be allowed to do as they please; and at Pulau Pinang the same.

"The articles of opium, tin, and rattans are monopolies of our own, and the rivers Muda, Prai and Krian are the places from whence tin, rattans, cane, besides other articles, are obtained. When the Company's people, therefore, shall reside at Pulau Pinang, I shall lose the benefit of this monopoly, and I request the captain will explain this to the Governor-General, and beg, as a compensation for my losses, 30,000 dollars a year to be paid annually to me as long as the Company reside at Pulau Pinang. I shall permit the free export of all sorts of provisions, and timber for shipbuilding.

"Moreover, if any of the agents of the Company make loans or advances to any of the nobles, chiefs, or rajas of the Kedah country, the Company shall not hold me responsible for any such advances. Should any one in this country become my enemy, even my own children, all such shall be considered as enemies also of the Company; the Company shall not alter their engagements of alliance so long as the heavenly bodies continue to perform their revolutions; and when any enemies attack us from the interior, they also shall be considered as enemies of the Company. I request from the Company men and powder, shot, arms, large and small, also money for the purpose of carrying on the war, and when the business is settled I will repay the advances. Should these propositions be considered proper and acceptable to the Governor-General, he may send a confidential agent to Pulau Pinang to reside; but if the Governor-General does not approve of the terms and conditions of this engagement let him not be offended with me. Such are my wishes to be made known to the Company, and this treaty must be faithfully adhered to till the most distant times."

The Government were impressed, as well they might be, with the facts and the letter brought to their notice by Light, and in a little more than a week from the receipt of his communication the Governor-General formally expressed his approval of the scheme for the settlement of Pinang on the terms outlined. The Government themselves appear to have earlier unsuccessfully endeavoured to obtain a grant of the island from the Sultan, and there were many speculations at the time as to the means by which Light had succeeded where the authorities had failed. Out of the gossip of the period arose a romantic but quite apocryphal story that Light had received the island as a dowry with his bride, who was a daughter of the Sultan. Light had certainly married a daughter of the country a few years before this period in the person of Martina Rozells, a lady of Siamese-Portuguese or Malay-Portuguese descent, but she was not related to the Raja of Kedah, and she was not a princess. Romance, however, dies hard, and so it is that the tradition of royal ancestry for Light's descendants...
has been handed down until we meet with it in
an official publication so recent as the last
catalogue of the National Portrait Gallery,
where Colonel Light, the founder of Adelphi,
Francis Light's eldest son, is described as
"Son of a commander in the Indian navy and
a Malayan princess."

Light, having convinced the authorities that
the time had come for action, found them eager
to carry the negotiations through with as little
delay as possible. Early in May, 1786, he
sailed from Calcutta with definite instructions
to complete the engagement with the Sultan of
Kedah for the cession of Pinang. He reached
Kedah Roads near Alor Star on June 29th, and
landed on the following morning under a salute
from the fort and three volleys from the
marines. A leading official received him, and
from him he learned that war was proceeding
between Siam and Burma, and that the Sultan
feared that he himself might be involved.
Light re-embarked and landed again on the 1st
of July in due state. There was some little
delay in his reception by the Sultan, owing to
the state officials demurring to the presents
which Light brought on the ground of their
inadequacy. Eventually, on the 3rd of July Light
was ushered into the Sultan's presence. He
found him greatly troubled at a passage in the
Governor-General's letter which seemed to him
to threaten pains and penalties if the arrange-
ment was not made. Light diplomatically
smoothed the matter over, and the treaty was
duly signed, subject to the approval of the
authorities in London. On the 10th of July
Light took leave of the Sultan, and four days
later, having re-embarked his escort and suite,
proceeded in the Eliza, the Prince Henry and
the Speedwell accompanying him, to Pinang.
The little flotilla dropped anchor in the harbour
within musket shot of the shore on the 15th of
July. Two days later Lieutenant Gray, of the
Speedwell, with a body of marines, disembarked
on Point Pinaggar, a low sandy tongue of land,
which is considered by some to be now the
Esplanade, but which is by Messrs. Culin and
Zehnder deemed to be the land near the Fort
Point, between the end of Light Street and the
Iron Wharf opposite the Government buildings.
Lieutenant Gray's advance party was reinforced
on the following day by the Europeans, and
thenceforward the work of establishing the
occupation proceeded with the utmost expedi-
tion. Soon a little town of alamp houses arose
about the shore, with, on one side, a small
bazaar accommodating a number of Kedah traders who had been attracted to the spot by
the prospect of lucrative business. The artillery
and stores were landed on the 11th of August,
and H.M.S. Valentine opportunely arriving in
harbour the same day, Light deemed that the
occasion was auspicious for taking formal pos-
session of the island. The ceremony took place
about noon, the captains of the ships in harbour
and some gentlemen passengers, with a body of
marines and artillerymen, assisting. After the
Union Jack had been hoisted on the flagstaff and
the artillery and the ships had thundered out a
salute, the proclamation was made that the
island in future would be known as Prince of
Wales Island, in honour of the Heir Apparent
(afterwards George IV.), whose birthday fell the
next day, and that the capital would be known
as Georgetown, out of compliment to the sove-
reign, George III. There were mutual con-
gratulations on the birth of the new settlement,
which everyone recognised was destined to have before it a useful career.

The faith of Light and his associates in the future of the settlement was based rather on an appreciation of the natural advantages of the situation than on any material attractions in the island itself. Truth to tell, the Panging of that day was little better than an uninhabited waste. Supplies of all kinds had to be obtained from Kedah, for there was practically no cultivation. Roads of course there were none, not even of the most rudimentary description. The inhabitants lived in huts or huts, through which every step taken by civilisation would have to be by laborious effort. Still, the town was laid out with a complete belief in the permanency of the occupation. To each of the native nationalities separate quarters were allotted. The European or official quarter was marked out in the most aristocratic style, a home for future chief administrators of the colony. Light built a capacious dwelling, which he called, in compliment to the county of his birth, Suffolk House, and which, standing in park-like grounds, bore more than a passing resemblance to the comfortable country houses in the neighbourhood of Melton, in Suffolk, with which he was familiar. The new settlement early attracted emigrants from various parts. From Kedah came a continual stream, prominent amongst the intending settlers being a considerable number of Indians, or Chulas as they were then known. Malays, good and bad, put in an appearance from various quarters, and a French missionary transferred himself with his entire flock from the mainland with the full approval of Light, who thoroughly realised that the broader the base upon which the new settlement was built the more prosperous it was likely to be. Almost every ship from the south brought, too, a contingent of Chinese. They would bear already a strong and growing vigilance of the Dutch, who were jealous of the new port and did their utmost to destroy its prospects of success. In spite of this and other obstacles the settlement grew steadily. Within two years of the occupation there were over 400 acres of land under cultivation, and a year or so later the settlements were turned as a turn at the respectable figure of 10,000.

The trade of the port within a few years of the hoisting of the British flag was of the value of more than a million Spanish dollars.

Associated with the early history of Pinang is a notable achievement by Admiral Sir Home Riggs Popham which created a great stir at the time. Popham, who at that period was engaged in private trade, in 1791 undertook to carry a cargo of rice from Calcutta to the Malabar coast for the use of the army employed there. He was driven out of his course by the monsoon and compelled to bear up for Pinang. While his ship was refitting Popham made an exact survey of the island and determined the best route to the southward, through which, in the early part of 1792, he piloted the Company's fleet to China. His services earned for him the gratitude of the East India Company and the more substantial reward of a gold cup, presented by the Governor-General. Popham was one of the most distinguished sailors of his time, and his name is well deserving of a place in the roll of eminent men who at one time or another have been connected with the Straits Settlements.

At the earliest period in the life of the settlement the question of fiscal policy arose for consideration. In a letter to Light, dated January 22, 1787, Sir John Macpherson, the Governor-General, outlined the views of the Government on the point as follows:

"At present our great object in settling Prince of Wales Island is to secure a port of refreshment and repair for the King's, the Company's, and the country ships, and we propose at once to lay before the Government a scheme to establish it as a port of commerce. If the situation is favourable, the merchants will find their advantage in resorting with their goods to it, and, as an inducement to them, we desire you will refrain from levying any kind of duties or tax on goods landed or vessels proceeding to Penang or Malacca Island, and it is our wish to make the port free to all nations." Thus it will be seen that Pangin was originally cast for the role of a free port, but fate—in plain truth, expediency—decided against the adoption of a Free Trade policy, and it was left to Sir Stamford Raffles to give effect to Sir John Macpherson's views in another sphere with the happiest results. Light's own opinions on the subject were given in a communication he forwarded in the first year of the occupation in response to a request from the Supreme Government to say how he proposed to meet the growing expenses of the Pinang administration. Light suggested the adoption of a middle course between the opening of the port absolutely to all comers and the adoption of an all-round system of custom duties. "To levy a general duty on all goods which come to this port would," he wrote, "defeat the intention of Government in making remittances to China by the utterance of the manufactures of India for the purpose of maintaining the co-operation of the surrounding kingdoms, distracted by foreign and civil wars which deprive their inhabitants of the privilege of bringing the produce of their lands to this port, added to the various impediments thrown in the way of the English trade by the Dutch, who prevent their vessels and cargoes from coming into the port..." He urged the adoption of a system of duties on foreign goods or goods imported in foreign vessels. The chief imports were: 4 per cent. upon all India goods imported in foreign vessels; 4 per cent. upon all goods imported in Chula vessels not immediately from any of the Company's settlements; 6 per cent. upon all goods imported in Chula vessels not immediately from any of the Company's settlements; 6 per cent. upon all Indian goods; 6 per cent. upon all Chinese goods without distinction; 6 per cent. upon all tobacco, salt, arrack, sugar, and coarse cloths, the produce or manufacture of Java or any other Dutch possession to the eastward; 6 per cent. upon all European articles imported by foreign ships unless the produce or manufacture of Great Britain. The Supreme Government gave their assent to these proposals, and they were introduced with results so unsatisfactory that the system was abandoned in favour of a more uniform system of duties. Eventually, as will be seen, all impostes were abolished, and Pinang became, like Singapore, a free port. Meanwhile, a series of excise farms were set up to provide the most immediate administrative purposes. These constituted for many years the backbone of the revenue system, and they still form a not unimportant part of it.

Politically the affairs of the new settlement ran more too smoothly in the early period of its existence. Apart from the obstructiveness of much manual labour, Light had serious trouble against the discontent of the Sultan, arising out of the interpretation put by the Supreme Government upon their arrangement with him. Sir Frank Swettenham, in his work, enters at great length into a consideration of this question, and he does not hesitate to characterise the strength of Light's position as the conflict of the Supreme Government with the Sultan and his successors. The point of the whole matter is whether, in return for the cession, the Government pledged themselves to defend the Sultan's territories against aggression, and especially Siamese aggression. Sir Frank Swettenham emphatically states that Light did not, and the mass of documentary evidence which he adduces in favour of this view is certainly fairly conclusive on the subject. Light himself appears to have regarded the extension of British protection to the State as an essential feature of the bargain. He again and again urged upon the Supreme Government with more or less success the importance of affording the Sultan the protection he demanded. He pointed out that the success of the Siamese would have very injurious effects on the Company's interests. "If they destroy the country of Kedah," he wrote, "they deprive us of our great supplies of provisions, and the English are getting out of the danger of the occupation of the King of Kedah to be cut off. We shall then be obliged to war in self-defence against the Siamese and Malays. Should your lordship resolve upon protecting Kedah, two companies of sepoys with four six-pounder field pieces, and a supply of small arms and ammunition, will effectually defend this country against the Siamese, who, though they are a very destructive enemy, are by no means formidable in battle; and it will be much less expense to give the King of Kedah timely assistance than be obliged to drive out the Siamese after they have possessed themselves of the country. The Calcutta authorities turned a deaf ear to this representation, as they had faith of the Sultan, and otherwise urgent that Light forwarded. Their hands were doubtless too full at the time with the struggle against the French to be easily turned towards the course to which a nice honour would have directed them. In July, 1786, Light wrote to the Government at Calcutta informing them that the Sultan had declined to accept a monetary compensation for the island, and at the same time had "endeavoured to draw a full
promise that the Honourable Company would assist him with arms and men in case an attack from the Siamese should render it necessary." This demand Light said he had met with the evasive answer that no treaty which was likely to occasion a dispute between the Company and the Siamese could be made without the approval of the King of Great Britain. The Sultan, finding that diplomacy had failed to secure what he wanted, resolved to attempt to oust the English from the island. Early in 1790 he assembled a force of two thousand men and a fleet of twenty war prahus manned by pirates at Prye. Here a stockade was erected, and only "a propitious day" was wanting for the attack. This never came, for Light anticipated the Sultan's move by an attack of his own, conducted by four hundred well-armed men. The stockade was captured and the fleet of prahus dispersed. Ultimately, on the 16th of April the Sultan sued for peace, and Light concluded a new treaty with him. This instrument, which was afterwards approved by the Supreme Government, provided for the exclusion of all other companies not trading or settling in Kedah, the mutual exchange of slaves, debtors, and murderers, the importation of food stuffs, and the payment of an annual subsidy of 6,000 dollars to the Sultan. The question of British protection remained in abeyance until 1793, when the Home Government issued the definitive instruction that "no offensive and defensive alliance should be made with the Raja of Kedah." Here, as far as Light was concerned, the controversy ended, as he died in the following year, and an opportunity did not occur in the interval of raising the question afresh in the face of the direct mandate from home. But to the end of his days he is believed to have felt acutely the injustice of which he had been made the unwilling agent.

A few months before his death Light issued a communication to Sir John Shore, who had succeeded Macpherson as Governor-General, containing the desirability of establishing a regular judicial system in the island. The letter is a long and able document, setting forth the peculiar conditions of the island, the characteristics of the various elements in the population, and the inadequacy of the arrangements which at that time existed for administering justice. Light concluded his survey with these remarks, which show the liberal, far-seeing character of the man: "A regular form of administering justice is necessary for the peace and welfare of the society, and for the honour of the nation who granted them protection. It is likewise improper that the superintendent should have it in his power to exercise an arbitrary judgment upon persons and things; whether this judgment is iniquitous or not, the mode is still arbitrary and disagreeable to society." The Supreme Government, in response to the appeal, formulated regulations for the administration of law in the settlement, and these remained in force until a regular judicial system was introduced in May, 1808, with Sir Edmond Stanley, K.T., as the first Recorder.

It will be of interest before passing from this subject to note that one of the magistrates appointed by the British Government was Mr. John Dickens, an uncle of the great novelist, who previous to his appointment at Prince of Wales Island had practised with considerable success at the Calcutta Bar. An amusing story illustrative of life in Pinang in those early days figures on the records. One morning Mr. Dickens was taking his usual ride when he met Douglas, the Governor, who required "an explanation and satisfaction" of him relative to a case just concluded, in which Douglas appeared as the defendant. Mr. Dickens replied spiritedly that he was surprised at the man's daring to interrogate him in that manner, and told him that he would not permit him or any man to expect that he would explain his official conduct as judge. Upon this Douglas said he would have ample satisfaction, and swore that he would have the magistrate's blood. Mr. Dickens, not to be outdone, "told him he was a scoundrel, and that he had now an opportunity, and that if he had the spirit to do it, why did he not now take his revenge." His answer was, "that he had no pistols, but if he had he would." Mr. Dickens, in transmitting his account of the episode to Raflies, who was then Colonial Secretary, cited it as "one instance of the injurious effects resulting from the Hon. Governor-General in Council compelling me to examine into complaints against British subjects, whose judicial respect and obedience to my judicial opinion I not only cannot command, but who think themselves authorised to resist as a private personal injury the judicial duties I perform in obedience to the injunctions of the Hon. Governor-General in Council." No doubt this protest of Mr. Dickens had no small influence in bringing about the establishment of the judicial system already referred to.

Before this incident occurred, as we have mentioned, Light had been removed by death. His demise occurred on October 21, 1794, from malarial fever. He left behind him a widow, two sons, and three daughters. The elder son, William Light, was sent to England to the charge of Mr. George Doughty, High Sheriff of Suffolk. He came back with the news that he was to enter the army and served with distinction in the Peninsular War, finally becoming aide-de-camp to the Duke of Wellington. Later he achieved fame in quite another field. As the first Surveyor-General of South Australia he laid out the city of Adelaide, and he did so on lines which have won for the place the designation of "the Garden City." Every year at the election of mayor of Adelaide the "Memory of Colonel Light" is solemnly drunk. It is a recognition of his title to the position of father and founder of the city. Light's second son, Francis Lanoon Light, had a somewhat chequered career. At the time of the British occupation of Java he held the position of British Resident at Muntok, in Banka. Later we find him a suitor for charity at the hands of the East India Company on the ground that he was "labouring under great affliction from poverty and distress." The Directors, in view of the services of his distinguished father, granted him on July 4, 1821, a pension of £100 a year. He died on October 25, 1823, so that he did not live long to enjoy the rather niggardly bounty of the Company.

**CHAPTER II.**

**EARLY YEARS.**

After Light's death the Company appear to have had a cold fit on the subject of Prince of Wales Island. The first brilliant expectations formed of the settlement had not been realised. The trade did not grow in proportion to the expenses of administration, and there were numerous political difficulties to be contended with. The British Government were disposed to lend an ear to the detractors of Light's enterprise, who had from the first represented the settlement as one of the Company's bad bargains. A proposition actually entertained by them was the abandonment of the settlement in favour of one on one of the Andaman Islands, where a convict station and harbour of refuge had already been established. The Government sent Major Kyd to report on the respective merits of the two situations. This officer set forth his conclusions in a communication dated August 20, 1795. They were opposed to the transfer of the Company's centre of influence from Pinang. Major Kyd pointed out that Port Cornwallis, the alternative situtation in the Andamans, was out of the track of regular commerce, and that a station there would answer no other purpose than a harbour and a receptacle for convicts, while Prince of Wales Island was well calculated for defending the Strals of Malaeea and for securing communication to the eastward. The writer doubted, however, whether the island could pay its way, though he acknowledged that if the Dutch authority to the eastward were not re-established the intercourse with Malay merchants would be greater and the revenues proportionately increased. The report was conclusive as to the superior advantages of Prince of Wales Island. But the Court of Directors, in dismissing the idea of abandonment, sarcastically remarked that revenue at the settlement arose from the "pimpers rather the removal of the inhabitants" —a reference to the fact that the opium and gaming farms were the leading items on the credit side of the settlement's balance-sheet.

It is in the period immediately following Light's death that we first discover traces of the growth of a municipal system. In June, 1795, Mr. Philip Manington, who had succeeded the founder of the settlement as Superintendent, appointed, on a salary of Rs. 150 per month, a Mr. Philip MacIntyre as clerk of the market and scavenger, "because of the intolerable condition of filth in the streets." In approving this appointment the Supreme Government wrote in an approving spirit: "how far in Mr. Manington's opinion the imposition of a moderate tax on houses and grounds within the town for the purposes exclusively of obtaining a fund for cleaning and draining the town and keeping the streets in repair is practicable." The Superintendent, writing on September 25, 1795, reported the enforcement of a tax on houses and shops in the bazaar belonging to natives according to the extent of the ground occupied. He proceeded: "Since the above period the gentlemen and other inhabitants, owners of what are considered ground situated on what is called the Point and within the limits of the fort, have had a meeting, and have given it as their
opinion that the most equitable mode to adopt would be that a committee of gentlemen should be appointed to fix a valuation on every particular house, and that so much per cent, on which reference has been made above, the value of Prince of Wales Island was abundantly proved. In 1797 the Government of India had in contemplation an expedition against Manilla, that valuation should be levied." In reference to the Government's particular inquiry, Mr. Manington reported that he was of opinion that the levying of any tax over and above that he had recommended would for the present "become a great burden on the native inhabitants in the bazaar, hundreds of whom still remain in very indigent circumstances."

"But," he added, "I have to observe that the tax I have recommended will be more than double sufficient to answer all expenses whatever that can be incurred in the bazaar."

Nothing further appears to have been done at this juncture to establish a municipal system. But some years later the suggested body to assess the value of property was created under the designation of the Committee of Assessors, and from this authority was developed the existing municipal constitution.

Two years after Major Kyd's mission, to and they got together a considerable force for the purpose. Prince of Wales Island, as the most advanced post of the Company, was made the rendezvous of the expedition. Here, in August of that year, were gathered five thousand European troops with a large native force under the command of General St. Leger. The famous Duke of Wellington (then simple
Colonel Wellesley) was present in command of the 33rd Regiment, which formed a part of the expedition. He seems to have been commissioned to draw up a paper on the settlement, for a "Memorandum of Pulo Penang" from his pen figures in the archives. The great soldier saw at a glance the value of the place to the British. He emphasised its importance as a military station, and showed how it could be held by a comparatively insignificant force against all comers. He concluded with some general remarks on the question of administration, recommending that the natives should be left under the direction of their headmen, while at the head of the magistracy of the island there should be a European magistrate "who should inform himself of the methods of proceeding and of the laws which bind the Chinese and the Malays." The report had its due weight with the authorities. Then more than ever it was realised that there could be no question of abandonment. But the administration of the settlement was beset with too many difficulties for the Supreme Government to be altogether elated with their possession. Apart from financial drawbacks, there were serious causes of dissatisfaction arising out of the inadequate policing of the settlement. The incident already related in which Mr. Dickens, the magistrate, figured, points to the chief direction from which trouble came. Major Forbes Macdonald, who succeeded to the government of the Island on Light's death, gives a further and deeper insight into the matter in a report he drew up for presentation to the Supreme Government some little time after assuming office. He there relates how he has made himself acquainted with the people, their modes and customs. "I am persuaded," he wrote, "I have gained their confidence, although I may perhaps owe much of that to the fiery ordeal through which I have persevered, not seldom in their defence, administered to me by the European settlers, who affected to hold in contempt such feeble and, as they argued, not believed, upstart control. To the Europeans alone, to their interested motives, to their spirit of insubordination, must be attributed the general laxity of every department, for where could vigour, where could with propriety any restrictive regulation operate while the most conspicuous part of the community not only holds itself sanctioned, but preaches up publicly a crusade against all government? Police we have none, at least no regulation which deserves that epithet. Various regulations have been made from time to time, as urgency in particular cases dictated, but they have all shared the same fate—neglect where every member of the community is not bound by the same law, where to carry into effect a necessary regulation arrangement a mandate is issued to one class, a request hazards a contemptuous reception from the other."

Major Macdonald clearly was not happy in his relations with the European community. Whether the fault was entirely on the side of the settlers is a question which seems to be open to considerable doubt in the light of the records. Macdonald appears to have been of the fussy type of autocrats who must always be doing something to assert their authority. Early in his administration he brought obloquy upon himself by demanding from the settlers the proofs of their right to reside in the settle-
When the writer of this letter was afterwards asked regarding the nature of the royal authority which he pleaded, he is said to have referred Major Macdonald for particulars to his Majesty King George the Third.

Major Macdonald died in 1799 while away from the island. His successor was Sir George Leith, who in 1800 assumed the reins of office with the exalted title of Lieutenant-Governor and Commander-in-Chief. One of the earliest measures adopted by the new administrator was the despatch of Mr. Caunter, the First Assistant at the settlement, to Kedah to negotiate with the Sultan for a transfer of territory on the mainland. The necessity for this expansion of the Company's sphere of influence had been apparent from the beginning, and with the growth of the trade of the port the matter had become more pressing, owing to the depredations of pirates who, established on the Kedah coast, were able to raid vessels entering or leaving Pinang with practical impunity. Mr. Caunter discharged his mission successfully, but not without difficulty. There were impediments raised at first to the transfer, but on adopting a hint from the Governor-General in Council the task was accomplished without delay.

One of the community, a Mr. Mason, made this reply, which perhaps is responsible for the allusion to the contemptuous reception of requests in Major Macdonald's report:

"Sir, ... I beg leave to inform you, for the information of the Governor-General in Council, that my authority or permission to reside in India is from his Majesty King George the Third—God save him!—also from Superintendent Francis Light, Esquire, the public faith being pledged for that purpose. ... And as to my character, I shall take particular care that it be laid before the Governor-General in Council."

The despatch of the Government Gazette:

"The Government Gazette.

PINANG GOVERNMENT GAZETTE.

(One of the earliest copies of the first newspaper published in the Straits.)

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In consequence possibly of the greater responsibility arising out of this increase of territory Pinang, in 1805, was made a presidency. The new régime was ushered in with befitting pomp on September 18th of that year. On the day named the East Indianan Gauges arrived with the first Governor, in the person of Mr. Philip Dundas, a brother of the Chief Baron of Scotland. With Mr. Dundas were three councillors and a staff of 26 British officials, whose united salaries, with the Governor's and councillors' emoluments, amounted to £43,500. Notable in the official throng was Raffles, who filled the position of Colonial Secretary, and in that capacity gained experience which was turned to account in Java and later in the virgin administrative field of Singapore. The imposing reinforcement to the European community which the new establishment brought stirred the dry bones of social life in the settlement, and Pinang to its old and grateful unknown in the days of Light's unassuaging rule or even in the Macdonald régime. Very early in the new administration the settlement equipped itself with a newspaper. This journal was first known as the Government Gazette. It was an official organ only in the sense that the proprietor, a Mr. Bone, was subsidised from the local exchequer and set apart a portion of his columns for official announcements. The news columns were largely filled with extracts from home newspapers—poetry, anecdotes, and gossip—calculated to interest the exile. Local news occupied little space as a rule, but occasionally the reporter would give a glimpse of the social functions of more than ordinary interest. Thus, we find in the issue of Saturday, August 16, 1866, the following:

"Tuesday last being the anniversary of the birth of H.H. the Prince of Wales and of the establishment of this settlement, the Prince of Wales and Club had a small dinner at Mr. Nicol's hotel, for the purpose of commemorating the day. An elegant entertainment was served up by Mr. Nicol to the members and their friends, who continued to keep up the festivities of the day with the greatest harmony and good humour till an early hour the following morning."

Amongst the toasts were—
 TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

"H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, and many happy returns of the day to him.

"Prosperity to the island.

"The King.

"The Queen and Royal Family.

"The Navy and Army.

"The memory of Mr. Light, the founder of the settlement.

"The immortal memory of Lord Nelson.

"A select few also met to commemorate the anniversary of the birth of H.R.H. as Grand Patron and Grand Master of Masonry. They sat down to a neat dinner provided at the house of a brother, and the evening was spent with the highest conviviality and good-neighborship. Among others the subjoined toasts were drunk with great applause:

"H.R.H. George Augustus Frederick, Grand Master of Masonry.

"The Mystic Tie.

"Virtue, Benevolence, and Peace to all mankind.

"King and the Craft.

"Queen and our sisters.

"The immortal memory of Lord Nelson.

"The revered memory of Marquess Cornwallis.

"All Masons round the globe."

Mr. Bone's journalistic enterprise continued for some time in the sun of official favour, but after a year or two the title of the paper was changed from the Government Gazette to the Prince of Wales Island Gazette. Under this designation it prospered after a feeble fashion, with several changes in the proprietorship, until it fell from official grace and was extinguished in circumstances which will be hereafter related.

The elevation of Prince of Wales Island into a presidency was due to a somewhat exaggerated view of the value of the settlement created by the report which Colonel Wellesley had furnished on the return of the Manilla expeditionary force to India. In official circles both in Calcutta and Leadenhall Street the expectation was based on the favourable opinions expressed here and elsewhere that Pinang would become a great naval and military centre and a flourishing commercial emporium. This over-sanguine estimate led to many blunders in policy, not the least important of which was a decision to restore Malacca to the Dutch. From this false step the Court of Directors was, as we shall see when we come to deal with Malacca, saved mainly by the action of Raffles, who, after a visit to the settlement, penned a powerful despatch, in which he set forth with such convincing force the arguments for retention that the Court cancelled their instructions. It was this despatch which mainly brought Raffles to the notice of Lord Minto and paved the way to the position of intimacy which he occupied in relation to that Governor-General when he conducted his expedition to Java in 1811. Pinang, as has already been stated in the opening section of this work, was the advanced base of this important operation. Over a hundred vessels were engaged in the transport of the force, which consisted of 3,444 Europeans, 5,777 natives, and 89 lascars. The resources of the settlement were heavily taxed to provide for this great force, but on the whole the work was successfully accomplished, though there was considerable sickness amongst the European troops owing to the excessive fondness of the men for pineapples, which then as now were abundant and cheap.

In the two or three years of the nineteenth century Prince of Wales Island witnessed many changes in the Government, owing to an abnormal mortality amongst the leading officials. In March, 1807, Mr. J. H. Oliphant, the senior member of Council, died, and the next month Mr. Philip Dundas, the Governor, expired of illness. At this juncture, Mr. Beaton, who was removed by death within a very short period of his appointment, and strangely enough the two following Governors, Mr. Wm. Petrie and Colonel Baneraman, did not outline their respective terms of office. In less than fourteen years Prince of Wales Island had six administrators, of whom no fewer than five died and were buried on the island.

Notwithstanding the frequent changes in the administration and the confusion they necessarily caused, the progress of the settlement at this period was uninterrupted. The population, which in 1791 was 10,310, had risen in 1805 to 14,000, and in 1812, when Governor Wellesley was first brought into the reckoning, the return showed a total of 26,000 inhabitants for the entire administrative area. Ten years later the figure for the united territory had risen to 51,207. Meanwhile, the revenue, though substantial, was not adequate to discharge the excessively heavy liabilities imposed upon the settlement. There were recurring deficits, until in the financial year 1817-18, the excess of expenditure over income reached no less a figure than 104,000 dollars. A financial committee was appointed to investigate matters, but as the only way to cut down was by cutting down the government of salaries, including those of the members of the committee, naturally little or nothing was done. It remained for Lord Wm. Bentinck, on the occasion of his historic visit in 1827, to use the pruning shears to some effect upon the bloated Pinang establishment. The amazing thing is that the remedy was so long in being applied. But nepotism at that time was rife in the Company, and doubtless the numerous well-paid official posts in Prince of Wales Island were very useful to the dispensers of patronage in Leadenhall Street.

The establishment of an educational system dates to this early nineteenth century period with which we are dealing. The facts, as set forth in a report prepared for the information of the Court of Directors in 1829, will be of interest. In November, 1813, at the suggestion of the Rev. R. S. Hutchins, chaplain of the settlement, a committee was formed, consisting of seven gentlemen, who were entrusted with the establishment of a school for the instruction of native children in the most useful rudiments of education. The school, it was stipulated, should be conducted by a superintendent, and should be open for the reception of all children without preference, except for the most poor and friendless. It was further agreed that all children should be educated in reading and writing English, and in the common rules of arithmetick, and, at a proper age, in useful mechanical employments. Great care was to be taken to avoid offending the religious prejudices of any parties, while the Malays, Chinese, and Hindustanies were to be instructed in their own languages by appointed teachers. Children were to be admitted from four to fourteen. The East India Company contributed 1,500 dollars, to which was added an annual grant of 2,000 dollars, afterwards reduced to 100 dollars in pursuance of orders from the Court of Directors. The Government of Prince of Wales Island also granted a piece of ground called Church Square for the erection of two schools, one for boys and the other for girls. This ground being required for the church erected about the same site, was chosen, upon which the schools were built. In July, 1824, the school was reported in a prosperous state, it having on the rolls at that time 104 boys of different ages, and having sent forth several promising youths, six of whom had been placed by regular indenture in the public service. In January, 1827, Rev. H. Medhurst, a missionary of the London Missionary Society, submitted to Government the plans of a charity school for the instruction of Chinese youth in the Chinese language by making them acquainted with the ancient classical writers of the Chinese and connecting them with the study of the Christian catechism. The Government granted a monthly allowance of 20 dollars for the furnishing of the same, to which was added a further grant of 10 dollars per month for a Malay school. In 1821 a piece of ground for the erection of a schoolhouse was also granted to the society. In May, 1823, the sum of 400 dollars towards the erection of a missionary chapel in Georgetown was also granted by the Government. In July, 1819, the Bishop of Calcutta being at Pinang, a branch was established there of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, to which the Government granted a donation of 200 Spanish dollars. In April, 1823, on the representation of Mr. A. D. Maingy, the superintendent of Province Wellesley, four Malay schools were established there, the Government grant being 32 dollars per month. In November, 1824, the Government made a grant of 100 dollars for the repair of the Roman Catholic church and 30 dollars for the support of three Roman Catholic schools. In 1816 the Government also sanctioned the grant of a piece of land at Malacca to Dr. Misc. on behalf of the London Missionary Society, for the erection of a mission college, and in 1818 the college was built. Such were the beginnings of the splendid educational system which now permeates the settlements.

CHAPTER III.

SIAMESE INVASION OF KEDAH—DEVELOPMENT OF PROVINCE WELLESLEY.

Troubles arising out of Siamese aggression in Kedah greatly retarded the commercial development of the settlement in the years 1814 and the
following years. The Sultan who had concluded the first treaty with the British had died, and his son reigned in his stead. But the idea that the British in accepting Pinang had bound themselves to protect Kedah from invasion had survived, and in 1816 the new Sultan had addressed a powerful appeal to Lord Minto as he passed through Pinang on his way to Java, imploring him to carry out the—unto him—essential condition of the original contract. The letter, which is given in full in Anderson's "A Casket of Quotations and Perisks," concludes as follows:

"I request that the engagements contracted for by Mr. Light with my late father may be ratified, as my country and I are deficient in strength; the favour of his Majesty the King of England extended to me will render his name illustrious for justice and beneficence, and I was gratified by his想到—unjust reward with gratitude; under the power and majesty of the King I desire to repossess in safety from the attempts of all my enemies, and that the King may be disposed to kindness and favour towards me, as if I were his own subject, that he will be pleased to issue his commands to the Governor and Commandant of the British settlement to afford me such assistance in my distresses and dangers, and cause a regulation to be made by which the two countries may have but one interest; in like manner I shall not refuse any aid to Pinang consistent with my ability. I further request a writing from the King and from my friend, that it may remain as an assurance of the protection of the King, and descend to my successors in the government. I place a perfect reliance in the favour and aid of my friend in all these matters."

In his comment on the letter Anderson says: "The whole of Mr. Light's correspondence is corroborative of this candid exposition, and it is easy to suppose that Pinang ceded without very powerful inducements in the way of promises by Mr. Light, which, no doubt, in his eagerness to obtain the grant, were liberal and almost unlimited, and that his inability to perform them was the cause of much mental suffering. The instructions of the Governor did not appear to me, and the answer was given to the Sultan's letter. The request for aid at all events was rejected, and the Sultan was left to his fate. This was somewhat long deferred, but the blow was swift and remorseless when it was delivered. Equipping a large force, the Siamese in 1821 appeared in the Kedah river, and landing there, commenced to slay and pillage without provocation or warning. They conducted a ruthless warfare for days, leaving behind them wherever they went a track of wasted country and slain and outraged victims. The Sultan with difficulty escaped to Province Wellesley and thence to Pinang, where he was kindly received by Mr. Phillips, Colonel of the Governor's successor in the government. He was granted an allowance for his maintenance and a force of sepoys as a guard. A few days after his arrival an insolent demand was made by the Raja of Lingore, on behalf of the Siamese, for his surrender, and when this was refused in emphatic terms, a fleet of one hundred war prahus was sent into Pinang harbour to take possession of the unfortunate Sultan by force in default of his peaceful surrender. The answer to this impudent move was the despatch of the gunboat Nautilus to the vicinity of the leading war prahu, with orders to the Siamese commodore to leave the harbour instantly or prepare for action. The hint was immediately taken. In a very brief space of time every prahu had left. The Sultan chafed under the loss of his territory, and the other Malay chiefs were not less indignant at the wanton aggression committed upon one of their number. In a short time the futile prince's efforts to recover the lost provinces and intrigues for the recapture of the lost territory, the Local Government, with a lively fear of complications with the Siamese before them, did their utmost to put a stop to these manoeuvres, but without much success. On April 28, 1823, an attempt was actually made by a party of sepoys to force the main gate of the fortress, but it could not be prevented, and the Siamese innovations, which could not be resisted, they shipped off to Malacca to keep him out of mischief. He closed his life in exile, a victim, it is to be feared it must be admitted, of an unfulfilled contract."

An immediate effect of the conquest of Kedah by the Siamese was the filling of Pinang by British, generally by Mr. Phillips, the eldest son of the Sultan, to oust the Siamese. It was completely unsuccessful, and Tunku Abdullah was left a prisoner in the Siamese hands. A protest was lodged with the British against the use of Province Wellesley for the equipment of this expedition. The reply made to the Siamese influence was that he could not prevent such inroads without imitating Siamese methods, which was out of the question. At the same time the Government were seriously alarmed at the anomalous state of affairs created by the continued residence of the Raja at Pinang, and after repeated and ineffectual warnings that his situation was not tenable, and that it could not be tolerated, they shipped him off to Malacca to keep him out of mischief. He closed his life in exile, a victim, it is to be feared it must be admitted, of an unfulfilled contract.

A momentous measure was the elevation of Mr. Light to the Governor-general of the province. He was placed in the situation of making the commencement of a system of coffee planting on a large scale. Some passages from this document may be quoted, as they throw an interesting light on the history of the industry. Mr. Phillips stated that he had received a letter from Mr. David Brown, the most extensive planter in the island, who stated that over 10,000 intelligent and public-spirited Europeans on this island, reporting that he has planted upwards of 100,000 coffee trees and cleared forests to enable him to complete the number to 300,000, and requesting our sanction to his extending the cultivation, as the progress of the coffee plantations planted by himself and others engaged in the enterprise holds out every prospect of the successful production of this article on the island and no doubt on the adjacent continent. We shall, of course, lose no time in complying with Mr. Brown's request." Mr. Phillips went on to submit certain considerations as to the expediency of introducing coffee and other resources of the settlement. He proceeded:

"Our climate is temperate and without any sudden or great vicissitudes throughout the year, and our lands are never subject to such parching heats or destructive inundations as those of Bengal, whilst our inhabitants enjoy the advantages of British government and law, the want of which at Java the English residents there seem to be daily more and more sensible. No apprehensions also against colonisation are entertained here, and European settlers have always been allowed, as appears by our President's minute of the 15th of August last, to possess as much land as they please and to hold it as freehold property. Hitherto the want of adequate capital and the paucity of enterprising individuals have restricted our objects of cultivation to pepper, which has never received any encouragement from your Honourable Court, and which is one of the most expensive and necessary articles of nutmeg, to which private individuals have continued to cultivate, notwithstanding all public encouragement was withdrawn in the year 1806, and which now at last promise to be beneficial to them, a very favourable report of some samples lately sent to Europe having been just received. Mr. Brown and other persons, however, in the year 1821, conceiving that the soil and climate of our hills were
VIEWS OF PINANG AND PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND.

1. The Chinese Mills, Pinang.  
2. The Great Tree.  

(From Daniel's "Views of Prince of Wales Island." )
well adapted for the production of coffee, applied to us for permission to clear lands for the purpose, and we are happy to acquiesce in their request. The Court decided that whatever may be the success with which these gentlemen may eventually have to congratulate themselves, one very decided and important advantage has already accrued to the public from the exertions which these public-spirited individuals have made to introduce the cultivation of coffee on the island. They have found employment for hundreds of our new settlers, the miserable refugees from Kedah, and opened to our poor a prospect of much additional employment, particularly for our old Chinese settlers. Were your Honourable Court to make known generally in England the advantages of this island in point of climate, situation, and other circumstances, and to encourage the resort hither of respectable individuals, in possession of small capital, desirous of emigrating, we are confident that many persons would see cause for agreeing with us that this settlement affords a finer field for agricultural enterprise, and for obtaining an easy and secure mode of livelihood, and ultimately a comfortable competency, than Java, the Cape of Good Hope, or Canada."  

The coffee experiment unfortunately did not prove the success that was anticipated, but the exertions of Mr. Brown and other pioneer planters were not without their influence in the development of the territory under the Straits Government. One indirect consequence was the institution of a regular system of land settlement. The arrangements for land transfer had up to this period been in a very confused state, owing to the laxity observed in the transactions. At the outset, to encourage settlers, Light had caused it to be known that free grants of land would be made to all suitable applicants. This pledge had been confirmed by Government, and land from time to time was taken up. Changes were subsequently introduced without any particular method, so that eventually there were no fewer than seven different land systems. The negotiations were formulated as a consequence of the influx of settlers, and the entire system was put on a more business-like footing. Meanwhile, a complete survey of Penang and of the boundaries of Province Wellesley had been made. In a letter of August 24, 1820, to the Court of Directors, the Governor, referring to this survey, said it was a "likely to prove of more interest than any hitherto prepared at such enormous expense by successive surveyors. A document of the kind has long been required to regulate the distribution of grants of land to the numerous claimants who have made application to clear the land on the opposite shore. The proprietors of this island entirely demands our earliest consideration with reference to the advantages it may be calculated to afford to this island in supplying provisions, &c., and also in extending and promoting our agricultural interests."  

Simultaneously with the development of the plantation, the Government encouraged the series of public works with the object of opening up the country and improving the means of communication between the different parts of the territory. The most important of these enterprises was a road through the hills at the back of Georgetown. Colonel Bannerman initiated the work in 1818, and under his energetic direction the first section was rapidly constructed with convict labour. Shortly after his death the work was suspended for lack of funds, and was not resumed until many years later, when it was pushed to completion, greatly to the advantage of the island. Colonel Bannerman was not in some respects a wise administrator, but it is to his lasting credit that he was the first to grasp the essential fact that the progress of the colony was dependent upon the improvement of the means of communication, which up to that period had been almost entirely neglected.  

The development of Province Wellesley went hand in hand with an extension of the company's influence in the adjacent native States. Actuated by a fear of Dutch aggression in the immediate vicinity of Pinang, Colonel Bannerman in 1818 despatched Mr. W. S. Cracket, an able official, to Perak and Selangor to conclude treaties with the rulers of those States, and to open trade with them. He brought back with him agreements which pledged the two chiefs to maintain ties of friendship with the British and to renew obsolete agreements with other powers which might tend to exclude or obstruct the trade of British subjects. Subsequently a subsidiary treaty was made with the rajah of Selangor by Mr. Anderson, the author of the well-known work on Kedah from which a quotation has been made above, by which the Prince contracted to supply the Company with a certain quantity of tin for sale. Under the contract a considerable amount of tin was brought down to the coast by way of the Muda river and there sold. In 1819 the sales amounted to 690 balahs or 1,950 piculs. The tin was purchased by the commanders of the Company's ships General Harris and Warren Hastings at the rate of 18 dollars per picul (£72 per ton). After deducting all charges against the import there was a clear gain of 200 per cent. on the cost of the goods. Mr. Anderson, who was designated the Government Agent for Tin, received one-third of the amount. The Government were well satisfied with the results of the transaction. They decided, however, that it would not be wise for them to prosecute the tin trade, but rather to leave it to individual merchants "who would be more particularly concerned in its successful prosecution." After this the trade was carried on intermittently, but in 1827 we find in the official records an expression of regret that "the jealousy and antagonising spirit of the Siamese authorities at Kedah has hitherto rendered ineffectual our endeavours to prosecute the tin trade with Patani."  

In another direction we have evidence that at this juncture in the life of the settlement the importance of a widened sphere of influence was being recognised. In or about the year 1819 a Captain John Mein approached the Pinang Government with an offer of the island of Pangkor, which he said had been given to him by the King. In forwarding the communication to the Court of Directors the Governor wrote: "We do not know what claim Captain Mein may be able to establish—it was evident that the late King of Perak was not of sound intellect, and it appeared that the Dutch had a reputed grant to Captain Mein of this island was not made valid by the seals and signatures of the constitutional authorities of the country." Captain Mein's ambitious venture in islandmongering missed, but at a later period, when Sir Andrew Clarke concluded the Treaty of Pangkor in 1814, the island, with a strip of territory on the mainland, was brought under British rule, the whole being officially designated the Dindings.  

The history of the question subsequent to the rejection of Captain Mein's offer may be briefly related. On October 18, 1826, a treaty was concluded between the Straits Government and that of Perak, by which the latter ceded to the former the Pulo Dinding and the islands of Pangkor, together with all and every one of the islands which belonged of old and until this period to the Kings of Perak, because the said islands afford a safe abode to the pirates and robbers who plunder and harass the traders on the coast and the inhabitants of the islands, and as the King of Perak has not the means to drive those pirates, &c., away." It does not appear that the Government ever took formal possession of the islands. In the sixties, Colonel Man, then Resident Councillor at Pinang, pointed out to the local Government that it would be to their advantage to occupy the whole of the islands, and he was authorised to visit them in the Government steamer, with the view of ascertaining what steps it was advisable to take. Colonel Man's views of the advantages of taking possession of the island were fully confirmed by his visit, but he found it very difficult to ascertain precisely what territory had been ceded, and the prospect of an early transfer of the settlements to the Crown put a stop to all further action except that a grant was given to two men to clear 130 acres of land in the island known as Pulo Pangkor Laut. On Sir Harry Ord's arrival in the Straits, Colonel Man brought to his notice the right which the British possessed to the islands, and urged the advantages which would accrue from taking possession of them. At the same time he pointed out the difficulty of ascertaining exactly what land had been handed over by the treaty, and suggested that, as there were only two islands standing out in the sea opposite the Dinding river and a small one to the west of it, the other islands "must be sought for in some of the land at the mouth of these rivers, which was separated from the mainland by the numerous creeks traversing it."  

As a result of this communication Sir Harry Ord instructed Colonel Man to enter into negotiation with the Laksamana, a high officer of the Sultan of Perak, who was then in Pinang, with the view to the completion of an understanding on this point. Colonel Man followed out his instructions, but left for India before the negotiations were completed. Later they were carried on by Captain Playfair, who was sent to the Dindings and convinced himself that the cession of 1826 included portions of the land at the mouth of the Dindings opposite Pulo
Pangkor, because "the cession would have been perfectly useless for the suppression of piracy, since on the appearance of our vessels or boats off Pulau Pangkor the pirates could at once have taken refuge among these islands, where they would have been inaccessible from pursuit."

The Sultan of Perak at this time was not inclined to do business on the basis required, and as direct orders had come out from England that no action involving the occupation of disputed territory should be taken without specific instructions, the matter was allowed to drop for the time being. Sir Andrew Clarke had some little difficulty in securing adhesion to his proposals, which took the most comprehensive view of the original arrangement. But eventually the question was satisfactorily adjusted. In this way command was obtained of the entrance to the river, a position of considerable strategical value and of some commercial importance.

At the same time that Sir Andrew Clarke concluded this excellent bargain he arranged a useful readjustment of the boundaries in Province Wellesley. The matter related to the southern boundary, which as originally drawn had been found extremely inconvenient for, both police and revenue purposes. On this point the chiefs displayed an accommodating spirit, and by arrangement the British territory was extended so as to include all the land in the watershed of the Krían, the tracing out of the boundary being left for a commission to carry out subsequently.

CHAPTER IV.

PENANG MADE A FREE PORT—GOVERNMENT REGULATION OF THE PRESS.

The occupation of Singapore had a very injurious effect upon Penang trade. Native vessels from China, which formerly made Penang their principal port of call, stopped short at the new settlement, which, besides being more conveniently situated for their purposes, had the considerable advantage of being absolutely free. The mercantile community of Penang, feeling the pinch acutely, petitioned the Government for the extension to the settlement of the unrestricted system of trade which obtained at the rival port. The reception their demand met with was not particularly cordial. The Governor, in a despatch to the Court of Directors on the subject on September 18, 1822, made note of "the extraordinary circumstance of a body of merchants allowing themselves to recommend to the Government under the protection of which they are enabled to conduct a lucrative commerce such a measure as the immediate abolition of one of the most important branches of its establishment." The Governor stated that in his reply to the petition he remarked that it was politic and reasonable that every possible freedom should be given at Penang to the sale of the staples of continental India and to the property of the merchants of the other powers, and also that steps had already been taken towards the revenues of those places, "but that as a valuable portion of the commerce of this station does not consist in those staples, it appeared no more than just that the trade which our merchants conduct with Europe and China, and which, taken to other ports in India, and by the subject to duty, and which, taken to other ports in India, would there be subject to duty, should contribute something towards the maintenance of this port, of which they make such profitable use, and particularly as duties in such cases must ultimately be borne by foreigners and not by the subjects of British India." After a reference to the lightness of the port dues the despatch proceeded: "We earnestly wished to impress upon their minds the conviction that, independent of such share of the commerce of the Eastern Archipelago as might come on to them from Singapore, the articles of the Pegu country must always attract from Europe, China, and India a large and profitable commerce to centre and flourish here: and to these more natural branches of our trade we particularly invited their attention." The despatch ended as follows: "We cannot conclude without soliciting your Honourable Court's particular consideration of the difficulties noticed in your President's minute of the 12th July last, which we have experienced and still experience in discouraging and allaying everything like jealousy between Singapore and this island, and in establishing a bond of union and sisterly affection between the two settlements. As long as that factory, placed as it is in the immediate neighbourhood of this island, is governed by a distant authority and different system of government, and enjoys an exemption from all duties, your Honourable Court cannot be surprised that the personal exertions
of this Board cannot accomplish the objects of our increasing wish and endeavour—the putting a stop to the baneful effects of mercantile jealousy and of those differences which unhappily occurred on the first occupation of Singapore.

The obvious aim of the despatch was not to obtain an immunity from imposts for the trade of Pinang, but to secure the abandonment of the Free Trade system in Singapore. The Court of Directors, however, were too sagacious to be deceived by the thinly disguised adherence of the maintenance of the open door at Singapore to the specious reasoning of the Pinang Government. They confined their action to sanctioning a rearrangement of the port duties at Pinang, by which the shipping trade derived some relief. The Pinang mercantile community found little comfort in the concession made to them. They were not disposed to take a roseate view of affairs as the Company at this critical juncture had instructed China ships not to call at Pinang. Even the Government were alarmed at the situation the order created. They wrote home beseeching the Court “not to be so harsh and severe in their proceedings, and not to discredit them by the valuable trade which our merchants have conducted by means of our ships with Europe and China during the last thirty-five years.” The obnoxious order was modified, but the mercantile community of Pinang had to wait until the year 1827 before they were allowed to resume a maritime position unfettered. They met successfully the competitors in Singapore by the abolition of the customs duties at the port. Two years before this step was taken Mr. Fullerton, the Governor of the united settlements, had written home bringing to the notice of the Court the advantage that might result from the use of a few steamboats in the Straits. “Perhaps,” he said with prophetic vision, “there is no place in the world where they would be so useful—those of a smaller class in following pirates, and the larger in towing vessels in and out of the harbour, and even down the Straits, where calm so constantly prevail.” With all his prescience, Mr. Fullerton could not anticipate the advantages which would spring from the entire voyage and the sailing ship would be almost an anachronism in the Straits as far as the main through trade was concerned.

The abolition of the customs duties at Penang coincided with the establishment of a regular market system. Up to 1827 the privilege of bargaining a market, together with the right of levying certain duties on grain to defray the charges of maintenance, was leased out. The last lessee was Mr. David Brown, the enterprising planter to whom reference has already been made. Mr. Brown had a ten years’ lease dating from May, 1817. He died before it terminated, but the market was continued on the same footing. On the expiration of the term of the lease the Government, “considering the system of taxing grain extremely objectionable, especially as the port has been relieved of all duties,” took measures to establish a new market on the principle of the Singapore market, where the revenue was raised from the rents of the stalls; Mr. Brown offered the old market to the Govern-


dent for 25,000 dollars; but the offer was declined and 10,000 dollars were sanctioned for the construction of a new building.

In an earlier portion of this historical survey there is an account of the launching of a newspaper at Pinang and of its happy existence in the light of official favour. In 1829 this journal—the Penang Gazette, as it had by this time come to be designated—changed its proprietors, for reasons not unconnected with official objections to the manner in which the paper was conducted. The editor of the journal was Mr. John Fullerton, and the opening number seemed to indicate that the altered title was to be associated with a more reverential attitude towards the great, the wise, and the eminent of the Pinang official hierarchy. The editor in his opening address of faith in poetry, and caused a new step to be taken by a Singapore scribe for this subservience, he ingeniously argued that the press was really free if it liked, but that as it accepted official doles the Government naturally demanded their quid pro quo. The writer supported his views by quoting a remark of the letten bodies of the Island, the Lord, the Members of the Legislative Council, and the secretariat. A crisis was at length reached when one day the editor, finding that a paragraph had been deleted by the censor, had the offending matter printed on a separate slip of paper and circulated throughout the settlement. Mr. Fullerton was furious at this flagrant violation of point of honour. He wrote a letter to be sent to the editor, a Mr. Ballhatchet, demanding an explanation. The missive was returned unopened. What was the next step was history does not reveal, but we have a record of a hot correspondence between the offending journalist and the Secretary to Government, terminating in the issue of an edict that the editor was to be charged with sedition. He was a clerk in the office of the Superintendent of Lands, should be dismissed from his office, and that Mr. Ballhatchet’s residence in the country is to be withdrawn. This drastic action was subsequently modified to the extent that the expulsion decree in the latter’s career was stayed; in consideration of the measure of punishment he has already received,” and on the understanding that he would have to go if he “misconducted” himself again. Almost needless to say, the Penang Register and Miscellany did not survive this cataclysm. But Pinang was not left without a newspaper. In this crisis in its history the Government took up the work of the newspaper and issued a paper of their own under the old title of the Government Gazette. The editor of the official journal entered upon his duties with becoming modesty. In his opening address to his readers he opined that “a new paper lies under the same disadvantages as a new play—there is a danger lest it be new without novelty.” In common, therefore, with all other periodical compilers, he proceeded, “we are fully sensible that in offering a work of this nature to the public the main reliance for success must be the support we receive from the employers of correspondents. This island doubtless contains an abundance of latent talent, and it is our humble office to bring these treasures to light, and thus offer to the man of business an elegant relaxation and to the idler recreation. We beg, however, that in early to express an aversion to satire as being rarely free from malice or personality, and in no way according with the sentiments of the editor of the Evening World to his professional mission of offering "elegant relaxation to the man of business and to the idler recreation." Filled the columns of the paper with fashionable gossip, quaint stories and sentimental poetry. But he was not well served by his contributors. One of them sent him an original effusion a poem which had previously appeared in Blackwood’s Magazine, The Singapore Chronicle, which had no reason to love this new venture, took good care to point out the plagiarism, and no doubt there were some heart-searchings in the official editorial sanctuary at Pinang. The sands of the paper’s existence, however, were by that time running out, and the paper was dropped after a period of more than thirty years. It is an interesting fact that the orders went out for the stoppage of the Government Gazette, and on July 3, 1830, the last number was issued. In a farewell note the editor thus addressed his readers: "Accident rather than choice led us to assume a character which previous experience little qualified us to discharge with ability. So circumstances, we cannot ask, like Augustus, to be accompanied on our departure with applause, but must rest satisfied in the hope that we may have afforded temporary amusement to those whose severer labours prevented them from looking for it elsewhere.” So the last vestige of official domination of the press fades out, and the Straits journalistic conscience that honourable and distinguished career which has given it a worthy pre-eminence amongst the press of the Crown colonies.

CHAPTER V.

Later Years.

When the united settlements were brought under the government of Bengal in 1836, Pinang, which had suffered a severe eclipse politically as well as commercially by the rise of Singapore, receded still further into the background. Its population became stationary at nearly so, the increase in the number of inhabitants on the island and in Province Wellesley between the years 1835 and 1857 being only from 86,099 to 91,098. On the other hand the settlement more than maintained its reputation as a costly appanage of the East India Company. In 1832-36, compared with an expenditure of Rs. 2,513,328 was a revenue of only Rs. 17,893. The position
VIEWS OF PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND.

1. View from the Convalescent Bungalow.  
4. View from Strawberry Hill.

(From Danilef's "Views of Prince of Wales Island.")
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

became worse as years went by, for in 1845, against the smaller revenue of Rs. 170,459 had to be set the enormously increased expenditure of Rs. 341,659. In the "Report on the Moral and Material Progress of India for 1839-40" we find this paragraph relative to Pinang:

"At this station, owing to their poverty, no undertaking of importance has been projected, by the Commissioners during the past year. The funds at their command barely sufficed to enable them to meet the calls made upon them for the payment of the police force, to execute the ordinary repairs to the roads in Prince of Wales Island, with a few slight repairs to those in Province Wellesley, to purchase some of the materials required for a proposed new market, and to make some little progress towards completing the works necessary for bringing into the town the much-needed supply of water.

The settlement appeared to have got into a backwater from which it did not even seem likely to emerge.

A circumstance which militated seriously against its prosperity was the prevalence of piracy about the coast. Piracy in this part of the Straits, even more than elsewhere, was the staple industry of the coastal inhabitants. The native crews of the few large vessels which traded to Pinang were of a piratical character, and it was believed that a belief in a piracy was prevalent. Indeed, the idea of a walling off from the commerce of the West coast of Sumatra, in the neighborhood of Pinang, was one of the chief causes of the failure of the Morant, who was the first Nyguen emperor. But the Sultan of Selangor had been living, to a naval demonstration in which the then Governor of the Straits, Sir Andrew Clarke, joined. The Sultan was duly impressed with the power of the British fleet and, as a result, the entire force of the Chinese and Malay pirates was dispersed, and the trade to Pinang was resumed, to the great credit of the British arms.

In another section we shall have occasion to describe this great movement in some detail, and it is therefore unnecessary to follow here the progress of its development, but we may say that the influence of the new revenue of the town—a good deal of prosperity—has risen from 480,000 to 2,200,000 dollars in 1903, and it is now almost double what it was in 1900. The population of the island is now more than 100,000, and it is increasing at such a rate that, unless some great calamity should befall the settlement, it will probably be double that figure before another quarter of a century has elapsed.

For a century or more Pinang was largely the scene of disappointment. But it is now justified by the faith reposed in its future by its builder. Indeed, in his most sanguine moments could have pictured for his settlement a destiny so brilliant as that which the British government, in its efforts to transform a colony slow, unprogressive, and exceedingly costly to a thriving centre of commercial life with a buoyant revenue and an ever-increasing trade is due largely, if not entirely, to the remarkable work of administrative organisation which has been carried on in the Malay Peninsula. The transformation of a colony into foreign hands. The debt which Light bears to his worthy successors in India, and only the proverbial British luck in such matters prevented the whole of the remarkable work of administrating the colony from being handed to foreign hands. The debt which the Empire owes to Light is a debt to which it readily acknowledges as the due of Raffles. In the adjudgment of posthumous honours by the arbor eleganti-
MALACCA.

EARLY HISTORY.

MALACCA, slumberous, dreamy, and picturesque, epitomises what there is of romance in the Straits Settlements. Singapore, by right of seniority, has pride of place in the history of Malaya. But, as we have seen, little or nothing remains of her ancient glories but traditions, none too authentic. Malacca, on the other hand, has still to show considerable monuments of the successive conquerors who have exercised sway within her limits. On a hill overlooking the settlement are the remains of an ancient Portuguese church, whose stately towers, with graceful minars outlined against the intense blue of a tropical sky, tell of that strenuous period in sway, and lorded it in their peculiar fashion over the inhabitants of the ancient Malay port. In the outskirts of the town are not a few old-world gardens, charmingly suggestive of an age in which the steamboat was unknown, and life rippled on in an even, if monotonous, current. Further away, hemming in the houses in a sea of tropical vegetation, are plantations and orchards, with, as a background, a vista of blue-coloured hills. It is a scene typically Oriental, and carries with it more than a suggestion of that commercial stagnation that has left Malacca in a state of suspended animation, while its upstart neighbour to the south has been progressing at a feverish rate. But there are not wanting evidences that Malacca is awakening from its long sleep. Agricultural development is touching with its magic wand the territory along the coast on each side and in the Hinterland, and slowly but surely is making its influence felt on the trade of the port. Malacca’s day as a modern trading centre at last seems to be dawning. It may not be a great day, but it will be almost certainly one which will contrast very remarkably with any that it has previously known in its chequered history.

The ancient history of Malacca, like that of Singapore, is enveloped in a considerable amount of doubt. Practically the only guide on the subject is the “Sejarah Malayu,” or “Malay Annals,” the work already referred to in the section dealing with Singapore. This compilation is distrusted by most modern Malay authorities because of its manifest inaccuracy in matters of detail, and it is usually only cited by them as a legendary record which, amidst a great mass of chaff, may contain a few grains of solid fact. The narrative, as has been noted,

GATE OF THE OLD FORT AT MALACCA.

Straits history when the priest and the soldier went hand in hand in the building up of Lusi- tanian power in the East. Hard by is the old Dutch Stadt House, solid and grim-looking, recalling the era when the Netherlanders held
chief of Singapore. According to the record, this Prince, while out hunting one day, was resting under the shade of a tree near the coast when one of his dogs roused a mOOSE deer. The animal, driven by bay, attacked the dog and forced it into the water. The Raja, delighted at the incident, said, "This is a fine place, where the very pellandoks (moose deer) are full of courage. Let us found a city here." And the city was founded and called Malacca, after the tree under which the prince was resting - the malacca tree (Phialanthus Emblica). Perhaps this explanation of the founding of Malacca is as authentic as most stories of the origins of ancient cities. It, at all events, must serve in the absence of reliable historical data. Raja Secunder Shah died in 1274, and was succeeded by Raja Kesiru Blazer, in the reign of which period the Malays are said to have been converted to Mahomedanism. The next two centuries witnessed a great development of the trade of the city. The place is represented in 1509 as being one of the first cities of the East, and its ruling chiefs are reported to have successfully resisted many efforts to extend the kingdom of the king under which they were subject. The Annals give a picturesque description of Malacca as it existed at this period. "From Ayeer Leeh, the trickling stream, to the entrance of the Bay of Mnar, was one uninterrupted market-place. From the Kling town likewise to the Bay of Penagar the buildings extended along the shore in one uninterrupted line. If a person went from Malacca to Jagra (Parcel Hill) there was no occasion to carry fire with one, for wherever he stopped he would find people's houses." Another vivid description of Malacca at the beginning of the sixteenth century is to be found in an ancient manuscript, which is attributed by the Hon. E. J. Stanley, his traveHs in the Malayan Archipelago, to the writer, "is the richest trading port, and possesses the most valuable merchandise and most numerous shipping and extensive traffic that is known in all the world. And it has got such a quantity of gold that the great merchants do not estimate their property nor count their riches by dollars or quarters of a dollar, but by kilograms, which are four quintals each bahar. There are merchants among them who will take up singly three or four ships laden with very valuable goods, and will supply them with cargo from their own property. They are very well made men, and likewise the women. They are of a brown colour, and go bare from the waist upwards, and from that down covers themselves with silk and cotton cloths, and they wear short jackets half way down the thigh of scarlet cloth, and silk, cotton, or brocade stuffs, and they are girt with belts and carry daggers in their mantles, wrought with rich inlaid work: these they call queris (kris). And the women dress in long gowns of silk stuffs, and short skirts much adorned with gold and jewellery, and have long, beautiful hair. These people have many mosques, and when they die they bury their bodies. They live in large houses, and have gardens and orchards, and pools of water outside the city for their recreation. They have got many of the arts of Burma and without, and children. These slaves live separately, and serve them when they have need of them. These Moors, who are named Malays, are very polished people and gentlemen, musical, gallant, and well-proportioned." In the section of this work dealing with the Portuguese and Dutch ascendency in the Straits is fully related. It is, therefore, only necessary here to touch lightly upon this period in Malacca history. The town was captured by Abu- querque in 1511. For one hundred and thirty years it remained in the occupation of the Portuguese. Under the Dutch it became an important centre for the propagation of the Roman Catholic faith. The great Church of Our Lady of the Annunciation, whose splendid ruins still dominate the settlement, was built, and within its walls officiated during an eventful period of his life St. Francis Xavier, the Apostle of the East. The propitiating seal of the Portuguese went hand in hand with commercial enterprise. They built up a considerable trade in spices and other Eastern products, reviving in new channels a commerce which went back to Roman times, if not beyond. Malacca, as the chief port in these waters, was the centre for the Dutch trade. The chief crops grown for export were tea, coffee, and bengfern. Vessels richly freighted sailed from its wharves with fair regularity on the perilous voyage round the Cape, carrying with their enormously valuable cargoes to Europe an impression of the greatness of the Portuguese settlement in the Straits of Malacca, which, although it had shrunk, still remained the chief, if not the last, people, as a result of their diplomatic action. That Malacca in the palmy days of the Portuguese occupation was a highly flourishing city is, however, beyond doubt. A graphic picture of it as it existed in the early years of the seventeenth century is given by Manuel Godinho de Eredia in a manuscript written at Goa in 1615 and discovered in the Royal Library at Brussels. Within the fortifications, which were of great extent, were the castle and palace of the Governor, the palace of the bishop, the hall of the Council of State, and five churches. The walls of the fortress were pierced by four gates leading to three separate quarters of the town, the Dutch, the Portuguese and the Arabian of Querua. Living in the fortress were three hundred married Portuguese with their families. Altogether the population of the settlement included 7,400 Christians, and there were 4 religious houses, 14 churches, 2 hospitals, with chapels and several hermitages and oratories. Eredia writes with enthusiasm of the climate of Malacca. "This land," he says, "is the freshest and most agreeable in the world. Its air is healthy and invigorating, good for human life and health, at once warm and moist. But neither the heat nor the moisture is excessive, for the heat is tempered by the moist vapours arising from the waters, at the same time that it counteracts the dampness of the excessive rains of all seasons, especially during the changes of the moon." In the seventeenth century the Dutch and English appeared in the Straits to contest the practical monopoly of trade which the Portuguese had long enjoyed in these latitudes. The English were content to leave the Portuguese to the possession of the territory they had long held. The Dutch, more ambitious, and more conscious of their strength, determined to put an end to Portuguese rivalry by the summary process of eviction. In 1642 they sent an expedition against Malacca, and without much difficulty occupied the place. They took with them to their new possession their characteristic trade exclusiveness, and also the stern methods of dealing with the natives. The policy had its natural fruits in a waning commerce and a diminishing population. Before the end of the seventeenth century the Malay and Chinese predominated, and the comparative unimportance of the Dutch occupation. Their political outlook, however, was as characteristically narrow as was their economic policy, and though they entered Malacca with a number of chiefs they did not pursue their diplomacy was directed rather to the exclusion of rivals than to practical ends. So that the Dutch power was seated for upwards of a century and a half at Malacca, its active influence at the end of the period extended litttle beyond the confines of the actual instance where interests were created for ulterior purposes. Valentin, the well-known Dutch missionary whose great work on the East Indies, published at Dordrecht and Amsterdam in the year 1726, is one of the classics of Indian historical literature, gives a minute account of Malacca as it modern English period of the Dutch occupation which region in which the town is situated, states, was called by the ancients Terra or Regio Auriera, or the gold-bearing country, and Aurca Chersonesos, or the Golden Peninsula, the latter name being conferred on account of its being joined to the countries of Tanger (now Tanger) and Siam by a narrow neck of land. The town is 1,800 paces or about a mile in circumference, and the sea face is defended by a high wall, 600 paces in length. There is also a fine stone wall along the banks of the river to the north-west, and to the north-east is a stone bulwark, called St. Domingo. A wall called Taya runs along the water-side to the port St. Jago, and there are several small fortresses with two more bulwarks on the south-east side, which contribute much to the strength of the place. In the upper part of the town lies the Monastery of St. Paul; and those of the Ministrerdes (foster brothers) and of Madre de Dios. The streets of the town, but unpaved; and many fine stone houses, the greater part of which are built after the Portuguese fashion, very high. They are
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

arranged in the form of a crescent. There is a respectable fortress of great strength, with good walls and bulwarks, and well provided with cannon, which, with a good garrison, would stand a hard push. Within the fort there are many strong stone houses and regular streets, all bearing tokens of the old Portuguese times; and the tower which stands on the hill has still a respectable appearance, although it is in a great state of dilapidation. This fortress, which occupies the hill in the centre of the town, is about the size of Delfshaven, and has also two gates, with part of the town on a hill, and the outer side washed by the sea. It is at present the residence of the Governor, the public establishment, and of the garrison, which is tolerably strong. Two hundred years ago it was a mere fishing village, and now it is a handsome city. In former times the fort contained eleven or twelve thousand inhabitants, but now there are not more than two or three hundred, partly Dutch and partly Portuguese and Malays, but the latter reside in mere "atauh" huts in the remote corners of the fort. Beyond it there are also many handsome houses and tidy plantations of coconut and other trees, which are occupied chiefly by Malays."

This account of Valentyn's makes it clear that under the Dutch domination Malacca sunk into a position of comparative insignificance. The obviously retrograded considerably — was, in fact, only a shadow of what it once was. With unimportant variations it continued in this condition of comparative insignificance until the usurpation of Dutch power by Napoleon, at the end of the eighteenth century, brought Great Britain and Holland into a position of mutual hostility, and indirectly led to the British occupation of several of the Dutch colonies, Malacca amongst them. The conquest of the straits port was easily accomplished. A small British squadron, under the command of Captain Newcome of the Orpheus, appeared off the place in November, 1795. As it entered the port "a Dutch ship which had run aground fired at the Resistance, of forty-four guns, Captain Edward Pakenham. This was returned and the ship struck her colours. The fort also fired a few shots on the troops on their landing, and surrendered on the opening of our fire: for which acts of hostility the settlement, as well as the ships in the harbour, were taken possession of as the property of the captors, subject to the decision of his Britannic Majesty. In the capitulation it was agreed that the commanding officer of the British troops was to command the fort; and in consequence of the expenses incurred by the King of Great Britain in equipping the armament, the British garrison was to be maintained at the expense of the Dutch, who were to raise a sum in the settlement for that purpose. The British commandant was also to have the keys of the garrison and give the parole; all military stores of whatever description were to be placed under his control; the armed vessels belonging to the Government of Malacca to be put likewise under the orders of the British Government. The settlements of Kio and Perak, being dependencies of Malacca, were ordered to put themselves under the protection of the British Government."

The town was not at the outset actually incorporated in British territory, but was occupied for the Prince of Orange, who had been driven from his throne by the revolutionaries. The fact is made clear by the following general order issued by the commandant of the British troops on November 17, 1795: "The Dutch troops having taken the oath of allegiance to his Britannic Majesty, George III., now in strict alliance with his Serene Highness, William the Fifth, Prince of Orange, the same respect and deference is to be paid to the Dutch officers and men when on or off duty as is paid Brenton's "Naval History," l. 366.
to the British officers and men, by whom they are to be considered and treated on all occasions as brother soldiers in one and the same allied service."

Malacca was to have been restored to the Dutch in 1802 as a result of the conclusion of the Peace of Amiens; but war breaking out again in May, 1803, before the transfer was made, and the Dutch falling once more under the dominion of France, the status of the settlement was not changed. The British, however, were not at all enamoured of their trust. The place imposed a heavy drain upon the Company's resources without bringing any corresponding advantage. If the territory had been absolutely British the responsibility might have been faced, but it did not appear to the authorities of that day superior to be worth writing to continue the expenditure on the port with the possibility of its being reoccupied by the Dutch on the conclusion of a general peace. In the circumstances Lieut.-Colonel Farquhar (not to be confused with Major Farquhar, of Singapore fame), the Governor of Prince of Wales Island and by the latter the whole of the establishment should be withdrawn and the place delivered over to the neighbouring native force. The policy was fully approved and ordered to be carried into effect by the authorities in Europe. Strong protests were made against the measure by the British inhabitants; but the work of demolishing the fortifications was put in hand immediately in accordance with the instructions. The Portuguese had built well, and it took the Company's workmen two years, and cost the Company £4,000, to undo the work which they had created. When the act of vandalism had been completed, an order was received from the Governor-General directing the suspension of all further proceedings in connection with the evacuation. This striking change in policy had been brought about by a communication which Raffles had made to the superior authority as the result of a visit he paid to Malacca in September, 1811, and the latter was highly impressed by what he had seen and heard during his sojourn in the settlement, and he had immediately set to work to put on paper a statement showing the grave blunder that was on the point of being committed. This monograph is one of the most masterly of its kind in public communications. He commenced by stating that having lately had an opportunity of noticing the destruction of the works at Malacca, and being impressed with a conviction that the future prosperity of Prince of Wales Island was materially involved in the impending fate of the place, he had felt it a duty incumbent upon him to submit to the Board the result of his observations. He proceeded:

"The object of the measures taken with regard to Malacca appears to have been two-fold—to discourage, by the destruction of the works, any European Power from setting a value on the place or turning it to any account in the event of it falling into their hands, and to have improved the settlement at Prince of Wales Island by the transfer of its population and trade. These objects were undoubtedly highly desirable and of great political importance. The former, perhaps, may in some degree have been effected by the destruction of the works and removal of the ordinance and stores to Pinang, but with respect to the latter much remains to be done. . . ."

"The inhabitants resident within the territory of Malacca are estimated at 20,000 souls. . . . More than three-fourths of the above population were born in Malacca, where their families have resided for centuries. . . . The Malays, a class of people not generally valued as subjects, are here industrious and valuable members of society. . . ."

"The inhabitants of Malacca are very different from what they appear to have been considered. Three-fourths of the native population of Prince of Wales Island might with justice be said to have resided for centuries in the settlement; they are fixed in a property, and having no fixed or permanent property; adventurers ready to turn their hands to any employment. But the case is very different with the native inhabitants of Malacca. . . . These inhabitants are mostly proprietors of property or connected with those that are; and the stability of the trade in the island would have been greatly enhanced. . . . The more respectable, and the majority, accustomed to respect an independence from their childhood, will ill brook the difficulties of establishing themselves at a new settlement. . . . The present population must, it is feared, be made to suffer; but the work and from every appearance it seems they have determined to remain by Malacca, let its fate be what it will. Into whatever hands it falls it cannot be much more reduced than at present, and they have a hope that any change must be for the better. The offer made by Government of paying the passage of such as would embark in the evacuation was not accepted by a single individual. . . ."

"The population of Malacca is, in a great degree, independent; and when it is considered that no corresponding benefit can be offered to them at Pinang, it cannot be expected that they will remove; admitting even that they are induced to leave Malacca, the arrival of a new and powerful company of adventurers will probably be a signal for many of them to come back; they would feel but little inclination to adventure at Pinang, where they must either purchase land and houses from others or undertake the clearing of an unhealthy jungle."

"The natives consider the British faith pledged for their protection. When the settlement fell into the hands of the English they were invited to remain; protection and even encouragement were offered them. The latter has long ago ceased; and they are in daily expectation of losing the former. For our protection they are willing to make great sacrifices; and they pay the heavy duties imposed on them with the cheerfulness of faithful and grateful subjects. The revenues of Malacca are never in arrear.""

The eyes of the Court of Directors were opened by Raffles's communication, and while issuing orders for the cancellation of the evacuation measures, they thanked him for his able report. Thus Raffles's name is identified as honourably with Malacca as it is with Singapore. While he may be regarded as the creator of the latter settlement, he deserves with equal justice to be looked upon as the saviour of the former at a turning-point in its history. In 1811, during the period of the second British occupation of Malacca, the settlement was used as a base for the expedition to Java, to which allusion has already been made. Lord Minto conducted the expeditionary force in person, and it was at Malacca that he had the series of conferences with Raffles which terminated in the adoption by the Governor-General, in defiance of the opinions of other authorities, of the route recommended by the Government for the passage of the fleet. These were lively days for Malacca, and how greatly the natives enjoyed the experience is to be gathered from the pages of the Hikaiat Abdullah. The Faithful Abdullah, with the minuteness almost of a Pepys, sets down in his journal all the incidents of the period. His book was left and right, and bowed to either hand, and then walked slowly through the guard of honour, while the guns kept thundering the salute; and he never ceased raising his hand in courteous acknowledgment of salutations. I could not see in him the slightest trace of self-hauteur or self-importance; he was the same to the Governor-General as to everyone pleasantly. And as he came to a great crowd of people they saluted him; and he stopped for a moment and raised his hand, to acknowledge the welcome of all these poor folk—Chinese, Malays, Tamils, and Eurasians—and he smiled as he returned their greeting. How the hearts of all God's servants expanded with joy and how the people prayed for blessings on Lord Minto when they saw how he bore himself, and how well he knew the way to win affection! . . . After waiting a moment to return the salutations he walked on slowly, bowing to the people, until he reached the Stadl House and entered it. Then all the great people of Malacca crowded among those recently arrived, went to meet him; and I noticed that amongst all those distinguished people it was Mr. Raffles who was bold enough to approach him; the others sat a long way off. A few moments later everyone who had entered and met the Governor-General withdrew, and returned to their own quarters. Then the troops fired three volleys in succession and they also returned to their camp. There is a natiwe'about Abdullah's description which gives it a peculiar charm; and it has its value
as a piece of self-revelation on the part of a Malay in the days when Western ideas had not penetrated very deeply in Malaya. A further memento of Lord Minto's visit is a portrait of the Governor-General which hangs in the Stadl House at Malacca. The figure of the Governor-General is painted against a background representing Malacca, and there is little doubt that the work was executed shortly after the period of the Java Expedition.

Malacca remained in the somewhat anomalous position of a British settlement governed by Dutch law, administered by a Dutch judiciary, in which the overthrow of Napoleon paved the way for a general adjustment of the international position. The events of that memorable period followed each other so rapidly that the first intelligence received by the Pinang Government of the close of the war was the announcement of the conclusion of the Treaty of Vienna, which inter alia provided for the retrocession of Malacca. A feeling akin to consternation was aroused at the action of the home authorities in acquiescing in the rendition of the settlement, the value of which had become more and more evident with the revival of Dutch influence and pretensions in the Straits. Earnest remonstrances were immediately transmitted to the authorities in Europe by the Pinang Government against the measure. Major Farquhar, the Resident, also addressed to the Court of Directors a strong plea for the reconsideration of the question. This official's representation took the form of a lengthy paper, in which the position and resources of Malacca were described with a knowledge born of long residence in the settlement and a thorough acquaintance with the country about it. It is probable that the production was inspired by Raffles's earlier effort in the same line, which, as we have noted, had such striking results. However that may be, the document is of exceptional interest from the light it throws on the position of Malacca at that period, and the prescient wisdom displayed in regard to its future prospects in relation to the Malay States. As the compilation has been overlooked to a large extent by writers on Mahya, the more important portions of it may profitably be reproduced here.

Major Farquhar, at the outset of his communication, remarked that, having regard to the situation of Malacca, commanding as it did the only direct passage to China, they could not but be very forcibly impressed with the importance of the place alike from a political and commercial point of view, as well as with the many evils which would inevitably arise should it again fall into the hands of a foreign power. He proceeded to point out that when Malacca was before in the hands of the Dutch they were able to seriously harass and hamper the British trade which centred at Pinang by bringing into Malacca every trading pahau passing through the Straits.

"A doubt therefore cannot exist," he wrote, "that should the settlement of Malacca be restored to the Dutch, their former influence will be speedily re-established, and probably on a more extended basis than ever; so as to cause the total ruin of that advantageous and lucrative commerce which at present is carried on by British subjects through these straits. Independent (sic) of the above considerations Malacca possesses many other local advantages which, under a liberal system of government, might in my opinion render it a most valuable colony. Nature has been profusely bountiful to the Malay Peninsula in bestowing on it a climate the most agreeable and salubrious, a soil luxuriantly fertile, watered by numerous rivers, and the face of the country diversified with hills and valleys, mountains and plains, the whole forming the most beautiful scenery that it is possible for the imagination to figure to itself; in contemplating which we have only to lament that a more enterprising and industrious race of inhabitants than the Malays should not have possessed this delightful region, and we cannot but reflect with pain and regret on the narrow and sordid policy of the European Powers (who have had establishments here since the fifteenth century), by which every attempt at general cultivation and improvement was discouraged; and to such a length did the Dutch carry their restrictions that previous to the capture of Malacca by the English in 1795, no grain of any kind was permitted to be raised within the limits of the Malacca territory, thus rendering the whole population dependent on the island of Java for all their supplies. Under such a government it is not surprising that the country should have continued in a state of primitive nature; but no sooner were these restrictions taken off by the English and full liberty given to every species of agriculture than industry began to show itself very rapidly, notwithstanding the natural indolence of the Malay inhabitants, and the Malacca district now produces nearly sufficient grain for the consumption of the settlement, and with proper encouragement would, I have no doubt, in the course of a few years, yield a considerable quantity for exportation. . . ."

There is a great quantity of the richest kinds of soil in the vicinity of Malacca adapted to the growth of everything common to tropical climates. The sugar-cane is equal to any produced in Java, and far exceeds in size that of Bengal. Coffee, cotton, chocolate, indigo, pepper, and spices have all been tried and found to thrive remarkably well; but as yet no cultivation to any extent of those articles has taken place, principally owing to the uncertainty of the English retaining permanent possession of Malacca, and to the apprehensions the native inhabitants entertain of being obliged to desist from every species of agricultural pursuit should the settlement revert to the Dutch. . . .

"The mineral productions of the Malayan peninsula might likewise become a source of considerable emolument if thoroughly explored. Indeed, I have little doubt that the gold and tin mines in the vicinity of Malacca, if scientifically worked and placed under proper management, would prove of very great value. At present they are very partially worked, and with so little skill that no comparative advantage can be derived from them. The Malays and Chinese who are employed at the mines content themselves with digging open pits to the depth of from 6 to 10 feet, seldom going beyond that, and removing from place to place as the veins near the surface become exhausted. . . . The tin mines are all within a circuit of 35 miles of Malacca (with the exception of those of Perak), and produce at present about 4,000 piculs of tin, which will yield nearly 80,000 Spanish dollars. But this quantity, were the mines under proper management, might be easily quadrupled. Indeed, I have not the least doubt that the mines of Malacca would very soon be brought to rival those of Bencoolen."

Farquhar went on to suggest that it would be easy to make arrangements with the native chiefs for the working of the mines, and this thought led him to a general dissertation on the
advantages of extending British influence in the peninsula. With shrewd judgment he remarked: "It becomes an object of the highest interest that some means should be adopted for establishing, under British influence, a regular system of government throughout the Malay Peninsula, calculated to rescue this delightful region from the tyranny and ignorance which at present so completely stunts every avenue of improvement."

The paper closed with the glowing description of the climatic advantages of Malacca:

"Malacca enjoys regular land and sea breezes, but during the height of the NE monsoon the sea breezes are very faint, and the winds from the land at this season frequently blow with considerable force and little variation for several weeks together. They are not, however, at all of a hot and parching nature like those on the continent of India, owing, no doubt, to their passing over a considerable tract of country so thickly clothed with woods that the earth never becomes heated to any great degree. The mornings at this season are particularly cool, and the Malay weather being quite serene and the air sharp and bracing. Very little variation takes place in the barometer at Malacca. . . . The salubrity of the climate may be pretty fairly judged of by the number of casualties that have occurred in the garrison for the last seven years, which on a correct average taken from the registers of those who have died from disease contracted here does not amount to quite two in the hundred, a smaller proportion than will, I fancy, be found in almost any other part of India."

Such was the report which Farquhar sent home. It was reinforced by petitions from the mercantile community, all representing in the strongest and most earnest language the grave impolicy of allowing the settlement to get back into Dutch hands. The fain, however, had gone forth for the transfer, and however much the home authorities might have liked to retrace their steps they could not do so without a violation of treaty obligations. Events in Europe precluded a possible settlement on the lines of Vienna. It was not, in fact, until November 2, 1816, that the Government order was issued for the restoration of Malacca. Even then the Dutch did not appear to be at all anxious to enter into possession. They were more concerned with consolidating their position in other parts of the Straits. Riau was occupied, and lodgments were effected at various advantageous positions on the coast of Sumatra. Malacca, stripped of its fortifications and bereft of the most profitable part of its trade by Phang, they appeared to consider was of minor importance to these positions which could be used with effect for the execution of the long-cherished project of re-occupying the whole of the Straits trade for the Dutch. That "profligate speculation," to adopt Lord Hastings' phrase, as we know, was defeated, thanks to Raffles' foresight and energy; but it can be readily understood that in the early stages of the plot it seemed good policy to keep the British hanging on as hangers at Malacca while the Dutch forces were careering about the Straits picking up unconsidered trifles of territory in good strategic positions.

It was not until the year 1818 was well advanced that the Dutch found time to turn their attention to Malacca. After some preliminary negotiations the settlement was handed over to the Dutch Commissioners on September 21st of that year. An interesting ceremony marked the transfer. At sunrise the British colours were hoisted, and at seven o'clock all the British troops in garrison marched to St. Paul's Hill, where they were joined by the Dutch contingent. The British Resident (Major Farquhar) and the Dutch Commissioners, with their respective staffs, proceeded in procession to the vicinity of the flag-staff, and on arrival were received by the united troops with presented arms. The British proclamation announcing the retrocession was then read by the Resident, and it was subsequently repeated in the Malay and Chinese languages. Afterwards the Master Attendant began slowly to lower the Union flag, the battery meanwhile firing a royal salute and the troops presenting arms.

Simultaneously the Dutch men-of-war in the harbour thundered out a royal salute. Afterwards the British troops took up a new position in front of the British battery and from the Dutch squadron. The ceremony of transfer was completed by the Dutch troops relieving the British garrison.

During the progress of the arrangements for the surrender of the town, Major Farquhar advanced a claim on behalf of the British for the reimbursement of the expenses incurred over and above the revenue since the capture of the place in 1795. He did so on the ground that the laws of Holland as they existed under the States General in 1794-95 have been the only civil laws in force in this settlement, and that all the decrees of the Courts of Justice have continued to be passed in the name of their High Mightinesses. The Dutch Commissioners declined emphatically to entertain the claim. They agreed, however, to accept responsibility for the additional charges incurred from the date of the conclusion of the French treaty to the period when the transfer was made, less the costs of the time covered by Major Farquhar's absence on mission duty.

One of the last public appearances of Farquhar at Malacca was at the laying of the foundation-stone of the Anglo-Chinese College on November 11, 1818. The retiring British Resident discharged the principal part in this ceremonial. Negotiations for the purchase of the college premises were attended with many of his leading colleagues, and so gave the sanction of the new régime to an enterprise which, though entirely British in its inception, was of a character to appeal to broad sympathies. The founder of the college was the Rev. Dr. Morrison, a well-known missionary associated with the London Missionary Society. Dr. Morrison's idea was to spread a knowledge of Christianity amongst the better class Chinese, and at the same time to provide for the reciprocal study of European and Chinese literature. He gave out of his own means a sum of one thousand pounds towards the cost of the building, and in addition provided an endowment of one hundred pounds annually for the succeeding five years. At a later period, when the British resumed the occupation of Malacca, the Company granted an allowance of twelve hundred Spanish dollars per annum until 1830, when the grant was discontinued. Attached to the college was an English, Chinese, and Malay Press, from which in process of time issued several interesting books. On the occupation of Singapore an effort was made by Raffles to secure the transfer of the college to that settlement and its amalgamation with the Raffles Institute. But the proposal met with much opposition and eventually had to be reluctantly abandoned.

The second period of Dutch dominion thus inaugurated was brief. When the time came in 1824 to arrange a general settlement of matters in dispute with the Dutch, the agreement was come to for the British to cede to the Netherlands Government Bencoolen in Sumatra. With Malacca in Dutch hands the spread of our influence throughout the Malay Peninsula would have been impossible. Our line of communications would have been broken, and a wedge would have been driven into our sphere of action, to the effectual crippling of our efforts. As things are, we have an absolutely clear field, and what that means is being increasingly demonstrated by the development of the Dutch establishments on the continent of India. It has often been thought that in this transaction we have exemplification of the truth of Canning's lines which affirm that—

"In matters of commerce, the fault of the Dutch is offering too little and asking too much."

But though if we had remained in Sumatra we might unquestionably have developed a great trade with that island, it is extremely doubtful whether we could ever have secured advantages equal to those which have accrued from the possession of Malacca. With Malacca in Dutch hands the spread of our influence throughout the Malay Peninsula would have been impossible. Our line of communications would have been broken, and a wedge would have been driven into our sphere of action, to the effectual crippling of our efforts. As things are, we have an absolutely clear field, and what that means is being increasingly demonstrated by the development of the Dutch establishments on the continent of India.
23,282 Spanish dollars, and in 1823 there was a further fall to 7,717 Spanish dollars. Practically, therefore, Malacca had been wiped out as a port for external trade. This commercial deterioration was not the only difficulty which the new administration had to face. On the reoccupation it was found that scarcely a foot of land, with the exception of a few spots near the town, belonged to the Government. The proprietary rights in the soil had been given away in grants to various individuals by the Dutch, with the mere reservation of the right to impose a land tax on the whole. Mr. Fullerton caused a careful inquiry to be instituted into the whole system. This took a considerable time and involved much research. The system in vogue was found to be based upon the ancient Malay custom which constituted the sovereign the lord of the soil and gave him one-tenth of the produce. Under this system a landowner might hand down the trees he planted and the house he built, but he could not alienate the land. It followed that the individuals called proprietors, mostly Dutch colonists resident at Malacca, were not such in reality, but merely persons to whom the Government had granted its tenth, and who had no other claim upon the produce, nor upon the occupiers, not founded in abuse. The occupiers, in fact, were, under Government, the real proprietors of the soil. Another point brought out by the investigation was that a class called Penghuls, who occupied a dominant position in the management of Malacca land property, were merely the agents of Government or of the person called the proprietor, for collecting the tenth share and performing certain duties of the nature of police attached by custom to the proprietors. In order to revive the proprietary rights of Government, Mr. Fullerton elected to purchase the vested interests of the so-called proprietors for a fixed annual payment about equal to the existing annual receipts from the land, and to employ the Penghuls to collect the rents on behalf of Government. This arrangement was finally carried out with the sanction of the Court of Directors at a cost to the Government of Rs. 16,750 annually. For many years the Government lost heavily over the transaction, the receipts falling a good many thousands short of the fixed annual disbursement. There can be no question, however, that the resumption of the Government proprietorship of the soil was a statesmanlike measure from which much subsequent good was derived. The alarming decline in the trade of the settlement created a feeling akin to despair in the minds of the inhabitants. In 1829 a memorial was forwarded by them to Pinang, drawing attention to the position of affairs and suggesting various measures for the recovery of the settlement's lost prosperity. In a communication in reply to the memorial, Mr. Fullerton remarked that the memorialists had overlooked the principal reason for the decay of Malacca, which was the foundation of Pinang at one end of the straits and Singapore at the other. Henceforth, he said, the prosperity of Malacca must depend more upon agricultural than commercial resources. Seeing that she was as far superior to the other two settlements in the former respect as she was inferior to them in

the latter, there was no reason to doubt, he thought, that under a wise government Malacca might regain nearly as great a degree of prosperity as the formerly enjoyed.

If the mercantile community had cause to complain of the hardiness of the times, the East India Company had not less reason to feel anxious about the position at Malacca. The settlement was a steady and increasing drain upon the Company's resources. The following figures illustrate the position as it was a few years after the resumption of the territory:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
<th>Loss</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
<td>Rs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1831-32</td>
<td>48,800</td>
<td>144,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1832-33</td>
<td>60,800</td>
<td>190,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1833-34</td>
<td>66,700</td>
<td>206,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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It may be acknowledged that not a little of the excessive expenditure was for objects which were not properly debitable to Malacca—ordinating officials fifty dollars per annum, provided that they would transfer their lands to Government in order that the tenth might be levied upon them in the same way as at Malacca. The proposals met with a flat refusal, and Mr. Lewis had to return to headquarters. Another attempt was made in the following year to bring about the desired result. On that occasion Mr. Church, the Deputy Resident, was despatched with instructions to inform the Penghuls that Naning was an integral part of Malacca territory, and that it was intended by Government to subject it to the general regulations affecting the rest of the Malacca territory. He was further instructed to take a census and to make it known that all offenders, except in trivial matters, would in future be sent down to Malacca for trial. As a salutary for the loss of their power, Mr. Church was instructed to offer the Penghuls and the other functionaries a pension. The pill, though

thus gilded, was not more palatable than it had proved before. Mr. Church was allowed to take the census, but his mission in other respects was a failure. These evidences of an obstinate disposition to disregard the Company's authority led Mr. Fullerton to take measures for the despatch of an expedition to bring the recalcitrant chief to his bearings. Pending a reference of the matter to the Supreme Government, no forward movement was made, but on the forcible seizure and detention of a man within the Malacca boundary by order of the Penghuls, a proclamation was issued declaring that Abdu Syed had forfeited all claims, and was henceforth no longer Penghulu of Naning.

At length the sanction of the Supreme Government to the expedition was received, and on August 6, 1831, the expeditionary force commenced its march. It consisted of 150 rank and file of the 29th Madras Native Infantry, two 6-pounders, and a small detail of native artillery, the whole

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being under the command of Captain Wyllie, Madras Native Infantry. On the 9th the detachment reached Mulilkey, a village about 17 miles from Malacca and about five from Tabu, the residence of the Penghulu. Owing to the non-receipt of supplies and the unexpectedly severe resistance offered by the Penghulu’s men, Wyllie deemed it best to abandon Malacca et retrec. The force withdrew to Singile-Pattye, where it remained until August 24th, when orders were received for its return to Malacca. The heavy baggage was destroyed and the retreat commenced the same evening. On the following morning the somewhat demoralised force reached Malacca after a little fighting on the lines of its two guns, which were abandoned en route. This rather discreditable business created a considerable sensation at the time in Malacca, and there was some apprehension for the safety of the town, which, until the arrival of reinforcements from Madras, was almost at the mercy of the Malays. However, the Penghulu’s was now surprising, and it seems as if there was no disposition to trouble it was probably checked by the fact that the British authorities had concluded a treaty of alliance and friendship with the Rembau chiefs, who had assisted him in his rebellion. In January, 1832, a new expeditionary force was organised at Malacca with orders to proceed to Pinang and to the South of Sumatra. Wyllie arrived at Pinang in answer to the summons for aid. It consisted of the 5th Madras N.I., a company of rifles, two companies of sappers and miners, and a detail of European and native artillery. The troops, which were under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Herbert, commenced their march early in March. They encountered considerable resistance en route and were compelled to take the offensive for a time to act on the defensive. Reinforcements, consisting mainly of the 46th Regiment, were ultimately received from Pinang, and on May 21st offensive operations were resumed with such success that Tabu fell on the 15th June. The Penghulu fled, and his property and belongings were captured. In 1834 he surrendered unconditionally to the Government at Malacca, and was permitted to reside in the town and draw a pension of thirty rupees from the Government treasury. Newbold described him as “a half, sallow man, apparently about fifty years of age, of a shrewd and observant disposition, though strongly imbued with the superstitions of his tribe.” “His miraculous power in the cure of diseases,” Newbold added, “is still as firmly believed as that of certain kings of England was at no very remote period, and his house is the daily resort of the health-seeking followes of Mahomed, Foh, Brahma, and Buddha.” By this time, the operations from 1831 to 1834 cost the Company no less than ten lakhs of rupees. For some time after the expedition it was deemed necessary to maintain a body of Madras troops in the territory; but the native population soon settled down, and within a few years there was no more contention in the Company’s dominions.

Naning comes to us in direct descent from the Portuguese, who took possession of it shortly after the capture of Malacca by Albuquerque in 1511. Previously it had formed an integral part of the dominions of Mahomed Shah II., Sultan of Malacca, who, on the fall of his capital, fled to Muzur, thence to Pahang, and finally to Johore, where he established a kingdom. Naning remained nominally under the Portuguese until 1641-12, when, with Malacca, it fell into the hands of the Dutch. Valentyn asserts that the treaty between the Dutch and the Sultan of Johore was that the town should be given up to the Dutch and the land to the Sultan of Joloore, the Dutch reserving only so much territory about the town as was required. This reservation was so liberally construed by the Netherlanders that they ultimately brought under the control an area of nearly 50 miles by 30, including the whole of Naning up to the frontier. This line of blood was extended beyond Bukit Bruang and Ramaoo China to the left bank of the Linggi river, which it now comprehends.

One of the questions which arose out of the reoccupation of Malacca was the status of the slaves resident in the settlement. In British dominions at that time, as the poet Cowper had more plainly professed, a few years before, slaves could not breathe: “If their lungs receive our air, that moment they are free; ‘They touch our country, and their shackles fall.” But poetry and law are not always in harmony, and they were not so in this case. At all events, there was sufficient doubt as to the application of the famous Emancipation statutes to give the authorities a considerable amount of trouble. The most divergent views were expressed locally on the subject. The main question was whether slaves duly registered and recognized as such by the previous Dutch Government could be considered in a state of slavery on the transfer of the settlement to the British. The inhabitants petitioned the Pinang authorities to accept the state of bondage on the ground of the confusion and loss which would be caused by emancipation. Mr. Fullerton, the Governor, in reply, called attention to the importance of the whole system of slavery within a certain period. Thereupon the inhabitants met and passed a resolution agreeing that slavery should cease at the expiration of the year 1842. Meanwhile the matter had been referred to Calcutta for legal consideration, and in due course the opinion of the law officers was forthcoming. It was held that owing to the peculiar circumstances under which Malacca had become a British settlement the state of slavery must of necessity be recognised wherever proof could be brought forward of the parties having been in that state under the Netherlandish Government. Eventually the question was settled on the basis of the compromise suggested by the resolution of the inhabitants at their public meeting. Thus Malacca enjoyed the dubious honour of having slaves amongst its residents many years after slavery had ceased to exist in other parts of the Empire.

The discussion of the slavery question incidentally led to a sharp controversy on the subject of press restrictions. The local newspaper, the Malacca Observer, which was printed at the Mission Press, in dealing with the points at issue ventured to write somewhat strongly on the attitude of the Government. Mr. Fullerton, who took a strictly official view of the functions of the press, and never tolerated the least approach to freedom in newspaper comments, peremptorily ordered the withdrawal of the subsidy which the paper enjoyed from the Government. Mr. Garling, the Resident Councillor, in conveying the orders of his superior to the offending newspaper, appears to have taken the right of the pagination of the paper, which allowance carried with it the withdrawal of the censorship. Great was Mr. Fullerton’s indignation when he learned that his directions had been thus interpreted. He indited a strongly worded communication to Mr. Garling, directing him to re-institute the control over the press, and ascribing the loss of the subsidy to him as responsible for any improper publication that might appear. Not content with this, the angry official caused a long letter to be written to Mr. Murchison, the Resident Councillor at Singapore, extolling on the magnitude of the blunder that had been committed, and warning him against a similar display of weakness in the case of the Singapore paper. “The partial and offensive style adopted by the editor of the Malacca Observer in the discussion of local slavery had,” he said, “tended completely to destroy the peace, harmony, and good order of the settlement, and as that question had been submitted to the Supreme Government it was manifest that the subsisting irritation should be allowed to subside, and that, pending reference, publications at a neighbouring settlement having a tendency to keep it alive, and coming professedly from the same channel, should be discouraged.” He therefore directed that no observations bearing on the question of local slavery at Malacca should be permitted to appear in the Singapore Chronicle. After pointing out that the printers were responsible with the publishers, the letter proceeded: “That a Press instituted for the purpose of difusing useful knowledge and the principles of religion and morality was made the instrument for disseminating scandalous aspersions on the Government and those connected with it, is a point for the consideration of the managers in Europe.” Accompanying the letter was a minute penned by Mr. Fullerton on the subject of the outrageous conduct of the newspaper in writing freely on a matter of great public interest. This document showed that the late Governor had a great command of minatory language. He wrote: “A more indecent and scurrilous production has seldom appeared, and I can only express amazement that, with all previous discussions before him connected with the paper, Mr. Garling should have thought of removing restraints, the necessity of which was sufficiently demonstrated by every part of the paper.” He expressly pressed “the firm conviction that unless supported by Mr. Garling himself such observations would never have appeared, and that he has all along had the means of putting an end to such incursions. The Government contributes to the Free School 210.8 dollars per month; the editor is the master of the school, drawing his means of subsistence from the contributions of the Government, and the printers are the members of the Mission, all supported by Government, and I must repeat my belief that, unless supported by Mr. Garling, the editor would never have hazarded such observations.
These circumstances only show how utterly impracticable the existence of an unrestricted paper is to the state of the settlement, and the endless wrangling and disputes it must in so small a community create, and as I presume the paper will now cease, any further measure respecting it will be unnecessary; the experiment will no doubt be duly remembered should any future applications be made to Government to sanction such a publication. Mr. Fullerton's anticipation that his drastic measures of discipline would be fatal to the Malacca Observer was realised. Soon after the withdrawal of the subsidy the issue of the journal was stopped, and a good many years passed before another newspaper was published in the settlement.

Mr. Fullerton had a great opinion of the conveniences and capabilities of Malacca. So strongly, indeed, was he drawn to it that in 1828 he seriously proposed making the settlement the capital. He urged as grounds for the change that Malacca had been the seat of European Government for more than two hundred years, that it had a more healthy climate than Pinang, was more centrally situated, was within two days' sail of Pinang and Singapore, and had more resources than either of those settlements for providing supplies for troops. Furthermore, it, being on the continent, commanded an interior, and owing to the shoal water no ship could approach near enough to bring its guns to bear on the shore; it had an indigenous and attached population, and in a political view it was conveniently situated for maintaining such influence over the Malay States as would prevent them from falling under Siamese dominion, and was near enough to the end of the straits to enable the proceedings of the Dutch to be watched. It was said afterwards by Mr. Blundell, Governor of the Straits, that there was much force in the arguments, but that it had become so much the habit to decry Malacca and pity the state into which it was supposed to have fallen, that the argument would at that time only excite a smile of ridicule.

After the first shock of the Singapore competition the trade of Malacca settled down into a condition of stagnation from which it was not to recover for many years. The commercial transactions carried through almost exclusively related to articles of local production. The staple exports were gold-dust and tin. In 1836 it was stated that annually about Rs. 20,000 worth of the former and Rs. 150,000 of the latter were exported, chiefly to Madras, Calcutta, Singapore, Pinang, and China. The produce filtered through from the native States in the Hinterland, and small as the annual exports were, they were sufficient to show what wealth might be drawn upon if only a settled system of government were introduced into the interior. As regards gold, the bulk of the produce came from Mount Ophir and its neighbourhood. But from time to time there were rumours of discoveries in other directions. For example, in the records for 1828 is a Malacca letter reporting the discovery of a gold mine in the vicinity of the settlement. The mine was said to yield a fair return to the 80 Chinese engaged in working it, but the results were not sufficiently good to promise any permanent material advantage.

In later years the course of Malacca life has been uneventful. "Happy is the nation that has no history," writes the poet. We may paraphrase the line and say, "Happy is the settlement that has no history." If Malacca has not been abundantly blessed with trade she has had no great calamities or serious losses to lament. She drifted on down the avenue of time calmly and peacefully, like one of the ancient régime who is above the ordinary sordid realities of life. A few years since the innovating railway intruded upon the dull serenity of her existence, bringing in its wake the bustle of the twentieth century. This change will become more pronounced with the extension of the railway system throughout the peninsula. Trade from the central districts will naturally gravitate to Malacca, as the most convenient outlet for all purposes on this part of the coast, and the settlement will also benefit both directly and indirectly from the development of the rubber industry which is proceeding on every hand. In this way the old prosperity of the port will be revived, and she will once more play an active part in the commercial history of the Straits.
THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES

BY ARNOLD WRIGHT

(With chapters on the early history of the Malays and the Portuguese and Dutch periods by Mr. R. J. Wilkinson, Secretary to the Resident of Perak).

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

ANY successes have been accomplished by British administrators in various parts of the Empire, but there is perhaps no more remarkable achievement to their credit than the establishment of the Federated Malay States on their existing basis. Less than a half-century since, the territory embraced within the confederation was a wild and thinly inhabited region, over which a few uncrowned chiefs exercised a mere semblance of authority. Piracy was rife on the coast, and the interior, where not impenetrable jungle or inaccessible swamp, was given over to the savagest anarchical conditions. There was little legitimate trade; there were no proper roads; the towns, so called, were miserable collections of huts devoid of even the rudiments of civilised life; the area was a sort of no-man's-land, where the rule of might flourished in its nakedest form. To-day the States have a revenue approaching twenty-five million dollars, and they export annually produce worth more than eighty million dollars. There are over 2,500 miles of splendid roads, and 366 miles of railways built at a cost of £7,261,022 dollars, and earning annually upwards of four million dollars. The population, which in 1879 was only 81,084, is now close upon a million, and there are towns which have nearly as many inhabitants as were to be found in the entire area before the advent of the British. A network of postal and telegraph agencies covers the land; there are schools accommodating nearly sixteen thousand pupils, and hospitals which annually minister to nearly sixty thousand in-patients and one hundred and twenty thousand out-patients. We may search in vain in the annals of colonisation for a more brilliant example of the successful application of sound principles of government in the case of a backward community residing in a wild, under-developed region. And yet it would seem that we are little more than on the threshold of this great venture in administration. Such is the richness and promise of this region that the statistics of to-day may a few decades hence pale into insignificance beside the results which will then be presented. It is truly a wonderful land, this over which the favouring shadow of British protection has been cast, and the Briton may point to it with legitimate pride as a convincing proof that the genius of his race for rule in subject lands exists in undiminished strength.

Though the influences which have given this notable addition to the Empire are almost entirely modern, the importance of extending the protecting influence of our flag to the Malay Sinues was long since recognised. Mr. John Anderson, in his famous pamphlet on the conquest of Kedah, to which reference has been made in the earlier historical sections of this work, argued strenuously in favour of a forward policy in the peninsula. "In extending our protecting influence to Quedah and declaring the other Malay States under our guardianship against foreign invasion, we acquire," he wrote, "a vast increase of colonial power without any outlay or hazard, and we rescue from oppression a countless multitude of human beings who will no doubt become attached and faithful dependents; we protect them in the quiet pursuit of commerce, and give life and energy to their exertions. We shall acquire for our country the valuable products of these countries without those obnoxious impositions under which we formerly derived supplies from the West Indies." These sagacious counsels were re-echoed by Sir Stamford Raffles in his "Memoir on the Administration of the Eastern Islands," which he penned after the occupation of Singapore. "Among the Malay States," he remarked, "we shall find none of the obstacles which exist among the more civilised people of India to the reception of new customs and ideas. They have not undergone the same artificial moulding; they are freer from the hand of Nature; and the absence of bigotry and invertebrate prejudice leaves them much more open to receive new impressions. . . . With a high reverence for ancestry and nobility of descent, they are more influenced, and are quicker discoverers of superiority of individual talent, than is usual among people not far advanced in civilisation. They are addicted to commerce, which has already given a taste for luxuries, and this propensity they indulge to the utmost extent of their means. Among a people so unsophisticated and so free from prejudices, it is obvious that a greater scope is given to the influence of example; that in proportion as their intercourse with Europeans increases, and a free commerce adds to their resources, along with the wants which will be created and the luxuries supplied, the humanising arts of life will also find their way; and we may anticipate a much more rapid improvement than in nations who, having once arrived at a high point in civilisation and retrograded in the scale, and now burdened by the recollection of what they once were, are brought up in a contempt for everything beyond their own narrow circle, and who have for centuries been under the double load of foreign tyranny and priestly intolerance. When these striking and important differences are taken into account, we may be permitted to indulge more sanguine expectations of improvement among the tribes of the Eastern Isles. We may look forward to an early abolition of piracy and illicit traffic when the seas shall be open to the free current of commerce, and when the British flag shall wave over them in protection of its freedom and in promotion of its spirit." Here, as usual, Raffles showed how completely he understood the problems underlying the existence of British authority in the Straits. But his and his brother-official's views were disregarded by the timid oligarchy which had the last voice in the direction of British policy in Malaya at this period. Kedah, as we have seen, was given over to its fate. A little timely exertion of authority would have saved that interesting State and its people from the horrors of the Siamese invasion, and have paved the way for the great work which was commenced a half-century later. But the Government in Calcutta shrank
from the small risk involved in the support of
the Raja, and a ruthless despotism was estab-
lished in the area, to the discredit of British
diplomacy and to the extreme detriment of
British trade.

Before entering upon a narration of the
various steps which led up to the establish-
ment of British influence in the greater part
of the Malay peninsula we may profitably
make a retrospective survey of this important
area in its ethnological and historical aspects.
For this purpose it will be appropriate to
introduce here some valuable chapters kindly
contributed by Mr. R. Wilkinson, of the
Federated Malay States Civil Service, who has
given much study to the early history of
Malaya.

CHAPTER II.
WILD ABORIGINAL TRIBES.

It is a matter of common knowledge that the
Malays were not the first inhabitants of the
peninsula. Although they intermarried with
the aborigines, and although they show many
traces of mixed blood, they failed to completely
absorb the races that they supplanted. The
new settlers kept to the rivers; the older races
lived on the mountains or among the swamps.
Some of the old tribes died out, some adopted
the ways of the Malays, but others retained
their own language and their primitive culture
and are still to be found in many parts of
British Malaya.

The negro aborigines collectively known as
Semang are usually believed to have been the
first race to occupy the peninsula. As they are
closely akin to the Aetas of the Philippines and
the Minjupies of the Andamans, they must at
one time have covered large tracts of country
from which they have since completely dis-
appeared, but at the present day they are mere
survivals, and play no part whatever in civilised
life. Slowly but surely they are dying out.
Even within the last century they occupied the
swampy coast districts from Trang in the North
to the borders of Larut in the South, but at the
census of 1891 only one negro, who, as the
enumerator said, "twittered like a bird," was
recorded from Province Wellesley, and in 1901
not one single survivor was found. Although
present-day students—who naturally prefer the
evidence of their own eyes to the records of
past observers—are inclined to regard the
Semang as a mountain people, it is quite
possible that their more natural habitat was
the swamp country from which they have been
expelled. Whether this be so or not, the
negroes of British Malaya are usually divided
up by the Malays into three; the Semang Puya
or Swamp-Semang (now almost extinct); the
Semang Bukit or Mountain Semangs, who in-
habit the mountains of Upper Perak; and the
Pangans, who are occasionally found in some of
the hills between Pahang and Kelantan.

The culture of some of these negro tribes is
very primitive. The wilder Semangs are
extremely nomadic; they are not acquainted
with any form of agriculture; they use bows
and arrows; they live in mere leaf-shelters,
with floors that are not raised above the
ground; their quivers and other bamboo
utensils are very roughly made and adorned.
Such statements would not, however, be true
of the whole Semang race. A few tribes have
learned to plant; others to use the blowpipe;
others have very beautifully made quivers.
Some go so far—if Mr. Skeal is to be relied
upon—as to include the theft of a blunderbuss
in their little catalogues of crime. Unless, how-
ever, we are prepared to believe that they
invented such things as blunderbusses, we have

If identity of language is any criterion of
common origin, the Northern Sakai racial
division includes the tribes known as the
"Sakai of Korbu," the "Sakai of the Plus," the
"Sakai of Tanjong Rambutan," and the
"Temble," who inhabit the Pahang side of the
great Kinta mountains. As these Northern
Sakai are rather darker than the Sakai of
Batang Padang, and not quite as dark as the
Semang, they have sometimes been classed as

![A PAGE OF THE "MALAY ANNALS," THE GREAT HISTORICAL RECORD OF THE MALAY RACE.](image)
raised above the ground—the commonest type of house throughout Indo-China.

The expression "Central Sakai" has been used to cover a group of tribes who live in the Batang Padang mountains and speak what is practically a common language—though there are a few dialectic differences in the different parts of this district. Mr. Hugh Clifford was the first to point out the curiously abrupt racial frontier between the "Tembe" to the north and the "Senoi" (his name for the Central Sakai) to the south. But all the secrets of this racial frontier have not yet been revealed. Although the Sakai who live in the valleys above Gopeng speak a language that very closely resembles the language of the Sakai of Bidor, Sungkai and Slim, they seem still closer akin—racially—to their neighbours in the north. Moreover, if we look up from

Gopeng to the far mountains lying just to the north of Gunong Berembun, we can see clearings made by another tribe—the Mai Luk or "men of the mountains," of whom the Central Sakai stand in deadly fear. These mysterious Mai Luk have communal houses like the Borneo Dyaks, they plant vegetables, they paint their foreheads, they are credited with great ferocity, and they speak a language of which the only thing known is that it is not Central Sakai.

As we proceed further south the racial type slowly changes until—in the mountains behind Tapah, Bidor, Sungkai and Slim—we come to a distinct and unmistakable type that is comparatively well known to European students. These Mai Darat, or hill men, are slightly lower in culture than the Northern Sakai; they live in shelters rather than huts; their quivers and blowpipes are very much more simply made than those of their northern and southern neighbours. Linguistically we are still in the "Central Sakai" region.

Near Tanjong Malim (the boundary between Perak and Selangor) the type suddenly changes. We come upon fresh tribes differing in appearance from the Central Sakai, living (in some cases) in lofty tree-huts, and speaking varieties of the great "Besi" group of Sakai dialects. The men who speak these Besi dialects seem to be a very mixed race. Some—dwelling in the Selangor mountains—are a singularly well built race. Others who live in the swamps and in the coast districts are a more miserable people of lighter build, and with a certain suggestion of negrito admixture. Their culture is comparatively high. They have a more elaborate social system, with triple headmen instead of a solitary village elder to rule the peninsula, but it is at least probable that they represent a distinct and very interesting racial element. In the flat country on the border between Negri Sembilan and Padang we meet the Seting Sakai, an important and rather large tribe that seems at one time to have been in contact with some early Mon-Anam civilisation. Moreover, it is said that there are traces of ancient canal-cuttings in the country that this tribe occupies. By the upper waters of the Kapuas river there live many Sakai of whom very little is known. They may be "Besi," "Seting Sakai," "Jakun," or "Sakai of Kuantan." The term "Jakun" is applied to a large number of Remnants of old Malacca and Johore tribes that have now been so much affected by Malay civilisation as to point to any one distinct as being probably the mystery of their origin. A few brief Jakun vocabularies have been collected in the past, a few customs noted. It is perhaps too much to expect that anything more will ever be done.

The aborigines who inhabit the country near Kuantan (and perhaps near Pekan, and even further south) speak a language of their own, of which no vocabulary has ever been collected, and use curious wooden blowpipes of a very unusual type. They may be a distinct race, as they seem to have a primitive culture that is quite peculiar to themselves. In the mountainous region lying between this Kuantan district and the Tembeling river there is found another tribe of Sakais, who wear strange rattan girdles like the Borneo Dyaks, and speak a language of which one observer, though acquainted with Malay, Central Sakai, and Northern Sakai, could make out nothing. In the mountain mass known as Gunung Benom (in Pahang) there are found other tribes of Sakais speaking a language that has some kinship with Besi and Seting Sakai. Very little else is known about them.

We possess fairly good specimens—vocabularies of the languages of all the better known Sakai and Semang dialects. With the single exception of Kenaboi, they have a very marked common element, and may be classed as divisions of the same language, although the peoples that speak them show such differences of race and culture. This language is complicated and inflected, and it has an elaborate grammar, but so little is known of the details of its structure that we dare not generalise or postulate beyond the probable purity of form of Sakai. It is impossible also to say which race first brought this form of speech to the peninsula. It would, however, be rash to assume that Sakai and Kenaboi are the only two distinctive types of language used by these wild tribes. Nothing sufficient is yet known of the speech of the Mai Luk, of the Kuantan, and of the Jakun languages. Far too much has been inferred from the customs of what one may term the "stock" tribes of Sakai—the tribes that are readily accessible and therefore easy to study. Such peoples have been visited again and again by casual observers, to the neglect of the remoter and lesser-known tribes, who may prove to be far more interesting in the end. When we consider the physical differences between tribe and tribe, the differences of language, the differences of culture evinced in types of

**TYPES OF SAKAI QUIVERS.**

dwellings, in tribal organisation, in weapons, and in mode of life, we may perhaps be excused for thinking that the racial elements in the peninsula have been more numerous and important than scientists are apt to believe.

Meanwhile the peninsula presents us with a curious historical museum, showing every grade of primitive culture. It gives us the humble negro who has not learned to till the ground, but wanders over the country and lives from hand to mouth. The products of his labours are as meagre as his means of disposal. It gives us the same negro after he has learnt the rudiments of agriculture and art from his Sakai neighbours. It gives us the Sakai who grows certain simple fruits and vegetables, and is nomadic in a far slimmer degree than the primitive Somali. A man who plants is a man who lives some time in one place, and therefore may find it worth his while to build a more substantial dwelling than a mere shelter for a night. Here, however, primitive culture stops. Even the man who has learnt to plant a crop in a clearing must abandon his home when the crop be exhausted. The boundary between primitive culture and civilisation cannot be said to be reached until habitations become really permanent, and until a comparatively small area can support a large population. That boundary is therefore crossed when a people learn to renew the fertility of land by irrigation or by manuring, or by a proper system of rotation of crops. The Malays, with their system of rice-planting—the irrigated rice, not hill rice—have crossed that boundary. But no Sakai tribe has yet done so.

Mr. Cameron, in his work on Malaya, gives an interesting description of the aborigines. A few passages relative to the tribal beliefs may be cited.

"The accounts of their origin," he says, "are amusing. ... Among one tribe it is stated, and with all gravity, that they are descended from two white apes, Onkehe Puch, who, having reared their young ones, sent them into the plains, where the greater number perfected so well that they became men; those who did not become men returned once more to the mountains, and still continue apes. Another account, less favourable to the theory of progressive creation, is that God, having in heaven called into life a being endowed with great strength and beauty, named him Batin. God, desirous that a form so fair should be perpetuated, gave to Batin a companion, and told him to seek a dwelling upon earth. Charming with its beauties, Batin and his companion alighted and took up their abode on the banks of the river of Johore, close to Singapore, increasing and multiplying with a rapidity and to a degree now unknown, and from these two, they say, all the tribes of the peninsula are descended."

Another tribe, the Binna, give an account of their origin which strongly recalls the Noahian story of Scripture. "The ground, they say, on which we stand is not solid. It is merely the skin of the earth (Kult Bumi). In ancient days, under God's blessing, this skin, so that the world was destroyed and the whole inhabited part of earth's skin. The earth still depends entirely on these mountains for steadiness. The Lulumut mountains are the oldest land. The summit of Gunong Tenkai Bangsi is within one foot of the sky, that of Gunong Tenkai Subang is within one and a half feet, and that of Gunong Kap is in contact with it. After Lulumut had emerged a prahu of pulai wood, covered over and without any opening, floated on the waters. In this God had enclosed a man and a woman whom He had made. After the lapse of time the prahu was neither directed nor against the current, nor driven to and fro. The man and woman, feeling it to rest motionless, nibbled their way through it, stood on the dry ground, and beheld this our world. At first, however, everything was obscure. There was neither morning nor evening because the sun had not yet been made. When it became light they saw seven Sindudo trees and seven plants of Ramput Sambu. They then said to each other, 'In what a condition are we, without children or grandchildren? Some time afterwards the woman became pregnant, not, however, in her wombs, but in the calves of her legs. From the right leg was brought forth a male and from the left a female child. Hence it is that the issue of the same womb cannot intermarry. All mankind are the descendants of the two children of the first pair. When men had much increased God looked down upon them with pleasure and reckoned their numbers." The Mantra tribe behind Mount Ophir have a somewhat similar legend. "They say that their fathers came originally from heaven in a large and magnificent ship built by God, which was set floating on the waters of the earth. The ship sailed with fearful rapidity round and about the earth, till it grounded upon one of the mountains of the peninsula, where they declare it is still to be seen. Their fathers disembarked and took up their abode on the new earth, some on the coast, some on the plains, and others on the mountains, but all under one chief called Batin Alam."

Their description of the probable end of the world, as given by Mr. Cameron from notes supplied him by Father Borie, a Roman Catholic missionary to the Jakun near Malaca, may be given as an incident to these curious traditions: "The human race having ceased to live, a great wind will arise accompanied by rain, the waters will descend with rapidity, lightning will fill the space all around, and the mountains will sink down; then a great heat will succeed; there will be no more day or night, and the earth will wither like the grass in the field; God will then come down surrounded by an immense whirlwind of flame, ready to consume the universe. But God will first assemble the souls of the sinners, burn them for the first time and weigh them, after having让他们 to pass successively through a fine piece of linen cloth. Those who will have thus passed the first time through the furnace without having been purified will be successively burned and weighed for seven times, when all those souls which have been purified will go to enjoy the happiness of heaven, and those that cannot be purified— is to say, the souls of great sinners, such as criminals and those guilty of rape—will be cast into hell, where they will suffer the torments of flames in company with devils; there will be tigers and serpents in hell to torment the damned. Lastly, God, having taken a light from hell, will close the portals and then set fire to the earth."

CHAPTER III.

Early Civilisation.

Although the British possessions in Malaya are not absolutely destitute of archaeological remains, they are singularly poor in relics of antiquity when contrasted with Java and Cambodia, or even with the north eastern part of the peninsula itself. Ancient inscriptions have been found in Kedah, in the Northern District of Province Wellesley, in the Central District of Province Wellesley, and, as has been noted, in the island of Singapore. That in Kedah has been completely deciphered: it is a Buddhist formula, such as might have been written up in the cell or cave of an ascetic. That in the north of Province Wellesley was carved on a pillar that seemed to form part of a little temple; it has not been completely deciphered, but from the form of the written character it is believed to date back to the year 46 a.d., and to be the oldest inscription in this part of the world, unless, indeed, the Kedah writing is slightly more ancient. The rock carvings at Cheroh Tokun, near Bukit Mertajam, belong to various dates and are too worn away to be read. In connected sentences; the oldest seems to go back to the fifth century and another to the sixth century a.d. As the monument in Singapore was blown up by the Public Works Department in order to make room for some town improvements, it is no longer available for study, but from a rough copy made before destruction, it seems to have been in the ancient Kasu character of Java or Sumatra. It probably dates back to the thirteenth or fourteenth century a.d. Another inscription, presumably of the same class, is to be seen at Pulau Karimun, near Singapore.

Near Pengkalan Kampus, on the Lintug river, there are a number of broken monuments which, though they seem to be of comparatively recent date, are of considerable interest. On a curious four-sided pillar there are four inscriptions, two in clear-cut Arabic and two in the fainter lettering of an unknown script. Below these inscriptions there is a circular hole cut right through the pillar and just large enough to permit of the passage of a man's arm—it is, indeed, believed that this pillar (which has been much used for oaths and ordeals) will tighten round the arm of any man who is rash enough to swear falsely when in its power. Near this pillar is another cut stone on which the lettering of some old non-Arabic inscription can be dimly seen. As there are many other fragments of carved stone that go to
make up the *kramai*, or holy place, of which the inscriptions form part, the Malays have invented a legend that these monuments represent the petrified property of an ancient saint—his spoon, his sword, and his buckle. Mahomedan zeal seems also to have carved the holy name of Allah on the sword of the saint, and to have converted the first line of the inscriptions into the well-known formula, "In the name of God, the Merciful, the Compassionate." Fragments of other monuments may be seen lying low in the swamp near which this Linggi *kramai* is built up.

Besides these inscriptions, traces of ancient non-Malayan civilisations have been found (1) in mining some broken pottery and three cornelian beads, and (2) in pottery and iron mining tools that are continually being met with in old mining workings. More impressive, however, than any of these small relics are the galleries, stopes, and shafts of the old mines at Selinsing, in Pahang—the work of a race that must have possessed no small degree of mechanical skill.

Who were the men who left these remains? If it is true as the condition of the Selinsing workings seems to suggest that the mines were suddenly abandoned in the prime of the work that was being done, such a fact would lend further support to the natural conjecture that the miners were only foreign adventurers who exploited the wealth of the peninsula and did not make the country their permanent home. The Malays say that these alien miners were "men of Siam." Is this true? Students are apt to forget that "men of Siam"—seven or eight centuries ago—would refer to the great and highly-civilised Cambodian race who occupied the valley of the Menam before the coming of the "Thai," from whom the present Siamese are descended. It is therefore probable enough that the Malays are right, and that the mining shafts of Selinsing are due to the people who built the magnificent temples of Angkor. Further evidence—if such evidence is needed—may be found in the fact that the Sakai of certain parts of Pahang use numerals that are neither Siamese nor Malay nor true Sakai, but non-Khmer.

The general conclusion that one is forced to draw from the traces of ancient culture in the peninsula is that the southern portions of the country were often visited, but never actually occupied by any civilised race until the Malays came in A.D. 1400. Such a conclusion would not, however, be true of the Northern States—of Kedah, Kelantan, Trang, and Kanggara. There we find undoubted evidence of the existence of powerful Buddhist States like that of Langkasuka, the kingdom of alang-kah saka or of the Golden Age of Kedah, still remembered as a fairyland of Malay romance. This Langkasuka was a very ancient State indeed. It is mentioned in Chinese records as Langgan as far back as 500 A.D., and was then reputed to be four centuries old; it appears (in Javanese literature) as one of the kingdoms overcome by Majapahit in A.D. 1377; its name probably survives to this day in the "Laungkawi" islands off the Kedah coast. But the ancient States of Northern Malaya lie outside the scope of this essay. They are interesting because they probably sent small mining colonies to the south, and thus claimed some sort of dominion over the rest of the peninsula. The great Siamese invasion changed all that. By crushing the Northern States during the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries A.D., it ruined their little southern colonies, and left the territories of Perak, Johore, Malacca, and Pahang a mere no-man's-land that the Malays from Sumatra could easily occupy.

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**CHAPTER IV.**

The Coming of the Malays.

According to a tradition that is accepted in almost every portion of Malaya, the founder of the most famous native dynasties was a Prince named Sang Surubga, son of Raja Suran, the "Kuler of the East and of the West," by his marriage with a mermaid, the daughter of the kings of the sea. This Prince first revealed himself upon the hill of Sigun-
have crossed the great central range of Sumatra into the mountains of Menangkabau, where he slew the dragon Si-Khan and was made the king of a grateful people and the founder of the line of Princes of Menangkabau, the noblest dynasty of Malay. Meanwhile, however, his relatives in Palembang had crossed the sea, first to the island of Bintang and afterwards from Bintang to the island of Tamanak, on which they founded the city of Singapore. "And the city of Singapore became mighty; and its fame filled all the earth."

Such, at least, is the story that is told us in the "Malay Annals.”

It is very easy to criticise this story— to point out that the tale of the Macedonian origin of Malay kings is too absurd for acceptance, and that the miraculous incidents do not commend themselves to the sceptical historians of the present day. It is also possible to show that there are actually two entirely different versions of the story in the manuscripts of the "Malay Annals,” and that both these versions differ from a third version given by the annalist himself to his contemporary, the author of the Malay book known as the “Bustan’s salatin.” No one need treat this legend of Sang Sapurba as actual history. But the ancient kingdoms of Singapore and Palembang are no myth; the latter, at least, must have played a great part in history. Nor is the legend in any way an invention of the author of the “Malay Annals”; it occurs in still earlier books, and is folklore throughout Perak at the present day. The Sultan of Perak claims direct descent from Sang Sapurba; one of his chief’s, the Dato’ Sri Nara Diraja, is the lineal representative of the herald who came out of the mouth of the bull. As late as February, 1907, the Raja Bendahara was installed (in the High Commissioner’s presence) by the Dato’ Sri Nara Diraja reciting over him the mystic words—in a forgotten tongue—that the latter chief’s ancestor is said to have used at the proclamation of Sang Sapurba himself. The origin of these ancient legends and old-world ceremonies is lost in the dimness of past centuries, but it may, to some extent, be explained by the light that Chinese records throw upon Malay history.

We know with absolute certainty from the accounts of Chinese trade with Sumatra that the kingdom of Palembang was a powerful State certainly as far back as the year 900 A.D., perhaps even as far back as the year 700 A.D. We even possess the names (often mutilated beyond recognition by Chinese transcribers) of a large number of the old Kings of Palembang. We can see that these ancient rulers bore high-sounding Sanskrit titles, almost invariably beginning with the royal honorific sri that is still used by great Malay dignitaries. But while the Malay annalist allows a single generation to cover the whole period from the founding of the State of Palembang by Sang Sapurba down to the establishment of the city of Singapore, we are in a position to see that the period in question must have covered many centuries, and that even a millennium may have elapsed between the days of the founder of Palembang and those of the coloniser of Tamanak or Singapore. Although Sang Sapurba may be nothing more than a name, the ancient legend is historical in so far that there must have been a time when an Indian or Javanese dynasty with a very high conception of kingly power supplanted the unambitious Palembang headmen, who bore homely titles like Demang Lebar Daun, and claimed no social superiority over their fellow-villagers. The story given us in the "Malay Annals" is only an idealised version of what must have really occurred. The most mysterious feature in the legend is the reference to Mount Siguntang. Although this famous hill (which is believed by all Malays to be the cradle of their race) is located with curious definiteness on the slopes of the great volcano, Mount Dempo, in the hinterland of Palembang, there is no local tradition to guide us to the exact spot or to suggest to us why that locality, above all others, should be singled out for special honour. The culture of the Malay States that accepted the Hinduised Palembang tradition differs completely from that of the primitive Sumatran communities who have not been affected by foreign influence. Such
unearth some real records, they might explain why the proud rulers of the country thought it an honour to claim descent from some still more ancient dynasty associated with the name of a hill district from which all traces of imperial power have long since passed away.

In the reign of the Chinese Emperor Hsi-lau Wu (A.D. 454-464), a kingdom of "Kandali" sent articles of gold and silver to China. In A.D. 502 a king of this same Kandali sent an envoy to China with other valuable gifts. In A.D. 510, and again in A.D. 520, similar missions were sent. After this date "Kandali" disappears from history. Although Chinese records positively identify this country with San-bo-tsai or Palembang, all that contemporary Chinese notices tell us about Kandali is that it was a Buddhist kingdom on an island in the Southern Sea, that its customs were those of Cambodia and Siam, that it produced flowered cloth, cotton, and excellent areca-nuts, and that its kings sent letters to the Chinese Emperor congratulating him on his fervent faith in Buddhism. Still, as one of these kings is reported to have compared the Chinese Emperor to a mountain covered with snow, we may take it that the accuracy of even this meagre account of Kandali is not above suspicion. We can perhaps see traces of Javanese influence in the reference to "flowered cloth," as the words suggest the painted floral designs of Java rather than the woven plaid-patterns of the Malays.

In A.D. 903 Palembang reappears in Chinese records under the name of San-bo-tsai. In that year the ruler of San-bo-tsai "sent tribute" to China and received from the Emperor the proud title of "the General who pacifies Distant Countries." In A.D. 906 "tribute" was again sent—twice. In A.D. 962 the same thing occurred. From A.D. 906 onwards we have a continuous record of similar tribute-bearing missions until the year 1178, when the Chinese Emperor found that this tribute was too expensive a luxury to be kept up, so he "issued an edict that they should not come to court any more, but make an establishment in the Fukien province." After this date the Palembang merchants ceased to be tribute-bearers and became ordinary traders—a change which caused them to temporarily disappear from official records. "Tribute" was, of course, merely a gift made to the Emperor in order to secure his permission to trade; it flattered his pride, and was invariably returned to the giver in the form of titles and presents of very high value. So much was this the case that Chinese statesmen, when economically inclined, were in the habit of protesting against the extravagance of accepting tribute. None the less the Emperor encouraged these men of Palembang, for in A.D. 1156 he declared that "when distant people feel themselves attracted by our civilising influence their discernment must be praised." One Malay envoy received the title of "the General who is attracted by Virtue," a second was called "the General who cherishes Civilising Influence," a third was named "the General who supports Obedience and cherishes Renovation." The manners of the men of San-bo-tsai must have been as ingratiating as those of their successors, the Malays of the present day.

The Kings of San-bo-tsai are said to have used the Sanskrit character in their writings and to have sealed documents with their signets instead of signing them with their names. One king is mentioned (A.D. 1017) as having sent among his presents "Sanskrit books folded between boards." Their capital was a fortified city with a wall of piled bricks several miles in circumference, but the people are said to have lived in scattered villages outside the town and to have been exempt from direct taxation. In case of war the people select a chief to lead them, every man providing his own arms and provisions." From these Chinese records we also learn that in A.D. 1093 the Emperor sent a gift of bells to a Buddhist temple in San-bo-tsai. As regards trade, the country is recorded as producing rattans, lignum-aloe, areca-nuts, coconuts, rice, poultry, ivory, rhinoceros horns, camphor, and cotton-cloth. In the matter of luxuries we are told that the people made intoxicating drinks out of coconut, areca-nut, and honey, that they used musical instruments (a small guitar and small drums), and that they possessed imported slaves who made music for them by stamping on the ground and singing. In A.D. 1178 Kublai Khan the undisputed overlord of the whole country. That restless conqueror was not, however, satisfied with his continental dominions; he fitted out great fleets to extend his power over the Japanese islands in the north and over the island of Java in the south. He began a period of war, during which we hear nothing of the trade with the States in the Southern Seas.

The advent of the Ming dynasty (A.D. 1368) commenced a new era of peace and commerce, in which we again find mention of the State of Palembang. Great changes had, however, taken place since the last reference to the country in A.D. 1178. San-bo-tsai had been split up into three States. We hear also (A.D. 1374) of a King Tan ma-sa-na-ho—probably the King of Tamsak or Singapore. We hear also (A.D. 1374) of a King Ma-na-la-pau-lin-pang—probably the King of Palembang. The King Tan-ma-sa-na-ho died in A.D. 1376, and his successor, Ma-la-chi Wu-lic, ordered the usual envoys to go to China, and was sent in return a seal and commission as King of San-bo-tsai. The Chinese annalists go on to say:

"At that time, however, San-bo-tsai had already been conquered by Java, and the King of this country, seeing that the Emperor had appointed a king over San-bo-tsai, became very angry and sent men who waylaid and killed the Imperial envoys. The Emperor did not think it right to punish him on this account. After this occurrence San-bo-tsai became gradually poorer, and no tribute was brought from this country any more."

Chinese, Malay, and Javanese historical records all agree in referring to a great war
of conquest carried on by the Javanese Empire of Majapahit and ending in the destruction of Singapore and Palembang, as well as in the temporary subjugation of many other Malay States, such as Pasai, Samudra, and even Kedah, Kelantan, Trengganu, and Pahang. The Chinese records enable us to definitely fix the date—A.D. 1377. It is a great landmark in Malay history, for the fugitives driven by the Javanese from Palembang and Singapore settled down in the peninsula and founded the famous city of Malacca.

We now come to the founding of Singapore, which, although dealt with in our opening section, may be referred to at greater length in this survey of Malay history. The name of Singapura was only an honorific title given to an island that was known and continued to be known as Tamasak. Of the existence of this old Malay State of Singapore or Tamasak there can be no doubt whatever, as Chinese, Sinhalese, Malay, and Javanese records agree upon the point. Of the fact that Singapore was a colony from Palembang there can also be no doubt, since both the Chinese and the Malay records bear out this version of the origin of the city. An inscription in the Kawi character was found by Raffles at Singapore, but it was blown up at a later date by a discreditable act of vandalism, and from the fragments left it is impossible to say definitely whether it was carved by the Palembang colonists or by the Javanese conquerors who destroyed the city in A.D. 1377. The "Malay Annals" tell us a gory deal about the place, but tell us nothing that is really reliable. They say that Sang Nila Utama, the founder of the State, was driven to the island by a storm of wind, in the course of which he lost his royal crown—a story suggesting that the founder was not a reigning prince when he came to settle in the island, and that his followers had to invent a story to explain away his lack of the usual insignia of royalty. He was, however, probably of royal blood, since the Chinese envoys were afterwards willing to recognise his descendants as rulers of Palembang. The "Annals" also tell us that five kings reigned in Singapore, as shown in the following table:

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<th>Name</th>
<th>Title</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sang Sapurba</td>
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<td>Kisna Pandita</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sang Maniaka</td>
<td>(King of Menangkabau)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sang Nila Utama</td>
<td>(First King of Singapore)</td>
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This second pedigree gives much shorter life to the old State of Singapore, and (since it came from the same source as the other pedigree) shows that neither account can be considered altogether reliable. It also suggests its own inaccuracy, since "Iskandar Shah" is not a name that any non-Mahomedan prince of Singapore would have borne at that period. The probability is that the ancient kingdom of Tamasak was a mere off-shoot of the State of Palembang, that it did not last for any length of time, and that it came to a sudden and terrible end in the year of the great Javanese invasion, A.D. 1377.

The account of Singapore in the "Malay Annals" is entirely mythical—from the opening tale about the lion that Sang Nila Utama discovered on the island down to the concluding stories about the attack made by the sword-fish upon the city, and about the fate of Sang Ranjuna Tapa, the traitor who betrayed the city to the Javanese and was turned into stone as a punishment for his sin. Yet in all this mythical account there is a suggestion of infinite tragedy. The story of the sword-fish ends with the ominous words that the blood of the boy who saved the city from the sword-fish, and was put to death lest his cleverness should prove a public danger, rested upon the island as a curse to be wiped out in days to come. The story of Tun Jana Khatib is the tale of another awful deed of wrong. The last tale in the narrative is that of the injury which maddened Sang Ranjuna Tapa into treason—the cruel fate of his daughter, who was publicly impaled on a mere suspicion of infidelity to her lover, the King. More than once does the annalist seem to suggest the Nemesis that waits upon deeds of oppression. In the end the Javanese came; the city was betrayed; "blood flowed like water in full inundation, and the plain of Singapore is red as with blood to this day." A curse rested on the place. In A.D. 1809, more than four centuries later, Colonel Farquhar found that not one of the people of the settlement dared ascend Fort Canning Hill, the "forbidden hill" that was haunted by the ghosts of long-forgotten kings and queens. The alien Chinese who now inhabit the town believe to this day that—for some reason unknown to them—a curse lay on the island in times long past makes it impossible to grow rice on it, rice being the staple food of the Malays. All these legends seem to suggest that the fate of the ancient city must have been one of appalling horror. Many Malay towns have at different times been captured, many were doubtless captured by the Javanese in that very war of A.D. 1377, but in no other case has the fall of a city left such awful memories as to cause men four centuries later to refuse to face the ugly spectres that were believed to haunt so cruelly stricken a site.

The fall of Singapore led to the rise of Malacca. A number of fugitives, headed (if the "Annals" are to be believed) by their king himself, established themselves at the mouth of the Malacca river, and founded a city that was destined to play a much greater part in history than the old unhappy settlement of Singapore itself. The "Annals," however, are not a safe guide. Although it is indeed probable that a party of refugees did do something to found the town of Malacca, it is extremely doubtful whether they were headed by the fugitive "Iskandar Shah." Be the facts as they may, the new town did not delay its rise very long. In A.D. 1493, as Chinese records tell us, the ruler or "Parameswara" of Malacca

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<td>(Fourth King of Singapore)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Raja Iskandar Dazk Karmain</td>
<td>(Fifth and last King of Singapore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raja Iskandar Dazk Karmain</td>
<td>(First Sultan of Malacca)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
sent envoys to China; in A.D. 1405 he was recognised as King and received a seal, a suit of silk clothes, and a yellow umbrella from the Emperor; in A.D. 1411 he travelled himself to Malacca, in many cases quite by China. But Malacca was obtained a.d. O. quite unreliable. The Malay version allows too many generations between him and Mudzafar, who seems to have been reigning in A.D. 1445. It is quite impossible to reconcile the lists; but some facts may be inferred from what we know for certain. A Chinese work, the "Ying Yai Sheng Lan," dated A.D. 1416, speaks of the Malacca Malays as devoted Mahomedans, so

suggest. From the same source it may be shown that the various kings of Malacca reigned between the year 1400 and the year 1541. But we are not in a position to prove conclusively who all these kings were. The royal names, as given to us by different authorities, are here shown in parallel columns:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese Records</th>
<th>Albuquerque's List</th>
<th>Malay Annals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Palisura (1403-14)</td>
<td>Paramisura</td>
<td>Iskandar Shah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mukandasurlorsha (1414-24)</td>
<td>Xaquendarsa</td>
<td>Raja Besar Muda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Mahala (1424)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Raja Tengah</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sri Mahala (1433)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Muhammad Shah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Pamiwartiupasha (1445)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Abu Shahid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sultan Wutasunasha (1458)</td>
<td>Modaifa</td>
<td>Mudzafar Shah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sultan Wonsussa (1459)</td>
<td>Marsusa</td>
<td>Mansur Shah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahamusa (undated)</td>
<td>Alaodin</td>
<td>Ahadln Klayat Shah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sultan Mamat (&quot;who fled from the Franks&quot;)</td>
<td>Mahamat</td>
<td>Mahmud Shah</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The great names of Malacca history are common to all three lists, but the minor names differ considerably. Those in the "Malay Annals" would naturally have been considered the most reliable, were it not that Mahomedan names like Iskandar Shah occurring before the Mahomedan period suggest the certainty of serious error. If also we take Iskandar Shah that it would seem that the conversion to Islam took place as early as the reign of the Paramisura, and not in the time of his grandson or great-grandson, Muhammad Shah. But the explanation that seems to clear up the difficulties most readily is the probability that the author of the pedigree in the "Malay Annals" confused the two Princes who bore the name

RUINS OF THE PANGKOK BLOCKHOUSE.
They were good fishermen, that they used dug-outs, that they possessed a currency of block tin, that they lived in very simple huts raised some four feet above the ground, that they traded in resins, tin, and jungle produce, that they made very good mats, and that "their language, their books, and their marriage ceremonies are nearly the same as those of Java." The town of Malacca was surrounded by a wall with four gates, and within this fortified area there was a second wall or stockade surrounding a store for money and provisions.

This description bears out Albuquerque's statement that the town was created by the fusion of fugitives from Singapore with a local population of "Cellites" or Orang Laut. The men from Singapore brought their old Indo-Javanese civilisation, the language, the books, and the marriage ceremonies that were so closely akin to those of Java; the Orang Laut were simply fishermen, living by the sea and using the rude dug-outs that impressed the Chinese historian. But there was a third element. The Chinese account tells us that the tin industry, both in trade and actual mining, was important. As this industry would be quite unknown to the Orang Laut and could hardly have been introduced from Singapore, we are left to infer that traders in tin had visited the country long before the advent of the Malays, and had taught the aborigines the value of the metal and the proper means of procuring it. These early traders were, in all probability, the Cambodian colonists whose homes in the north had just been conquered by the Siamese, but who—up to the fourteenth century—appear to have exercised some sort of dominion over the southern half of the peninsula.

According to both Chinese and Portuguese records the first ruler of Malacca was a certain "Palisura" or "Paramisura"; but, unfortunately, this word only means king, and consequently gives us no clue either to the Hindu or to the Mahomedan name of the prince in question. It would seem waste of time to discuss points relating to mere names were it not that these issues help us to unravel the complex chronology of the period. Every king—at this time of conversion—must have had a Hindu title before taking an Arabic name, so that serious errors may have been imported into genealogies by kings being counted twice over. Omitting the mythical elements, let us collate the first names of the four lists that we possess:

**Malay Annals.**

1. Raja Kechil Bésar, Paduka Sri Pékérma Wiraja.
2. Raja Muda, Sri Rana Wikrama.
3. Paduka Sri Maharaja.

**Bustaan's salatin.**

1. Raja Kechil Bésar, Paduka Sri Pékérma Diraja.
2. Sri Rana Adikerna, Sultan Iskandar Shah.
3. Raja Bésar Muda, Sultan Ahmad Shah.
of Muhammad Shah, and as the Paramisura of Albuquerque was undoubtedly the first Mahomedan sovereign, we are justified in believing that the King Paduka Sri Pekêma Diraja took the name Sultan Muhammad Shah on his conversion. He ascended the throne before A.D. 1403, but was first recognised by the Chinese Emperor in A.D. 1405. He visited China in A.D. 1411. The following is the account given of this visit in the records of the Ming dynasty:

"In 1411 the King came with his wife, son, and ministers—540 persons in all. On his arrival the Emperor sent officers to receive him. He was lodged in the building of the Board of Rites, and was received in audience by the Emperor, who entertainted him in person, whilst his wife and the others were entertained in another place. Every day bullocks, goats, and wine were sent him from the imperial battery. The Emperor gave the King two suits of clothes embroidered with golden dragons and one suit with unicorns; furthermore, gold and silver articles, curtains, coverlets, mattresses—everything complete. His wife and his suite also got presents.

"When they were going away the King was presented with a girdle adorned with precious stones, saddled horses, 100 ounces of gold, 40,000 dollars (kuan) in paper money, 2,600 strings of cash, 700 pieces of silk gauze, 1,000 pieces of plain silk, and two pieces of silk with golden flowers."

It is not surprising that kings were willing to "pay tribute" to China.

The policy of Muhammad Shah seems to have been to ally himself with the Mahomedan States and with the Chinese, and to resist the Siamese, who were at that time laying claim to the southern part of the peninsula. As the Siamese had conquered the Cambodian principalities that had sent mining colonies to the Southern States, the King of Siam had a certain claim to consider himself the suzerain of Malacca. But the claim was a very shadowy one. The fall of the Cambodian kingdoms in the north seems to have killed the Cambodian colonies in the south. The Siamese themselves had never exercised any authority over Malacca. The very title assumed by the Siamese King—"Ruler of Singapore, Malacca, and Malaya"—shows how very little he knew about the countries that he claimed to own. Nevertheless Siam was a powerful State, and its fleets and armies were a constant menace to the prosperity of the growing settlement of Malacca.

The Paramisura Muhammad Shah died about A.D. 1414. He was succeeded by his son, Sri Rakna Adikêrma, who took the title of Sultan Iskandar Shah—the Xaquendarsa of the Portuguese and the Mûkan sutirsha of the Chinese records. This prince, who reigned ten years, paid two visits to China during his reign, one visit in A.D. 1414, and the other in A.D. 1419. He pursued his father’s defensive policy of alliances against the Siamese.

Sultan Iskandar Shah died in A.D. 1424. He was succeeded by his son, Raja Bicar Muda, who bore the Hindu title of Paduka Sri Maharaja, and assumed the Mahomedan name of Sultan Ahmad Shah. This ruler is not mentioned by the Portuguese, but he appears in Chinese records as Sri Mahala. He seems to appear twice—perhaps three times—in the "Malay Annals": first as Paduka Sri Maharaja, son of Sri Rakna Adikêrma (Iskandar Shah’s
Hindu title), and secondly as Raja Bésar Muda, son of Iskandar Shah. He is also confused with Muhammad Shah, whose place he ought to be given in the pedigree. It is therefore difficult to say or firmly place of Malacca ought to be credited with the numerous rules and regulations drawn up for the guidance of Malay courtiers, and given at great length in the "Malay Annals" as the work of "Muhammad Shah." In any case, from this line of evidence, the rule of the princes was confined to men of royal birth, the most rigid etiquette was enforced at all court ceremonies, the relative precedence of officers was fixed, and other rules were made regarding the proper attire and privileges of courtiers. The author of the "Malay Annals" discusses all these points at great length, but European students are not likely to take much interest in them. Happy is the country that has no more serious troubles than disputes about etiquette! The first three Sultans of Malacca must have governed well to bring about such a result as this.

Sultan Ahmad Shah (Paduka Sri Maharaja) died about the year 1444. His death was followed by a sort of interregnum, during which the reins of power were nominally held by his son, Raja Ibrahim, or Raja Itam, afterwards known as Abu Shahid, because of his unhappy death. This interregnum ended in a sudden revolution, in which Raja Ibrahim lost his life, and Raja Kasim, his brother, came to the throne under the name of Sultan Mudzafar Shah, the Modafaixa of the Portuguese and the Sultans Wu-ti-ana-sha of Chinese records. The new ruler began his reign in the usual manner by sending envoys to China, but he did not go himself to pay his respects to the Emperor. He had to wage war against the Siamese, who seem at last to have made some sort of effort to enforce their claim to suzerainty over the south of the peninsula. Malay records are not very trustworthy, and we need not believe all that they tell us about victories over the Siamese; but we can see from the change in the policy of the State of Malacca that it must have been successful in its campaigns against its northern foe, since the Malays, suddenly becoming aggressive, carried the war into the enemy's country. From this time onwards the town of Malacca becomes a capital instead of an entire State.

Mudzafar Shah died about the year 1450 A.D. According to Portuguese authorities he conquered Pahang, Kampar, and Indragiri; but, if the "Malay Annals" are to be believed, the honour of these conquests rests with his son and successor, Mansur Shah. Sultan Mansur Shah, we are told, began his reign by sending an expedition to attack Pahang. After giving a good descriptive account of this country, with its broad and shallow river, its splendid sandy beaches, its alluvial gold workings, and its huge wild cattle, the "Malay Annals" go on to say, that the ruler of Pahang was a certain Maharaja Dewa Sura, a relative of the King of Siam. Chinese records also say that the country was ruled by princes who bore Sanskrit titles, and who must have been either Buddhists or Hindus by religion; but they add that the people were in the habit—otherwise unknown in Malaya—of offering up human sacrifices to their idols of fragrant wood. Their language also does not seem to have been Malayian. Pahang was conquered after very little resistance, and its prince, Maharaja Dewa Sura, was brought captive to Malacca. Of the expeditions against Kampar and Indragiri we know nothing except that they were successful.

Sultan Mansur Shah married five wives. By a daughter of the conquered Maharaja Dewa Sura he had two sons, one of whom he designated as heir to the throne; but a murder committed by the prince in a moment of passion led to his being banished from the court, and to his being sent to rule over Pahang alone, under the title of Sultan Muhammad Shah. By a Javanese wife the Sultan had one son, Radin Geglang, who succeeded his stepbrother as heir to the throne, and was afterwards killed while trying to stop a man who ran amuck. By a daughter of his chief minister, the Bendahara, the Sultan left a son, Raja Husain, who ultimately succeeded him. By a Chinese wife the Sultan left descendants who established themselves as independent princes at Jeram, in Selangor. By his fifth wife, the daughter of a chief (Sri Nara Diraja),
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

severe conflict, in which most of his relatives were slain. But that is not the account given in the "Malay Annals." The proud chief is said to have consented to die rather than lift a finger in opposition to the King: "It is the glory of the Malay that he is ever faithful to his ruler." The Sultan's messenger approached and presented him with a silver platter, on which rested the sword of execution. "God calls you to His presence," said the messenger. "I bow to the Divine will," said the Bendahara. Such was said to have been his end, but there is a curious epilogue to this tale of loyalty. In A.D. 1596 the last Prince of the royal line of Malacca was slain by his Bendahara, the lineal representative of the murdered minister of A.D. 1510, and of his successor and champion the courtly author of the "Malay Annals." It is therefore quite possible that the Bendahara of A.D. 1510 was only conspiring to do what the Bendahara of A.D. 1600 eventually succeeded in doing.

CHAPTER V.

THE PORTUGUESE ASCENDANCY.

The famous expedition of Vasco da Gama, the first European navigator to appear in the Eastern seas, took place in 1498. Within ten years, in 1502, da Gama's ships, having been joined by many other famous adventurers—Francisco de Albuquerque, Alfonso de Albuquerque, Francisco de Almeida, Tristan d'Acunha, Jorge de Mello, and Jorge de Aguilar. In 1508 the whole of the Portuguese "empire" in the East was divided into two viceregalies, one stretching from Mozambique to Diu in India, the other from Diu to Cape Comorin. Francisco de Almeida was appointed Viceroy of Africa, Arabia, and Persia; Alfonso de Albuquerque was Viceroy of India. Two other admirals were sent out in that year to carve out viceroyalties for themselves. Of these two, one—Diego Lopez de Sequeira—was destined for Malaya. He left the Tagus with four ships on April 5, 1508, sailed to Cochin (the headquarters of the Indian Viceroy), borrowed a ship from the Portuguese fleet at that port, and finally, in August, 1509, sailed to Malacca.

As soon as Sequeira cast anchor in the harbour a boat put off from the shore to ask him whom he was, in the name of the Bendahara, who he was and why he came. The Portuguese admiral answered that he was an envoy from the King of Portugal with gifts for the Sultan of Malacca. Messages then seem to have been interchanged for several days, and ultimately a Portuguese of good position, one Teixeira, was sent ashore and conducted to the palace on an elephant. He handed the Sultan an Arabic letter signed by Emmanuel, King of Portugal; he also gave the Malay ruler some presents. This interview was followed by the usual interchange of compliments and friendly assurances; permission to trade was given, and, finally, Teixeira was conducted in honour back to his ship.

But in the town of Malacca all was excitement. The wealthy Indian merchants could hardly have viewed with equanimity the presence of strangers who threatened them with the loss of their trade. The suspicious rulers of the city feared the powerful fleet of Sultans, which the followers wished to cut down the Portuguese at once; the Laksmamna and the Temenggong hesitated. The Sultan invited the strangers to a feast—perhaps with the intention of murdering them; Sequeira, with a rudeness that may have been wise, refused the dangerous invitation. Meanwhile the fleet, which had collected the small flotilla before Cape Rachado so as to be ready for all emergencies. The position was one of great tension. The Portuguese who landed at Malacca do not seem to have been molested, but they could hardly have failed to notice the nervous hostility of the populace. The "Malay Annals"—written over a century ago—contain echoes of this old feeling of fear and dislike of the strangers, the popular wonder at these "white-skinned Bengalis," the astonishment at the blunt bullet that pierced so sharply, the horror at the blunders in etiquette committed by the well-meaning Portuguese. "Let them alone, they know no manners," said the Sultans. The Portuguese, who had lain hands on the sacred person of the King in placing a collar round his neck. At such a time very little provocation would have started a conflict; a misunderstanding probably brought it about. Suspecting the crews of the Malay boats of carrying arms, the Portuguese, who had been suspicious of the stranger's intentions, gave an alarm. A panic at once arose; the Malas on deck sprang overboard; the Portuguese fired their guns. Sequeira avoided any further action in the hope of saving those of his men who were on shore at the time, but the sudden appearance of the Malay force made the Portuguese confine themselves to a sailor away. His expedition had been an utter failure. After plundering a few native ships he sent two of his own fleet to Cochin, and returned to Portugal without making any attempt to redeem his mistakes.

King Emmanuel of Portugal was not the man to submit tamely to a disaster of this sort. Fitting out three more ships under Diego Mendes de Vasconcellos, he sent them—in March, 1510—to organise a fresh attack on Malacca. This fleet was diverted by the Viceroy de Albuquerque to assist him in his
Indian wars; but in May, 1511, the great Viceroy himself set out to attack Malacca, taking 19 ships, 800 European troops, and 600 Malabar sepoys. He first sailed to Pedir, in Sumatra. There he found a Portuguese named Viegas, one of Sequeira's men, who had that was bearing the news of his approach to Malacca. He caught this vessel and slew its captain. Still sailing on, he captured a large Indian trading ship, from which he learnt that the rest of Sequeira's men were still alive and in bondage to the Malays, the leading man that might be expected to overawe the junks in the harbour and the warriors in the town. At the sight of the powerful Portuguese fleet the native vessels in the roadstead attempted to flee, but the Viceroy, who feared that any precipitate action on his part might lead to the murder of his fellow-countrymen in the town, ordered the ships to stay where they were, and assured them that he had no piratical intentions. The captains of three large Chinese junks in the harbour then visited the Portuguese Admiral and offered to assist him in attacking the town; they, too, had grievances against the port authorities. The captain of a Gujerat trading ship also came with a similar tale. Early on the following day there came envoys from the Sultan to say that the Malay ruler had always been friendly to the King of Portugal, and that his wicked Bendahara— who had recently been put to death—was entirely responsible for the attack on Sequeira. Albuquerque made every effort to impress the envoys with a sense of his power, but he replied with the simple answer that no arrangement was possible until the prisoners had been released. The prisoners were, indeed, the key of the situation. The Admiral was sure that any attack on the town would be the signal for them to be massacred; the Sultan vaguely felt that to give them up would be to surrender a powerful weapon of defence. So the days passed; the Malays were arming, the Portuguese were examining the roadstead with a view to devising a good plan of attack, but neither side did any overt act of hostility. At the Malacca Court itself the usual divided counsels prevailed, the war party being led by the Sultan's eldest son and by the Sultan's son-in-law, the Prince of Pahang. After seven days of futile negotiations a man from the town slipped on board the Admiral's ship with a letter from Ruy d'Aranjo, the most important of the prisoners, strongly advising Albuquerque to abandon all idea of rescuing them and to begin the attack without further delay. The Viceroy was not prepared to take advantage of this heroic offer of self-sacrifice on the prisoners' part, but he felt that his present policy could lead to nothing. By way of a demonstration, he burnt some of the Malay shipping in the harbour and bombarded a few of the finer residences on the seaside. The demonstration produced an unexpected result: Ruy d'Aranjo was at once released. He brought with him the news that many of the townsmen were hostile to the Sultan and would be prepared to turn against the Malays should the opportunity present itself. This information probably settled the fate of the city.

More negotiations followed. Albuquerque asked for permission to build a fortified factory in the town of Malacca, so that Portuguese merchants might be able to trade there in peace and safety; he also asked for the return of the booty taken from Sequeira, and for an indemnity of 300,000 cruzados (about £33,500). He found that the Sultan was not indisposed to make concessions, but that the younger chiefs were clamorous for war. Ultimately, arrangements in Malacca courts the Sultan decided to stand aside and to let the opposing parties—the Portuguese and the Princes—

escaped from captivity in Malacca and who reported that there were other Portuguese fugitives at Pasai. The Viceroy sailed to Pasai and picked them up. He was well received by the people of Pasai, but he sailed on at once in order to overtake a native ship among them being one Ruy d’Aranjo, a personal friend of the Viceroy. On July 1, 1511, Albuquerque and his fleet of nineteen ships sailed into the roadstead at Malacca with trumpets sounding, banners waving, guns firing, and with every demonstration
fight it out. He himself stood on the defensive and refused either to make concessions or to lead an attack. As soon as this decision was arrived at, the Prince Alaeedin and the Sultan of Pahang set about the defence of the town, while the Javanese communities seem to have assured the Admirals that the coming conflict was no concern of theirs, and that they were, if anything, well disposed to the Portuguese.

In order to understand the plan of attack, it is necessary to appreciate the difference between the Malacca of 1511 and the Malacca of the present time. It is often supposed that the harbour has silted up and that the conditions cannot be reproduced, but it should be remembered that the Portuguese ships were small vessels of light draught that could lie much closer to the shore than the deep-draughted steamers of to-day. The great change that has come over the harbour is due to the shifting of the river channel after it enters the sea. The old maps of Malacca show that the river on reaching its mouth turned sharply to the right, and had scooped out a comparatively deep channel very close to the northern shore, where the houses—then as now—were thickly clustered. This channel was the old harbour of Malacca; it enabled light-draught ships to lie very close to the land, and it explains how the Portuguese with their guns of little range could succeed in bombarding the houses on the shore. Landing was, however, another matter. The deep mud-banks made it extremely difficult to land under cover of the guns of the fleet; the true landing-place, then as now, lay just inside the river itself. Above the landing-place, then as now, there was a bridge, but the old Malay bridge was a little further up the river than the present structure. This bridge, since it commanded the landing-place and maintained communications between the two sections of the town, was the key of the whole situation. Both sides realised how matters stood. The Malays strongly fortified the bridge, and stationed upon it a force of picked men under an Indian mercenary named Tuan Bandam. The high ground immediately to the south of the river—St. Paul's Hill, as it is now called—was the true Malay citadel. It was covered with the houses of the principal adherents of the Sultan, and was the site of the Sultan's palace itself. It protected the bridge, and was garrisoned by the followers of the war party, the Prince Alaeedin and the Sultan of Pahang. It was held by all that the landing-places and the bridge would be the centre of the coming struggle.

Behind all this show of Malay strength there was, however, very little true power. The Malays themselves were nothing more than a military garrison living on the resources of an alien community. The trading town of Malacca was divided up into quarters under foreign headmen. The Javanese of Gersek held Bandar Hilir to the south of the river; the Javanese and Sundanese from Japara and Tuban held Kampung Upeh to the north of the river. The Indian merchants also possessed a quarter of their own. These alien merchants did not love the Malays. All they wanted was to trade in peace; at the first sign of a struggle they began to remove their goods to places of safety, and had to be forcibly prevented from fleeing inland. The Sultan of Pahang with his fire-eating followers was not a very reliable ally; he had no real interest in the war. The conflict ultimately resolved itself into a trial of strength between the personal retainers of the Sultan and the 1,400 soldiers of Albuquerque, but the advantage of possession was all on the side of the Malays.

The Viceroy's preparations for attack lasted several days. He spent his time in tampering with the loyalty of the Javanese and other foreign communities, and in constructing a floating battery of very light draught to enter the river and bombard the bridge. This battery was not altogether a success. It grounded at the very mouth of the river, and was exposed for nine days and nights to incessant attacks from both banks. Its commander, Antonio d'Almeida, had his teeth shot away at the very first attack, but he stuck doggedly to his post and saved the battery from capture. At last Albuquerque landed a strong force, obtained temporary possession of both banks, and forced the floating battery up to a more commanding position, whence it made short work of the bridge itself. The battery had now done its work and had made communication between the two banks of the river less ready than it had previously been, but the fight was by no means over. The Prince Alaeedin and his men furiously attacked the landing party and were only beaten off after the Portuguese had lost 80 men in killed and wounded. The Viceroy tried to follow up his success by attacking the mosques and palace on St. Paul's Hill. Bewildered in a maze of buildings, the Portuguese again suffered heavy loss, and had to beat a confused retreat to their landing-place. There they entrenched themselves and were able to hold their own. Their only substantial success had been the capture of the outworks built by the Malays to protect the landing-places; the fortifications of the bridge itself were still uncaptured.

The next attack took place on St. James's Day, July 24, 1511. The Viceroy landed bodies of men on both banks of the river and advanced again upon the bridge. The Portuguese on the south bank were furiously attacked by a Malay force of about seven hundred men, headed by the Sultan in person. The battle appears to have been a very terrible one, and to have raged principally about the south end of the bridge, where the high ground of the hill approaches nearest to the river. From their vantage ground on the slopes, and under cover of their buildings, the Malays poured an incessant stream of poisoned darts upon the Portuguese, who replied by burning the houses and endeavouring to drive the Malays out of their cover. Encumbered with armour and weapons, the Portuguese found that the heat of the fire was more
than they could resist. To add to their troubles, the Laksamana Hang Tuah brought down a flotilla of boats and fireships that harassed the flanks and threatened the communications of the Viceroy's forces. Albuquerque decided to retire. He retired to his ships, taking with him 70 of his men who had been struck down with poisoned darts; of these 70 men twelve died, and the rest suffered from constantly recurring pain for a long period of time. The Malay losses will never be known. The Sultan of Pahang, whose houses had been burnt and whose property had been plundered, left his father-in-law in the lurch and returned to his own country. The fire-eating youths of Malacca, who had egged on their Sultan to war, had now had enough of the fighting. The foreign merchants had learnt that their Malay masters were not necessarily omnipotent. Although the Viceroy had been consistently repulsed, his very perniciously had practically secured the victory. When he landed again on the following day all organised resistance was over. The foreign subjects of the Sultan refused to expose their lives in a hopeless cause that was not their own. The Sultan's retainers found that the profit of war was not worth its risks. The Sultan himself fled. A few untamable spirits like the Laksamana continued to carry on a guerrilla warfare against the Portuguese, but with no real hope of success. The foreigners all submitted—first the Peguans, then the various sections of the Javanese community; they even joined the Portuguese under the brothers De Andrade in an expedition to destroy the stockades of the Prince Aladin. After this the Malay Prince saw the futility of further resistance; he followed his father in his flight to the interior. A few scattered bands of outlaws represented all that was left of the famous Malay kingdom of Malacca.

The spoils taken by the Portuguese are not exactly known. According to some authorities, the value of the plunder was 50,000 cruzados, or about £3,000; others say that this only represented the King's share of the spoil. It was also said that several thousand cannon, either 3,000 or 8,000—were captured. This expression may refer to mere firearms, but it must be enormously exaggerated even with this limitation. The Malay forces were very small, and they inflicted most damage with poisoned darts. Moreover, we are specially told that Albuquerque sent home as his only important trophies one or two cannon of Indian make and some Chinese images of lions. Had it not been for the foreign elements in the population of the town of Malacca, the capture of the city would have been an act of useless folly. As it was, the victory was a valuable one. It substituted a Portuguese for a Malay ruling class without destroying the trade-tradition of the place. It gave the Portuguese a naval base, a trading centre, and a citadel that they could easily hold against any attacks that the Indians might organise.

The Viceroy could not afford to garrison Malacca with the force that had sufficed to take it. He had captured it with the whole of the available forces of Portuguese India—19 ships, 800 European soldiers, and 600 sepoys. If anything was needed to show the unreason of the wealth and power ascribed by some imaginative writers to these old Malayan 'empires' or 'kingdoms,' it would be the insignificance of the Portuguese garrisons that held their own against all attacks and even organised small punitive expeditions in reply. The loss of ten or twelve Portuguese was a disaster of the first magnitude to the 'captain' in charge of the town and fort of Malacca. A small Portuguese reverse on the Muar river—when the gallant Ruy d'Aranjo was killed—enabled the Laksamana Hang Tuah to entrench himself on the Malacca river and to "besiege" the town. This famous Malay chief, whose name still lives in the memory of his countrymen, was a man of extraordinary energy and resource. He fought the Portuguese by sea, in the narrows of the Singapore Straits; he surprised them off Cape Rachado; he harassed the town of Malacca from the upper reaches of its own river; he intrigued with the allies of the Portuguese; he even induced a Javanese fleet to threaten Malacca. This indefatigable fighter died as he had lived, desperately warring against the enemies of his race. With his death, and with the destruction in 1526 of the Sultan's new stronghold on the island of Bintang, the Malay power was utterly destroyed. From 1511 to 1603 the Portuguese were the real masters of the Straits.

The history of Malacca from the date of Sequeira's expedition (A.D. 1509) to the time when it was captured by the Dutch (A.D. 1641) reads like a romance. It is associated with great names like those of Camoens and St. Francis Xavier; it is the story of desperate sieges and of the most gallant feats of arms. Tradition has it that once when the garrison had fired away their last ounce of powder in the course of a desperate battle against the Achinese, the suspicious-seeming silvery darts of the grim fortress terrified the enemy into flight. We are not, however, concerned with the romance of its history so much as with its political aspect. There is something significant in the very titles of the officials of Malacca. The Portuguese Governor of Malacca was his "captain," the heads of the native communities were "captains" too. Indeed, Albuquerque went so far as to appoint the Javanese headman, Ultramani Raja, his bendahara. The high officials of the Dutch bore trading names such as "first merchant" or "second merchant"; the civil servants of our own East India Company were "writers." There is no arrogance about any of these descriptions; they only showed what their basic reality were. What, then, are we to make of titles such as those of the "Viceroy of Africa, Arabia, and Persia" and the "Viceroy of India?" They hardly represented realities; did they symbolise anything positive?

The aim of all the European Powers in the Far East—whether Portuguese or Dutch or English—was to capture the rich trade of these countries. Sequeira asked for permission to trade; Albuquerque asked for permission to build a fortified factory at Malacca; the East India Companies of the Dutch and English were merely trading concerns. Yet there was this difference. The imperial idea—which, in the case of the Dutch and English, took centuries to develop—seems to have existed from the very first in the minds of the Portuguese. It was the imperial idea that made Albuquerque plan his campaign; Albuquerque never sought to administer, even when he claimed suzerainty. He allowed his Asiatic subjects a wide measure of self-government under their own "captains" in the very town of Malacca itself. Although he did not, indeed, try to administer, he tried to dominate. The Portuguese power would brook no rival. The garrisons were small—they were not sufficient to hold any tract of country—but the striking force of the viceroyalty was sufficient to destroy any trading port that refused to bow to the wishes of the Portuguese or that set itself up in irreconcilable hostility against them.

Again and again—at Kampar, in the island of Bintang, and on the shores of the Johore river—did the Portuguese expeditions harry the fugitives of the old Malay kingdom and destroy the chance of a native community rising to maintain their fortified base at Malacca. What they did in these Straits they also did on the shores of India and Africa. The titles of the old Portuguese Viceroys were not misnomers, though they did not bear the administrative significance that we should now attach to them. The Portuguese fleet did really dominate the East. The weakness of this old Portuguese "empire" lay in the fact that it could not possibly survive the loss of sea-power. It consisted—territorially—of a few naval bases that became a useless burden when the command of the sea passed into the hands of the English and Dutch. The fall of Malacca may indeed have said to date from A.D. 1606, when the Dutch Admiral Cornelis Matelief gained a decisive victory over the Portuguese fleet in the Straits of Malacca. From that time forward the doom of the town was sealed. Trade went with the command of the sea; apart from the trade, Portuguese revenue and became a useless burden to the Viceroy of Goa. Portuguese pride did indeed induce the Viceroy at first to send expeditions to the relief of their beleaguered countrymen in the famous fortress, but as siege succeeded siege it became obvious that the fate of the city was only a question of time. It fell in 1641.
After Sultan Mahmud had been driven out of Malacca he fled to Batu Pahang, while his son, the Prince Alaeedin, built a stockade at Pagoh. Pagoh was soon taken by the Portuguese. The Malay Princes then took refuge for a time in Pahang, after which they established themselves far up the Johore river, where they were relatively safe from attack. Settlements far up a river are, however, of very little use, whether for trade or piracy, as was the Malays regained confidence—they moved southwards and established themselves on the island of Bintang, Sultan Mahmud at Teding Tinggi and the Prince Alaeedin at Batu Pela-
bohan. This Prince Alaeedin had been raised to sovereign rank and bore the title of Sultan Ahmad Shah, to the great confusion of historical records, which confuse him both with his father, Sultan Mahmud, and with his brother, who afterwards bore the name of Sultan Alaeedin. In any case the Sultan Ahmad died at Batu Pelahbohan and was buried at Bukit Batu in Bintang; if Malay rumours are to be believed, he was poisoned by his own son, Sultan Mahmud then installed his younger son as Raja Muda, but did not confer on him the sovereign dignity borne by the murdered Ahmad Shah. After this, the Sultan moved his headquarters to Kopak. There another son was born to him, this time by his favourite wife, Tun Fatimah, the daughter of the famous Bendahara who had so bitterly opposed Sequeira. This child was given the title of Raja Kechil Bésar, and was afterwards allowed (through his mother's influence) to take precedence of his elder brother, the Raja Muda, and to be raised to sovereign rank as the Sultan Muda or Sultan Alaeedin Ryayat Shah II. Meanwhile the Malay settlement at Kopak had increased sufficiently in importance to attract the notice of the Portuguese. In 1526 it was surprised by the Viceroy Mascarinas, who brutally destroyed it. Sultan Mahmud, again a fugitive, took refuge at Kampar in Sumatra. By a high-handed act of policy the Portuguese had just abdicated the ruler of Kampar and had thereby lost the only headly body of that Sumatran port. The aged Sultan Mahmud was welcomed and was recognised as sovereign in the absence of the local chief. He died shortly afterwards, leaving the throne to his son, Alaeedin Ryayat Shah II. The new Sultan was not left in peace by the Portuguese. Driven out of Kampar, he ultimately settled at a place on the Johore river. He died there and was succeeded by his son, the Raja Muda Perdana, who took the title of Sultan Mudzafar Shah II. This Mudzafar Shah established himself at Schuyt (Johore Lama) but he had onlyling stations on the trade route and the former stations were destined to become important.

The Sultans of Perak claim descent from a "Sultan Mudzafar Shah," an elder son of the Sultan Mahmud who was driven from Malacca by the Portuguese. The present Sultan of Perak has asserted that this "Sultan Mudzafar Shah" went to Perak because he had been passed over for the succession by his younger brother. If this tradition is correct, the Sultan Mudzafar Shah of Perak would not he the poisoned Alaeedin (Sultan Ahmad Shah), but the young Raja Muda, who was set aside by his father in favour of the Raja Kechil Bésar, afterwards Alaeedin Ryayat Shah II. All that we know of the career of the royal line is that he married a daughter of Tun Fatimah by his first husband, Tun Ali, and that he had a son, Raja Mansur. This accords with the Perak story that Sultan Mudzafar Shah was succeeded by his son, a Sultan Mansur Shah. The following table shows the line of descent:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sultan Mahmud Shah</th>
<th>Raja Kechil Bésar (of Malacca and Johore)</th>
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<td>(of Malacca and Johore)</td>
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<tr>
<th>Alaeedin</th>
<th>Raja Muda (of Perak)</th>
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<tr>
<td>(Sultan Ahmad Shah)</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Raja Mansur (of Perak)</th>
<th>Raja Muda Perdana (of Malacca and Johore)</th>
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<tr>
<th>Raja Mansur Shah I.</th>
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This pedigree would go to prove not only that the Sultan of Perak represents the senior line of the oldest Malay dynasty, but also that he is directly descended from the famous line of Bendaharas whose stories are the subject of the "Sejarah Melayu."

Sultan Mudzafar Shah II. seems to have reigned in comparative peace at Johore. The only incident of any importance recorded about him was his secret marriage under rather suspicious circumstances to a Pahang lady, the divorced or abducted wife of one Raja Omar of Pahang. Sultan Mudzafar Shah did not live long. When he died the chiefs placed his son, the boy Abdul Jalil, on the throne. The new sovereign, Abdul Jalil Shah, suffered great tribulations at the hands of the Portuguese, who burnt Johore Lama and drove him to the upper reaches of the river, where no ships could follow him. He settled ultimately at Batu Sawar, which he named Makam Tanhid. He died at this place, leaving two sons (Raja Mansur and Raja Abdullah) by his principal wife, and three sons (Raja Hasan, Raja Husain, and Raja Mudzafar) by secondary wives. It is said that the last three became rulers of Siak, Kelantan and Kampar respectively. Raja Mansur succeeded to the throne of Johore under the title of Alaeedin Ryayat Shah III. It was in the reign of this Alaeedin Ryayat Shah that the Dutch and English first came to Johore.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DUTCH ASCENDANCY.

About the end of A.D. 1602 a Dutch navigator of the name of Jacob van Heemskerk visited Johore and left a factor behind, after satisfying himself that the factor's life was not likely to be endangered by any peace between the Malays and the Portuguese. By doing this he attracted to Johore the unwelcome attentions of the Governor of Malacca, who at once sent a few small vessels to blockade the river. However, in A.D. 1603 two Dutch ships that came to visit the factor drove away the Portuguese flotilla and obtained great honour in the sight of the Malays. From this time onwards the Dutch came constantly to Johore. The first Governor, Jacob van Heemskerck, continued to reside at his station and seems to have done a good deal to turn an insignificant fishing village into an important centre of trade and political influence. In this work of development he received every assistance from the Sultan's brother, Raja Abdullah, who was anxious to make a definite alliance with Holland and to obtain some permanent protection against Portuguese attack. A Malay envoy was actually sent to Holland, but died on the journey, and no treaty was made till A.D. 1666, when Admiral Cornelius Matelief with a powerful fleet arrived in the Straits of Malacca.

The Dutch account of this expedition tells us that the old Sultan Abdul Jalil Shah had been a great fighter and Dutchman, and had made a long war against the Portuguese. At his death he left four sons. The eldest, the "King Yang-di-Pertuan" (Alaeedin Ryayat Shah III), was in the habit of getting up at noon and having a meal, after which he drank himself drunk and transacted no further business. His second son, the King of Siak, was a man of weak character, who rarely visited Johore. His third, Raja Abdullah, is described as a man of about thirty-five years of age, fairly intelligent, far-sighted, quiet in disposition, and a great hand at driving hard bargains. The fourth brother, Raja Laut, is depicted as "the greatest drunkard, murderer, and scoundrel of the whole family. All the brothers drink except Raja Abdullah; and as the rulers are, so are the nobles in their train." Such, then, were the men whom the Admiral Cornelis Matelief had come to succour. But we must not condemn these princes too hastily. The Bendahara or prime minister of these Princes was the author of the "Annals," our greatest source of information on Malay history. The royal drunkard, Alaeedin Ryayat Shah, was the man who ordered the "Annals" to be written. The "great hand at driving hard bargains"—Raja Abdullah—is the patron of the history: "Sultan Abdullah Maayat Shah, the glory of his land and of his time, the chief of the assembly of true believers, the ornament of the abodes of the Faithful—may God enhance his generosity and his dignities, and perpetuate his just government over all his estates." These men must have been something more than mere drunks; the historian has reason to be grateful to them.

On May 14, 1669, Admiral Matelief arrived off the Johore river and received a friendly letter of greeting from Raja Abdullah; on May 17th he entertained the Prince on board his flagship. The interview must have been amusing, for it is quite clear that the Dutch
had come to the Straits with the most exaggerated ideas about the greatness of Johore. On boarding the Dutch ship Raja Abdullah greeted his host most cordially and presented him with a "golden kris studded with stones of little value." In welcoming the sailors to Malay waters, the Raja prolonged the compliments to such an extent that the impatient Admiral tried to lead him up to business by a pointed inquiry regarding the nature and extent of the help that might be expected from Johore if the Dutch attacked Malacca. In this matter, however, the Prince was anxious not to commit himself. He explained that he was an orang miskin, a person of little wealth and importance, subordinate in all things to the will of his royal brother. "In short," says our angry Dutch chronicle, "all the information that we could obtain from this Prince was that he was a very poor man indeed; had he been able to fight the Portuguese by himself, would he have sent to Holland for assistance?" This was unanswerable. The Admiral gave up all hope of obtaining any real armed assistance from Johore.

Nevertheless a treaty was signed. It is the first Dutch treaty with Johore and is dated May 17, 1666. Its terms are interesting.

The new allies began by agreeing to capture Malacca. After capturing it, they were to divide up the spoil—the city was to go to the Dutch and the adjoining territories to the Malays, but the Dutch were to possess the right to take timber from the nearest Malay jungles for the needs of the town and its shipping. The permission of the future Dutch Governor of Malacca was to be obtained before any European could be permitted to land on Johore territory.

As this treaty seemed a little premature until the capture of Malacca had been effected, Admiral Matelief set out at once to carry out that portion of the arrangement. He gained a decisive victory over the Portuguese fleet but failed to take the town, and ultimately gave up the enterprise as impracticable. On September 23, 1666, he made an amended treaty under which a small portion of Johore territory was ceded to the Dutch as a trading station in lieu of the town and fort of Malacca, the rest of the treaty remaining the same as before. After concluding this agreement he sailed away, and only returned to the Malay Peninsula in October, 1667, when he visited the factory at Patani. He then found that a complete change had come over the position of affairs at Johore. The Portuguese—having lost the command of the sea—had reversed their policy of unceasing hostility to native powers, and were now prepared to make an alliance with the Sultan. The Dutch factor had fled to Java, and the Admiral summed up the situation in a letter dated January 4, 1668: "The chief King drinks more than ever; the chiefs are on the side of the Portuguese; Raja Abdullah has no power." The Dutch East India Company had invested 130,000 dollars at Johore and 63,000 dollars at Patani.

Admiral Matelief could do very little. As he had sent most of his ships home and was expecting the arrival of a fleet under Admiral van Caerden, he tried to induce Admiral van Caerden to change his course and threaten Johore, but he was too late, as the Admiral had sailed already from Java on his way to the Moluccas and was too far away to give any assistance. Nothing could be done till the autumn. In the end a Dutch fleet arrived under Admiral Verhoeoff to bring the Sultan to reason. Sultan Alaedin Riayat Shah seems to have defended himself by the very logical argument that he wished to be at peace with everybody and that Dutch friendship, to be of value, should accord him permanent protection. This permanent protection was promised him by a new treaty, under which the Dutch agreed to build a fort at Johore and to station two guardships there to defend the place against Portuguese attack. Having made this arrangement, the Admiral sailed from Johore with a letter from the Sultan begging for Dutch aid to prosecute a personal quarrel between himself and the Raja of Patani. In fact, nothing could have been more fatuous than the policy of this Alaedin Riayat Shah. Dutch residents in the factory. The Achinese did not treat their prisoners very harshly. The Sultan of Achin—the famous Islandar Muda or Mahkota Alam—gave his sister in marriage to Raja Abdullah and even joined Alaedin in the convivial bouts that were so dear to the Johore Princes. A reconciliation was effected. On August 25, 1614, Alaedin Riayat Shah was back in his own capital, but he does not seem to have learned much wisdom from his stay in Achin. Accused of lukewarmness in helping the Achinese in their siege of Malacca, he brought upon himself for the second time the vengeance of the great Mahkota Alam. Johore was again attacked—this time by a force which an eyewitness, Admiral Steven van der Haghen, estimated at 300 ships and from 30,000 to 40,000 men. Johore was taken, but the Sultan himself escaped to Bintang. Bintang was next attacked. The unfortunate Sultan received some help from Malacca, but only just enough
The new ruler possessed many good qualities and he had the advantage of being married to a sister of Mahkota Alam, but was extremely unfortunate in being forced to contend against such jealously a potentate as his brother-in-law. He seems to have led the wandering existence of a Pretender-King. In a.d. 1623 he was certainly driven out of the island of Linggi by his Achinese foster-brother. In a.d. 1624 the Dutch records speak of Pahang and Johore as being incorporated in the kingdom of Achin. No Dutch ships ever visited Abdullah during his sultanate; no Dutch factors were ever stationed at his Court. He was deserving but unfortunate—a mere claimant to a throne that the Achinese would not permit him to fill.

He died in a.d. 1637.

He was succeeded—if indeed we can speak of succession to so barren a title—by his nephew, Sultan Abdul Jalil Shah II., son of the Sultan Alaeddin Riayat Shah III. who died at Achin. The new ruler was more fortunate than his predecessor in that the Achinese power was wane. He married the Mahkota Alam, the most powerful and most ambitious of the rulers of Achin, was dead; his sceptor had passed into the hands of women. These years—from 1637 onwards—may be considered years of revival among the Malay States that had been reduced to vassalage by Achin, for they gave a new lease of life to the kingdoms of Johore, Pahang, and Perak. In a.d. 1639 the Dutch, who were anxious to procure native assistance for the siege of Malacca, made overtures to the Sultan. Possessing the command of the sea, they wanted Malay auxiliaries to assist them with supplies and transport and to help in hemming in the Portuguese by land. The Dutch Admiral Van de Veer accordingly entered into an agreement with Abdul Jalil Shah and definitely secured him as an ally in the war against Malacca. This time the Portuguese stronghold was captured (a.d. 1641).

In spite of the fact that the military commanders at Malacca were tactless and misjudged by the help they offered to the Sultan's ally, the Dutch civil authorities did their best to show gratitude to Johore and to restore it as much as possible to its old position. They arranged peace between Johore and Achin, and gave various other assurances of their goodwill to the Sultan Abdul Jalil Shah. We hear of various complimentary missions being exchanged between Johore and Batavia without much practical result. What else, indeed, could we have expected? Johore became useless to Holland as soon as the capture of Malacca gave the Dutch a better station in the Straits than the old trading factory of Batu Kawan in Sumatra. The military activities, no trade, no productive hinterland; it was bound to decline. Sultan Abdul Jalil lived long enough to see a great calamity overwhelm his country. A quarrel with the Sultan of Jambi led in a.d. 1673 to a war in which Johore was plundered and burnt and its aged ruler driven into exile. The death of the old Sultan—who did not long survive the shock of the destruction of his capital—brought to an end the direct line of the Johore dynasty.

He was succeeded by a cousin, a Pahang Prince who took the name of Sultan Ibrahim Shah. The new ruler's energy infused fresh life into the State; he established himself at Riau in order to carry on the war against Jambi more effectually than from Johore Lama; he allied himself with the Dutch, and in time succeeded in regaining what his predecessor had lost. But he did not live long. On February 16, 1685, he died, leaving an only son, who was at once placed on the throne under the title of Sultan Mahmud Shah II. As the new Sultan was a mere boy, his mother became Regent, but she allowed all real power to be vested in the Bendahara Paduka Raja, the loyal and able minister of her late husband, the victorious Sultan Ibrahim. She was wisely advised in so doing. Peace was assured; the between any bold conspirator and the throne was loyally kept up by the Bendahara; internal troubles of all kinds were avoided. Unfortunately the Bendahara died, and his headstrong way took the government of the State into his own hands. In a.d. 1691 we hear of him as ruling from Johore. This young Sultan, Mahmud Shah II., a boy, was moreover, when he was younger, called Riau and Riau as well as of Johore—is the most mysterious and tragic figure in Malay history. He was said to be the victim of one of those terrible ghostly visitants, a Malay vampire, the spirit of a woman dead in childbirth and full of vengeance against the cause of her death. He was accused, by Malay traditions from all parts of the peninsula, of having slain in the most fiendish manner those of his wives who had the misfortune to become pregnant. Probably he was mad; but no form of madness could have been more dangerous to a prince in his position. The frail life of this insane and hated Sultan was the only thing that stood between the Dutch and the throne of Johore, Pahang, and Linggi. The end came in a.d. 1699. As the young ruler was being carried to mosque at Kota Tinggi on the shoulders of one of his retainers he was stabbed to death. All Malay tradition ascribes this assassination to the Sultan's minister, the son of a wealthy and great family that is described in the "Malay Annals," as glorifying in the tradition of fidelity to its Princes. With the death of the Sultan Mahmud Shah II. the dynasty of Malacca, Johore, and Pahang disappears from the page of history. In the records of this long line of Kings the point that most impresses the student is the curiously personal character of Malay sovereignty. In Europe, where all the Continent is divided up under different rulers, there is no place for a fallen king except as a subject. In the thinly populated Malay world the position was entirely different. So long as a fugitive prince could induce a few followers to lead Prince of his race, always a Pahang or an unoccupied valley or river in which to set up his miniature Court. The wandering exile Raja Abdullah (a.d. 1615-37), whose movements cannot be traced and the date of whose death is uncertain, was nevertheless a king—"Sultan Abdullah Mahayat Shah, the glory of his land and of his house." He was born in the purple. But to less highly born adventurers the acquisition of royal rank, as distinct from mere power, was a very difficult matter. All Malay popular feeling is against the "worm" that aspires to become a "dragon." If a bad harvest or a martyr or any other misfortune had overtaken the subjects of an upstart king, all Malay would have explained it as the Nemesis that waits on sacrilege, the result of outraging the divine majesty of kings. Royalty was a mere matter of cause, but a great Sultan might create minor Sultans, just as the Emperor of China made a Sultan of the Paramarama Shah, and Sultan Mansur Shah divided his dominions among his sons, or as Sultan Mahmud Shah I. gave sovereign rank to his son Ahmad Shah, or as Queen Victoria may be said to have created the sultanes of Johore and Pahang. Titular dignity was one thing; real authority was another. Powerful of Dutch rulers such as in recent times the Bendahara of Pahang, the Temenggung of Johore and the Dato' of Rembau, and great territorial magnates like the Maharaja Perba of Jeli, were kings in all except the name. The glamour of titles and of royal descent is so great that it often obscures realities. The Dutch when they negotiated their treaty with the Sultan of Malacca found to their astonishment that his Sultan in rank only, not in power. The sympathy that has been lavished upon the dispossessed princely house of Singapore is based upon a misconception of the meaning of Malay "royalty." Royal rank meant prestige, position, influence—the things that lead to military and naval strength. It is a thing in Malay eyes and justified the attention that they devoted to pedagogs and to the discussion of the relative importance of the articles that made up a king's regalia. But the student of Malay things who mistakes mere rank for power will constantly be surprised to find, as Admiral Matelief was astonished to discover, that a Malay Prince often an orang miskin—a very poor person indeed!

Immediately after the death of the unhappy Mahmud Shah, his murderer, the Bendahara Sri Maharaja, ascended the throne of Johore and Pahang under the title of Sultan Abdul Jalil Riayat Shah. Like most Princes who try to make their position strong by violence, he found that his position was one of ever-growing danger from malcontents at home and enemies abroad. Two new disturbing forces had entered the arena of Malay politics. The first was the great Menangkabau immigration; the second was the continued presence of Bugis fleets and of pirates on the peninsula coast. A constant stream of industrious Sumatran Malays had for some time past been pouring into the inland district now known as the Negri Sambian. These men, being very tenacious of their own tribal rights and customs, resisted any interference from Johore. The Bugis were even more dangerous. They were more warlike and more enterprising than the Menangkabau; they built bigger ships; they were ambitious, and they seemed anxious to get a firm footing in the country. In a.d. 1713 Sultan Abdul Jalil Riayat Shah tried to strengthen his position by a closer alliance with the Dutch; but such a policy, though it might assist him against foreign foes, was of very little avail against the enemies of his own household. In a.d. 1617 (or a little earlier) an incident occurred that may be described as one of the more extraordinary events in Malay history. A Menangkabau adventurer calling himself Raja Ke'edil
appeared in Johore. He gave himself out to be a posthumous son of the murdered Mahmoud Shah and stirred up a revolution in the capital. But the strangest part of the incident was its termination. The upstart Sultan Abdul Jalil Riayat Shah claimed to be the real son of his father, and occupied the position of Bendahara Sri Maharaja and to serve under the impostor, Raja Kechil, whose claims he must have known to be false. To cement this alliance between murder and fraud the ex-Sultan agreed to give his daughter, Tengku Tengah, in marriage to the new Sultan who took the name of Abdul Jalil Rahmat Shah.

It is difficult to exactly trace the course of events after this point because we have two Malay partisan histories written from opposite points of view. One history accepts this Raja Kechil as a true son of the murdered Sultan Mahmud; the other treats him as a scoundrel and an impostor, and makes a martyr of the deposed assassin, Sultun Abdul Jalil Riayat Shah. There can be no doubt that the Bendahara's relatives conspired with the Bugsis against this claim, but the details of the plot are not very clear. According to one account a woman's jealousy provoked the trouble. Raja Kechil had jilted Tengku Tengah in order to marry her younger sister, Tengku Kamarah. This little change in the original plan did not injure the Bendahara, but it made a great deal of difference to the ambitious Tengku Tengah and caused further dissension in a family that was already divided by personal jealousies. As the children of the Bendahara who were born after his accession to the throne denied that their elder brothers, who were born before their father became a king, had any right to call themselves princes, it is not surprising that intriguers and conspiracies should have been begun. It happened that there was at this time in Johore a Bugis adventurer named Daeng Parani. Tengku Sulaiman, eldest son of the Bendahara, went to this man and appeared as a friend in overtures to the upstart Raja Kechil. Daeng Parani hesitated; the odds against him were too great. Tengku Sulaiman then tried to win over the Bugis adventurer by promising him the hand of his sister, Tengku Tengah, in marriage. Daeng Parani again refused. At this juncture Tengku Tengah herself came forward and made a personal appeal to the love and chivalry of the Bugis chief. Daeng Parani now consented to act. With great boldness—for he had only a handful of men in the heart of a hostile capital—he surrounded the Sultan's residence and endeavoured to slay Raja Kechil and to abduct Tengku Kamarah. He was only partially successful; the Sultan escaped. Daeng Parani fled to SJIancang, leaving his fellow-conspirators behind. Tengku Sulaiman and Tengku Tengah fled to Palembang. The aged Bendahara, father of Tengku Sulaiman and Tengku Tengah, feeling that he would be suspected of having taken a part in the conspiracy, followed his children in their flight, but was overthrown and murdered at Kuala Pahang. He is the Sultan known as marhum kuala Pahang. Tengku Sulaiman, however, managed to escape and ultimately joined his Bugis friends.

After these incidents Raja Kechil—or Abdul Jalil Rahmat Shah as he styled himself—abandoned Johore Lama, the scene of so many misfortunes to Malay Kings, and made a new capital for himself at Riau. He carried on with great courage and success a desultory war against his father. He roused the Bugis to his aid, and maneuvered and lost his position as Sultan of Johore, because the Bugis ships, having encircled the Malay fleet to Kuala Linggi, doubled back during the night and suddenly appeared before Riau. In the absence of his King and his following the Bugis proceeded to Menangkabau, and Tengku Sulaiman of Johore under the title of Sultan Sulaiman Badru'd-daula Shah. The principal Bugis chief, Daeng Merowah (or Klana Jaya Putra) became "Raja tua" under the title of Sultan Ibrahim Shah. This seems to have occurred on October 22, A.D. 1721, but the formal investiture only took place on October 4, 1722. To strengthen their position, the Bugis chiefs allied themselves in marriage with the Mallays. Daeng Manompono, brother of the Temenggong of Sultan Sulaiman; Daeng Merowah married Inche' Ayu, daughter of the ex-Temenggong Abdul Jalil and widow of the murdered Sultan Mahmud; Daeng Parani had married Tengku Tengah; and Daeng Chelak sought to marry Tengku Kamarah, the captive wife of Raja Kechil. Other Bugis chiefs—Daeng Sasru and Daeng Mengato—married nieces of Sultan Sulaiman. As the Bugis accounts of the Raja Kechil incident differ very materially from the Malay version, we can hardly hope to get a thoroughly reliable history of the events that led to the establishment of Bugis kingdoms in the Straits of Malacca. We may, however, consider it certain that Raja Kechil was not a posthumous son of Sultan Mahmud Shah. Dutch records prove that Raja Kechil was an extremely old man in A.D. 1745; they even provide strong evidence of his being an impostor, and prove that he murdered the Sultan Mahmud Shah when he seized the throne of Johore. He must therefore have been an older man than the Prince whom he claimed as his father. In all probability Raja Kechil won his kingdom by mere right of conquest, supplanting a murderer who was quite ready to give up an untenable throne and to take a secure position as Bendahara under a strong ruler. In later years, when the Malays became savagely hostile to their Bugis masters, they were doubtless ready to accept any tale and to follow a Menangkabau ruler, who was at least a Malay, in preference to the Bugis pirates and their miserable tool, Sultan Sulaiman Shah. But when Raja Kechil died the Malays rallied to the side of his younger son (who had a royal Malay mother) and treated the elder son as a mere alien without any claim to the throne. The murder at Kota Tinggi in A.D. 1699 had divided the allegiance of the Malay world and contributed greatly to the success of the Bugis. It was only at the close of the eighteenth century that the old Johore communities again recognized a common ruler.

The Bugis chiefs at Riau paid very little attention to the plantations, and therefore they made no exaggerated Sultan Sulaiman, who soon left his son high and flung to Kampar. After this incident the Bugis felt that they had gone too far, and they made a new treaty with their titular sovereign and induced him to return to Riau. It should be understood that even with Sultan Sulaiman's help the Bugis position was insecure. Raja Kechil, who had established himself at Siak, gained many victories and repeatedly attacked his enemies in their very capital. In A.D. 1727 he even abducted his wife, Tengku Kamarah, who was held captive at Riau. In A.D. 1728, with the aid of Palembang troops he laid siege to Riau and was repulsed. In A.D. 1729 the Bugis blockaded Siak and were repulsed in their turn. The history of the whole of this period of Bugis activity (1721-35) is extremely involved, but it is fully discussed in Dutch works, especially in the thirty-fifth volume of the Transactions of the Batavian Society. We can only briefly refer to it.

The policy of the Dutch—so far as their general unwillingness to interfere allowed of any policy—was that of supporting the Malays against the restless and piratical Bugis. It was a dangerous policy, this attempt to weaken the strong, but it proved successful in the end. Looking at it in the light of ultimate results, we can compare two exactly similar situations, one in 1736 and the other in 1784, and notice the difference in treatment. On both occasions Malacca was attacked.

On the first occasion the Dutch, after repelling the attack on their fortress, allied themselves with the Malays (Sultan Sulaiman, his son the Tengku Bésar, and his son-in-law the Sultan of Trengganu), and forced the Bugis to come to terms (A.D. 1737) and to acknowledge the Sultan of Johore as their lawful sovereign. This plan did not work well, as Sultan Sulaiman had great difficulty in enforcing his authority. To make matters worse, his death (August 20, 1760) occurred at a time when his eldest son, the Tengku Bésar, was on a journey to the Bugis chiefdoms of Siak and Selangor. If Malay records are to be believed, the Bugis chief, Daeng Kamboja, was not a man to waste an opportunity. He poisoned the Tengku Bésar and then took his body, with every possible manifestation of grief, back to Riau to be buried. At the burial he proclaimed the Tengku Bésar's young son Sultan of Johore under the title of Sultan Ahmad Riayat Shah, but he also nominated himself to be Regent. When the unhappy boy-King was a little older, and seemed likely to take the government into his own hands, he too was poisoned, so as to allow a mere child, his brother, Sultan Ahmad Riayat Shah, to be made Sultan and to prolong the duration of the Regency. The Dutch plan of securing Malay ascendancy had completely failed.

On the second occasion (when Raja Haji attacked Malacca in 1784) the Dutch, after repelling the attack and killing the Bugis chief, followed up their success by driving the Bugis out of Riau and recognising the young Malay Sultan Mahmud Riayat Shah as the ruler of Johore. But on this occasion they felt that they could not trust any native dynasty to maintain the British peace. Thus they made a treaty with the Sultan, and stationed a resident with a small Dutch garrison at Riau.
This plan did not work very well at first; it pleased neither the Bugis nor the Malay chiefs. The fifth Bugis "Yamuan Muda" attacked Riau; the Malay Sultan fled from his capital to get up a coalition against the Dutch; even the Iban pirates made an attack upon the place. In time, however, when the various chiefs came to recognise that the glories of independence were not sufficient compensation for losing the creature-comforts of security and peace, both the Sultan Mahmud Shah and the Bugis Yamuan Muda settled down definitely at Riau and accepted the part of dependent Princes.

The following pedigree shows the branches of the Bugis family that ruled in the Straits.

UPU TANDERI BURONG
(a Bugis chief)

Daeng Perani
(died 1725 A.D.)
Daeng Merowah,
Klana Jaya Putra, Sultan Alaeedin Shah L (First Yang-di-Pertuan Muda of Riau, 1721-28)
Daeng Cheleak,
Sultan Alaeedin Shah II. (Second Yang-di-Pertuan Muda of Riau, 1728-45)
Daeng Kamboja,
Sultan Alaeedin Shah III. (Third Yang-di-Pertuan Muda, 1745-77)
Raja Lumu,
Sultan Selaheddin Shah (First Sultan of Selangor)
Raja Haji
(Fourth Yang-di-Pertuan Muda of Riau, 1777-84)

Sultan Mahmud 8layat Shah of Johore died in the year 1812 A.D., leaving two sons, Tengku Husain and Tengku Abdurrahman. The latter was at once proclaimed Sultan by the Bugis Yang-di-Ferutn Muda of Riau. Tengku Husain, who was absent in Pahang at the time of his father's death, returned to Riau, but appears to have made no effective protest against his younger brother's ascension. Sultan Abdurrahman was recognised as Sultan of Johore and Pahang by both the Dutch and the English until January, 1819, when it suited Sir Stamford Raffles to repudiate that recognition and to accord to Tengku Husain the title of Sultan of Johore. From this time the line of Sultans divides into two, one branch reigning under Dutch protection in the island of Linggi, the other living under British protection in the town of Singapore itself.

CHAPTER VII.

THE EARLY BRITISH CONNECTION WITH THE STATES.

When the British occupied Pinang at the close of the eighteenth century the situation on the mainland was a confused one. The Dutch held Malacca, and their power extended over Nanking, and to a less extent over Remban and the Negri Sambilan, and they had a factory in Selangor which they utilised for the enforcement of their tin monopoly. In the north were the Siamese hovering about the confines of Kedah and menacing Trengganu and Kelantan. The separate States were ruled by chiefs whose power was despotically exercised, and who, in the majority of instances, derived a considerable portion of their slender revenue from piracy. Generally, the condition of the country was archaic. There was little trade and less agriculture, and the population was very scanty. The Dutch had a great opportunity of extending their influence throughout the peninsula, but they lacked the conciliatory qualities which are essential in dealing with so proud and highly intellectual a people as the Malays. Their power, such as it was, was greatly shaken by a "regrettable occurrence" in Selangor in 1785 which dimmed the lustre of their laurels. The State, as we have seen, was settled in the eighteenth century by a Bugis colony from the Celebes, and at the period named it was under the government of Sultan Ibrahim, a sturdy chief who commanded a great reputation amongst the people of the area. In 1784 the Sultan, with his ally the Muda of Riau, Raja Haji, attacked Malacca, plundered and burned the suburbs of the city, and would probably have completed the conquest of the place but for the timely arrival in the roads of a Dutch fleet under Admiral Von Braam. The Dutch succeeded in defeating the combined forces, and later carried the war into the enemy's country. But Sultan Ibrahim, deeming discretion the better part of valour, fled to Pahang, leaving the Dutch to occupy Selangor without opposition. Subsequently Ibrahim crossed the peninsula from Pahang with about two thousand followers, and made a night attack on the Dutch fort on June 27, 1785. Panic-stricken, the Dutch garrison abandoned their fort in a disgraceful manner, leaving behind them all their heavy artillery, ammunition, and a considerable amount of property. The Dutch threatened reprisals, and Ibrahim made peace with them by restoring the plunder and acknowledging the suzerainty of the Netherlands East India Company. The chief, however, was never reconciled to the connection, and he made repeated overtures to the authorities of Pinang for the extension of British protection to his State.

When Malacca was handed back to the Dutch in 1818, under the terms of the Treaty of Vienna, there was, as we have already noted, a feeling of alarm excited amongst the British community at Pinang. Not only was the retrocession regarded as in itself a serious blow to British prestige, but there were apprehensions that the re-establishment of the Dutch at this fine strategical centre would effectually prevent the extension of British influence in the peninsula. The Pinang merchants on June 8, 1818, wrote to the Government on the subject of the desirability of the adoption of a more active line in the islands. In the course of their communication they adverted to the extensive commercial intercourse then carried on by British subjects from Pinang with Perak, Selangor, Riau, Cringore and Pontiana, and other ports in Borneo, and expressed apprehension that the Dutch on recapturing Malacca would endeavour to make exclusive treaties with the chiefs of those States very detrimental to British trade. They therefore earnestly pressed the Governor (Colonel Bannerman) to lose no time in endeavouring to enter into friendly alliance with the chiefs of these countries, which would secure British merchants equal privileges with those of the subjects of other nations. The Government, acting promptly upon the suggestion, despatched Mr. Cracroft, Malay translator to the Government, to the adjoining States of Perak and Selangor for the purpose of forming treaties which would at least prevent a monopoly of the trade of the Dutch, and secure for Pinang a fair participation in the general trade of the States. There was at this time war raging between Kedah and Perak over the question of the despatch of a loan of harbour by the latter to the Sum Court. Mr. Cracroft was instructed by the Secretary of State to suggest to the Raja of Pinang that he might be agreed to a submission to the demand, and as the Perak people were little disposed to yield, his mission was for a time imperilled by the attitude he assumed. Eventually, however, by clever diplomacy, he managed to obtain the desired treaty. Proceeding to Selangor, Mr. Cracroft concluded a similar treaty there. At or about this time efforts were made by the Pinang Government to revive the tin trade, which had greatly suffered by the transfer of the island of Banca to the Dutch. A reference has been made to this in the Pinang section of the work, but a more extended account of the transactions may be read in the Volumes of the "Observations on the Restoration of Banca and Malacca." From this we may sum up the facts. Despite the circumstance that Perak was in a state of anarchy at the time of his arrival, the result of his mission was by no means unfavourable even there, while at Selangor and Colong, although
considerable difficulties were encountered, the objects attained fully realised the expectations formed, an engagement having been made for 1,500 piculs of tin annually to the Company at the low price of 43 dollars per bahar, which was less than expected. The contract was a perpetual one, but it appeared to Mr. Anderson that the establishment of native agents at the different States, as had been suggested by a Committee which had sat in Penang before he left, would not only be necessary for the purposes intended, but involve a heavy expense without any corresponding benefit, and be much less adapted for the purpose of extending and encouraging the tin trade than the formation of a small factory at an island near the chief port where the tin was procured, to which natives of their own accord would resort for the sale of tin. He consequently recommended the establishment of a factory on the island of Pangkor, near the Dindings, and distant from the Perak river about 12 miles. It was pointed out by Mr. Anderson that the island was peculiarly well situated for such a purpose, as it had abounded in canes, rattans, wood-oil, dammar, and crooked timber for ships. The water was particularly excellent, the harbour safe, and in fine the island possessed almost every advantage that could be desired for the purpose stated. Independently of its occupation being important in a commercial sense, it would, be pointed out, be the means of preventing pirates resorting there, as they had been in the habit of doing. The Government at Penang approved the scheme, and obtained the sanction of the Supreme Government to establish a factory at Pangkor, "providing a cession of the island could be obtained from a power competent to grant it, and there was no probability of difficulties afterwards arising as to the legality of the occupation." The circumstances were not immediately favourable for the execution of the plan, suggested by Mr. Anderson. The Sultan of Perak and long claimed the island as a dependency of that State, but the Sultan of Selangor had, with more propriety, made a similar claim, and his son was in fact in possession of the island and part of the mainland district known as the Dindings. Meanwhile, the Sultan of Kedah, having invaded Perak, the Sultan of Kedah replied that he could not comply, as he was under the authority of Siam, and pending a communication from the King of Siam as to how matters were to be settled he could do nothing. While these negotiations were proceeding the Government of Pinang took some steps to forward the tin trade with Patani. Their operations were, however, hampered by the Sultan of Kedah's agents, and were ultimately completely nullified by the imposition of what was practically a prohibitive export duty. Shortly afterwards a new colonization was introduced into the tangled thread of Perak politics by the intrusion of a Dutch mission into the territory with the object of founding a settlement there. Both the Kedah and the Perak people were extremely averse to the Dutch designs, and an urgent representation in favour of inviting British interference was made by the Bendahara of Kedah. The withdrawal of the Dutch mission to Malacca relieved the situation, and nothing came of the proposal immediately. But two months later, when the Kedah forces evacuated Perak, the Bendahara wrote to Mr. Anderson offering to enter into a treaty with him for the supply of tin, which had been done meantime sent an embassy to Selangor and insisted upon the King renewing an obsolete treaty which prejudiced British interests. The Sultan promptly communicated the fact to Pinang, and at the same time expressed his desire to fulfil his engagements. In June Mr. Cracroft was despatched again to Colong and Selangor, and on his return availed himself of the opportunity of bringing up 310 bahars of tin which were ready for Mr. Anderson.

The death of Colonel Bannerman rendered it expedient to support the crown of the sultan of Selangor and to discontinue the collection of tin on account of the Company. The whole of the tin collected, about 2,000 piculs, having been properly smelted, was ultimately sold at the price of 18 Spanish dollars per picul. There was a gain on the adventure of 5,504½ Spanish dollars, besides the Custom House duties, which amounted to 800 dollars more. The Hon. Mr. Clulley, in a minute on the subject, expressed the view that sufficient had been done for the beneficial purposes contemplated. "I quite agree with the Hon. the President in the justice of his ideas, that we shall best encourage the trade in tin by endeavouring, as much as lies in our power, to remove the barriers which, at present, either the selfish or limited policy of the neighboring Malay Governments has opposed to the free transit of that article. The opening of a free communication with the Kwa Muda will be highly desirable in this view on the one side, and on the other, the possession of Pankor, if it could be done with propriety, would facilitate trade with Perak and render it liable to the least possible obstruction. I am aware, however, of the justice and propriety of the Hon. the President's objections against our occupation of Pankor at present, in view to avoid any cause for jealousy either from the Dutch Government or from that of Siam under present circumstances. It does not appear to me, however, that any objections do arise from any other quarter to prevent this desirable measure being attained, and when the discussions which have been referred to Europe shall be adjusted, I certainly hope to see that island an integral part of this Government and forming (as it will essentially do) a great protection to the passing trade, especially of tin from Perak and Selangor, and a material obstruction, when guarded by a British detachment, to the enormous system of piracy that at present prevails in that part of the Straits. . . . From the foregoing observations, it is needless to add that it becomes unnecessary to persevere in enforcing our treaties with the Raja of Perak and Selangor for our annual supply of tin, Yel, if circumstances had been otherwise, I would assuredly have added my humble voice in deprecating and resenting the overbearing assumptions of our Netherlands neighbours at Malacca, in the system which has been, for an unjustifiable, must have prevailed on the Raja of Selangor to annul a former treaty he had concluded with this Government, for the purpose of substituting an obsolete one of their own. The superior authorities will no doubt view in this procedure a continuation only of the same system which has been practised universally by the Dutch since they resumed the government of the Eastern islands."

The Siamese connection with the affairs of the Malay Peninsula cannot be overlooked in a general survey of the history of the federated area. From a very early period, as has been noted, the Siamese had relations with the northern portions of the region. Their influence varied in degree from time to time with the fortunes of their country; but they would appear to have effectually stamped the impress of their authority upon the peninsula at the period of the occupation of Pinang. On the strength of their position as the dominant power seated at the northern end of the peninsula, they put forward claims to supremacy over several of the principal Malay States, notably Kedah, Patani, Perak, and Selangor. These claims were never, there is reason to think, fully conceded, but occasionally, under stress of threats, the chiefs of the States rendered the traditional tribute, known as the Bunga Mas, or flower of gold. Kedah conceded this degree of dependence upon the Siamese power early in the nineteenth century, but when demands were made upon it for more substantial homage it resolutely declined to submit, with the result that the State, in November, 1824, was overrun by a horde of Siamese under the Raja of Ligor, and conquered in the circumstances of hideous barbarity related in the Pinang section of this work. What followed may be related in the words of Mr. Anderson in his famous pamphlet previously referred to: 1: "Having effected the complete subjugation of Quedah and possessed himself of the country, the Raja of Ligor next turned his attention to one of its principal dependencies, one of the Lancayv, islands, and fitted out a strong, well-equipped expedition, which proceeded to the principal island, which, independent of possessing a fixed population of three or four thousand souls, had received large accessions of inhabitants from Quedah. Here, too, commenced a scene of death and desolation almost exceeding credibility. The men were murdered and the women and female children carried off to Quedah, while the male children were either put to death or left to perish. . . . Several badly planned and ineffectual attempts have at different times been made by unorganised bodies of the King of Quedah's adherents in the country to cut off the Siamese garrison in Quedah, but these have all been followed by the most disastrous results; not only by the destruction of the assailants, but by increased persecution towards
short struggle, his (the King of Ligore's) forces also possessed themselves of that country, which had been reduced by the Raffles forces in 1818, by the orders of Siam, in consequence of a refusal to send the Bunga Mas, a refusal thoroughly justified, for the history of that oppressed State affords no instance of such a demand ever having been made by Siam or complied with before. In consequence of the refusal to send the Bunga Mas, the Siamese were too powerful and too well prepared for any such ill-arranged expedition as it could have been within the compass of the Quehad Raja's means to have brought against them to have had any chance of success; and it would have been inconsistent with the professed neutrality of the British Government to have permitted any equipments or warlike preparations within its ports, the more particularly so as a mission had just proceeded to Siam from the Governor-General of India.

"However much disposed the Pinang Government might have been on the first blush of the affair to have stopped such proceedings, the more serious consideration of having to have checked such ambitious and warrantable aggression, however consistent and politic it might have been to have treated the Ligorean troops as a predatory horde and expelled them at once from the territories of an old and faithful ally of the British Government, the mission to the Supreme Government of Bengal to the Court of Siam, and the probable evil consequences of an immediate rupture, were considerations which could not fail to embarrass the Pinang Government and render it necessary to deliberate well before it embarked in any measures of active hostility; although fully adequate to the safe guardianship and protection of the place, and sufficient to repel any force that the Siamese could bring against it, was yet insufficient for prosecuting a vigorous war, or maintaining its conquests against the recruited legions which the Siamese power could have transported with the assistance of the troops arrived from other parts of India. Under all these circumstances the policy of suspending hostilities was manifest, and it was deemed proper to await the orders of the superior and controlling authorities. It was expected that the mission would have produced some results advantageous to the interests of our ally, by the mediation of the Ambassador, and that, at all events, the affairs of Quehad would have been settled upon a proper footing. So far, however, from any of these most desirable objects which were contemplated being attained, the Siamese authorities not only assumed a tone of insolence and evasion to all the reasonings of the Ambassador, but signified their expectation that the King of Quehad should be delivered up to them. The King of Ligore, not satisfied with the conquest of Quehad, and grasping at more extended dominion, under pretense of conveying back some messengers from Perak who had carried the Bunga Mas, or token of homage, to Quehad, requested permission for a fleet to pass through Pinang harbour, which, being conducted beyond the borders by a cruiser, proceeded to Perak, and, after a
enormous tract of country over which their hold would, in other circumstances, have been of a very precarious character, and supply them with an excuse for further aggression at a later period. The shortcomings of the arrangement were recognised in time by the possible tendency of the Straits administrators, but the full realisation of the nature of the blunder committed in giving the aggressive little people from the North a substantial stake in the peninsula was left to a later generation of officials, who were to find the natural extension of British influence checked by claims arising out of this Treaty of Bangkok of 1856.

CHAPTER VIII.

ANARCHY IN THE STATES—BRITISH INTERVENTION.

For a considerable period following the completion of this compact between Great Britain and Siam the course of events in the Malay Peninsula ceased to cause the active attention of British officials in the Straits. The expedition to Nanning, described in the Malacca section, was the one exception to the rule of inactivity, and that was but a local and passing episode which did not touch the larger question of control in the peninsula, since Nanning had long been regarded as an essential part of the Malacca territory. The abstinence from interference was due to a variety of reasons, but chiefly to the indifference of the Indian authorities to the interests which centred in the Straits. The distance of the area from the seat of government prevented that intimate knowledge of the country which was essential to a proper handling of the difficult and delicate problems arising out of the position of the Malay chiefs, and, moreover, there was no apparent compensation to be gained for threading a hand into the Asiatic waters' nest which the region for generations had proved to be. Could the Supreme Government have seen the Federated Malay States as they are to-day—a marvellously prosperous centre of industry, not only handsomely paying their way but acting as a feeder to the trade of the established British settlements—they would doubtless have acted differently. But those things were in the lap of the gods. All that was visible to the somewhat narrow political intelligence of the Calcutta bureaucrats was a welter of anarchical tribal despotism, out of which nothing could come more tangible than a heavy financial responsibility to the Company should it be rash enough to intervene. So, forgetting the lessons inculcated by Raffles, Marsden, and Anderson of the vast potentialities of this region for trade, it was content to ignore the existence of the Western Malay States save on those occasions, not infrequent, when some unusually daring act of piracy perpetrated by the inhabitants aroused it to transient activity.

The indifference of the Government of the Straits to affairs in the Malay States survived for some years the authority of the Government of India in the settlements. The Government at home sternly discommoded any exercise of authority beyond the limits of British territory, and knowing this, the local officials turned a blind eye on events which were passing across the border save when, as has been said, flagrant acts of piracy committed on British subjects galvanised them to spasmodic action. This policy of masterly inactivity was the more perplexing as the absence of business could not be so easily maintained. The commercial community of Singapore and Pinang chafed under the losses to which they were subjected by the eternal warfare of the anarchical elements which pervaded the Western States, and again and again urged the Government in vain to adopt a more energetic policy for the protection of what even then was a valuable trade. Matters at length got so bad that the Government could no longer ignore their plain responsibilities. The events which led up to intervention may be briefly described. In 1851 a small British trading boat by Chinese and Selangor Malays led to the bombardment by H.M.S. Rinaldi of the forts at the mouth of the Selangor river. The situation in Selangor itself at the time was about as disturbed as it could possibly be. On the one side was the brother-in-law of the Sultan, a Kelah chief named Tunku Diah Ooddin, acting as a sort of viceroy under the authority of the Sultan, a curious old fellow whose motto seems to have been "Anything for a quiet life."—his idea of quietude being freedom from personal worry; and on the other were the Sultan's sons, who set themselves indefatigably to thwart the constituted authority at every turn. Three of these sons, the Rajas Mahdie, Syed Mshaour, and Mahmud, were mixed up in the act of piracy which led to the bombardment of the Selangor forts, and the British Government preferred a demand to the Sultan for their surrender of whom he had just announced that they would support Tunku Diah Ooddin. For some reason the demand was not pressed, and the three lively young princes, with other disaffected members of the royal house, threw themselves heart and soul into the congenial task of making government by Tunku impossible. In July, 1852, a number of influential traders at Malacca petitioned the Singapore Chamber of Commerce to take up the question of the disturbances in Selangor. They represented that on the faith of the Government assurances of support to Tunku, and with full confidence in his administrations they had invested large sums of money in the trade of Selangor, more particularly in the tin mines. The Singapore Chamber sent the petition on to Government, and elicited a reply to the effect that every endeavour was being made to induce the chiefs to submit to the authority of the Sultan and his viceroy, but that it was the policy of the Government not to interfere in the affairs of those countries unless (sic) where it becomes necessary for the suppression of piracy or the punishment of aggression on our people or territories; but that if traders, prompted by the prospect of large gains, chose to run the risk of placing their persons and property in the jeopardy which they are aware attends them in this country, under these circumstances it is impossible for Government to be answerable for their protection or that of their property." The Singapore Chamber sent a respectful protest against the views expressed by the Government on the subject; the Malays were informed of the intention to make no interference; they urged that the Malacca traders had made out a just claim for the interference of the British Government for the "punishment of aggression on our people," and that even if the Malacca traders had been induced solely by "prospects of large gains" to run considerable risks, that alone would not warrant the Government in refusing its protection. Finally the Chamber, while deprecating any recourse to coercive measures, urged upon the Government "the absolute necessity of adopting some straightforward and well defined policy in dealing with the rulers of the various States of the Malay Peninsula, for the purpose of promoting and protecting commercial relations with their respective provinces, as there is every reason to believe they would readily accept the impartial views and friendly advice of the British authority." Somewhat earlier than the date of this Malacca petition—in the month of April—the Governor, Sir Harry Ord, had been induced by the news which reached him of the disturbed conditions on the peninsula to despatch the Auditor-General, Mr. C. J. Irving, who warmly supported the cause of Tunku Diah Ooddin, to the Klang and Selangor rivers to ascertain exactly what was the condition of affairs, and whether it was likely that any arrangement could be come to between Tunku and those Rajas, especially Mahdie, Syed Mshaour, and Mahmud, who were still holding out against his and the Sultan's authority. Mr. Irving brought back word that Tunku Diah Ooddin had practical possession of both the Selangor and Klang rivers, and possessed communications with the Bernam river on the north and the Langat river on the south, on which the Sultan's trade was entirely based. It was thus enabled to send down to the coast, though not without difficulty, the tin raised in the interior, and with it to obtain supplies of arms and food. Constant warfare prevailed between the two parties, and there were repeated attacks and captures of posts in which neither party seemed to gain any great advantage. Raja Mahdie was then out of the country trying to organise a force with which to return to the attack. Tunku Diah Ooddin expressed himself ready to make any arrangement by which peace could be restored to the country. He had, he said, put the Sultan's sons in charge of the Selangor river, but partly through weakness and partly through treachery they had played into the hands of his enemies, and he had been compelled to displace them. He endeavoured to interfere as little as possible with the trade of the country, but so long as the rebel Rajas could send out of it the tin and get back in return supplies, so long would the war continue; and with the view of putting a stop to this he had been compelled to enforce a strict blockade of the two rivers, which was naturally giving great offence to those merchants who had made advances on behalf of the Sultan.

After completing his inquiries at Selangor, Mr. Irving proceeded to Larut, in Perak, where
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

serious disturbances threatening the trade of the country with Pinang had broken out. He found the state of affairs quite as bad as it had been represented to the Government at Singapore. On the death of the Sultan of Perak, his son, the Raja Muda, should in the natural course of events have succeeded his father, but he, having given great offence to a number of chiefs by absenteeism from the funeral ceremonies, was superseded by another high official, the Bendahara, who had, with the chiefs' consent, been engaged on the frontier with the Siamese. It appeared to the Government a matter of grave importance, and it was informed that the British authorities could not interfere in any way in the internal affairs of the country, but that as soon as the chiefs and great men had determined who, according to their native customs, was the proper successor to the Sultan, the Government would be happy in leaving the matter to them. The suggestion was made that the British Government, represented by Mr. Irving, should call in the Raja Muda, but not the Bendahara, who made excuses to avoid meeting him. He was of opinion that the Raja Muda had stronger claims, but owing to his being an opium smoker and a debauchee he had no great following not even much influence with the people. Mr. Irving recommended this to the Sultan, and their chiefs the importance of a peaceful settlement of their differences, and suggested that there should be a meeting of all the great chiefs to determine the question of the succession. He added that he would with pleasure send an officer of rank to be present at their deliberation and to communicate their selection, which they might rest assured would be accepted by the British Government. Mr. Irving returned to Singapore on April 20, and on May 3rd he went back again with letters from the Governor strongly impressing on the disputants the expediency of settling their differences in the way that had been suggested. He found the Raja Muda willing to accede to the proposal, but not the Bendahara and his adviser, the Raja of Larut.

Such was the position at Perak. At Larut, where thousands of Chinese were employed upon the mines, serious faction fights had broken out amongst these people earlier in the year, with the result of the victory of one party and the driving away of the vanquished. It was hoped that matters had quieted down, but in October the faction fight broke out afresh with renewed violence. The defeated party, having obtained assistance, largely from Pinang, attacked their former opponents, and after a severe struggle succeeded in driving them from the mines, of which they took possession.

Meanwhile, matters in Selangor were going from bad to worse. When Raja Mahdie escaped from Johore he made his way up the Linggi river, which forms the northern boundary of Malacca, and with the connivance of the chiefs and some of the native population he was enabled to escape the eyes of the British troops. It was hoped that matters had quieted down, but in October the faction fight broke out afresh with renewed violence. The defeated party, having obtained assistance, largely from Pinang, attacked their former opponents, and after a severe struggle succeeded in driving them from the mines, of which they took possession.

Sir Harry Ord hoped rather than expected that in the arrangement he had made he had advanced a good step towards adjusting the difficulties which had for so long a period existed in Selangor. But he had not taken sufficient account of the natural and economic conditions of the territory which were in active being all over the peninsula. Before very long the position changed materially for the worse. The assistance asked of the Bendahara of Pahang by Tunku Dia Oodon was duly forthcoming, and with its aid the tide was soon turned in Tunku’s favour. The British Government was invited to send one of its allies and a series of forts were captured, and finally, after a long blockade, Kuala Lumpur, the chief town of the State, now the flourishing head-quarters of the Federation, fell into Tunku’s hands. The advantage was somewhat dearly purchased, for the Invasion of the Pahang force introduced a fresh disturbing factor into this trying difficult period.

In October, 1873, Sir Harry Ord left for England, bearing with him a vivid impression of the increasing gravity of the situation which he left behind him. Some little time earlier he had forwarded home a suggestive memorial, drawn up by practically every leading Chinese merchant in the country, pointing out the lamentable condition into which the Malay States had been allowed to fall, and imploring the Government to give their attention to the matter. As evidence of the overwhelming desire there was at the period for British intervention on the part of the peaceful native community the document is of great interest. But perhaps its chief value to-day lies in its impartial testimony to the beneficent fruits of British rule. After drawing a lurid picture of the anarchy which everywhere prevailed, the memorialists contrasted the condition of the disturbed country with that of Johore: “As an example of what the moral influence of British authority on the Malay State we would point to the neighbouring territory of Johore, whose prosperous and peaceful condition and steady progress is due as well to the liberality and foresight of its present ruler as to the English influences which have of late years been brought to bear upon the Mahajaleel Dia Oodon. The general tenor of the advice informed from the highest authority contains some seventy thousand Chinese, amongst whom are
twenty or thirty Chinese traders, who are possessed of property and capital valued at from twenty thousand to thirty thousand dollars.

Your Excellency will thus see that the above circumstances have so restricted the field for trade round the British settlements in these waters that it becomes necessary for us to seek elsewhere openings for commerce, and our eyes anxiously turn to the Malay Peninsula, which affords the finest field for the enterprise of British subjects, and from whence we may hope to reinvigorate that commercial prosperity which our industry has hitherto secured for us.

In former days it was the duty of the Governors and Resident Councillors of the settlements to maintain intimate relations with the States of the peninsula. If complaints were made of misconduct on the part of the native chiefs or any of their headmen, or of outrages committed by them on the legitimate trader, an investigation was ordered and redress afforded. By a constant attention to the state of affairs in these territories, and by the rendering of advice and assistance in their regulation, the officials of Government obtained such an influence over the natives as to be able without the use of force to insure the security of the trader and the order of the country.

The policy pursued by the Government of the day might, the petitioners said, be in accordance with the view which European Governments took of their responsibilities to each other, but its application to the half civilised States of the Malay Peninsula (whose inhabitants are as ignorant as children) is to assume an amount of knowledge of the world and an appreciation of the elements of law and justice which will not exist amongst those Governments until your petitioners and their descendants of several generations have passed away." The memorialists concluded: "We ask for no privileges or monopolies; all we pray of our most gracious Queen is that she will protect us when engaged in honest occupations, that she will continue to make the privilege of being one of her subjects the greatest that we can enjoy, and that by the counsel, advice, and enterprise of her representative in this colony, she will restore peace and order again in those States, so long connected with her country, not only by treaty engagements but by filial attachment, but which, in consequence of the policy now pursued towards them, are rapidly returning to their original state of lawlessness and barbarism.

It was impossible for the Home Government to ignore a memorial couched in such pointed language without doing grave injury to British prestige, not merely in the Straits Settlements but throughout the Far East. Accordingly, when at the close of 1873 Major-General Sir Andrew Clarke, K.C.B., went out as Sir Harry Ord's successor, he took with him definite instructions from Lord Kimberley to make a new and important departure in the policy of dealing with the Malay States. In a letter dated September 20, 1873, in which acknowledgment of the receipt of the petition of the Chinese traders is made, Lord Kimberley wrote:

"Her Majesty's Government have, it need hardly be said, no desire to interfere in the internal affairs of the Malay States. But looking to the long and intimate connection between them and the British Government, as shown in the treaties which have at various times been concluded and the well-being of the British settlements themselves, Her Majesty's Government feel it incumbent upon them to employ such influence as they possess with the native Princes to rescue, if possible, these fertile and productive countries from the ruin which must befall them if the present disorders continue unchecked.

"I have to request that you will carefully ascertain, as far as you are able, the actual condition of affairs in each State, and that you will report to me whether there are, in your opinion, any steps which can properly be taken by the Colonial Government to promote the restoration of peace and order and to secure protection to trade and commerce with the native territories. I should wish you especially to consider whether it would be advisable to appoint a British officer to reside in any of the States. Such an appointment could, of course, only be made with the full consent of the native Government, and the expenses connected with it would have to be defrayed by the Government of the Straits Settlements."

Sir Andrew Clarke's responsibilities were enormously lightened by these instructions, which practically conceded the principle for which traders and officials alike in the Straits had been pleading for many years. But the situation he had to face when he reached Singapore on November 4, 1873, was one of the most critical. In the weeks preceding his arrival the troubles had indeed increased in seriousness. The chief storm centre was Larut. As has been briefly noted, the country was the battle-ground of two Chinese factions—the See Kwans (or four district men) and the Go Kwans (or five district men). These men, from different parts of China, were traditionally at enmity, but their feud had blazed into stronger flame owing to the absence of any controlling authority in the disturbed area. For a proper understanding of the position we may with advantage quote from a memorandum drawn up by Mr. Irving, the Resident General, a sketch of the history of Larut anterior to these events. In the reign of a previous Sultan, Jafar of Perak, there was a trader of considerable importance at Bukit Gantiang, several miles beyond the tin mines, of the name of Inchi Long Jafar. This individual was placed in charge of a district, which was then limited to the river and the mines, without any title, and in this office he probably received all the revenues of Larut. Each successive Sultan confirmed the appointment on attaining to power, and when Inchi Jafar died, his brother Inchi Nghar Larut succeeded him to take Inchi Nghar was succeeded by Nghar Ibrahim. Before this last-named personage attained to power the long protracted feud of the Chinese factions had broken out. The first attack was made by the Cheng Sia (or Go Kwans) upon the See Chew (or See Kwans) and the latter came off victorious. Nghar Ibrahim appears to have sided with the victorious party, and it is certain that he dated his rise in fortune from this point. One of the leaders of the defeated party, a British subject, complained to the Resident Councillor of Pinang of the loss he had suffered. This resulted in two visits to Perak of a man-of-war carrying letters from Governor Cavenagh with a demand (enforced by a blockade of the river Larut) for an indemnity amounting to 17,447 dollars to recoup the defeated party the injury done. The Sultan treated the indemnity as a forfeit due from Nghar Ibrahim. He, moreover, confirmed the government of Larut upon Nghar Ibrahim. This appointment was apparently in consideration of his having found the indemnity money. The Sultan soon afterwards promoted Nghar Ibrahim to the high office of Orang Kaya Mantri of Perak, one of the four chief officers, and before long he was acknowledged to be practically the independent ruler of Larut, including a district between the river Krian on the north and the river Brans on the south. The Laksamana's name seems to have been added merely to give weight to the appointment; he had never held authority in Larut. From that period until 1872 the Mantri enjoyed all the royalties and other revenues of the country. These had much increased with the growth of the Chinese population, whose numbers at the close of 1871 amounted to forty thousand, while the imports that year into Pinang of tin, the greater part of which came from Larut, amounted to 1,276,518 dollars. Circumstances, however, had already occurred to show that he was losing his control over the miners; and when Cavenagh's birthday, 1872, occasioned between the two factions, he was practically powerless. As has been stated, the fighting resulted in the complete defeat of the Go Kwan party and their expulsion from the country. With August, 1872, opened the second stage of the Larut disturbances. On August 27th the Mantri addressed a letter to

Lieut.-Gen. Sir Andrew Clarke.
the Lieutenant-Governor of Pinang (Mr. Cambelt), in which he made bitter complaints of "the trouble that had now befallen him." He asserted that the Go Kowns were collecting to attack him, and that many of his relatives were siding with them. On the 6th of September the Lieutenant-Governor, in forwarding papers on the subject, reported that he feared there was much bad feeling abroad, as evidenced by the attempt made a few days before to stab Ho Gic Siew, the chief of the victorious See Kwan faction. The following day on the 7th, the Governor, Sir Tye Sin, one of the principal Chinese in Pinang, forwarded a petition signed by forty-four Chinese traders directly accusing the Mantri of having assisted to the proceedings of the See Kwans, and claiming protection from the Government. This seems to have been designed as an announcement of their intention to reddenuce hostilities. It was followed, at all events, on the 16th of October by the departure from Pinang of a large junk manned with one hundred Chinese and armed with twelve 3-pounder guns. In anticipation of fighting, the Lieutenant-Governor proceeded in H.M.S. "Nassau" to Larut. He returned to Pinang on the 18th. The Governor, in remarking on his proceedings, observed that he should have required the junk to desist from their illegal proceedings, which were in contravention of the provisions of the Penal Code. In consequence of this a proclamation was issued in Pinang, sanctioning the sections of the Code bearing upon the matter. But the mischief had been done. The two factions were engaged in a deadly fight, and, thanks to the assistance from Pinang, the See Kwans were ousted from the mines. With them went the Mantri, who had got into bad odour with both parties.

Meanwhile affairs along the coast had assumed a condition of such gravity as to necessitate the adoption of special measures by the British authorities. Early in August, owing to attacks on boats and junks near Province Wellesley, H.M.S. "Middle" had been sent to patrol that part of the straits. Some piratical craft were captured, but the force available was too small to cope with the matter. But the Muda was skillfully and successfully evaded the man-of-war's boats by sending their larger vessels to sea and concealing their war boats and prahus in the numerous creeks along the sea-board. On September 16th the "Middle's" boat, while proceeding up the Larut river, was fired upon by the faction opposing the Mantri, who held the banks. The fire was briskly returned, but owing to the native pilotbolting below on the firing of the first shot, the boat got ashore and the position of the inmates was for a time one of some danger. It was off eventually, but not before two officers had been seriously wounded. In consequence of this outrage Captain Woolcombe, the senior naval officer in the station, proceeded in H.M.S. "Thalassa" to the Larut river, and on the 20th of September an attack was made under his direction upon the enemy's position. The stockade was carried in a brilliant manner, and three junks forming part of the defences were also captured. Having disembarked all the guns and spiked them, and thrown the small arms found in the stockade into the river, Captain Woolcombe burnt the junks. Afterwards he directed his forces against another stockade farther up the river. By this time the enemy had lost their zest for the fight, and the British contingent met with little further opposition. The punishment administered had a great moral effect on the piratical faction. From three thousand to four thousand of the See Kwans there and then tendered their submission, and there can be no doubt that if the success had been followed up an end would have been made to the struggle which had for so long a period raged in the district. As things were, the fighting continued in a desultory fashion for some time longer, a hand being taken in the later phases by Captain T.C. Speedy, who had resigned his post as Port-Officer of Pinang to assist the Mantri with a specially recruited force of Indians.

Mr. W. A. Pickering's first business on taking up the reins of government was to thoroughly acquaint himself with the situation in all its aspects. He was not long in coming to the conclusion that the anarchy must be stopped by the action of the Government, but as to what that action should be he was not quite clear. A proposal to invoke the intervention of the Malay rulers was rejected as absolutely hopeless, and a suggestion that the Chinese Government should be asked to send a man darin to play the part of mediator was found equally objectionable. Direct intervention appeared to be also out of the question because the Government was suspect owing to its having favoured one party. Eventually, as a last resource Sir Andrew Clarke empowered Mr. W. A. Pickering, an able official who had charge of Chinese affairs at Singapore, to seek out the headmen and sound them informally as to whether they would accept the Governor as an arbiter in their quarrel. Such was Mr. Pickering's influence over the Chinese and their trust in his integrity, that he had little difficulty in persuading them to submit the dispute to Sir Andrew Clarke for an adjustment. This important point gained, Sir Andrew Clarke lost no time in taking action.

He immediately issued invitations to the Perak chiefs and the Chinese headmen to a conference, which he fixed for January 14th at the Dindings. Arriving at the rendezvous on the 12th, the Governor had several interviews with the chiefs, separately and together. He was agreeably surprised to find the Raja Muda a man of considerable intelligence, and possessing perfect confidence in his ability to maintain his position if once placed in Perak as its legitimate ruler. All the chiefs except the Perak, however, did not once hope to receive him as their sovereign. Therefore, at the final meeting on the 20th of January, Sir Andrew Clarke announced his intention to support the Raja Muda. As regards the Chinese disputants, an arrangement was come to under which the leaders of both factions pledged themselves under a penalty of 50,000 dollars to keep the peace towards each other and towards the Malays and to complete the disarmament of their stockades. A commission of three officers was appointed to settle the question of the right to the mines and to endeavour to discover and release a number of women and children held captive by the victorious party.

As one of the outcomes of the conference we have the Treaty of Pangkor of June 20, 1874, giving force to the arrangements already detailed as to the Dindings and Province Wellesley, and containing these important provisions:

"That the Sultan receive and provide a suitable residence for the British Resident, to be called Resident, who shall be accredited to his Court, and whose advice must be asked and acted upon in all questions other than those touching Malay religion and custom.

"That the collection and control of all revenues and the general administration of the country be regulated under the advice of these Residents.

"Thus at once stroke the British Government, for good or for evil, was committed to that active intervention in Malay affairs from which it had shrunk with almost morbid dislike for a century. It was not without trepidation that Sir Andrew Clarke reported what he had done to the Sultan, for he was perfectly aware," he wrote, "that I have acted beyond my instructions, and that nothing but very urgent circumstances would justify the step I have taken, but I have every confidence that her Majesty's Government will feel that the circumstances at the time—the utter stoppage of all trade, the daily loss of life by the piratical attacks on even peaceful traders and by the fighting of the factions themselves, and the imminent peril of the disturbances extending to the Chinese in our own settlement—justified me in assuming the responsibility I have taken." The Governor did not lack backing at this important juncture. The Straits Government had several times sent a communication to the Colonial Secretary on March 6, 1874, expressing entire satisfaction with the proceedings and intimating that they considered the negotiations so successfully carried out by Sir Andrew Clarke as constituting the most important step that has for many years been taken by the British Government in the Straits of Malacca—for they were not only valuable in themselves, but involved principles
"capable of a wide and beneficent extension in the neighbouring territories."

It now remained to give effect to the arrangements which Sir Andrew Clarke had made under cover of the general instructions given to him by Lord Kimberley. The task was not an easy one, for the country had been so long under the domination of the fomenters of disorder that it was difficult for a mere handful of Englishmen, backed by no physical force, or very little, to win it over to the paths of peace. However, the Commissioners, three

women and children, and finally crossed the defile between the Larut and Perak valleys, reached the bank of the Perak river at Kuala Kangsa, secured a country boat, and in her paddled a hundred miles down the Perak river to the village of Sultan Abdullah, where they found their steamer and returned to Pinaung, having completely accomplished their mission."

About the same period as the Commission was prosecuting its investigations a portion of the China Fleet, under the Admiral, Sir Charles

the Sultan's village in his yacht and invited the chief to visit him to talk matters over. The old fellow obeyed the summons, and proved a most interesting, and, in some respects, entertaining guest. Mr. Irving, who saw him at the time, described him as "an elderly-looking gentleman of fifty or sixty years of age, an opium-smoker, but not to excess, having his senses perfectly about him, and quite able to manage his affairs if he pleased; but from indolence he had got into the habit of not himself interfering so long as he was left at

British officials and a Chinaman, the head of the See Kwan faction, embarked upon their duties with a resolute determination to succeed, if success was possible. Sir Frank Swettenham, who was one of the trio of officials, gives in his book a moving picture of the obstacles encountered by the Commissioners in what were then the almost impenetrable wilds of Larut. "The Commission," he says in summarising their proceedings, "visited many out-of-the-way places in the Larut, Krian, and Selima districts, in search of the captive

Shadwell, was demonstrating off Selangor the determination of the Government to suppress once for all the piracy which was rife off that coast. The incident which had led to this display of power was the pirating of a large Malacca boat at the entrance of the Jugra river, a tidal creek communicating with the Langat river. The case was a bad one, and it lost nothing of its gravity in the eyes of the British authorities from the circumstance that the Sultan's sons were implicated in it. Sir Andrew Clarke went up the Langat river to peace to enjoy himself in his own way—a rather careless heathen philosopher, who showed his character in one of the conversations on the subject of piracy, when he said, "Oh! those are the affairs of the boys!" (meaning his sons). "I have nothing to do with them." Sir Frank Swettenham knew the Sultan intimately, and he gives a sketch of him which tallies with this description. The Sultan was supposed, he said, to have killed ninety-nine men with his own hand, and he did not deny the imputation. He was "a spare, wizened man, with a
kindly smile, fond of a good story, and with a strong sense of humour. His amusements were gardening (in which he sometimes showed remarkable energy), hoarding money and time, of which he was supposed to have a very large store buried under his house, and smoking opium to excess."

Sir Andrew Clarke took the old fellow in hand, and gave him a thoroughly undiplomatic talking to on the disgraceful state of affairs in his State. The Sultan, so far from resenting this treatment, entered quite into the spirit of the Government's proposal and did almost to forward them. He was as good as his word; and when in due course the prisoners had been tried by the Viceroy and sentenced to death, he sent his own kris for use at the execution. The episode had a most salutary effect upon the pirates of the locality. There was plenty of good feeling in the State itself, but piracy did not again raise its head in a serious form. Meanwhile, affairs were proceeding satisfactorily in Larut. Mr. Birch, the Colonial Secretary, who made a tour of the area early in 1874, was greatly impressed with all he saw. He found the Resident basing his administration on laying out streets and building lots, and was surprised to find many respectable and substantial houses already constructed. All around was an animated scene of industry and good-will, where only a few weeks before there was nothing but misery, ruin, and bloodshed. The road to the mines, which had been given over to the Go Kwan, was in very fair condition, and the old carts along eight miles of its length, shops were rapidly being opened, and large bodies of men were engaged in reopening the mines. Mr. Birch added these details, which are of interest as an indication of the whole-hearted way in which the settlement arranged by Sir Andrew Clarke was being followed. The "See Kwan mines are situated about two miles further, and here also a small township was forming rapidly, and it is anticipated that a few months hence this road also will be completed. The miners here are already at work, and although a short time ago a deadly feud of some years' duration existed between these two factions, the See Kwan miners are now to be seen daily bartering at the shops and feeding at the eating-houses in the Go Kwan town. The Chinese have already opened gardens, and even in these few weeks a fair supply of vegetables was available.

"The results of the tour may be considered to be satisfactory. The greatest courtesy and kindness were exhibited by the chiefs and inhabitants of all the villages except Blanja; and in the interior a good deal of curiosity was evinced by the natives, some of whom had never seen a white man before. The whole country traversed was at peace, and there is no reason to suppose that the appointment of British Residents will foster the feeling of security that now prevails, and thus tend to develop the resources of the peninsula."

Unhappily, these sanguine expectations were not realised; but it was so generally believed that the Residential principle would cure once for all the grievous malady from which the Malay States were suffering, that when, on September 15, 1874, the Government of the Straits Settlements had occasion to seek sanction for an expenditure of 54,000 dollars on account of the expenses incurred in putting the new arrangements into operation, the grant was made by the Legislative Council with unanimity, and even enthusiasm.

CHAPTER IX.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RESIDENTIAL SYSTEM—MURDER OF MR. BIRCH.

When the Residential system was introduced into the Malay States by Sir Andrew Clarke in the circumstances described in the previous chapter, it was hoped that at last a remedy had been found for the misgovernment and anarchy in Malaya which the country had been groaning for generations. Neither the authorities on the spot nor the Government at home had, however, made sufficient allowance for the tenacity of the evil system which it was hoped to obliterate by moral suasion exercised by a few British officials. Too much reliance was probably placed on the superficial working of the Resident system in India. It was forgotten, or at least overlooked, that the conditions under which this form of supervision was exercised in that country were totally different to those existing in the Malay States. In India the native chiefs had been accustomed by generations of usage to regard the British official as the supreme ex-potent of the views of the sarkar. Experience, oftentimes bitter, had taught them that it was useless to kick against the pricks, and they knew that though an official might be changed the system would exist, dislike it as they might. Quite different was the position of the Resident, who had no such superior to check his independence of character, and with their naturally pugnacious qualities sharpened by generations of incessant strife, he had to be brought to the realisation of the existence of a new influence which meant for many of them the loss of much that went to make life, if not enjoyable, at least interesting. It was the old story of a man trying to accomplish a great work with inadequate means. The Government wanted to bring the Malay States under their control, and they foolishly, as it seems to-day, as it ought to have appeared even then, expected they could achieve the desired result by simply placing their agents at particular points to direct the perverse Malay character into the paths of peace rather than into those of rapine and demoralising inter- nevic war. A rude awakening awaited the authorities before the new arrangements had been long in operation.

The new régime was ushered in by a proclamation issued by Sir Andrew Clarke in November, 1874, announcing the introduction, with the sanction of the Secretary for the Colonies, of arrangements for the control of the Malay States, and intimating that the Government would hold those concerned to the strict observance of their engagements. At the same time the additional appointments were made public: Mr. J. W. Birch, Resident of Perak on a salary of £2,000 a year, with Captain Speedy as Assistant Resident at Larut on £1,500 a year; Mr. J. G. Davidson, Resident of Selangor (attending on the Viceroy Tunjo Dta Oodin) on £1,500 a year, with Mr. (after- wards Sir) F. A. Sweetenham as Assistant on £750 a year. Captain Talhau M.A., was appointed, as a temporary measure, Assistant Resident of Selangor. At the outset all seemed fairly plain sailing. The Residents' authority was outwardly respected, their advice was listened to, and the revenue in Larut, which under the Treaty was to be collected by his Britannic Majesty's tributary, was increased. But beneath the surface there was a smouldering discontent ready to burst into flame, given the proper amount of provocation. And the provocation was not wanting. It was forthcoming in numerous ways from the moment that the British officials, with their notions of imperial energetically in their right of wrongs, of which Perak at that period furnished abundant examples. One practice against which he set his face resolutely was the custom of debt slavery, under which individuals—even women and children—were held in bondage to their debtors for payments due. How this degrading usage existed is well told in an extract told by Captain Speedy in one of his early reports. One day a Malay policeman asked him for the loan of 25 dollars. On inquiring the reason for this request, Captain Speedy was told that the money was required to secure the liberation of an aunt who was a slave debtor to a man in a certain village. She had fallen into slavery under the following circumstances. Some six months previously the woman was passing by a village when she met an acquaintance and stopped to converse with her. Taking a stone from the roadside, the man's aunt placed it on the pathway, and sat down to rest meanwhile. When she departed she left the stone on the path. About an hour afterwards a child from the village came running along the path, and her foot catching against the stone, she fell, and slightly cut her forehead. Inquiries were made as to how the stone came in the path, and the fact of the aunt having placed it there becoming known, she was arrested on the spot and sentenced to pay 25 dollars. Being poor and totally unable to pay, she and her children became, according to the
Malay phrase, "barulating"—or slaves—to the father of the child who had been hurt. Captain Speedy paid the fine, and secured the release of the woman and her children, but not without considerable difficulty. Such a system, of course, was utterly subversive of all personal rights, but it was a usage which had immemorial sanction amongst the Malays, and they adhered to it with a tenacity characteristic of a people who are deeply attached to their national habits. Mr. Birch's efforts to suppress it, persistently and resolutely prosecuted, were bitterly resented, and by none more than by the chiefs, who were amongst the worst offenders. The almost natural results followed. "The chiefs of every grade," says Sir Frank Swettenham, "made common cause against a Resident who scourged the country, impounded into and pushed home their evil deeds, and endeavoured to put a stop to them. Therefore, some began to conspire to compass his death or removal, and others looked idly on, conscious of what was brewing, but not anxious to take a hand if they could avoid it. Only the poor and oppressed recognised and were grateful for all the many kindnesses they received from the Resident; for when he was not busy finding out all about the country and its resources, or writing instructions and suggestions for its development and administration, he was tending the sick or giving generous help to those most in need of it. Unfortunately, he did not speak Malay or understand the customs and prejudices of the people, and to this cause more than any other his death must be attributed."

Before the circumstances under which Mr. Birch was killed are narrated, it is necessary to make a survey of the general position as it existed in the months immediately preceding the deplorable event. When Sir W. F. D. Jervois arrived in Singapore as the successor to Sir Andrew Clarke at the end of May, 1875, he found himself confronted with reports from the Residents revealing a very unsatisfactory state of affairs in the Malay States. There was considerable unrest and an increasing disposition on the part of the chiefs to oppose the Residencies. The new Governor set himself to study very carefully the problem with which it was obvious he would soon have to deal—the problem of harmonising British supervision of the States with a proper regard for native rights and susceptibilities. He came to the conclusion, after several months' investigation, that it would be wise for him to examine the situation on the spot, with the help of those best in a position to give him advice and assistance. Accordingly he proceeded to Perak, interviewed Sultan Abdullah, Raja Ismail, and Raja Yusuf, conferred with Mr. Birch and Mr. Davidson, and then returned to Singapore. The impression he obtained from his journey was that the arrangements made by his predecessor had broken down, and that a change in the system with a worst repute in Perak, and distribute the proclamations in the Upper Country, returning about the 3rd of November to meet Mr. Birch at Pasir Sâlak, the village of the Maharaja Lela, five miles above Bandar Êburu. Mr. Birch, meanwhile, was to go down river and distribute the proclamations amongst Abdullah's adherents, where no trouble was expected, and we were to joint forces at Pasir Sâlak because the Maharaja Lela was believed to have declared that he would not take instructions from the Resident, and it was known that he had built himself a new house and had recently been protecting it by a strong earthwork and palisade. Therefore, to be sure he would be there. What was only disclosed long afterwards was that, as soon as he had consented to the new arrangement, Abdullah summoned his chiefs (including the Maharaja Lela and the Dato' Sâgor) and loaded his boats with rice, went to Bandar Êburu, on the opposite bank of the river to Pasir Sâlak) and told them that he had handed over the government of the country to Mr. Birch. The Maharaja Lela, however, said that he would not accept any orders from the Resident, and if Mr. Birch came to his Kampong he would kill him. Asked whether he really intended to keep his word, he replied that he certainly meant it. The Dato' Sâgor also said that he was of one mind with the Maharaja Lela. The meeting then broke up and the members returned to their own villages. Later, when the proclamations arrived, the Sultan again sent for the chiefs, showed them the papers, and asked what they thought of them. The Laksamâna said, 'Down here, in the lower part of the river, we must accept them.' But the Maharaja Lela said, 'In my Kampong, I will not allow any white man to post these proclamations. If they insist, there will certainly be a fight.' To this the Sultan and the other chiefs said, 'Very well.' The Maharaja Lela immediately left, and, having loaded his boats with rice, returned up river to his own Kampong."

Mr. Swettenham left Bandar Êburu at noon on October 28th, and as he went up stream Mr. Birch was proceeding down. The further Mr. Swettenham went up the river the more threatening became the talk. He, however, posted his proclamations at various points without encountering any overt act of hostility. On November 4th, his work being done, he started down river, intending to spend the night at Blanja; but on arriving there he was told that Mr. Birch had been killed by the Maharaja Lela's people at Pasir Sâlak on November 2nd. The news induced him to continue his journey, and though he had been informed that the river had been blocked at Pasir Sâlak with the object of intercepting him, his boats passed that danger point without being challenged. At daylight the next morning he returned up the river to Bandar Êburu and there and afterwards heard the details of Mr. Birch's assassination. He had done his work in the lower country more quickly than he expected, and reached Pasir Sâlak at midnight on November 1st with three boats, containing the Resident, Lieut. Abbott, R.N., a guard of twelve Sikhs, an orderly, a Malay interpreter, and a number of troopers. In all the party numbered about forty men, and they had grains and ammunition. They anchored in midstream for the night, and at daylight hauled to the bank, when Mr. Abbott crossed to the other side of the river to shoot snipe, and Mr. Birch sent a message to the Maharaja Lela to say that he would be glad to see him, either at the boats, with him from Singapore a bundle of the documents and handed them over to Mr. Birch at Bandar Êburu. "I found him," writes the gifted administrator (whose vivid narrative of this tragic episode in the history of the Malay States is the best account of the occurrences extant) "suffering from a sprained ankle and only able to walk with the help of crutches. Lieut. Abbott, R.N., and four bluejackets were with him, and on the night of my arrival the sergeant-major of Mr. Birch's Indian guard (about eighty Polhams, Sikhs, and Punjabs) behaved so badly that he had to be confined in the guard-room, while his men were in a state bordering on mutiny."

"It was then arranged that I should go up river to a village called Kota Lama, above Pekan, and distribute the proclamations in the Upper Country, returning about the 3rd of November to meet Mr. Birch at Pasir Sâlak, the village of the Maharaja Lela, five miles above Bandar Êburu. Mr. Birch, meanwhile, was to go down river and distribute the proclamations amongst Abdullah's adherents,
or in his own house. To the interpreter the message said, "I have nothing to do with Mr. Birch."

Some days earlier the Maharaja Lela had summoned all his people and told them that Mr. Birch would shortly come to Pásir Sálik, and if he attempted to post any notices there the orders of the Sultan and the down-river chiefs were that he should be killed. The people replied that if those were the orders they would have to obey, and the Maharaja Lela then handed the message to a man called Panduk Indut, his father-in-law, and told the people to take Panduk Indut's directions as though they were his own. Directly Mr. Birch arrived messengers were sent out to collect the people, and, before the sun was hot, there were already about seventy armed men on the bank above Mr. Birch's boats. The Dato' Ságór had come over from the other side (in the boat which had taken Mr. Abbott across), and he had seen and spoken to Mr. Birch and was now with the Maharaja Lela. By Mr. Birch's orders the interpreter posted a proclamation on the shop of a Chinese goldsmith, the Sikhs orderly standing at the door with a loaded revoler. The interpreter was putting up another copy of the proclamation when Panduk Indut tore it down, and as the interpreter remonstrated, Panduk Indut thrust a spear into him and cried out, 'Amok! Amok!' The crowd instantly rushed for the bath-house, and a terrible battle took place in the presence of the Resident's party within reach. Spears were thrust through the bath-house, and Mr. Birch sank into the river, coming to the surface just below the bath-house, when he was im-
mediately slashed on the head with a sword and was not seen again. Mr. Birch's Sikh orderly, who had just left the river bank, was the first man to be killed. Panduk Indut and the others were wounded; but the rest with great difficulty got away. Mr. Abbott, on the other bank, was warned of what had occurred, and managed to get a dugout and escape, running the fire from both banks.

Then the Maharaja Lela came out and asked who were those who had actually been hurt in the killing. Panduk Indut and the others at once claimed credit for the deed, and the chief ordered that only those who had struck blows should share in the spoils. Then he said, 'Go and tell the Laksámāna I have killed Mr. Birch.' The message was duly delivered, and the Laksámāna replied, 'Very well, I will inform the Sultan.' The same evening the Maharaja Lela sent Mr. Birch's boat to Blanja, with the letter to ex-Sultan Ismail describing what he had done. Ismail was much too clever to keep the boat, so he sent it back again. All the arms and other property were removed to the Maharaja Lela's house, and orders were given to build stockades, to stake the river, and to seek the Resident's station at Bandar Bháru. The party sent on this last errand returned without accomplishing their object; for when they got near the place it began to rain, and the people in the house where they took shelter told them that they would get a warm reception if they came to Bandar Bháru, which might be a different thing to murdering the Resident.

By the help of a friendly Malay, a foreigner, Mr. Birch's body was recovered and buried at Bandar Bháru on November 6th. The news of Mr. Birch's assassination speedily reached Singapore and created a painful sensation. 'The natives were daily coming in serious trouble with the Malays, but in the whole history of British dealings with the race, from the time that British power had become firmly established in the Straits, there had never been previously a case in which a leading official had been put to death in the treacherous circumstances in which Mr. Birch died.' Sir William Jervois took immediate steps to strengthen the British forces in the disturbed area. A detachment consisting of two officers and 60 men of the 10th Regiment was sent immediately from Pínang, and arrangements were made for further reinforcements. The Governor believed at the time that the murder was an isolated incident and that it might be dealt with without difficulty, and he cabled to the Government at home in that sense. But he was speedily disillusioned. The Pinang detachment, reinforced by four bluejackets and a small body of Sikhs, on attempting to carry Pásir Sálik, failed. Meanwhile ominous rumours were circulating among the native leaders in Selangor and the Negri Sambian. In the circumstances Sir William Jervois deemed it wise to make a requisition on the home Government for a considerable force of white troops to overcome the disaffected elements in the States and restore British prestige. He proposed the appointment of a special representative to superintend the equanimity of the authorities in Downing Street, whose natural dislike of "little wars" in this instance was accentuated by a belief that the trouble had been brought on by the high-handed policy of the Governor. Lord Carnarvon peremptorily cabled out for information and wanted to know why a force of 1,500 bayonets, with artillery, 90 miles of telegraphic apparatus, and a million of cartridges—the specific requisition made—should be required to deal with an "isolated outrage."

Sir William Jervois was absent from Singapore directing the preparations for the suppression of the disturbances when the message reached the Resident. He ordered the Colonies telegraphed again in urgent terms, intimating that the Government disapproved altogether of the Governor's policy, and that the troops which were being sent "must not be employed for annexation or other political objects. "Her Majesty's Government," the message proceeded, "cannot countenance the policy of the permanent retention of troops in peninsula to maintain Residents or other officers; and unless natives are willing to receive them on footing originally sanctioned of simply advising the ruling authorities I doubt whether their continuance in the country can be sanctioned." Lord Carnarvon followed this communication with a despatch in which he referred severely to "the grave errors of policy and of action" which had marked the Governor's policy. Sir William Jervois explained by cable that the large body of troops asked for was required for the re-
assertion of British authority, and to prevent the spread of the disturbances from one district to another. At a later period Lord Carnarvon again, and at much greater length, addressed Sir William Jervois, the despatch being a review of the former's own despatch of October 16th previously, in which he for the first time described the new policy which he was introducing. The Secretary for the Colonies referred particularly to a passage in this despatch in which the Governor said that before his interviews with the chiefs he had inclined to the opinion that the best course to adopt would be to declare Perak British territory; but that on weighing well the impor-
tance of the subject and his discussions with the chiefs, it did not appear to be expedient at present that this course should be adopted, and he had therefore determined, if the Sultan could be induced to agree, to adopt the policy of governing Perak by British officers in his name. Commenting on this, Lord Carnarvon very mildly remarked that he did not know how far the Governor's ideas had not been formed on an assumption of actual sovereignty, but what had been done constituted "large and important changes as to which you had no ground for supposing that her Majesty's Government would approve a very material departure from the policy which had been previously sanctioned. The Secretary for the Colonies, of course, have been right and proper, if he were convinced of the inefficacy of the existing arrangements, if he had laid his proposals before Government. But instead of doing that he at once issued a proclamation which altered the whole system of government and imposed a degree of personal interests, potential, apparently the crisis with which they had now to contend. The despatch suggested that if it had been found necessary to introduce a change of policy the telegraph ought to have been used. "I am altogether unable to understand how you came to omit this obvious duty," proceeded Lord Carnarvon. "I can only conclude that, being convinced of the soundness of your own judgment, you acted in lamentable forgetfulness of the fact that you had no authority whatever for what you were doing." Sir William Jervois's reply to these strictures cannot be described as convincing. He argued that the action he had taken was, said, merely a natural development of the policy introduced by Sir Andrew Clarke with the sanction of the Government. With more force he maintained that the condition of disorder into which the States had fallen could not have been allowed to continue without the serious detriment to British interests immediately, and possibly creating a situation later which would menace the stability of the
British possessions themselves. Lord Carnarvon, in acknowledging the despatch, reaffirmed his views, and gave emphatic instructions that no step affecting the political situation was to be taken by the Straits Government pending the consideration of the question of future policy by the Home Government. On June 1, 1876, Lord Carnarvon wrote sanctioning the continuance of the Residential system, and also approving the institution of Councils of State in the protected States. The despatch strongly insisted upon the exercise of caution in the execution of their duties.

While this angry controversy was proceeding a strong British force was operating in the disturbed area. At quite an early stage in the little campaign the local troops, reinforced by a naval brigade, had wiped out the initial failure at Pasir Salak, in which Captain Innes, K.E., had been killed, and two officers of the 10th Regiment severely wounded, by carrying the stockade at that point, and burning the villages of the Maharaja Lela and the Dato' Sagor. But the country by this time was thoroughly aroused, and the expeditionary force promised too large for the work in hand. The troops consisted of the 3rd (Buff's) Regiment, 600 strong, 500 officers and men of the 8th Regiment, 200 officers and men of the 10th Regiment, a battery and half of Royal Artillery, the 1st Gurkhas, 450 strong, and a party of Bengal sappers numbering 80 men. There was also a strong naval brigade, drawn from H.M.'s ships Modeste, Thistle, Philomet, Ringdore, and Fly. The whole were under the command of Major-General the Hon. F. Colborne, C.B., and Brigadier-General John Ross. With the headquarters of the China troops established at Handar Bhan, and with the Indian troops based at Kuala Kangsa, a series of expeditions was organized against the disturbances in the affected states under the Maharaja Lela, the Dato' Sagor, and the ex-Sultan Ismail. Transportation difficulties hampered the movements of the troops considerably; but eventually the Maharaja Lela was driven across the border into Kedah, and the country settled down. Perak continued to be occupied by British troops for some little time after the restoration of peace. Their presence had a good effect in convincing the natives that the old order had been changed irreversibly, and that length of time was to be replaced with a forceful, the outlook was perfectly peaceful. Meanwhile, however, the situation in the Negri Sambian was causing a good deal of anxiety. An attack on a survey party, despatched from Sungai Ujong across the border into Tenachil, led up to a series of military operations of a somewhat arduous character. The Malays fought with determination, and it required a very considerable force to dispose of them. They were ultimately driven off, thanks to the courageous action of Captain Channer, who, with a party of Gurkhas, rushed a stockade which commanded the rest of the defile. Indeed, this gallantry Captain Channer was awarded the Victoria Cross—a decoration which he had richly earned, for his act was not only a singularly brave one, but it was the main factor in bringing to a successful conclusion what might have been a long, wearisome, and costly business.

On the termination of the military operations, it only remained to mete out justice to those who had been directly concerned in Mr. Birch's assassination. Information collected by a Commission specially appointed to investigate the troubles largely pointed to the Sultan Abdurrahman, the Munsri, the Dato' Laksanuja, and the Dato' Shabandar as the accomplices of the Maharaja Lela and Pandak Indut in the crime. The four first mentioned were all executed by the Seychelles at a comparatively early period of the investigation. The Maharaja Lela and others, after eluding pursuit for several months, in July, 1879, gave themselves up to the Maharaja of Johore, and by him they were handed over to the British authorities. They were tried at Larut by a special tribunal composed of Raja Yusuf and Raja Husein, with Mr. Davidson and Mr. W. E. Maxwell as British assessors. They were found guilty and condemned to death. The Maharaja Lela, the Dato' Sagar, and Pandak Indut were executed. In the case of the other prisoners the sentences were commuted to imprisonment for life. Thus was a foul crime avenged. The punishment, though severe, was necessary to bring home to the population of the Malay States the determination of the British Government to protect its officials, and the certainty of retribution in cases in which injury was done to them. The Malays recognized the substantial justice of the sentences. The more influential of them took the view expressed by the two Rajas in announcing their judgment—that the accused had not only been guilty of murder, but of treason, since they had taken upon themselves to assassinate one who had been invited to the State by the responsible chiefs, and was in a sense the country's guest. Politically the trial and its sequel had a great and salutary influence throughout the peninsula. It was accepted as a sign that the British Government now really meant to assert itself, and would not longer tolerate the intrigues and machinations, which had for generations existed in the States. Opposition there continued to be for a good many years, as was natural, having regard to the Malay character, and the immensity of the change which the new order made in the national system of life. But there was no overt act of hostility, and gradually, as the benefits of peace and unhampered trade were brought home to them in tangible fashion, the inhabitants were completely won over to the side of progressive administration. Thus Mr. Birch, as Sir Frank Swettenham aptly says, did not die in vain. "His death freed the hands of the British Government, and was indirectly the means of bringing independence, justice, and comfort to tens of thousands of sorely oppressed people."

Lord Carnarvon's instructions that the Residential system was to be reinstituted with the sanction of the British Government, was interpreted by the Singapore authorities. They dealt with crushing severity with an official who seemed to them to go a little beyond the strict letter of his instructions. The offender was Captain Douglass, the Resident of Selangor. In the early part of 1879 a report was made to him that Tunku Panglima, the Panghul of Kuala Kanchong, near the entrance of the Jugra river, a member of the Mixed Council on 50 dollars a month, had offered a bribe of 40 dollars to Mr. Newbrunner, the Collector and Magistrate of the district, to influence him in a judicial proceeding. Captain Douglass had the peculant chief arrested, and subsequently ordered his removal from the Council and the reduction of his allowance by half to bring home to him the enormity of his offence. The matter was reported in due course to headquarters at Singapore, with results little anticipated by the Resident of Selangor. The Executive Council came to the unanimous resolution that the action of the Resident "was uncalled for and extra vires, and that he should be instructed to advise the Sultan to reinstate the Panglima Raja as a member of Council." Not content with this drastic measure, Sir W. C. F. Robinson, who in 1877 had succeeded Sir William Jervois as Governor on the latter's appointment to the defence of Australia, issued the following "Instructions to Residents": "His Excellency desires that you should be reminded that the Residents have been placed in the nature of dispensers of advice and direction, and if they take upon themselves to disregard this principle they will most assuredly be held responsible if trouble springs out of their neglect of it." Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, the successor of Lord Carnarvon as Colonial Secretary, took a very tolerant view of Captain Douglass's lapse. He approved the action of the Governor, as he was bound to do, having regard to the instructions issued from Downing Street by his predecessor, but he spoke of Captain Douglass's action as an "error of judgment," and indulgently remarked that he fully recognized the difficulty of the task imposed on the Residents, and was aware that much must be left to their discretion on occasions when prompt and firm action was called for. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's broad way of looking at this episode, we may assume, was not very effective upon his Government at Singapore and the Residental officials. It was, at all events, in the spirit of his dispatch rather than in consonance with the letter of the "Instructions to Residents" that the administration of the Malay States proceeded during the next few years. It was well that it was so, for such measures were the very foundation on which matters of principle—would have miltated.
direction more strikingly shown than in his
treatment of the delicate question of debt
slavery. It was obvious from the first that
the system was incompatible with British
notions of sound and just administration. But
to inaugurate a change was no easy task. The
practice was, as we have said, a cherished
Malay custom, and cut deeply into the home
life of the people. Moreover, abolition meant
money, and the State at that time was not
too well endowed with funds. The masterful
Resident, however, was not to be deterred by
these considerations from taking up the ques-
tion. He worked quietly to secure the good-
will of the chiefs, and having done this, forma-
lated a scheme by which the State should
purchase the freedom of all bond slaves, paying
to their masters a maximum sum of 30 dollars
for a male and 60 dollars for a female slave.
The proposals were duly laid before the Perak
Council, and after discussion unanimously
adopted, December 31, 1883, being fixed as
the final date for the confluence of the state
of slavery. The emancipation measures were
attended by some interesting results. Very
few freedmen consented to leave their masters
or mistresses, while the latter on their part
almost universally said that they set the slaves
free "for the glory of God," and refused to take
the State's money. "How can we take money
for our friends who have so long lived with us,
much of them born in our houses? We can
sell cattle, fruit or rice, but not take money
for our friends," "Such expressions," Sir
Frederick Weld wrote in a despatch dated May 3, 1883,
"have been used in very many cases in
different parts of Perak. Many slave children
whose own mothers are dead always call their
mistresses 'mother,' and the attachment is
reciprocal. In fine, this investigation has
brought into notice many of the fine qualities
of a most interesting and much maligned race,
and affords conclusive proof that the abuses
which are sure to co-exist with slavery could
not have been general, and bore no comparison
with those formerly often accompanying negro
slavery in our own colonies."

A rather unpleasant incident, which threatened
at one time to have very serious consequences,
arose out of the edict for the manumission
of slaves. Soon after the arrangements had
been put in force the inhabitants of the sub-district
of Lomboh, on the Perak river, a centre in
close vicinity and even enemy to that of Mr. Birch's
murder, declined to pay taxes, giving as one of
their reasons the abolition of slavery. They
refused to meet the Resident excepting by
proceeding as an armed body to Kuala Kangsa,
and declared that if they were defeated they
would disperse in small bands and harry the
country.

Everything was done by the British officials
and the Malay chiefs to bring the malcontents
to reason, but they stubbornly refused to listen,
and when approached, beat the mosque drum
as a call to the inhabitants to arms. In the
circumstances Mr. Low, the Resident, had no
alternative but to make a display of force, for,
as Sir Frederick Weld remarked in his despatch
to the Secretary of State on the subject, "to
have yielded to threats would have
destroyed all the good work we have done in
civilising and pacifying the country." He
therefore ordered a force of 100 armed police
and two guns to proceed down the river from
Kuala Kangsa, and himself proceeded up the
river from Teluk Anson in a boat. The
Lomboh people, seeing the Resident's deter-
ned attitude and impressed by the proximity
of his highly disciplined and effective force,
made a complete submission. They now
willingly paid their tax, and, expressing deep
contrition, promised most humbly never to
repeat the offence, but to petition in a quiet
way if they had a grievance. Accepting their
plea that they were "poor ignorant jungle
people," Mr. Low withdrew his warrant for
the arrest of the ringleaders, and so terminated
happily an episode which might with less
skillful handling have set the whole peninsula
astray once more.

In 1884, on Sir Hugh Low's retirement from
the Residency of Perak, Sir Cecil Smith, the
officer administering the government of the
Straits Settlements, reviewed the work done
in the State since the introduction of British
supervision. In 1876 the revenue of Perak
amounted to £143,310, and the expenditure
to £28,379 dollars. In 1883 the revenue
had reached a total of £147,330 dollars,
while the expenditure had grown to £1,360,610 dollars.
During the period of Sir Hugh Low's adminis-
tration debts to the amount of 800,000 dollars
incurred in connection with the disturbances
had been paid off, and the State was at the
point of the greatest cost only free from such
liabilities. There was a cash balance at the
close of the year of £254,040 dollars. As
to trade, the value of the imports was calculated
in 1876 at £31,375 dollars, and the exports at
£179,075 dollars. Similar returns for 1883 showed
the imports to have been valued at £48,615,540
dollars, and the exports £52,652,333 dollars. Put
in sterling, the aggregate value of the trade
was £2,000,000.
Sir Hugh Low in his farewell report himself summarises the results of his administration in these graphic sentences: "When I first entered upon the duties of the position of adviser to the State there was only one steamer trading between Penang and Larut, which was subsidised by the Government and made the voyage once in five or six days. There are now twelve steamers trading between Penang and Perak, two or three of which arrive at and depart from Larut daily; there are others plying to and fro between Penang and Singapore, calling at the intervening ports, so that, as is also shown by the returns, the trade has undergone a large development. The country has been opened up by excellent roads in the most important positions, and by a very extensive system of bridle paths in places of less consequence. Progress has been made in rendering rivers more navigable. A military police, consisting of infantry, artillery, and cavalry, second to none in the East, has been recruited, disciplined, and most fully equipped, and also supplies a most efficient fire brigade for the town of Taiping. Two considerable and prosperous towns have been built, one of which has a most abundant supply of excellent water conveyed to it in three miles of 8-inch pipes, is lighted with kerosene lamps, and in process of being connected with a new port by a metre-gauge railway eight miles in length. Very excellent barracks, large hospitals, courts of justice, commodious residences for all officers except the Resident, and numerous police stations and public buildings have been erected at the chief stations; a museum with a scientific staff and experimental gardens and farms established; the native foreign Eastern population conciliated; ancient animosities healed up, and all causes of disquietude removed. As compared with 1876, when 312,872 dollars were collected, the revenues of the State are now more than quadrupled, and the Treasury, rescued from insolvency, now contains a large balance available for further development of the resources of the State."

Sir Frederick Weld, who was Governor of the Straits Settlements from 1879 to 1887, took local opinion. He not only informed himself, but he took good care to keep the authorities at home thoroughly posted on all matters of importance. Bright little descriptions of his journeys were sent to the Colonial Office, and the said officials there, amid details of official receptions, read gossipy accounts of camp incidents or adventures with wild beasts. A few excerpts from these despatches may be appropriately introduced, as they give a sketch of the early administration of the States which is both lively and informing. Writing of a tour made in March, 1881, Sir Frederick Weld furnishes an interesting description of Kuala Lumpur. "The improvement in the town," he says, "was marked. The main road has been improved; neat, inexpensive police stations and good bridges have replaced decayed old ones, whilst several new buildings are in progress." A visit paid subsequently to Larut and Lower Perak was productive of an equally favourable impression. "At Teluk Anson, the headquarters of the last named district, I found great changes in progress. Many good buildings have been erected and the streets are well laid out. The canal, which saves eight miles of river navigation, is likely to be a success, and is nearly finished. The hospital is commodious and in good order."

Later in the year Sir Frederick Weld was again in Selangor, and he makes these references to his visit: "At Kanching, about 15 miles north of Kuala Lumpur, we passed through and by a considerable forest of camphor trees, many of them 200 feet high. This tract occupied by camphor trees is the largest of the kind known in the peninsula, and the only one on the western side of the range. The Malays fear to cut the trees, as they say the smell gives them fever. Mr. Gower, who is putting up tin-mining machinery in the neighbourhood, got seven Japanese to attempt cutting a tree, and they all actually did get fever. This is very remarkable, as camphor is usually considered to be a febrifuge. This forest must become of enormous value, and I
The revenue system adopted in the States under British supervision differed materially from that of the British settlements. Its leading features at the outset were an import duty on opium, spirits, and tobacco, a farm of the sole right to open gambling houses, various licence fees, quit rents, &c., an export duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem on all jungle produce and salt fish, and an export duty on tin. The last-named import was one of the stumbling blocks of the system, for it proved mainly due the remarkable development of the States. Without the steady and increasing flow to the exchequer of the tin receipts, the magnificent public works which are the most conspicuous feature of the federated area would have been luxuries beyond the attainment of the administration. Revenues, by the clearing of channels, and in this volume, it is only necessary to touch lightly upon the subject here. The earliest works undertaken were almost exclusively concerned with the improvement of communications. As was stated at the beginning of this historical sketch, when the British first re- entered that part of the Malay Peninsula, the States they found a practically roadless country. About the mines in Larut a few miles of ill-kept track, dignified by the name of road, served for purposes of transporting the tin to the coast, but this was an isolated example of enterprise. Communications, such as it was, was not only slow, but exceedingly difficult by reason of the rivers and waterways which formed the back of the roads. The British Residents quickly realized that if the States were to prosper there must be a system of internal and ultimately of inter-State communication established. The efforts were directed to two ends—the improvement of the waterways by the clearing of channels, and in the construction of roads. The former was a comparatively easy task, as in many cases all that was required was the expenditure of moderate sums on labour with the object of removing vegetation, which had accumulated to such an extent as to render the streams useless for navigation. The roads were less easy; they had to be driven for the most part through virgin forest land, and the work was a troublesome and costly business. The Resident of Selangor in 1882-83, in order to meet the demand for increased means of communication without putting too heavy a strain upon the public resources, bit upon the expedient of making the initial roadway a bridle-path 6 feet wide without metalling and with very simple and cheap bridges. Traffic arteries of this type were constructed at the low cost of $150 a mile, and they served all reasonable needs until the period when the growth of the State revenue justified the heavier expenditure involved in the construction of roads with permanent bridges. This plan was finally adopted in all the States with markedly successful results. The bridle-paths attracted settlers to the districts through which they passed, and soon a thriving population was to be found in districts which previously had been an uninhabited waste. When the population was large enough to justify the expenditure, and funds permitted, the permanent road was provided. In this way, bit by bit, was created a network of splendid roads, the like of which is not to be found anywhere in Asia, excepting perhaps in India. Side by side with road construction the Government proceeded to take measures for the settlement of the country. "Efforts," says Sir Frank Swettenham in his work, "were made to encourage the building of villages all over the country, and round the headquarters of every district settlers congregated, small towns were laid out, shops and markets were built, and everything was done to induce the people to believe in the permanence of the new institutions. The visitor who now travels by train through a succession of populous towns, or who lands at or leaves busy ports on the coast, can hardly realize the infinite trouble taken in the first fifteen years to coax Malays and Chinese and Indians to settle in the country, to build a better class of house than the flimsy shanties or adobes structure hitherto regarded as the height of all reasonable ambition. As the villages grew and the roads joined up the various mining fields and scattered hamlets, village councils, styled Sanitary Boards, were instituted to regulate the manufacture and sale of distilled spirits, provide a water supply, and the hundred and one improvements of rapidly growing centres of population. Every nationality is represented on these boards, and the members take an intelligent interest in municipal administration."

The construction of railroads was an inevitable consequence of the development of the interior of the States. The pioneer scheme was a line eight miles long between Taiping, the chief mining town in Larut, and Port Weld, on a deep-water inlet of the Larut river. Another and more ambitious scheme undertaken some little time before the line was opened for traffic in 1884 was a railway between Kuala Lumpur and Klang in Selangor, a distance of 22 miles. Funds for this work were lent by the Straits Settlements Government, but the loan was recalled long before the work was completed, and the State authorities had to get on as best they could without external aid. Fortunately the revenue at the time was in a highly satisfactory condition, and great difficulty was experienced in financing the venture out of current income. The line was an immediate success. In the first few months of working it achieved the remarkable result of earning a revenue which yielded a profit equal to 25 per cent. on the amount expended. From these comparatively small beginnings grew the great railway system which already has linked up the western districts of the peninsula, and which is destined probably in the not remote future to be the important final section of a great continental system of railways.

On the purely administrative side the work of supervision was not less effective than in the practical construction. A judicial system was built up on lines suited to the needs of the population, educational machinery was started with special provision for the principal racial sections of which the inhabitants were composed, a land settlement system was devised, hospitals and dispensaries were started, and a magnificent police force, partly Indian, partly Malay—was created. In fine, the States were gradually equipped with all the essential institutions of a progressive community.
departments of the Federated Malay States Government grew may be left to be told by other writers. It is sufficient here to say that, with trivial exceptions, the work has been marked by a measure of successful achievement which is worthy of the most brilliant examples of British administration.

In 1888 the British responsibilities in the peninsula were increased by the addition of Pahang to the list of protected States. This State stood suspiciously apart when the other States were brought into the sphere of British influence, and it resolutely repelled all over-}

authorities at Singapore, who saw in it only another indication of the perversity independence of the chief. They had, however, only to wait for an opportunity for intervention. It came one day when a more than usually brutal outrage was perpetrated upon a British subject with the connivance of the ruler. Satisfaction was demanded by Sir Clementi Smith, the then Governor of the Straits, and was refused. The position was becoming critical when the chief, acting mainly on the advice of the Maharaja of Johore, expressed regret for what had occurred and asked for the appointment of a British the adjoining States, there to be either killed or captured by the Siamese. Pahang has never had reason to regret the decision taken by its chief to join the circle of protected States. In the seventeen years ending 1906 which followed the introduction of the Residential system, its revenue increased tenfold and its trade expanded from an insignificant total to one approximating five million dollars in value.

The remarkable progress made by the protected States and the consequent widening of the administrative sphere brought into prominence the necessity of federation in order to
the project. Sir Charles Mitchell, after mature consideration of the question, forwarded a recommendation in favour of the scheme, subject, however, to its receiving the approval of the ruling chiefs. Mr. Chamberlain in his turn gave conditional sanction to the federation idea.

The new system was formally introduced on July 1, 1896, with Sir Frank Swettenham as the first Resident-General. Kuala Lumpur was selected as the headquarters of the federal departments, and here gradually grew up a series of fine public buildings in keeping with the importance of the federated area. Now, with an important trunk railway running through it, a network of roads radiating from it to all important points, and a considerable residential population, it vies in dignity and size with the chief towns of many Crown colonies. In matters of government the fruits of the federation were quickly seen in various directions. A Judicial Commissioner (Mr. Lawrence Jackson, Q.C.) was appointed to try capital charges and hear appeals from the magisterial courts. Simultaneously there was a reorganisation of the magisterial system, and counsel for the first time were admitted to plead in the Malay State Courts. At a later period the judicial bench was strengthened by the addition of two Assistant Commissioners, and a Public Prosecutor was appointed to facilitate criminal procedure. Other changes were the appointment of a Financial Commissioner, and the reorganisation of the whole financial system, the amalgamation of the police forces and the Public Works Departments of the several States, and the institution of a Railway Department, with a General-Manager as head of the entire system. Further, a regiment known as the Malay States Guides was constituted for purposes of defence. This is a splendid force, 900 strong, recruited from the war-like Indian races and officered by officers seconded from the British Army. Finally, an elaborate trigonometrical survey has been set on foot on a uniform system, a department for the conservation of forests has been created, Geological and Agricultural Departments established, and an institute for medical research under the direction of a highly-trained pathologist provided.

This was the practical outcome of federation as it affected the administration. In less tangible ways it has worked a great change in the States. One of its most notable influences has been the tightening of the bonds of sympathy between the various parts of the federated area and the creation of a sentiment of pride in the prosperity and greatness of the common country. This phase of federation was brought out very strongly in July, 1897, when a Conference of Malay rulers, members of State Councils and chiefs was held at Kuala Kangsa, the seat of the Sultan of Perak, to celebrate the introduction of the new system. Every chief of importance was present, and the proceedings were marked by absolute harmony and even enthusiasm. Sir Frank Swettenham, in his official report, summed up the results of the Conference in the following interesting fashion:

"From every point of view the meeting has been an unqualified success, and it is difficult to estimate now the present and prospective value of this unprecedented gathering of Malay Sultans, Rajas, and chiefs. Never in the history of Malaya has any such assemblage been even imagined. I doubt whether anybody has ever heard of one ruler of a State making a ceremonial visit to another; but to have been able to collect together in one place the Sultans of Pérak, Selangor, and the Negri Sambih an is a feat that might well have been regarded as impossible. People who do not understand the Malay cannot appreciate the difficulties of such a task; and I confess that I myself never believed that we should be able to accomplish it. It was hardly to be expected that a man of the great age of the Sultan of Selangor could be induced to make, for him, so long and difficult a journey, and to those who know the pride, the prejudices, and the sensitiveness of Malay Rajas, it was very unlikely that the Sultan of Pithang would join an assemblage where he could not himself dictate the exact part which he would play in it. It is not so many years since a Governor of the Straits Settlements found the utmost difficulty in getting speech with Malay Rajas in the States which are now federated; Sir Frederick Weld, even though accompanied by the present Sultan of Pérak, by Sir Hugh Low, and the present Residents of Selangor and Pithang, all officers accustomed to deal with Malays, had to wait several hours on the bank of the Pithang river before any one could persuade the Sultan of Pithang to leave a game of chance in which he was engaged with a Chinese in order to grant an interview to his Excellency. It is difficult to imagine a greater difference than between then and now, and, though the Sultan of Pérak has been far more nearly associated with British officers than any other of the Sultans, he has always been extremely jealous of his rights as a ruler. I was, therefore, sur-

SIR FRANK SWETTENHAM, K.C.M.G.
arrived at the same ends by any other means than the meeting of the Rajas of the Federated States and their responsible advisers. All the proceedings of the Council were conducted in the Malay language, and I am convinced that, if ever it were necessary to introduce interpretation, no such successful meetings as those just concluded could ever be held. The Sultan and all their chiefs spoke on all the subjects which interested them, without either hesitation or difficulty, and on matters concerning the Mahamadrian religion, Malay customs, and questions which specially touch the well-being of Malaya, it would be impossible to find elsewhere such knowledge and experience as is possessed by those present at the recent meetings. Nothing can be decided at the Council, which is only one of advice, for no Raja has any voice in the affairs of any State but his own. This was carefully explained and is thoroughly understood. But it is of

and depicting the gradual change in the feelings of the people, an attitude of distrust and suspicion of British officials giving place to one of confidence and regard. In these Conferences we have the crowning triumph and vindication of British intervention. They may be regarded as the copicing-stone of the edifice of administrative efficiency and progress reared on the blood-stained ashes of the old anarchical régime which once made the name Malaya a byword for ruthless barbarism and the cruellest despotism.

Figures are usually dull things, but only figures can properly bring home to the understanding the immensity of the change which has been worked in the peninsula under British direction. We make no excuse, therefore, for introducing the following official table, which illustrates the position of the Federated States from the year 1889, when Pahang came under British protection.

FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

SPECIAL GENERAL RETURN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
<th>Trade.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imports</td>
<td>Exports</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1889</td>
<td>5,013,000</td>
<td>4,091,079</td>
<td>15,053,456</td>
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<tr>
<td>1890</td>
<td>4,840,095</td>
<td>5,237,278</td>
<td>17,453,900</td>
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<tr>
<td>1891</td>
<td>4,572,310</td>
<td>5,534,900</td>
<td>18,809,424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1892</td>
<td>4,347,015</td>
<td>5,835,150</td>
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<td>6,413,134</td>
<td>6,793,339</td>
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<td>7,102,356</td>
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<td>8,481,007</td>
<td>7,894,533</td>
<td>25,623,471</td>
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<tr>
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<td>8,484,083</td>
<td>8,894,178</td>
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<td>8,795,317</td>
<td>25,000,082</td>
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<tr>
<td>1898</td>
<td>8,094,497</td>
<td>11,100,042</td>
<td>27,110,446</td>
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<td>1899</td>
<td>11,499,407</td>
<td>31,755,073</td>
<td>51,605,199</td>
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<td>12,729,039</td>
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<td>1904</td>
<td>12,255,209</td>
<td>13,810,274</td>
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<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>12,904,953</td>
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<td>1906</td>
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<td>8,994,682</td>
<td>30,069,060</td>
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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Revenue</th>
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<td></td>
<td>10,251,950</td>
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<td>12,680,382</td>
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<td>36,921,920</td>
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Note.—The total Revenue and the total Expenditure of Perak, Selangor, and Negri Sembilan in 1875 were respectively $ 849,394 and $ 435,972. Figures for Pahang first appear in 1889. Federal dates from July 1, 1896.

If there is romance in statistics it is surely to be found in this wonderful table. Where in the history of modern government can the progress revealed by it be paralleled? In India, British government has worked marvellous changes; in Ceylon a splendid success has been achieved; even in the Straits Settlements themselves we have an example of the genius of the race for the government of alien communities. But we may ransack the Imperial records in vain for an instance in which in so short an interval a great possession has been built up. Those pessimists who bewail the national degeneracy, equally with the section of political extremists who are for ever decrying the achievements of the British Colonial official, may be commended to a

perusal of the table. If they study it with even a moderate disposition to be fair, they will arise from the exercise with minds attuned to a new view of the capacity of their fellow-countrymen who are bearing the white man's burden in distant regions, and of the material advantages which accrue from the wise extension of British influence. And the glory of the success is that it has been won, not by the sword, but by peaceful methods directed with the aid and co-operation of the most influential elements of the native community. The power has been there, but it has been sparingly used. Moral suasion is the force which has worked the transformation from a territory wathering in the most ferocious form of internecine war, with trade paralysed and agriculture neglected, to a land of plenty, with mineral and agricultural wealth developed to the highest extent, and with a twenty-fold larger population living a contented and law-abiding existence.

SPECIAL GENERAL RETURN.

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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Perak</th>
<th>Selangor</th>
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Great value to get together the best native opinions and to hear those qualified to do so thoroughly discuss, from varying points of view, questions which are similar in all the Federated States. On several important subjects the members of the Council expressed unanimous views, and it now only remains to take action in the various State Councils and secure identical measures embodying the opinions expressed.

There was a second Conference on similar lines at Kuala Lumpur in July, 1903. It was equally as successful as the initial gathering. One striking feature of the proceedings was a notable speech by the Sultan of Perak, dwelling upon the enormous advantages which had accrued to the States from British intervention, and

SUPPLEMENTARY.

THE PENINSULAR STATES.

Perak.—The history of Perak may be divided into four periods. Of the first period (during which the seat of government was at Bruss, in

SUPPLEMENTARY.

THE PENINSULAR STATES.
the Dindings) we know next to nothing. A few carved tombstones represent all that is left of this very ancient capital—and even these are of late Achinese make and throw no light whatever on the early history of the country. If Malay tradition is right in saying that the great arm of the sea at the Dindings was once an outlet of the Perak river, we can easily understand the importance of Bruns, combining as it did the advantages of a perfect landlocked harbour with a commanding situation at the mouth of the greatest waterway in the western half of the peninsula. Although Bruns was powerful—the "Malay Annals" tell us—before even the mythical ancestors of the Malacca dynasty appeared on the famous hill of Siguan-tang, it had begun to decline as the river silted up. In the days of Sultan Mahmud (A.D. 1500) Bruns had so far fallen that its King did homage to Malacca in mere gratitude for assistance against a petty rival village. After the Achinese invasion the place entirely disappears from history.

The second period of Perak history stretches from the coming of Mudzafar Shah I, the reputed founder of the long line of Perak Kings, down to the extinction of his direct male line in the wars with Achin. This period covers a century—from 1530 to 1630 A.D.—and is marked by the reigns of nine Sultans:

**Mudzafar Shah I.**  
(First Sultan)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mansur Shah I.</th>
<th>Tajuddin Shah (Third Sultan)</th>
<th>A daughter</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Sultan of Achin)</td>
<td>(Fourth Sultan)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raja Kechil</td>
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**Mansur Shah (Fifth Sultan)**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alaudin Shah</th>
<th>Mansur Shah II.</th>
<th>A daughter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Sultan of Achin)</td>
<td>(Seventh Sultan)</td>
<td>(n. the tenth Sultan)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mukadaman Shah | Mahmud Shah I.**  
| (Sixth Sultan) | (Eighth Sultan) |

**Selaheddin Shah (Ninth Sultan)**

Perak tradition identifies its first Sultan, Mudzafar Shah, with a son of Sultan Mahmud I. of Malacca, who was born about A.D. 1505.

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Younger brother, Alaudin Riayat Shah II. It goes on to tell us that this disheparated Prince, after having first settled in Selangor, was invited to fill the throne of Perak, and that he reached his new kingdom after various adventures, such as the slaughter of the great serpent, Si-Kalumna, with the sword Chura Si-Mandong Rini. As will have been seen, the Perak tradition does not hesitate to borrow from the legend of Sung Sapurba. Mudzafar Shah was succeeded by his son, Mansur Shah. After the death of this latter Prince, his widow and children were taken prisoners by Achinese invaders and carried off to Kota Raja, where fortune favoured them in that the eldest son—another Mansur Shah—succeeded in marrying the Queen of Achin.

After restoring his brothers to Perak, this Achinese Mansur Shah perished in a revolution in A.D. 1585. Early in the sixteenth century the great Iskandar Muda or Mahkota Alam, Sultan of Achin, subjugated Perak and led ruler after ruler to captivity and death, until the direct male line of Mudzafar Shah had completely died out and Perak had become a mere province of his empire. About the year 1635 Mahkota Alam died, and his successor, Sultan Mughal, sent a certain Raja Sulong (who had married a Perak Princess) to govern Perak as a tributary Prince under the name of Sultan Mudzafar Shah II. This event begins the third period of Perak history.

As regards the truth of this story, there seems very little doubt that there was a Raja Mudzafar who was disheparated by Sultan Mahmud Shah in the manner described by Perak tradition. It is also true that this Raja Mudzafar married Tun Trang and had a son Raja Mansur, as the Perak tradition tells us. It also seems true enough that the Achinese invaded and conquered Perak. The only evidence against the truth of this story is negative evidence. The "Malay Annals" are absolutely silent as to Raja Mudzafar having gone to Perak, though they give an account of the second Mudzafar Shah, who was unquestionably Sultan of Perak and who may possibly have been confused with the first.

The third period of Perak history begins with the accession of Mudzafar Shah II. (A.D. 1635) and goes down to the death of Mudzafar Shah III. (A.D. 1765). The Sultans with whom tradition fills up this period of 130 years are given in the following table:

**THE REGALIA OF THE SULTAN OF PERAK.**

and was at one time heir to the throne of Johore, but was passed over in favour of his
It should be added that the eleventh Sultan is said to have reigned for 111 years, and that the next three Sultans were his nephews by birth and his sons by adoption.

This period presents great difficulties. Raja Sulong, who married a Perak Princess and was sent by the King of Achein to rule over Perak, is a real figure in history. His mother was a daughter or niece of the author of the "Malay Annals." But (if we are to believe the "Malay Annals") this Mudzafar Shah II. was succeeded by Raja Mansur "who is reigning now." The Perak account itself speaks of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth Sultans as grandsons of a certain Mansur Shah, who is not given in the pedigree. The Perak account also states that the Bugis chiefs, Klena Jaya Putra and Daeng Chekal, invaded Perak in the days of Alaedin Kiayat Shah. As the Klena died in A.D. 1628, the 111-year reign seems to need some modification. Again, the Bugis Raja Lumu is said to have been created Sultan of Selangor by Sultan Mahamad Shah of Perak in A.D. 1743; who is this Mahamad Shah?

Putting aside these questions of royal descent, we know that this period (A.D. 1655-1659) was one of extreme turbulence, and probably of civil war. In A.D. 1650 the Dutch opened a factory on the Perak river; in A.D. 1651 the factory was destroyed and its inmates massacred. Hamilton, writing in A.D. 1727, speaks of Perak as "properly a part of the kingdom of Johor, but the people are tractable and rebellious, and the government anarchical. Their religion is a sort of heterodox Muhammadanism. The country produces more tin than any in India, but the inhabitants are so treacherous, faithless, and bloody that no European nation can keep factories there with safety. The Dutch tried it once, and the first year had their factory cut off. They then settled on Pulau Dinding, but about the year 1690 that factory was also cut off. The ruins of the blockhouse on the island of Pangkor are still to be seen." In justice to the Malays, it should be added that the Dutch, in their anxiety to secure a trade monopoly, treated the selling of tin to any one but themselves as a serious offence, and even as a casus belli. It is not therefore surprising that disputes were frequent and sanguinary.

The first half of the eighteenth century in Perak was marked by internal anarchy and foreign invasions. There were three Kings in the land—the Sultan of Bernam, the Sultan of Perak, and the Regent; the chiefs were at war with each other, and the Bugis kept raiding the country. About A.D. 1757 things had so far settled down that the Dutch were able to establish a factory at Tanjong Pulus on the Perak river. They subsequently sent a mission to Sultan Mudzafar Shah about A.D. 1794, and concluded a treaty with his successor, Muhammad Shah, in A.D. 1795.
Pahang.—The early history of the State of Pahang—as usually given—is brief and inaccurate. Even so authoritative a work as the present edition of the official "Handbook of the Federated Malay States" sums it up in two statements, both of which are incorrect. It says: "The first ruler of Pahang of whom there is any record was a son of the Sultan Mahmud, who fled to Pahang from Malacca after the capture of that town by the Portuguese in A.D. 1511. A repeated descendant of his was Bendahara Ali, who died in the year 1850 or thereabouts."

We know from Portuguese as well as Malay sources that when Albuquerque arrived at Malacca he found the city engaged in festivities over the marriage of Sultan Mahmud's daughter to a Sultan of Pahang. The statement in the "Handbook" is, therefore, singularly unfortunate, since "a son of Sultan Mahmud" is obviously the only thing that the Sultan could not have been. There is, however, no mystery about the origin of the old line of Sultans of Pahang. The country was conquered by Mansur Shah or Modfarah Shah, and was first created a separate sultanate by the former ruler, who bestowed it upon his eldest son. This family continued to reign over Pahang till 1699, when Mahmud Shah II., the latest Prince of the line, was murdered by his Bendahara. Mahmud Shah II. was succeeded as Sultan of Johore and Pahang by this Bendahara, who took the title of Abdul Jalil Raja Shah. As after the Bugis conquest of Linggi the Sultans were practically hostages and had to reside at Riau, they deputed their principal ministers to govern in their name, the Bendahara in Pahang and the Temenggong in Johore. These ministers continued, however, to visit Riau from time to time, and to take part in the decision of important matters, such as questions of succession to the throne. At the death of Sultan Mahmud Riayat Shah (A.D. 1812), the Bendahara came up from Pahang and seems to have accepted Sultan Abdurrahman as his suzerain, though he must have personally favoured the other candidate, Tengku Husain, who was his own son-in-law. When the Riau family divided into the Singapore branch under British protection and the Linggi branch under Dutch control, the Bendaharas of Pahang acknowledged the Linggi rulers, while the Temenggongs of Johore threw in their lot with the English. In time, however, both of these great feudatories began to pay less attention to their titular suzerains and to assume the position of independent Princes, until at last the British Government recognised the real position by converting the Bendahara into a Sultan of Pahang and the Temenggong into a Sultan of Johore.

Malay history is a record of great vicissitudes of fortune. Time after time the connecting link between one period and another is a mere band of fugitives, a few score refugees. Such was the case in 1511, in 1526, in 1615, in 1673, and in 1721. It should not, therefore, be imagined that the new States that were built up after each successive disaster were made up entirely—or even largely—of men of true Malay blood. The bond connecting the peninsular States is unity of language and religion more than unity of blood. The Northern Malay is physically unlike the Southern Malay; the Northern Malay is physically unlike the Southern Malay; the Northern Malay is physically unlike the Southern Malay; the one has been compared to a cart-horse and the other to a Batak pony. The Malay population of Perak, Pahang and the Negri Sembilan must be largely Sakal, that of Selangor is Sakal or Bugis—where it is not made up of recent immigrants. Moreover, the Malays have accepted many of the traditions and beliefs of the people who preceded them in the possession of the land; they still worship at the holy places of the people of the country and believe in the same spirits of disease. Any one who is a Mahomedan and speaks the Malay tongue is accepted as a Malay, whatever his ancestry; there is no real unity about Malay tradition. Still, there are three systems of government that are essentially Malay. The first is what one may call "river" government. The State was entirely ruled by the Sultan living near the mouth and levied toll on all the produce that travelled up and down the great highway of communication. Such a State could be controlled with comparative ease, since the great feudal chiefs who governed the reaches and the tributaries of the main stream were dependent for their imports and exports on the goodwill of the Sultan. Malay, Johore Lama, Arau, and Perak all furnished good examples of this type of feudal government. The second type of Malay kingdom was the predatory State—a Malay Sultan with a sort of military aristocracy living on the foreign settlers in his own country or terrorising smaller Malay communities into paying blackmail or tribute. Malacca, Johore, Melaka, Johore Lama, and other settlements in the nineteenth century show how it could be applied to comparatively modern conditions. The third type is represented by the matrarchial communities of the Negri Sembilan, Selangor, and Malacca, where a woman, a Raja, Iban, and other chief, possessed more than was generally true of a man, and rather averse to war, a Negri Sembilan village might be established at some distance from any navigable river, and was not usually amenable to the control of central authorities. It led to the evolution of a most interesting and successful type of government that one might almost call constitutional. But although they do not, as a rule, take much interest in the humble politics of village communities, nor do they care much about the civil wars of river States. It is always the lawless predatory government that makes most noise in the world. The great names of Malay history are those of men like Mansur Shah of Malacca and Mahkota Allah of Johore. None of the less, the best political work of the Malay race was done in the little villages that have no history—the matrarchial communities in the highlands of Sumatra and in the valleys of the Negri Sembilan.
CHRISTMAS ISLAND, THE Cocos-Keeling ISLANDS, AND LABUAN

ASSOCIATED in an administrative sense with the Straits Settlements, though geographically somewhat remote from the chief centres of authority in British Malaya, are a number of islands in the Indian Ocean, which, though of small area, present many points of interest. These outposts of the Straits Settlements are Christmas Island, an isolated islet off the coast of Java, and a group of coral atolls known as the Cocos-Keeling Islands, a considerable distance to the south, about midway between Java and Australia. Held under leases from the Government, these islands are centres of considerable commercial activity, and contribute in a modest way to the prosperity of the Straits Settlements as a whole.

Christmas Island came conspicuously before the public eye in the United Kingdom a few years ago as the result of a scientific expedition sent out, in 1900, to investigate the flora and fauna and geological characteristics of the place. Mr. Charles W. Andrews, B.A., B.Sc., F.G.S., of the British Museum, the chief member of the expedition, on his return prepared an elaborate monograph embodying the results of the investigations of the party, and this was officially published. The work, besides giving a mass of valuable scientific facts, supplies much information relating to the history of the island. From it may be extracted some details which are of general interest. The island lies in the eastern part of the Indian Ocean in S. latitude 10° 25', E. long. 107° 42'. Java, the nearest land, is about 100 miles to the north, while some 900 miles to the south-east is the coast of north-west Australia. A little to the south of west, at a distance of 550 miles, are the two atolls of Cocos and North Keeling, and to the north of these Glendinning Shoal. The submarine slopes of the island are very steep, and soundings of upwards of 3,000 fathoms occur within two or three miles of the coast. To the north is Macler Deep, in which 3,000 fathoms were found, and to the south and south-west is the more extensive Wharton Deep, with upwards of 3,000 fathoms. The island, in fact, forms the summit of a submarine peak, the base of which rises from the low saddle which separates these two abysses, and on the western end of which the Cocos-Keeling Islands are situated. The first mention of Christmas Island occurs in a map by Pieter Goos, published in Holland in 1606, in which it is called Moni. In subsequent maps this name and that of Christmas Island are applied to it indifferently, but it is not known by whom the island was discovered and named. Dampier landed at the island in 1688, and a description of it is to be found in his "Voyages." Next the island was visited in 1718 by Captain Daniel Beckman, who in a book he wrote on the subject gives a sketch of

THE ISLAND OF CHRISTMAS.
(From Captain Beckman's "Voyage to Borneo").

exploration was made. In the following year H.M.S. Egretta (Captain Pelham Aldrich) called at the island and remained about ten days. Captain Aldrich and his men cut a way to the top of the island, and sent home a number of rock specimens obtained on the way, and Mr. J. J. Custer, who accompanied the expedition as naturalist, made extensive collections both of the fauna and flora, but had not time to penetrate to the middle of the island. The island was formally annexed by H.M.S. Imperatrice in June, 1888, and placed under the Straits Settlements Government. In 1890 H.M.S. Redpole called at the island for a few hours, and Mr. H. N. Ridley, of the Singapore Botanical Gardens, who was on board, collected a number of plants not previously recorded. It seemed desirable that a more complete examination of the spot should be undertaken, and in 1896 Sir John Murray generously offered to pay the expenses of an expedition. Mr. C. W. Andrews, author of the monograph already referred to, obtained leave from the trustees of the British Museum to join the expedition. Mr. Andrews left England in the beginning of May, 1897, and arrived off the island on July 29th. His sojourn extended over ten months, and during that period he and his companions accumulated a most valuable series of natural history and geological specimens, which now form a part of the national collections at South Kensington.

Mr. Andrews describes the climate of the island as both pleasant and healthy. During the greater part of the year, he says, the weather is much like that of a hot dry English summer, tempered nearly always by a steady sea breeze from the ESE., which is generally fairly cool and keeps the temperature very even day and night. Except for showers at night, almost the whole rainfall occurs from December to May inclusive. During these months there are sometimes heavy downpours lasting several days, but as a rule the mornings are fine. In the dry season (May to December) the vegetation is kept fresh by very heavy dews and occasional showers at night.

The soil is a rich brown loam, often strewn with nodules of phosphates, and here and there with fragments of volcanic rock. One of
the most notable features about the island is the depth to which in many places the soil extends. A well was sunk by Mr. Ross for 40 feet without reaching the bed-rock. Mr. Andrews surmises that this great depth of soil is accounted for by the decomposition of volcanic rock.

At the time of the visit by H.M.S. Egria in 1878, the island was totally uninhabited. In November, 1888, following upon the annexation of the island, a settlement was established at Flying Fish Cove by Mr. C. Clunies Ross, of Cocos-Keeling Islands. Mr. Clunies Ross, with his family and a few Cocos Island Malays, has resided there almost continuously. By these houses were built, wells were dug and small clearings for planting coffee, coconut palms, bananas and other plants were made in the vicinity of Flying Fish Cove. In February, 1891, Sir John Murray and Mr. G. Clunies Ross were granted a lease of the island by the British Government, and in 1895-96 Mr. Sidney Clunies Ross made explorations in the higher part of the island, resulting in the discovery of large deposits of phosphate of lime. Finally, in 1897, the leaseholders sold their lease to Mr. Clunies Ross for 145, or about 45 per cent., as described as endemic. This remarkably high percentage of peculiar forms is, however, no doubt largely due to the fact that in some groups, particularly the insects, the species inhabiting Java and the neighbouring islands are still imperfectly known, and many now described for the first time from Christmas Island probably be found to exist in other localities.

The main group of the Cocos-Keeling Islands is situated between 12° 12' and 12° 13' S. and 90° 49' 57" E. A smaller island belonging to the group is in 11° 50' N. and 91° 30' E. The islands were discovered in 1609 by Captain Keeling on his voyage from Batavia to the Cape, and until quite recent times had an independent existence as an outlying possession of the Crown. In 1878, following upon their occupation for commercial purposes, they were attached to the Government of Ceylon. Four years later the supervision of the group was handed over to the Straits Settlements Govern-

ment, who were rightly regarded as being better placed to discharge the not too exacting duties required. At different times the islands were visited by scientific travellers, making a tour of investigation. The most distinguished of these visitors was Charles Darwin, who during the famous voyage of the Beagle put in at the islands in 1836 and remained there some little time. It was from observations made during his sojourn in the group that he formed his famous theory of the formation of coral reefs—a theory which is discreditad by subsequent investigations and experience on the same spot.

The islands are held under a lease from the Crown of one thousand years by Mr. George Clunies Ross, and this gentleman, with the members of his family, carry on a lucrative trade mainly in the produce of the coconut and its derivatives found on the islands. Only three of the islands—Settlement, West, and Direction islands—are inhabited. The total population of the group in 1903 was 660, of whom 367 are Cocos born, the remainder representing Bantamese coolies and other imported labour. The entire population is engaged in the cultivation of the coconut and the preparation of copra for export. In the Government report on the islands for 1901 the number of coconuts gathered on the islands was given at seven millions. But in the early part of 1902 a severe cyclone swept across the group, uprooting no fewer than 300,000 trees. This was a severe blow to the trade of the islands, and it will be years probably before the mischief is entirely repaired.

Long completely isolated, the islands have been quite recently brought into intimate touch with the rest of the world by the establishment of a station of the Eastern Telegraph Company on Direction Island. This link with civilisation was forged as the result of the sittings of the Cables Communication Committee, which, in its report issued in 1902, recommended the construction of a cable from Rodriguez to Perth in Western Australia via the Cocos Group. The station is equipped with the latest appliances in telegraphy, and a speed of 120 letters a minute can be maintained on either cable without risk of error from indistinct signals. It is hoped that some day a cable from the islands will be constructed to Ceylon and an "all-British route" thus provided. Meanwhile, there is reason to believe (says Mr. A. S. Baxendale, of the Federated Malay States service, in his official report on the islands for 1903) that the islands will soon become an important signalling station for vessels steaming between Colombo and Fremantle. "The islands lie directly in the track of these vessels, and sometimes—as for instance occurred in April in the case of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company's steamship Hmalaya—the name of the passing mail steamers can be read from the shore. It is probable that if the steamship companies concerned desired that their vessels should be afforded facilities for communicating by means of wireless telegraphy with the Cable Company's office, the company would be willing to establish on Direction Island a station on the Lodge-Muirhead system."

Besides the islands referred to above, the Straits Settlements Government has since 1896 bestowed upon the administration of Labuan, an island lying about six miles from the north-west coast of Borneo in the Malay Archipelago. The island, from 1890 until the period of its transfer to the Straits Settlements, was under the government of the British North Borneo Company. Though not large—the total area is only 132 square miles—it is one of some commercial promise. It has rich coal deposits, and there is considerable scope for planting enterprise. The trade at present, apart from coal, is largely in sago, gutta percha, indiarubber, wax, &c., imported from Borneo and other islands and exported to Singapore. The population in 1901 was estimated at 8,411. It consisted chiefly of Malays from Borneo, but there was a considerable Chinese colony, and there were also thirty European residents. The capital of the island is a settlement of 1,500 inhabitants to which the name Victoria has been given. The trade of the island amounted in 1903 to £120,135 in exports and £118,765 in imports, as compared with £153,770 exports and £157,068 imports in the previous year. The trade is entered and cleared in 1903 was 321,400 against 311,744 in 1902. The great bulk of the trade being with Singapore, the trade with the United Kingdom is infinitesimal. The revenue of the place is derived from retail licences and customs duties on spirits, wine, tobacco, &c. The tiny colony is in the happy position of having no public debt. It also possesses the advantage of direct communication with the outer world, as the cable from Hong Kong to Singapore touches on its shores, and there is also telegraphic communication with the mainland.
THE PRESENT DAY

WORLD-WIDE as the colonising influence of the United Kingdom has been, it is doubtful whether its beneficial results have ever been more strikingly manifest than in British Malaya. The Straits Settlements can look back over a century of phenomenal prosperity under British rule, and the prospect for the future is as bright as the record of the past. Pahang and Singapore have been the keys which have unlocked the portals of the Golden Peninsula, so that its wealth in well-tended argossies has been distributed to the four corners of the earth. And by a natural process the spirit of enterprise and progress has communicated itself to the Hinterland, which is being rapidly opened up and bids fair to become a veritable commercial El Dorado. From this territory the world derives no less than two-thirds of its total supply of tin, while vast areas of land are being placed under cultivation for rubber, which promises to become a great and increasing source of revenue year by year.

Until the early part of 1907 the Straits Settlements were in the happy position of having a balance of 3,200,000 dollars to their credit. In the opening months of the year, however, they raised a loan of £7,891,427 for the purpose of acquiring the Tanjong Pagar Docks and improving the Singapore harbour. The sum paid for the docks amounted to about three millions and a half sterling, and in respect of this the undertaking will be called upon to pay 4 per cent, per annum. For the expenditure upon the harbour the Government will be in some measure reimbursed by the sale of reclaimed land, which is expected to produce a large sum. The revenue of the colony has increased from 7,041,686 dollars in 1901 to 9,631,044 dollars in 1906, while the expenditure within that period has grown from 7,315,000 dollars to 8,742,820 dollars. More than one-half the total revenue is derived from the opium traffic.

The financial position of the Federated Malay States is exceptionally sound. Perak, Selangor and Negri Sambian show excess assets amounting to 36,576,366 dollars, and the excess liabilities of Pahang, amounting to 5,988,393 dollars, represent only loans advanced free of interest by the other three States for the development of the country. The revenue of the Federated Malay States has increased from 5,611,000 dollars in 1889 to 27,221,476 dollars in 1906. To the latter sum the export duty on tin contributed no less than 10,936,609 dollars. The expenditure has risen from 4,091,078 dollars in 1889 to 18,892,425 dollars in 1906.

Except for an excise duty on opium and alcoholic liquors, all the ports of the colony are free, and the only charge on shipping is a light duty of a penny a ton in and out. It is this freedom which in a large measure explains the pre-eminence of the colony over its older Dutch rivals, where trade is hampered by heavy duties on imports. The exports of merchandise from the colony, excluding import duties, were valued in 1906 at 281,273 and the imports at 317,851 million dollars. Together these exceeded by 14,592 million dollars the return for 1902, when the figures were 273,022 and 311,110 million dollars respectively. The gross aggregate trade, including the movement of treasure, showed, however, a falling off of about 2,645 million dollars when compared with the figure for 1902. In order to appreciate correctly the comparisons instituted, it is necessary to bear in mind that the value of the dollar in 1902 was only 18.84, whereas in 1906 it was 23.46.

It is gratifying to observe the increasing growth of the import trade with the United Kingdom. The commodities purchased from the mother country exceed in value those from the Continent of Europe and America by 111 million dollars during the ten years 1897-1906 and by 1295 million dollars in the following decade. The exports to the United Kingdom are worth about double as much as those to America, which comes next amongst Western nations as a purchaser of the colony's products and ranks second only to Germany as a shipper. The greatest portion of the colony's trade is with the Malay Peninsula, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands Indies, British India, and Burma, Siam, Hongkong, China, and the United States of America in the order given.

In the Federated Malay States the only import duties are on spirits and opium, except in Pahang, where tobacco is also taxed. Duties are collected on all the commodities sent out of the country. The duty on tin varies according to the market price of the metal, while cultivated rubber, tapioca, gambier, and pepper pay an ad valorem export duty of 24 per cent. The value of the exports (excluding bullion) from the Federated Malay States in 1906 was 79,178,861 dollars as compared with 29,402,343 dollars ten years previously. To this total tin ore contributed no less than 71,104,191 dollars, cultivated rubber 1,552,486 dollars, sugar 1,644,625 dollars, and tapioca, coffee, copra, gambier, padi, pepper, gutta percha, and dried fish 5,000,000 dollars. The equivalent of 331,234 dollars was exported in gold from the mines of Pahang. The imports amounted to 14,517,131 dollars against 20,074,531 dollars in 1897, and consisted chiefly of opium, provisions, cotton textiles, hardware, and iron-ware. The bulk of these exports and imports are shipped through Singapore and Pahang.

Shipping is as the breath of life to the Straits Settlements. Singapore is the seventh port of the world, and is a port of call for vessels trading between Europe or India and the Far East, the north of Australia, and the Netherlands Indies. Pahang is the emporium for all the trade for the northern parts of Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula. The total tonnage of the shipping cleared at Singapore, Pahang, and Malacca in 1906 was 11,917,726, an increase of 65,430 tons over the return for the previous year. The aggregate tonnage of the shipping cleared at Singapore, which is a port of call for most of the shipping of the colony, was 6,601,549, or 2,667,044 more than in 1896. During the period under review the tonnage of British shipping increased from 2,630,472 to 3,602,126 tons, and of German from 484,447 to 674,241 tons. Amongst the smaller competitors Japan has made the most headway, advancing from the position of eighth on the list, with a tonnage of only 54,172 tons, to that of fifth with a tonnage of 238,454 tons.

At the present time British shipping in the colony is unfairly handicapped by the immunity which foreign competitors enjoy from regulations which vessels flying the red ensign are obliged to observe. Under the existing law foreign shipping can demand a clearance though overloaded to the deck-line, and it runs no risk of detention on the ground that hull, equipment, or machinery is defective. These inequalities will be removed by a measure, framed on the model of the Merchant Shipping
Acts of 1864 and 1906, which is now engaging the attention of the Attorney-General of the Straits Settlements. This measure will provide, also, for the consolidation of the merchant shipping lines of the colony, which are now in a state bordering upon chaos, and will probably contain a clause prohibiting masters and mates of foreign ships from obtaining local pilotage certificates.

All the important shipping lines calling at Singapore and Pinang have combined for some years past to charge uniform rates for the conveyance of freight and passengers to and from the colony. Their practice is to grant a rebate equal to 10 per cent, per annum to all shippers who use their lines exclusively, 5 per cent, being paid at the end of the first six months and another five in respect of that period six months later. In this way the steamship companies always hold a considerable sum in hand, and prevent the local shipper from seeking relief elsewhere. The possibility of competition being thus precluded, the combine is in a position to name its own terms, and the effect has been a considerable increase in freight rates. In proof of this it may be mentioned that the charge for carrying tin has been raised from 6s. 9d. per picul (133½ lbs.) in 1892 to 28s. 4d. in 1906. But this does not constitute the whole of the indictment alleged against the combine. A system of preference is adopted whereby some of the goods pass for a trifle more than to Swanes, than to New York. This is the case with tin, which has more recently been a coconut, in addition to the rebates already referred to, a further 5 per cent, on the total freight carried by the combine is distributed amongst a limited number of privileged firms or persons. Again, as all trans-shipment cargo is excluded from the tariff, the combine is free to accept at a cheaper rate than others, and ship on through bills of lading. The British manufacturer is handicapped by the fact that certain goods, such as tin and guns, can be delivered in America at a cheaper rate than they can be placed in any port of the United Kingdom except London. This is the case with tin, which is now more expensive than to New York. These facts are generally admitted, but it is urged in mitigation of them that the combine has provided the colony with better, faster, and more regular shipping opportunities than existed in the days of cheaper, but more speculative, freight, and that this has tended to create easier financial facilities. On the other hand it is contended that these advantages are the outcome of a natural process of evolution. Since the formation of the combine the shipping from the colony, which were increasing, have fallen, and the matter is engaging the attention of a Royal Commission.

As has already been stated, the Government of the Straits Settlements have recently acquired the Tanjong Payar Docks, and are carrying out a number of works for the improvement of Singapore harbour. A progressive policy is also being adopted in regard to the port of Pinang, where, however, some little feeling of dissatisfaction prevails. The consequence of this is thought to be the preferential treatment of Singapore. On the Malay Peninsula the harbours are chiefly interesting by reason of the possibilities which they offer for future development. The primitive methods adopted by the Chinese for the winning of tin ore are now being superseded largely by more modern systems, which have been rendered possible by the exhaustion of the more easily won tin-bearing deposits. It seems almost certain that the future of the tin mining industry in the Federated Malay States will depend upon the economical development, on a large scale, of low-grade propositions. The methods of working in veins fall into three classes—the open cast system, the underground workings, and the alluvial washings known as "lampas." In a few instances also the pay-dirt is washed down from the sides of the hills by hydraulic pressure, the water being sometimes brought from great distances in order to secure a sufficient head. After the "Karang" has been washed down it is treated in the ordinary way by means of wash-boxes or riffles.

Next to the tin industry, and promising soon to outstrip it in importance as a commercial and revenue producing factor, is the great rubber-planting industry. Though quite in its infancy, it is already taking a prominent position in the finances of the Federated Malay States, and may be expected to outstrip the mining industry. The production is increasing, and it will soon be found possible to export rubber in large quantities. The primitive methods adopted by the Chinese for the winning of tin ore are now being superseded largely by more modern systems, which have been rendered possible by the exhaustion of the more easily won tin-bearing deposits. It seems almost certain that the future of the tin mining industry in the Federated Malay States will depend upon the economical development, on a large scale, of low-grade propositions. The methods of working in veins fall into three classes—the open cast system, the underground workings, and the alluvial washings known as "lampas." In a few instances also the pay-dirt is washed down from the sides of the hills by hydraulic pressure, the water being sometimes brought from great distances in order to secure a sufficient head. After the "Karang" has been washed down it is treated in the ordinary way by means of wash-boxes or riffles.

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Pahang, the least-developed of the four States comprised in the Federation. At the time of writing, a line of 120 miles in length is being constructed through the independent State of Johore with money advanced by the Federated Malay States. When this project is completed, some time in 1909, it will be possible to travel by rail from Singapore to Pryce, and it is considered probable that some day in the future connection may be established with Calcutta by means of a trunk line through the intervening territory.

Scarcely any steps were taken by the Government to provide education in the colony until 1872, in which year the Education Department was formed. In 1909 the Education Department of the colony and the Federated States were amalgamated under one head, and Mr. J. B. Elcum, B.A. Oxon., was appointed Director of Public Instruction. It is hoped shortly to assimilate entirely the educational systems in the two territories. The codes now in force, though very similar, contain certain important differences, and the methods of administration show even greater differences. In 1909 there were in the Straits Settlements 35 English-teaching schools and 174 vernacular schools, while in the Federated Malay States the numbers were 22 and 263 respectively. All the vernacular schools, except a few in which Tamil and Chinese are taught, are purely Government schools for the teaching of Malay. The English schools and the Chinese and Tamil vernacular schools receive a grant-in-aid from the Government based on attendance, merit, organisation, and discipline. Apart from expenditure upon school buildings, the net cost of education during 1909 was in the Straits Settlements $328,631 dollars, or $15.42 dollars per pupil, and in the Federated Malay States $263,876 dollars, or $15.45 dollars per pupil.

The total average number of children in the Government schools of all kinds has materially increased of late years. In 1906 it was approximately 38,380, but exact figures are not available for Pahang, where education is still very backward. The average attendance of pupils was 87.6 per cent. These figures appear small in comparison with the population, but it must be remembered that only among the Eurasians and Malays, who alone are settled under normal conditions, is the proportion of children to adults as large as in most countries. The cause of education is severely handicapped, too, by the fact that the Malays and Chinese are almost indifferent as to the instruction of their female children; the Chinese, however, are very much alive to the advantage of an English education for their sons. Thus it happens that, although nearly half the children of school-going age are girls, only 4,260 girls attended school in 1906, as compared with 34,120 boys.

At all the large and important English schools there are classes for the continued instruction of boys who have passed Standard VII., and generally between 100 and 200 candidates are presented each year at the Cambridge Senior and Junior Examinations held at Singapore and Pinang. These examinations were dropped in the Federated Malay States for a few years, but Kuala Lumpur was again made a centre in 1907. The great inducement to take up secondary work in the Straits Settlements has been the Queen's Scholarship, of the value of £250 per year, tenable for not more than five years at an English University. Hitherto two of these scholarships have been awarded each year, but it is now proposed to discontinue one and devote the money to the improvement of local education. An occasional scholarship on the same lines has also been given in the Federated Malay States. Special grants and prizes are offered for boys who are trained in a commercial class in shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping, and composition, but, so far, very little advantage has been taken of these offers in the Federated Malay States. Attempts to provide technical instruction have not proved popular, but a large and satisfactory science class has been established at Raffles Institute, Singapore. The Straits Settlements are administered by a Governor, an Executive Council, composed entirely of officials, and a Legislative Council, containing a minority of representatives of the general community appointed by the Governor. The term of the principle of popular election is seen in the privilege accorded to the Singapore and Pinang Chambers of Commerce of each nominating a member for the Legislative Council. The Governor of the Straits Settlements is also High Commissioner of the Federated Malay States. Subordinate to him are the Resident-General and four British Residents—one for each of the States comprised in the Federation. The system of government is tantamount to a bureaucracy, and the territory is for all practical purposes as British as the neighbouring colony itself. The Sultans rule but do not govern, and although it is provided that no measure can become law until it has been passed by the Council of each State to which it applies, these bodies are, in reality, merely advisory.

As regards local government there are in Singapore, Pinang, and Malacca Municipal Commissions, with powers very similar to those possessed by Urban District Councils in Great Britain. The members are partly nominated by the Governor and partly elected by popular vote. This vote is limited to adult male British subjects occupying or possessing property of a certain rateable value. In the Federated Malay States the chief centres of population are administered by Sanitary Boards, consisting of civil servants and an unofficial minority chosen by the Government.

The trend of things at the present day is, undoubtedly, in the direction of extending the principle of federation. Each year similar departments, which formerly existed independently of one another in each of the States, are being amalgamated, in order to establish uniformity and promote efficiency. At the present time the Public Works, Railways, Post Office, Land and Survey, Mines, Forests, Agriculture, Fisheries, Finance, Police, Prisons, Trade and Customs, Immigration, Education, Museum, and Printing Departments are each under one head. The Judiciary, the military forces, and the Chinese Secretariat are also under Federal Institutions. By an elaborate system of bookkeeping an attempt is made to keep the finances of the different States distinct from one another, but their interests are so very closely interwoven that it is only possible to appear to do this on paper. It is probably only a matter of time before even this attempt will be abandoned, and, contemporaneously with this, one may expect to see the establishment of a system of Federal Government, something on the lines of the Executive and Legislative Councils in the Straits Settlements. The mining and plantation communities, to whom, of course, the prosperity of the Federated Malay States is mainly due, appear to think that they are entitled to some more effective voice in the management of the country than they possess under the existing system. But the principle of unification seems not unlikely to spread even beyond these limits. Not only is the Governor of the Straits Settlements High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States, but quite recently a Director of Education, an Inspector-General of Hospitals, a Conservator of Forests, and a Secretary for Chinese Affairs have been appointed for the Straits Settlements and Federated Malay States jointly. An arrangement, too, has been made whereby the Pulese Judges of the Straits Settlements and the Judicial Commissioners of the Federated Malay States will be interchangeable. Gradually the colony and the Federated Malay States, with their mutual commercial interests and interdependent business relationships, are being drawn more and more closely together for administrative purposes to their common advantage.
APPENDED is a list of the Governors and Administrators of the Straits Settlements since these were taken over by the Colonial Office in 1867:

Colonel Harry St. George Ord, R.E., C.B., April 1, 1867, to March 3, 1871.
Major-General Sir Harry St. George Ord, C.B. (G.C.M.G.), March 23, 1873, to November 2, 1873.
Colonel Sir Andrew Clarke, R.E., K.C.M.G., C.B., November 4, 1873, to May 10, 1875.
Colonel Sir William Francis Drummond Jervois, R.E., K.C.M.G., C.B. (Major-General, G.C.M.G.), May 10, 1875, to April 3, 1877.

Colonel Archibald Edward Harbord Anson, R.A., C.M.G., Administrator, April 3, 1877, to October 29, 1877.
Frederick Aloysius Weld, C.M.G., Administrator, May 6, 1880, to March 28, 1884.
Cecil Clementi Smith, C.M.G., Administrator, March 29, 1884, to November 12, 1885.
Sir Frederick Aloysius Weld, K.C.M.G., November 13, 1885, to May 13, 1887.
John Frederick Dickson, C.M.G., Administrator, May 14, 1887, to June 19, 1887.
Sir Frederick Aloysius Weld, G.C.M.G., June 20, 1887, to October 17, 1887.
Sir Cecil Clementi Smith, K.C.M.G., October 20, 1887, to April 8, 1890.
Sir J. Frederick Dickson, K.C.M.G., Administrator, April 8, 1890, to November 11, 1890.
Sir Cecil Clementi Smith, K.C.M.G. (G.C.M.G.), November 12, 1890, to August 30, 1893.

William Edward Maxwell, C.M.G. (K.C.M.G.), Administrator, August 30, 1893, to January 31, 1894.
Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Charles Bullen Hugh Mitchell, K.C.M.G. (G.C.M.G.), February 1, 1894, to March 27, 1898.
Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Charles Bullen Hugh Mitchell, G.C.M.G., December 30, 1898, to December 7, 1899.
Sir James Alexander Swettenham, K.C.M.G., Administrator, December 8, 1899, to February 18, 1901.
Sir Frank Athelstane Swettenham, K.C.M.G., Administrator, February 18, 1901, to September 25, 1901.
Sir Frank Athelstane Swettenham, K.C.M.G., September 26, 1901, to October 12, 1903.
William Thomas Taylor, C.M.G., Administrator, October 13, 1903, to April 15, 1904.
Sir John Anderson, K.C.M.G., April 15, 1904, to March 1, 1906.
Sir John Anderson, K.C.M.G., present time.

Governors of the Straits Settlements
THE POPULATION OF MALAYA

By Mrs. REGINALD SANDERSON.

It has been truly said that Singapore, in the infinite variety of its population alone, is like no other place in the world, with the possible exceptions of Constantinople and Cairo. Races from all parts of the globe inhabit this island and spread over into the Malay Peninsula. The Chinese predominate; indeed, it is calculated that, out of the forty or more different nationalities represented in Singapore, at least two-thirds belong to the Celestial Empire. Year by year, nay, week by week, many thousand immigrants arrive from China. Some of them remain in the port, while others move on into Pinang, Malacca, and the native States.

From ancient records we learn that the first Chinese traders in these parts were called Gores, and hailed from the Looschow Islands. "When they arrive at any port," says one quaint account, "they do not bring their merchandise out at once, but little by little; they speak truthfully, and will have the truth spoken to them, and are men of very reserved speech." All of which is a fairly accurate description of the Chinese trader of this century, certainly as compared with the Bombay merchants and Japanese hawkers, who possess the opposite characteristics.

A mixed multitude are these selfsame Chinese. Men from the northern province of the Middle Kingdom cannot understand the speech of the men from the south. Even ports in China which are almost adjacent speak a strange dialect, the characters only in which the language is written remaining identical. Of the multitudes of races from India who emigrate to Malaya, almost the same may be said—they cannot understand each other's tongue. The Arabic characters are familiar to numerous differing languages and dialects. And so it is that one finds public notice-boards written in Chinese, Arabic, and Tamil for the guidance of the different members of the community, who can only communicate with one another in quickly acquired colloquial Malay.

The Straits-born Chinese, who are designated Babas, differ from their fellow-countrymen in endless ways. They have grafted the latest benefits of Western science on to their more ancient civilization, which is, in point of fact, the oldest in the world, yet of a precocious development inexplicably arrested. Their brain-power is abnormal, and from the highest grades of society to the lowest they excel in whatever they undertake. Young men return from British and American Universities imbued with tremendous zeal for uprooting archaic customs—eager for their womenkind to be educated, resolved to curtail the tedious ceremonies and prepos-

A CHINESE FUNERAL.

Buddhist high priest, all in carriages, in advance of whom, again, is a seemingly endless procession of flags, banners, and musicians of all ages playing all sorts of Chinese instruments. Alongside the coffin itself walk the male relatives of the deceased, all clothed in sackcloth; they are followed by many hundreds of funeral guests; and last of all come the female relatives of the deceased,
the first time after the ceremonies, when he takes off her black-lace wedding veil before the assembled guests. An elaborate and extravagantly gorgeous feast is prepared at both weddings and funerals, and there are other schools which encourages their instructors.

With regard to the immigrant class from China, a stranger visiting these parts would undoubtedly first come in contact with the wise rule for the province—Lycurgus himself could hardly have framed a better—as whereby the State is not mulcted of its revenue, but gains riches from other lands. Hylam stewards and Krantis on board ship reap bountiful harvests, and in time retire comfortably to their native land. Many Hylams are honest and upright, and become indispensable as clerks in offices. The Hylam freely spends his money on Jubilee or Royal processions, such as those, which were given to welcome the Duke of Connaught and Prince Arthur, when the Hylam Guild was conspicuous for its gorgeousness.

In close proximity to the domestic class, as well as to the comforts or discomforts of Europeans, come the much-abused ricksha-pullers, who, as a general rule, are either from Foochow or Hokien. At the present time the majority are from Foochow, and their dialect is entirely different from the Hylam clan, who are dissociated from them in every way and will not take service in the same house. These coolies usually contrive to obtain some less degrading work. Apart from the degradation, the actual work is not so exhausting as a British navy's, and is certainly nothing in comparison with the labour in a coal-mine. The ricksha-man is underfed and badly housed. Some live together in wretched tenements, others bring their families to equally undesirable places, and the wives sit outside all day stitching at old clothes, renovating servants' clothing for a few cents, and re-lining ancient sun-blinds. These Sew-Sew women carry their baskets everywhere. The ricksha coolies, at times, seek a temporary elysium by a sojourn in one of the opium dens. A glimpse through the open doorway reveals within a motley crew of emaciated beings looking remarkably like corpses as they lie stretched on mat beds slowly sucking the small but tempting pipe. In lonely tin mines, on rubber estates, and in places with large contracts for road-making, the Chinese are often found more peaceful as opium-smokers in moderation. Returning to the ricksha-

SAKAI CHIEF, BATANG PADANG, PERAK.

pullers, running in this tropical climate engenders thirst, and itinerant vendors of iced drinking-drive water in steaming perspiring coolie, mindful of his impatient face, swallows a black or yellow mixture at one gulp and
hastens onwards. The Malays and Indians, especially, treat him with scant courtesy, often withholding the rightful fare, and escaping before the breathless puller can hail a policeman to state his grievance.

Hokien, though living in China at Amoy, six hours by sea from Foochow, have few similar words in their dialect. Take, for instance, the word "our." Men from Foochow say "NGUI-PAK-WANG" while a Hokien enunciates clearly "goy"—that is all. Hokiens are remarkably adept at starting small shops. They buy produce from the Teochews, who stagger in from the country in the early morning with baskets of mangoes, rambutans, pineapples, the evil-smelling durian, and the ubiquitous pisang, or banana.

Hakkas are sometimes ricksha men, but the majority keep shops and are more or less wealthy silk merchants.

From Canton, spoken of in the same breath as being the dirtiest city in the world and the home of the beautiful flower-boats, come scores of rickshaw makers, who, like the furniture makers, keep stowed away in their darksome dwellings old catalogues from Bond Street and Regent Street, and engage to copy anything in reason, at a moderate figure. From Canton come the greater number of the amahs, whose uncool chutter may be daily heard in the fine Botanical Gardens, as they discuss their various "meme" peccadilloes while their small charges wander round. Shoemakers, who live, like all Chinese tradesmen, in streets or rows peculiar to their handcraft alone, boast of Canton or Hongkong as their original home.

Teochews are the chief agriculturists of the peninsula. Their industry is unflagging, and is in marked contrast to the indolence of the Malays. The indigenous native is content with a paddie-field for his rice and a few pisang trees. He has no kind of garden, seldom even a cleared space, except a plot for drying clothes. His house is made of trees cut from the jungle, thatched with one kind of palm and floored with another. The coconut-tree supplies him with fruit, vegetables, spoons, basins, curry, sambal, and so on; the pisang bark makes invaluable medicine, and the leaves serve for plates and umbrellas. The Chinaman, on the other hand, has a neat garden, full to overflowing of market produce, with flowers for ornament; a chicken-ran; a pineapple plantation, if he is lucky; and, amongst it all, a small shed set apart for his gods, to whom fruit and rice are daily offered.

Where there are many Christians they have a country church, which they attend and maintain with the same zeal that they show for their work. A Chinaman from any part of the Middle Kingdom is noted for his contempt of pain and his powers of endurance under all circumstances. At night, in the fruit groves, the Teochews sit in wooden sentry boxes, and are in readiness for unruly marauders. In durians and other lofty trees they hang lanterns to scare the flying foxes and similar depredators.

Chinese wayangs, or travelling theatres, are dazzling. Amongst the Chinese an actor's profession is considered the lowest grade to which a man can fall; it is even beneath that of a Buddhist or Taoist priest, whose office is also contemptible. Akin to a slave's existence is that of a young Chinese lad sold by his parents to serve in a wayang for a certain number of years. In the daytime these wandering companies are to be met everywhere, the painted faces of the weary actors looking grotesquely incongruous in the bright sunlight of these tropical climes as they loll in rickshas, trying to catch a scanty sleep.

Chinese temples abound in Malaya, where there are many varieties of Buddhist sects. Shrines to the dreaded Taoist gods, who are supposed to be always hovering round in need of propitiation, are placed by the wayside and hung with bits of coloured cloth, while incense sticks smoker there continually. A wonderful Buddhist temple at Pinaang attracts thousands of sightseers, besides the ordinary devotee. In Singapore island the Hylans are completing a gorgeous temple. Inside, there are golden gods of gigantic stature; outside, representations of sacred animals and flowering shrubs, wrought in delicate porcelain. Dirt and disorder reign supreme in these temples, unregarded by the bands of yellow-robed priests, who chant...
Buddha's praises, perform divers incantations, and receive the pilgrims' donations. In the compound are small rooms, each specially devoted to particular idols. In the principal temple petitioners in need of a cure for disease seek a fortune-spill case. Each spill is numbered, and they take the one that drops out to a priest, who has fortunes with corresponding numbers. The man may suffer from sore eyes and receive a cure for toothache! There is no reverence shown in these temples. The services ended, the priests disrobe, indulge in various antics, and chaffer with itinerant vendors of fruit and cakes who throng the temple steps.

Old superstitions die hard. Quite lately a fisherman picked up a turtle floating in the sea; on its back the name of the sailor's god was scored, the indentations being filled with red sealing-wax. Through a hole cut in the shell was inserted a piece of wire threaded with cash. Hylam servants, it was eventually discovered, had bought the turtle, fattened it on rice for a week, and attached the coins to it, thus imploining the turtle to rise up out of the sea and save them or any of their friends who might be in danger of drowning. This done, they bore the live turtle to Johnston's Pier at night, and cast it into the sea to work its will.

The uneducated Chinese have a superstitious dread of deaths taking place in their private houses, and therefore, when any one is ill beyond hope of recovery, he or she is removed to a "death-house," or, if there be no such place available, to the nearest piece of waste-ground.

Shanghai is the port in China from which sail the "number-one" carpenters, furniture makers, and washermen. Their dialect has a peculiar twang of its own, of which they are proud. Should a man have lived in Singapore from childhood, he will, nevertheless, boldly state on his sign-board that he comes from Shanghai.

The immigrant classes from all parts of China are now experiencing a wave of enthusiasm for education, have given up their expensive Chingay processions, and are establishing schools for their children suited to the needs of each dialect. That there are slaves amongst the Chinese in Singapore and the States is often insisted upon, and as often denied. The truth of the matter seems to be that children are bought by wealthy people, and, when old enough, work as household drudges, having food and clothes provided, but no wages. At times they are cruelly treated, and, later on, the females are sold as wives. They are called by the Chinese *Hau-fok-kai, which literally signifies servant.

Wherever Chinese live they would be lost without their pawnshops. Behind the grated bars always hover an anxious crowd bartering their old clothes, stolen jewellery, and much besides. Through a hole in the ceiling of the dark inner room a basket is constantly let down with redeemed pledges or drawn up with fresh hauls. The gold and silver ornaments are concealed in iron safes, which, nevertheless, are subject to surprise visits from the police, who are also at liberty to check the entries in the day-books.

The great aim of the Celestial, in whatever walk of life he may be, is to amass money, and in this he usually succeeds. It is a curious fact that in the same family one brother may be a rich Towkay, with carriages and horses, possibly with motors, while another, on whom he will not be ashamed to call, may be a hard-working coolie in the country, a third may be a cook, and yet a fourth a doctor, profiting by a European education.

Before proceeding to the rest of the immigrant population of Malaya, let us mark the rightful inhabitants. They are a kindly and likeable people, but, shunning most forms of work, they look on with utter nonchalance while the alien robs them of their birthright.
They are, however, keen sportsmen and expert fishermen and boatmen. In the police force the Malays do good work, and in the Post Office and other Government departments they have earned many commendations.

The Malay is somewhat prone to revenge, and his motto is, "Repay money lent them for the purpose of making the pilgrimage to Mecca." Arab merchants, if we can believe their ancient records, were the first discoverers of these shores.

Accounts by the early explorers are preserved inscribed in Samarit. There is a flourishing Arab Club at Singapore, and when numbers are seen together, as at a funeral, in their flowing white robes and their bronze-yellow turbans, or "fez," they might remind some small shawls patterned like the old-fashioned

A SIKH PRIEST.

that of the Greek Church. One of the oldest translations of the Bible is in the Armenian tongue, and there are also works of great antiquity dealing with the Christian doctrine in the same language. Like the Jews, they are scattered everywhere, yet retain a passionate regard for their native land, which comprises the mountains beyond the west of the Euphrates.

Of the Greek nation there are here a few traders, who speak a kind of English lingo, Eastern slippers. Once a year, at the Passover time, they have a look of joyful anticipation, and can be seen hurrying from house to house partaking of the specially prepared meals. The Bajad Jews are successful as opium dealers, and have to do with the handling of such cargo from the ships. They walk about in their white gowns with embroidered sarongs and red fez, and wear a brisk, preoccupied air.

Their families, on the contrary, look bored and listless, the women clad in morning gowns and drive a brisk trade amongst unwaried shipping men in stale cigars and inferior articles of clothing.
wanted in their own country, where everything is progressing rapidly. Here they live somehow or other, and in the country districts some of the men indulge in their national games. The women wear a sarong, arranged as a divided skirt, and gay muslin blouses—an incongruous combination. Their language is softer and more sibilant than the Chinese, though to a European the number of tones is equaling confusing, giving one word a variety of meanings according to the way in which it is pronounced. Buddhist priests in yellow robes appear amongst these immigrants on festival occasions.

A few Annamites are to be found, quite out of their element, in domestic service. Their proclivities lean towards fighting, at which they are adept. In the Boxer troubles in China the Annamites, though, like the Gurkha, small and wiry, were dreaded in the same degree as he for bulldog tenacity on the field of battle.

From Java, that most prolific of all tropical places, troop coolies in ever-increasing numbers, and kabans or gardeners. These last insist on making their speech. To walk from one house to the other of the Bugis requires some temerity, for the stages are contrived of rough, uneven, and sometimes decayed planks of wood, with occasional gaps, revealing the water beneath. Inside a but will often be found an aged man engaged in making silk sarongs. On his right arm he wears a band above the elbow to make it last (strong for weaving), and on his wrist a sea-wood bracelet, in appearance like ebony, as a charm against the Evil One. The women hasten away at the mere sight of a stranger. Even white women they will only peep at from beneath their closely drawn sarongs. This tribe are much lighter skinned than the Malays, with whom they do not intermarry.

Natives of Burma are found all over the Straits Settlements and the Federated States. The women are passionately fond of flowers and dancing. As a nation their religion is nominally Buddhism, but, left to themselves, they worship the spirits, or nats, of the mountains, rivers, trees, clouds, wind, and, in short, all Nature. In common with several Eastern peoples they believe that it is dangerous to wake a man suddenly out of sleep; for, say they, his spirit, in the form of a butterfly, leaves his body when asleep, and may not return in time. In Singapore there is one tiny Burmese temple, presided over by an aged priest, who in years gone by was jaga at Government House. A clever physician, according to his lights, he doctors the natives, and gives his gains to provide food and light for the gods, and, at lucky times, jewels for the treasure-room.

Portuguese, once “the kings of the East,” with a Royal Court at Malacca, have left descendants amongst the fishermen of that ancient town. These hardy folk boast of grand old Portuguese names, but now they live in diminutive huts and eke out a scanty living in the bay, where they row to and fro, wearing queer coconut-shell-shaped hats. Singapore being in close proximity to India, black races are conspicuous for their numbers, henceforth relegated to the position of traders only.

Kings is a name given to the lowest classes of native immigrants, who clear the jungles, do the rough part of road-making, and drive bullock-carts, while the most degraded become herdsmen to the natives and wander round with the water buffaloes, half starved, and barely clothed in strange fragments of rags. The designation Kling was originally by no means a derogatory term; it signified only the tribe of black traders from the ancient king-

CHINESE BRIDE AND BRIDEGROOM.

NATIVE MUSICIANS.

A CHINESE ACTOR.
women and children might have been drilled in the best gymnasia. Once a year they rejoice in the Pongal Feast, when they first troop down to the sea to wash away all sin in the flowing waters and then feast for three days. Those who drive bullocks paint the horns alternately red and blue, adorning them with brilliant tassels and tinkling bells. A Tamil woman’s marriage dowry consists of her gold ornaments, and they are inscribed in legal documents as such when she is handed over to her lord and master. Religion has no meaning for her, men teaching that they alone have another existence. But the wife may make solemn vows in time of sickness, and fulfill them by walking over red-hot coals at the god Siva’s lustily yearly celebrations. And, strange to say, the women never flinch from this ordeal in our settlements, where human sacrifices and the Juggernaut are forbidden. Young mothers, even those with babies in their arms, may be seen enduring the ordeal by fire. Some of the men rush through to the water beyond, but the women are distinguished for their hardihood. Gold is holy, and not to be defiled by contact with the ankles and toes, which are adorned with silver rings, most of the coolies wearing a silver toe-ring. Women wear nose-rings, in which sometimes a single ruby is inserted. The women’s dress is remarkably picturesque, being composed of many gracefully disposed folds of soft-coloured cottons. Amongst the upper classes this beauty is enhanced by Indian silk of divers shades. Their castes are innumerable; in the Indian Empire they are computed to number about two hundred. When a man has performed his daily ablutions and accompanying devotions, he smears his body with a mixture of white ashes in patterns of one, two, or three diagonal or horizontal stripes. The  foltu, or round spot placed on the forehead, is worn by men and women, in either red or yellow, saffron being a favourite decoration.

The Telugus are another variety of Indian from the Coromandel coast. They have not the same stamina as the Tamils. They are easily overthrown by sickness and find difficulty in rearing their children. Amongst other work they are engaged in road-making in the native villages, women earning slightly higher wages than the men for carrying their light baskets of earth. Their one real pleasure is play-acting, and great is their felicity when the Tomato sends them to perform before his friends, with the prospect of square-faced gin and not a few cents to follow. Their theatrical properties are simple—broad sheets of vegetable dye, with which they obtain startling results. Striped tigers, accurately marked, and a bleeding captive, crowned with laurel fern and un- counth dances round the unfortunate victim, to the sound of a drum violently beaten. At intervals the party retire behind the trees, where the women have lighted fires, to stretch the parchement, while they pour fresh red paint over the repulsive-looking captive’s chest.

Tamil proper are exceedingly disdainful of the pariah classes, considering them even as of distinct nationality. They themselves are of poor stature, but their brain-power is considerable, and consequently they are valued as clerks, schoolmasters, and railway officials. They hail from Ceylon, and get homesick away from their flowery island, even saying that the water in their own country is so nutritions that they could exist on it for three days. Very many are Christians, and live up to their professions in a marked degree.

We next deal with the Chetties—the Shylocks of the East—by whom numbers of callow youths from the home countries have been ruined. The shaven-headed Chetti, fat and oily, piles up money, possibly buys property, or more frequently wins it in his comfortable way, and walks or drives up and down the land colonised by the white man. His dress, regardless of by-laws, consists of a few, a very few, yards of white muslin. His money is not spent in these lands, but is remitted to the Coromandel cost. Once a year gilt-edged invitations are sent to prominent Europeans in the different towns to attend the Siva Festival, when the silver car is taken out and drawn by sacred white oxen. Those who accept the invitations are shocked by the sight of gruesome self-inflicted tortures, annoyed by the invariably filthy state of the temples, and surprised by the odour of well-oiled bodies, counteracted in part by cheap scent, which, with decaying flower garlands and buttonholes that have first been laid before the gods, are freely bestowed on all comers.

The Sikh is a splendid fighting man whose soldierly qualities are hereditary. As a tribe the Sikhs used to worship the God of All Steel, of which the steel quids flashing in their turbans were an emblem. Differing from the Sikh in every favourable characteristic were the indolent Bengalli, whose one ambition is to be spoken of as a Sikh. These people are frequently employed as juggars, or watchmen, and carry rattle or canvas couches to store and lie all night on guard. In the compounds of hotels and private houses they sleep in country places, though they have a gong to sound the hours, sleep is indulged in surreptitiously. Their women’s national dress is suited to the cooler climate of the Punjab. The tight cretonne leggings are the principal feature.

The Madrassas is an obsequious, servile being, who spends his time as a dizzee, or lady’s tailor. He wears a round white linen embroidered cap, and is an inveterate gossip. Some of his kind hawk a sticky brown fluid, in cans with a long spout, in the streets.

Perses emigrate from Bombay, but always speak regretfully of their original home in Persia, whence they were driven by violent Mahomedan persecutions, being themselves of the Zoroastrian, or fire-worshipping, sect. Their capabilities for amassing wealth are proverbial. In this they are second only to the Jews. Unlike the Chetties, however, they do benefit the face in which they live. One may recognise the Parsee, as he drives in a fashionable rubber-tired pair-horse carriage, by his peculiar headgear.

A few Africans find their way to the East. Some have a rough-hewn log outside their small houses, and on sunny days before the swill darkness falls, the men may be seen thoughtfully smoking, with their feet on these logs, dreaming, no doubt, of happy days in the home kraal.

A KLING (TAMIL) BOY.

A KLING (TAMIL) CHILD.

There are a few Japanese merchants and commercial men of acknowledged standing, but for the most part the Land of the Rising Sun is represented by an undesirable class. Dyaks from Borneo, who have lost their old head-hunting propensities, are seen here, and their ancient customs and superstitions are fully exhibited in Raffles Museum, Singapore.

To gather an idea of how this huge heterogeneous population has come to cover Malaya, it is helpful to hark back for a moment to its early history. The aborigines of Malaya belonged to scattered, wandering tribes, who never built permanent villages. As early as 1550 B.C. the pioneers of the Malaya came over from Sumatra and settled on Singapore island, where was founded the original ancient city of Singapura. So prosperous was the settlement that the Kings of Java cast covetous eyes upon it, and, after many unsuccessful attempts, they contrived to obtain a footing about the year 1252. Thus the Javanese element was introduced, and the original settlers retreated to Malacca, where, in 1511, they were attacked.
and dispossessed by the Portuguese, aided by a force of Malabar soldiers. In 1641 the Dutch took Malacca from the Portuguese, and retained possession of it with the exception of a short interim, during which it was held by the a settlement of the East India Company. Soon became the chief centre of population and trade, and attracted many Malays from Malacca and some natives from India.

But when Singapore was established in 1819 had received an accession of five thousand, principally Chinese, and their numbers increased daily. By the end of 1822 the population had been doubled. In 1824, when the first census was taken, it showed that there were resident in the settlement 74 Europeans, 16 Armenians, 15 Arabs, 4,580 Malays, 3,317 Chinese, 756 natives of India, and 1,525 Bugis, &c. By the year 1829 the population had risen to nearly 16,000, exclusive of sailors. soldiers, and convicts (of whom a number had been sent from India on account of the unhealthiness of the convict settlement on the Andaman Islands). Five years later the number of inhabitants was 26,000, and at the beginning of 1850 the population had reached 60,000, of whom 108 were Europeans, 304 Eurasians, and 24,700 Chinese. By this time the immigration of Chinese coolies for the cultivation of gambier and pepper plantations on the island had assumed large proportions, no fewer than 11,000 arriving from China in the course of one year. The colony was taken over by the Colonial Office in 1867, and the last census taken before that event was in 1866, when the population was approximately 90,000, of whom it speedily attracted natives from the neighbouring settlements, as well as Chinese, Javanese, Bugis from the Celebes, Klings from India, and Boyans from Hawaii. Only four months after it became a British settlement its population

Pinang, which had been founded in 1786 as British) till 1824, when it finally passed into the hands of Great Britain. Hence the strong traces of Portuguese and Dutch descent in this part of the peninsula.
Europeans and Eurasians represented 2,445 and Chinese 50,000.

From the time of the transfer onwards to the present day the colony’s population has continued to grow, and Singapore and Pinang have become distributing centres for the vast army of immigrants, Chinese and Indian, who annually come to the Straits Settlements en route to the plantations and tin mines of the Federated Malay States and the Dutch possessions of the archipelago. When the last census was taken in 1901 the total population of the colony was returned at over half a million. To this total Singapore contributed 228,585 (170,875 males and 57,680 females); Pinang and its dependencies, 248,207; Malacca, 95,487; Christmas Island, 704; and the Cocos Islands, 645. The increase since 1891 was 59,907, or 11½ per cent. The resident population of Europeans and Americans increased by 660, or 20½ per cent. The various nationalities were apportioned thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Europeans and Americans (including British military, 405)</td>
<td>5,048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eurasians</td>
<td>7,663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>281,933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malays and other natives of the archipelago</td>
<td>215,058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamils and other natives of India</td>
<td>57,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other nationalities</td>
<td>5,378</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The population of the Federated Malay States on March 1, 1901, was 678,395—an increase of 62 per cent over the return for 1891—made up as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perak</td>
<td>329,665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selangor</td>
<td>168,789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negri Sambilan</td>
<td>60,028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pahang</td>
<td>84,113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1906 the approximate number of immigrants was 274,798, apportioned thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>173,131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pinang and Province Wellesley</td>
<td>194,491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malacca</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

—whereas the number of emigrants from these three ports of embarkation was only about 32,000. It is therefore clear that in a majority of cases the immigrants from India and China elect, at the end of their contract service, to stay in Malaya, where work is plentiful and wages are correspondingly high as compared with those paid in their own countries.

The least advantageous terms for which a "Sinkheh," or unpaid Chinese passenger, now contracts are a total of three hundred days' work in return for free food and lodging and a wage of five cents per day. In many cases much higher remuneration is offered. The wages for which contracts are signed by Indian immigrants are 7 annas (28 cents) for men and 5 annas (20 cents) for women, without rations.

Nearly all the Chinese immigrants into the colony and the Federated Malay States come from Southern China, while the Indian immigrants are mostly from the Coromandel coast. To this immigration is due the opening-up of the Malay Peninsula, with its incalculable tin-mining resources, which, even in their present comparative unexploited state, yield two-thirds of the world's supply of tin.
A MALAY LADY.
THE MALAYS OF BRITISH MALAYA

By B. O. STONEY,
Hon. Sec. of the Malay Settlement, Kuala Lumpur.

THE exact position of the Malay race in the genealogical tree of the great family of the universe has never been satisfactorily determined. Some writers have urged that the Malay is descended from the same stock as the Mongol of Central Asia. Others have asserted that he is of Indonesian origin. Others, again, have traced his descent from one of the tribes which inhabit Southern India. The matter is one which admits of no definite solution, and perhaps the safest course is to refrain from any attempt to go back beyond the one fairly established fact, namely, that the Malays who now claim the peninsula as their home are descended from a people who migrated thither from the coast of Sumaera about a thousand years ago. To what stock that people originally belonged cannot now be ascertained. Sir Frank Swettenham, in his "British Malay," which is, perhaps, the most recent publication bearing on the subject, gives it as his opinion that the "Malays are the descendants of people who crossed from the South of India to Sumaera, mixed with a people already inhabiting that island, and gradually spread themselves over the most central and fertile States—Palembang, Jambi, Indragiri, Menangkabau, and Kampar." The Malays themselves are not much given to speculation on the subject of their national ancestry, and they are, for the most part, quite ready to accept without demur the account contained in the books of Malay Annals of the conquest and colonisation of the Malay Peninsula by a people who came from Palembang, in Sumaera. The fact that in Palembang there exists a stream called Sungel Malay, is, to the Malay mind, sufficient evidence in itself that this account is substantially correct. In any case it appears to admit of no doubt whatever that the Malay Peninsula was largely colonised in the distant past by immigrants from Sumaera. Long before the founding of Singapore and Malacca the people of Sumaera had reached a comparatively advanced state of civilisation, and their merchandise was being carried in ships all over the archipelago. To win new fields for their commercial enterprise they gradually established a line of trading-ports all along the coast of the peninsula, driving back the local aborigines into the interior and wresting the land from them without meeting with any very determined opposition. The process of immigration was probably a gradual one, extending over a number of years, and conveniently be divided into two classes—native and foreign Malays. The division is an arbitrary one; it is geographical rather than ethnological. The term "foreign Malay" will then include those who have come across the border from Kedah, Petani, Kelantan, and the other southern Siamese States. These, indeed, differ very little, if at all, from the natives of the British portion of the peninsula. It will also include all those who have come from across the seas—Achinese and Javanese Korinchi, and Malayan, Malacca, of Menangkabau, Palembang, and Rawo, of Bornoe, Sarawak, and Labuan, and Bugis from the island of Celebes. In these the difference is greater, but it is for the most part a difference of speech and customs only, not of physiognomy or constitution; for they all belong to the same family as the Malays of the peninsula, and the differences which do exist are only such as can be attributed to the influence of other local conditions. The native Malays proper are the descendants of the old Sumatran colonists, who have to some extent intermarried with the local aborigines and with subsequent immigrants. They are the real natives of the soil, and it is with them only that this account of the Malays of British Malaya will deal, the term "Malay" being in most cases used in this restricted sense.

When a stranger first sets eyes upon a new race of people he is apt to think that they are all very much alike. It is only when he becomes more closely acquainted with them that their features become individualised. The first impression that a stranger would get of the Malay in this way would be that he was a man with a brown complexion, somewhat broad features, squat nose and large mouth, slightly prominent cheek-bones, straight black hair, and big dark eyes, which sparkle merrily from time to time. The shoulder, perhaps—less common, perhaps—in which the features are fine and clear-cut and the complexion much lighter. The fortunate possessor of such traits is accounted a "veritable becu" by his friends, a fair skin being in itself an attribute of beauty. As regards his figure, the average Malay is of rather less than medium height, "iron-jointed, supple-sinned." He is quick and steady on his feet. His arms are long, and he swings them well back behind his shoulders as he walks. He is usually thick-set, but his limbs move easily and without any trace of stiffness. Nature has given him the body of an athlete to enable him to face the perils of the forest-life, in which one slip or one false step might well prove fatal.

In disposition the Malay is not unlike an
Irish country gentleman of birth. He is quietly, never effusively, courteous. His manners are easy and genuine, not forced or assumed. He is always good company, has a keen sense of humour, and is ready to laugh heartily at a joke against himself as at any other. Being naturally ready of speech, he keeps a sharp curb upon his tongue, lest he should say some-
thing that were better left unsaid. He loves to speak in riddles, vaguely hinting at thoughts to which he is afraid to give direct expression. He chooses his words with the utmost care; for clumsiness of speech is not only a sign of bad breeding, but also a possible source of danger, in that it may offend the spirit world and bring its wrath upon him. He has a sense of dignity and self-respect which forbids him to cringe before Europeans as some other

Orientals do. A thorough country squire at heart, he scorns the drudgery of manual labour and leaves it to be done by others, or not at all. Give him work which interests him, which has a spice of danger or excitement about it, and you will find him almost indefatigable. He is proud, and exacts due deference from those below him; at the same time he never fails in

more so to his children, whom he generally spoils. He has no luxurious tastes; the simple home-life suffices to keep him amused and interested. On the whole, he is easy-going and he is not to worry others. He supports his own relatives through thick and thin, but his sense of charity does not take him far beyond the family circle. He content to live his own life in the bosom of his family, like a "frog beneath a coconut-shell," shutting his eyes to the world around.

The most important article of Malay attire is without doubt the sarong. It is a comfort able garment, with no buttons and no fastenings whatever. It has been described as a shirt, perhaps because it is worn shirt-wise, but it is neither made to measure nor shaped. On the contrary, it is cut quite straight all the way down, with a uniform girth of, say, 70 inches, and a depth of about 4 feet, which just brings it down to the ankles. It is fastened round the waist by making two inward pleats, one on each side, and rolling down the top edge in front until it is taut. Made in silk or cotton, the colouring is generally bright, and the pattern most affected is very much like that of a Scotch tartan. Its use is almost universal; the men wear it either over their trousers or in place of trousers, and the women wear it both as a skirt and as a head-covering. It serves as a cradle for the baby, as a basket to bring back vegetables from market, and as a shroud for the dead. It often ends its days doing duty as a scarf-cow in the rice fields. The Malay coat is a loose, long-sleeved blouse, open at the neck and reaching well below the waist. It is made of silk or cotton, according to the means of the wearer. The women wear a longer coat, which is fastened down the front with brooches of gold or silver or other metal. No man is held to be correctly dressed unless he is wearing trousers. This custom is, however, not strictly observed by the present-day Malays, who appear to con sider the sarong alone quite sufficient as a nether garment for any but ceremonial occa sions. The correct head-dress for a Malay is a coloured handkerchief, in the tying of which there is much art. It is said that a different style is laid down for each Malay chief, accord ing to his rank. This form of head-dress is, however, now being gradually discarded in favour of a small round or oval velvet cap, resembling a smoking-cap. When wearing European dress, as many Malays now do, a short sarong is often worn round the hips, with a few inches of it showing below the coat, strictly speaking, the nearest a Malay can appear in public without a sarong over his trousers.

The orthodox religion of the Malays is Mahomedanism. Their conversion to the creed of Islam dates probably from the fourteenth century, when their trade brought them into contact with the Sunnite Mahomedans of Southern India. Previous to this they had come under Hindu influence, and in their earliest days they were probably Nature-wor shippers, believing that the whole of Nature was endowed with life. Although the Malay now professes Islam, he has never entirely shaken off the influence of his earlier beliefs. His Mahomedanism is tinged with Hindu beliefs and with primitive animistic superstitions, which he reconciles as best he can with his more orthodox professions. He professes his belief in the one true God; in reality he acknowledges the existence of many others. He even goes so far at times as to play off one against the other. If the one true God of Mahomed fails him, he turns to the Hindu god Siva, and if Siva does not at once come to his rescue he proceeds to carry favour with the protective Hapones, a forest spirit of great potency. This tendency is most visible in the rites by which the ordinary domestic occur
rances, such as birth, marriage, and death, are attended. In many of these ceremonies the Mahomedan element plays but a small part, greater attention being paid to charms, incantations, and taboos, which find no place in the pure faith. But for this tendency to revert to the beliefs of his primitive ancestors, the Malay is, on the whole, a good Mahomedan. He is extremely loyal to his creed; no attempt to convert him to another faith is ever successful, and loyalty is, after all, the great criterion of true faith: ritual observances are only a secondary consideration. Certainly in his performance of the ritual ordained by the Koran he is rather lax. It is not every Malay who

prays the requisite five times a day and attends mosque with proper regularity on Fridays. The fasting month is observed after a fashion, but not by all. The pilgrimage to Mecca, which has to be performed by all who can afford to do so, is perhaps the one form of devotional exercise for which the Malay displays any considerable zeal. He reads the Koran religiously, but as he reads it in a language of which he can scarcely understand a word, one need not be surprised if his interpretation of the text is somewhat illogical. He considers that to eat pork is an absolutely unpardonable sin, and yet he is quite ready to condone the drinking of spirits, which, according to the Koran, is just as sinful. He is, moreover, peculiarly strict about circumcision, making it a sine

qua non of the faith, when in reality it is not obligatory at all.

The writer once asked a Malay whose wife had recently given birth to a child to describe to him the ceremonies connected with childbirth. For some time he protested that there were no such ceremonies, and it was only by questioning him with obdurate persistence that he was induced to give any information whatever. He was a young Selangor Malay, about twenty-two years of age, and it was his wife's first child. He lived in a small Malay village in the house of his mother-in-law, a lady of considerable means. The house was of the pattern usually affected by the more wealthy

Malays. The front portion was built of good hard timber, on brick pillars about 6 feet high, with a tiled roof, and a long flight of cement steps leading up to the main entrance. This part was practically never used except on ceremonial occasions and for the reception of guests of high standing. The family were content to live in the less pretentious back premises, which were built of cheaper materials and in a less solid architectural style. These consisted of three parts, each part practically a separate house with a separate gable and roof, but each connected with the front and with one another like the parts of a telescope. The extreme back end formed the kitchen, which was joined by an open platform, used as a scullery to the next, which was reserved

solely for the use of the women. The third portion consisted of a large room, which served as general reception-hall and as a place in which the men and their guests could both eat and sleep. There was no furniture to speak of in any part of the house—a few mats, a tray containing "sirch" requisites, and a spittoon—that was all. At night more mats were unrolled, mosquito curtains were hung up, and pillows were brought out, and with these few changes the dining-room was converted into a dormitory. The windows, which were placed almost on a level with the floor, were about 4 feet long and 2 feet deep. Each was closely barred, while outside

MALAY LADIES AT WEAVING AND FANCY WORK.

there was a solid wooden shutter for use during the night. The room had three entrances—one leading into the front part of the house, one to the back, and one opening on a side door with the usual ladder steps leading to it. The women entered their part of the house by a set of ladder steps leading to the scullery. The house was surrounded and almost hidden by coconut-palms, the fronds of which afforded the most perfect shade from the sun. The lady who owned the house was called Aminah. She was a middle-aged woman, rather stout and big, and, like most mothers-in-law, she was credited with a bad temper and a surly disposition. Certainly both her daughter and her son-in-law stood in great fear of her, and her word was law to them.
A MALAY DANCING GIRL.

dark eyes, and a nose which was rather flat, but not noticeably so. Her mouth was prettily shaped, her chin round and smooth, and her eyebrows well arched, in the manner the Malays admire so much. Her teeth had once been beautiful; they were now discoloured with betel-nut and sadly mutilated by the ceremony of “filting,” which takes place prior to marriage. Altogether she had the features of an ordinary good-looking Malay girl. She was pleasant-faced without being beautiful.

Some months before the child was expected the services of a "bidan," or Malay midwife, had been retained, a small ice being paid in advance. During the last period of his wife’s pregnancy, Mat Tahir, the husband, had been compelled to exercise the greatest caution not to offend the birth spirits. Before birth childbirth is to have been observed both by the husband and by the wife. It is forbidden to take the life of any animal, or to strike or threaten anything living. The husband may not even cut his hair, nor may he or any other person "cut the house in half"—that is to say, enter by the front and go out by the back. He must also forego the pleasure of sitting, as he loves to do, in the doorway at the top of his ladder steps, for it is most unlucky to block the doorway, and dreadful consequences might ensue. Mat Tahir had observed all these taboos with the greatest care, and the constant fear lest he should unwittingly transgress any one of them, added to his anxiety for his wife, had proved a great strain upon his nerves. Late one night Aminah laid him go at once to fetch the bidan. He crept noiselessly out of the house, and made his way rapidly along a small path underneath the canopy of tall palm trees which shook faintly in the night-breeze and made the moonlight shadows tremble under his feet. On every side he heard the monotonous chirp of the nightjars. She shivered and uneasiness and communication. On the whole she receives, and perhaps deserves, less attention than her brother. For some years Malay children, boys and girls, are often naked when there is danger of utter nakedness, except, perhaps, for a charm hung round the neck or girth. Soon after it becomes light the colot is tied to the front door. The walls were of plaited bamboo. The back half served as kitchen and the front as dining-room, drawing-room, and bedroom. I was in the first of these two rooms, the pudi- bidan, like many a Malay woman whose husband has died and left her solitary, was very poor. Mr Tahir treated the door gently. He was afraid to goad the bidan, as she was perhaps at work all night when a deputation will arrive from the parents of some marriageable youth in the village to seek her betrothal to their son. To remain unmarried is shameful, and to get married may mean greater freedom, wider interests, and, perhaps—who knows!—mutual love. The deputation is received with due courtesy and with all the ceremony which the occasion requires. Sometimes the girl is called in for the first time and, if it proves satisfactory, the factory, the proceedings are terminated by the offering of betel-nut and the payment of the betrothal money. The prospective bridegroom usually comes late in the evening, when he is introduced to a girl whom he has never seen. He may have exchanged furtive glances with the girl, meeting her first by chance as she went to the tap, or as she returned from the padi fields after the day’s work was done. Subsequently the meetings may have been more definite. If they begin to be taken seriously, the betrothal could be tolerated, and each time he went by the girl would draw her head-covering forward to conceal her face, with an affection of coyness or bashfulness. Even then the ultimate choice of a bride lays with the parents, but no doubt the youth could find arguments to bring home to them the great advantages which a marriage connection with that particular family would entail. After the betrothal it is customary to exchange presents—from a distance, of course, because the engaged couple are on no account allowed to meet.

A Malay wedding is a very big and very important affair. It involves the expenditure of money on both the parties, and it entails a great deal of work in the preparation of the wedding trousseau, the food, and in the decoration of the bridal chamber, the bridegroom, and the cooking of the customary wedding-feast dishes. These preparations take some days. The wedding ceremony proper begins with the qadi, or mufti, or “hang up.” It usually takes place on a Friday. At each house friends and relatives arrive in crowds. Striped curtains and ornamental ceiling cloths are hung up, mats are spread, and the houses are made generally gay by a lavish display of decorative paper flowers and streamers. The arrangements in the reception-hall of the bride’s house a magnificent dais or throne is prepared for the sitting-in-state of the bridal pair. The bridal chamber is also completely decorated. The furniture being, of course, paid, of course, to the bridal couch. The dais is raised about 3 feet above the floor, with two steps leading up to it. On it a mattress is laid, and at the back large pillows, varying in number according to the rank of the bridegroom, are piled, with their richly embroidered cases. Throughout the ceremony the bridegroom is seated upon the dais and on the dais a light framework of bamboo is built, and the whole structure is gaily decorated, until it presents a perfect blaze of colour, framed in a wild and lavish use of bamboo.

Meanwhile certain preliminary ceremonies are being performed on the bride and bridegroom. The women’s teeth are filed, if this has not already been done. Locks of hair are cut from the head above the
temples and across the brow. The finger-nails and certain portions of the feet are stained with a scarlet dye obtained from a mash of compressed henna leaves. In the case of the bride this staining ceremony is conducted in the seclusion of an inner chamber, and is therefore called the "hidden henna-staining."

The second day is marked by the ceremony of the public henna-staining. The bridegroom-elect proceeds in state to the house of the bride and ascends the dais, where he sits cross-legged while the stain is applied by seven men, then by seven women, each in turn. A short prayer concludes the proceedings, after which he is escorted back to his house by his friends. It is not until he has left the house that his fiancé makes her appearance and goes through the same ceremony. It is the custom in wealthy families, provided that the houses are fairly close together, for the bridegroom to be "stained" in his own house and the bride in hers, so that the bridegroom does not have to go to the bride's house until the third day of the ceremony, which is called the "hari langsong," or concluding day.

The "hari langsong" begins with the ceremonial "bathing," first of the bridegroom and then of the bride. Early in the morning the bridegroom is escorted to the bride's house. A chair is placed on the bathing platform near the kitchen, and over it a curtain is hung. The bridegroom takes his seat on this chair under the curtain. He is then bathed, or, speaking strictly, sprinkled with the ceremonial rice-paste, which consists of rice-flour mixed with water. This mixture is sprinkled upon him by seven persons of each sex in turn, each using for the purpose a brush composed of the leaves of certain carefully selected plants, which are supposed to have the power of neutralising the possible evil effects of the spirit world. The ceremony over, the bridegroom again returns to his house, and when he is well out of sight, the same ceremony is performed upon his fiancée.

At about half-past four in the afternoon the bride sends a present of cakes to her fiancé. These cakes are partaken of by the bridegroom and his friends, and care is taken that not a crumb is left upon the dishes when they are brought back to the bride. The present of cakes is followed by a similar present of saffron-stained rice. By about half-past five the bridegroom begins to don his wedding-garments. These consist of a long flowing robe of bright colour, silk trousers, embroidered slippers, and a turban. He is also dressed in a red cloth with a tassel of artificial flowers on the right-hand side. A bunch of artificial flowers is placed behind each ear, and the bridegroom is supplied with as much jewellery as he can carry. His first duty is to take leave of his parents, which he does by prostrating himself before them and making obeisance to them by raising his hands to his face with the palms placed together. Both the parents and their son are expected to shed tears during this solemn leave-taking. On descending from the house, sirk and betel-nut are administered to him to brace him up for the ordeal through which he has to pass. It is a noticeable characteristic of the Malay wedding ceremony that the attributes of royalty are, for the time being, bestowed upon the bride and bridegroom. Each is attended all through the ceremony by a Tukang Andam, a sort of master or—in the case of the bride—mistress of ceremonies. All through the ceremony they are treated as if they were quite powerless and incapable of making even the smallest movement without assistance. They take the whole performance very seriously, and hardly ever smile, even though their friends take a mischievous delight in attempting to make them do so, unless the procession starts from the bridegroom's house with much shouting and beating of drums. He himself is often carried on the shoulders of a friend, while an umbrella is held over him to keep off the sun. On leaving his own house, and again on arrival at the bride's house, his friends invoke a blessing by shouting round him three times "Peace be with thee."

His entry into the bride's house is nearly always barred by a rope or string tied across the path, and a mimic conflict ensues to force a way in. The resistance is never very stubborn, and often the garrison are persuaded to capitulate by bribery—a ring or some other article of jewellery being thrown into the enemy's camp by the besiegers. On obtaining an entry, the bridegroom signifies his humility by divesting himself of all his jewellery and changing his silk attire for garments of a more humble description. He takes his seat on a mat on the verandah, and a charcoal incense-burner is placed beside him. The priest who is waiting to perform the ceremony, as required by Mohammediin law, is then taken by one of the bridegroom's relatives into the bridal chamber, where he formally asks the bride-elect whether she consents to wed the man who has been selected for her. For a time she is overcome with modesty, and the question has to be repeated three times before she signifies her consent.

The priest then comes out to proceed with the wedding ceremony, which he performs upon the bridegroom alone in the presence of the relatives and friends of both parties. Taking the bridegroom's hand in his, he repeats the words, "I wed you A to B, daughter of C, for a portion of two bahors," to which the bridegroom replies, "I accept this marriage with B for a portion of two bahors." The bridegroom is then taken into the bridal chamber to see his bride, and, being now her lawful husband, he is allowed to touch her with his hand—a very great concession according to the custom. A Malay groom's girl may not expose herself to the gaze, much less to the touch, of a person of the other sex. His next duty is to prostrate himself before the bride's relatives, after which he gets back into his gala attire. While he is dressing, the bride comes out and, with the assistance of her Tukang Andam, seizes the dais, where she squats with her feet tucked under her and her knees to the front. The bridegroom soon takes his place at her side, sitting cross-legged. The ceremony of feeding the bride with ceremonial rice now begins. Each holds out a hand, palm upwards. A pinch of rice is then placed in each of the outstretched hands of the bridegroom by one of his relatives, and in the bride's by one of hers. The hands are then carried across by the two Tukang Andam until the bridegroom's hand is opposite the bride's mouth and the bride's hand is opposite the bridegroom's mouth. Properly speaking, the rice should then be placed in the mouth, but as the performance has to be repeated until first seven male and then seven female relatives on each side have offered rice in this manner, the bridal pair are spared the danger of being choked by the Tukang Andam surreptitiously removing the rice when it is opposite the lips. The ceremony is often made the occasion for a race, the result of which is awaited with great excitement. When this is over, the couple are assisted to their feet, and, hand-in-hand—or rather, with little fingers interlocked—they move slowly through the reception-hall, leaning all the while on their attendants' arms, to the bridal chamber. Here the bridegroom again divests himself of his ceremonial robes, and, clothed once more in his elaborate dress, bids his bride farewell for a time and rejoins his friends upon the verandah. At about 8 p.m. he re-enters the bridal chamber, attended by about a dozen of his chosen friends, to partake of a meal, at which his wife presides. She herself is too much scared to eat. She is supposed to cut off the same plate as her husband, but the most she can be induced to do is to sit with her hand on his plate in make-believe that she is sharing his meal. After the meal is over, the bride retires to sleep with her female relatives in the back portion of the house, while
The bridegroom sleeps in the bridal couch in solitary state.

On the fourth day the ceremony of bathing the bride and bridegroom together is performed. They are seated side by side on two chairs between two jugs of specially consecrated water. First of all they are sprinkled with water and then the bride is washed by the bridegroom from the two jugs. After this the guests, who have carefully provided themselves with squirts made of bamboo, proceed to deluge first the bride and bridegroom and then one another, until a regular water-fight ensues, in which, amid shrieks and shouts of laughter, nearly everybody, including the bridegroom, is drenched from head to foot.

Later on the wedded couple hold a reception. The guests, dressed once more in their smartest clothes, come in and squat round the reception-hall in front of the dais, where the bride and bridegroom sit solemnly enthroned. When the hall is full, first the bridegroom and then the bride is taken slowly round the room by the Takang Andam and made to salute each person in succession. On returning to their places on the dais the master of ceremonies reads the list of the relations and their donors. Each name is read out by the recipients signifying their thanks by raising their hands in salute. After this, the husband again sleeps alone in the bridal chamber.

On the evening of the fourth day the husband is requested to absent himself from the house while the bride though slightly turned, is being washed in the morning. The bride is then taken into the bridal chamber, when she is sung to sleep by some aged drong. Shortly after two o'clock the husband returns, and enters his wife's room. Outside, the relations of both parties assemble. All are in a great state of excitement, the girl's parents most of all. For some time they are kept in suspense: but last the husband comes out, and if he announces that all is well the news is received with a great sigh of relief. Had the verdict been otherwise there would have been trouble, and the girl's family would have suffered everlasting disgrace.

The concluding ceremony is the attendance of the husband, in full bridal attire, at the mosque on Friday. After the service he invites those of his friends who have attended mosque on that day to partake of a meal at his house.

When a Malay dies the relatives place the corpse on its back with its feet towards Mecca. The body is then covered with a piece of matting. A piece of metal is laid below them to prevent the recurrence of an accident which is believed to have occurred long ago. For it is related that once a body was laid on five or six deep, shrouding the body completely from head to foot. Meanwhile messengers have been despatched to carry the sad news from house to house, and to summon all the friends and relatives. There is plenty of work to be done. Some set to work to make a coffin; others are engaged on the shroud; others, again, are set to make the bier and superstructure on which the coffin is borne to the grave. The corpse, too, requires further attention. As soon as the person is laid in state, the next step is to close the ears, nostrils, eyes, and mouth with cotton wool. When this is done the corpse is wrapped in a white shroud, which is tied round it with long strips of cloth torn from the selvedge edge of the shroud itself. When sufficient time has been allowed for the company to assemble, the priest summons them to prayer in the house.

After this the corpse is carried in procession to the grave, the company chanting verses to a tune which, to European ears, sounds more joyous than sad. At the grave the coffin is taken off the bier and placed on the ground. Then generally ensues a lively altercation as to which end of the coffin contains the head and which the feet; but when this has been satisfactorily settled the coffin is lowered into the grave, where there are people ready to receive it. The body then being shrouded, the bands being removed, and great care is taken to fix it in a position on its side so that the eyes look directly towards Mecca.

Pieces of earth are often used to prop it up so that the position is secure. The grave is then filled in, and rude wooden grave-posts are put in to mark the place. Then about a short service, in which the priest reads the Talkin, which is a sort of sermon addressed to the deceased. The deceased, in fact, is reputed to come to life especially to hear it, and it is not until the hands come in contact with the torn selvedge that the corpse realises that it really is not alive. The Talkin ended, the company usually repeat some responses after the priest, rocking from side to side as they do so.

The ceremony at the grave generally concludes with the distribution of alms. But this is by no means the end of the death ceremonies. On the third, the seventh, the fourteenth, the fortieth, and the hundredth day after the death feasts have to be given and prayers said for the deceased. If the deceased was a married man, his widow is expected to remain under the roof of the house in which he died until these observances have been performed. After that she may return to her parents or remain, as she thinks fit.

The chief Malay industry is the cultivation of rice. The Malay is satisfied with one crop per annum, and he regulates the larger portion of the work of cultivating it to his wooden-dolk. He uses a buffalo harnessed first to an old-fashioned wooden plough, and then a wooden harrow to prepare the soil for the planting. He also cultivates coconuts, but seldom on a large scale. He plants them all about his house, and intermingles with them every description of fruit-trees, from the quickly growing pisang to the rambutan, which takes ten or more years to bear fruit.

In addition he plants sirth and also betel-nut trees, the bloom of which spreads a fragrant smell in the room. The primrose-coloured bellies of the fish which swim all around the kampong. With rice, coconuts, fruit, poultry which he rears himself, and fish which he catches in the river or the sea—which cannot be caught with his usual stick—he is satisfied. His dietary requirements are fully satisfied.

The Malay is at his best on the river. There is always a great deal. Some boat-shedling by the bank, standing, with marvellous balance, in the bow of a narrow dug-out, while a small boy paddling in the stern keeps the boat's head straight. The boat is carried with a rush over fast eddying swills down a boulder-studded rapid. Suddenly the fisher's well-trained eye sees the glint of a silver-bellied fish just beyond him. Swiftly but surely he takes the net—which just now was hanging in limp folds over his shoulder and forearm—extends its wings to the full, and without delay he clings perfectly right over the spot where the fish lies hid. The boat may rock in the current, but the fisherman's aim is always true, and he never makes a faulty throw. Sometimes he must wait for hours before he is able to catch a fish. Sometimes the boat will be stuck fast to the shore, and the boatman, to prevent water from entering the boat, may have to work without a break for hours together.

Modern civilisation has had one sad effect upon the Malay race, in that it is largely responsible for the almost total disappearance of the old Malay arts and industries. This is partly due, perhaps, to the constant influence of the Malay for work of any sort. But it is due, also, in a great measure, to the introduction into Malaysia of machines and other products of European manufacture, which have made the Malay ashamed of the rude articles of his own old-world handicrafts. The Malay cannot understand that real Malay hand-made articles are more valuable than their more flashy counterparts from Manchester. He is apt to argue that it is useless for him to spend his days in doing a thing which the "white man" can turn out in ten minutes by using modern machinery. He has, in consequence, much preferred the machine-made article after all.

The future of the Malay race in British Malaya is a question about which opinions differ. Some have asserted that the Malaya is too indolent by nature to be able to hold their own against the more enterprising Asiatic races with whom circumstances make it necessary that they should compete. It is said that their doom is sealed, that as time progresses they must go to work, and that he who will survive only as objects of scientific interest to the ethnologist and the historian. There is no doubt that at present they are somewhat handicapped by the fact that those who help the Indian in Javanese and the Chinaman to play a useful part in the economic development of the peninsula.

As an economic factor at present the Malay need scarcely be taken into account. He tends to retard rather than to stimulate progress. But there is one point in his favour which must not be overlooked, and that is the fact that he is a "brown man," living in the "brown man's" zone, and, therefore, more suitable to the climatic conditions in which he lives than the "yellow" Chinaman or the "black" Tamil. It may be found, as time goes on, that the Malay will stand the peculiar climate of the Straits, and that their energy will be sapped, their health will break down, and their breed deteriorate. The Malay
Still, much has been, and is being, done for the Malays. A residential college has been founded at Kuala Kangsar to train young Malay rajas and nobles for the Government service, in the hope that they will be able to perform the duties now undertaken by officers of the cadet service. Here and there Malays are being raised to responsible posts—especially in Perak, where, during the last few years, Mr. G. W. Birch, C.M.G., the British Resident, has done much to advance the interests of the Malays.

In Kuala Lumpur a special residential reserve has been created to enable Malays to live close to the town where they are employed, under conditions similar to those obtaining in a Malay kampong, or village. Work is being found for them in several Government Departments, particularly as surveyors, mechanics, draughtsmen, and motor-car drivers. Finally, the Government has recently decided to make officers who have newly joined the Malayan character more closely and make themselves familiar with their laws and customs, their arts and industries, their prejudices and superstitions, and their religious beliefs. This is a step in the right direction, which should do much to awaken a real interest in this attractive, but somewhat disappointing people.

On the whole, there seems to be sufficient ground for the hope which is shared by all who have learnt to love the Malay, that he will in time be something more than an ornamental member of society. It must be remembered that he has only been in touch with European civilization for some thirty years, that he has never had to work hard for his living, and that the climate in which he lives is more than ordinarily enviable. The Chinaman and the Tamil, who are now his chief rivals in the peninsula, come from countries where the struggle for existence, which is always very hard, is rendered still harder at times by floods, famine, and plague. They are born to a struggle for life, and it is no matter for surprise to find them more keen and more energetic than the Malay. When the shoe begins to pinch, as it will, perhaps, in time, the Malay will have to exert himself, and, if he is kept going till then, so that his capacity for work is not entirely lost, he will prove a dangerous rival to all other competitors. He has physical strength, courage, ability, directness of hand, and, in fact, nearly all the requisites for success in life—a term which is frequently used now as a synonym for the acquisition of wealth. He only lacks application and industry.

The writer has pleasure in acknowledging the great assistance which he has derived from Sir Frank Swettenham’s “The Real Malay,” Major McNair’s “The Malays of Perak,” Mr. Skeat’s “Malay Magic,” and other books upon Malay subjects; and also from Raja Alang Iskandar, who very kindly read through this article and made many excellent suggestions.
MALAY LITERATURE

[ABRIDGED FROM THE GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS ON THE SUBJECT]

BY R. J. WILKINSON.

THE Malys possess a national literature which, though open to much adverse criticism if judged from a European standpoint, nevertheless contains not a little that is of real literary promise. Evidence is not wanting that the Malys have been travelling along much the same literary road as Western nations, even if they have not yet advanced so far. They may, indeed, be likened to the European child who prefers the story of "Jack the Giant-Killer" to the masterpieces of Milton and Shakespeare, but is, in his way, a good judge of a fairy-tale. The chief value of their literature lies, of course, in the insight which it gives into the history and character of a people who are apt to be very much misunderstood by the casual observer.

Every Malay author is an amateur philologist—a "lover of words" in the most literal sense—and some of the attempts at tracing the derivation of words are more ingenious than accurate. One native writer assures us that Malacca was so named from the Arabic word malakat, an emporium, because the town afterwards became a great trading centre. Another asks us to believe that the Bugis Princes of Celebes must be descended from King Solomon, because Bugis is plainly the same as Balkis, the legendary name of the Queen of Sheba. How comes it that the Malay, who is by heredity a mere trapper or fisherman—perhaps even a pirate—displays such a deep interest in the study of words? The explanation is simple. According to Malay theory, a proper command of language is essential to success even in hunting and fishing. Loose language on the sea may bring about a storm; a careless word in the jungle may expose the speaker to the attack of a tiger; the use of a wrong expression may drive out the tin from a mine or the camphor from a forest. An Englishman objects to slang in the presence of ladies; a Malay avoids expressions of undue familiarity in the presence of all superior powers, human or superhuman. The Malay has his "Court diction," his "everyday speech," his "business language," his special vocabulary for camphor-collecting, and his list of tabooed words in mining, hunting, and fishing. As a result of this regard for words, a Malay's idea of literary composition is to string together karung, beautiful words and sayings; he describes a jade necklace as a crown of diamonds, or a crown of flowers. He does not consider the parts of a story to be more accessible to the story as a whole; they are the pearls, while the narrative is the thread necessary for stringing them together.

The ancient unwritten literature of the Malayans is said to have consisted of proverbs, of conventional descriptions, of old sayings on all kinds of topics, of short proverbial verses, of fables in which the mouse-deer played the part of Heru Rabbit, and of short stories about comic personages, like the typical Irishman of English anecdote. The earliest Malay books must date back to the sixteenth century, but the Augustan period of Malay literature was the first half of the seventeenth century, and was associated with the period of the Kingdom of Achin's greatest prosperity. Among the most noted Malay works of this period are the "Taja's-Salatin" ("Crown of Kings"), dated 1613; the "Sejarah Melany" ("Malay Annals"), written at Achin in 1614; the "Bustamah-Salatin" ("Garden of Kings"), and a version of the "Ishandar, Dazl-Karnain" ("Romance of Alexander"). Generally speaking, Malay literature may be classed under the four headings: Romance, History, Poetry, and Fable or Anecdote.

ROAMANCE.

The first point that strikes any one who examines the old Malay romances is the likeness they bear to the tales that interested medieval Europe. Solomon's proverbs that there is nothing new under the sun finds many counterparts in the Indian Archipelago. The tale of the founding of Carthage (by the simple device of asking for as much land as an ox's hide would encompass) has an exact parallel in a Malay account of the taking of Malacca. The myth of Hercules and Antus is identical with the myth of the earth god, the Maharaja Boma, in the Malay romance of "Sang Samba"; while, as an episode in the same Indonesian legend, we have the myth of the war between the Titans and the gods. The whole panorama of Eastern romance is filled with the cannibal ogres, the lovely princesses, the winged horses, the monstrous birds, the men in animal shape, and most of the other details that make up the folklore of the European child. The most common form of composition in the classical literature of the Malys is the hikayat, or Romantic biography. The hikayat never plunges into the middle of a tale; it generally begins by introducing the hero or heroine by their former incarnations. The hero is invariably a prince, "extremely handsome, with a glowing countenance and a complexion like polished gold, and without a peer amongst men." He generally begins his adventures at the age of fourteen or fifteen. The heroine is always a princess, "very beautiful, with a face like a fourteen-day-old moon, a brow like a moon of three days, hair like the opening blossom of the palm, eyes like the star of the morning, eyebrows curving like the spurs of a fighting-cock, ears like the flowers of the Repuyang, cheeks like shell eggs, a nose that is straight and sharply cut, a mouth like a bursting pomegranate, a tapering neck and sloping shoulders, a slender waist and a broad chest, fingers like the quills of the porcupine, and a figure that sways like the stalk of a flower." Of these stereotype descriptions the Malay never seems to tire. The trouble which separates the lovers is due sometimes to a monster who lays waste the lady's land and scatters its inhabitants, sometimes to a rival suitor who is refused her hand in marriage, and sometimes to a wandering god (generally the Hindu divinity Kalal, who carries off the princess or turns her into a man, or causes her to vanish from the ken of her betrothed.

Such, then, is the framework of Malay romance. Its material is drawn from several distinct sources—from Arabian and Persian legends, from Indian epics, and from the Javanese heroic cycle of Sira Panji—but it has to work this material into the framework of the conventional plot. As any departure from Malay convention is, in Malay eyes, a serious blunder, it often comes about that much foreign literature is spoiled when converted into Malay. For instance, in the Javanese romance of "Ken Tambahan," a young prince loves and secretly marries a captive maiden attached to his mother's court. On finding that the lovers are not to be otherwise separated, the mother determines to do away with the girl so as to enable the prince to marry a lady of his own rank. She accordingly sends the girl a message inviting her to join the prince in the forest where he is hunting. The girl suspects a snare, but she is helpless; she writes a tender letter of farewell and goes forth to meet the doom prepared for her. On learning her fate,
twentieth century impressions of british malaya

poetry.

the malays are emphatically a songs race. "for hours and hours," says major mcnair, in his account of a trip to mount ophir, "these people kept up quite a social entertainment by improving amusing stories which they set to their own native music and sang aloud to the whole company in a chorus after every line." every year sees a new crop of topical songs. every native operatic troupe has its own versifier to write the verses, songs of praise or amusement, all are composed to meet the needs of the moment, and (unless they possess very exceptional merit) are not recorded when the play or festival is over.

the horror of literary piracy which characterizes european work has no place among primitive" "malay" song-singers who objected to other people using his songs would be regarded by his fellow-countrymen much as we should regard a man who went to stationers' hall and applied for permission to copyright his own conversation. it thus comes about that the cleverer verses are stored up in little books and immediately sold as an english audience remembers a good story and repeats it. it must not, however, be supposed that the malay folks upon verse merely as a means of expressing contempt, or compliment, or jest; he loves the rhythm of poetry for its own sake, and finds in it a relief for his feelings, especially for his sense of melancholy longing:

"for a heart oppressed with sorrow some solace fingers yet
the long slow notes of the violin that sweeten a song of regret."

(apra lubh hati yang dandam?
egreek biola tarakan nyanyi)

this love of poetry cannot be altogether a new thing, since it enters into the very life of the people, and forms a part of the processes of the archipelago; and yet, curiously enough, it seems to be new in form if ancient in spirit. malay poetry is expressed mainly as topical and operatic songs, shers, or metrical romances, and pantuns, or quatrains. the last-named is the true racial verse of indonesian mythology. it is usually described as a 'quartain' in which the first line rhymes with the third and the second with the fourth—a description which is insufficient rather than incorrect. the peculiarity of the pantun lies in the fact that its first pair of lines and its last pair seem to have little or no connection in meaning with each other. to explain the real character of the pantun it must be pointed out that in the oldest malay literature the word is used to signify a proverb, a metaphor or simile. now, malay proverbial expressions are of two kinds—metaphorical proverbs of the european type, say "if you want a pig, go and get one; he eats up the rice!"; and proverbs by sound-suggestion, such as "sudah gaharu chendana pula!"—it was eagle-wood, and now it is a sight! this is expressed again by an unwavering soundless expression, suggesting by its sound the words "sudah lahu berihana pula"—"you are really getting the same question again." this method of sound-suggestion gives the key to the otherwise incomprehensible pantun. the following english rendering of a malay quatrain will give a fair idea of the nature of sound-suggestion:

"the fate of a love is to fly—
it flies to its nest on the knoll;
the gate of true love is the eye,
the pride of its quest is the soul."

the theory of this form of composition is that the first pair of lines should represent a poetic thought with its beauty veiled, while the second pair should give the same thought in all its unveiled beauty. the gradual self-revelation of the poet's idea, as its true significances are disclosed by the power of great charms that the pantun possesses in the eyes of its voytaries.

fables.

the type which of all types of malay story, pure and simple, is probably the earliest and has the widest geographical range is the fable. the fables of the peninsula fall into two classes: there are those that are of indonesian origin, and there are those that are apparently malayan. of the latter, the pre-eminent important are the malay best fables. the best known are the coconut, the mouse-deer, and the tiger stories. mouse-deer is not unfit to stand beside breer habib. he is "a small cheetahon, to be handy; and among every single present of malaya. he is commonly called the mouse-deer, but, in spite of the name, belongs rather to the antelope tribe. the heel-hold of the hinder leg projecting in a fashion never seen in the true deer. the eye-teeth, too, are curiously long and projecting, and the hoofs are elongated to an extent by which a creature is really remarkable. at the same time he is a most beautiful little animal, with big, black, pleading eyes and all the grace and elegance of a gazelle." in the cycle of mouse-deer stories there may be detected several stages of evolution. first, there is the simple "guile" story, like the tales, "how toulou outlines mouse-deer; "how mouse-deer escaped crocodile." in this stage mouse-deer is a delightfully pagan knave, gulling gull against strength in the struggle for existence.

the following story of "how mouse-deer cheated tiger" is a good example:

"mouse-deer turned himself: "what shift is there for me to save myself alive?" and he came to a wilder's nest. "go," said he, "i will do the worst." presently tiger found him and asked him his business. "i guard nabi sleyman's gong," said mouse-deer, pointing to the nest. "may i have a shot at him?" asked his majesty. "well, i shall like to strike it; and, if you let me do so, i will not eat you. "you may," answered mouse-deer; "but, with your leave, i will go a long way off first, or nabi sleyman will be angry."

"all right," replied tiger. mouse-deer went a long way off till he came to a clump of bamboo, and there he waited. then tiger smote nabi sleyman's gong and all the wasps swarmed outting and stung him till his face was swollen. so he bounded away in a rage and went where mouse-deer stood. "knave, villain," said he, "see my face all swollen. now i will kill you. but what is this bamboo you are watching?" "it is nabi sleyman's violin," said mouse-deer, pointing to a slit stem, in which the wind sounded. "how do you work it?" said tiger. "i squeeze it with your tongue," said mouse-deer, pointing to the slit. "may i?" asked tiger. "yes," said mouse-deer; "because i will go a long way off first, or nabi sleyman will be angry."

"all right," said tiger. mouse-deer went a long way off and stood by some thin. then tiger licked the gus reeling, squeezed the stem, blew and closed the fissure, so that the end of tiger's tongue was pinched off; and that is why tigers are short-tongued to this day. so he bounded away in a rage and went where mouse-deer watched over the thin. "see the hurt you have done me, accused one," said tiger. "my making his tongue, of a truth, i will stay and eat you. but, first, what is this fluid, that you guard it?" "it is nabi sleyman's barat;" said mouse-deer. "may i eat it?" said tiger; "of all things i should like to eat it; and if you let me do so, i will not kill you. "you may," said mouse-deer; "and perhaps it will cure your tongue; but, first, let me go a long way off, or nabi sleyman may be angry with me." "all right," said tiger. mouse-deer went a long way off and stood by some thin. tiger tasted the thin. "why is it so bitter?" said he; "beast, this is not rice, but fluid only. and now," continued in a rage, "i will be a long time waiting. "now, indeed, your hour has come," said tiger; "make ready to die. but, first, why did you grow so thin?" said tiger, looking at the coiled snake. "this is nabi sleyman's turban," said mouse-deer. "may i wear it?"
asked Tiger; "of all things I should like to put it on; and if you let me do so, perhaps I may spare your life." "You may put it on," said Mouse-deer, "but first let me go a long way off. or Nabi Sleman may be angry with me."
"All right," said Tiger. Then Mouse-deer went a long way off and looked on gleefully. So Tiger began to unwind the coils, but the snake awoke, his tongue darting like flame, and fought with Tiger and overcame him and killed him. "Ha! ha!" laughed Mouse-deer, and went on his way, up hill and down dale, by jungle and plain.

In the next stage, Mouse-deer has become possessed of an ideal of justice, and exercises his wit for unselfish purposes. Here, Islam has entirely corrected the unorthodox animistic outlook by onshing him from his pride of place and admitting him only as a servant or assessor to Solomon the Prophet, under whose charge is the jungle world. In one of these fables a rich man claims a hundred gold pieces from orphans on the ground that they had grown fat upon the smell of his harder. He is brought before the stock Oriental just poten-
tate, and the claim is disposed of by Mouse-deer, who directs the orphans to count over one hundred pieces behind a curtain, and says the sound of the money is as valuable as the smell of the harder.

MALAY PROVERBS.

Malay proverbs afford a pretty reliable index to the national character, and they reveal much admirable philosophy. The native of the pen-
insula regards courage, patience, and industry as mere subsidiary qualities; intelligence is paramount. He sees that he cannot snare game or catch fish or rob the forest of its precious products merely by trusting to hard work. He is not an idle, or he would not be a fisherman, working, according to the state of the tide, in all weathers and at all hours of the day or night. But he avoids useless risks, and has proverbs that ridicule waste of strength or energy:
"If you pole down stream, the very croco-
diles laugh at you!"
"Who goes out of his way to dye the sea green?"

The true Malay admires the intelligence that can secure great results at little cost:
"When you kill a snake, do not break your stick."
"When you spear a fish, take care not to injure the spear."

His detestation of worry is expressed in the query:
"If there are worms in the earth, need one dig them up?"

The old aristocratic government of the country has made him amazingly tolerant of the vices of others. He thinks it natural enough that a prince should gratify his passions whenever he has the chance. After all, says he:
"The python likes his chicken."
"The peasant looks upon the chiefs as a race apart: They are hornbills, we are sparrows. How can we possibly fly in the same flock?"

The idea of seeking vengeance against the tyrant excites his bitterest ridicule:
"The flea wants to fight the eagle."
"The cock thinks that, by refusing to crow, he will prevent the sun from rising."

The Malay does not rejoice over the suffering of his neighbours. He says:
"When the lower frond falls, let not the upper frond be amused."
But he knows that it is as much as a man can do to protect his own interests. He would laugh to scorn the idea of an English statesman troubling himself about the affairs of Finland or Armenia:
"Why put aside your own child so as to suckle some monkey from the jungle?"

This cynical indifference to the wrongs of others is typified by the reply of a powerful chief to a subject who considered himself injured:
"Men must stores of grain possess
If they hope to earn success;
Men, when caught without a gun,
From their enemies must run;
When insulted, men who lack
Cannon never answer back."

This reply has become proverbial.
"One may as well be hanged for a sheep as for a lamb" has many equivalents in Malay:  
"If you must die, it is nobler to be taken by a big crocodile than to be nibbled to pieces by little fish."

The essence of good breeding, according to the Malays, lies in the word "bahasa"—true courtesy, sympathetic tact, gentleness of speech and manner—not in the "
Soft tongue that breaks bones," or "
The mouth of man that is sharper than swords or spears."

Much of this, however, only represents an ideal. Malay deceit (Senu Melayu) is also proverbial, and other proverbs dismiss the men of the various States as follows:

"Wheat stalks are the men of Malacca."
"Exaggerators are the men of Melangkabau."
"Cheats are the men of Bembau."
"Liars are the men of Trengganu."
"Arrogant are the men of Pahang."

The natural wealth of the peninsula and the sparsity of its population have always made it easy for a peasant to earn the bare necessities of life; the short-sighted greed of his chiefs made it useless for him to earn more. Religion, though it combating the native princes on many points, agreed with them in considering that money was bad for the people:
"Wealth is a harlot, wisdom is faithful—just not after the treasures of this world that cannot follow you to the world to come."

For our proverb "An Englishman's home is his castle" the corresponding Malay saying is:
"A man is a prince on his own sleeping-
platform."

The Malay's attachment to his home and his native village is illustrated by the following:
"Though it rain silver and gold abroad, though it rain daggers and spears at home—still, home is better."
NATIVE ARTS AND HANDICRAFTS


ABORIGINAL.

The various wild tribes which for convenience may be called the aborigines of the Malay Peninsula are in such a low state of civilisation that their knowledge of handicrafts is very rudimentary. But primitive though they are, any account of the arts of the Malay Peninsula would be incomplete without a passing reference to them and their works.

In basket-work they are fairly proficient, but both the shapes of the articles and the methods of plaiting in vogue are very limited. The baskets are mostly those for slinging on the back, in which to carry their belongings. They are made usually of split rattan, and the method of plaiting is very similar to that of the familiar cane-bottoms to chairs. That is, with two sets of rattans crossing one another nearly at right angles a network is formed, leaving holes either square or diamond-shaped, while another set of rattans crosses these at an angle of 45 degrees, at or near the intersections of the first series, thus producing more or less hexagonal holes. They are cylindrical or slightly conical in shape, and are not strengthened with thicker pieces of cane. In the photograph (Fig. 1) two of these baskets are shown—one, at the lower left corner, of coarse plaiting, and the other, at the top, of fine.

The caps or covers of the quivers for blow-pipe darts are sometimes made of basket-work. In this case a thin round strip of rattan is coiled into the desired shape, and is held in place by an interlacing of fine, flat strips of rattan, which bind the individual coils together. These appear to be the only two methods of cane-work known to the aborigines, and no attempt at variation of the manner of plaiting, so as to produce a pattern, is to be seen in any of their basket-work.

Mat-work, made of the split leaves of some of the various species of Pandanus, is also used for making carrying-baskets and for lining those of rattan. Bags of various sizes, some of the most beautifully fine workmanship, are in use. Sleeping mats and the greater part of the covers to the blow-pipe quivers are also made of mat-work. The plaiting is of the straightforward right-angled form, and patterns are rarely attempted, except when Malay work has been copied. A mat carrying-basket is shown at the lower right-hand corner of the photograph. The small mat bag above it is for betel-nut, and a rice bag will be seen

Fig. 1.—Sakai and Semang Mat and Basket Work.
on the left. The sleeping-mat on that side has a zigzag pattern, painted in yellow, on it, and the other mat has a few dark-coloured strips of leaf plaited into it, dividing it up into diamond-shaped spaces, and it also has some irregular yellow spots.

String used for fishing lines and for making fishing nets is manufactured by the aborigines. Some of it is very fine and strong; consequently, it is valued by the Malays, and is in certain places a recognised article of barter.

The next step in advance—that is, weaving—has never been taken, but very fair cloth is made out of the bark of several trees. The way in which this is done is by beating the bark with a wooden club carefully all over, until it can be separated from the stem of the tree. It is then soaked in water and beaten again with a sort of bat, somewhat like that used by French washerwomen, but with the surface deeply scored, until it is thin and flexible enough to wear. The best cloth is prepared from the bark of the Ipoh or Upas tree (Anilauris ketaria). This is the same tree which yields the most deadly poison with which they coat their blow-pipe darts and arrows. The bark cloth is used for loincloths and head-dresses, and the large pieces for blankets; for many of these people live high up on the hills, where the nights are quite cold and covering of some sort is a necessity. Plaited rattan, the black fungus called abar batu, and other materials are used for women's dresses, bracelets, leglets, and head-dresses.

In the accompanying illustration (Fig. 2) a loin-cloth of Ipoh bark (marked A) is shown, painted with a pattern in yellow and black. Another piece of bark cloth (B), painted with white and black, and the blue string and bark (C), are head-dresses. Figure F is a Semang woman's dress of plaited abar batu, and E is a man's head-dress of plaited leaves. The mallets (D) are those used by the Semangs to beat out the bark cloth. The Sakais use much coarser ones for the same purpose.

The material out of which they fashion the greater portion of the articles in everyday use is bamboo. From it they make their weapons—blow-pipes and quivers, spears, and the shafts of the arrows used in the north of the Federated Malay States. From it also they make their musical instruments, cooking vessels, and innumerable other things. The surface of bamboo lends itself very readily to decoration by scratching, by removing parts of the outer covering, and by burning. It will be found that all these methods are employed. These people undoubtedly have much artistic feeling, and take great pains in the ornamentation of their simple belongings. Not only do they put ornament where it can be seen, but very often it is also put on places which are ordinarily hidden from view, such as on the inner tubes of their blow-pipes. Objects which have only a transient use, such as the bamboos in which rice is cooked, are also often decorated with incised lines. The patterns employed are very various, but are traceable in many instances to some natural object, often, however, much conventionalised. Sometimes the ornament consists of really good representations of plants, leaves, or flowers, while the figures of animals and men are also occasionally introduced.

The bamboo combs and pin (A, Fig. 3) are decorated by incised lines, and also by removal of the outer skin. The earring (B) to the right has the pattern burned in, and in the other it is cut. The blow-pipe quiver (D), the tobacco pouch at the top left-hand corner, and the box at the bottom of the same side have cut patterns. The box is very noticeable on account of the excellent representations of plants and leaves.
with which it is adorned. The long-water-bamboo (C) is painted in red and black, while the pouch to the left of C was painted in red, black, and white, but the red has faded a great deal.

To a very limited extent these people are acquainted with the use of dyes and paints. They use a yellow dye for ornamenting mats and bark cloth, also a red dye for the same purpose; and white China clay and lampblack are used, with oil, as paints. These substances are employed for colouring mats, bark cloth, and bamboo articles, and they are also used to paint the faces and sometimes the breasts of the women. In this latter case the method is

fairly constant. Broad lines of red are drawn, and these are enriched by working on them with narrow lines and dots of black and white. Elaborate patterns are thus produced, which, they consider, add greatly to the charm and beauty of their women. It is, however, only applied on occasions when people in a higher level of life would put on their "Sunday best." In the photograph (Fig. 4) of a young Sakai woman of Batu Pips, Perak, it will be noticed that there is a broad line from the hair down the forehead, nose, and upper lip to the chin, with two lines forming a V on the forehead, two others from the outer corners of the eyes to the ears, two horizontal ones from the nose, across the cheeks, and two others from the corners of the mouth obliquely downwards. The bamboo water-jar in her right hand is also elaborately painted with the same colours as her face.

MALAYAN.

Basket-work is in quite an advanced state. For the most part the material used is rattan, but split bamboo, the rind of the leafstalks of several palms, and the inner portion of the stems of some species of climbing ferns are also employed.

Carrying baskets are of two sorts: large conical-shaped ones, which are slung over the shoulders, like those used by the wild tribes, only larger and supported and strengthened by thick pieces of round rattan; the other variety made in pairs and carried on a yoke over the shoulder. They are shallow and cylindrical in form. Of other shapes, mention may be made of the round, flat baskets called Kudai, and also others of the same name made in the form of the water-jar called Buyung. These baskets are often ornamented with silver plates, and have silver wire handles. They are used to carry provisions, and are, in fact, luncheon-baskets, while the smaller ones of the same shapes serve as work-baskets. Two of these Kudai are shown on the right-hand side of the top row in Fig. 5.

It would be quite impossible to specify within the limits of this article the various forms and uses of the baskets to be found in the peninsula. It may be said that the Malay lives in a basket-work house; that the fittings to his boats, the fences of his gardens, the trappings of his elephants and buffaloes, his fishing and bird traps, and even the hat he often wears, are all made of basket-work. These hats are fes-shaped, and made of the inner portion of the stem of one of the climbing ferns called Resam. They are very finely plaited, are transparent, and have the appearance of a coarse black net. One is shown on the left of the middle row. The methods of plaiting are as various as the shapes and uses of the articles, the most primitive of all being formed by taking a piece of bamboo, splitting it up into thin strips, opening these out and then putting interlacings of rattan at intervals so as to hold the strips in place. Such a basket is shown in the plate, the second from the right of the bottom row. The one to the extreme right answers the same purpose as the stringing. The centre basket of the same row is a Pahang shape, and that to the left is a pad basket. The one to the right of the centre row is a stand for a round-bottomed cooking-pot or water-jar.

Closely related to actual basket-work is the material called Tapis. It is employed for the walls of houses and boats and (a very coarse variety) for the fencing of fields and gardens. The walls of native houses are only occasionally made of planks. Before the influx of Chinese sawyers and carpenters, planks were very costly, as they were all made by the primitive method of splitting up a tree trunk, by the aid of wedges, into two or more pieces, and then laboriously working these slabs into planks by cutting them down with the native axe, called a Betong, and finishing them off with an adze, known as a Pallie. It may, therefore, be easily understood that only a few rich people could afford to build wooden houses.

Tapis is of two kinds, one being made of split bamboo and the other of the outer covering of the leafstalks of the Bertam palm. The latter form is the more durable and makes the better walls. Long strips of the outer covering of the leafstalks are laid side by side on the ground, and then others are inserted at right-angles to them so as to form a large sheet of basket-work. The technique is much the same as weaving, only in place of threads there are long thin strips of hard, though flexible, material.

Tapis is a fabric which naturally lends itself to the production of patterns. If one set of strips are turned so as to expose the outside, and the others at right angles to them are turned so as to expose the inside, a biocoloured chequer pattern results, and it is easy to see how, by varying the plaiting, the patterns can be increased almost indefinitely. In addition to taking advantage of the natural colours of the material, the Malays enhance the effect by the use of pigments. It is usual to plait the Tapis in pieces of the sizes and shapes suited to the requirements of a building. When finished they are bound round the edges with rattan, lifted into position, and tied in place. The natural colours are two shades of brown. Four varieties of plaiting are shown in the photograph (Fig. 6), made of the natural-coloured

Fig. 5.—MALAY BASKETS.

Bertam. This is the size that is used for the inner species of wall-work, the Bertam being in strips of about one and a half inches in width. The 6-inch scale in the centre serves to show the relative proportions of the patterns.
It is in the State of Perak that this particular art has been carried to the greatest perfection. Each of the many patterns has a name, such as the Rhinoceros' footprint, the Ginger flower, the Sand-piper's footprint, and the Chess-board.

The painting is done when the material is in place on the house. The colours used are black, white, yellow, and red. The effect is decidedly pretty, and is reminiscent of the fancy brick and flint gables of some of the old houses in the Isle of Thanet. Fig. 7 gives specimens of nine varieties of painted Tupas. The colours used on these examples are black, white, and pale yellow. They are from Bukit Gantang, in Perak. H is the Sand-piper's footprint, G the Chess-board, and M the Rhinoceros' footprint.

Mat-work is again closely connected with Tupas, but owing to the greater flexibility of the materials of which it is composed, the texture is much closer and finer. The floors of most Malay houses are made of an open grid of narrow strips of bamboo or palm stems. This flooring is called Lautai. It is generally more or less covered with coarse matting, on which smaller mats of finer quality for sitting, sleeping, and praying are laid. No chairs, tables, or bedsteads are to be found in a proper Malay house; consequently, mats play a very important part in the furnishing of a house. The smaller mats are ornamented by patterns, formed by varying the method of plaiting. Others have openwork which has the effect of coarse lace, while others again are plaited with previously dyed strips of leaf, the platiest being of black and white and the more ornate of red, blue, green, and yellow. Some of the designs are quite beautiful, and are carried out with much taste. The long mat (A, Fig. 8) is from Upper Perak. The centre one (B) is white-edged and backed with red cloth. It is ornamented with openwork, through which the red cloth shows. C is a very ornate praying-mat in many colours. D is also coloured; it is a square sitting-mat.

Besides those already mentioned, there are many other ways in which mat-work is used. Mat bags for rice, and finer ones for holding Sirth requisites, are to be seen in every house. These bags are flexible, and can be rolled or folded up, but what are known as Malacca baskets are still in texture. As usually made, they consist of mats of differently shaped covered boxes, and have raised patterns on them. This variety of plaiting is known as Arawa gila, or mat weaving, from its great complexity. This is limited to Malacca, but is practised there to a greater extent than elsewhere, and quite a considerable trade is done in Malacca in these mat baskets.

Of late years a fairly large industry has sprung up in Negri Sembilan in the manufacture of mat hats. They are of fine texture and resemble the coarser sorts of Panama hats. They are much worn locally by Europeans of both sexes, and many are sent to Europe for sale. The finer arch of Pandan leaves, and the coarsest of Meuhauhau leaves. Some are plaited single, and others double, while several shapes and sizes are made.

In the centre of Fig. 9 is a pile of five Malacca baskets, each of which fits into the next size larger. This is the way they are usually made for sale. There are two other examples, on either side of the central pile, of different shapes. The two birds and the various mat bags under them are made for the purpose of holding new rice. It is customary at harvest time to give these fanciful baskets of rice as complimentary presents to friends, after the manner of Easter eggs. They are made in great many shapes, and some of the bags are ornamented with cut paper and in other ways. At the bottom to the left is a Port Dick-
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

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The common hand-loom which is still worked in England. The cloth is nearly invariably coloured, sometimes in stripes, but more generally in checks or plaids. Both silk and cotton are used, and gold thread is extensively introduced in the finer qualities of silk cloths. For the most part this is only applied to the wool, though occasionally a few strands of gold thread are laid in amongst the warp, so as to produce longitudinal lines of gold in the cloth. When simple, straight, transverse lines or bands are desired, the gold thread is used in the ordinary way in the shuttle, but where detached floral or other patterns are required, separate bobbins of gold thread are used, and the thread is inserted where required, as the weaving progresses, one bobbin being used for each line of flowers or other adornments. These bobbins are generally made of horn, in the shape of a netting-needle. As many as thirty or forty may be used for the weaving of one width of highly ornate cloth.

The cloth at the top left-hand corner of Fig. 11 was made at Sitiawan, in Lower Perak. It is red, with a pattern in gold thread woven into it. The two showing below it are scarlets. The patterns are produced by the Kain Limau method and by weaving, and the whole is enriched by the addition of gold thread. The cloth at the right is a sari, a sort of petticcoat that is worn by Malays of both sexes. In this also the patterns are produced by the same combination of methods.

Another way in which patterns are produced is a species of tie and dye work. In this the warp threads are dyed before being woven. They are tied up with waxed thread and strips of banana stem in such a way as to expose only the portion of the warp that is intended to form the ground colour. A small portion of silk warp thread tied preparatory to dyeing is shown in Fig. 12. The thick dark-coloured ties are banana stem and the linen are waxed threads. This portion having been dyed, the parts which are to be, say, blue are unwrapped. These are next dyed, and so on until finally the white parts are united. By this method the whole of the threads for the warp have a pattern produced on them. They are then put in the loom and woven in the ordinary manner with a wool of the colour of the ground. The effect of these Kain Limau cloths is very charming and harmonious. A great deal of their beauty is

son hat of Mengkuang leaves and to the right one of Pandan leaves, while between them is one partly made to show the method of plaiting.

Spinning by means of the whorl and spindle has practically become extinct, but these primitive implements are still employed for making fishing-lines and string for fishing-nets. The implement is of two sorts: in the one a slender stick is fastened into a pear-shaped piece of hard wood, and in the other a piece of tin is cast on the end of it. The stick is the spindle, and the wood or tin is the whorl. These implements are whirled by placing them on the thigh, which is held in a slanting position, and rapidly pushing the open hand downwards along the thigh, a rotary motion thus being given to the spindle. There are now very few places in the world where this original method of making thread is still in vogue. Formerly cotton was grown and prepared for spinning in the Malay States. It was passed through a pair of wooden rollers and then baved and finally twisted up on to a stick, which served as a distaff.

String and cordage are still prepared from many fibrous substances, with the aid of an implement called a Peleting. It is difficult to understand how, with such a rude appliance, it is possible to make really good string and cord. A much more complicated apparatus is used in Pahang for the same purpose. It is a very ingenious contrivance for twisting three strands at one time by pulling a cord backwards and forwards.

Following the art of making yarn, naturally

Fig. 8.—THREE LONG MATS AND ONE SQUARE ONE.

Fig. 9.—MAT BASKETS AND HATS.
undoubtedly due to the wool being of the ground colour, so that each portion of the pattern is masked with this colour, whereby all crudity of colouring is avoided.

Another method of tie and dye work is practised. While cloth is stamped with an outline pattern in some light pigment with wooden stamps, and is then tied up so that the pattern will remain white when the cloth is immersed in the dye for the ground. It is next untied, and other colours are added locally to the portions remaining white. These cloths are called Kain Pelangi, or rainbow cloth, and are, as their name indicates, of very brilliant colouring.

There is represented in Fig. 13 a silk cloth, one portion (A) of which is Kain Limau and the other (B) is Kain Pelangi. The ground colour of the latter is bright yellow, while that of the former is a rather dull red. It was made by tying and dyeing the warp threads for the Limau portion, leaving the rest white, then tying and dyeing the white part by the Pelangi method.

Cloth, both cotton and silk, is ornamented by gilding. This cloth is known as Kain Tehfoh. The cloth, which is usually of some dark-coloured, indistinct plaid, is starched and then polished by laying it upon a piece of hard, smooth wood and pushing a cowry shell, attached to a strong wooden spring, over it. In the photograph (Fig. 14), which was taken in Pekan, Pahang, a man is seen calendering a cloth. He has hold of the wooden spring just above the cowry shell, and is pushing it from him. The upper end of the spring is attached to the eave of the roof of the house. Only a narrow strip of the cloth is polished at each stroke of the shell. The kerchiefs worn as head-dresses are often got up in this manner, as well as those which are to be girt. A number of wooden stamps with portions of patterns carved on them are used by covering their surface with a gummy substance and impressing them on the cloth. Gold leaf is then laid on to the sticky impressions, and when the gum is dry it is dusted off, except where it adheres to the blue check, with a gilt pattern. In the corner (D) are some of the wooden stamps used in gilding these cloths. A full set of these stamps, from Patani, in the Perak Museum, numbers fifty-five pieces. This is another set of twenty-six pieces from Pahang.

After the production of cloth comes the idea of ornamenting it by working over its surface. It has been mentioned that even the aborigines have endeavoured to enrich their bark cloth by painting designs on it. This desire to superimpose ornamental figures on various fabrics appears to be universal. In Malaya many methods of embroidery are practised, and probably the greatest efforts have been lavished on the adornment of their mats.

The method of embroidery called Suji Timba is that which is employed for the finest of all this class of work. The design is drawn on paper and the paper cut out. From this is prepared a pattern of thin card, which is laid on the ground of the intended work and neatly covered over with gold thread. Floral designs are thus produced, in gold, on a ground usually of some rich shade of velvet. The beautiful embroidery shown in Fig. 15 was designed and worked by H.H. the Raja Permaisuri, the second wife of the Sultan of Perak. At the bottom is a long mat and at the top a square mat. These are covered with Suji Timba. On the right is a round pillow and the left an oblong one, both with Suji Timba ends. In the centre is a gold repoussé box, and behind it is a gold-mounted kris lying on its cushion, the top of which is embroidered. These were the presents which the Sultan of Perak gave to T.R.H. the Prince and Princess of Wales when they visited Singapore in 1901. The Raja Permaisuri is acknowledged to be one of the most artistic designers and workers in the country, and these mats may be taken to represent the best work of their class to be found in Malaya.

There are many other forms of embroidery in use, some of which are also employed in Europe. One form which occurs in certain districts is the application of gilt paper patterns to a ground of cloth. They are stitched very neatly all round the edges, and the gilt paper...
Fig. 12.—SILK WARP THREAD TIED READY FOR DYING.

Fig. 16.—SAMPLES OF THE PILLOW LACE CALLED BIKU.
the adornment of baskets, dish-covers, and other similar stiff objects. Gilt, silvered, and coloured papers are cut and stuck or stitched, wood lashed together with raffia, and with a thatched, gable-ended roof, the floor being raised on high posts. The better class houses back the kitchen and offices. The walls are either of Tejas, or of bark, or of coarse palm-leaf matting.

On all the rivers there are many boats, from the smallest dug-out, capable of holding one person, to large house-boats. The former are made out of a log of wood. The selected log is gradually dug into, and by the aid of fire is extended laterally so as to form a boat. Boats of 70 feet in length and over 7 feet in width are thus constructed. It is also usual in building a large boat to take as the foundation a dug-out and build upon it. Some of the largest house-boats are thus constructed. These large boats are used to a great extent by traders, and are, in fact, travelling shops, the owner and his family living in them. As a general thing it may be said that they are poled up-stream and paddled down. The Malays are also quite celebrated for building sea-going craft, some of which are large and rigged as schooners. The most graceful of all the boats is the Pahang Koleh (Fig. 17). It has a keel of a semicircular outline, with high stern and stern posts following the same outline. It is usually gaily painted, and has a curved arm at the stern, in the shape of a swan’s neck, to hold the mast and sail when lowered.

In Negri Sambulian the art of wood-carving has in the past reached a high standard of perfection. There still remain some superbly carved houses, but unfortunately the modern work is not up to the level of the old. In all the States the smaller articles of household use are often embellished with carving. Coconut scrapers, work-frames, rice-sifters, and the handles and sheaths of weapons and implements are often loaded with ornament. Boats, particularly in Pahang, have carved figure-heads, besides being otherwise decorated with carving. Some of the river boats belonging to the chiefs are much ornamented in this manner.

Coconut shells are carved and made to serve many purposes, such as spoons, drinking-cups, and censers, while carved horn and ivory is much used for the handles of weapons.

The carving of stone is practically unknown. A few old tombstones are to be found, but they are in three blocks, connected with covered ways. The front block is the audience-hall, the middle contains the living rooms, and the have been imported from Achin. There is one species of pottery, however, which should, perhaps, be mentioned here. It has evidently

Fig. 13.—Kain Lima, Pelangi, and Telepoh Cloth.

(A cloth of Kain Lima and Kain Pelangi is on the left and another of Kain Telepoh Is on the right. In the corner are stamps for gliding the latter.)

Fig. 14.—A Malay Calendering Cloth with a Cowry Shell.
been formed of clay, allowed to dry, and then been elaborately carved, after the manner of wood-carving and with the same patterns as are found on that material. Subsequently it was baked. Its place of origin is uncertain, but it appears to be of local production.

The ordinary Malayan pottery is of special interest, as it is all built up by hand, in the manner prevailing in the British Islands in the far-away Bronze Age. The potter's wheel, which has been known in almost all countries from the earliest historic times, is still unknown to the Malays. The vessels are built up by adding successive rings of clay and working one ring into the one below it, and then beating the whole together with a bat-shaped piece of wood. Globular-shaped water-bottles are formed with a flat bottom in the first instance, and when the upper portion is fairly hard the lower is wetted, patted with the bat, and, by blowing into the neck of the bottle, expanded till of the desired shape. The photograph of the old potter (Fig. 18) was taken at Salang, in Perak. She is in the act of forming a water-bottle, such as is seen on the left-hand side of the picture. Others in various stages are near her, and so are the simple implements used in the art.

Patterns are produced by pressing into the still damp clay small wooden stamps, which have dots, lines, flowers, &c., carved on them. When dry, the ware is burned, either on the surface of the ground or in a shallow pit. It is then often coloured black, by different means in various localities. In Krian and Negri Sambilan coloured patterns are produced by painting with a pigment composed of a ferruginous clay before the ware is burned. The shapes of the water-bottles are derived from the bottle-gourd. Large water-jars and cooking-pots are also made. The ware is unglazed, except for the application of resin to the lower portions of some of the water-bottles. These latter are often mounted with silver and sometimes with gold, having stoppers of the same metals.

The pottery illustrated (Fig. 19) comprises water-bottles and jars. Beginning from the top and taking them from left to right, the first is a gourd-shaped water-bottle from Perak. It should be noticed that there is a small hole near the mouth. In use this is covered by a finger, and the admission of air through it controls the flow of water. Although used to drink from, it is not allowed to touch the lips of the drinker. The next is a gourd-shaped bottle, so like the natural vessel that it could not be differentiated from it, except by the closest inspection. The central one is a modified form, with a foot, and is mounted with silver. The remaining bottles on the top row are also modifications of the gourd. These four are all from Perak. On the second row is a water-jar with a spout designed for drinking from; it is from Pahang. The next is a Perak form of water-jar called Bayong, then a covered water-jar with a tall foot and another of the spouted type from Negri Sambilan. On the bottom row is a water-jar called Glok, from Perak, a Pahang form of Bayong, and then two from Krian, in Perak. These are coloured, the one with red and the other with red and white. They stand in dishes and have covers and drinking-cups. It is to be noted that only in Pahang and part of Negri Sambilan are any spouted vessels to be met with. Each district also has its distinctive shapes and patterns of pottery.

Probably the first metal to be worked in the peninsula was tin, and it is still applied to many purposes for which, in other countries, different and more suitable metals are used. For instance, the old coinage was of tin, and bullets, sinkers for fishing lines and nets, weights, and many other articles are, or were, made of tin. There is no record of when it was first discovered and became an article of commerce, but it was certainly in very remote ages. Up till comparatively recent times the industry remained in the possession of the Malays, but since the advent of the Chinese
nearly all the mining has passed into their hands.

It is impossible to omit in any account of Malayan crafts mention of tin mining, which in the past was the most important of all. The Malay mines are worked by two methods. The first, which is called Liris, is only suited to hilly land. A stream of water is led to the place to be worked, and the earth is dug down so that it falls into the water. The stream carries away all the light portions of the soil, and the tin ore, being very heavy, remains in the bottom of the ditch, from which it is lifted, re-washed, and finally cleaned in a large round shallow wooden tray, called a Dulaq. The second method, which obtains on flat land and is called Lumbong, is by digging pits of some 15 feet or so square, and lifting out the wash-dirt with baskets. The tin-bearing earth known as Karang is subsequently washed in long wooden or bark troughs, to separate out the ore. The water is baled out of the pits in buckets during work. It is, therefore, only possible to work shallow land, and the pits cannot be made large, or so much water would accumulate in them that it would be impossible to lift it without a pump.

The cleaned tin ore is, or rather was, smelted in a small furnace, built of clay, the blast being furnished by a piston bellows, made out of a hollowed tree-trunk. The fuel was charcoal. The tin, having been smelted, was cast into ingots and was ready for sale.

The charcoal was burned in a very primitive way. A tree was felled and allowed to lie in the jungle till it was dry. Earth was then built up round the lower part of it and it was set on fire, being kept carefully covered up so as only to allow enough air to get in to keep the fire burning. As the fire progressed, successive portions of the trunk were covered up with earth, till the whole

Fig. 10.—HAND-MADE POTTERY.

Fig. 20.—MALAYAN TIN TOYS.

Fig. 16.—A MALAY WOMAN MAKING POTTERY.
There are very clever smiths amongst the Malays, and the most perfect development of ironwork is to be found in the kris blades, the damascening on some of these weapons being as fine as anything produced elsewhere. The kris, which is the distinctive Malayan weapon, is a dagger of many shapes, and varies in length from a few inches up to 2 feet. Some are straight, while others are waved. Those with a single bend in them are counted as three-waved, and the numbers go from this to five, seven, nine, and so on up to as many as forty-seven waves. The waves, according to the Malay method of counting, always come to odd numbers, and there are four, six, eight-waved kris. The long kris, which is the one with which criminals used formerly to be executed, has a blade which sometimes reaches 24 inches in length. The criminal was made to kneel down, and the executioner, who stood behind him, pushed the long thin blade downwards into his left shoulder just above the collar-bone. If properly inserted, the weapon went straight through the heart and produced almost instantaneous death. A small pad of cotton was then placed on either side of the blade and held in position by the finger and thumb of the executioner, so that the blood was wiped off as the blade was withdrawn. It was considered unworkmanlike to spill a drop of blood.

The variety of weapons is very great. There are swords both of the European pattern with Crusader hilt and of the true broad-ended Malay pattern (called Lading), many species of daggers and ripping knives, besides spears with variously shaped blades.

In Fig. 21, A is a curved sword with a Malayan type of handle made of carved ivory handle is to permit of both hands being used to wield it; F is a straight kris with its sheath. This particular one is of the Patani pattern.

and silver; B is a straight sword with a brass Crusader hilt; C is the broad-ended Malayan sword called Lading (this last has a horn handle with a coloured tassel; the backward curve of the blade enables a draw cut to be given with great ease); D is the kris-shaped sword known as Sundong; E is a weapon resembling the old European bill (the long is of ivory, and is in the semblance of a grotesque human head with a very long, lip-tilted nose. G is a gold-mounted forty-seven-waved kris, and its sheath; H is a five-waved inlaid kris, which is particularly mentioned hereafter; I is a long or execution kris, with silver-mounted sheath; and J is a ripping knife called Sabit. This is held in the right hand, the forefinger going through the hole in the handle and the blade projecting outwards from the little-finger side of the hand. The stroke is made in an upward direction when it is desired to use the weapon, and the lower part of the body is the point of attack. K is a dagger known as Tambah Lada, or pepper-crusher; it has many varieties, like all the above-mentioned weapons.

The blades of all the weapons are made of Damascus steel, and are treated with a preparation of arsenic, which colours them in much the same way as better class gun-barrels are coloured. The process is a complicated one and cannot be described here. If it is carried out properly the results are very good, some portions of the blade assuming a dead black colour, while others are left silvery white, with numerous intermediate shades of grey between them.

Iron cannons were formerly made by coiling a piece of bar-iron round a mandrel and then forging it into a solid tube. Small arms do not seem to have been attempted in the peninsula; at any rate none are in existence. Although such clever blacksmiths, the Malays do not appear ever to have acquired the art of casting iron.

Copper, bronze, and brass have been much worked in the past, and there are still Malay artificers who make various articles from these metals. Most of the copper appears to be old, and was fashioned by hammering.

Bronze was used for casting cannon of considerable size. These are often elaborately ornamented. The beautiful-toned Malay gongs are also of bronze. They are cast roughly to shape and finished by the use of the hammer. Weapons such as spears, daggers, and kris are sometimes made of bronze. This is an interesting survival, as cutting implements of bronze have long since been superseded by those of steel in almost all other parts of the world.

The older brass, called red brass, and the modern yellow metal are cast, and then either filed or turned up to shape on a rude form of
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

In Fig. 22, beginning at the top and taking them from left to right, the articles are: a brass cup for water, called Batil, a water-jar with cover and drinking-cup, a brass kettle for hot water, a hammered copper dish, an oblong brass tray with perforated edge, a cooking-pot and stand, a water-jar stand with pierced edging, a large brass sweetmeat-tray with perforated edge, and a large covered brass box with handles.

In Trengganu a white metal is worked by the same methods, and some well-made things are manufactured from it. The metal appears to be a sort of German silver. The wax process is employed in casting it.

The Malayan silver-work is universally admired. The place of origin of the art is uncertain, but apparently, judging by the patterns, its source was India. It is evident that there were several centres from which it started, for distinctive patterns and shapes are found in different States. So much is this the case that in many instances it is easy to determine with certainty where a particular example was made. Briefly stated, the method of working is this: Sufficient silver is taken to make the intended article. It is melted in a small clay crucible on a sort of forge, the blast being obtained by a piston bellows, and charcoal being used as fuel. An ingot is then cast. This is beaten out by hammering into the intended form, and is frequently softened by heating and quenching in water during the process. The form having been obtained, the patterns are then proceeded with. The piece is put on to a lump of softened gum-resin, and with the aid of punches the work is begun from the back. When as much as it is possible to do has been effected, it is removed from the "pitch," and turned over and worked at from the front. This is continued until the pattern is complete. During this process it has to be softened several times if the relief is high.

No gravers are used for any portion of the work, everything being done with punches of different forms. The relief in some pieces is extremely high, and the metal is reduced very greatly in thickness in these portions. Very considerable skill must be necessary to produce these results. The above-described method is that which is known in England as repoussé; and one other method of ornamentation is practised corresponding to chasing. It is, however, by the aid of small chisels and a hammer that the pattern is cut into the silver.

On the top row of Fig. 23 are a silver kettle, water-jar, and water-bottle, then a covered dish for food and a Sangku, which is used for washing the fingers and mouth after eating. Hanging up under these are two tobacco-boxes, the round one being of the Perak form and the octagonal one of the Negri Sambian and Selangor form. The other articles between these are variously shaped pillow-ends, two being of pierced work. The four objects on the second row and the seven on the third are called Cymbals, and are used to hold the various things which are chewed with Sirih leaves and betel-nut. The two covered bowls and the large uncovered one are for water, while the two small ones at the end of the third row are drinking-cups. The plate on the left of the lower row has an enamelled edge; next to it is the bottom of a workbag in silver-gilt. In the centre is a large pillow-end for use at weddings, and then come two silver plates.

Inlaying the precious metals into the baser is of comparatively rare occurrence, but there are in existence some kris blades which are very finely inlaid with inscriptions in gold and silver. One of these is in the Perak Museum, and is reproduced above. According to native tradition, the artisan who made it also made nine others. The Sultan for whom he worked, not wishing him to go on with the manufacture...
of them and so deprecate the value of those already made, had him put to death. True or otherwise, there is a very distinctly Oriental flavour about this narrative; and it will doubtless be remembered that a similar case actually occurred to an unfortunate Russian architect.

The iron or steel cutters used for cutting up betel-nuts are occasionally inlaid in the most elaborate manner with silver, while some of the bronze cannon have inscriptions on them also inlaid in silver.

A quite distinctive art is the inlaying of wooden articles, like walking-sticks, handles of weapons, &c., with tin. The design is cut into the wood, care being taken that it is slightly undercut. It is then covered with clay and dried. Molten tin is next poured in through a gate which has been left for the purpose. When cold the clay is removed, and the surface of the tin filed up and polished.

The art of enamelling is also known to the Malays. The ware is called Jadum, which is equivalent to niello in England. The piece is prepared by chiselling out the pattern rather deeply, or, more correctly, by cutting out that portion which is to be the ground of the pattern. The depressions are then filled in with the enamel, and the piece is fired so that the enamel melts. It is next ground down and polished. The result is a silver design with a blue-black ground. An inferior variety is filled in with a material resembling hard pitch. This, however, is generally used on brass articles only. Another form of this work resembles cloisonné. The base is copper, and the pattern is chiselled out in it. Then gold is carefully fitted into the recesses and the copper hammered so as to fix the gold firmly in place. It projects from the copper, and this space between the gold lines is filled with black enamel, which is melted and subsequently polished. In this ware the design is of gold and the ground of polished black enamel.

There are shown in Fig. 24, at A, B, and C, three Pendants, or waist buckles of Jadum ware. The central one, C, has inscribed on it an Arabic charm. D is a silk-winder of the same ware, while E is a silver Pendant which is cut out ready for enamelling. The buckle (G) is of brass and black enamel, and the tobacco-box (F) is of the gold and enamel Malayan form of cloisonné.

Gold is worked by the same methods as silver. Several qualities are used, the fineness being reckoned by parts in ten; so that Mas lan, that is "eight gold," is an alloy in which there are eight parts of gold to two parts of copper; this is the quality used on good work, and is equal to 19-carat gold. A copper-coloured alloy of lower standard than 9-carat gold is known as Swara. Besides the repousse work, golden articles are often embelished with wire-work, spangles, and faceted beads of gold.

Malayan gold is coloured a deep red by chemical means, as the natural-coloured gold is not admired. This colouring, however, soon rubs off, and requires frequent renewal on those articles which are subjected to much wear.

The uses to which gold and silver are applied are more numerous than would be supposed by those who have seen little of the home-life of the natives. Chimbals—the small covered metal boxes in which the betel-nut, lime, gambier, and other things chewed with the Sirih-leaves are kept—are very often made of silver, or silver and gold, or wholly of the latter metal. Water-jars, drinking-cups, plates, and spoons, as well as pillow-ends, the mountings of weapons, and objects of personal adornment, are frequently made of one or other of the precious metals.

In recent years the coarser and cheaper work of Chinese silversmiths has, to a great extent, replaced that of the Malayan smiths. My suggestion an attempt has been made by the Government to counteract this regrettable tendency by instituting an Art School at Kuala Kangsar, In it various Malayan arts and crafts are taught by native teachers. It is too early to say what will be the results of this endeavour, but a fair number of pupils have been and are being trained in the school.

Painting, by which is meant the production of pictures in colours, or even in monochrome, is quite unknown to the Malays. Religious feeling is probably responsible for this to a great extent, for they obey to the letter the prohibition contained in the second commandment, and carefully avoid representing both men and animals.
FAUNA

BY H. C. ROBINSON, CURATOR, SELANGOR MUSEUM.

WITH PHOTOGRAPHS BY FRED W. KNocker, F.Z.S., CURATOR, PERAK STATE MUSEUM.

EXTENDING as it does through more than ten degrees of latitude, with mountains ranging in height to over 7,000 feet, the Malay Peninsula presents such variety in local conditions and environment, that, as might naturally be expected, its Fauna can vie in richness with that of any other area of equal extent on the earth’s surface.

Dealing with the origin of the fauna, we find that at least three elements are clearly defined, each of which probably represents a definite phase in the geological history of the country. There is, first, what may be termed the coastal zone, which covers the greater portion of the inhabited districts, including the valleys of the larger rivers for some considerable distance from their mouths. Secondly, we have the submontane tract, extending over all mountain ranges under about 3,000 feet in height, as well as the lower slopes of the loftier mountains up to about that height; and, finally, the mountain zone proper, comprising the remainder of the peninsula above 3,000 feet on the main range as well as certain of the loftier detached ranges, such as the Larut Hills in Central Perak and the Tahan Range in Northern Pahang.

It is with the fauna of the first of these zones alone—the coastal—that the average European inhabitant of the Malay Peninsula is familiar.
though to the student of natural history it is the least interesting of the three. It comprises species of mammals, birds, and reptiles that are widely spread throughout the further East.

**MONKEY OF MALAYA.**

from Burma to Cochin China, including the coastal districts of the large islands of the Indian Archipelago. In the submontane tract are found animals that are known mainly from the Sunda Islands, Borneo, Sumatra, and Java, and from the forest districts of Tenasserim and Lower Burma, but which are not, as a rule, met with either on the plains of Burma or in India proper. These must be regarded as the representatives of the true Malayan fauna which existed in its present haunts while the alluvial flats beneath were still a shallow sea, such as the Strait of Malacca is at the present day. Finally, we have the true mountain zone, which is inhabited either by species known in no other locality, or which are identical, or very nearly so, with forms found either in the Himalayas or on high mountains in Java, Sumatra, and Borneo. These species are

**THE ORANG UTAN.**

probably survivors of a period when the land area of the peninsula was very much more restricted than is the case at present. A continuous land connection with the mountains of Tenasserim and possibly with high land in Sumatra must have existed then, though at some later date the former was broken somewhere in the latitude of Kedah and re-united later. The larger mammals are very numerous throughout the region, but space will not permit of more than a very brief account of the commoner species, which are dealt with *seriatim* in the following pages.

Commencing with the monkeys, the anthropoid apes are represented by three or four species, of which the siamang (*Hylobates syndactylus*) is the largest as well as the rarest, though it is found sparingly throughout the Federated Malay States from the North of Perak to as far south as Negri Sambilan. The siamang is a large and powerful monkey, with very long arms, having a spread in old individuals of over five feet. In colour it is uniform black, occasionally with a whitish muzzle, and with a bare pouch under the chin. It is not infrequently kept in captivity, and is a gentle and affectionate pet when young; old males, however, are apt to become savage and treacherous, and can inflict a dangerous bite with their long canine teeth.

**"JEMMIE," A WHITE WHITE-HEADED MALAYAN GIBBON.**

Now in the London Zoological Gardens.

Allied to the siamang, though much smaller and less powerful, are two or three species of gibbons known to the Malays as *uan-uean* or *angka*, the former name being derived from the call of one of the species—a penetrating and pathetic wail, which carries for great distances, and is often heard in the early morning in jungle districts. One species is sooty black with a white ring round the face and with white hands and feet; another is uniform black; while white, or rather yellowish white, varieties of all the forms are frequently met with. They are docile in captivity and make charming pets, being cleanly in habits and affectionate in disposition, but are very delicate and rarely survive a journey to Europe.

Another group of equally common monkeys are the Leaf Monkeys, or Lotong, which are allied to the Langur of India. Several varieties exist, which do not differ materially from each other, and agree in having very long tails and either black, dull grey, or slivery black fur.

**A YOUNG MALE KRA OR CRAB-EATING MACAQUE.**

(Macaca cycnotarsus)

*Now living in the London Zoo.*

One species is found among the mangroves of the coast, another among casuarinas in similar situations, but they are more common in virgin jungle, in the neighbourhood of hills, ascending the mountains to as high as 4,000 feet. They are found on high trees in parties of from five or six to as many as sixty individuals, and but rarely descend to the ground. They do not lend themselves to domestication, and are only occasionally seen in captivity.

The only other monkeys which claim attention are the "boro," or coconut monkey, and the "kra," or crab-eating macaque, both of which are extremely common in captivity, and familiar to every European resident in the Straits. The former is an inhabitant of low-country jungle, and in its wild state is somewhat local in distribution. It is much sought
after by country Malays, who capture it when young and train it to climb the coconut palms and to pick any individual nut indicated by its owner. In some districts, indeed, this monkey is in such universal use that the trees are not even notched for human climbers, as is the case nearly everywhere. The specimens of the broh usually seen in captivity are somewhat dwarfed, but males of a size approaching that of a reindeer dog are occasionally met with, both wild and in domestication. Such animals are powerful and savage brutes, and have been known to attack human beings when molested, and to inflict serious injuries. The broh has a short, stumpy tail, and its hind limbs are very much shorter than the fore limbs, as is the case with baboons, to which the animal bears a strong superficial resemblance. The colour is a dull earthy brown, much darker on the crown, and the hind-quarters are furnished with naked callosities which at certain seasons of the year are coloured bright red.

The "kra" monkey, though closely related to the "broh," is very different in appearance, having both fore and hind limbs of approximately equal length and a tail slightly longer than the body. In colour it is dull greyish, the back and head frequently tinged and speckled with golden brown. With the exception of the hill country, it is widely distributed throughout the Malay Peninsula, but is commonest in the mangrove swamps, where at low tide large numbers may be seen searching the mud for crabs, small fish, and molluscs, of which its diet largely consists. Though a powerful swimmer, its method of crossing narrow creeks, which has been noted by more than one observer, is curious, as, instead of progressing on the surface, it sinks and walks along the bottom. The habit is probably due to the fear of crocodiles, to which many monkeys must fall victims, as is shown by the number of mutilated animals that may be seen on the flats.

Mention must also be made of the slow loris, one of the family of Lemurs, which are closely allied to the monkeys, and are found principally in Madagascar. This curious little
animal has somewhat the appearance of a sloth, and is often known to Europeans by that name. The colour of the fur varies from silvery grey to rusty brown, with usually a darker median stripe from the nose to the rump, but the most characteristic point about the animal, which is the size of a small cat, is the very large, round, and prominent eyes. In habits it is purely nocturnal, and is very rarely seen in its native haunts. It is, however, not uncommon in captivity, and is frequently carried on Malay ships, the idea being that its presence will always insure a favourable wind.

Chief among the carnivora of the peninsula is, of course, the tiger, which, though it does not attain the size of large Indian specimens or of the magnificent Manchurian variety, is, nevertheless, a formidable animal. In the Malay Peninsula the average total length of the male is about 8 feet 4 inches, though specimens of 9 feet 6 inches have been obtained, while tigresses are about a foot shorter. The tiger is common throughout the Malay Peninsula, especially in Perak, in the Ulu Langat district of Selangor, in certain portions of Pahang, and in Johore, while stray specimens from the latter State are met with almost annually in Singapore itself. It has been seen near the summit of Batu Puteh, one of the highest mountains in Selangor, but its scarcity or abundance in any given district depends mainly on the presence or absence of deer and pigs, which probably form its principal food, though the stomach of one fine male shot near Kuala Lumpur contained nothing but frogs.

Man-eating tigers are by no means rare, though it would appear that the Malayan tiger does not take to this form of diet so readily as its Indian brother, possibly because the Malay or Chinaman does not form so toothsome a morsel as the Kling or Bengali. One specimen shot in 1906 in Ulu Pahang had been responsible for the death of over twenty Chinamen, and, contrary to the usual rule, was by no means decrepit or mangy, though a slight injury to the foot had probably rendered it difficult for the beast to pursue prey more agile and less slow-footed than human beings.

During the year 1906 police rewards were paid for the destruction of seventy tigers, of which half were killed in Pahang, while during the same period seventeen leopards were brought in.

Next in importance to the tiger comes the leopard, of which two varieties, commonly regarded as distinct species, are exceedingly abundant throughout the Peninsula. The black leopard, or panther, is by far the commonest, the spotted form, which in India far outnumbers it, being regarded as a comparative rarity. Leopards are comparatively harmless to human beings, and but few cases are on record of fatal injuries through their agency; they are exceedingly destructive to goats, and are especially partial to dogs; they are often caught by Malays inside the hen-roads of country villages. A much rarer animal than the common leopard is the clouded leopard, which is distinguished by its smaller sides, more greyish coloration, and by having the spots very much larger and less regular and defined in outline. Its habits are not well known, but it is believed to live almost entirely in trees. Rembau, Kuala Pilah, and Gemencen, all in Negri Sambilan, are among the few localities recorded for this beautiful species.

Besides the above-mentioned species, which are all over 5 feet in total length, there are several smaller species of wild cat, which live in the deepest recesses of the jungle and are only rarely encountered. The commonest is known to the Malays as the riman anying, or "dog-cat," and is about the size of a setter and of a beautiful golden colour above, paler beneath. Another species somewhat resembles the British wild cat, but has a much longer tail. All varieties, even when captured as kittens, are very savage and intractable, and rarely live long in confinement.

Besides the tigers and wild cats, the Felidæ are represented in Malaya by numerous species of civet-cats, of which the most abundant is the palm-civet, which is a common inhabitant of houses in towns as well as in country districts. The civets, generally, are distinguished from the true cats by the more elongated head, and especially by the strong odour that nearly all varieties possess. The most striking member of the group is the biuriung or bear-cat, a medium-sized animal, about 4 feet from nose to tip of tail. The fur is long, black, and shaggy, sometimes with white tips to the hairs, and the ears are tufted like those of the lynx. It is arboreal in habits and but rarely met with. When captured young it is readily tamed and makes an amusing pet.

Two species of mongoose and as many weasels are also to be found. They are, however, quite unknown to the ordinary resident and even to the majority of Malays, and need not be mentioned further.
Jackals are unknown in the Malay Peninsula, and the only representative of the dog tribe is the *srigala*, which is closely allied to the dhole or red hunting dog of India. In the

vix., that contact with it causes blindness, and that the dogs make use of this quality by urinating against the trunks of trees on which their prey is likely to rub itself and among bushes and long grass through which it may pass.

Oilers are common in the peninsula, occasionally inhabiting the mangrove swamps and swimming some distance out to sea. In habits and appearance they closely resemble the English otter, though one variety considerably exceeds it in size.

Birds are exceedingly numerous in species in the Malay Peninsula, no less than 417 varieties being known to occur between Southern Tenasserim and the Singapore Straits. Dealing first with the birds of prey, we find that the vultures are represented by three species, one of which, the king vulture (*Octogyps calvus*), is a very handsome bird, black in plumage, with a white ruff round the neck, and with the legs and bare skin of the head and neck brilliant red. The other two varieties are dingy brown birds. Curiously enough, the vultures are hardly, if ever, seen much south of Pinang, and very rarely there, probably owing to improved sanitation in the British possessions and protectorates; but in the Siamese States north of Pinang on the west coast and as far south as Trengannu on the east coast they are very abundant.

Eagles and hawks are very numerous in species, but not many varieties are at all common, and the ordinary resident in the Straits Settlements is not acquainted with more than six or seven species, though more than four times that number are to be met with in the more remote parts of the country and at rare intervals.

Three species are common on the coast, and may be met with in numbers in every fishing village, viz., the Brahminy kite, the large grey and white fishing eagle and the osprey.

The latter is identical with the form inhabiting Europe which is so great a rarity in the British Isles. It is known to the Malays as the *lang,sipul* or oyster hawk, as they say occasional rat. Interesting as being the smallest known bird of prey is the black and white falconet, known to the Malays as the *lang,belitang* or grasshopper hawk, a small bird

northern parts of the peninsula, in Upper Perak and in Pahang, they are not uncommon, but in the more settled districts they are now very rare.

The Malay hunting dog is a handsome animal, foxy red in hue, with a bushy tail, black at the tip and sometimes entirely of that colour. It hunts in packs of five or six up to forty individuals, and in some districts creates great havoc among the domestic animals, goats, cattle, and even buffaloes. Malays consider it most unlucky to meet this animal. Their view is that disaster is inevitable should the dogs bark without their being forestalled in the act by those who are so unfortunate as to meet them. The same superstition prevails with regard to the urine of the *srigala* as that held by the Ghonds and other Indian tribes regarding that of the dhole,
YOUNG RHINOCEROS HORNBILS.

(Bucerot rhinoceros)

The “Ung-Gong” of the Malays. The common Horn-bill of the Malay Peninsula.

considerably less in bulk than the thrush, but which will attack and kill birds more than twice its weight.

Among the more uncommon species, mainly denizens of deep jungle, and therefore seen only at rare intervals and great distance, are three species of forest eagles, handsome birds of variegated plumage, somewhat smaller than

the golden eagle and furnished, when adult, with long pointed crests, which can be erected at will.

The honey buzzards are represented by two species very similar in appearance and habit to the British bird, and the peregrine falcon also occurs during the winter months. Finally, the

bat hawk must be mentioned. It is exceedingly rare, being known as yet only in three or four localities in the Malay Peninsula.

Three species of crocodiles are met with in Malaya, of which one, Crocodylus palustris, the marsh crocodile, is very rare, and, indeed, of somewhat doubtful occurrence except in the more northern portions of the peninsula within the territorial limits of Siam. Another, Tomistoma schlegeli, the Malayan gavial, which can be at once recognised by its long and narrow snout, is also somewhat rare and hitherto has only been actually met with in the Perak, Pahang, and Selangor rivers and certain of their tributaries, though skulls referred to it have been seen on the shores of the Taiping, the great lake in Senggora, on the north-east coast of the peninsula. The gavial is said to feed entirely on fish and not to attack man.

The largest specimen recorded from the Malay Peninsula is about 13 feet in length, but in Borneo and Sumatra much larger ones have been procured. The third species, Crocodylus porosus, the estuarine crocodile, is exceedingly abundant in every river and tidal creek throughout the peninsula, but is much commoner on the west than on the east side of the peninsula, which is probably due to the greater prevalence of mangrove on the western side. It attains a very large size, specimens of over 24 feet in length having been captured in the peninsula on more than one occasion, while from other parts of its range individuals of over 30 feet are on record. Though commoner within tidal influence, the crocodile ascends the river for very considerable distances, and is not infrequently found in the deep ponds formed by abandoned mining operations which have no direct connection with any river. It has also been seen 30 miles from land, in the centre of the Straits of Malacca. It is probably the cause of more loss of human life in the peninsula than even the tiger, and large specimens have been known to attack the small Malay dug-outs and seize their occupant. The Government consequently offers a reward for their destruction, and 25 cents per foot is paid for each crocodile brought to the police-station and 10 cents apiece for eggs. Considerable sums are annually disbursed on this account.

Many Malays make a regular practice of fishing for crocodiles, the usual bait being a fowl attached to a wooden hook in such a way that when the bait is taken two wooden spikes are driven into the palate and throat of the crocodile. The line for some distance above the hook is made of separate strands of rattan, which cannot be bitten through.

The Malays recognise many rarities, which, however, are based merely on differences in colour, due, as a matter of fact, to age, and not to any specific differences. Very aged speci-

mens of a dingy grey or greyish brown, frequently due to a growth of alga on the scales, are occasionally met with. Such specimens are usually regarded as “kramat,” or sacred, by the local Malays. They are supposed not to attack human beings, and any interference with them entails misfortune on the rash being who undertakes it.

A “kramat” crocodile frequented Port Weld,
in Perak, for many years, and was regularly fed by the inhabitants, and a similar individual was well known at Port Swettenham during the building of the wharves. The Port Weld one tell a victim to an unsportsmanlike European, who had it called up to be fed and then shot.

The next order of reptiles, the Chelonia, or turtles and tortoises, is very well represented in the Malay Peninsula and adjacent seas, no less than twenty-three species being recorded from the region. The largest of all existing species of turtles, the luth or leathery turtle (*Dermochelys coriacea*), is occasionally though rarely found in the Straits of Malacca, and a fine specimen captured many years ago in the vicinity of Singapore is in the Raffles Museum of that city. The species attains a total length of 8 or 9 feet and a weight which may approximate to three-quarters of a ton. It produces nothing of commercial value.

places are well known to the natives, and during the laying season are jealously guarded. In the native States the privilege of collecting the eggs is a prerogative of the holder of the State and is usually farmed out, considerable sums being paid for the right. The eggs are a favourite delicacy among all classes of natives and command a high price, anything from three-quarters to two cents apiece being paid for them. Though famed as an aldermanic luxury in Great Britain, the turtle is not much eaten in the Straits Settlements.

The flesh of the hawksbill turtle is inedible, nor are its eggs much sought after. It is, however, the principal source of the tortoishell of commerce, of which a very large amount passes through Singapore, though not much is collected locally.

Another species, the loggerhead, is also found in the Straits of Malacca. It may be recognised by the very large head and strongly hooked beak, in which respect it resembles the hawksbill. This strongly developed beak is correlative with the habits of the species, which are carnivorous, whereas the edible turtle feeds entirely on seaweed and vegetables. All three varieties attain approximately the same size, which is about 4 feet in length of carapace.

The four species just dealt with are exclusively marine in their habits, but we now come to a group known as the Testudinidae, or land tortoises, which, though often found in estuarine waters and not infrequently far out to sea, are mainly inhabitants of rivers. The head and limbs are large and powerful, and can be completely retracted within the carapace, which is quite devoid of horny shields and is leathery in texture. They are savage in disposition, and can inflict dangerous bites with their powerful jaws, the peculiar structure of the bones of the neck enabling them to dart out their head with great rapidity. The flesh is much eaten by Chinese and Malays, and specimens are frequently to be seen exposed for sale in the markets of the peninsula. About five species occur locally, which present only technical differences between themselves. The largest specimens attain a size of about 3 feet across the back.

The remaining tortoises of the peninsula, fourteen in number, are comprised in a group known as the Testudinidae, or land tortoises, and as a matter of fact some of them are almost as fluviatile in their habits as the soft tortoises. All have a hard and bony carapace, into which the head and limbs can be completely retracted, while in some species the lower portion of the carapace is hinged, so that when alarmed the animal is completely enclosed and quite impervious to attack. These species are known as box-tortoises (*Cylamys*), and are by no means uncommon in marshy situations.

Three species of large tortoises, which attain a length of 22 inches and more, are confounded by the Malays under the name hantong. In most of the native States, Perak especially, these tortoises are regarded as royal game, and their capture is prohibited under penalty of a heavy fine. The tuntong lays its eggs in sandbanks by the side of the larger rivers, and hunting for these eggs is the occasion for water picnics, in which the ladies of the Court take part. The eggs are elongated and have a hard shell, and are not round and leathery like those of the edible turtle.

Over seventy-five species of lizards are known to the systematist as denizens of the Straits Settlements, but most of these are rare and local or present only minute differences among themselves. Several varieties of geckoes are common in houses, but some of these have been introduced from other parts of the world, and are not really indigenous to the peninsula. In the northern parts of the peninsula and in Singapore, where it has been brought from Bangkok, a very large species,
grey with small red spots and nearly a foot in length, is sometimes to be found. It is known as the lekay, from its note, and according to natives its presence in a house indicates great good fortune to the occupants. A somewhat similar species, but of duller colouration, is fairly common in deep jungle, living in hollow bamboo culms to which its habit is rather peculiar, though its note is often heard. Mention should also be made of the flying gecko, which is characterised by having a large but variable number of flaps of skin along one side of the tail, and by having the skin of the sides of the body flattened and extensible so that the whole body can be rolled through the air and even rise slightly at the end of its course, though flight in the strict sense of the word is impossible. Several species of flying Draco are also found in the jungles of the peninsula, while one is also very common in orchards, frequenting chiefly the trunks of the coco and betel-nut palms. In this reptile the ribs are extended to support a lateral membrane which serves as a support when gliding through the air, though, like the flying gecko, no flight in an upward direction can take place. The colour of these flying lizards is generally of a mottled grey and brown, but the throat is in most species ornamented by a scaled appendage, which is brightly coloured, yellow, blue, scarlet, or maroon, varying with the species and sex. Other common lizards belonging to the same group as the flying lizards, but without their power of flight, are several species of Calotes, incorrectly called chameleons by Europeans, from their powers of colour change, but known to the Malays as sumpa, sanga, or cursers, from their habit of frequently opening and shutting their mouths when irritated or alarmed. The common species in the Strals is in large specimens about eighteen inches long, of which the long and slender tail accounts for considerably more than half, and in colour is a light emerald green, which changes to almost black when the animal is irritated or alarmed.

The largest lizards in the Malay Peninsula belong to the genus Varanus, and are called monitor lizards by the Europeans and binayak by the Malays. Two species are common, of which the largest may attain a length of over seven feet, such specimens being often mistaken for small crocodiles by inexperienced persons. One species is largely flattened in its habits, but the other is common round towns and villages, and is a very good feeder, living on carrion, and so fat as to be proof against all descriptions.

A very large proportion of the peninsular lizards are included in the family of Scincidae or Skinks, or begarang in Malay. These are small and inconspicuous in their habits, being usually found among dry leaves, &c., in jungle, though some are fond of baski in the sun in hot and open situations, and one species, the largest of the genus, is frequently met with in houses. The species vary much in appearance, and particularly in the size of their limbs, which are frequently rudimentary, or in some cases absent, so that the animal has a superficial resemblance to a small crocodile or a small monitor.

The only representative of the family to which the common English lizard belongs is a species hitherto found only in the northern parts of the peninsula. This species (Tachydromus sceloides) is characterised by a very long and slender tail three or four times the length of the body and has a total length of about fifteen inches. It is called by the Malays ular bengkarong, or the lizard-like snake, in allusion to its appearance, and inhabits fields of long and coarse grass (ulas), and is frequently seen along the tops of which its attenuated body enables it to travel.

The fourth and most important division of the reptilia is the Ophidia, or Snakes. Though the ordinary observer is not likely to come across even a tithe of the number, over a hundred and thirty varieties are known to naturalists as occurring within the limits of the Malay Peninsula. Only a very small proportion of these, however, are poisonous or in any way harmful.

The first group that merits attention is that known as Typhlopidae, or burrowing snakes. These serpents, which are almost entirely subterranean in their habits, are all of small size, rarely exceeding a foot in length. They are practically devoid of eyes, and their scales, which are small, smooth, and shining, are of the same character all round the body, the ventral ones not differing from the others as is the case with most snakes. The tail is very short and blunt, so much so that one of the Malay names for the species of the group is 'the snake with two heads.' Unless carefully sought for by digging or turning over loose rubbish these snakes are practically never seen, but very occasionally, when very heavy rain in the afternoon is followed by hot sun, they may emerge. They are absolutely harmless, though some Malays and most Javanese consider them as poisonous in the extreme.

The next family is the Boide, or Pythons, very frequently, but incorrectly, called boa-constrictors by Europeans. Three species are entered in the peninsular lists, but one, an Indian form, is of somewhat doubtful occurrence as a truly indigenous animal, while a second is of extreme rarity. The best known one, Python reticulatus, or naga sawa (rice swamp snake), is very common, and commits depredations among the poultry and goats of the natives. It is one of the very largest of existing snakes, and there is good evidence that individuals may attain a length of over thirty feet,

We now come to the family Rodentia, which comprises the vast majority of the snakes found in the Malay Peninsula. This group has been divided by certain peculiarities in the dentition into the following sections:—

Aglyphya.—All the teeth solid. Harmless. (Ophiolophyga).—One or more of the teeth in the back of the upper jaw grooved. Suspected or slightly poisonous.

Protognatha.—Front teeth in upper jaw grooved or perforated. Poisonous.

The first section, the Aglyphya, contains a considerable majority of the total number of snakes inhabiting the Malay Peninsula, but only two or three demand special notice. Acrorchus ferrucius is a very curious form which infests fresh water and lives chiefly on fish. In colour it is reddish brown mottled with black; its total length in full-grown specimens is about five feet, and its skin, which
is uniform round the body, is granulated like shagreened leather. The Malays call it *ulat helaii gajah* from a fancied resemblance to an elephant's trunk. The snake is very thick for its length, and its stumpy tail and flattened triangular-shaped head give it the superficial appearance of a viper, so that most persons consider it very poisonous, though as a matter of fact it is perfectly harmless.

Another very interesting species belonging being pieces of sugar-cane peeled and stuck on skewers. This snake, though not poisonous, is very vicious. It feeds on other snakes, small birds and their eggs, and slugs.

The third section, *Proteroglypha*, all very poisonous snakes, is represented by over thirty species in the Malay Peninsula and adjacent seas. Of these, however, about twenty-five are sea-snakes, which may be distinguished from the poisonous water-snakes by possessing a tail flattened like an oar. As a rule these snakes never leave salt water and are quite helpless on land. One species, however, *Inhabitus australis*, found in the Philippines, and another has been found in jungle in Sumatra some miles from the sea. The bite of all without exception is most dangerous and very generally fatal. Their virulence seems to vary with the season of the year, and a bite at the commencement of the north-east monsoon (November) is considered much more serious than one at any other season. Though quite common in the Straits of Malacca these sea-snakes are much more abundant on the east coast of the peninsula, where they annually cause a certain loss of life amongst the fishermen, whose familiarity with them causes them to treat them with carelessness. The poison appears to act somewhat slowly, and cases that ultimately terminate fatally often survive for three days or more.

We now come to a small group of snakes which comprises the most poisonous Asiatic species, whose bite is almost invariably fatal within a few hours of its infliction. Chief amongst these, and the largest of all poisonous snakes, attaining in well authenticated instances a length of over fourteen feet, is the king cobra, *Ophiophagus*, which is by no means uncommon in the Malay Peninsula. This species is reputed to be of the most ferocious disposition, so much so that it is stated to attack human beings unprovoked, though except in the breeding season or in the vicinity of its eggs it is somewhat doubtful if this is really the case. Old specimens are dull yellowish brown on the anterior two-thirds of the body, with the posterior third chquered with black. The under surface is much lighter, sometimes with a yellow throat, and the skin of the neck is dilated and can be erected into a hood when the snake is irritated. The principal food of the Hamadryad is snakes, including cobras and other poisonous species, to whose venom it is probably immune.

The cobra affects all types of country except the higher mountains and the mangrove swamps, but is perhaps commoner in the neighbourhood of towns and villages than in true jungle. Curiously enough, on certain small rocky islands in the north of the Straits of Malacca it is so abundant that the greatest care has to be exercised in traversing them, but, speaking generally, the death of a human

MALAY TAPIRS.

To this section is *Coluber bivius* var. *Ryden*. Though very widely distributed throughout Asia, the form inhabiting the Malay Peninsula, which is slightly paler and less mottled than specimens from other countries, is practically never found outside the large limestone caves which are very numerous throughout the Federated Malay States, and also in Kedah and Patani. Inside these caves, however, one may be certain to find two or three specimens a house. They live exclusively on bats, and attain in large specimens a length of over seven feet. Malays call them *ulat bulan*, or moon-snakes, and the Chinese venerate them as tutelary deities of the caves they inhabit, and will on no account interfere with them.

The section of possibly poisonous snakes comprises about twenty-five species in the Malay Peninsulas, which, so far as local experience goes, are quite innocuous to human beings, though possibly their bite has a slight paralysing effect on small mammals. About half of them are water-snakes, living in fresh and brackish water and only occasionally found on dry land, while the remainder are arboreal forms, often of very brilliant colouration.

Of these may be mentioned *Dryophis prasina*, the green whip snake, of very slender build, three feet long and a brilliant emerald green with a vivid yellow down each side. In some individuals the edges of the scales in the region of the neck are slivery turquoise blue. This snake is common everywhere, except in old and lofty jungle. It is usually found in small bushes, with which its colouring harmonizes so well as to make it very difficult of detection.

Another common but much larger snake of the same group is *Dryophis pluvialis*, which is also of very handsome colouration. The body colour is a deep glossy black with a slight glossy cast and with regular vertical bars of brilliant chrome yellow. The Malay name for the snake is *ulat kalum tesu*, *kalum tesu*

Even commoner than the Hamadryad is the cobra the most poisonous, though very much smaller, rarely exceeding a length of 6 feet. Malay specimens, as a rule, lack the spectacle mark on the hood which is generally seen on Indian ones, and are generally much darker, almost black, in colour. Occasionally a brilliant turmeric yellow variety is met with and in certain districts in the northern parts of the peninsula this is the dominant form.

CAPTURING THE TAPIR.

The wild pig of Malaya.

Of the two remaining genera of *Proteroglypha* snakes, represented in the peninsula by four species, the only form worthy of note is *Dolichis breviceps*, known to the Malays as the *ulat cakak mal pi hari*, or sunbeam snake, one of the most beautiful of its order. Its head and tail above and below are bright coral red, the under surface is the same colour, and the upper surface Oxford blue, separated from the red of the lower parts by a narrow lateral line of pale blue. Nothing is on record with regard to the effect of its poison on human beings, but Malays regard it as one of the most poisonous of all snakes. Its bite proves very quickly fatal to small birds and mammals, and it is a significant fact that the poison glands are relatively larger in this snake than in any other species, actually displacing the heart from its normal position.

The Amblycephalidae are a small family of medium-sized snakes, represented in the peninsula by five species, all of considerable rarity and of no general interest. They are nocturnal in their habits, and feed on small mammals, frogs, lizards, &c.

The last family of snakes to be dealt with are the Vipers, of which only one section,
the pit-viper, is met with in the Malay Peninsula. All are exceedingly poisonous snakes, but the physiological action of their poison is quite different from that of the cobras and their allies. Their bite is not invariably fatal, but even if the sufferer escapes death, serious constitutional disturbances are set up that may last for some months. The pit-vipers may be recognised by their flat triangular head and sharply constricted neck and by possessing a deep pit between the nostril and the eye. Six species belonging to two genera occur in the peninsula and are widely spread throughout the region. The genus Ancistrodon, which has hitherto only been found in the north of the peninsula, though its representative species, Ancistrodon rhodostoma, is common in Siam and Java, can be distinguished from the other genus, Lachesis, by having the head covered with large symmetrical shields instead of small scales. It is a heavily built and sluggish snake of mottled greyish brown colouration, and is found usually among dead leaves in undergrowth. Together with several allied species, it is called by Malays the nlar kafak daun, or leaf axe snake, the word "axe" referring to the shape of the head.

The species of the genus Lachesis are also thick-set snakes, usually with a considerable amount of green in the colouration, often varied with red, purple, yellow, and black. Lachesis sumatranus and L. grammoneus are almost uniform green, usually with red tips to the tail, which is prehensile. They are arboreal in their habits, and are not common except at considerable altitudes. Lachesis wagleri frequents the mangrove swamps, where it is much dreaded by Chinese woodcutters. It is green in colour, mottled, and starred with yellow and black, but no two specimens are alike in arrangement of pattern. The other two species are rare and only occasionally met with.
SPORT

THE HUNTING OF BIG GAME.

By THEODORE R. HUBBACK,

Author of "ELEPHANT AND SELADANG HUNTING IN THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES."

ALTHOUGH during the last ten years all the better-known parts of the Federated Malay States have been opened up to such an extent that the hunter in search of big game has now gone much farther afield than formerly, the increasing facilities of transport probably equalise the greater distances to be travelled, and places that, a decade ago, required several days to reach can now, with the help of rail and motor-car, be considered well within a day's journey. To enumerate all the places in the Federated Malay States where big game can still be found would scarcely come within the province of this article; let it suffice to say that the State of Pahang at the present time offers the best sport.

The big game to be found in the Malay Peninsula consist of the Indian elephant (Elephas maximus); two species of wild cattle embracing a local race of Gaur (Bos gaurus kubraki), generally known as the seladang; a local race of Bantin (Bos sobaducis butleri), which appears to be very scarce and does not probably exist south of the Baram river on the west coast or south of the Pahang river on the east coast; two species of rhinoceros—the Java rhinoceros (Rhinoceros sondaicus), which has only one horn, and the Sumatran rhinoceros (Rhinoceros sumatraensis), which has two horns and is the common rhinoceros of the Malay Peninsula; the Malay tapir (Tapirus indicus); the tiger (Felis tigris); and the leopard (Felis pardus), commonly known as the panther.

Practically all big-game hunters in this country confine themselves to the pursuit of the elephant and the seladang. Rhinoceroses are occasionally obtained; most of those shot by Europeans have been in Perak; and tigers also afford a certain amount of sport, but the common method of shooting them—waiting in a tree or on a built platform over a beast that has been previously killed—while exciting enough, scarcely comes within the category of hunting. Panther-shooting also comes under this head, these beasts being sometimes obtained after committing severe depredations on one's fowl-house.

The tapir is, I think, hardly ever hunted; it carries no trophies and, as far as I know, its meat is not used for food except by Sakais, the aborigines of the peninsula, who will eat anything. Although tapirs do not appear to be sought in their native haunts, that they can afford excellent sport is shown by an article on the subject in Mr. George Maxwell's charming book "In Malay Forests," and as it is a very common beast in many parts of the Malay States where the noble game is not to be found, it may well repay the attention of sportsmen.

To undertake a hunting trip in the Federated Malay States the sportsman would expect to bag specimens of elephant and seladang, possibly a rhinoceros, and, with great luck, a tiger, so the equipment for his trip would have to be laid out on such lines. Considering the required battery first, as being the most important part of the outfit, it must be borne in mind that all hunting of elephant, seladang, and rhinoceros is conducted on foot, and as 90 per cent of the shots at these beasts will be taken within a range of 25 yards—frequently very much less than this—it is obvious that the hunter requires to be armed with a weapon so powerful that, even shooting through the thick bush, it is possible to inflict a wound so severe that the animal's entire attention will be occupied with its hurt and, for a few moments at least, diverted from the hunter. In recent years the cordite rifle has been brought to such a state of perfection that the heavy bore black powder rifles are now out of date, and although the old 8-bore rifle, firing 10 drams of powder and a 2-oz. spherical bullet, was a most useful weapon at close quarters, it cannot be compared for hardiness with a cordite rifle of '450 or '500 bore. Personally, I prefer a '500 as being the most useful class of gun now on the market for large game in the Malay States, but many experienced hunters state that the '450 cordite is powerful enough for anything, and quite equal in stopping-power to an 8-bore. A double-barrelled rifle is a necessity; it may be essential to use both barrels in a remarkably short space of time when you are within a few feet of a wounded elephant or seladang in jungle so thick that your clear vision is limited to a radius of five or six yards. A magazine rifle requires a mechanical movement to bring another cartridge into action, a double-barrelled rifle merely the movement of a finger the fraction of an inch.

All cordite cartridges should be put up in sealed tins containing ten cartridges each. Few cartridges are used even on a long trip. The opportunities for shooting are never numerous, and cartridges that have been lying about for some time, exposed to the influences of the atmosphere, should be avoided. On a two or three months' trip, when communication with civilisation is almost impossible, the hunter should take with him at least two rifles and a shot gun, which would be useful to secure any small feathered game that might come his way. A pair of cordite rifles, or a cordite rifle and an 8-bore black powder rifle, would make a good battery for the heaviest game, but the battery taken is largely influenced by the pocket of the hunter, and the above should merely be taken as the minimum battery required. I do not think that the ordinary express rifles firing black powder are heavy enough for hunting dangerous game in the Malay jungles.

Going into the heart of the peninsula in search of game, it becomes necessary for the hunter to take with him from one of the chief towns sufficient stores to carry him through the entire trip, also a camp bed, two or three waterproof sheets, and a small stock of useful medicines, as well as a liberal supply of jungle clothes and boots. Khaki is not a suitable colour to hunt in; a dark green cloth must be procured, and for a two months' trip at least six suits should be taken. It is most important to put up all one's stores in suitable cases, so that no single case will exceed a coolie load. The 60-lb. load of Africa is more than a coolie load in this country; a limit of 40 lbs. should not be exceeded if one wishes to keep one's porters together. Directly the hunter leaves a main road, or if he be using a river as his highway, his boat, all his goods have to be carried over indifferent or bad jungle paths, and frequently over brick track at all, except that made by the beast he may be pursuing. A coolie carrying 40 lbs. on his back in such circumstances is, after all, well loaded, and generally earns his day's wages. Keeping in mind that the sportsman is entirely dependent on the natives, Malays or Sakais, for trackers and carriers, it is necessary to consider as much as possible the feelings of the coolie, who will not be very anxious to go at all, and certainly will not remain with you if asked to
carry too much or walk too far for his day's pay. Native trackers can generally be picked up and hired to hunt for a certain price, and who may try to find game for the sportsman; really good trackers are scarce, and are usually men of some one well acquainted with the country and the ways of the native.

The cream of hunting in the Malay States is undoubtedly the hunt for the seladang. The largest of the ox tribe now existent in the world, its grand proportions and the noble trophy which at the present day produces, makes it an especially fascinating beast to try to obtain. Add to this the extreme difficulty of approaching it in thick jungle, where it is generally found, and its great cunning when once alarmed, and it becomes a prize to be striven after with all a hunter's energy and resource.

Occasionally seladang are found feeding in open clearings, but only in the very early morning or late in the evening. They are sometimes killed comparatively easily, but this method is the exception rather than the rule, and most of the hunter's trophies will be obtained after many hours, even after the hard track and careful stalking through the densest of jungles.

A seladang is often represented as being a very dangerous animal, an expression of the unininitiated in the art of hunting but well initiated in the art of talking being that a seladang charges at sight. This is quite a mistake, for although they were so inclined, it would be impossible to hunt them for long without coming to grief, and they would certainly be alone even by the hardiest of sportmen. All wild animals hate the smell of man; to see him is bad enough, but to smell him is worse, and the seladang is no exception. In addition, if he has a good pair of eyes, and his hearing is more than ordinarily acute, so it may easily be imagined that it is difficult matter to approach seladang in thick jungle.

But a seladang, like most other animals in this respect too, if he only sees a human being and does not scent him, will sometimes, not always, hesitate a few seconds, standing hard at the intruder before dashing off, thus possibly giving the hunter a chance. But if the winds are right, however, he never hesitates in any circumstances, never looks round, just disappears as a flash, crashing through the densest jungle, creeps away on the magic way like a pack-thread before his mighty bulk. You follow him up, you hope he may not have gone far, you can't feel yourself that you have betrayed him, he was not alarmed very much; he certainly did not see you: how could he have done so?—his stern was towards you; surely you must get up to him again in half an hour or so. Your tracker, if he be experienced in the ways of seladang, will smile and say nothing; it is his lot to do what his master wills. Six hours later, with an empty water-bottle, footsore and weary, ten miles from your camp, only a lazy idea of your locality, you begin to speculate on the seladang and his ways, and to wonder if the game of hunting such an extremely timid beast is really worth the candle. Of course, you are wrong, and I am perfectly sure you are wrong, but remember next time to do your best to keep to leeward of him; do not give him a chance of smelling you, because the smell of you is a very horrid thing to a seladang.

But a wounded seladang is quite another beast to tackle. Although many of them do not show it immediately because they are so severe that they have no longer any heart or strength to fight, yet are able to get a long distance through the jungle, and when pursued, their quick and vitality being astonishing, I will cite two personal incidents to illustrate what I mean. A seladang, whose head I possess as a snared head, was killed by myself three years ago in the Jerang Valley, in the State of Negri Sembilan. I had wounded it with a shot that went through one lung and broke the ribs, a shot of an hour's grace, I followed the tracks, which were fairly sprinkled with blood, until they led to a cross trail, and there the seladang stood. 'I deduced from this that the beast had drank at the stream, and I expected that the water would soon tell on its damaged lungs, and that it would only be a matter of a few yards from the river bank—a steep hill rose almost from the river—I caught a glimpse of the beast's eye as it turned on me, and its head hanging low, apparently in great distress. I followed up the side of the hill, but the farther I went the better I could see to the rear of the seladang—the undergrowth was very thick—and when I did get another shot at it the result was not very satisfactory, the beast, with a heavy lurch to one side, disappearing altogether, and I could hear it crashing up the hill. The bullet I found afterwards had taken it much too far back. The beast stopped quite close to the top of the hill, for we soon saw the daylight through the trees which indicated the top, and presently a loud snort and rush told us of his arrival. With his track faintly on the top of us, and expected to see his huge form at any moment, but the snort was evidently the last of it, and we did not hear anything. Being now in close proximity to a wounded seladang, and feeling sure that he would not go far without stopping it, I got into position to fire a quick shot, but when we reached the top of the hill we could neither see nor hear him. His tracks led along the ridge of a steep spur, and when going along this ridge I saw him about fifteen yards below me walking in the opposite direction to that in which we were going, having changed his course quite suddenly, for it seemed to me at the same moment that I saw him, and, turning round, came straight up the hill by which his hill-side was so steep that his human being could not walk up it or down it without holding on to the saplings to enable him to keep his footing, yet this badly wounded seladang actually tried to charge up such a place. A bullet in the chest stopped him easily enough, but subsequently I examined his tracks and found that he had actually come up five yards of the intervening fifteen in the space of time that it took me to throw up my gun and fire at his chest. It does not require a great deal of mental calculation as to what he could have done on the level even in such a badly wounded state. On another occasion for a man to shoot a seladang at just an arm's distance from a morning siesta; he was about twenty yards from me in fairly thick jungle, and almost broadside on. I hit him too high, but broke his back. I immediately fired again at the black mass that I could see in the undergrowth—he fell, of course to the first shot—and then I moved away from my original position to reload my rifle and to get a better view of him. My rifle again ready, I was unable to see the beast at all until an exclamation of one of my men directed my attention to a spot much closer to me than I had been looking and, behold, there was the seladang within six or eight yards of me, struggling his way through the undergrowth for all the world like some huge prehistoric monster, with his useless quarters trailing behind him. The head, neck, forequarters, and shoulders were all white, but the flesh was black. It is always so with seladang. When dying they will face the beholder with beamy jaws and rubbery eyes, and if the hunter happens to be close to them, they will certainly try to make some sort of demoniacal snort, but the seladang head ever obtained in the Malay States was shot by Mr. C. D. Prab, in the Kelis Valley, in the State of Negri Sembilan. This head is a world's record outside span of horns. The dimensions were—

Widest outside span of horns, 46 inches; widest inside span of horns, 40 inches; widest between inner horns, tip of horns across forehead, 78 inches; circumference of base of horns, 204 inches.

The only other beast which I have found a full-grown bull seladang will measure between 30 and 34 inches outside span of horns, and about 18 inches in circumference at the base; but these animals are far too rare and variable in a good deal in the different localities where seladang are found, and no general rule can be made of them.
O

On the west coast of the Federated Malay States the seaboard is not very inviting at close quarters, except to the sportsman. The inroads of swampland, dead level, stretch between the limit of semi-civilised life and the sea, or river, where the rice-fields join the mangrove or nipah swamps. The line of demarcation between the snipe-grounds and the haunts of the crocodile. Beyond doubt, the best snipe-grounds are to be found in the district of Krian, in Perak, and in the Federated Malaya territories opposite Pinang. Good sport may be obtained inland in many places, but the grounds are very restricted, and the population is far more dense than in the coastal districts. The rice-fields and the low scrub jungle in the vicinity are the feeding-ground and resting-places of the snipe.

The snipe is a migratory bird. He usually arrives from the north about the beginning of September, and is away again on his flight northwards towards the end of February. It is joyful news to the jungle wallah to hear that the snipe are in; it is news which brings with it fresh energy to the listless and tired European, who gets up betimes in the morning in the happy pursuit of the bird. The early mornings in the East are fresh and cool, and the sportsman starts on his day's shooting full of vigour and enthusiasm. It is not for long that he can keep dry-shod, for the narrow bands of turf where the padi-fields are have been tramped by the snipe for so many years that the water has got to them and it is not long until he is wading in his shirt-sleeves. To make the matter worse, the birds are in such numbers that when he gets within range, they all fly up together, and if he is too far off to get a shot at them, it is impossible to get them to settle down to shoot. When he gets too close, they all fly up together and the gunner has to make up his mind whether he will shoot at them or not.

In certain favoured spots a snipe-drive can be worked; and driven snipe require a good man behind the gun to make a decent bag. Then there is the poacher's dodge of shooting the snipe just at dusk, when the birds alight on the ground. A gleam of white is seen as the snipe "tilt," just before dropping their feet to the ground; and one shot brings down, perhaps, from one to twenty victims.

This form of shooting, however, is only recommended when the larder is empty and there are guests to dine. "Fole, Sport!" you are a sporting bird and a toothsome morsel! (N.B.—Grill a snipe's head in brandy; it cannot be beaten.)

Now for the wily crocodile. I remember a little ditty that Walter Passmore used to sing in the "Blue Moon." It ran like this:

"Now, children all, both large and small, when walking by the Hoopy, If you should chance to view a tail just like a Goofie, Twill only show that close below there crawls a fear- some creature."

For a crocodile perhaps may smile, but all the same he'll eat you.

Truth to tell, he is a fearsome creature, and the warning, although culled from a comic opera, is worth heeding. It is only a few yards from here to the river. Here lies the past a belt of nipah palm, and we are on the riverbank. As the tide is running out, take a Malay sampan and go with the stream, and have a good look at the wonders of the crocodile with you. Again I must advise caution! In the good old times no disguise was necessary. The crocodile, although a hardened sinner, had still things to learn. But now he has profited by past experience, and the gleam of the sun on the white helmet of the detective inspector is quite sufficient to instil into him a little shame and make himself scarce. The European must disguise himself as a Malay if he really wishes to bring back the "Uriah Heap" of the river with him. For crocodiles are a wise and wary tribe in their home. That is why, the country and can be obtained, and to those who really strive hard, and in other walks of life, the reward is often very great.

**SNIPES AND CROCODILE SHOOTING.**

*By W. D. Scott, District Officer, R.A.U.B.*

Those who wish to hunt in the Malay Peninsula must be prepared for a great deal of hard work for a numerically small reward. But to those whose keenness for sport is greater than their desire for a colossal "bag," the sport provided in Malaya in the pursuit of these two haunts is ample reward, satisfying. The best authentic bag that I know of as ever having been obtained by a white hunter in the Federated Malay States on a single continuous trip consisted of three elephants and three sedang. These were obtained during nine days work by an inexhaustible hunter, assisted by first-class native trackers.

In a concluding word let me advise the would-be hunter not to be discouraged if at first several "misleaders" get away. The same as in the country and can be obtained, and to those who really strive hard, and in other walks of life, the reward is often very great.
taken by a crocodile at Tanjong Sarang Sang (on the Selangor river, near Kuala Selangor), which is at the end of the reach my bungalow overlooks. It seems that he was throwing the jala (cast-net) from a sampan with his brother. The croc seized his arm as he was leaning over the side of the boat and pulled him down. His brother caught hold of his other arm and was so pulled into the river too, the sampan being capsized. The brother swam safely ashore. The Malays wanted me to go out on the chance of getting a shot at the brute, so I went up to the place with four of them in my boat. About eight other boatloads turned out to watch for the croc. Some men on the spot said they had seen him come up once or twice. Thinking it now likely that he would go downstream, I paddled down some way, and after some three hours, as we were paddling home, some men in another sampan higher up shouted out that they were following the croc down, and almost immediately afterwards, nearly in mid-stream, a great black head came up, and then the shoulders and back. He was close to us, and I got a shot at him with my elephant rife. The smoke prevented me from seeing anything, but the men who were with me are certain he was hit; they say he threw his head and shoulders out of the water with his mouth wide open, and that he was hit somewhere about the left forearm. All I saw was a great commotion of the water. On the whole, I think he is probably done for—the boat was steady and we were fairly close, and I got a good, steady aim. I also think it likely that he is the criminal, as he was very big and black, as the poor boy whose brother was grabbed described. If he is dead now his body will come up in three or four days, and of course I am very keen on getting his skull. Also I want the men who were with me to get the Government reward, and I have promised them 5 dollars for his skull and, if he is really as big as they say, for his bones. My point in writing is to ask if any one brings in the croc to refrain from giving the reward till you have ascertained who killed it. There is an avaricious beast who has gone down the river on spec, and he will probably be hunting about for it for the next three days or so. Odd this, after talking of crocs last night! If the beast does come up near here and is at all approachable, I shall have a look inside his ‘tummy’ to see if he has swallowed any of the boy. I can’t see how a croc negotiates such a big morsel as a human being.”

Well, to make a long story short, Dr. Wellford did not shoot the brute that he was in quest of, for about two months afterwards a huge crocodile over 18 feet long was caught on a line and brought alive to Kuala Selangor for my inspection. I executed him on the jetty, and afterwards held a post-mortem examination. I discovered in his belly the ornamental buffalo-horn ring of the jala, and two finger-rings were identified by the father as belonging to the unfortunate lad who was seized on December 26, 1896, at Sarang Sang. Is it any wonder that I hate crocodiles?

HORSE-RACING.

The existing records of horse-racing in the Straits Settlements are very meagre, the Library documents having suffered from the ravages of white ants, while those formerly in the possession of Mr. C. E. Velge, of the Straits Racing Association, were unfortunately destroyed by fire. It would appear, however, that races were first held at Singapore in 1843. These took place on Thursday and Saturday, February the 23rd and 25th, the programme opening at 11 a.m., with the race for the Singapore Cup of 150 dollars. This was won by Mr. W. H. Read. There were four races the first day and three the second, with several matches to fill up time. The events were decided over the same course as at present, but the stand was on the opposite side, near Serangoon Road, and the progress of the competitors could only be seen partially by the spectators, as the centre of the course had not then been cleared of jungle. A Race Ball was held on the following Monday at the residence of the Hon. the Recorder, the stewards being Lieutenants Hosean, Messrs. Lewis Fraser, Charles Spottiswoode, W. H. Read, William Napier, James Guthrie, Charles Dyce, and Dr. Moorhead.

In the next year the races were held in March. They took place on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday—as at the present day—but in the morning. On the evening before each race day a dinner was given at the Race Stand, to which all members were invited. In March, 1845, the races were held only on two days, and in the afternoons. They were attended by Rear-Admiral Sir Thomas Cochrane and
NOTABLE PERFORMERS ON STRAITS SETTLEMENTS AND FEDERATED MALAY STATES RACECOURSES.

Residue  Vanitas  Jim Gospé  Nereus  Banester
Pawnbroker  Battenberg
a large party from his flagship, the Agincourt.
From that time onward the races have been an "established institution" in Singapore, and now there are two meetings every year—each extending over three days—one in May and the other in October. The oldest member of the Sporting Club at present in the colony is Mr. Charles Dunlop, who acted as secretary and clerk of the course in the early years of the club's history. The racecourse was granted to the club by the Government, and is vested in a body of trustees. It has a track of a mile and a distance (83 yards) in length, and the turf is of excellent quality. Originally the racing was confined to gentlemen riders, but professionalism was introduced about the time when the Imperial Government took over the colony from the Indian Government in 1867. Now the trainers and jockeys are nearly all professionals from Australia.

Racing in the Straits Settlements is controlled by the Straits Racing Association, on which body there are representatives from the Singapore Sporting Club, the Penang Turf Club, the Perak Turf Club, the Kinta Gymkhana Club, the Selangor Turf Club, and the Seremban Gymkhana Club.

At the Spring Meeting of the Singapore Sporting Club there are on the first day seven races, of which the most important is the Singapore Derby over a distance of a mile and a half for a cup presented by the committee, with 2,000 dollars added money. On the second and third days the premier events are the Club Cup, value 1,500 dollars, and the Stewards' Cup, value 1,000 dollars. At the Autumn Meeting the principal race on the first day is for the Governor's Cup, with 2,000 dollars added money; and on the second and third days, as at the Spring Meeting, the chief events are respectively the Club Cup and the Stewards' Cup. On each day also there are two handicaps for griffins, which are brought stakes on the various events. No betting is allowed on the course, except through the Totalisator (or Parimutuel), which is under the management of the committee. This system is well known and generally followed in India and Australia, but a few words of explanation here may not be out of place. Each horse is numbered. Those who desire to bet may buy as many tickets as they choose for any horse they fancy. The tickets cost 5 dollars each. All the takings are pooled, and after each event the pool (less 10 per cent. commission) is divided between those who have placed their money on the winning horse. In the place Totalisator the rules are rather more complicated. There is no betting when less than four horses start. When there are more than six horses in the race the pool is divided between the holders of the tickets for the first and second horses; when there are more than six horses in the race and between first, second, and third. For example:

### The Turf Club.
The Turf Club in Penang was founded as long ago as 1867. Mr. David Brown, a well-known sportsman, was the first president, and in later years he was succeeded by Mr. J. F. Wreford, who has done much to further the interests of the turf in the settlement. At the outset the Government liberally assisted the young institution by the free grant of land for a course. On this the first stands and buildings, of wood and attap, were erected in 1860, and small annual meetings were started. These gatherings were in the nature of gymkhana, and the total prize money never exceeded 600 dollars a year. But as the population of the island increased the club grew in importance, and by 1868 two meetings annually were being held. These extended over two days in January and two days in July, and the prize money for the year totalled 5,000 dollars. In 1900 new and substantial stands were erected, and the present prosperity of the club is indicated by the fact that, in January, 1907, prizes to the value of no less than 20,000 dollars were distributed during a three days' meeting. The entries include horses from the Federated Malay States, Singapore, the Netherlands India, Burma, and India.

The membership of the club numbers 500. The pretty situated course, surrounded by a wealth of tropical verdure, presents an attrac-
tive spectacle on race-days, with its brightly-dressed crowd largely composed of natives. The days of the race meetings in January and July are observed as holidays in the settlement. Mr. A. R. Adams is the president of the club, Mr. D. A. M. Brown is the secretary and clerk of the course, Dr. P. V. Locke and Messrs. A. K. Buttery, G. H. Stitt, Jules Martin, C. G. May, and Lee Toon Tock constitute the committee.

On the Pinang course the following records have been established:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Horse</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1899</td>
<td>Great Scott</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1 m.</td>
<td>1 49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>Bittern</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1 44</td>
<td>1 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>Essington</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1 44</td>
<td>2 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>Vanillas</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1 42</td>
<td>3 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1908</td>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1 42</td>
<td>3 30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The history of the turf in the Federated Malay States, like most histories, tells of gradual change—a change from the days of amateur racing and gymkhana to the present day of meetings organised under the code of rules now almost universally adopted; from the days when the only course for ordinary racing was that at Taiping, to the present day when the Kuala Lumpur, Batu Gajah, and Negri Sambian courses have quadrupled the opportunities for this, the most popular form of sport.

To take the horse first, the earlier races were run chiefly by Burman and Java ponies, but they soon gave place to Australian griffins, the importation of which began about the year 1890. As the interest increased so the supporters of racing made more and more strenuous efforts to improve their studs, with the result that to-day the Federated Malay States can boast that more than one horse trained in the States has won the blue ribbon at Singapore. Essington, in 1904, ran the Derby in 2 min. 42 1/2 sec., equalling the record time of the horses who enjoyed local fame, but mention may be made of Why Not, Mattie, Jimmy, Cadenas, Reward, Lyon, Mallets, Luisworth, Ranester, Juddo, Benedict, Lady Joe, Flora, Xerxes, and Duchess.

Racing began in Selangor under the patronage of the late Sir Wm. Maxwell, the then resident, who was instrumental in securing for the purposes of public recreation a course situated where the Federal Home for Women which is situated on the right-hand side of the Ampang Road, Kuala Lumpur. It was necessarily of a very primitive description, with thatched buildings; but since then any profit made by the club has been spent upon improvements, until Selangor can now boast of a racecourse as fine almost as any in the peninsula.

The Selangor Turf Club may claim to have inaugurated the thoroughbred griffin scheme. Three lots have now been imported, and, although the scheme met with considerable opposition at first, the griffins have proved to be the mainstay of racing in the country. The griffins must be certified to be clean thoroughbreds, with sire and dam entered in the Australasian stud-book; they are subscribed for, and the subscribers draw lots for them. Mr. Geo. Redfern, son of Mr. James Redfern, the well-known Caulfield trainer, is the leading local trainer, and has brought over a good many horses of his father's stables. There are several horses in the Federated Malay States bred by

Malvolio, which, with Geo. Redfern up, won the Melbourne Cup in 1891.

Of the many gentlemen who have been directly interested in the turf in the Federated Malay States the names most impressed on the memory are those of Messrs. H. Ayleshury, W. H. Tate, H. Ord, Geo. Tate, Wm. Dunnam, A. C. Harper, T. W. Raymond, J. W. Welford,
and F. Douglas Osborne. In later days Capt. Talbot, Dr. Travers, Messrs. W. W. Bailey, W. McD. Mitchell, Alma Baker, and Chung Ah Yong have been among the most enthusiastic supporters of the turf. Nor has the sport lacked its devotees among prominent Government officials—the late Sir William Maxwell did all he could to promote the interests of racing in the anti-professional days, and himself figured successfully in many a race as a gentleman rider; whilst Mr. J. P. Rodger, when Resident of Selangor, encouraged racing in every way.

Of gentlemen riders past and present other names which may be recalled are those of Messrs. J. Paton Ker, T. W. Raymond, W. Dunman, Noel Walker, C. B. Mills and J. R. O. Aldworth, F. O. B. Dennys, J. Magill, and Dr. Braddon. Of professionals the most successful recently have been V. Southall, E. Fisher, O. Randall, R. Bryans, S. Banward, J. Duval, and J. R. Elliott—jockeys well known in the colony and States as well as further afield.

The Perak Turf Club has been in existence for over twenty years, and has now a membership of about 250. Five members form the committee, Mr. R. W. Birch is the president, and Mr. W. H. Tate acts as hon. secretary besides representing the club on the committee of the Selangor Racing Association, to which association the club was affiliated early in 1896. H.H. the Sultan of Perak and the British Resident are hon. members. The meetings usually take place in August, the present course, which is 7 furlongs 1721 yards in length, being at Taiping. It was on the old course, situated about three miles from Taiping, that racing, as known at the present day, was cradled. At that time—1886—Burra ponies provided most of the racing, and the meetings were primarily social functions. The record times on the Taiping course are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Horse</th>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1893</td>
<td>Lucifer*</td>
<td>1 m. 67 yds.</td>
<td>1.50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>Why Not</td>
<td>1 m. 67 yds.</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900</td>
<td>Silverstone</td>
<td>1 m. 2 f</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>Puritan</td>
<td>1 m.</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1903</td>
<td>Lelchol</td>
<td>1.2 m.</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The Malden Plate.

The Kinta Gymkhana Club was founded in 1890, and now consists of over 300 members. The race meetings are held at Batu Gajah, the course and training stables being situated on a plateau about 350 feet above the sea level. The course is 7 furlongs; an excellent inside track has been completed, and both tracks are in good order. The meetings are usually held during the Chinese New Year festival.

The Selangor Gymkhana Club was founded on December 20, 1891. It took the place of the Negri Sambian Turf Club and consists of about 150 ordinary and visiting members. Dr. Braddon acts as hon. secretary and clerk of the course, and also represents the club on the Selangor Racing Association committee. The meeting takes place in June, on the racecourse at Gedong Lallang, three miles from Seremban. The course is the longest and widest in the peninsula, being 1 mile 93 yards in length and 66 feet wide.

The Klang Gymkhana Club has a circular race-track of four furlongs, overlooked by the Klang club house, which is used as a grand stand. A race meeting, held annually about May, was inaugurated some years ago, and the formation of a track was commenced, but the project was abandoned owing to its principal promoter being transferred to another district. In May of 1903 Mr. H. Berkley and others revived the race meeting, which had been discontinued, and through his good offices the track was finished. The training and riding of horses appearing at the annual meetings is confined to amateurs, and there are both flat and hurdle races. The first batch of griffins imported were Java ponies, and the second batch were Chinese, but now galloways are brought from Australia. There are no money stakes, the prizes consisting of cups. The club, however, organises lotteries on races, and these are open to owners and members. Mr. F. Bede Cox is president of the club, and the committee consists of Messrs. R. W. Harrison, R. A. Crawford, O. Furniss, H. A. Woolton, and Dr. M. Watson.

The Selangor Club was on January 1, 1899, associated with the Straits Racing Association. Captain Talbot is president of the club, Mr. G. Cumming vice-president, Mr. D. E. Topham secretary. The club has about three hundred active members, the subscription being 15 dollars a year, with an entrance fee of 10 dollars.

The following are the best times which have been recorded on the course:
CONSTITUTION AND LAW

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

The history of the constitution and law of our Straits Settlements is like the history of the British Empire itself in this respect—that it is one of gradual growth and accretion, of a substantial superstructure built upon small but sound foundations borrowed from those massive and enduring pedestals upon which tower the might and consequence of Greater Britain. From being originally an appanage of the Honourable the East India Company, the Straits Settlements have come to be a leading Crown colony of the Empire. Passing, with the demise of "John Company," under the control of our Indian Government, the Straits Settlements were finally transferred to the care of the Secretary of State for the Colonies by an Order in Council dated April 1, 1867.

The seat of government is the town of Singapore, on the island of the same name, and the Government consists of a Governor, with an Executive and Legislative Council. This latter body is composed of nine official and seven unofficial members, of whom two are nominated by the Singapore and Pinang Chambers of Commerce. The nine official members constitute the Executive Council. In each of the settlements there are also municipal bodies, some of the members of which are elected by the ratepayers, while others are appointed by the Governor.

To make matters clear, it may be well to outline briefly the colony's general history, with which is seen the gradual development of her constitution and law. At the present time the colony consists of the island and town of Singapore, the province of Malacca, the island and town of Pinang, the island of Pinang, the Cocon Islands, and Christmas Island—the two last having been acquired in 1886 and 1889 respectively. Pinang was the first British settlement on the Malay Peninsula, being ceded to the British by the Raja of Kedah in 1785. Malacca, which had been held successively by the Portuguese and the Dutch, was acquired by Great Britain under treaty with Holland in 1824, though it had been held previously by the English from 1795 till 1810. The founding of Pinang led to a transference of most of the trade which had previously gone to Malacca. In 1819 Singapore was acquired, and in 1826 this settlement, together with Malacca, was incorporated with Pinang under one government, of which Pinang remained the centre of administration until 1839, when Singapore became the headquarters of the Government.

With the systems of administration which obtained in Pinang and Malacca before that date we need trouble ourselves but little. Malacca had been held by European nations since 1511, and Pinang had been under the East India Company since its acquisition in 1785; but it was not until the fusion of the three settlements under one head that the constitution and law of the colony became concrete and solidified. At the time of the British occupation of Singapore, Pinang and Malacca were administered by a Governor appointed by the Governor-General of India. There was also a Lieutenant-Governor (Sir Stamford Raffles) at Bencoolen, and it was under his régime that Singapore was first placed, when it became a British settlement, with Major Farquhar as Resident. In those days the government of a people or community in the Malay archipelago was carried out very much by rule of the Executive, the Resident or Governor being absolute, and a free application of the Mosaic law was considered adequate to meet such cases as came up for adjudication. As the Straits Settlements grew in population and wealth, however, properly constituted courts of law had to be established, and the laws as applied in India were adapted generally with adaptations to meet local requirements. In 1819 the Resident of Singapore performed the dual duties of Magistrate and Paymaster, his only official colleague being the Master Attendant, who had also to act in the capacity of Keeper of Government Stores. A few years later, however, the Governor appointed a number of civil magistrates to administrate the laws of the infant settlement.

Only a year after Singapore was founded there arose a difference of opinion between the Governor and the Resident in respect of a matter which has been a fruitful source of controversy ever since—namely, the opium and spirit traffic. The Resident proposed to establish farms for these commodities. Sir Stamford Raffles wrote from Bencoolen that he considered this proposal highly objectionable (though there were such farms at Pinang and Malacca), and inapplicable to the principles upon which the establishment at Singapore was founded. But the leases of the farms were sold, nevertheless, and rents were exacted from the opium and arack shops and gaming tables. Law and order in the settlement were now maintained by a superintendent of police with less than a dozen native constables, which body in 1821 was augmented by a force of ten night watchmen paid for by the merchants of the place.

Two of the civil magistrates sat in the court with the Resident to decide civil and criminal cases, and two acted in rotation each week to discharge the minor duties of their office. Juries consisted either of five Europeans, or of four Europeans with three respectable natives. Indiscriminate gambling and cockfighting were strictly prohibited. In 1823, owing to the Resident having been severely stabbed by an Arab who had "run amok," the carrying of arms by natives was abolished. In a memorable proclamation which he issued in the same year regarding the administration of the laws of the colony, Sir Stamford Raffles pointed out how repugnant would be the direct application, to a mixed Asiatic community, of European laws, with their accumulated processes and penalties, adding that nothing seemed to be left but to have recourse to first principles. The proclamation proceeded:

Let all men be considered equal in the eye of the law.

Let no man be deprived of his liberty without a trial by his peers, or by due course of law.

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The last clause of Raffles's pronouncement embodies the first recognition of popular control, or the municipal idea, as it might more properly be called, which is now seen in its more developed form in the ratepayers' representation on the Municipal Board and the unofficial element on the Legislative Council.

The proposed abolition of the Gambling Farms furnished a subject round which wagged a fierce war of opinions for several years. On the one hand the continued existence of the farming system was advocated as a moral duty leading to good regulation of an admitted immoral practice; and on the other hand it was discountenanced on sentimental grounds. It was formally abolished by decree in 1829, but this led not only to surreptitious gambling but also to corruption of the police, and, however much the latter of these two regrettable results has been minimised, the former is as much an established fact today in Singapore as it was in those early years of the colony's history.

In the Protected Native States there are
Gambling Farns now, as there always have been, if not the rate of the government estimating being that the vice may be controlled through a Farm, because it is then necessarily conducted in public, and the farmers (like the opium farmers, who still exist in the colony) will prevent private gaming in their own interests. It is recognised, too, that the expenses of these farmers are defrayed by an equal amount of force of police who are exposed to unlimited corruption.

In consequence of a report received from the Resident, the necessity of the grant of the Government arising from the want of a resident judge at Singapore, the Court of Judicature of Pinang, Singapore, and Malacca was established on November 8th, 1856.

On March 6th in the following year it was opened by notification of Government, the Resident's Court was closed, and fees above $2 dollars were remitted by H.M. Court.

Sir John T. Claridge took up his office as Recorder in August, and arrived from Pinang on the 4th of September. At about the same time Courts of Requests were established in the settlements. In 1858 the first Criminal Sessions were held at Pinang and Malacca, and all these the administration of the affairs of the colony was vested entirely in the Governor, subject to the Court of Directors of the Company, whilst all judicial, assessments, &c., were left in the hands of the Court of Magistrates, official and nonofficial, whose findings were subject to the Government.

In 1832, about the month of December, the seat of government was transferred from Pinang to Singapore, which had become the most important of the settlements. A Resident Councillor was appointed for each of the three towns, and the Governor visited each town in the administration of justice and in any other matters requiring his attention. Meanwhile the Recorder system confirmed in the Court of Judicature. In 1855 two Recorders were appointed. This arrangement was still in force in 1857, when the government of the Straits Settlements was made over from the Indian Administration to the Colonial Office. The intervening years from 1820 to 1857 show no change in the governmental or judicial systems except as are the remarkable progress and development of the colony's trade and population. The civil establishment had, of course, to be increased, and the scope of the judicial system expanded from time to time to meet the needs of the community.

For many years before the latter date there had been a growing agitation against the colony remaining under the dominance of the Indian Government, who, it was held—and rightly so—had not done justice to the Straits Settlements, but had administered them in ignorance of their requirements and vastly enhanced importance. After long and tedious delays the Home Government at length sanctioned the transfer to the Colonial Office, and it was finally effected on April 1, 1857, on which date the Straits Settlements were advanced to the rank of a Crown Colony, with Sir Harry St. George Ord as first Governor and a fully constituted Executive and Legislative Council. From that date up to the present time there has been no change in the form of administration.

The Executive Council consists of the senior military officer in command of the troops (if not holding the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel) and the persons discharging the functions of Colonial Secretary, of Resident Councillor in any of the settlements which has become a Crown Colony, of Treasurer, of Attorney-General, and of Colonial Engineer. The Governor must, in the exercise of all his powers, consult with the Council unless, in his opinion, the public service would sustain "material prejudice" thereby, or the question to be decided is too unimportant to require the Council's advice or too urgent to admit of its being taken. In any such case, the Council must be made acquainted with all the facts and circumstances; and the Governor must act.

The Council cannot meet unless summoned by the Governor, who may call a meeting in any event, in any of the settlements. A quorum consists of the President and two other members. The Governor is alone empowered to submit questions for consideration, but it is common practice for him to make preliminary application for a subject to be discussed, and, in the event of his Excellency withholding his permission, to require the application and the ground of it to be laid before the Council for six minutes, which are transmitted to the home authorities every six months. The Governor may, if he think fit, disregard the advice of the Council, but the circumstances under which he does so must be reported to the Home Government at the first convenient opportunity.

The Legislative Council is composed of the nine members of the Executive, together with five gentlemen nominated by the Governor from the members appointed by the Governor on the nomination of the Singapore and Pinang Chambers of Commerce, and the municipal office, for a period of three years each. A majority of "official" members is thus always assured. The Council has full power to establish all such laws and regulations as may be necessary for the maintenance and development of the public service as may be deemed advisable for the peace, order, and good government of the colonies. It is competent for any three members, including the Governor or member appointed by him to preside, to transact business. Every member is entitled to raise for debate any question he may think fit, and, if it be seconded, it must be decided by a majority of votes. The reservation, however, is made that all propositions for spending money must emanate from the Governor, and that his Excellency's assent must not be given, save in very extreme cases and only in Malacca. It is immaterial whether the bills are read first or second reading.

1. Any Ordinance for the divorce of persons joined together in holy matrimony.
2. Any Ordinance whereby any grant of land, whether of freehold or leasehold, or of mining, or of a lease, or any grant of time, or of any description of property, be made to any person.
3. Any Ordinance whereby any increase or diminution be made in the number, salary, or allowances of the public officers.
4. Any Ordinance affecting the currency of the settlements or relating to the issue of bank-notes.
5. Any Ordinance establishing any banking association, or amending or altering the constitution, powers, or privileges of any banking association.
6. Any Ordinance imposing differential duties.
7. Any Ordinance the provisions of which shall appear inconsistent with treaty obligations.
8. Any Ordinance interfering with the discipline or control of the Imperial forces by land or sea.
9. Any Ordinance of an extraordinary nature and importance, whereby the prerogative of the Crown is interfered with, or the rights of British subjects not residing in the settlements, or the trade and shipping of the United Kingdom and its dependencies, may be prejudiced.
10. Any Ordinance whereby persons not of European birth or descent may be subjected or made liable to any disabilities or restrictions to which persons of European birth or descent are not subjected.

11. Any Ordinance containing provisions to which the assent of the Crown has been once refused, or which have been disallowed.

The first session of the Colonial Bills are read three times, but in cases of emergency, or when no important amendment is proposed, a measure may be carried through both Houses at one time, if approved by a majority of the members present. All Ordinances are subject to the veto of the Home Government.

The law administered in the colony consists of local Ordinances passed by the Legislative Council and not disallowed by His Majesty, of the British Ordinances of the Imperial Parliament and of the Legislative Council of India as are applicable, a Commission having decided which of the Indian Acts should continue in force in the colony. The Indian Penal Code and Code of Criminal Procedure have in the main been adopted and from time to time amended. The Civil Procedure Code is based on the English Judicature Acts. Particular to the colony are the anti-gambling laws, which are very stringent, as must necessarily be the case in a society in which the traffic in opium is so serious. The Chinese is concerned; the opium laws, under which the traffic in opium is "farmed out" to Chinese, has been in force for a number of years. The Governor has the authority to relieve the Government of the responsibility for preventive measures against smuggling and other incidental abuses; and the Indian and Municipal Ordinances are regarded as regulating the immense army of coolies who come to the colony every year on route, mostly for the Federated Malay States and the Dutch islands of the archipelago.

The courts for the administration of the civil and criminal law are the Supreme Court, the Courts of Assizes consisting of a Chief Justice, and three or five Magistrates, Coroners' Courts, Magistrates' Courts, and the Licensing Court, consisting of Justices of the Peace. The Supreme Court consists of a Chief Justice, and three or five Magistrates. It sits in civil jurisdiction throughout the year; and, as a small-cause court with jurisdiction up to $500, it holds a weekly session in Singapore and Pinang. Assizes are conducted every two months in Singapore and Pinang, and every two years in Malacca. A similar court is also held in Malacca.

The Courts of Requests a magistrate sits as Commissioner in causes for sums not exceeding $500. Magistrates' Courts hear and determine civil cases under a summary way. Justices of the Peace and Coroners are appointed by H.E. the Governor.

The expenses of the Civil Establishment of Singapore when Sir Stamford Raffles left in 1823 amounted to $3,500 a month, the Resident drawing $1,000, the Assistant Resident $300, and the Master Attendant $200. The present Governor receives $5,000 per annum; the Colonial Secretary $1,700; the Resident Councillors of Pinang $500, $9,600 dollars and $7,000 dollars respectively; and the Master Attendant $780.

It may be mentioned in conclusion that the direct administration of Labuan by the Government of the Straits Settlements has only remained on January 1, 1890, after having been in the hands of the British North Borneo Company since 1861. Labuan was ceded to Great Britain on March 27, 1846, and taken possession of in 1848. It is situated on the north-west coast of Borneo, from which it is separated by a narrow water, a distance of 504 square miles. It is the smallest British colony in Asia, the white population numbering only about forty or fifty. The island produces about 14,000 tons of coal annually.
THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

When Great Britain obtained a footing on the Malay Peninsula by securing the territories of Malacca and Province Wellesley, she came into violent contact with the neighbouring native States which were seething with turbulent energy. It was not, however, until 1873 that the perpetual tribal quarrels became so acute as to call for the active interference of the Imperial Government. In that year the disturbed condition of the country was accentuated by troubles among the Chinese in the Larut district, who divided themselves into two camps and engaged in organised warfare. After much bloodshed the defeated party betook themselves to piracy, with the result that for a long time the coast was virtually in a state of blockade, and even the fishermen were afraid to put to sea.

In this crisis, Lieutenant-General Sir Andrew Clarke, Governor of the Straits Settlements, arranged a meeting with the Perak chiefs with a view to settling definitely the disputed succession to the Sultanate. He pointed out to them the evils of maladministration from which the State was suffering; showed that tranquillity, trade and development were the chief desiderata; and held out prospects of peace and plenty under British protection in place of strife and poverty. The assistance of British advisers at Perak and Larut was offered and accepted on the understanding that the sovereign power of the chiefs would not thereby be curtailed. A similar arrangement was also concluded with the Sultan of Selangor. Such great success attended the introduction of this new system that the example set by Perak and Selangor was followed a few years later by the adjoining State of Negri Sambian, and in 1886 by Pahang.

Under this regime the affairs of each of the four States were independently administered on behalf of the Sultan by the British Resident and the usual staff of Government officials, acting under the direction of the Governor of the Straits Settlements. By a treaty signed in July, 1895, the States were federated for administrative purposes, and a Resident-General was appointed with an official residence at Kuala Lumpur, which was chosen as the federal capital, as a future centre of trade and revenue. The assistance of British advisers at Perak and Larut was followed a few years later by the adjoining State of Negri Sambian, and in 1886 by Pahang.

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RAILWAYS

In no direction has the beneficial result of British influence in Malaya been more strikingly manifest than in the opening up of the territory, with all its rich commercial possibilities, to the outer world by the introduction of rapid means of communication between the important mining and agricultural centres and the coast. This enterprise has served not merely to cheapen the cost of transport, and give a remarkable fillip to trade, but it has also yielded a large and direct revenue. Credit for its conception is mainly due to Sir Frank Swettenham, a former Governor of the Straits Settlements and High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States, who was responsible for the Malay States lines, with the exception of the eight-miles branch in Larut, from Taiping to Port Weld, and the twenty-four-miles branch in Sungai Ujong, from Seremban to Port Dickson, which was built by a private company. When he first recommended the construction of the Province Wellesley line it was disapproved, but when he repeated all the arguments in favour of the project and pressed that, if the value of a great work could be satisfactorily demonstrated, the sooner it was taken in hand the better.

Until a quarter of a century ago railways were unknown in the jungle-chad peninsula, but within the next year or so a line will traverse the whole of the east coast States from Pryce on the mainland, opposite Pinang in the north, to Singapore in the south, a distance of nearly five hundred miles, with outlets to the seaboard at Port Weld, Teluk Anson, Port Swettenham, Port Dickson, and Malacca. At the present time the line terminates on the frontiers of Johore, but, with the consent of the Sultan, who is an independent ruler, a railway of 120 miles in length is now in course of construction through this State.

When this is completed a night passenger service will be inaugurated, and the question of conveying the mails overland will, no doubt, be considered. Some day in the future it is probable that through communication will be established with Calcutta by means of a link-line through the intervening territory. In the meantime consideration will have to be given to the East Coast States—Kelantan, Trengganu, and Pahang—if they are to share in the prosperity which is now enjoyed by their neighbours. Railway routes through a part of this country have already been surveyed.
THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES RAILWAYS.

Like the history of the Federated States themselves, the history of railway enterprise and development in the Malayan Peninsula affords an instance of remarkable progress in recent years. Railway construction was started in a modest way in Perak, and the first section—an eight-mile line running between Taiping and Port Weld—was opened for traffic in June, 1885. The construction was carried out by two divisions of Ceylon Pioneers, lent by the Government of Ceylon. Before this work was completed a more ambitious scheme was embarked upon by Selangor, with the result that Kuala Lumpur was connected with Klang, 21 miles distant, in 1886, and with Port Swettenham three years later. The track lay through difficult country, with a considerable bridge over the Klang river. The colony advanced the necessary funds, but long before the line could be completed the colony, being in want of money, applied for immediate repayment, and it was fortunate that the rapid progress of the State made it possible to satisfy this demand and complete the line out of current revenues. Soon afterwards the railway was opened for traffic, and earned a profit equal to 25 per cent, on the capital expended. For both the Selangor and the Perak railways a metre gauge was adopted, and the system has been maintained in all subsequent railway construction in the Malayan States; but the weight of the rails, originally 43 cents, to the yard, has been increased. A very high standard of excellence was adopted in this early work, no gradient being steeper than 1 in 100, and no curve more severe than 15 chains radius. Later on, however, it was found advisable to relax these conditions.

Extension of the systems proceeded but slowly until after the federation of the Protected Malayan States, in 1896, when increased activity in the work was evinced. The disconnected sections of railway in the States were linked up by a main trunk line, and the Federated Malay States Railway became one concern, establishing through communication between Pinang and Selangor. The first through passenger train from Perak was that conveying H.H. the Sultan of Perak and suite from Kuala Kangsa to Kuala Lumpur on July 17th of that year to attend the Conference of Chiefs of the Federated Malay States. The regular service commenced a month later. At that date there were 330 miles of line open for traffic, 65 miles having been completed since the beginning of the year.

Up to 1903 the capital account of the Federal railways was $22,734,816 dollars, and in that year a further sum of $8,325,841 dollars was added, bringing the total up to $31,060,657 dollars, apportioned roughly as under:

<p>| | | | |</p>
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<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perak</td>
<td>Selangor</td>
<td>Negri Sembilan</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>20,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The dividend earned on this capital was 6.06 per cent, as compared with 5.88 per cent. in 1902. The average capital outlay per mile of line open was $91,956 dollars. The total revenue amounted to $3,085,858 dollars, and the working expenses to $1,804,149 dollars. The proportion of working expenses to gross receipts was 48.95 per cent., compared with 53.44 in 1902, and was the lowest for ten years.

The continuation of the main trunk line from Selangor to Tampin, and thence to Malacca during 1905 constituted another notable advance in railway communication in the Federated Malay States. A through daily mail train service was started on February 1st between Kuala Lumpur and Pinang, calling at the principal stations. The distance, about 242 miles, was covered in 11 hours 2 minutes, the longest stop being at Ipoh, 10 minutes, and Taiping, 8 minutes. Another service started towards the close of 1905 was from Kuala Lumpur to Malacca, and vice versa in the day, a distance of 196 miles for the return journey.

In October, 1906, the last section of the main line between Tampin and Gemas, a distance of over 32 miles, was opened, thus completing the railway to the southern frontier station of the Federated Malay States, a total length from Pinang to the mainland opposite Pinang of 331 miles. In addition to the 429 miles of main branch lines that were open to traffic at the end of the year, there were 61 miles of sidings, thus bringing the total mileage of railroad in operation up to 490 miles. Excluding the sidings, the railway system now comprises:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main Line, Pinang to Gemas Station</td>
<td>351.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Branch lines (77 miles 54 chains)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiping to Port Weld</td>
<td>7.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tapah Road to Tezak Aman</td>
<td>17.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Batu Road to Batu Caves</td>
<td>5.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuala Lumpur to Port Swettenham</td>
<td>27.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tampin to Malacca</td>
<td>21.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>428.67</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THE YARD, KUALA LUMPOR.

CENTRAL WORKSHOPS, KUALA LUMPOR.
The passenger fares are 6, 4, and 2 cents per mile for the first, second, and third classes respectively.

During 1906, 4,013,083 dollars was added to capital account, which on December 31st stood at 41,275,000 dollars, the apportionment in respect of all works executed and lines constructed being as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pinang (including steam ferries)</td>
<td>378,200.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Province Wellesley</td>
<td>2,247,235.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perak</td>
<td>1,707,108.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selangor</td>
<td>12,032,859.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negri Sembilan</td>
<td>7,621,802.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malacca Territory</td>
<td>1,710,712.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$41,275,005.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The passenger, freight, and general receipts amounted to 36,15,064,024 dollars, or 25 4/5 per cent. of the total outlay on railways in the Federated Malay States. The average capital outlay per mile of line open was 96,248 dollars at the end of 1906, or 2,248 dollars more than in the preceding twelve months. The gross receipts amounted to 4,724,124 dollars. To this sum passengers, goods, &c., contributed 1,572,337 dollars, being 381 per cent. of the capital, as compared with 416 per cent. in 1905. The net profits earned since 1885 amounted to 15,604,024 dollars, or 364 per cent. of the total outlay on railways in the Tapah town, introduced at the beginning of that month; while a sum of 37,140 dollars was added to capital account as first capital expenditure on the introduction of road automobile services to run in connection with train services. Working expenses for the year under review amounted to 2,991,762 dollars, being an increase of 714,211 dollars over those for 1905. Of this increase, 516,744 dollars was due to re-laying certain sections with heavier rails, 80 lbs. to the yard, and the balance to the cost of maintaining a longer length of line than in 1905. The provision of working expenses to receipts was 67.55 per cent., as against 67.80 per cent. Train mileage totalled 1,851,306 miles, an increase of 307,589; goods carried amounted to 389,586 tons, an increase of 75,354; passengers numbered 6,171,066, an increase of 637,149; and live stock 88,733, an increase of 25,386. Out of 16,590 tons of goods traffic forwarded from Prye station, coal (which during the year was introduced as fuel in the mines in the Federated States) accounted for 11,695 tons. The following list is interesting as showing the principal items of goods traffic forwarded during 1905 and 1906 respectively:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1905</th>
<th>1906</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice (bags)</td>
<td>1,193,710</td>
<td>1,215,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tin (lbs)</td>
<td>204,024</td>
<td>286,152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tin ore (bags)</td>
<td>1,202,091</td>
<td>1,213,953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opium chests</td>
<td>4,340</td>
<td>4,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coffee (bags)</td>
<td>25,590</td>
<td>21,650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerosene (tins)</td>
<td>598,740</td>
<td>653,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poultry (basket)</td>
<td>33,884</td>
<td>44,635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eggs</td>
<td>68,182</td>
<td>78,065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firewood (trucks)</td>
<td>19,148</td>
<td>19,742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timber (trucks)</td>
<td>5,974</td>
<td>5,383</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In connection with the great growth that has taken place in the goods traffic over the whole system, one of the most interesting developments has been the rise of Port Swettenham, where ocean-going steamers now load and unload direct, instead of transshipping freight into smaller craft as formerly. Thirteen ocean-going steamers called here during 1906 with cargoes direct from England.

The total engine mileage in 1906 was 2,074,441 compared with 1,757,719 during 1905, an increase of 319,722, or 18 per cent., with fewer engines available to do the hauling. The consumption of engine fuel (bakau firewood) was 18,220 tons more than during 1905, and the cost per engine mile was 13.90 cents compared with 12.51 cents in 1905; the cost per train-mile being 15.07 cents compared with 14.75 cents. The increase in the cost of fuel per engine and train-mile is attributed to the increase in the steaming quality of the wood, which was cut from less mature trees, and to the heavier loads hauled per train. At the beginning of 1907 coal fuel was introduced on the northern division of the railways, but wood is still used in the southern section.

The mileage of the ferry boats was 37,720 compared with 33,504, the cost per mile being 1.08 dollar, as against 0.92 cents.

Six new stations were opened to traffic during the twelve months, thus raising the total to 91. There were also seven flag stations, making 190 stations in all. The number of telegraph offices was increased from 87 to 93. The length of railway telegraph, telephone, and bell wires was extended from 794 to 862 miles, and 85 additional miles of postal telegraph wires were erected on railway poles, making a total of 745 miles.

Several light engines of a new type, weighing 75 tons 6 cwt., i.e., 24 tons heavier than the six-wheeled coupled tender engines then available, were ordered, but did not arrive until after the
close of the year. Fourteen new bogie carriages, 26 four-wheeled goods wagons, and three goods brake-vans were added to the stock, which at the end of the year comprised 66 engines, 153 bogie passenger-coaches, 55 four-wheeled coaches, and 1,572 goods wagons. A new and much improved type of bogie passenger coach was introduced, running on 2 feet 9 inches diameter wheels, instead of 2 feet diameter wheels, such as the old stock have. The coaches are 56 feet 11 inches over headstocks, 8 feet 9 inches wide over mouldings, and the height from the rail level to the top of the roof is 11 feet 7½ inches. These coaches weigh about 20 tons, and are the largest and most comfortable on any metre-gauge extant.

The new railway workshops at Kuala Lumpur are very extensive and most up-to-date. At present they are equipped with machines removed from the old Perak and Selangor Railway shops, supplemented with modern tools. The power employed is electricity, and the intention is to obtain up-to-date heavy high-speed machines capable of dealing with any class of railway work. Coaches and wagons are constructed here with the exception of the steel under-frames, wheels, axles, &c., which are obtained from England. When the new plant is installed these shops will be in a position to turn out coaches and wagons complete in every respect. Locomotives are dismantled, thoroughly overhauled, and re-
The most important feature of railway development in the Malay Peninsula at present is the Johore State Railway. In course of construction. This railway, which is 120 miles in length, is a continuation of the main trunk line connecting Pinang with Singapore. It commences at the River Gemas on the northern frontier of Johore and terminates at Johore Bahru on the southern frontier of Johore, opposite the terminus of the Singapore-Kranji Railway at Woodlands, situated on the island of Singapore. The two railways will be connected by a wagon ferry, and the recent extension of the Singapore-Kranji Railway to the docks opens up through communication between the towns of the Federated Malay States and the Singapore wharves at Tanjong Pagar. The Federated Malay States Government, through its Railway Department, is constructing the Johore Railway for the Government of Johore and is advancing the necessary money, estimated at 12,400,000 dollars. Up to the end of 1906, 4,386,420 dollars had been spent, of which sum 3,221,761.51 dollars was expended during the year under review. The work done included the clearance of 1,294 miles of jungle, the construction of 3,778,189 cubic yards of earthwork, or well over one-third of the total quantity; and the completion of 13 bridges and 11 culverts. There were also 13 bridges and 55 culverts in progress. The permanent way was laid in for 253 miles—116, 10 at Gemas end and 134 at Johore Bahru—not counting the length of sidings. The telegraph line for 70 miles and the majority of the buildings were completed.

In connection with this line the question of carrying the railway over the Straits between Singapore Island and Johore (about three-quarters of a mile wide) by a bridge was considered, but, in view of the heavy expenditure that would be incurred (about 1,400,000 dollars), the project was abandoned. The General Manager advocated a train ferry for all traffic, but this suggestion did not meet with the Government's approval; and it has now been decided to build a wagon-ferry for the transport of goods trains across the waterway. This will cost, approximately, three-quarters of a million dollars.

At the present moment the Federated Malay States railways have the heaviest engines and rails and the largest passenger carriages to be found on any metre-gauge railway in the world, a departure which has proved in every way successful. The rails used are 80 lbs. to the yard, and the engines weigh 75 tons. Mr. C. E. Spooner, the General Manager, had a great deal of opposition to overcome before he prevailed upon the authorities to replace the old 43-lb. rails on the trunk line with heavier metal, but the wisdom of the step which he recommended has now been abundantly proved. The bridges are being strengthened and the main line will shortly be in excellent condition for fast traffic. On all sections of the line traffic is heavy, the railroads are working at high pressure, and already many goods trains are run every night. An all-night stop, however, is made at Kuala Lumpur by the mail train from Pinang to Malacca, the entire distance of 340 miles being covered in about sixteen hours. As yet no passenger trains are run at night, but as soon as the trunk line is opened from Johore into the Federated States, and trains can be run direct from Johore to Pinang, a night service will be inaugurated.

Altogether the Federated Malay States railways are forging ahead, and if the present progressive managerial policy is continued there will be great and important extensions and developments to record within the next few years. A notable fact in the history of these railways is that the whole of the expenditure for construction work has been met by the Federated Malay States out of current revenue.

**SUNGEI UJONG RAILWAY.**

The only privately-owned railway line in the Federated Malay States is that of the Sungei Ujong Railway Company. This line, which is 244 miles in length, connects Port Dickson, in Negri Sambian, with Seremban, the capital of the State. It was originally established under a Government guarantee, and in July, 1908, it is to be taken over by the Federated Malay States Railways. At present two or three passenger trains run daily between Port Dickson and Seremban, whilst goods trains are despatched as often as required. In the district through which the line passes there are a number of important rubber estates. The General Manager is Mr. James McClymont McClymont.
FEDERATED MALAY STATES RAILWAYS.

1. FELLING TIMBER FOR SLEEPERS.
2. CUTTING ON SECTION TAPING-PADANG RENGAS.
3. BIDOR BRIDGE, NEAR TELUK ANSON.
4. A TROLLEY.
5. BIKIT PONDU, NEAR PADANG RENGAS.
6. A TUNNEL.
SINGAPORE AND KRANJI RAILWAY.

The Singapore Government Railway, which connects Singapore and Johore—by rail as far as Woodlands on the north of the island, and by ferry from Woodlands to Johore—was opened in 1903, and cost nearly two million dollars.

Though it is of quite recent construction, a line connecting Singapore with Johore was projected over thirty years ago. As far back as 1874 Sir Andrew Clarke raised the question with a view to guaranteeing, if necessary, any railway that might be constructed on the island, but nothing practical ensued, and the scheme was relegated to the limbo of forgotten things until 1880, when Sir Cecil Smith, speaking in the Legislative Council, expressed the hope that the Government would soon be able to embark on the work of constructing a railway across the island to the Johore Straits. For a second time, however, the matter was shelved.

A few years later a proposal was made to meet the long-felt want by private enterprise, but this suggestion was rejected by the Government, who in 1898 began seriously to tackle the question of constructing a line themselves. Plans were prepared, and the cost of the undertaking was estimated at a million dollars. Vigorous opposition was offered to the scheme in the Legislative Council by the unofficial members, who held that the prospective advantages did not justify so large an outlay. They pointed out that there would be practically no goods traffic, as there were cheap and adequate means of conveyance by water, and, although they admitted that the line would be useful for passengers, they said they could not agree to the expenditure of more than half the sum estimated. The project received the approval of Mr. Chamberlain, who was then Secretary of State for the Colonies; but, in spite of this, when the Budget was discussed in the Legislative Council on November 7, 1898, the estimates for the railway were rejected by a majority of one vote. This brought rejoinders from Downing Street, and, after negotiations and discussions, the scheme was eventually approved by the Legislative Council on August 22, 1899, with only two dissentients.

The ceremony of cutting the first sod was performed on April 16, 1900. With the exception of swamps, no special difficulty was met with in laying the line. The work was carried out by sub-contractors, under the supervision of a resident engineer appointed by
the Crown Agents, and Chinese labour was
principally employed. The metre gauge
(3 feet 5½ inches) was adopted. A notable
feature of the line is that in the compar-
tively short distance of 16½ miles there are
no fewer than fifty-five gate-crossings, includ-
ing twenty-three public level-crossings, where
gatemen have to be maintained.
It was on January 1, 1903, that the first
section from Singapore to Bukit Timah
was formally opened for traffic, and on April 10th
the remainder of the line to Woodlands
was available. Another four and three-quarter
miles from the Singapore station at Tank
Road to Passir Panjang, has quite recently
been completed, under the supervision of Mr.
C. E. Spooner, C.M.G., adviser on railway
matters to the Colonial Government.
One of the chief arguments used in favour
of the construction of the line was that it would
diminish the congestion of Singapore by in-
ducing people to live some distance inland, but
this anticipation has not been realised to any
great extent. In April, 1903, there were 19
season-ticket holders, and at the time of writing
there are 223. The number of passengers
carried, however, has increased from 426,042
in 1903 to 525,553 in 1905. The heaviest traffic
is always on Sunday; for on that day the pro-
prieters of the gambling farms of Johore pay
the return fares of all who come from Singa-
lore to gamble on their premises. As many
as 500 third-class return passengers are carried
on Sunday for gambling purposes, and the
first and second class carriages are usually
crowded.
The fares are 8, 5, and 3 cents a mile
for first, second, and third class passengers
respectively, with an extra charge to first-class
passengers of 10 cents each way for the use
of the ferry. The traffic is carried across
the Straits of Johore in two steam ferry-boats,
the Singapore and the Johore, each of which is
capable of accommodating 160 passengers.
The revenue from the general goods traffic
has grown from 1,863 dollars in 1903 (eight
months only) to 6,266 dollars in 1904, and to
8,240 dollars in 1905.
The rolling stock, which has all been made
in England, comprises 25 passenger coaches,
46 six-ton goods wagons, 4 four-wheeled couple
locomotives, with 10 by 16 inch cylinders and
side tanks, capable of pulling 99 tons up a
gradient of one in a hundred at 15 miles an
hour; and 2 larger locomotives, with 12 by
18 inch cylinders, capable of drawing 160 tons
up a gradient of one in a hundred also at 15
miles an hour. The ferry-boats were built at
the Tanjong Pagar Docks, Singapore.
The passenger service at the present time
consists of nine trains each way (though one or
two do not travel the whole distance). Formerly
the goods wagons were attached to the passen-
ger trains, but now a special goods train is run
every day between the two termini.
Although the outlay has been nearly double
the original estimate—up to December 31, 1906
(excluding the new section from Tank Road
to Passir Panjang) it amounted to 1,467,495
dollars, or about £2,311,470—the line has yielded
a progressive revenue, with the exception of a
slight falling off for 1906.
Considering the exceptionally heavy outlay,
the undertaking may be said to have justified
its existence, and to have yielded a satisfactory
return; for it was never anticipated or desired
by the warmest supporters of the scheme that
a big profit should be made, and when the rail-
way through Johore is completed, as it will be
shortly, it will be of great advantage to the
colony to have the town of Singapore con-
ected by rail with all the Federated States.
BOTANY


Perhaps the first thing that strikes the visitor to the equatorial regions of Malaya is the very large proportion of trees and shrubs to smaller herbaceous plants. Except where the land has been cleared and planted by man, almost the whole of the Malay Peninsula consists of one immense forest. From any of the higher hills in the Malay Peninsula a view is obtained of undulating country, densely covered with trees. In the woods huge damar-trees (Dipterocarpaceae), oaks, and chestnuts (Quercus and Castanopis), figs (Ficus), Euphorbiaceae, Eugenia, and trees of all natural orders are mixed with seedlings springing up towards the light, with shrubby Urophyllums, Lascantius, Ardisias, and other smaller plants, while stout and slender woody climbers tangle all together and make a dense and almost impenetrable thicket. Here and there in damp spots are Gingiers (Scitumineae), with their scarlet, yellow, or white flowers almost embedded in the ground, ferns, and Schlaginellas, and a certain proportion of herbs, but the greater number of species are trees. Ascending the mountains to about 5,000 feet, the vegetation has the same character, but the trees are more stunted and herbaceous plants more abundant and conspicuous. The number of species in the Malay forests is extraordinary. With very few exceptions, the forests contain so great a variety of kinds that it is quite rare to find two trees of the same kind together.

The older trees, and especially those at an elevation of 3,000 feet and upwards, bear innumerable epiphytic plants; orchids, ferns, scarlet Aeschynanthi, rhododendrons, red or white, vacciniums, and many other charming plants form a veritable garden on the upper boughs.

Conspicuous among the trees are the Dipterocarpaceae—vast trees with a straight stem, ending in a dense crown of foliage. This region is the headquarters of the order which supplies many of our finest timbers, as well as the resin, known as damar, used for native torches, and exported in considerable quantities for making varnish. Like the amber of Europe, it is often found in masses in the soil of the forest, where it has dripped from a wounded tree. Some of these trees produce, instead of the hard damar, a more liquid resin, known as wood oil. This is obtained by making a deep square-cut hole into the trunk and lighting a fire of leaves and twigs within. The oil then exudes, and is collected in tins for export, being used in varnish.

To the same order belongs the camphor-tree of Malaya (Dipterocarpus camphora), which produces a highly valued camphor and also camphor oil. This tree has no relationship with the camphor-tree of Japan and Formosa, which produces the camphor of commerce, but is, indeed, the original camphor, known many centuries before that of Formosa. The tree is found in very few localities in the peninsula, and it is peculiar in its habit of forming small forests of its own, to the exclusion of almost every other kind of tree. The camphor is secreted in cracks or holes in old trees, but is so scanty that it is too costly for commerce. All attempts to extract the camphor artificially from the tree have proved failures, though the wood and, indeed, all parts of the tree abound in camphor oil.

Another resin-producing tree is the benzoin, or gum-Benjamin-tree (Styrax benzoin), from which the sweetly-scented resin so largely used in incense is obtained by making incisions in the trunk. Gutta-percha is also a product of the forests. It is produced by the tree Dichopis gutta, one of the Sapotaceae, an order of big trees which contain a milky latex in the bark. Cuts are made in the bark of the tree and the latex is collected as it runs out, and is made into large balls or oblong blocks. Owing to the great demands for the product, the tree ran a great risk of being exterminated, as the natives, in order to save themselves trouble, used to fell the trees to collect the valuable sap. This has of late years been prevented by the Government. Gutta-percha is used for surgical instruments, golf balls, &c., but its greatest value is as an insulating medium for deep-sea cables, and it may be said that, but for its discovery in Singapore in
A UNIQUE COCONUT PALM, THE ONLY ONE OF ITS KIND IN THE COUNTRY.

and Urceola) which produce a quantity of good rubber. The plants are strong woody climbers, as thick as the arm. They climb to the tops of the trees, and cover them with a dense mat of foliage, so heavy that not rarely the weight in a storm brings down the tree supporting it.

Palm are very plentiful all through the forests, and form a conspicuous feature in the vegetation. They are of all forms and sizes, from dwarf kinds (Licuala tripilula, Pinanga acutis, &c.) only a few inches above the ground, to the great Caryotas and Phollodocarpus, 40 to 60 feet in height. Especially abundant are the climbing palms or rattans (Calamus, Korthalsia), armed with innumerably sharp spines, and climbing by the aid of long slender whips furnished with strong sharp hooks. The rattans are much sought for
corresponding species used for the manufacture of furniture. They are not rare in the Malacca State, the dry season being the best time for picking them. The timber of the Sambar and other species is also very useful, being strong and durable. The leaves of the tree are rich in starch, and are a very popular article of food. The fruit is eaten raw, but is more commonly used in the preparation of wine and vinegar.

A portion of the palm, the flower-bud, is used in the manufacture of the well-known Malaya basket-work, chairs, canes, and a great variety of uses. The Malacca cane is produced by one of these large rattans, and is much in request for walking-sticks, good sticks being sometimes valued at as much as 100 dollars. In the forests and by the river edges are attained a great size, and is to be seen in every village. The stout trunk is covered with a black fibre, which is made into ropes of great strength and durability. By cutting through the flower-bud and attaching a bamboo tube below, a sugary liquid is obtained, which is boiled into a sugar, or treacle, known as "gula Malaca," or Malacca sugar, a highly appreciated sweetmeat. Sugar is similarly obtained from the coconut and Nipa palms. Many of the forest palms are popular in cultivation as ornamental plants, and none more so than the beautiful red-stemmed or scaling-wax palm (Cyrtostachys lacca), which grows in damp woods by rivers. This charming plant is most attractive from its brilliant crimson leaves and mid-rib of the leaves. Many fine clumps of it are to be seen in the Botanic Gardens.

Throughout the variety of orchids to be found in the Malay Peninsula is very large, the number of showy kinds is not as great as in many other regions. They are most abundant in the hill districts, so much so that on Redah Peak, north of Pinang, they form dense thickets through which it is necessary to cut one's way. One of the finest is the Leopard orchid (Graunathyrium speciosum), a plant of immense size. There are specimens in the Botanic Gardens of Pinang and Singapore measuring 40 feet in circumference. The plants flower in August and September, throwing up spikes of flowers 6 to 10 feet tall, and bearing an abundance of large blooms, 3 inches across, yellow with brown spots. Another well-known orchid is the Pigeon orchid (Dendrobium crumenatum), the flowers of which resemble in form small white doves. This orchid is peculiar in the fact that all the plants in any district flower simultaneously, about once in nine weeks. The flowers open in the early morning and wither by the evening. It is very abundant on the roadside trees, and the effect of the whole country being suddenly covered with the snowy, fragrant flowers is very striking. Other beautiful orchids to be-met with are the white and orange, fragrant Calogynae asperata and C. Cummingi and the
SINGAPORE BOTANICAL GARDENS.
CLOVE, PINEAPPLE, GAMBIER, COFFEE, AND PEPPER PLANTATIONS.
beautiful bamboo orchid, *Arundinaria speciosa*, in the mountain streams; *Cypripedium barbatus*, on rocks at an elevation of 3,000 feet; the exquisite little foliage orchids, with their purple leaves netted with gold (*Anectochilus*), hiding in the gloom of the primavul forest; and many others.

Pitcher-plants or monkey-cups (*Nepenthes*) are by no means rare in the open grassy edges of woods and on the tops of the hills. Six or seven species occur. They are climbing plants, the stems of which are used for tying fences and such purposes. The leaves are partly developed into green, purple, red, or spotted cups, containing a quantity of water exuded by certain glands, into which fall many insects, whose decaying bodies are absorbed by the plant. The *Nepenthes* may be considered to be quite characteristic of the Malay flora, as very few occur outside this region.

The *Rafflesia*, though local, is not very rare in Perak, where it is collected by the Malays as a medicine. It consists of a solitary large brownish-red flower, parasitic on a kind of vine. The flower of this plant is perhaps one of the largest in the world, though it is hardly as large as the one described from Sumatra by Sir Stamford Raffles.

Another flower of extraordinarily large size is that of the great *Fagraea imbricata*, a shrub,
AT THE KUALA KANGSA HORTICULTURAL SHOW, 1907.

Exhibits of Tapioca, Vegetables, Fruit, and Rubber.
AGRICULTURE

BY R. DERRY, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, BOTANICAL GARDENS, SINGAPORE.

NEW, if any, areas in the world enjoy a more kindly, equable climate than the Malay Peninsula, and it is to this and to the many fertile plains and uplands which feed rich ricefields, throw alluvial deposits on the lowlands, and afford good drainage, that the country owes its agricultural wealth. The mean annual rainfall exceeds 100 inches, which, though not excessive, is abundant. A month seldom passes without some rain, while a periodical dry season, such as is experienced in India, Burma, and the West Indies, never occurs here.

By reason of this humidity such favourite fruits as the mangoes and durian nowhere attain to a higher state of perfection than in the Malay Peninsula, but oranges and mangoes, requiring a dryer climate, are below average quality. Pinang nutmegs and cloves command the highest market prices, and that valuable tannin and dye-stuff, gambier, is essentially Malayan. *Gutta-percha (Dichopteris gutta, or Patogium obtusifolium)* is indigenous to the soil, and for a long time the world's supply was largely drawn from the peninsula.

The yield of this product depends upon climatic conditions, as is the case with Para rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) and Rambong rubber (*Ficus elastica*), for the cultivation of which the Malay plantations enjoy a world-wide reputation. *Castilla (Castilla elastica)* and *Ceara (Murtih Gardien)*, however, require a dryer region, and for the same reason locally-grown cotton and tobacco have never been more than moderate in quality.

Yet, despite all the natural advantages enjoyed by the country—a genial climate; soils varying from fairly good loam to clayey patches on a lateritic formation on the coastal regions, with granite mountain chains intersecting the interior; a rich accumulation of humus; and numerous rivers and streams—*Gutta-percha* was made in agriculture before the arrival of Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819, although Malacca had been an important trading centre since the fifteenth century. After the British occupation, however, Singapore became the emporium, as it is to-day, for rattan-canes and damar, and some years later for *gutta-percha* also, for which the advance of telegraphy created a big demand.

Two small economic gardens which had been started in Pinang and Singapore respectively were both lost sight of after the departure of Raffles. Later, the tapioca industry was established in Malacca, where for centuries many so-called tropical growths are really sub-tropical. Sugar, tea, quinine, China-grass (*Bunias alicia*, var. *lescadema*), from which the so-called commercial ramie is obtained), tobacco and cotton, for instance, are
The Botanic Garden of Pinang, established in 1884, has aided in experimental work in sugar, gutta, and ramie. Occupying a picturesque site, the garden is now well known for its fine collections of orchids, palms, aroids, ferns, and foliage plants. The first sugar-canes raised from seeds in the Malay Peninsula, if not work will be now possible. The Garden also contains a useful herbarium, in which there is a representative collection of the flora of Pinang. The annual cost of maintenance is £650.

With the arrival of Sir Hugh Low from Borneo, the agriculture of the western native Liberian coffees, tea and cinchona were tried at different elevations. Many new and improved fruits were introduced, and the first Para rubber seedlings from Singapore were planted in the Kuala Kangsa garden. Cinchona failed to produce bark from which quinine could be extracted, but the other

in the East, were germinated at this garden, and very useful experiments with gutta, rubber and ramie have been carried out here. The Forest Department of the Island of Pinang was commenced and all the reserves demarcated by the Superintendent of Gardens. During 1907 a small piece of land was added to the garden, and further experimental States of the peninsula received serious attention. With a well-stocked Botanic Garden at Singapore to draw on, small plantations of coffee, cocoa, and pepper were started in Sungel Ujong and Perak and a miscellaneous collection of economic plants was cultivated at Kuala Kangsa. At the same time plantations of pepper on different soils, Arabian and products were successfully cultivated. Excellent tea was grown and prepared in Perak, but owing to the economic conditions which then obtained—viz., a scanty population and all the best labour drawn to the tin mines—the industry failed to become established; and some years later, these plantations having served their object by proving how such products as pepper,
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

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cocoa, and coffee could be grown profitably, were all leased or sold to European planters, excepting the Kuala Kangs garden.

From Java and Sumatra, cocoa, pepper, and coffee seedlings were supplied to those natives who desired them. Para seedlings were more extensively planted in the garden, and some were distributed to the Kamunting estate, Perak, the Limau estate, Sungai Ujong, and other parts of Perak, as well as to natives. The indigenous Rambong rubber was first tried here as a terrestrial plant, and it proved a phenomenal success as a rubber-producer when compared with the wild epiphyte growing on rocks and trees, with only a few roots available for tapping.

Owing to the failure of Arabian coffee from the ravages of leaf fungus (Hemileia vastatrix) in other parts of the world, and the prospective profits to be derived from the cultivation of Liberian coffee in the peninsula, several estates were opened by European planters in different parts of the country, particularly in the State of Selangor, on what is known as the "Klang alluvial"—a large area, rich in deposits, on the estuary of the Klang river. The enterprise proved an unqualified success for some time; but with increased activity in planting Arabian coffee in Brazil, the price of Liberian fell from 40 dollars to 15 dollars per picul (133 lbs. avoirdupois), and the industry was practically paralysed. A few estates were abandoned. All those that rallied turned their attention partly to coconuts, and particularly to Para rubber. Those which were devoted to the cultivation of the latter were rewarded in 1902 by favourable market reports on the result of the tapping of Para rubber-trees, which was first carried out at the Kuala Kangs garden.

European enterprise in Malayan agriculture is really of recent date, and, as may be expected, all the subsidiary cultivations are in the hands of natives. Malacca, the oldest and for a long time the most important settlement of the country, had, in a desultory way, grown Arabian coffee, chocolate, pepper, coconuts, and, more extensively, rice and fruits—of the last named an excess large enough to export to neighbouring ports. At the present time fruit cultivation in all the States and settlements is carried on by natives for profit; but, with the large immigrant population on the estates and mines, it falls far short of actual requirements, and many fruits are imported in enormous quantities. Possibly no tropical country affords more variety of fruits than is to be found in the bazaars of this country. Chikus, the South tropical lemon grow well, but are not largely enough planted; and although oranges are only good in a few special areas, pomellos (shaddocks) are excellent. Pisangs (bananas) represent an industry by themselves; indeed, it would be possible to collect as many as seventy varieties, the best of which are superb. There are also rambutans, durians, longkoks, rambai, jambu, anonas, and many other fruits of poorer flavour.

Only one fruit is preserved for export outside the colony, and that is the pineapple. This industry is in the hands of Singapore Chinese. No fewer than 58,000 cases, valued at $4 million dollars, were despatched to various countries in 1905. Vegetables, too, are almost exclusively grown by Chinese, but the supply falls much below actual requirements. Some interest is being taken by European planters in fibres, of which the Botanic Gardens at Singapore contain a fine collection.

Except coconuts, very few oils are produced beyond domestic requirements. A little citronella is still grown, and its more extended cultivation, particularly as a catch-crop on rubber estates, is being attended to. The same may be said of ground-nuts, which have long been cultivated by the Chinese for exportation intact.

Of spices, pepper is the most largely grown, and is cultivated by Europeans, Chinese, and Malays. But by far the major portion of that exported from Singapore and Pinang is not raised in the country. Nutmegs and cloves are mostly in the hands of Chinese, as also is ginger, which does not appear to be grown beyond bazaar requirements.

The principal dyes are gambier, indigo, and "dragon's blood." The first of these is chiefly exported for a tan stuff, and, like indigo, is Chinese grown. Both appear to be decreasing. "Dragon's blood," like certain gums, is brought to the market from the forests by promiscuous collectors.

A list of subsidiary industries would not be complete without reference to the strictly native ones of plaiting, thatching, and the making of brooms, baskets, and various utensils from the stems and leaves of certain palms and

A BUFFALO PLOUGHING A PADDY FIELD.

SORTING SPICES.

American sapodilla, are unusually large and of excellent flavour; and papayas, according to some connoisseurs, are unrivalled. The delicious mangosteen and the evil-smelling durian, of which it may be said that no other fruit in the world sells at so high a price in scarce seasons, are both plentiful. Limes and a fine

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American sapodilla, are unusually large and of excellent flavour; and papayas, according to some connoisseurs, are unrivalled. The delicious mangosteen and the evil-smelling durian, of which it may be said that no other fruit in the world sells at so high a price in scarce seasons, are both plentiful. Limes and a fine
pandan, the screw pine (Pandanus atrocarpus) and P. fasciculatus. Rice, too, is almost exclusively cultivated by Malaya.

Sugar is grown and manufactured for export on large estates in Province Wellesley and Perak. Nearly every Chinese squatter cultivates a small patch of cane, the expressed juice being a favourite roadside drink. Native sugar, called “Jaggery” or “Gula Malacca,” a palm product is made of the tree, P. betulinus, and a considerable quantity is used in the native States as well as in the colony, it is probable that less copra and more oil will be exported, and, with continual railway extension and increasing demands from other manufacturer, the industry promises to be a very sound investment.

The Rubber Industry.

After long and careful research, the rubbers most favoured are Rambong and Para. The former is an indigenous plant; the latter is a native of Brazil, and has been under observation in the country since 1876. Although its plantation cultivation did not commence seriously until 1889-1900, it is now far more largely cultivated than any other kind in Malaya, and is the most valued of all rubbers. On ordinary soils the growth of the tree is remarkably rapid, and after three years represents an annual increment of girth at 3 feet from the ground of from 4 to 6 inches. The best guide as to the age at which a tree can be tapped is by measurement, for the yield of latex depends more on the size than on the age of the tree. Trees of from 7 to 8 inches in diameter are considered large enough for tapping. This dimension may be obtained on favourable sites in 4 years, and on stiff clay or laterite soils in seven years. The ratio of caoutchouc to latex (or the strength of the rubber) is not, however, so high with young or small trees as with older ones, and the first samples of rubber tried on the London market were valued at 10 per cent. lower than Para rubber from Brazil. Since then an immense industry has been developed on a sound, practical, and scientific basis. New tools and appliances have been introduced and are being used to improve. Vacuum drying has superseded the primitive method of jungle-smoking, and to-day pure factory-prepared rubber from the East is valued at 15 per cent. higher than the less pure article from Brazil and elsewhere, although a few more years must elapse before our estates reach maturity.

The native States of the peninsula at the present rate of planting will within the next few years, contain 100,000 acres of rubber. Of this, fully one-half is already planted, including many estates now in bearing, and the capital value on a low valuation (say rubber at £20 per ton) when in full bearing may then be estimated at not less than £20,000,000, or, including the colony, at £25,000,000.

The industry, too, has directed attention to suitable catch-crops, and such oils as citronella, lemon-grass, and ground-nuts are more inquired for. Tapioca, chillies, Manila hemp, Murva fibre, bananas, and pineapples are also in demand; while fodder-grasses and more improved and larger variety of vegetables are required. Gutta-percha, which takes so many years to reach a bearing age, is planted by the department of the Government, the growth being too slow for private enterprise.

To assist the agricultural development of the country there are the Botanic Gardens of Singapore and Pinang (under the directorship of Mr. N. Rigby, F.R.A.), where complete collections of economic plants are maintained and continuously experimented upon. A “Bulletin” of miscellaneous information on all agricultural matters is published every month, and a new system of agricultural shows (an amalgamation of the colony and native States) has been inaugurated. There is also a new and important Agricultural Department in the native States, directed by Mr. J. B. Carruthers, F.R.S.E., F.L.S.
RUBBER

By J. B. CARRUTHERS, F.R.S.E., F.L.S.,

Director of Agriculture and Government Botanist, Federated Malay States.

The history of planting rubber in the Malay Peninsula does not date back very far. In 1876 a few plants of Hevea brasiliensis (Para rubber) were sent out from the Royal Gardens, Kew, and were in the same year planted in the Singapore Botanic Gardens and also in the grounds behind the Residency, Kuala Kangsar, Perak. The seeds from these trees were distributed by Sir Hugh Low, the High Commissioner of the Malay States, to various places in the neighbourhood. Though they possessed a supply of seed and were instructed by Mr. H. N. Ridley, F.R.S., and other scientific authorities as to the value of these trees, no planters seriously took up the cultivation, with the exception of Mr. T. Hyslop Hill in Negri Sambian. In 1897 the high price of rubber and the continual recommendations of experts in Ceylon and elsewhere led many planters to begin to plant rubber-producing trees. In the Federated Malay States, Para rubber (Hevea brasiliensis), a South American tree of the order Euphorbiaceae, and Rambong (Ficus elastica), the latter being a native tree, and therefore, in the opinion of many, more suitable to the climate and conditions of Malaya, were planted up over a few acres.

In 1900 there were in Malaya a very small number of rubber-trees, and only on one or two small estates systematically planted. At the end of 1905 there were in the Federated Malay States alone about 40,000 acres planted with rubber, at the close of 1906 more than 85,000 acres—between 6,000,000 and 7,000,000 trees at the beginning of 1906, and on the 1st of January, 1907, over 10,000,000. The output of dry rubber was about 130 tons in 1906, and in 1906, 385 tons, three times as much. The reason that, while the acreage has more than doubled, the number of trees has not proportionately increased so much is that the number of trees planted per acre during 1906 was not so large as previously.

RUBBER PLANTS IN EARLY STAGES OF GROWTH.

THE LEAVES, FLOWERS, FRUITS, AND SEEDS OF HEVEA BRASILIENSIS.
In the present conditions prevailing, there must be among plants, as among all other living things, a certain number of deaths continually occurring. Drought, excess of moisture, sudden winds, insect, fungal, and bacterial pests, and many accidental causes are responsible for a proportion of deaths of plants at various stages of growth on every estate.

If one in every 300 trees dies each year, this need not be considered a high percentage in trees of five years and upwards, and the mortality is greater before that period. So that we may expect that of the 10,000,000 trees between 9,000,000 and 10,000,000 will be alive and flourishing in 1912, and this at 1 lb. per tree will give about 4,250 tons, or one twentieth of the probable world's consumption in 1912.

The average amount of dry rubber extracted per tree, calculated by the figures in the table, gives 1 lb. 12 oz. per tree. Many of the trees in the Federated Malay States are ten years old, and some over twenty, and all these give a good deal more than 2 lbs. a tree; but even taking this into consideration, the average is a high one, and if it is maintained the circumstance means a very large margin of profit over expenses of production.

Accurate estimates of the world's rubber consumption are not easy to make. The only reliable data available are found in the crude rubber export and import returns of the five large rubber-consuming countries, viz., Great Britain, United States, Germany, France, and Belgium. The gross import returns include rubber which is afterwards exported from these five countries to each other, but also includes all the rubber which is exported to other countries whose import returns are not available.

**STATISTICS.**

The following statistical table from my Annual Report of 1906 shows the position of affairs in regard to acreages and numbers of trees for that year, and the figures at the end of this year, 1907, will probably be 50 per cent. greater.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Federated Malay States</th>
<th>Straits Settlements</th>
<th>Johore</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of estates</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total acreage</td>
<td>85,579</td>
<td>11,341</td>
<td>2,310</td>
<td>99,230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opened during 1906—acres</td>
<td>42,154</td>
<td>4,098</td>
<td>1,355</td>
<td>47,607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of trees planted up to December 31, 1906</td>
<td>10,745,002</td>
<td>1,987,954</td>
<td>147,800</td>
<td>12,980,756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of trees tapped</td>
<td>441,488</td>
<td>27,070</td>
<td>48,130</td>
<td>516,644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry rubber extracted—lbs.</td>
<td>801,732</td>
<td>13,360</td>
<td>47,724</td>
<td>923,016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**LATEX IN SETTLING OR COAGULATING PANS.**

That all the plants, young and old, should have been alive and vigorous in 1906 is practically impossible. Even with skilled care and with per-
A FINE TWO YEARS' GROWTH.

AN EXCEPTIONAL TREE OF SIXTEEN MONTHS.

EIGHTEEN MONTHS OLD RUBBER—TWO VIEWS.
The net import returns, i.e., the import minus the export, do not give a correct figure of the world's consumption, and it is probable that the gross imports of these five countries are much nearer to the total of the whole world's consumption than the imports. I estimate the world's consumption in 1906 to be approximately 80,000 tons. Of this amount the Malay Peninsula contributed one-two-hundredth part, or \( \frac{1}{4} \) per cent. If the whole of the rubber-trees planted at the end of 1906 are growing vigorously and yielding 1 lb. of dry rubber per tree, in 1912 the total production will be 5,475 tons, which will be one-twenty-sixth, or little more than \( \frac{1}{4} \) per cent, of the total rubber required. In order to estimate the world's consumption in 1912, the rate of increase (10 per cent.) during the last seven years has been added, giving a total estimated consumption for 1912 of 142,352 tons. If we increase the yield to 1\( \frac{1}{2} \) lbs., i.e., estimating that every tree planted now will in 1912 give us \( \frac{1}{2} \) lbs. per annum, at that date the Malay Peninsula will furnish 8,213 tons, or one-seventeenth of the estimated world's consumption at that date. These calculations do not increase the fears so often expressed that production will in the course of a short time exceed demand. The question of how much Brazil will continue to produce, whether it will increase or decrease, is one which only those with a knowledge of the Brazilian jungles can settle, and even such are not able to tell us whether the supply can be depended on to continue or may be expected to grow less in a few years. There are many reasons for considering that the consumption of rubber may in the near future increase more rapidly than in the past. New uses and expansion of old uses for rubber are constantly being found; the consumption of rubber per head in most countries is extremely small, in Britain and other European countries less than in America. If producers are wise they will not neglect to do everything in their power to stimulate and expand the rubber consumption. Money wisely spent in this direction will be handsomely repaid in the future by a steadily widening, firm market.

The soils in the Malay States are not rich in the constituents which are required for plant food, but they are as a rule physically excellent, and allow roots to grow freely. On many estates the top soil is already of sufficiently good “tilth” for a rubber nursery, and no preparation is needed before laying it out. The conditions of climate more than any other factor are suitable for rapid growth of vegetation. For this reason rubber trees in the Malay Peninsula are larger at all stages of growth than plants of similar ages in countries where a cessation of rainfall or a drought occurs at stated periods. As the product of the rubber tree, latex or caoutchouc, may be considered for general purposes as in proportion to the water supply to the trees, the conditions which obtain in Malaya are undoubtedly specially suitable to these trees, probably more so in the case of Para rubber than in its native Brazil.

The land chosen for rubber estates in the Federated Malay States is, with very few exceptions, virgin jungle, and the processes by which it is converted into a rubber plantation and the results after the same periods have elapsed vary very little. The land having been inspected by means of rentices, i.e., paths, cut through the jungle and the would-be-planter having satisfied himself that it is good land, capable of being well drained, he applies to the Resident of the Sate for the piece of land, describing the boundaries as far as possible and stating the approximate area contained.

The charges for land are — premium, 3 dollars per acre; rent for first six years, 1 dollar per acre, thereafter 4 dollars. Survey charges amount to not more than 1 dollar per acre. Thus the first year's charges are 5 dollars, the next five years 1 dollar each year, and the seventh and onwards 4 dollars.

If he considers it as not equal to the best agricultural land, he may ask that it be rated as second-class land, which means a reduction of 1 dollar per acre on the permanent rent. The land is often granted provisionally to the applicant before a survey is made in order that no delay may be caused in opening up.

Upon receiving the grant of the land, which is a permanent title giving all the rights of a freehold, if the conditions of rent, &c., are

**COLLECTING RUBBER SEED AND LATEX.**

[Image of a man collecting rubber seed and latex from rubber trees, with text above it.]

[Image of a man making block rubber, with text above it.]
PREPARING FOR RUBBER—CLEARING, FELLING, AND BURNING THE VIRGIN JUNGLE.
used for this purpose, as they are well acquainted with the best and quickest method of tree felling and burning.

During the wet weather all the trees of the jungle are cut with the exception of certain extremely hard-wooded species, and sometimes a few of the giants of the forest. The undergrowth is cleared up and piled in heaps near the branches, so that when the place is burnt the fire may travel quickly and without stopping. When all has been prepared after a spell of dry weather has made the place ready for "a burn," a suitable dry day is selected when there is some wind to help the conflagration, and debri is set on fire at one side, and if properly arranged the fire gradually eats up the whole of the timber and branches. A field after a good burn presents a most melancholy sight. Standing out of the soil are a few tall stems charred black, and the remains, also black, of some of the greater stems and branches that have not been entirely consumed, while in places smouldering trunks may still be seen. Any pieces which are not quite burnt off can by means of heaping up being burnt being burnt so as to leave very little remaining on the ground.

The big branches and other debri are left on the soil. It would be better to take these away and also to cut out all the roots of the jungle trees, owing to the danger of fungal diseases and the ravages of parasitic insects, which are encouraged by the decaying timber left behind. Planting, however, like other commercial enterprises, has to be managed from a practical view of pounds, shillings, and pence, and if it were possible to do as some writers have suggested, viz., clear the land entirely from all decaying wood, the present few first years of profits would all be required to pay for the extra expenditure incurred. The presence of so much decaying vegetable matter, both on the surface and beneath it, does not seem so far to have caused so much root disease among the rubber as those having a knowledge of these evils might have prophesied. This is due to the fact that there are in the virgin jungle few paralyzing fungi, and also because in the continually moist and hot climate of the Federated Malay States all organic matter is easily broken up by the attacks of insects and other saprophytic organisms.

Rubber plants which have previously been in nurseries for some months are now put in the field. The length of time which they are allowed to remain in nurseries varies with the views of the planter and the time taken to prepare the land. It may be transplanted when they have grown only a few weeks, and may, on the other hand, be removed from the nurseries when a year or eighteen months old. The general plan is to put them out at about six months old and to "stump" them, i.e., to trim the roots and to cut off the green part, leaving a stump of from 2 to 4 feet in length. Transplanting brings rubber trees into bearing more quickly from seed than stumping, but the latter operation is easier, can be delayed if necessary, and is suited to estates where there are long distances between the nurseries and the clearings. The plants put out as stumps are kept back for some six weeks, after which buds appear, and once having begun to grow and form new roots, the tree grows continuously in height and girth, till at the age of four years it is frequently 50 feet high and 18 inches in girth. During this time of preparatory growth before being tapped, the chief cost of upkeep on an estate is the clearing of the weeds, and the good planter endeavours to have his fields always as clean as possible. The cost of this operation is sometimes as much as 25 dollars per acre per year, and it is a question which is now being urged on the planters whether this large expenditure is repaid in improved growth of the tree.

That rubber planting in Malaya is at present one of the most profitable, if not the most profitable agricultural industry in the world, has already been shown by the returns of many estates. The public are apt not to realise the profitable nature of the return after a rubber estate has come into bearing, because in the majority of cases where they are invited to take shares in Malayan or Ceylon rubber companies the estates have been already started and often brought to the bearing point, and the exploiters have to be paid for their outlay.

Estimates of cost of bringing estates into bearing naturally vary exceedingly. The conditions of labour, the contour of the land, and many other factors add to or reduce the cost of opening, planting, and keeping in good condition till the yielding period. One thousand acres should be opened and kept for seven years at a cost of £20,000, not including interest, and in the eighth year interest at the rate of about 15 per cent. should be earned, which should increase to double that for the ninth year and go on increasing till 75 per cent., or more should be earned in the twelfth and succeeding years. That the returns on capital invested do not come for some six or seven years may deter some investors, but this is the common experience in all plantations and is not very unexpected as the period of planting may be from 15 to 20 years. That returns which are expected to repay the loss of interest during these years. As an interesting and profitable profession for a strong and healthy young man, rubber planting may be confidently recommended. The life is hard, the climate is not healthy, but by no means dangerous; there is the lack of interest in the planter's life, and the salaries earned are in most cases liberal. A man of a few years' experience can command a salary of £350 or upwards, and often opportunities of using his savings to open up either by himself or with others rubber land of his own.
Rubber Development in Malaya.

By Francis Crosbie Roles.

Historical.

The development of Malaya agriculturally constitutes one of the economic romances of the tropical belt. In 1876 the authorities of Kew Gardens introduced into Ceylon, by arrangement with the Indian Government, two thousand Hevea Brasiliensis seedlings, raised from seed obtained in Brazil by Mr. H. A. Wickham. This pioneer acted, on instructions from Kew, on behalf of the Indian Government, but Ceylon was selected as more suitable than India for the initial experiment of cultivation in the East. India was to have the first call upon cuttings and seeds from the trees grown, the Ceylon Government to take the rest. Some hundreds of plants started from cuttings were distributed in various parts of Southern India and also in Burma in 1878 and 1879. Thus an industry transported from the other side of the world began. A year or two later the trees in the Peradeniya and Henerat-goda experimental plantations of Ceylon bore seed, and from that time distribution of seed has been the accepted method. Occasionally, for long journeys, germinated seeds in Wardian cases have been despatched, but in place of this expensive and limited means of distribution it has been found that, packed in charcoal and other suitable material, the seeds can be sent across the world. Brazil itself in 1907 imported thousands of seeds from trees that are the lineal descendants of its own Para rubber. Pioneers in the South Seas, and in Queensland, and in East and West Africa, are now testing the suitability of Hevea Brasiliensis, not only in the tropical belt, but also in the sub-tropical. For large developments they then have to wait until the seedlings imported have become seed-bearers, when, if labour and climatic conditions are favourable, progress in extensions will be rapid. Ceylon freely received, and has as freely given. At an early stage in the "rush into rubber" it was proposed by leading Selangor planters, and also advocated in Ceylon, that the two countries should impose a prohibitive export duty on rubber seeds going to foreign countries; but those who advocated this method of controlling the new industry as long as possible to British possessions in the Old World—thereby also delaying the time when there will be over-production—can hardly have expected their representations to be acted upon. Botanical institutions freely exchange all the world over, and it would have been too great a shock for the British authorities to take their first faltering steps in Protection in the domain of scientific agriculture.

The popular notion regarding rubber was that it flourished in the Amazon Valley in swampy lands, and the new product attracted very little of the attention of Ceylon planters, otherwise the destruction of the coffee industry, which provided the opening for tea would have been availed of for rubber twenty-five years ago instead of in the present decade. The situation in Malaya was different. On the failure of coffee in Ceylon several planters went to Selangor and started afresh. They were again to fall upon evil days, not this time because of disease, but because of unremunerative prices. Then it was—in the early nineties—that the planters of the Federated Malay States turned their attention systematically to the new product, and sent orders to Ceylon for large quantities of seed. Ceylon itself was busy cultivating tea and experiencing rapid appreciation in the value of its estates up to the height of the first tea boom, reached in 1896. The very thing was rubber for the alluvial and semi-swampy flats of the coastal plains of the peninsula, and thus, while on the one hand Brazil by huge yields of coffee dealt a crushing blow to that product in Malaya, she indirectly supplied Malayan planters with a substitute which has advantaged them beyond their most sanguine dreams. Two instances, one of an individual and the other of a company, will illustrate this. A retired planter, who invested £4,000 in developing a rubber estate in Selangor that now stands in the front rank of dividend-paying properties, and who took his entire interest in shares in the company which purchased the property, found in September last
that his holding represented £250,000. The Malay States Coffee Company, Ltd., registered in Colombo, and owning a property in the same State, received so shrewd a blow when coffee
for the first six years, and thereafter 4 dollars per acre per annum. (In Pahang the terms are easier, but the planter there has to create his labour force and live the isolated life of the
case to pay that its shares of 10 rupees, nearly paid up, were hawked about at 20 rupees, while some holders wished to be permitted to abandon their shares rather than be liable for the final calls. The estate superintendent agreed to receive his salary in shares, and the company persevered under great difficulties, planting rubber in place of coffee. This was less than ten years ago, and in the latter half of 1907, when the company consented to be absorbed by a sterling company, the Damansara (Selangor) Rubber Company, its shares were changing hands at 500 rupees.

LAND ALIENATION TERMS.

The sudden general interest taken by the public in Malaya and Ceylon in 1904 and 1905 produced a demand for land in the Federated Malay States which fairly nonplussed the authorities. Their land and survey departments were inundated with work, and by the beginning of 1906 speculation in companies, new and old, had aroused interest in England which extended considerably outside the circle of those having direct connection with the East. The State authorities found themselves face to face with a remarkable situation. Land which they were leasing at a maximum of 1 dollar per acre annual rent was being put into companies by the applicants, sometimes before a single tree had been felled, at £4 an acre. The administrators of the country wished to curtail these unearned profits, or rather to divert a substantial portion of them into the State coffers. In August, 1906, the new leasing terms were announced. Government, as well as the people, had been affected by the boom, and made no distinction between land wanted for rubber cultivation and land required for such a matter-of-fact product as coconuts. All jungle land in the three western Federated States has since been leased on the terms of 1 dollar per acre per annum
pioneer.) There is a clause in the leasing terms to the effect that land ranked as "second-class land" shall pay 3 dollars, instead of 4 dollars, after the first six years.

To obtain this concession, however, the
be entailed before the concession could be obtained, and as the best land available is applied for—except possibly where the applicant wants land adjoining that which he already possesses, or for some other reason of eligibility—it may be said that practically all the land leased since the middle of 1906 will eventually be paying 4 dollars per acre annually. The other charges are mainly first charges. There is a premium of 3 dollars per acre if the land has a road frontage and 2 dollars per acre if it has not. Survey fees amount to about 90 cents per acre, with 60 cents payable for each boundary mark inserted, and the land is further liable to a drainage assessment not exceeding 1 dollar per acre. This charge is to cover any Government drainage scheme needed for the benefit of planters in the coast districts, where main drains, with which estate drains may be connected, are necessary. This drainage assessment does not approximate to a dollar per acre from actual experience, averaging about 30 cents, while some properties are so situated that they will not be called upon for any payment under this head. The cultivation clause in each grant requires the lessee to cultivate not less than a quarter of the area in five years. This condition is not an onerous one. Any occupier who cannot develop the property at the rate of one-twentieth annually would soon find his possession a white elephant, under the new rental terms especially. Should he fail to open a fourth of the land in the time specified, the authorities have the power to enforce resumption of the balance of the area after allowing the lessee to keep an acreage equal to three times the area he has cultivated. The cultivation term used in the clause is "according to the practice of good husbandry," but the bond fide cultivator who from lack of capital has not been able to plant up the land as rapidly as he anticipated will find the conditions liberally interpreted. The object of the Government is, on the one hand, to open the country and to attract population, and on the other to prevent speculators holding land for a

rise in value; and, short of complete abandonment, the Government has not been in the habit of enforcing resumption. State ownership in land, which provides a lease in per-
petulantly instead of outright sale, is accompanied by a simple form of land registration known as the Torrens system, followed in Australia, New Zealand, and other countries, but unknown in the United Kingdom. The transfer of rights from one person to another is simply itself. Everything affecting the title to the actual land must be recorded on both copies of the grant, one issued to the grantee and the other filed in the official register. No entry is made in the Land Office register without the production of the issue copy to be similarly endorsed. Each document is always an exact duplicate of the other; and any person can inspect any record in the Land Office on payment of a fee, and obtain definite information as to the ownership, and free or mortgaged condition, of the property he is interested in, including whether or not the cultivation clause has been complied with. Naturally, the congestion of work in the Survey and Land Departments, and the impossibility of securing competent and qualified recruits ready made, has resulted in much delay in the issue of grants, and a great deal of land has been transferred on the preliminary notification that an application had been approved of. The grant itself, which cannot be issued without a proper survey, may sometimes be kept back for two years, and meanwhile the communication from the British Resident, known as an "approved application," is accepted.

Much of the land in the Malay States is in the grip of lalang (Imperata arundinacea). Jungle has been filled in the past, chiefly by Chinnam, for the cultivation of tapioca and other exhausting crops, and then has been abandoned, to be promptly recouped by this pest, which enters into complete possession. The wind agitates it like the billows of the sea, but its roots have taken so firm a hold that nothing but the most thorough and repeated digging—"chunking"—it is called in Malaya—can eradicate it. Experiments have been made to destroy the lalang by spraying arsenic of soda. The local charge for the material was entirely cheap and primitive. It is an ordinary bullock-cart, filled with arsenic of soda, with a sheet, half of which is immersed in the liquid, while the other half is trailed over the lalang as the cart moves along. No damage is done to the roots of any plants growing in the same ground, as the spray is a leaf poison. Three or four applications at intervals of a few weeks, each fresh application taking place when the lalang is beginning to recover from the previous dose, are sufficient to entirely kill the lalang. Such is the claim which the director makes after the limited experiments method is superior in effect to the arduous and expensive "chunking." Should it be demonstrated that the arsenic of soda method is all that is claimed for it, the authorities may hope fully look forward to the time when large areas of land, worse than useless and a blot on the landscape, will come under legitimate cultivation. Special rental terms for lalang land are offered by the Government at one cent per acre per annum for the first seven years, and thereafter one dollar per acre per annum. But so far applicants continue to prefer virgin jungle to these weedy wastes.

In 1903 Dr. J. C. Willis, F.R.S., the Director of the Royal Botanical Gardens, Ceylon, who has the gift of organisation, was loaned to the Federated Malay States Government to report on the organisation of a department of agriculture, and the post of director of the new department was filled by the appointment of Mr. J. B. Carruthers, F.L.S., F.R.S. Edin., the Assistant Director of Agriculture, Peradeniya. Much of Mr. Carruthers' time since then has been occupied with the work of organisation and equipment. Suitable quarters were not provided for some time, and a year elapsed before a Government chemist and an entomologist were appointed. Meanwhile, Mr. M. Kelway Bamber, F.I.C., F.C.S., Government Chemist of Ceylon, paid two visits to the Malay States, and furnished Mr. Carruthers with a most useful table of analyses of typical soils taken from different rubber districts. Mr. Bamber reported that the soils might be roughly divided into two kinds—

(a) The flat alluvial clays or sands on the banks of rivers and near the sea coast;

(b) The undulating low soils a few miles inland, where they vary from free sandy loams to heavy clays.

He stated that "the soils of Malaya are not specially rich in plant food, but their physical characters are exceptionally good, and this, together with the unequalled climate for plant growth, constitutes conditions for the vigorous growth of rubber and other crops not to be found elsewhere."
In his report for 1906 the Director of Agriculture estimated the total acreage of rubber planted in the peninsula by the end of 1905 at 30,000 acres, and at the end of 1906 at 60,230 acres, with an increase in the number of trees during the year from 7,000,000 to 12,980,756. The output of dry rubber rose from 150 tons in 1905 to 412 tons in 1906. The figures for 1907 are not yet available, but the acreage in rubber at date (January, 1908) may be put at 130,000 acres (a much larger area is, of course, alienated for planting rubber), and the output for 1907 at 800 tons, which represents less than one-seventieth part of the world's output. A greatly increased export should not be expected for the next two or three years. The trees generally were vigorously tapped during 1907, and an increase of 300 tons per annum until the rubber planted since 1904 comes into bearing seems to the writer to be a reasonable estimate.

SOME PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN ESTATE WORK.

In the flat land of Malaya the area to be felled has first to be drained. Even then, constant rainfall—rain falling on almost every afternoon of the year—renders a perfect "burn off" extremely rare. Heavy clearing work follows, and then comes the question of distance for the holing. The tendency is to wider planting than in Ceylon, because of the more luxurious growth. "Distance" has always been an interesting subject for discussion amongst planters and other students of the new industry. In the earliest days much of the planting was 10 feet by 10 feet, and some even 8 feet by 8 feet. Afterwards the two favourite distances were 15 feet by 15 feet, and 20 feet by 10 feet, both of which represent 200 trees to the acre. Even these distances are close in Malaya, and where they are employed the reason is partly to reduce the cost of weeding. The ground is more quickly covered with shade, which checks the growth of weeds, and, too, the superintendent of the estate need not trouble to put in a "supply" whenever a single vacancy occurs. Weeds spring up and flourish with a rapidity and luxuriance which are a revelation to the Ceylon planter—Ceylon has supplied Malaya with many able men—and for the first three years on many estates weeding cannot be efficiently done under 15 dollars per acre per month. When any shortage of labour occurs clean weeding has often to be abandoned and simply a space kept cleared, or periodically mowed down, round each tree. To save some of the expenditure on weeding—the object of which is to prevent the harmful competition of useless plants among the trees—crotalaria and other leguminous plants are being tried, on the recommendation of the director and of Mr. Kelway Rambur, in some cases with a distinctly good effect. There are, however, experienced planters who contend that the aeration of the soil by the sun is worth the expense of clean weeding.

The following paragraph is extracted from a brochure entitled "Land and Labour in the Federated Malay States," by Mr. E. MacIadyen:

"The rainfall in the Federated Malay States differs widely as one approaches to, or recedes from, the mountains. At Kuala Selangor the average for ten years was under 77 inches, at Taiping over 105. There is no place, however, where rain is not abundant, and a fortnight's drought is rare anywhere. The driest month is July, although 4 inches is a very ordinary measurement for that month. It is impossible to speak of any season of the year as a dry season, although certain periods may be recognised as wetter than others. From October to the end of the year are the wettest three months. Next in rainfall comes the period from the end of February to the middle of May. Practically all the rain falls after 3:30 p.m., rain at midday being rare and in the morning almost unknown, except right under the hills."

As proof of the uncertainty of success which accompanied the pioneer planting of rubber, coconuts were made the main feature of some of the profitless coffee estates, and if any rubber was tried at all it was interplanted with the coconuts. One case can be quoted where with coconuts and rubber grown together the rubber was first cut out in favour of the coconuts, and then the almost mature coconuts were in turn supplanted by rubber. This great loss of time has not prevented the estate becoming a valuable rubber-bearing property. In the great majority of cases where the two products were interplanted the coconuts were cut out when the rubber-trees required more room, and there are even instances of coconuts growing by themselves being cut down to make way for the "new love." Some cautious men of the present day are putting part of their properties in coconuts, but are avoiding the old mistake of interplanting. Coconuts flourish exceedingly in the flat lands of Malaya when well drained, and whatever the meteoric career of Eastern rubber may be, it will be found difficult to secure a prouder title than that given to coconuts. The Consols of the 'East'—unless British Consols fall below 83."

As regards pests, the Director of Agriculture reported that the general health of the trees of all ages from seedlings to twenty-five-year-old trees had been excellent during 1906.
rapidly increasing area of rubber, however, means an increasing danger of spreading disease and entails an increasing vigilance for the first signs and promptitude to prevent the disease spreading. The policy, he says, of waiting to shut the stable door until the horse has gone is still not unusual even in the case of the most capable and practical planter. The importance of the plant doctor is not yet recognised as fully as that of the medical man or veterinary surgeon. This is to a great extent because the fact is not realised that all lack of health or vigour is due in plants, just as in man, to specific causes, either of environment or the attacks of insects, fungi, or bacteria.

There is in Malaya a voracious larva, and the earliest sign of its attacks on a tree should be detected. On some estates a small gang of coolies does nothing else but patrol the estates, watching for these silent but rapid workers. They generally attack from the roots upwards, and the earth is dug away from the roots and a dressing of lime is applied. Root and leaf diseases have also been detected in nurseries and older trees, but nothing has yet been discovered that has not readily responded to treatment. Abnormal stem growths are rare, but curious and harmless formations occur, without apparent cause, and the practical remedy is to replace the malformed tree with a healthy stump from the nursery. Bare trees are also found, with nothing to explain the phenomenon.

LABOUR.

The indigenous Malay will sometimes undertake kelting contracts, but will not take employment under the planter as a regular estate labourer. The Ching (Tamil) has chiefly been employed on the estates of Malaya, as in Ceylon; but Javanese, Banjarese and even Chinese are to be found on the check-roll. The rate of pay is about 75 per cent, higher than has been hitherto ruling in Ceylon; but this inducement of increased pay was necessary to attract coolies from South India, owing to the longer sea voyage and the unhealthy conditions ruling when new land is being opened up, especially on the swampy flats. Not only has the death-rate been abnormally high, but the situation was complicated at a time of great demand for labour by an outbreak of cholera, which occurred in August, 1906. Coolies were several times taken backwards and forwards between Pinang and Port Swettenham, but on each occasion fresh cases prevented them being landed at the latter port. The quarantine station at Pinang became overcrowded, and not even a segregation camp existed in the Federated States. Steps were taken to prevent a recurrence of the deadlock, but it was a long time before recruiters were able to argue away the complaints which reached South India descriptive of the risks encountered by those who attempted to reach the new El Dorado. So widespread was the need for more coolies throughout last year that the Government introduced in the autumn an Ordinance entitled the Tamil Immigrant Fund Bill, which met with considerable opposition on behalf of the older estates, but was welcomed by the newer ones, which had found the greatest inconvenience and loss in their failure to secure the labourers they needed, after in many cases having hied and burnt off considerable areas of jungle. The Bill was duly passed into law, with an undertaking by the Government that its working would be carefully watched, and that if it was found to work hardly on the developed estates the terms would be modified. The main condition under the Ordinance was that each estate should pay 1 dollar and 25 cents per quarter for each Tamil labourer employed; the mines and the Government to make a similar contribution, and the proceeds to be spent in recruiting labour in the Madras Presidency and for providing the recruits and their families with free passages to their destination. It was the desire of the authorities to bring the new law into force at the beginning of 1908, and the Ordinance was passed before the directors of rubber estate companies registered in Great Britain were able to represent their views to the Government. They cabled a protest and request for delay, but without avail, and the authorities have already set to work. They have guaranteed the shipping company whose steamers bring the immigrants from Negapatam (South India) to Pinang 25,000 passages in the current year (1908). If this number of labourers be secured, and no more, the estate labour in the country will consist of about 100,000 persons, of whom 50,000 will be Tamils.

This matter has brought the older and the younger estates into conflict. Those members of the Rubber Growers’ Association of London, formed last year, who are directly interested in the Malaya industry met under the auspices of the Association, and passed a resolution of protest in the interests of the older estates. Practically all these estates are now owned by proprietors resident in London. The private owner and the working superintendent are members of the different local planters’ associations. These have just become affiliated in a central organisation with its headquarters at Kuala Lumpur, and bearing the title “The Planters’ Association of Malaya.” This body had decided, after some agitation against the terms of the Ordinance, to await further develop-
numerous, and each estate was ordered to erect its own hospital. It was realised that on humanitarian grounds as well as in the interests of the estates the health of the coolies must be better conserved, but the order was too sweeping in that some estates possessed no healthy site, and the supply of dispensers was quite inadequate. It was consequently conceded that two or more neighbouring estates might combine and have a joint hospital. All this additional expenditure, added to the higher wages paid, was bound to impress absent directors and owners as well as superintendents; and with the serious fall in the market price of rubber at the end of last year, and the growing proofs of the expensive working of estates, whereby estimates of expenditure were being severely exceeded, the minds of the directors of the economy became imperative, and instructions are now being received on the estates from companies in the United Kingdom that means of retrenchment must be found. As a special inducement to work regularly those coolies who have turned out every day of the week have hitherto been given as a bonus a "Sunday name," i.e., a seventh day's pay. This is to be one of the first items of expenditure to be abandoned.

TAPPING AND COAGULATION.

The plantation industry being still in its infancy, many matters affecting the economy of the rubber-tree, itsproductiveness and length of life under moderate and heavy tapping, and the preparation of the caoutchouc for the market, have yet to be elucidated by further experience and research. In the first years of the production of plantation rubber the trees were much injured by the tappers cutting too deeply and injuring the cambium. Less bark, too, is now cut away at each paring, and much study is being devoted to this subject of retaining the original cortex as long as possible. The renewed bark is not at first protected by a hard, corky layer, and would be susceptible to attack should some virulent pest appear. The first renewal of bark is satisfactory, but little experience is possessed at present as to the second renewal, and none as to the third. The bark of many cinchona-trees flaked off at the second renewal; and if the lactiferous tissue of the rubber-tree is wasted or the tree is over-tapped, Nature will exact toll in some form or other. Excessive and too frequent tapping also produces latex containing an excess of water and less caoutchouc. The joint subject of minimum loss of tissue and maximum percentage of caoutchouc is being closely studied. Tapping every fourth day instead of every alternate day is now recommended.

Tapping methods constitute an important study, and in Ceylon much ingenuity has been expended in devising tapping and pricking instruments. Malaya generally has bothered little about the new paring instruments, the planters finding that the trained coolies do as good work with the original gauge as with more complicated parers. A perfect pricking instrument, however, should have a great future before it, because the importance of saving the original bark of the tree cannot be exaggerated.

The different methods of tapping need not be described in detail. The earliest system was the V cut, with a small receiving vessel at the base of each V. On a large tree there would be upwards of a dozen cuts and as many tins. The system most in use now is the herring-bone, with a vertical channel to the base of the tree, with one receiving vessel. The half-spiral and the full spiral systems have also been experimented with, but it has been proved that the full spiral is too exhausting. Lowlands, with which is associated the name of the most successful pioneer rubber-planter, Mr. W. W. Bailey, was the first to make use of the parings, which until less than three years ago were left on the ground. These shavings are put through the same washing machines as crepe rubber, and the result is a dark and inferior crepe which more than pays the small expense of collecting it.

The current issue of the Bulletin of the Joint Rubber Institute contains instructive analyses of sixteen samples of Federated Malay States rubber forwarded by the Director of Agriculture. In eleven samples the percentage of caoutchouc was over 94 per cent. A thin pale sheet gave the highest percentage of
caoutchouc, viz., 96.35 per cent., with 0.22 per cent. moisture, 2.1 per cent. ash, 1.87 per cent. resin, and 1.35 per cent. rubber. The lowest percentage of caoutchouc was 92.64 per cent. from an almost white crepe, and in this case the resin was 5 per cent. Even this quantity of resin compares favourably with analyses of wild rubber, and 6 or 8 per cent. of resin seriously detracts from the value of any rubber.

In the old days tropical agriculture was generally market gardening on a glorified scale; but today the planter and the scientist work side by side; and the planter who is also a student can invest the daily round with much scientific interest. In a recent issue of the India Rubber World, the editor of which is Mr. Herbert Wright, the following statement on coagulation appeared and is worth enshrining in these pages—

"The physical and chemical changes involved in the phases of coagulation already recognised are numerous and complex, and many theories have been put forward to explain the phenomenon. It may be argued that the practical planter does not need to trouble himself about the changes which lead to the separation of the rubber from the latex, since this is accomplished by allowing the latex to stand in a receptacle exposed to the air. We are of opinion, however, that the methods adopted on Eastern estates still leave much to be desired; if a better knowledge of the changes incurred during coagulation can be gained, we feel certain that planters of an inventive frame of mind will quickly effect improvements and speedily test the value of deductions originally made from laboratory experiments.

"The latices from different species possess various qualities of resins, proteins, caoutchouc and inorganic elements, but the behaviour of these to the same agencies—heat, moisture, centrifugal force, preservatives, acids and alkalies—is widely different; the phases of coagulation of latices from distinct botanical sources require separate detailed investigation. Heat, though it coagulates many latices, has no such effect on that of Hevea brasiliensis; formaldehyde, though acting as an anti-coagulant with Hevea latex, appears to coagulate over latices; alkalies which help to maintain some latices in a liquid condition, hasten the coagulation of others; mechanical means, while allowing one to effectively separate large-sized caoutchouc globules, are useless when dealing with the latex of Hevea brasiliensis.

"The changes which take place during coagulation have been variously explained, some authorities contending that the heat alone softens the caoutchouc globules, and thus allows them to unite; others maintain that a film of protein matter around each caoutchouc globule becomes coagulated and encloses the rubber particles, which then form an agglutinated mass. The term 'coagulation' was originally applied to the coagulation of the protein, but it is now generally used to denote the separation of the caoutchouc globules and all those processes which lead to the production of a mass of rubber from latex. When some latices are allowed to stand, the caoutchouc globules readily agglutinate, when they rise to the surface; the cream thus secured is then coagulated by pressure. When the latex of Hevea brasiliensis is treated with dilute acetic acid, the caoutchouc does not cream and then coagulate; the latex, according to Bamber, coagulates throughout its mass, thus including much protein and suspended matter, and by its own elastic force then contracts towards the surface of the liquid, expressing a clear water fluid, still containing protein matter in solution."

"It is possible that some day the water, or whey, left after coagulation will be scientifically treated, and further caoutchouc extracted, or it may be, in some form or other, returned to the soil. The oil in the millions of seeds which will be no longer required for propagation will also be marketable, and before long some enterprising individual, or company, will lead the way in erecting expressing mills.

"It has been said that plantation rubber is less resilient than fine Para (the wild rubber of Brazil), and it has been much debated whether this is due to the youth of the cultivated trees or mainly to some special virtue in the method of coagulating the wild rubber over charcoal fires, each this layer being creosoted in the Pears' estate in Johore, the celebrated Landadon block rubber was first produced, and has carried all before it at various rubber shows. Wet block, recommended by the Ceylon scientists—partly because the high percentage of water in Para rubber seems to act as a preservative— is now in its trial. All these new departures secure the best prices when they first appear, and it takes time to decide whether the attention they attract in the home and continental markets is due to their novelty or to their superior inherent qualities. One is inclined to expect the trees to produce superior rubber the older they grow, and that rubber from a ten-year-old tree, 20 inches in circumference at the customary measuring point of 3 feet from the ground, would be superior to rubber from a six-year-old tree of the same size. But like many other suggestions, this is not proved. Some people contend that the size and not the age of the tree determines the tensile quality of the caoutchouc produced. It is difficult to suppose that a six-year-old rubber estate is as valuable, pound per pound of produce, as a more mature estate possessing trees twice that age."

A GIANT RAMBONG TREE.
THE BRUSEH HYDRAULIC TIN MINING COMPANY, LTD.

1. View of the Mine.
2. General View, showing Monitors at Work.
3. Monitors working on 320 feet face.
MINING

The present prosperity of the Federated Malay States is chiefly due to the wonderful development of the mining industry. Since the establishment of the residential system about thirty-two years ago. Mining was also to a large extent responsible for the introduction of that system, as it was mainly the fighting between rival Chinese tribes over the possession of the tin-fields in the Larut district of Perak that caused the intervention of the British.

The earlier records of mining in the Federated area are somewhat scanty; but there is no doubt that for centuries tin had been mined and exported. It is probable that some of the tin used in making the implements of the Bronze Age came from the peninsula, for all the early bronze implements have been found to contain one part of tin to nine parts of copper. In most of the tin-fields that have been opened traces of very old workings have been found, and we know from the records that the Dutch opened trading stations on the peninsula to trade for tin.

Statistics are available from 1889, and they show that the output of tin in that year amounted to 440,000 piculs. The annual output steadily mounted to 828,000 piculs in 1895, then fell to 654,000 piculs in 1899, gradually rose to 869,000 piculs in 1904. Since then the output has been steady, and since 1910 it has been 860,000 piculs.

The Chinese miners are mainly responsible for the output, and the evolution of their mining methods has been interesting to observe. Their success in the earlier days was largely due to their ability to control labour and to their system of payment for work done, which enabled them to exploit their claims on far more advantageous terms than were possible in the case of the Europeans who were tempted to endeavour to win some of the profit which seemed to be available from tin-mining.

In Perak mining was first carried on in the plains of Larut. These—stretching between the mountains and the sea—were highly mineralised, and the even character of the alluvial drifts, combined with the shallowness of the overburden, made it an ideal field for development by the Chinese methods. In the State of Selangor the fields first developed and worked by the Chinese were in Serendah, Rawang, and Ampang.

The method of working universally adopted at first was simple in the extreme, and to a great extent prevails to this day. A large portion of the workings being open, this is the surest and least expensive means of winning the alluvial deposits, which are generally found close enough to the surface to admit of being worked on the open-cast system.

Deeper deposits are worked by means of shafts, sometimes to depths of over 200 feet, and there are also cases in which the tin ore extends from the surface down to bedrock. As to the source from which the alluvial tin in the Federated Malay States is derived but little is known, owing to the fact that the geological formation is difficult to trace, the country being covered by dense forest. There has been no deep mining to provide means by which the stratification of the various rocks could be studied.

The occurrence of tin is so widespread and the conditions under which it is found are so various that no theory of its genesis seems to fit all cases. Generally speaking, it is difficult to find ground in which tin is not present. It occurs in all the alluvial flats, in most of the low hills, on many of the high granite mounds. In the alluvial flats of Pulau, the numerous limestone hills which are scattered through the States.

However, the general character of the wash from which the tin is won shows that it must originally have been contained in veins running through the slates and granite. The evidence of this is found in the fact that the richness of the alluvium go to prove that for ages the rocks containing the mineral in veins were subjected to erosion and denudation, until the whole of the mineralised portions had been disintegrated and carried away by the action of water. This is proved by the nature of the detritus in the tin-bearing gravels and clays, which almost invariably consist of the constituents of slate and granite rocks, together with quartz particles, all of which are much water-worn. The clays, which form the bottom of most of the deposits, must have originated from the slates that overlay the granite.

There is, unfortunately, no evidence to show the exact form in which the cassiterite originally occurred, but this only strengthens the theory that the cassiterite now being exploited is due to the almost complete denudation of the original tin-bearing rocks. A Government geologist has recently been appointed, and in time his researches will probably throw some light upon this subject.

The site for mining having been chosen, either by boring or by the employment of a pawang, or diver, and the necessary grants and permissions obtained from the Government, a start is made by felling the jungle and burning it off. Atap sheds are constructed for the accommodation of the coolies, and the necessary watercourses cut to bring in water with which to wash the karang, or pay-dirt, and to turn a water-wheel for driving a wooden chain-pump. The excavation of a large hole is then commenced, the overburthen being carried by coolies who work on trucks, to some distance from the hole, round which it is stacked, so as to form a dam to prevent the inrush of surface water during heavy rains.

When the karang is reached it is excavated by wages men and carried by them to the wash-boxes. As the karang does not run evenly and is often mixed with boulders, it would not pay to employ men on contract, or task, to lift it, for they would surely leave behind the patches most difficult to get at, and those generally the richest. Arrived at the wash-box, the karang is there treated in a stream of flowing water until nothing remains but the valuable tin-ore.

The first hole, or paddock, having been cleared of its karang, the work extends on all sides, the overburthen now being deposited on the worked portion of the ground. Operations are continued in this manner until the land available has all been turned over and the karang exhausted.

This was the system almost entirely in vogue during the early days, when mining was in the hands of a few Chinese capitalists, who imported from China labourers to whom they paid nil or no wages beyond the food they ate and the clothes they wore. As was natural, the coolies, tiring of working for almost nothing, absconded from their employers. They banded together in small gangs to mine on their own account, and the success of some of them led to immigration from China, which, together with the repeal of the enactment to regulate indentured labour, gave to the country a large number of free labourers, and introduced the chabut, or co-operative, system of mining.

Under this system the person who has acquired the right to mine certain piece of land clears it of jungle and erects coolie sheds. A notice is then posted in a prominent place inviting labourers to come in and mine on terms which are clearly stated in the notice. Generally speaking, the terms are that the proprietor for the time being agrees to provide all the necessary capital for tools, &c., and to supply the coolies with food, clothes, and small cash advances during a certain period—generally six months. The food and clothes are charged for above market rates, and the cash is advanced at a substantial discount. Then, at the end of the period, the accounts are made up, the tin is sold, and the balance, after
payment of all expenses is divided in accordance with the terms of the notice. If the mine has proved rich, every one concerned makes a profit. If only sufficient tin has been won to cover expenses, the proprietor still makes a profit on everything supplied, and the coolies get nothing beyond the food, clothing, and cash which they have received while working. If the venture proves a failure, the proprietor loses all he has put into it, while the coolie loses his time and labour, against which he has been fed and clothed for six months.

This is a system deservedly popular with all classes, and at the present day is responsible for the majority of the tin won in the Federated Malay States.

Mining is also carried on in the hills or watercourse, and it is curious to note that these waterwheels were invariably made of the same diameter. If more power was required, two wheels or more were used, and, no matter what the available fall might be, the diameter of the wheels was never increased.

With the advent of the European centrifugal steam pumps soon superseded the wooden kunchi char in all the larger mines, but beyond these, no machinery of any kind was used until quite recently. Probably this is owing to the fact that all the earlier attempts of Europeans to use machinery for mining ended in failure, and it was only by working on the Chinese methods that European-owned mines could claim any measure of success. This was largely due to the low price then prevailing for tin, and to the difficulty of securing sufficient capital, as people were unwilling to supply money to develop properties in an unknown country, which, in the minds of the general public, was chiefly associated with weird stories of yellow-skinned, ferocious pirates. Be that as it may, attempts to mine profitably in Selangor and Perak all ended in failure where Europeans were concerned, and at the end of 1892 most of the European-owned mines had ceased to work.

There was one exception—the Société des Étains de Kinta, which was the first to commence operations in Kinta and has a long and brilliant career. At the present day it is operating on a large scale, and, with the assistance of thoroughly up-to-date plant and machinery, adding each month a large amount to the tin output. This company is also responsible for the first hydro-electric power-station recently installed at Kampar, in Perak.

The various systems of working have already been outlined, and an endeavour will now be made to describe the tools and methods used from the earliest times to the present day.

In open-cast mines, as the overburden is removed the workings are constantly deepened, and ladders are made by cutting steps at an acute angle in the trunks of trees, which are laid down the sides of the workings. Up and down these the coolies run in endless streams, carrying baskets of earth slung on either end of a stick, about 5 feet long, which rests on the shoulder. Payment is made at a fixed rate per chang (30 feet square by 15 deep). The rate used to be 7 dollars, and is now about 13 dollars. When stripping to the top of the karang is completed, trestles of round poles are erected across the bottom with angle planks laid across for the coolies to walk on.
OPEN CAST TIN MINE AT KAMUNTING.

1. The Coolies at Kamunting Mine.
2. Washing Tin Ore.
paddling are costly and slow, and it was for this reason that the Chinese adopted improved European methods. He employed the harrow paddler, which was first introduced by Mr. John Miller, an Australian miner on the now famous Tronon Mine.

With the rise in the value of tin which commenced about 1878, and the consequent increased profits of the already established mining companies, the attention of investors was attracted to the Federated Malay States, and since that time many companies have been formed to develop the properties, generally with considerable success.

Modern machinery and labour-saving appliances have been extensively introduced, and as a result, many propositions are paying good dividends which, under the old methods, could not have been dealt with at all.

The hydraulic system of working is one of the most economical methods of winning tin ore where a sufficient fall of water can be obtained. In this system, the clayey wash-boxes are used, and as much karang as can easily and safely be got at is hauled out. Then the shaft is abandoned and another sunk close by. This is a wasteful form of working, but in theory the workings are supposed to communicate below and all the karang to be taken out, in practice this is seldom the case unless the ground is level, and, as a consequence, much is left behind and the ground spoiled.

Most of the tin ore now goes to the Straits Trading Company's smelters in Singapore and Province Wellesley, but some Chinese still smelt their own ore in their crude furnaces. In these a shallow vessel is placed on legs and plastered with mud. A mud cylinder is erected upon this, held together by iron bands, and the smelter is complete. Tin ore and charcoal are fed into the top of the box, the latter being of wooden borer, which is a hollow cylinder with a flapped valve at either end, with a piston in the center, to make it easier to remove. These boxes are fed with bunches of cock's feathers. Power is obtained by a man walking backwards and forwards pulling and pushing the piston to and fro, and it run down through a hole in the side of the furnace.

Where, as is the case on many fields, the karang is of a clayey nature and not easily disintegrated, it becomes necessary to “paddle” it before the tin ore can be separated from the gangue; and in order to do this the karang is depastured in large square, shallow boxes. At one end of the box a stream of water is admitted, which has its outlet at the other end, and a number of paddles, armed with mallets, chop and rake the karang, mixing it with the water over and over again until the whole of the clay has been floated away and nothing remains but the gravel and tin ore.

Another method of recent introduction is a kind of human elevator, by which the karang is paddled on its way to the surface. On the side of the outlet valve a series of shallow boxes or terraces, spaced at about 4 feet. On each of these a cooie is stationed, who scoops up with a small tin dish a handle the karang from the box below; no one alongside the karang being mixed with water, each cooie assists the disintegrate, until on arriving at the surface the karang is paddled through the wash-box. There are mines where as many as fifteen liffs are made, but both systems of

The total revenue from all sources relating to mining was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Perak</th>
<th>Selangor</th>
<th>Negri Sambian</th>
<th>Pahang</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>1905</td>
<td>8,048,340</td>
<td>3,212,727</td>
<td>3,342,999</td>
<td>3,404,687</td>
<td>10,808,854</td>
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<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>10,988,521</td>
<td>4,325,781</td>
<td>3,658,501</td>
<td>3,531,074</td>
<td>22,403,877</td>
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The revenue was derived from the following sources:

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<th>Source</th>
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<th>1906</th>
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<td>Warden's office</td>
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<td>8,325,781</td>
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<td>Premia on leases</td>
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<td>Rent on leases</td>
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<td>Export duty on wolfram</td>
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<tr>
<td>Royalty on gold</td>
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<td>11,346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commuted royalty on gold</td>
<td>902</td>
<td>902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ore-buyers and smelters' licences</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total expenditure on the administration of the Mines Department was 1,145 per cent. of the revenue derived from all sources relating to mining.

The statistics regarding the output of tin and the average prices obtained make an instructive study, and perhaps the sterling figures are best for purposes of comparison. In 1880 the total output was 14,900,000 lbs, or an average of 15 lbs per ton. The output rapidly increased during the next three years, but the price remained about the same. In the next year began a tremendous fall in price, and the decrease in the output, however, continuing, with the result that in 1895 the tin and tin ore exported amounted to 1,800,000 lbs, or 12 per cent. of the production. In 1894 the 1905 average price fell to 62 per cent. for a slightly lower output, but two years later came a rapid recovery. The year 1900 saw an output of 720,000 lbs, of the value of £5,500,000, or an average of £10 per ton. A drop to an average of £10 per ton in the following year was succeeded by averages of £116 in 1902, £122 in 1903, £120 in 1904, £138 in 1905, and £174 in 1906.

The output from each State and its value at the average prices obtained for 1906 and 1905, viz., 80.66 dollars and 80.77 dollars per picul respectively (exchange at 28.40 per cent.) were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Perak</th>
<th>Selangor</th>
<th>Negri Sambian</th>
<th>Pahang</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1905</td>
<td>10,872</td>
<td>8,797,034</td>
<td>3,592,234</td>
<td>2,143,787</td>
<td>25,907,345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1906</td>
<td>10,872</td>
<td>8,797,034</td>
<td>3,592,234</td>
<td>2,143,787</td>
<td>25,907,345</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
OPEN CAST TIN MINE AT KAMUNTING.

1. General View
2 & 3. Cross Sections.
The highest price per picul in Singapore during the year 1906 was 125.30 dollars and the lowest 80.25 dollars. On the London market the highest price was £2.15 per ton and the lowest £1.01, the average price, as quoted by the Mining Journal, being £1.86 12s. 9d. The following table gives the sterling values in each State for 1906:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Block Tin.</th>
<th>Tin Ore.</th>
<th>Value in Sterling, Local Price,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perak</td>
<td>7,908</td>
<td>18,13</td>
<td>8,538,136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selangor</td>
<td>6,002</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6,962,702</td>
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<tr>
<td>Negri Sambian</td>
<td>2,826</td>
<td>15-54</td>
<td>2,653,475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pahang</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>14-55</td>
<td>1,803,947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>18,258</strong></td>
<td><strong>16-22</strong></td>
<td><strong>8,538,136</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The figures are obtained by multiplying the number of tons by the local sterling value per ton, £1.75 12s. 9d., the fraction in the dollar average being ignored.

A large and steadily increasing labour force is employed in the tin mines, the census returned at the end of 1906 showing a total of 212,660. Of that number more than half are employed in Perak, and the remainder are distributed as follows: Selangor, 71,243; Negri Sambian, 23,427; Pahang, 19013. Of this labour force, 163,104 are employed in open-cast mines, 20,360 in underground workings, and 19,187 in lampaning. The total may again be divided into 30,259 who work on the contract system, 27,519 who work for wages, and 125,382 who work on the tribute system. It is noticeable that the number of labourers who work on tribute is increasing, whilst the number of those on contract and wages is decreasing. The labour force is supplemented by engines of 8,189 horse-power—a labour equivalent of 65,440—Perak contributing more than one-half of this total and Selangor more than one-fourth. The total alienated are mining operations actually pursued.

The future of tin-mining in the Federated Malay States seems on the whole assured. Lode formations are being discovered in all the States, and when exploited may help largely towards the permanence of the tin output on its present scale. Scientific mining is making enormous advances in Perak and Selangor. The outlook in Negri Sambian is not so promising, perhaps, but in Pahang there are vast possibilities, especially in the Kuantan district.

Wolfram is won to a small extent, most of it coming from Chumur, Batang Padang, and Ulu Gopeng. It occurs with tin. During 1906 2,259 piculs were exported, as against 2,213 in the previous year—an increase of 46 piculs. Taking the price at an average of 25 dollars per picul, the value would be £3,475 dollars.

Gold-mining is the only other mining industry of any importance in the Federated Malay States. The total production during 1906 was 11,580 ounces, of which 1,057 ounces came from Perak, 434 from Negri Sambian, and 10,688 from Pahang. The gold won in 1905 amounted to 11,453 ounces. The value was roughly 357,028 dollars, or £6,320, in 1906, against 392,072 dollars, or £5,812, in 1905, taking the average price to be £4 an ounce. In Perak a large proportion of the gold was won at the lode mines at Batu Bersawah. The remainder was derived from alluvial washings in Batang Padang, where the gold occurs in association with alluvial tin, and is worked in much the same manner as the tin. The wash-dirt is raised and cleaned in the ordinary way in a wash-box with a stream of water, but care is taken that the tin-sand is not freed from all the sand and "amang," as this would lead to a great loss of gold. Further washings are carried out in shallow wooden dishes or "dulangs," about 20 inches in diameter. These correspond to the "tin dishes" used in Australia. The washers are extremely clever in separating the gold, and after an expert washer has finished with the sand very little of the precious metal is lost. The only gold-mine in Pahang is that in the Raub district. The headquarters are at Bukit Koman, where an up-to-date hydro-electric plant is employed to supply power to the workings. The current is generated some miles away on the Sempan river. The operations were first commenced under the management of the late Mr. W. Bibby, and according to the returns from the mine they ran to an average of nearly an ounce per ton; but on sinking the yield gradually became poorer, and is now about 5 dwts. per ton. The mine has passed under new management, and with the employment of modern cyaniding plant there seems to be every prospect of good profits being made in the future. The mine is the only gold-mine in the peninsula where deep sinkings have been attempted; it was at one time arranged that the Government and the Raub Australian Gold Mining Company should jointly bear the cost of sinking a shaft in order to prove the value of the reef to a deep level, but for some reason this was abandoned.
O seas in the universe contain more edible fish than the seas of the Malay Archipelago. The best quality is found in the comparatively shallow waters bordering the granitic and sedimentary formations of the peninsula’s shores. The principal edible varieties are bawal, balian, chenchang, gelama, kurau, parang-parang, siakap, tenggiri, yu-laras, yu-parang, sangling, slantang, kidara, jenakah, gurut-gurut, pari and plata. Prawns, crabs, and shrimps are also procurable. All along the Pahang coast sea-turtles abound, and their eggs, which are found in large numbers buried in the sand, are much prized as a food by the natives and are regarded as rare delicacies in the European settlements.

The Malays are expert fishermen; they catch their fish by a variety of devices—by hook and line, by many kinds of nets, by weirs and traps, by spearing, and by poisoning the streams with narcotic juices, of which the best-known and most generally used is the juice of the tuba-root. But the Malays are excelled, even in their own waters, by the Chinese, who make up for less skill by untiring application. The fishermen are almost invariably Chinese.

As the fishing-boats return from the fishing grounds in the morning, beach sales are conducted in very much the same way as in our big fish markets at home. Owing to the climate, it is impossible to send much fresh fish to the inhabitants of inland districts, but dried fish is supplied in large quantities, and forms a staple article of food for all classes of natives. The very small fish, together with the fluid in which the larger kinds have been cured, are sold as marrow to the spice and coconut planters.

The fishermen on the Malayan coasts do not often venture far out to sea, but, as a rule, pursue their calling in inshore waters with small craft, the most common of these being the keloj, which carries a crew of three men. During rough weather, however, this is abandoned in favour of the jukok, a large seaworthy boat measuring about 30 feet in length by 10 feet in beam.

The chief kinds of nets used are the pukat chang, pukat dalun, pukat langking, and pukat langgok. Of these, the first-named is the most expensive, costing about 250 dollars. There appears to be no reason why trawl-nets should not be successfully and profitably employed on many parts of the coast, for although there is no "close" season, the supply of fish at present falls far short of the local demand, and a ready sale is always assured. This is more particularly the case between December and March, when the north-east monsoon prevails and renders fishing on the east coast a very hazardous occupation. At Kuala Pahang a large net, called by the natives the "ampang," is freely employed. Oblong or square in shape, it is stretched out flat on the mud at low ebb, the ends being pegged down and the whole covered with sand or coral to conceal it. Stakes are driven into the mud at intervals of 30 feet and attached to the net, the outer edges of which are tied to the stakes with cords. At high-water the cords are pulled up to raise up the outside skirts of the net, which is afterwards emptied of its contents at low-water. The kelong besar, or large fishing stake-trap, is a permanent structure very generally used by the Malays. In design, the kelong besar resembles the salmon-nets to be seen on British coasts. It consists of four compartments, and is usually constructed of stakes and rattans. Each compartment is shaped like the head of an arrow, the last being narrowed, and when once the fish get into this, they are unable to get out again.

In Singapore waters nearly 200 fishing-boats are engaged in the fishing of small fish, chiefly used for food, and the catch is computed at about 20,000 tons of fish, worth nearly 2,500,000 dollars, are taken annually. The trade in salt fish is extensive. In Pinang Island, the approximate quantity of fresh fish sold in the town markets and surrounding villages is 10,000 tons, and of salt fish, 3,000 tons, valued together at about 1,500,000 dollars.

The principal fisheries in the State of Perak are at Matang, a sub-district of Larut. From the last report issued by Mr. H. C. Robinson, Inspector of Fisheries in the Federated Malay States, it appears that in Perak waters, during 1906, some 1,500 fishermen were actively engaged, and from their licences 6,477 dollars was derived, equivalent to an annual taxation of about 3-75 dollars per head. In the State of Selangor about 1,300 fishermen were engaged in the industry, and the revenue was 7,034 dollars, taxation thus amounting to about 5 dollars per head. In the Kuala Selangor district of this State the larger fishing-stakes are mainly worked by Malays, but the fishing industry, nevertheless, is chiefly in the hands of Chinese. Over 1,200 licences for nets of the jaring type were issued during the twelve months. Including 215 dollars for boat licences, the revenue amounted to 4,014 dollars. The number of fish caught was about 600, and the rate of taxation averaged about 7.50 dollars per head—a higher rate than in any of the other coastal regions of Selangor. The exports of fish were valued at 23,500 dollars. In the Klang district there were 400 fishermen, 90 per cent, of whom were Chinese. Here the most important branch of the work is the drift-net style of fishing, the fish being sent in ice to Port Swettenham and thence to Klang and Kuala Lumpur. In the Kuala Langat district of Selangor, 400 fishing boats were licensed, and the fishermen numbered about 250. Exports of fish from the port slightly exceeded 1,000 dollars in value; while imports of the same food-stuff were valued at 2,220 dollars, and consisted of salt-fish and dried prawns from Baram for the cocktails on the gambier and pepper plantations at Sepang.

On the coast of the Negri Sambian the fishing industry is small, and much of the fish is caught by hook and line for domestic requirements. There are about 200 fishing-boats sailing out of this station.

The principal fishing centres in Pahang are at Rompin, Kuala Pahang, Penoh, Berserah and Gebing. The most important of these is Berserah, in the Kuantan district. The exportation of fish from the coast of Selangor in 1906 represented in value roughly 60,000 dollars, to which no less than 56,470 dollars was contributed by the Kuamat district.

In Pahang all Malays have a common right to fish in the rivers, and each owner of a swamp or pond has the exclusive right to the fishing on his property. No restrictions in the shape of taxes are imposed on river fisheries in Pahang, for the reason that the fish caught are intended purely for local consumption by the peasants themselves, and only in a few instances are they put on the market for sale. As many as 45 varieties of fish are to be obtained from the rivers, but some of them are not wholesome to eat. Several other kinds also are found in swamps and ponds, these being mostly caught for food by the peasants. In the inland villages most of the river-fishing is done by women.

A practice that used to be common in Pahang was that of poisoning streams with powerful narcotics, which had the effect of stupefying the fish and bringing them to the surface, where they were speared and captured in great quantities by the natives. The use of the tuba-root for this purpose is now prohibited by law, but it is still occasionally employed in the more remote river reaches. On State festivals, when courtesies are exchanged between the native Rajas, or when the visit of the High Com-
missioner or some other eminent dignitary is to be celebrated, tuba fish-drives are organised on a large scale, and form an interesting and picturesque spectacle.

Of late years, dynamite was introduced into the country as a fish-killer, but its use is now forbidden. A single dynamite cartridge was sufficient to kill or stupefy all the fish in a pool or a considerable stretch of river, and the Malays welcomed this easy method of securing "a catch;" but, unfortunately, some who were inexperienced in handling the dangerous explosive were "hoist with their own petard."

The only diving fishery in the States is one conducted on a small scale off the island of Tioman and the neighbouring islets by Orang Bersulu or Sakai Laut, natives of the Aor and Tinggi Islands, who are capable of diving to a considerable depth and of remaining a remarkably long time under water without artificial aid. These divers obtain bêche-de-mer and a shell known as gewang, from which common pearl buttons and ornaments are made. They are a timid and inoffensive people, and are now so far under control that they take out annual licences for boats. During the prevalence of the north-east monsoon, between December and March, when fishing is impossible, they return to their homes on the Aor and Tinggi Islands. In the calm season they live almost entirely on the water, and may frequently be met with in the small bays and inlets of Tioman, Sri Buat, and other adjacent islands. It is believed that these divers occasionally bring up pearl oysters, and it is not considered improbable that there may be pearl-beds around the islands belonging to the State of Pahang.

In every fishing community the fishermen elect a headman, whom they obey, and upon whom they depend in all matters concerning their welfare. Cases are on record of whole villages moving from one place to another simply from a desire to follow their headman. Though great quantities of fish are procured annually from the fisheries, prices have risen enormously within recent years, and are more than double what they were some ten years ago. The fishing population is increasing, and the industry promises to become very lucrative indeed in the near future. The sea fisheries all round the Federated Malay States coast bring in a fair revenue to the Government. The fishing-boats are licensed, and a small charge is made for fishing-stakes off the shore and for nets. There is in Pahang an export duty of 12 1/2 cents per picul (133 lbs.) payable on all fish sent out of the country. In Negri Sambilian no export duty is levied and in Perak and Selangor 10 per cent. ad valorem is charged.

From an angler’s point of view there is very little sport to be had in the rivers of the Federated Malay States. Most of the streams are polluted by the detritus washed out of the tin mines, and it is necessary to travel far to get beyond the influence of this. Even then, in the clear rivers near the hills, though an occasional fish may be taken by persistent spinning or live-baiting, there is no certainty that any sport will be obtained, and a blank day is the rule rather than the exception. European fishing tackle rots very quickly in this climate.

In conclusion, mention might be made of the karin, a well known and peculiar little fish native to these waters. The Malays rear these tiny fish and match them to fight against one another for sums of money; and so pugnacious are they that the combat only ends with the death of one of the two miniature gladiators.
THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

The climate of the Straits Settlements is remarkable for its equable temperature and its humidity. Lying in a sheltered recess off the southern coast of the Malay Peninsula, in latitude 1° 17' N., as longitude 103° 51' E., the island of Singapore is so situated as to be free from the influences of either cyclone or typhoon; therefore the difference in the readings of the barometer and the thermometer is not very appreciable. As will be seen from the appended table of observations, the highest annual mean barometrical pressure during the last 38 years was recorded in 1905 at 29.916 inches, while the lowest was 29.702 inches, in 1870. Under the caption "Annual Mean Temperature of Air," it appears that during the same period the highest maximum was reached in 1903, when 91.5° F., was registered, and the lowest minimum in 1881, with 71.8° F. In 1906 the rainfall was greater than in any other year of the period under review, excepting 1874, the respective figures being 118.38 inches in 1906 and 123.24 inches in 1870. In the year 1895 the rainfall was 8340 inches. During the time covered by the annexed table the lowest rainfalls were recorded in 1877 and 1885, the figure for each of these years being 38.37 inches. The number of rainy days during the last ten years has been as follows: In 1896, 166; in 1897, 182; in 1898, 189; in 1899, 196; in 1900, 170; in 1901, 169; in 1902, 151; in 1903, 183; in 1904, 179; in 1905, 157—giving a mean annual return of 173 rainy days for the ten years.

The north-east monsoon generally commences in November, but its direction is not steadily maintained until December, and sometimes even as late as May. During the prevalence of this monsoon, Singapore is often visited by severe squalls of brief duration, chiefly in the early morning, known by the name of "Sumatras." It is also at this time of the year that the so-called "Java wind" blows

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In Pinang, which is situated in lat. 5° 24' N. and long. 100° 20' E., the total rainfall during 1905 was 102.21 inches. The wettest month was November, when there was a rainfall of 137.4 inches; and the driest month was March, during which only 1.68 inches of rain fell. The heaviest fall of rain to occur in 24 hours was in April, when 57.0 inches fell. Over the whole year the barometrical readings, corrected and reduced to 32° Fahrenheit, showed

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Annual Mean Barometrical Pressure Reduced to 32° F.</th>
<th>Annual Mean Temperature of Air</th>
<th>Annual Mean Temperature of Radiation</th>
<th>Total Rainfall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>In the Sun</td>
<td>On Grass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>29°846</td>
<td>86°6</td>
<td>74°6</td>
<td>149°2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1870</td>
<td>29°852</td>
<td>85°9</td>
<td>73°5</td>
<td>149°1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871</td>
<td>29°856</td>
<td>85°9</td>
<td>73°2</td>
<td>149°5</td>
</tr>
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<td>29°824</td>
<td>80°5</td>
<td>73°4</td>
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<td>145°3</td>
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<td>29°879</td>
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Inches.
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

A mean of 29°90. The mean air-temperature was 80°3, with a maximum of 88°9 and a minimum of 72°4; the temperature of radiation was 148°0 in the sun and 71°9 on grass; the prevailing direction of wind was north-west, and its mean velocity 231-40 miles.

In Malacca (lat. 2° 14' N. and long. 102° 11' E.) the rainfall was 89°57 inches; barometrical readings showed a mean of 29°854; the mean temperature of air was 79°6, with a maximum of 89°2 and a minimum of 70°7; the temperature of radiation was 151°3 in the sun and 62°3 on grass. The mean velocity of wind was 209 miles, and its prevailing direction north-west.

In Province Wellesley (lat. 5° 21' N. and long. 100° 28' E.) there was a mean rainfall of 88°79 inches. The mean temperature of air was 80°6, with a maximum of 91°9 and a minimum of 74°0; and the temperature of radiation was 143°5 in the sun and 72°9 on grass. In the Dindings the rainfall amounted to 90°34 inches.

FEDERATED MALAY STATES:

The climate of the Federated Malay States is very uniform, and can be described in general terms as hot and moist. Except in districts close to the mountain ranges, the annual rainfall is about 90 inches. In towns, such as Taiping, Tapah, and Selama, lying close to the mountains, the rainfall is 50 per cent. more than this. At Taiping the average of ten years' rainfall has been 164 inches. There is no well-marked dry season. Generally speaking, July is the driest month, but there is seldom a fall of less than 33 inches. The wettest season is from October to December, and there is another wet season of less marked duration during March and April. Rain rarely falls before 11 a.m., so that six hours of outdoor work can be depended upon all the year round.

In the low country the average maximum temperature, occurring between noon and 3 p.m., is just under 90°, and the average minimum occurring just before sunrise, is just over 70°. The general mean temperature is about 80°. There is very little change in the mean monthly temperature throughout the year, the average of ten years' readings at Taiping exhibiting a difference of only 3°22 between the mean temperature of May, the hottest, and of December, the coldest, month of the year.

The variation of temperature with altitude may be taken roughly as a decrease of 3° for each 1,000 feet increase of height. Thus the mean maximum and minimum at altitudes of 7,000 feet may be taken as about 70° and 50° respectively. This rule, however, applies more closely to the minimum temperature, because on a bright still day considerable temperatures may be reached even at high altitudes. On Gunong Ulu Liang, at a height of 6,333 feet, 93° were registered.

The subjoined tables give the average rainfall and the readings of the thermometer, so far as they are ascertainable, in each of the four States for several years.

### Average Rainfall

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Mean Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PERAK</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiping</td>
<td>1894-1903</td>
<td>103·53</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kuala Kangsa</td>
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<td>75·50</td>
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<td>98·25</td>
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<td>Gopeng</td>
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<td>110·29</td>
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<td>Ipoh</td>
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<td>101·28</td>
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<td>Teluk Anson</td>
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<td>103·01</td>
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<td>Tapah</td>
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<td>140·81</td>
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<td>Parit Buntar</td>
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<td>Selama</td>
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<td>76·76</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ulu Langat</td>
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<td>Kuala Langat</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kuala Lumpur</td>
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<td>102·02</td>
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<tr>
<td>Klung</td>
<td></td>
<td>89·53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negeri Sambilan</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seremban</td>
<td>1886-1893</td>
<td>88·02</td>
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<td>Tampin</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kuala Lipis</td>
<td>1901-1905</td>
<td>97·19</td>
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<tr>
<td>Temerloh</td>
<td>1898-1902</td>
<td>77·19</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pekan</td>
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<td>Kuantan</td>
<td></td>
<td>102·97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raub</td>
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<td>83·39</td>
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</table>

1. Above shows average for nine years, no record for 1900 being found.
2. In each case above no records were found for 1900.

### Mean Readings of Thermometer

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<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Max. °</th>
<th>Min. °</th>
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<td>Kampar</td>
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<td></td>
<td>86·7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>86·2</td>
<td>72·2</td>
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<td>1896-1895</td>
<td>90·7</td>
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<td>Klung</td>
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<td>80·2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kuala Lipis</td>
<td>1901-1905</td>
<td>94·0</td>
<td>69·5</td>
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</table>
GEOLOGY OF THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES

By M. J. B. SCRIVENOR, Government Geologist, Federated Malay States.

GEOLOGICAL survey of the mining districts of the Federated Malay States was commenced by the writer towards the close of 1907. As he was without any colleagues in this work, it will readily be understood that ideas concerning the general structure of so large and so densely wooded a country must at yet be somewhat vague, and therefore it is a remarkable fact that the arrangement adopted of the rocks forming this portion of the Malay Peninsula is provisional, and may be modified in the future as further facts are brought to light. It is significant, however, that the palaeontological evidence already collected points to a close relationship between the Federated Malay States and the Netherlands Indies on the one hand, and with India on the other. It is hoped that in time it will be possible to produce a map that will join the work of the Dutch geologists to that of the Indian Geological Survey. But the writer, immediately on assuming the Economic Geology of the Federated Malay States, and a large proportion of his three years’ service, has been occupied in studying the gold-mining districts. Unfortunately this industry has given very poor return, contrary to the expectations of some, whose hopes were founded, I fear wrongly, on the evidence of work carried out by Malays. But for two points the gold mines have not afforded anything of great geological interest. These are the occurrence of scheelite with the gold on the Raub Australian Gold Mining Company’s land and the existence of a gold-bearing granophyre at Pasoh, in Negri Sembilan.

The physical features of the Federated Malay States are strongly marked. The backbone of the peninsula, separating Pahang from the Western States, is a long range of granite mountains. On the west subsidiary granite ranges occur; while on the east, in the centre of Pahang, is the huge isolated Benom Range, also composed of granite. To the north of the Benom Range lies the Tahan Range, composed almost entirely, as far as is known, of sandstone, shale, and conglomerate. Another similar, but much smaller range, the Semangkol Range, separates Larut from Krian in Perak; and in Pahang again other conglomerate and sandstone outcrops form a long line of foothills to the main granite range. In addition to these ranges there is a third type, composed of limestone, remarkable for rugged summits and precipitous sides. This type is strongly developed in Kinta, the chief mining district of Perak, but fine examples occur in Selangor and Pahang as well.

The two largest rivers are the Perak river and the Pahang river. In their upper reaches most of the rivers are full of rapids, but once they leave the hills they meander through extensive alluvial flats, affording excellent land for agriculture, and, in some cases, extensive deposits of rich alluvial tin ore. Near the sea there are large tracts of mangrove swamp, from which, on the west coast, rise islands of granite and of schists. The mouth of the Pahang river is remarkable for being shallow, sandy, and almost devoid of mangrove.

Two extensive series of stratified rocks have been distinguished with certainty. The older series is composed of shale, calcareous shale, marl, and limestone; the younger of estuarine rocks, shale, sandstone, and conglomerate. The former, named provisionally the Raub Series, ranges, probably, from the Carboniferous to the Permian; the latter, named provisionally the Tembeling Series, probably from the Trias to the Middle Jurassic. In the Malay Archipelago the limestones of West Sumatra (Carboniferous) and of Timur and Roti (Carboniferous and Permian) are roughly on the same horizon as the Raub Series; while the Tembeling Series may be referred to the Trias, at least. Again, the Raub and Tembeling Series may be respectively referred to the Producus beds of the Saed Range and the Upper Gondwana in India. They are here distinguished on account of the chert and carbonaceous shale, both with radiolaria, and light-coloured siliceous shale, in which no radiolaria have been found as yet, but has been provisionally named provisionally the Chert Series, and is, it is believed at present, a deep water equivalent of the Raub Series; that is to say, the Chert Series was deposited very slowly and in a great depth of water far from land, while in shallower water a greater thickness of calcareous rocks was being formed at a greater rate.

Associated with the Raub and Chert Series are numerous beds of volcanic ash and lava, comprising the Pahang Volcanic Series. The eruptions were chiefly, if not entirely, submarine, and the rocks vary considerably in composition, ranging from basic andesites to trachytes. In the conglomerates of the Tembeling Series pebbles both of chert and of rocks of the Pahang Volcanic Series have been found. This indicates an unconformity between the Raub and Tembeling Series. At some period after the deposition of the Tembeling Series the crust of the earth in this region was greatly disturbed, being thrown into folds, dislocated, and sheared. This resulted in long lines of weakness, trending roughly NNW SSE, which admitted of the intrusion of masses of granite, bringing with it the tin which is now the chief source of wealth to the Federated Malay States. Later denudation demolished supercambium rocks and carved the granite and Raub, Tembeling, and Chert Series into the present configuration of the Malay States and Straits Settlements; but at some time previous to this small dykes of dolerite were injected into the granite.

Until recent years the tin ore exported from the Federated Malay States has been almost entirely won from alluvium, soil, and soft decomposed outcrops of stanniferous rocks. The alluvial deposits, for the most part, are of no great interest. It is true that many have proved extraordinarily rich in tin ore, but apart from ore contents there is little to claim attention here.

An alluvial tin-field of more than ordinary interest is the Machi (or Manchi) tin-field in Pahang. Here no granite is visible in any of the mines or in the immediate vicinity. The tin ore, there is good reason to suppose, has been derived from small lodes in hardened shale, one of which contains large quantities of garnet. The ore in the alluvium varies in grain greatly, and is singularly free from heavy impurities, such as iron ores.

At Chin-Chin, in Malacca, is an excellent example of tin ore in soil. Another occurs at Serendah, in Selangor. In such cases the ore is derived from small lodes in the country marked by the soil, and is a certain Prospect of being distributed by soil-creep. At Brunei, in Perak, quartz reefs projecting into the soil have acted as natural ripples against tin ore coming slowly downhill. As at Machi, in Malacca, there is an interesting deposit on the sea floor. It is the result of the action of the sea on a soft stanniferous granite rock. Prospecting has been carried on with a suction dredge. At Sungai Siput, Kuala Daping, in Perak, remarkable cemented detrital deposits have been found in "swallow-holes" in limestone.

The exploitation of "lode" tin ore propositions is claiming more and more attention from mining engineers. Although it cannot be said that the development of these ventures has yet attained great importance, there is good reason to be sanguine for the future.

The most interesting "lode" deposits, from a purely geological point of view, are those in the crystalline limestone of Kinta. Little is known of them as yet, but two "chimneys" of ore are being worked at Ayer Danggang and Chanting Part, while at Sisak a Stockwork in limestone has been prospected. At Lahat a remarkable pipe of ore, the nature of which is not clearly understood, has been worked for some years. With alluvial tin ore, wolframite, scheelite, corundum, and monazite are not uncommon. Quantities of wolframite have been exported, but no market has yet been found for the corundum or monazite.
HARBOURS

SINGAPORE HARBOUR.

IF "Egypt is the Nile and the Nile is Egypt," as Lord Rosebery declared in one of his famous speeches, it may with equal justice be said that "Singapore is the harbour and the harbour is Singapore," for it was the sheltered and commanding position of the island at the narrow gateway to the Far

acquisition of the island of Singapore by the British a local writer stated that "The absorbing sight here is the forest of masts which graces the harbour. Upwards of fifty square-rigged vessels may be seen lying in the harbour, forming the outer line of shipping. Inside these, in shallower water, may be counted from seventy to a hundred junks and prahaus from China, Sulu, Cochin-China, Borneo, and other places."

To-day Singapore is a vast distributing centre, and occupies the proud position of the seventh port of the world. Its harbour is computed to be capable of accommodating the combined navies of all the Powers.

The inner harbour extends from Mount Palmer (or Malay Point), a fortified headland, to Tanjong Katong. The coast-line here is crescent-shaped, and a line drawn from one horn of the crescent to the other would enclose about 2,500 acres of water. Within this area is usually congregated as heterogenous a collection of shipping as can be found in any port of the world. Here are local coasting passenger steamers, which are internally fitted up on much the same lines as the latest ocean greyhounds; there are huge Chinese junks, unseemly but very picturesque when they have full sail set; in one port there are huge mail boats; in another Siamese sailing vessels; and, in addition, there are tramp steamers; oil vessels, with their funnels at the stern; cargo lighters of all shapes and sizes; flotillas of Chinese sampans, with eyes painted on their bows, and smart launches steaming here and there. Outside, in the deeper water, four or five miles from shore, is the man-of-war anchorage, lying in which two or three gunboats or cruisers are to be seen.

The entrance to the harbour is made through the Singapore Strait, which is bounded on the north by the Malay Peninsula and Singapore Island, and on the south by the Batang Archipelago and Pulau Batam and Pulau Bintang, two large islands. The entire length of the strait is about 60 miles. Its breadth at the western entrance is about 10 miles, and at the eastern entrance about 20 miles; but south of Singapore, between St. John's Island and Batu Berani, it is only 2½ miles wide. Ten miles from the narrow entrance to the harbour vessels pass between the mainland and a succession of small islands, which gradually converge till they seem to bar further progress. The approach to Singapore is along a channel so narrow that it will only just admit the safe meeting of two large vessels. The passage widens at Cyrene Shoal Light, and the shore of Singapore from the entrance to Keppel Harbour becomes an innumerable line of wharves, where nearly all the big ocean-going liners load and unload and take in coal. Tramps and smaller vessels anchor in the roads and work their cargoes in lighters.

The navigation of the Singapore Straits, which was formerly attended with much difficulty and anxiety, has been greatly facilitated by the erection of the Raffles, Horsburgh, Sultan Shoal, and other lightouses. Even now the large numbers of surrounding islands, the sunken reefs, and the variations of the tides necessitate very careful navigation, which is
only undertaken by experienced pilots. The pilotage extends from Sultan Shoal light in the west to an imaginary line drawn from the obelisk at Tanjong Katong to Peak Island in the east.

The Government has recently acquired, for three and a half million sterling, the property of the Tanjong Pagar Dock Board, a private company which for many years controlled the whole of the wharfing accommodation. It has also approved of an important improvement scheme, which includes the reconstruction and extension of the existing wharves, the improvement of docking accommodation, and the construction of three sea-moles, each a mile in length, for harbour protection, as well as river improvements, involving a total expenditure of £4,000,000. There was considerable opposition, both to the Tanjong Pagar expropriation and to the scheme for improving the harbour, on the grounds that the price of the Dock Board's property was exorbitant and that the further protection of the anchorage was unnecessary, inasmuch as there are only a few days in the year (during the prevalence of the NE. monsoon) when vessels cannot load and unload in the roads in perfect safety. Nevertheless the two projects were officially decided upon, and to carry them out a loan of £7,800,000 was raised by the colony in the early part of 1907. The harbour improvement scheme, which was prepared by Sir John Coode, Son, & Matthews, of London, has been entrusted to the eminent British firm of Sir John Jackson, Ltd., for execution, but only part of it is being proceeded with at present. This part is known as the Teluk Ayer Reclamation, and consists of the construction of a mole a mile long at Teluk Ayer, which will enclose an area of 270 acres, and the provision of a new wharf of about the same length as the mole. Inside this area there will be 18 feet of water at low tide, but it will be possible to increase the depth to 24 feet should this be deemed desirable in future. When all these works shall have been completed Singapore will be one of the best-
equipped ports in the world, well able to cope with its vast shipping trade, which still goes on increasing from year to year.

TANJONG PAGAR DOCKS.

Established just over forty years ago with a capital of only 125,000 dollars, the Tanjong Pagar Dock Company's undertaking has grown to such gigantic proportions that when it was expropriated by the Government in 1903 the amount awarded by the Arbitration Court, over for a length of 2,250 feet. As the business of the company expanded the goods and coal-shed space was increased.

The graving dock was formally opened on October 17, 1868, by H.E. Sir Harry St. George Ord, R.E., Governor of the Straits Settlements, who christened it the Victoria Dock. Built of granite and closed by a teak caisson, this dock is 420 feet in length, with a width at its entrance of 66 feet, and was at that time considered one of the finest in the East. At ordinary tides the depth of water on the sill was 20 feet. The pumping machinery, consisting of two pairs of chain pumps, was the company, whose policy ever since has had to be one of continuous progression and development in order to keep abreast of the multiplying trade. The number of vessels visiting the company's wharves rose from 99 steamers of 60,654 tons and 65 sailing vessels of 30,732 tons in the half-year ending August, 1869, to 185 steamers of 164,756 tons and 63 sailing vessels of 40,534 tons in the corresponding period of 1872.

As profits increased the wharves were still further extended, additions were made to the machine shop and blacksmiths' shop, new godowns were built, and permanent coal-sheds which Sir Michael Hicks-Beach (now Lord St. Aldwyn) presided, was no less than 28,000,000 dollars, or nearly £3,500,000 sterling.

A considerable extent of sea-frontage at Tanjong Pagar was purchased by the old Dock Company soon after its incorporation as a limited liability company in 1863, and the work of construction was soon commenced. By August, 1866, a wharf 750 feet in length had been completed, affording accommodation for four ships of ordinary size and containing four coal-sheds capable of holding upwards of 10,000 tons; a storehouse, 200 feet by 50 feet, had been opened; an iron godown of similar dimensions was in course of construction; the embankments had been strengthened and extended, and a sea-wall had been completed capable of emptying the dock in six hours. Curiously enough, the dock did not prove remunerative for several years, complaint being made by the company of scarcity of shipping and "unreasonable competition." Indeed, in those days, even after the opening of the Suez Canal, it was feared that the employment of steamers in place of sailing vessels—the substitution of iron for wood—would deleteriously affect docking all over the East. Such fears, however, proved groundless. A satisfactory arrangement was come to with the rival company, styled the Patent Slip and Dock Company (which had two docks at Keppel Harbour), and the divergence of trade to the Straits of Malacca following upon the opening of the Suez Canal brought ever-increasing traffic in the way of were projected in place of the existing ones. This growing prosperity of the company led to the opening of a second dock—named the Albert Dock—on May 1, 1879. Constructed of concrete with a coping of solid granite, this dock cost £26,000 and took two and a half years to build. It is 475 feet long, 75 feet wide at the entrance, and has a depth of 21 feet at average spring tides.

In sketching the history of Tanjong Pagar, reference cannot be omitted to the great fire of 1877. It broke out on the afternoon of April 13th in one of the carpenters' houses, and so fiercely did it burn that in a quarter of an hour it had destroyed all the workmen's dwellings, covering an area of at least two acres, and had spread to the police-station and
THE TANJONG PAGAR DOCKS.

THE TANJONG PAGAR DOCKS.
other buildings round the reading-rooms. Finally it reached the coal-sheds. The buildings were highly inflammable, being constructed of wood and roofed with attap (dried palm leaves). For a whole fortnight the coal-sheds burned continuously, and out of a stock of 48,000 tons only some 5,000 or 6,000 tons were saved. The company’s losses were estimated at $3,000,000. In place of the attap coal-sheds that had been destroyed, brick buildings were erected, bringing the coal storage accommodation up to 60,000 tons. The natives employed in the docks, to the number of some 3,000, were provided in those days with a village of their own; substantial houses were erected for the company’s officers; an iron and brass foundry, a saw-mill, and a steam hammer were added to the property, and improved fire-extinguishing apparatus was provided. Quite recently a specially designed and well equipped steel twin-screw fire-boat has been constructed by the Board. It is fitted with a Merryweather pump, with complete fire and salvage connections, capable of discharging 1,500 gallons of water a minute.

It is of interest to note here that during 1878 there were 311 steamers and 91 sailing vessels at the wharf, their respective tonnage being 63,058 and 72,625 tons. The cargoes landed at the wharf during the same year were: Coals, 83,477 tons; general cargo, 21,000 tons; New Harbour Dock Company (late the Patent Slip and Dock Company) in 1881, the acquisition of the Borneo Company’s New Harbour property for the sum of over $1,000,000, dollars, on July 1, 1885, and the connecting-up of the various wharves, giving the company a continuous deep-sea frontage of a mile and a quarter, the property and plant at Tanjong Pagar practically assumed their present shape, though, of course, numerous extensions and improvements have been made since to meet the growing requirements of the port. A railway from one end of the wharves to the other has recently been completed to facilitate the handling of cargo, and new works of considerable magnitude are now under way, including the reconstruction of the machine-ships and other buildings in the dockyard. The New Harbour Docks are situated about three miles west of Tanjong Pagar and comprise two graving docks of 444 and 375 feet in length respectively, with sheds, workshops, &c. These were purchased outright by the Tanjong Pagar Dock Company in 1880, and were included in the sale to the Government in 1905, as also was the company’s interest in the Singapore Engineering and Slipway Company, Ltd., who are the owners of three slipways, machine shops, &c., at Tanjong Rhu. The respective lengths of the slipway cradles are 155 feet, 116 feet, and 85 feet. The Tanjong Company’s property was unexpectedly expropriated some two years ago by the Government. Various causes led up to this acquisition, and important results are bound to follow. In the first place, the Government had in hand a big scheme for the improvement of the harbour; and, secondly, the Dock Company itself was proposing to spend some $2,000,000 or $15,000,000 dollars on the improvement of docking facilities and the rebuilding and extension of wharves. Moreover, the belief prevails that Imperial considerations had a great deal to do with the transaction, the object of the Home Government being, apparently, to establish Singapore as a great naval base for the Eastern fleets, for which purpose it cannot be surpassed as regards geographical and strategical situation.

It was on December 28, 1904, that the directors of the company were notified by the Secretary of State for the Colonies that it was intended to take over their property on terms to be mutually arranged, or, failing that, by arbitration. The share capital of the company consisted of 37,000 shares of 100 dollars each, which from 1902 had never fallen below a market rate of 300 dollars until December, 1904, when, no doubt on account of the big extension scheme proposed, they dropped to 250 dollars. After the announcement of the Government’s intentions, however, the shares

**TANJONG PAGAR ARBITRATION GROUP.**

**LORD ST. ALBUT (SIR MICHAEL HICKS-BEACH), PRESIDENT, IN THE CENTRE.**

(See p. 226)

and opium 5,579 chests; making a total of 173,147 tons. Treasure was landed to the value of $102,000 dollars. The general cargo shipped during the twelve months was 64,173 tons, in addition to 1,881 chests, 106,927 tons of coal taken by steamers, and treasure of the value of 1,083,277 dollars.

By the establishment of a joint purse with the Pagar Dock Board are also the proprietors of the graving dock at Pyce river in Province Wellesley, opposite the town of Pinang. This dock is 290 feet long, and 50 feet broad at the entrance. There is a slipway for vessels 100 feet long.

As stated at the commencement of this article, the whole of the Tanjong Pagar Dock rose consistently in the market until they reached 500 dollars, at which figure they remained, with slight fluctuations, until the final settlement.

In the Legislative Council, when an official pronouncement was made on the subject on January 20, 1905, the Governor, Sir John Anderson, K.C.M.G., stated that one of the
first papers put before him for his consideration upon arriving in the colony in the early part of the preceding year was a request received by the Government of the Federated Malay States from the Tanjung Pagar Dock Company for the loan of $8,000,000 dollars at 3 per cent. for the purposes of the proposed improvement scheme. His Excellency found, was necessary. He purposely said policy, not management, because the Government would have nothing whatever to do with the management of the company, either then or in the future.

To consider the proposals made by the Governor, a meeting was held between the Colonial Office and the London committee, of shareholders to protest against the ex-

upon investigation, that the Tanjung Pagar Company owned practically all the foreshore of the colony suitable for wharfage for large ocean-going steamers, while more than two-thirds of the capital was held in London; and on reviewing the situation, he came to the conclusion that if any question were to arise between the community and the shipping interests of the colony, on the one hand, and the company, on the other, London would have to be convinced before Singapore could effect its purpose. This did not seem to him right. Therefore he proposed to the Secretary of State for the Colonies that the Government of the Straits Settlements and of the Federated Malay States should take up 18,000 fresh shares in the company at $200 per share, and that the two Governments should either guarantee or lend to the company further sums required for the extension of works (amounting, as he then estimated, to some $8,000,000 dollars), with the following proviso: that the Governor should have the right (a) to veto the appointment of directors and the members of the London committee; and (b) to nominate two members to the board at Singapore and one member to the committee in London; and (c) to veto any proposed increase in the charges on shipping and in the warehousing and handling of goods; and (d) to veto the distribution of any dividends. He found that the number of shares held in Singapore was about 10,000, which with the 18,000 he desired the two Governments to acquire would secure to Singapore the balance of the voting power. When these proposals were put forward by his Excellency, the Secretary of State for the Colonies was doubtful whether they were adequate to give the Government and the local community that control over the policy of the company which

PINANG HARBOUR.

Proposals of Directors and dividend and arrived per the 1906, for the purposes of the proposed improvement scheme. His Excellency found, was necessary. He purposely said policy, not management, because the Government would have nothing whatever to do with the management of the company, either then or in the future.

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up to a figure representing a dividend of 42 per cent. per share were made against Government's refusal to pay the 15 per cent. compensation usual in the case of compulsory acquisition of property.

Efforts were made by conferences between representatives of the Government and of the company to arrive at an arrangement that would be satisfactory to both parties, but so wide was the divergence of opinion on the two sides that arbitration had to be resorted to in the end. A Court of Arbitration was appointed, consisting of Sir Edward Boyle, K.C., and Mr. James C. Inglis, of railroad fame, as Arbitrators for the company and the Government respectively, with Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, M.P. (now Lord Edwyan), as Umpire. The Court began its sittings in Singapore on October 16th and rose on October 21st, 1905.

The company's claim amounted to $76,510,676 dollars and included $33,529,972 dollars for the general undertaking at twenty-two years' purchase, based on the average profit for five years, 1900, 1901, 1902, 1903, and 1904, and $43,070,704 dollars as prospective appreciation. The Government's offer was for $11,244,096, being eighteen years' purchase calculated on adjusted profits, plus an allowance for surplus property, until July 4th of the following year, 1906, that the award was declared by the Arbitration Court, the members of which had departed for England immediately after the conclusion of the evidence and completed their deliberations in London. Their award amounted to $77,929,177 dollars, together with allowances for reinvestment, &c., representing nearly 760 dollars per share to the shareholders.

During the last half-year in which the undertaking was administered by the company, viz. the six months ended June, 1905, the net profit which would, under ordinary circumstances, have been available for distribution, leaving the $26,045 dollar dividend paid from the preceding account, was $89,675 dollars. From this the directors recommended a dividend of $18,500 dollars per share for six months, during which the docks were administered by the new Board the gross earnings, excluding work done on the Board's own account, amounted to $2,153,500 dollars; in the first half of 1906, to $2,517,000 dollars, and in the second half of 1906 to $2,308,000 dollars—making a total for the eighteen months of over $7,160,000 dollars. These figures include Dry Dock. After deducting expenditure, the actual profits in each of the three periods specified were respectively $655,000 dollars 702,000 dollars 817,000 dollars. From this total, three sums of $222,000 dollars had to be paid to the old company as interest—a charge which will not now be made. In a steady period of growth in the earnings, despite the fact that there was a considerable decrease in dock rates. In 1905, the gross figures for the three periods being respectively 1,118,146 tons for 165 vessels, 1,095,320 for 155 vessels, and 838,280 for 144 vessels.

In the meantime, the Harbour Improvement Scheme has been entered upon. The first part undertaken is that known as the Teluk Ayer Reclamation, which will embrace an area of some 700 acres and add largely to the shipping accommodation of the port.
The erection of a breakwater and the improvement of the Singapore river also form part of the scheme which the Government have in hand, and on which they propose to spend £2,002,600.

At Tanjong Pagar the works now being undertaken by the Dock Board are:

(a) The construction of a wet dock with a depth of water at L.W.O.S.T. of 30 feet. The entrance to this dock will be 150 feet wide, and the length of the wharves 1,840 feet.

(b) The rebuilding of the main wharves in concrete block work, having a minimum depth of water alongside at L.W.O.S.T. of 33 feet.

(c) The construction of a graving dock at Keppel Harbour, 860 feet long by 100 feet wide at the entrance, with 35 feet of water on the sill at H.W.O.S.T.

(d) The removal and concentration of the workshops at Keppel Harbour, involving the entire reconstruction of the buildings, which will be provided with the most modern machine tools electrically driven from a large power-station now being constructed at Keppel Harbour to supply electrical energy to the whole of the Board's undertaking.

When all these contemplated improvements and extensions have been carried out, Singapore will be capable of adequately filling the position which she is called upon to hold as a rallying point and strategic base for his Britannic Majesty's fleets in Eastern and Australian waters, and as one of the greatest commercial ports of the world.

Of 18 feet 6 inches at low water during the prevalence of spring tides. There is a staff of five competent pilots at the port. They have their own launches and meet all vessels using either channel. Within the anchorage, the depth and fall of the tide is 7 feet in neap tides and 6 feet in spring tides.

With the exception of the boats of the Messageries Maritimes, all the mail-boats to and from the Far East call at Pinang, and they usually stay six or eight hours. In addition to the vessels drawing 27 feet of water. The channel is only used by small local steamers. It is studded with small islands, and has a depth of 18 feet 6 inches at low water during the prevalence of spring tides. There is a staff of five competent pilots at the port. They have their own launches and meet all vessels using either channel. Within the anchorage, the depth and fall of the tide is 7 feet in neap tides and 6 feet in spring tides.
from the fact that they blow across from Sumatra.

A powerful dredger, capable of removing 350 tons of excavated material an hour, is maintained for the improvement and deepening of the harbour. During 1907 the harbour and its approaches underwent a strict hydrographical survey, and the new chart which is to be prepared will show a greater depth of water in many places than is indicated on the present chart.

Until a few years ago there was no wharfage accommodation for large vessels, but in 1903 Swettenham Pier was built, with external berthing of 600 feet, at a cost of 600,000 dollars. One large liner, or two ordinary steamers, can berth alongside the front of the pier, which also provides berthing for a small steamer at the inner face of the southern portion. The depth of water off the front of the pier is 30 feet at low water spring tide, and is sufficient to enable the largest battleship in the British Navy to anchor alongside. Plans have already been approved for the extension of the northern arm of the pier by 345 feet, and of the southern end by 225 feet, while an extensive scheme of reclamation is now being carried out south of Victoria Pier. An important subsidiary port is being formed at the mouth of the Perai river opposite Georgetown. Extensive wharves are in course of construction there, and already a dry dock, foundries, and workshops have been built for the execution of repairs to shipping.

Situated as it is off the centre of the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, which is being rapidly opened up and developed, Pinang has great possibilities as a shipping centre in the near future.

MALACCA HARBOUR.

Malacca has neither a natural nor an artificial harbour which can be properly so designated. The town is built at the mouth of the Malacca river, and, although within recent years considerable improvements have been carried out, the channel has been deepened, all vessels, except native craft, have to anchor outside, some distance from the town. Two permanent rubble groynes have been built up to high-water above spring tide mark, one on the north and the other on the south side of the channel at the river mouth. The north groyne is 1,860 feet in length, and the south groyne at the time of writing is 1,455 feet. Dredging has been carried on since 1899, and up to the present time 62,324 tons have been removed. By this means an area of 26,439 square feet of land has been reclaimed on the south and is retained by the groynes. The work of reclamation on the north side is approaching completion. As a result of this river improvement, Chinese junks and large cargo-lighters can now enter the river, and the latter are able to land their contents quite close to the railway. These extended facilities have caused a considerable increase in the shipping of the port. In 1905, 1,330 steam vessels of an aggregate tonnage of 320,121 tons, and 1,241 native craft, representing 45,532 tons, cleared at the port. A weekly service of steamers to Pinang, Singapore, and the Federated Malay States ports calls at Malacca.

FEDERATED MALAY STATES HARBOURS.

The harbours of the Federated Malay States are five in number. They are Port Weld and Teluk Anson in Perak, Port Swettenham in Selangor, Port Dickson in Negri Sambilan, and Kuantan in Pahang.

The boom in the trade of the Federated Malay States during the past few years and the prospect of remarkable development in the near future has given rise to considerable speculation as to which will be the principal port of the States. There seems now to be a general consensus of opinion that Port Swettenham is destined to fill that position. It is situated at the mouth of the Klang river, which is sheltered by two islands, Pulo Klang and Pulo Lumut. By the northern entrance—between Pulo Klang and the mainland—Port Swettenham is six miles from the open sea, High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States at the time. There are three substantial wharves and a passenger jetty resting on steel piles, alongside of which there is a depth of water sufficient to berth vessels drawing 16 feet. Within the last two years, large ocean-going steamer, which is now 7 fathoms of water. The port is large enough to accommodate at one time...
eight or nine ocean steamers, besides local shipping. The railway runs on to the wharves, so that cargo may be quickly despatched to Kuala Lumpur, the Federal capital, 28 miles away, or to any town on the railway system. In this way large quantities of rubber and mining machinery are distributed over the States. A good service of passenger trains runs from the station adjoining the jetty. Already quite an important township, with a population of over 1,000, has sprung up where ten years ago was nothing but an uninhabitable swamp. There is now some talk of extending the railway line to the end of the point at the entrance to the north channel in order to concentrate trade.

Formerly the chief port of Perak was Port Weld, so-named after Sir Frederick Weld, a former Governor of the Straits Settlements and High Commissioner of the Federated Malay States. It is situated at the mouth of the Sapang Perak river, and is only ten miles distant from Taiping, with which it is connected by rail. Since the completion of the railway to Prye the shipping of Port Weld has decreased, and the goods which formerly entered the port are now carried by rail from the northern terminus.

Tehuk Anson is now the only port of any importance in Perak. It is situated on the left bank of the Perak river, about thirty miles from the mouth. The river is easily navigable up to Tehuk Anson for vessels drawing 15 or 16 feet of water. This port has made wonderful progress, its shipping having been quadrupled within ten years. It has regular daily connection with Pinang and Singapore by vessels which provide excellent accommodation both for passengers and cargo.

Port Dickson in Negri Sambilan offers good anchorage and has regular steamer connection with Pinang and Singapore.

There is no harbour worthy of the name on the east coast of the peninsula, unless it be at the mouth of the river Kuantan, in Pahang, where there is a deep-water front stretching for miles up the river. No vessel drawing over 10 feet of water can enter the river, and even smaller vessels must so time their arrival and departure as to take advantage of the high-tide, owing to the presence of a sand-bar at the river's mouth. Dredging operations are now in progress, however, to remove the bar, and later on, if the development of trade should necessitate it, as seems not unlikely, a groyne may be run out from Tanjong Gelang to prevent further silting. A new road which is being constructed from Kuantan to Raub will join the existing road at Benta and give through communication from one side of the Malay Peninsula to the other. Incidentally, it will serve to open up a great extent of country reputed to be rich in tin. A railway line has also been projected from Seremban to this district, which promises in the near future to become of considerable importance.
THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

SINGAPORE.

In a rich mantle of green that never loses its freshness, the island of Singapore may justly be termed the Emerald of the British Empire in the East. Lying at the foot of the Malay Peninsula, from which it is separated by the Straits of Johore—a narrow channel varying from three-quarters of a mile to two miles in width—it is the chief of the Straits Settlements and the seat of government. It has an area of 206 square miles, and is oblong in shape, its extreme measurement from east to west being 28 miles and from north to south 14 miles.

The name Singapore is said to be derived from the words "singhum," a lion, and "pura," a city. In Malay history it is recorded that Sang Nila Utama, supposed by Mahomedan historians to have been a descendant of Alexander the Great, settled on the island with a colony of Malays from Palembang, in Sumatra, and founded the city of Singapura in A.D. 1101, changing the original name Tamassak to the present-day title because he saw a singham, or animal resembling a lion, near the mouth of the river.

The settlement passed into the hands of the British under a treaty with the Maharaja of Johore in 1819. It remained under the control of the East India Company, by whom it was administered as an integral part of India until 1867, when in conjunction with Penang and Malacca it was raised to the dignity of a Crown colony.

The island cannot boast of many hills. Generally speaking its formation is level, and the few geographical eminences that are to be seen are not distinguished by their altitude. Bukit Timah, the highest, is only some 500 feet above sea-level. The general constituent of the island is limestone, heavily impregnated with ironstone, locally known as laterite, which is extensively quarried for road-making purposes. In the valleys a peaty substratum is found, varying from 6 inches to 2 feet in depth, generally lying on a bed of clay. The plain upon which the town of Singapore stands is composed chiefly of deep beds of white, bluish, or reddish sand, averaging from 90 to 95 per cent. of silica. The rest is aluminous. Shells and seaweed found in this soil show that at one time it was covered by the sea.

On the sea-line of the island there are extensive plantations of coconut-trees, and on the uplands of the interior large areas are covered with pineapples. The cutting down of the jungle to make way for the pineapple plantations has tended to reduce the rainfall—to such an extent, indeed, that representations have been made to the Government on the subject.

For all this, however, Singapore has a very humid and equable climate. The rainfall is evenly distributed throughout the year and averages 92667 inches. To this the island monsoon. The north-east monsoon blows from November till March, after which the wind veers round to the south-west, and remains in that quarter until September.

Commanding the narrow channel which unites the Straits of Malacca and the China Sea, Singapore, with its belt of countless little islands, possesses a magnificent natural harbour, said to be capable of accommodating the combined navies of the world. Until recent years, the harbour was hardly ever without the presence of some of his Britannic Majesty's warships, but in this respect there has been a great change since the recall of the British battleships from Far Eastern waters at the close of the Russo-Japanese war. Nowadays it is only occasionally that Singapore is visited by a warship of the squadron; doubtless in future years, when the port has attained to the full dignity of a naval base, under Admiral Fisher's scheme of Imperial defence, there will be a reappearance of British Leviathans in these waters. In the meantime, the
only naval congregation is on the occasion of
the annual meeting of the Admirals who com-
mmand the British squadrons in the Australian,
Pacific, and China seas. It is not very long
ago, by the way, that the absence of British
war vessels in Far Eastern ports and rivers,
where hitherto the white ensign was wont to
be an accustomed spectacle, was adversely criti-
cised in Imperial Parliament, and these criti-
cisms were cordially echoed in Singapore,
where Britshers recognise fully the importance
of maintaining national prestige, even at the
expense of a little ostentatious display.
The approaches to the harbour are laid with
volunteer corps, the oldest established section
being the artillery, to which is attached a
Maxim Company. Of more recent formation
is the volunteer infantry, one portion of which
consists of local Chinese and the other of
Eurasians. There are also a volunteer company
of engineers (Europeans) and a cadet corps
drawn from the schools.
It may be added that the first section of
the great harbour improvement scheme has been
commenced by the Government, who have also
had under consideration a plan for deepening
and improving Singapore river. When the
present works are completed the wharves will
harbour by the narrow channel from the west.
There are altogether four docks, with extensive
coal-sheds, stores, workshops, and a lengthy
wharf protected by a breakwater. About these
swarm men of different colours—white and
yellow, brown and black—to ants upon an
ant-hill. On the opposite side of the waterway
stand the Pulo Braii tin-smelting works, the
largest of their kind in the world.
With its busy life and shipping the harbour
presents an animated picture that fascinates the
beholder. There is a constant traffic amongst
the numerous small craft—sampans (rowing-
boats), tonkangs (lighters), launches, fishing-

mines and are commanded by heavily-armed
forts on the outlying islands of Blakang Mati
and Pulo Braii, manned by British Garrison
Artillery corps, the Hongkong-Singapore
Battalion Royal Artillery, fortress engineers,
and submarine miners. There is always a
British infantry regiment, too, stationed at
Singapore—just now it is the Queen's Own
(Royal West Kent)—besides an Indian regi-
ment (62nd Russell's Infantry), and sections of
other military corps, including the Royal
Artillery, Royal Engineers, Army Service
Corps, Royal Army Medical Corps, Army
Ordnance Corps, and Army Pay Department.
In addition to the regular troops, there is a
extend from Johnston's Pier, beside the Post
Office, in a southerly direction for a mile, and
an inner breakwater will be constructed, by
which about 50 acres will be added to the
available anchorage of the port. At present,
many of the local steamers using the harbour
work their cargoes as they lie out in the roads,
but the big liners nearly all go alongside the
wharves of Tanjong Pagar Docks. These docks
constitute the largest industrial enterprise in the
colony, and were recently purchased by the
Government at a cost approaching three and
a half millions sterling.
An excellent view of the docks and their
shipping may be obtained when entering the
boats, junks, and dug-outs—which flit to and
from between the shore and the fleet of sea-going
vessels lying in the roads. The most con-
gested part of the harbour is at the mouth of the
river, which is often so crowded with cargo-
boats carrying goods to the godowns that
collisions seem unavoidable. The boatmen,
however, are experts in the use of the yulo and
scull, which, with punting poles, are the form
of propulsion generally employed.
The town of Singapore stretches in crescent
shape for four miles or so along the south-
eastern shore of the island, and extends inland
for more than a mile. Even beyond this are
to be found the residential quarters of the well-

WESTERN ENTRANCE TO THE HARBOUR.

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VIEW FROM THE ROOF GARDEN OF THE GRAND HOTEL DE L’EUROPE, SHOWING THE RECREATION GROUNDS, HARBOUR, MEMORIAL HALL, AND ST. ANDREW’S CATHEDRAL.
to-do European and Chinese. From the harbour the town presents a very picturesque appearance, with its long sweep of imposing waterfront buildings, dominated by the lighthouse on Fort Canning's wooded slopes, the clocktower of the Victoria Memorial Hall, and the spire of St. Andrew's Cathedral rising out of a mass of foliage.

Disembarking at the Borneo Wharf, and approaching the town by way of Koppell Road and Anson Road, along which route the electric tramway runs, the visitor passes through open country for about a mile, and then through native bazaars until he reaches Cecil Street, where the Important European houses of business begin to make their appearance. Proceeding thence along Collyer Quay, which is flanked by the spacious godowns of shipping firms, he comes to Johnston's Pier, and, turning sharply to the left, enters Battery Road, which, with Raffles Place, constitutes the chief commercial centre of the town. Clustered within this small compass are the banks and principal European offices and shops. Retracing his steps to the waterside, the visitor notices the substantial block of buildings occupied by the Singapore Club and Chamber of Commerce, the Post Office, and the Harbour Department. Opposite these are the handsome premises of the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank, while in the centre of the roadway is the fountain erected by the Municipal Commissioners to commemorate the late Mr. Tan Kim Seng's munificent donation towards the cost of the Singapore waterworks. Across the Cavenagh Suspension Bridge, which spans the Singapore river, are the Departmental offices of the Straits Settlements Government, the Town Hall, the Victoria Memorial Hall, in front of which stands the bronze statue of an elephant, presented by the King of Siam on the occasion of his visit to the town about ten years ago, and a granite obelisk perpetuating the memory of the Earl of Dalhousie, who, as Governor-General of India, at one time directed the destinies of Singapore. At the rear of these are the Supreme Court, a massive building of the Doric order, and the Government Printing Offices. Just beyond lies the Esplanade, a green plain of about 15 acres in extent, around which runs a broad and well-kept carriage drive shaded by a noble avenue of leafy trees. This is the favourite place of resort for all classes in the early evening, when the heat from the rays of the fast declining sun is tempered by soft zephyrs from the sea. At such a time the Esplanade—for which the town is indebted to Colonel Farquhar—is crowded with smart equipages. The enclosure is used by the Singapore Cricket Club and the Singapore Recreation Club, both of which can boast large and well-appointed pavilions of recent construction. In the centre of the plain, facing the sea, there is a large bronze figure of Sir Stamford Raffles, "the father of Singapore." On the landward side are side Adis Buildings, with the Hotel de l'Europe—a noble pile harmonising with the adjacent public buildings—the Municipal Offices, and St. Andrew's Cathedral, a venerable-looking Gothic edifice crowned with a graceful spire. Within the Cathedral compound, which is tastefully laid out, is a monument to the architect, Colonel Ronald Macpherson, R.A. Further along are Raffles Girls' School and Raffles Hotel—one of the most noted hostleries in the East. Thence onward the road—at this point known as Beach Road—is flanked by native shops until it reaches the Rochore river, where it turns inland.

Parallel to this road which skirts the sea runs the busiest thoroughfare of the city. This is known on one bank of the river as South Bridge Road and on the other as North Bridge Road. Its whole length is traversed by a tramway line. From it radiate streets where native life may be seen in all its varied forms. In this neighbourhood are situated the police headquarters and the police courts, two of the principal Mahomedan mosques, and the Chinese and Malay theatres, which are an unfailing source of amusement to the visitor.

At the rear of South Bridge Road and North Bridge Road runs another main artery of traffic, called at different points of its course New Bridge Road, Hill Street, and Victoria Street. From New Bridge Street entrance is obtained to the grounds of the General Hospital, a Government institution, near which are also located the Lunatic Asylum and the Isolation Hospital.

At right angles to all these thoroughfares four main roads strike inland. The first skirts the south bank of the Singapore river for a mile and thence curves round in the direction of Bukit Chermyn and Pasir Panjang. The second, River Valley Road, runs along the north shore of the river to Mount Echo and Tanglin, and recalls the quiet beauty of a Devonshire lane. The third is named Stamford Road from the Esplanade to Fort Canning.
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

and thence onwards Orchard Road. In Stamford Road stands Raffles Library and Museum, containing thirty thousand volumes and an interesting collection of birds, beasts, fishes, and reptiles, specimens of native handicrafts, weapons, &c. Just beyond this point Orchard Road is joined by another road from the water-front. This is Bras-Basah Road, in which are to be found the Convent of the Holy Infant Jesus, the Roman Catholic Cathedral of the Good Shepherd, a cruciform building surmounted by a spire 161 feet in height, and St. Joseph's Institution. Close at hand are the Roman Catholic Churches of St. Joseph and of St. Peter and St. Paul. The fourth main road inland is Bukit Timah Road, which is 14 miles long and crosses the island to Kranji, whence the passage to the State of Johore on the mainland is made by boat or steam ferry.

Three other roads traverse the island—Thompson Road, branching off the Bukit Timah Road about two miles from town and reaching the Johore Strait at Sellia; Gaylang Road, which crosses the eastern part of the island to Changi and is the main road to Tanjong Katong; and Serangoon Road, which ends some seven miles out on the bank of the Serangoon river. Coast roads to the west and east, in continuation of some of those already indicated, are in course of construction.

In the town proper the principal streets are broad, well maintained, and well lighted, but there is a system of open drains that does not make for sweetness. The suburbs are very pretty with their well-kept, tree-lined roads, along which are dotted fine bungalows surrounded by verdant lawns and almost hidden from view by luxuriant foliage. Amongst the many handsome mansions gracing the Tanglin neighbourhood is Government House, situated in extensive parks like grounds and occupying a commanding site. It is built in the Renaissance style of architecture, with a square tower rising from the central building.

Probably at no other place in the world are so many different nationalities represented as at Singapore, where one hears a babel of tongues, although Malay is the tongue franca; and rubs shoulders with “all sorts and conditions of men” — with opulent Chinese Towkays in grey fez hat, nankeen jacket, and capacious trousers; Straits-born Babas as proud as Lucifer; easy-going Malays in picturesque sarong and bajus; stately Sikhs from the garrison; lanky Bengalis; ubiquitous Jews in old-time gabardine; exorbitant Chetties with closely-shaven heads and muslin-wrapped limbs; Arabs in long coat and fez; Tamil street labourers in turban and loin-cloth of lurid hue; Kling hawkers scantily clad; Chinese coolies and itinerant vendors of food; Javanese, Achinese, Sindhalacs, and a host of others—in fact, the kaleidoscopic procession is one of almost endless variety.

The Chinese, however, constitute about two-thirds of the population of a quarter of a million. Though not confined to any one district, the more lowly sons of the Celestial Empire are to be found most thickly congregated in the district known as China Town. This is situated on the inland side of South Bridge Road in the Smith Street district. Here are to be seen all phases of Chinese life and activity. The streets are lined with shops, in which are exposed for sale a heterogeneous array of commodities, and so great is the throng of loungers, pedestrians, street hawkers, and rickshas that it is with difficulty one makes one's way along. At night-time the traffic is even more dense than in the day, and the resultant din is intensified by weird instrumental music and by the shrill voices of singing-girls that issue from the numerous brilliantly-lighted hostries.

A curious combination of Orientalism and Occidentalism is to be observed all over the place. From the midst of tawdry-looking native shops rise modern European establishments of commanding appearance; hand-drawn rickshas and lumbering ox-waggons move side by side with electric trams, swift automobiles, and smart equipages; and the free and unfettered native goes on his way regardless of the conventionalities which are so strictly observed by the European. East and West meet, and the old is fast giving way to the new, but there is, nevertheless, a broad line of demarcation between them.

The social side of life in Singapore is ministered to by the Singapore Club, membership of which is limited to the principals of business houses; the Tentonlia Club, which, as its name implies, is a German institution, and possesses very fine premises; the Tanglin Club, a suburban club for professional men; the Catholic Club; and the Young Men's Christian Association. In addition to these there are numerous athletic clubs, such as the Cricket Club, the Recreation Club, the Swimming Club, the Ladies Tennis Club, and the Turf Club. The Turf Club counts amongst
its members all the best known men of the settlements. Races are held twice a year—in the spring and in the autumn—and on these occasions the whole of Singapore turns out to witness the sport. There are three days' racing, spread over a week, and the race-time is observed as a general holiday. The race-horses are all imported from Australia, from which country also come most of the trainers and jockeys. The club possess an excellent and well-kept course, leased from the Government.

In the matter of “show places” Singapore is somewhat deficient. Among the few that can be mentioned the Botanical Gardens are the best known. Tastefully laid out and possessing many fine specimens of the flora of this and other countries, they well repay a visit. When the moon is full, a band sometimes plays in the Gardens, which on such occasions are thronged with Europeans and Eurasians enjoying a stroll in the cool of the evening while listening to the music. But the Reservoir Grounds, lying off Thompson Road some four or five miles out of town, appeal more irresistibly to the Western eye, for their soft and reposeful beauty resembles that of some of the English lakes. Velvety lawns, studded with well-kept beds of foliage plants and shrubs, slope sharply upwards to the dam which has been constructed at one end of the reservoir. From this point of vantage, which forms part of a spacious promenade, a splendid view is obtained of a broad sheet of water that glistens in the sunshine like a polished glass, and stretches away into the hazy distance until a bend in its course hides it from sight. Its irregular banks are clothed to the water's edge with dense masses of beautiful foliage, through which run shady paths. One of the most delightful drives in the island is that to the Gap, which, as its name implies, is formed by a cleft in the hills. It is situated on the southwest coast of Singapore, about six miles from the town. Proceeding some distance beyond the Botanical Gardens, one comes to Buona Vista Road, which winds gradually upwards, through acres of undulating pineapple planta-
tions, until it reaches a break in a ridge of
hills, where a sharp turn to the left suddenly
brings the sea into full view. Countless little
islands lie scattered about the offing, and
picturesque Malay kohels and Chinese junks
glide over the shimmering surface of the in-
tervening strait. At sunset, when the outlying
islands are silhouetted against a glowing back-
ground of gold, and the shadows begin to
steal over the silent waters of the deep, the
scene is one of exquisite and impressive beauty.
From the Gap the narrow road traverses the
brows of the hills for some distance, and then
gradually descends to Pasir Pajang, where,
for a mile or two, occasional glimpses of the
sea are obtained between the groves of coconut
palms that fringe the shore. Another popular
place of resort is Tanjong Katong, which, with
its two hotels standing in the midst of a
coconut-grove and facing the sea, is an ideal
spot for a week-end rest.

Any description of Singapore such as has
been here essayed would be incomplete with-
out a reference to Johore, the capital of the
independent State of the same name. Although
situated in a foreign territory, Johore is only
one hour's journey away from Singapore by
rail and ferry, and is so much frequented by
Europeans from that settlement that it might
almost be likened to a suburb. The chief
attractions of Johore are its natural beauties,
the opportunities it offers for big-game shooting,
and its gambling shops, the last-mentioned of
which are a fruitful source of revenue to the
State.

THE MUNICIPALITY.

From a few years after the establishment
of Singapore as a British settlement in 1819,
municipal matters were administered by the
magistrates, whose decisions were subject to
the approval of the Governor. Later on a
Municipal Committee was constituted. In
1854 a strong protest was made to the Govern-
ment against the non-representative character
of this body, the members of which were all
ominated by the Governor. Two years after-
wards the principle of popular representation
was given effect to by the passing of an Act to
establish a municipality; and this concession
was extended under the first Municipal Ordin-
ance in 1887. From that time onwards there
has been no change in the constitution of the
municipal body—five of whose members, in-
cluding the President, are nominated by the
Governor, while five are elected by the rate-
payers.

The town, which has an estimated population
of 235,000 inhabitants, is divided into the
following five wards: Tanjong Pagar (No. 1),
Central (No. 2), Tanglin (No. 3), Rochore (No.
4), and Kallang (No. 5), each of which returns
one member. Every candidate must be a
British subject, over twenty-five years of age,
able to speak and write English, and resident
within the municipality, and he must either
have paid rates for the half-year in which the
election takes place to the amount of 20 dollars
or upwards as the owner of property within
the municipality or he must either have paid rates for the half-
year in which the election takes place to the
amount of 6 dollars or upwards in respect
of property of which he is the owner, situated
in the ward for which he votes, or be the
occupier of a house of the annual rateable
value of not less than 150 dollars, or be the
occupier of part of such a house and pay
a monthly rental of not less than 20 dollars.

One-third (or as near as may be) of the
Commissioner retire by rotation annually, and
the elections take place in December. On
the voters' list there are nearly five thou-
sand persons, but so little interest is taken
in the elections that a contest is a thing un-
known. In cases where an election fails
because the requisite number of people cannot
be induced to go to the poll, the vacancy is
filled by the Governor, who generally appoints
the gentleman who has been nominated, if
there has been a nomination. The reason
for the apathy of the voters seems to be that
any Budget proposals made by the Com-
misioners are subject to the Governor's veto
—an arrangement which has the effect of
converting the Commission into merely an
advisory and subsidiary administrative body.

Ordinary meetings are held fortnightly.
There are also meetings from time to time of
the Finance and General Purposes Committee,
Health and Disposal of Sewage Committee,
On loan works the expenditure was as follows,—New reservoir, 217,405.28; Kallang tunnel works, 50,607.56; new water mains, 55,407.05; salt water supply for street-watering, 94,051; bridge over Singapore river, 1,820.66; fire stations, 0.24; quarantine camp, 96,397; new markets and extensions, 1,706.17; Pearl's Hill reservoir, 26,748.07; Bidadari cemetery, 35,465.45; reforming town drains, 8,643.60; Stanford caulk, 14,712.20; electric power installations, 87,842.00; raising dam, 3,964.57; new cineraries, 25,564.08; Mahomedan cemetery, 45,822.35; Tanjong Katong roads, 25,884.21; and Cavenage Road, 15,800.10—in all, 627,715.12 dollars.

The work of the municipality is spread over seven departments, viz., the Engineer's, Gas, Fire Brigade, Hackney Carriage and Ricksha, Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and Suppression of Rabies Departments. The most important of these is the Engineer's Department, which regularly employs some three thousand workmen and has charge of roads and streets, piers, canals, and bridges; stores and workshops; buildings, public grounds, conservancy, water supply, and electricity. The estimate of expenditure in 1906 for the Engineer's Department out of revenue was 1,090,112 dollars, including loan works, of which those now in hand represent nearly 10,000,000 dollars.

The more important works now in progress or about to be begun include a new reservoir, to hold 1,000,000,000 gallons; new filter beds, five acres in extent, to filter the present supply; new filter beds, six acres in extent, to deal with future retirement; a water tank, to hold 3,000,000 gallons; seven miles of pipes, 30 inches in diameter; a new cemetery, of 45 acres; a new infectious diseases hospital, with an 100 acres; a new bridge over the mouth of Singapore river, 200 feet span, 75 feet wide; a new fire-station, to cost 70,000 dollars; a new market, on screw piles over the sea, 100,000 dollars; market extension in Orchard Road, 25,000 dollars; alteration to stores and workshops, 20,000 dollars; new incinerators for burning town refuse, 100,000 dollars; ferro-concrete bridge, 90 feet long, 35,000 dollars; salt-water installation for street watering and drain flushing, 150,000 dollars; and a new Mahomedan cemetery.

The staff of the Health Department consists of three medical officers and thirteen sanitary inspectors, with their complement of subordinates. The inspection of dairies and milkshops, abattoirs, and preserved fruit factories comes within the purview of this department, which is also responsible for the sanitation of the place.

Some idea of the growth and extent of the Health Office's activities may be gathered from the fact that during 1906 16,239 notices relating to the making of drains, closing of wells, cleaning of houses, repairing of floors, &c., were dealt with, as compared with 5,422 in 1897.

The vital statistics prepared by the Health Department show that the average birth-rate for the last ten years in Singapore was 18.53 per 1,000 of the inhabitants, the lowest being 15.07 in 1896 and the highest 22.36 in 1904. In 1906 the birth-rate was 20.38 per 1,000. The European birth-rate in the same year was 28.26. The average death-rate for the last ten years was 4.386 per 1,000, the lowest being 3.614 in 1898, and the highest 4.366 in 1895. In 1906 the general death-rate was 3.793, the European rate being 4.457. The chief causes of death were pellagra, beri-beri, and malarial fever. There was also a very large number of deaths from intestinal diseases. Small-pox, cholera, and enteric fever were the chief infectious diseases, the two first-named at times almost reaching epidemic proportions, while the case incidence of enteric fever, though constant has...
never attained a high figure. Bubonic plague made its appearance in 1906, and since then 73 cases have occurred, the largest number in any one year being 20 in 1904.

A well-equipped bacteriological laboratory is attached to the Municipal Health Office, and a lot of good work has been done by it, especially in the diagnosis of malarial and typhoid fevers. There are two slaughter-houses where all animals are examined before being killed, and all the meat is stamped before it leaves the abattoir. The only other supply of meat allowed to be sold is that of the Cold Storage Company. The meat supply is plentiful and free from disease, and, although possibly not so palatable as that procured in cold countries, is as nutritious. The milk compares well with that obtained in cold climates, but the filthy habits of the dairymen and milk-sellers do not make it a safe food. In 1906 there were 77 convictions for adulteration, the total number of samples analysed being 400.

There are 103 registered public and private burial grounds within the municipal limits. Of this number only one is used for the interment of Christians. It is situated in Bukit Timah Road, and is 19 acres in extent. Another site of 42 acres on the Bidadari estate in Serangoon Road was purchased in 1904 as a Christian cemetery, but this is not yet open.

The waterworks were originally established by Government with a small impounding reservoir near the fourth mile-stone on Thompson Road, whence water was conveyed to the pumping-station by a brick conduit and then raised by pumps of 3,000,000 gallons capacity a day (in duplicate) to the reservoir at Mount Emily. These pumps are now out of date, and are never used. In 1876 the waterworks were handed over to the municipality, and soon afterwards steps were taken to introduce iron pipes from the reservoir to the pumping-station, to construct filter-beds and a clear-water tank, build a new reservoir dam, increase the storage capacity, and install new pumps and boilers (in duplicate) capable of pumping 4,000,000 gallons in twenty-four hours. All these works were completed by Mr. MacRitchie by the year 1891. Between 1896 and 1901 additional filters were constructed by Mr. Tomlinson, and the capacity of the pumps was increased to about 4,500,000 gallons in twenty-four hours. A new service reservoir on Pearl's Hill was commenced in 1900 and finished in 1904, with a capacity of 6,000,000 gallons. In 1902 a scheme was proposed by Mr. K. Pearce, the present engineer, for the extension of the water supply to provide more than double the existing requirements at an expenditure of over 8,000,000 dollars. This scheme is now in progress, contracts to the amount of 1,500,000 dollars having been entered into for the construction of a new reservoir, pipe line, filter beds, and incidental work. The whole of the catchment area (about 5,000 acres) contributing to the proposed new reservoir at Kallang was pur-chased at a cost of about 600,000 dollars. In 1904 new pumps and boilers with a capacity of 5,000,000 gallons a day were erected.

During 1896 the consumption of water was about 33 million gallons per day, whereas at the present time it amounts to 64 million gallons a day; that is to say, it has nearly doubled in eleven years. The water supply is regarded as safe, but owing to the presence of a quantity of suspended matter, the colour of the water is not good. Numerous analyses are made to insure that the purity is maintained. The charges made for water by meter per 1,000 gallons are as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Charge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To shipping over wharves</td>
<td>$1.50*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For prime movers</td>
<td>$1.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To water boats</td>
<td>$1.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For manufacturing purposes</td>
<td>$0.80*</td>
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<tr>
<td>For trades—</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>To Dispensaries</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot; Dhobies</td>
<td>$0.50†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Barbers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Cattle sheds and stables</td>
<td>$0.30†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Livery stables</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Recreation grounds, &amp;c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Premises without gardens</td>
<td>$0.30†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; with</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot; and/for stables</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Private stables not attached to dwelling-houses</td>
<td>$0.40†</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Plus meter rent.
† No meter rent.

**GOVERNMENT HOUSE.**

**GENERAL HOSPITAL.**

**MOTOR MEET AT "TYERSALL," THE SINGAPORE RESIDENCE OF H.H. THE SULTAN OF JOHORE.**
The gasworks were purchased by the municipality from a private company in November, 1901, the price paid being $435,761.10, which was remitted to London at the bank rate of 15, 10½, per dollar. The money was raised by means of a 5 per cent. loan. The price of gas since 1906 has been 3.50 dollars per 1,000 cubic feet to consumers of less than 50,000 cubic feet; 3 dollars per 1,000 cubic feet to consumers of 50,000 feet and less than 100,000 feet; and 2.50 dollars per 1,000 cubic feet to consumers of 100,000 feet and upwards. In the first two cases 5 per cent. discount is allowed when the payments are made within a month. The works are situated in Kalang Road. They were originally erected in 1864, but since then they have been almost entirely remodelled. There are now three gas-holders—two with a capacity of 60,000 cubic feet and one with a capacity of 38,000 feet—and in a very short time there will be a fourth with a capacity of 250,000 cubic feet. The consumption of gas has increased very considerably since the municipality took over the concern, the number of private consumers having doubled, and being now 800. There are 2,000 lamps with incandescent burners for public lighting and 80 miles of mains.

The tramways are worked by a private company under the "leasing system." The Commissioners have the option of purchasing the undertaking at the expiration of thirty-five years at a valuation, to which will be added

situating in the centre of the town. The current is transmitted on the two-wire system at about 460 volts pressure. From the sub-station the supply becomes a three-wire one, with the centre wire earthed, the pressure between each of the two outer wires and the centre being 230 volts. The type of distributing cables in use is Callender's three core and three single vulcanised bitumen-covered cables, laid solid in earthenware gullies. The cost of energy to the Commissioners is 12½ cents per unit for lighting, with a discount of 25 per cent. for motive power. The charge to consumers is 25 cents per unit for lighting purposes, fans, &c., with a discount of 25 per cent. for current for power. In December, 1906, the equivalent number of eight-candle-power lamps connected with the mains was about 4,000, and the number of arc lamps for street lighting purposes nine, the latter being 100 per cent. open type. Since then the number of lamp connections has been increasing very rapidly.

There are five markets belonging to the municipality, and they are a fruitful source of revenue, the largest being farmed out at a rental of $6,500 dollars a month, and the others at proportionate rentals. They are situated at Teluk Ayer, Rochore, Clyde Terrace, Orchard Road, and Ellenborough. A sixth market is in course of construction at Pasir Panjang.

The Fire Brigade is undergoing reorganisation at the hands of its Superintendent, Mr. Montague W. Pett, who came out from England to take charge about the beginning of 1905, and

under his management it promises very soon to be brought up to a high standard of efficiency, both as regards equipment and personnel. There are three fire-stations at which firemen are quartered, these being in Cross Street, Hill Street, and Beach Road. A new central fire-station is in course of construction in Hill Street, and it is proposed to build another new station in the Kampung Glam district and do away with the Beach Road station. On Mr. Pett's arrival in Singapore he found that the brigade had undergone little improvement or extension for a period of about twenty years, and was quite unable to cope with a serious fire if one should occur. There were four steam fire-engines, two of which were accounted too heavy and unwieldy for rapid handling under the horse-haulage system, while the others were of small
pumping capacity and old-fashioned. Among
the recommendations for improving the brigade
made by Mr. Pett to the municipality was the
purchase of a "Merryweather" 400-gallon
motor steam fire-engine, which has now been
working for some time with excellent results.
A second engine of the same type was due at
the time of writing; and for equipping the new
fire-stations up-to-date time-saving appliances
are to be procured, including a petrol-driven
motor combination tender and fire-escape. The
establishment of a street fire-alarm system and
the provision of a fire-float for the harbour
are two other important items in the reor-
ganisation scheme, as is also the increase of
the brigade staff—European, Chinese, and
Malay.
In 1906 there were only nine calls on the
brigade, a decrease of twenty on the previous
year. The total loss by fire within municipal
limits amounted to $2,855 dollars, a reduction
of 209,910 dollars as compared with 1905. There
were five cases of incendiarism in the year, but
this crime received a sharp check by a Chinese
spirit-shop keeper being sentenced to seven
years' penal servitude at the assizes for this
offence. In the first half of 1907 the number
of fires, and the damage done by them, has
been abnormally small. So marked, indeed,
has been the improvement caused by the
brigade's increased efficiency that the Munici-
Pal Commissioners have discontinued the
insurance of their buildings and property
with the insurance companies, and have in-
agurated a Municipal Fire Insurance Fund
on their own account.

From the beginning of 1906 the regulation
and licensing of dangerous trades was trans-
ferred from the Health Department to the Fire
Brigade Department. During the twelve-month
1,769 licences were issued, an increase of
29, the fees received amounting to 17,529
dollars. There were 76 prosecutions for
offences against the regulations, and in 68
cases the offenders were convicted and
mulcted in fines amounting in the aggregate
to 1,505 dollars.
The Hackney Carriage and Jiricksha
Department deals with the issuing of licences,
the inspection of vehicles, &c. During 1906
20,870 ricksha licences were issued, an in-
crease of 1,289 upon the total for the preceding
year. A licence runs for four months. The
number of rickshas plying on the streets on
June 17, 1907, was 7,496, of which 998 were
first class (rubber tyres) and the remainder
second class (iron tyres). The prices at which
rickshas are let out by the owners to the coolies
vary in different localities, but the usual rates
per diem are: First class, 50 to 60 cents; and
second class, 15 to 32 cents. The day coolies
must return their vehicles by 2 p.m. and the
night men before 6 a.m., otherwise they have
to pay double hire to the owners. There are
865 names appearing on the register as owners
of rickshas, but of that number the majority
are merely brokers, the rickshas being regis-
tered in their names for the convenience of
the real owners, who pay for this service.
Under the present Registrar, Mr. W. E.
Hooper, the system of registration of rickshas
and ricksha-owners has been put on a very
satisfactory working basis. The name, address,
and photograph of each owner is entered in
the register, and he is held responsible for the
good behaviour of the coolies to whom he
hires out his rickshas. Of these coolies there
are over 20,000 employed in the trade. If any
offence is reported against a ricksha-puller,
the number of the vehicle is looked up and the
owner discovered, and the latter is forthwith
obliged to produce the offending coolie or
suffer the detention or seizure of his rickshas.
The same thing applies to owners of dilapi-
dated rickshas, or owners who allow their
rickshas to ply for hire after the licence has
lapsed, a fine of 1 dollar being inflicted for
every day that a ricksha continues to run after
the licence has expired.
Until a few years ago all ricksha offences
were dealt with by the magistrates, but the
cases occurred in such numbers that the work
of the police courts became congested, and in
1903 the Registrar was invested with magis-
terial powers. Some idea of the extent of his
work may be gathered from the fact that more
than 5,000 cases were disposed of last year in
his court. At the police court the magistrates
dealt with 164 cases. The fines inflicted
amounted to 4,480 dollars as against 7,893
dollars in 1905. The gross revenue from
licences during the year was 142,956 dollars.

view at the back of the police court.
RAFFLES LIBRARY AND MUSEUM.

By R. HANITSCH, PH.D., Curator and Librarian.

The Raffles Library and Museum, Singapore, although a comparatively recent institution, is directly descended from a proprietary library founded as long ago as 1844. When, in 1874, the Government decided to establish a museum for the collection of objects of natural history and to combine a public library with it, the old "Singapore Library" was taken over, and on the suggestion of Sir Andrew Clarke, the then Governor, the double institution was called Raffles Library and Museum.

The old Library was originally housed in the Raffles Institution, but in September, 1862, it was moved to the Town Hall, where it occupied two rooms on the ground floor. When, in 1874, the Museum was added to it, the available space soon proved insufficient, and so in December, 1876, the Library and Museum were taken back to the Raffles Institution and housed in the first and second floors of the new wing. There they remained until 1895.

The present Library and Museum has a commanding position at the junction of Stamford Road and Orchard Road, at the foot of Fort Canning. It consists of two parallel halves. The front building, surmounted by a handsome dome, was opened in 1887, but was soon found to be too small for its double purpose, especially as up to 1888 it contained the Librarian's quarters as well. The building at the rear was commenced in 1904, finished towards the end of 1906, and opened to the public on the Chinese New Year Day, February 13, 1907.

The Library comprises about 30,000 volumes, and, whilst of a general character, is particularly strong in literature dealing with the Malayan Archipelago. Special mention should be made of two sections—the Logan and the Rost collections—to be found in the entrance-hall. The first-named was collected by the late Mr. J. R. Logan, of Pinang, the well-known editor of the Journal of the Indian Archipelago, and was acquired in 1880. The other one was a gift from the late Dr. Reinhold Rost, Librarian of the India Office in London. The two collections are of a special Malayan character.

The Library is well catalogued. The chief catalogue, comprising not less than 636 pages, dates back to the year 1850, but it is brought up to date by means of annual and regular monthly supplements.

In the early part of 1907 there were about 320 subscribers to the Library, for the privilege of using which fees of twelve, eight, and four dollars are charged in the first, second, and third classes respectively.

There is a spacious reading-room to the right of the entrance-hall, used chiefly by non-subscribers. The walls of this room are adorned with portraits of former Governors and principal residents of the colony, with pictures and plans of old Singapore, and with a large photograph of the monument to Sir Stamford Raffles in Westminster Abbey.

The Museum collections embrace zoology, botany, geology, ethnology, and numismatics, and are almost entirely restricted to the Malayan region.

The zoological section is contained in the upper floor of the new building. Beginning at the west wing we see several cases containing the monkeys, conspicuous amongst them some fine groups of orang-utan and proboscis monkeys—the latter reminding one of pictures of Punch—and nearly forty species of other mammals—slamang and gibbons, macaques, langurs, and lemurs. The big game of the peninsula is well represented by the seladang, stuffed and skeletonised, and about twenty-five heads of it adorning the walls; many specimens of deer, rhinoceros, tapir, and wild boar. But, unfortunately, there are only two young and diminutive specimens of the elephant. The beasts of prey are represented by a fine tiger and black panther, both gifts from the Sultan of Johore, by a spotted leopard, a clouded leopard, other smaller cats, and a group of the harmless-looking Malayan bears. Amongst other mammals are the flying fox and other bats, shrews, squirrels, and other rodents, scaly ant-eater, and the aquatic mammals, such as dugongs, dolphins, and porpoises. A striking exhibit is the skull of the humpbacked whale which was stranded about twenty-five years ago.
INTERIOR VIEWS OF THE SINGAPORE MUSEUM.
ago near Malacca. The animal measured 42 feet.

The birds fill eight large cases. Most of them have recently been remounted, and show their plumage to the best advantage. We can only mention the hawks, the pheasants (with two specially fine Argus pheasants), the birds of paradise, the hornbills, and a case of Christmas Island birds. Amongst the reptiles the most remarkable object is a crocodile, 15 feet in length, from the Serangoon river, Singapore. There is a large collection of snakes in spirit; there are two specimens of the python, each about 22 feet in length, one stuffed and the other skeletonised; and some excellent models of snakes, especially one of the deadly hamadryads. The lizards, turtles, tortoises, and amphibians are well represented.

There are also fishes, large and small, stuffed and in spirit—amongst them the "sea devil," a kind of huge ray, measuring 12 feet across. Butterflies and moths fill thirty-two cases. There are also some cases of wonderful beetles, wasps and bees, cecidias and lantern flies, grass-hoppers, and stick and leaf insects. Finally, there are also some fearsome scorpions and spiders.

The marine section comprises crabs and lobsters, with the uncanny robber crab from Christmas Island; shells of all sorts, sea urchins, starfishes, sea lilies and feather stars, sponges, and several cases of beautiful corals—most of them dredged or collected at low tide from the immediate neighbourhood of Singapore, from Keppel Harbour, and from Blakang Mati. The botanical section is only small. It consists of models of local fruit and vegetables, made of paraffin wax and painted in natural colours. Samples of local timber and of other vegetable products, such as oils and fibres, will shortly be added to this section.

The geological and mineralogical collection chiefly contains what is most of local interest—some of the first few fossils discovered in Singapore, from Mount Guthrie, Tanjong Pagar. They are principally marine bivalves, probably of Miocene and Pliocene age.

The Ethnological Gallery is on the upper floor of the old building. It contains a fine display of gruesome-looking Malayan, Javanese, and Dyak spears, swords, and ladles, some simple, some silver-mounted; Dyak ornaments, shields, and war dresses, amongst the latter a curious but apparently very serviceable one made of bark cloth and fish scales; models of native houses and native craft, filling nearly a whole room; beautifully made spears, clubs, and paddles from New Guinea and neighbouring islands; a case illustrating worship and witchcraft, with specimens of the "kapal hantu" or "breast of the spirits," which is said to have the remarkable property of conveying sickness away from an infected locality when launched with due ceremony; a case of musical instruments, if the noise produced by native huddles, flutes, gongs, and drums may be called music; a case of costly sarongs and other cloth, with models of looms illustrating their manufacture. There are shelves upon shelves of mats and baskets, cleverly made of grass, rattan, and palm (pandanus) leaves. One case holds baskets from Malacca, finished and in various states of manufacture, with tools and photographs, presented by Mrs. Bland, who greatly fostered that industry in Malacca; also samples of Malacca lace, presented by the same lady. In the centre of one case showing pottery is a huge earthenware jar from Banjarmasin, Borneo, of the kind used there for human burial. Two other cases show valuable silver and brass ware, whilst a number of bronze swivel guns, from Brunei, stand in various corners of the gallery. One of these guns is equipped with beautifully painted figures of snakes, frogs, crocodiles, birds, and other animals. Two cases hold a large series of Buddhist images from Laos, Siam, whilst three other cases are set apart for the ethnology of the Bismarck Archipelago, of Timor Laut, and of Papal Island respectively. Part of the walls of the gallery are covered with the curious figures of the Javanese "Wayang Kulit" or "Shadow Play." But probably the most gorgeous exhibit in this section is a state mattress, with bed-curtains and pillows of silk, richly embroidered with gold and silver, as used by Malay Sultans at their weddings.

The numismatic collection contains gold, silver, copper, and tin coins from the Straits Settlements, Johore, Pahang, Kelantan, Trengganu, Siam, Sumatra, the British East India Company, the Dutch East India Company, Java, Banjarmasin, Sarawak, British North Borneo, and other places. Practically unique is a collection of Portuguese tin coins, which were discovered in 1906 during excavations at the mouth of the Malacca river, collected together by the Hon. W. Egerton, the then Resident Councillor of Malacca, and by him handed over to the Raffles Museum. Additional coins were found a few years later, and presented to the Museum by the Hon. K. N. Bland.

The oldest of these tin coins date from the time when the Portuguese, under Albuquerque, took possession of Malacca in 1511: i.e., from the reign of King Emanuel (1495-1521). Later coins are from the reigns of John III. (1521-1557) and Sebastian (1557-1578). There is no doubt that these coins are the oldest archeological records of the colony. A detailed description of them is given in the Journal of the Straits Branch, Royal Asiatic Society, Nos. 39 and 44.

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numerous samples of tin ore from various mines of the Malay Peninsula, and a huge block of tin ore weighing half a ton, which in the year 1904 was presented by the Chinese of Kuala Lumpur to H.E. Sir Charles Mitchell, Governor of the Straits Settlements at the time, and by him handed over to the Museum. The commercial value of this block was some years ago estimated at £70. Its present value would be considerably more. This section also contains
PINANG has a subtle fascination that it is difficult to define. It lacks the variety to be found in Bangkok or Tokyo; it has not the same degree of Orientalism to be found in Pekin or Canton; and it does not present the same deep contrasts as are to be met with in Durban, where the rays from the arc of an electric lamp may shine on to a pathway through the jungle. Nor is it a modern Pompeii, teeming with associations of the distant past; while even those "places of interest" so dear to the heart of the common or garden guide-book manufacturer are remarkably limited in number. And yet, withal, its charms attract the "exile" from home as easily as do the disadvantages of, say, Manila repel.

Should the visitor arrive by steamer from Europe or Singapore at an early hour in the morning, before the Port Health Officer has had time to come out in a neat little steam launch to examine the passengers, he will find but little in the vista before him to anticipate anything out of the common—that is, if already he has had on his voyage a surfeit of tropical scenery. As his vessel takes up her place in the channel separating the island of Pinang from the Malay Peninsula, the capital, Georgetown (called after George, Prince of Wales) seems to be only a long, thin line surmounted on the left by a range of hills gently sloping upward, apparently almost from the water's edge. Calm and tranquillity appear at that moment to reign supreme, and the lines of Goldsmith's "Deserted Village" are recalled involuntarily.

Presently, however, a veritable little fleet of sampans (or shoe-boats), steered by dusky upright Tamil figures, come swiftly out from the jetty as at some given word of command, and swarm round the steamer on all sides. The moment the last native passenger is "ticked off" by the Port Health Officer the sampans are crowded with a very mixed "cargo" of Asians and luggage of endless description. The visitor probably expects to witness a series of accidents and collisions, only to find that his fears are groundless, for the swarthy Kling sampan-men are no novices at their work, and, after depositing their assorted freight at the nearest jetty or landing-place, are back again within an incredibly short time for another "load."

Whilst he awaits the shipping agent's launch or a diminution in the demand for sampans, the visitor has time to look around him. He is agreeably surprised to find that the harbour...
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

is very capacious, and that its maritime trade, judging by the flags of many nationalities, is of an international character, both as regards the Straits Trading Company. Any speculations he may indulge in as to what lies hidden from view in the hinterland beyond producing or consuming place; its own exports and its own imports are as a mere drop in the bucket; but it is a distributing centre to and from the vast and rapidly developing hinterland of the Federated Malay States and Siamese Malaya, and to and from the Dutch East Indies, while it further acts as an intermediate feeder for Indian trade. Ample evidence of the nature of Pinang's products (including those of Province Wellesley) may be seen from a cursory glance at the contents of the innumerable longkangs, or lighters, moored alongside the merchant vessels, the principal being tin, gambier, pepper, copra, gutta-percha, gum copal, tapioca, and rubber. Good as the trade of Pinang is, however, it might easily have been very much larger had there been greater facilities for carrying on the trade of a transit port. Within the past quarter of a century the trade of Pinang has increased by over 300 per cent.

As the visitor approaches Victoria Pier—a small covered-in jetty—he will see on his right-hand side Sweitnemad Pier, named after Sir Frank Sweitnemad, the previous Governor. This latter pier was opened in 1905, is 600 feet in length, and, it is said, has taken nearly twenty years of representation to get constructed. Adjoining it are old barn-like structures called goods-sheds, which are leased out by the Government to landing and shipping agents. Close at hand, however, is a block of newly-built stores, or godowns, which have a more modern appearance.

Opposite the jetty sheds, as they are termed locally, a great block of buff-coloured Government buildings sweeps from Weld Quay into King Edward Place and Beach Street, and thence round into Downing Street. They comprise the General Post Office, the Government Telegraph Office, and the Government Telephone Exchange, the Governor's Office, for the use of his Excellency when visiting Pinang; the Resident Councillor's Office, the Audit Office, the Public Works Department, the Land Office, the Marine Department, including the Harbour Master's Office, and the Office of the Solicitor-General.

Directly opposite the main entrance of the post office in Downing Street is another buff-coloured edifice, which is shared by the Pinang Chamber of Commerce, the Pinang Turf Club, and the Town Club.

Like Weld Quay, Downing Street is by no means one of the finest streets in Pinang, notwithstanding its rather high-sounding name, reminiscent of its famous namesake in London. But were the visitor to judge Pinang, or, to be more particular, Georgetown, by its streets alone, he would perhaps carry away with him impressions far from favourable. Of the fifty odd public roads and streets within municipal limits there are few within the business part of the town of any special note. The majority are badly laid out, and, strange to say, the greatest offender in this respect is Beach Street, the very "hub" of local trade and commerce. It stands at right angles to Downing Street, and is long, narrow, irregular, and unwinding—some parts, especially in what is known as the Chinese quarter, being extremely narrow—and altogether ill-suited for the requirements of a go-ahead business community. In years gone by, before the present development of Pinang was ever dreamt of, Beach Street, as its name naturally implies, was not a street but a sea-shore; and as, by the evolution of Nature, the sea receded and the land was reclaimed, first one row of shops and houses and then another arose in rapid succession, but without any apparent idea of symmetry on the part of the builders. The natural effect of this haphazard arrangement is seen in the Beach Street of the present day.

All the streets west of Beach Street follow a
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

rectangular design, which renders the task of finding one's way about the town simplicity itself, and within whose streets nearest to Beach Street are to be found the best studies of Oriental arts and industries. At night this neighbourhood is badly lighted, for the electric lighting system, which is a feature of other portions of the town, has not yet been extended to Beach Street, despite its commercial importance. As the northern half is confined to European shops and warehouses, there is, of course, the same need for electric light. At the other end, the proverbial industry of the Chinese is well emphasised; for, long after his European rival in business has not only gone home for the day, but retired for the night as well, the Chinaman has his shop brightly lit up with great hanging lamps, and an army of assistants, clerks, and coolies are hard at work.

And then there are Asians of other nationalities, who have, metaphorically speaking, "pitched their tents" in Pinang in order to gain a livelihood—the Indian money-lenders, whose stalls are to be seen on every pavement; the Chettu money-lenders, whose habitations are to be found clustered together in a row in Pinang Street and King Street; the Sinhalese silver-ware dealer and vendor of lace; the "Bombay merchant," who stocks everything from curios to cottons; and the Japanese, whose special "lines" are curios, hair-dressing, photography, or tattooing. All these and more are to be met with in Pinang, which is nothing if not cosmopolitan. Of the 131,077 persons who made up the estimated population of Pinang in 1906 (excluding Province Wellesley), there were 1,096 Europeans; 1,759 Eurasians; 75,495 Chinese; 33,525 Malays; 18,162 Indians; and 1,020 of "other nationalities." The total population within municipal limits was estimated in 1905 at 92,000.

A touch of picturesqueness is lent to the streets at the busiest parts of the day by the throngs of bare footed of all races, clad in garments peculiar to their respective countries. The "nonais" or wives of the "towkays" are usually resplendent in jewelled and neatly fitting garment of some bright hue that envelops them from neck to foot; but it is seldom that they discard their own clumsy-looking Chinese wooden shoes for those of European pattern. The Malay females also are fond of colour. They follow their men-folk so far as the "sarong" is concerned, but they wear a short cotton jacket, above which they have a circular piece of cloth with which they enshroud their heads and faces when they appear in public.

House rent in Pinang is ridiculously high, and the European may be considered fortunate if he can get a fairly comfortable bungalow, lacking many "modern conveniences," for between 70 and 100 dollars per month. As the Europeans, generally speaking, come to the tropics to make money and not for the benefit of their health, it naturally follows that their houses are never extravagantly furnished. Their "household gods" are mostly made of rattan or cane, which is cheap, cool, and light. Hitherto they have not enjoyed the advantage of any special quarter of the town in which to reside by themselves, so interwoven with their houses are those of Eurasians and Asians. Now, however, a European residential quarter is springing up in the vicinity of the Sepoy Lines—once upon a time the "locale of a British regiment's barracks. The finest sites and the most palatial residences in Pinang are monopolised by the wealthy Chinese, many of whom also live in the heart of the business portion of the town. The houses of these latter do not, from an external point of view, betray the affluence of their occupants; but inside they are palaces on a miniature scale, with the most costly furnishings and fittings, both of Oriental and Occidental manufacture. Other Chinese, again, in common with the majority of the wretched-looking habitations of the natives are to be found alongside a huge Chinese club or residence, or adjacent to a European bungalow.

Malays and Tamils, live in mere hovels, in huts built on piles, or huddled together in cabins of the filthiest possible nature. And it is a striking anomaly that some of the most greatest mortality occurs in the hottest months—May, June, and July. Pinang, at the same time, has never the same stifling, oppressive heat that is experienced in, say Bangkok, the temperature rarely reaching 92°, while it is sometimes as low as 72°.

The average maximum is about 89°5', the average minimum 74°2', and the mean temperature is about 80°69'. Then, besides the continual cooling breeze from the sea, there is an abundant rainfall, the average for the last 23 years being 125,43 inches. It will thus be

CHINA STREET.
concluded that there are many worse places east of Suez than Pinang for the European to reside in.

Georgetown is fortunate in having a Municipal Commission, of whose beneficent administration there is ample evidence on every hand. The streets are generally well kept; the drain-

age, though not perfect, is receiving greater attention year by year; there is an excellent, though as yet limited, electric lighting system; there is an eleven-mile electric tramway, with a service of eight cars at intervals of eleven minutes; and there is a good supply of potable water from the waterfall at the Botanical Gardens.

With regard to the topography there is much to interest the resident and visitor alike.

If the latter begins his "tour of inspection" from Swettenham Wharf, the first objects to attract his attention after passing the Government buildings in King Edward Place (to which reference has already been made) will be the clock tower and Fort Cornwallis. The clock tower was presented to the town in 1897, although there appears to be no reliable data as to when it was built or how much it cost. In the official records relating to the settlement the last document bearing the signature of Capt. Francis Light, the founder of Pinang, is dated Fort Cornwallis, January 25, 1794. When the military rule of Pinang was superseded by a civil administration, and, subsequently, when the British regiment was withdrawn from the island, the Fort lost much of its importance, and at the present day is used only as a signal station for the shipping of the port, as quarters for European and Sikh police, and as a Drill Hall for the local volunteer corps. The ancient landmark is shortly to disappear, however, by order of the Straits Government, to make more room near Swettenham Wharf for the claims of commerce, and at the time of writing the Legislative Council have passed a vote of 22,500 dollars for the purchase of a vacant site in Northam-road on which to build a new Drill Hall and Government quarters.

South of Fort Cornwallis—at the end of Beach Street, properly speaking—are the Police Offices, adjoining which, again, are the Police Courts with a frontage to Light Street. The Police Courts are three in number, and both internally and externally are but ill-suited for the needs of the place.

West of Fort Cornwallis is the Esplanade, a comprehensive name which includes a large ground on which football, cricket, lawn-tennis, and bowls are played, and also the promenade along the sea front. On the Fort side is the pavilion of the Pinang Recreation Club, whose membership mainly comprises Eurasians; on the opposite side is the pavilion of the Pinang Cricket Club, on whose membership roll are chiefly Europeans. At the south side of the athletic ground is a bandstand, where a Filipino band plays for an hour or so on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, besides on special occasions. The ordinary "band night" sees the

PINANG FROM THE HARBOUR.

by Mr. Chea Chen Eok, J.P., one of Pinang's Chinese millionaires, as a permanent memorial of the late Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee. It is sixty feet in height—a foot for each of the sixty years of her Majesty's reign up to 1897—and cost the donor some thirty-five thousand dollars. Adjoining the clock tower is Fort Cornwallis, surrounded by a moat. In the early days of Pinang the Fort occupied a prominent position in the affairs of the town,
Esplanade traversed with rickshaws and carriages, while the southern portion of the recreation-ground is for the nonce transformed into a public park in which Europeans, Eurasians, and Asians alike stroll to and fro listening to the music. Seaward from the Esplanade, a beautiful panoramic view is presented, a clear blue sky, the sea dotted with fishing craft and steamships and the hillocks and tropical scenery on the mainland, opposite forming an ideal background.

At the north-west corner of the Esplanade stand the Municipal Offices, an imposing whitewashed edifice, which is one of the architectural beauties of the town. Further along, nearer Light Street, is the Town Hall, which, like the Municipal Offices, is fitted with electric light and electric fans. For many years it was unkempt and antiquated, but it has recently undergone considerable renovation and improvement, on which 10,000 dollars were expended in 1905 and over 10,000 in 1906.

Passing the Town Hall and a grass-plot, in the centre of which is a miniature fountain, we re-enter Light Street, which, as the name implies, is called after the founder of Pinang. Immediately to the right is Edinburgh House, the domicile of a rich Chinaman, but so named after H.H.R. the Duke of Edinburgh and Cornwall, who visited Pinang in 1901 and stayed in this house. Opposite Edinburgh House is Aurora House, also the residence of a wealthy Chinaman; the interior is sumptuously furnished and is well worth visiting, if only to see how closely the educated Chinese are following Western ideas.

At the junction of Light Street and Pitt Street is the new Supreme Court, which was opened in 1904 on the site of its predecessor, which had been in use since 1809, previous to which, again, the Court was held in Fort Cornwallis.

The present edifice is a very handsome one, with a statue of Justice gracefully occupying the topmost niche of the main portico roof. There are two divisions of the Court proper, the one for civil cases, the other for criminal.

In the southern portion of the Supreme Court building is the Pinang Library, which receives an annual grant from the Government and is exceptionally well equipped with books. As the annual subscription is only five dollars, the library may be considered one of the cheapest circulating libraries in the East, and deserves greater popularity than it at present obtains.

Within the Supreme Court grounds is a statue erected to the memory of the late Mr. Daniel Logan, a local lawyer much respected in his day. He occupied at one time a seat on the Legis-
tive Council and acted as Attorney-General; his death occurred in 1897.

Curving round into Farquhar Street, we pass the Convent of the Holy Infant Jesus on the right—one of the oldest institutions in Pinang, which has done and is doing much good work for members of every sect and denomination.

To the left in Farquhar Street proper stand the Free School and St. George’s Church, the place of worship of the members of the Church of England. The Free School, which has recently been enlarged, was founded in 1816 for the education of children of all classes, but is purely a boys’ school. In early days the Protestants of the town worshipped in a room in Fort Cornwallis, but St. George’s Church was built in 1817-18. It is of Greek architecture, simple and unpretentious, and is now fitted with electric light and electric fans.

Passing further up Farquhar Street, which takes its name from a former Lieut-Governor of the settlement, we come to the Roman Catholic Church of the Assumption and then to St. Xavier’s Institution, the latter being a school and boarding-house for boys, conducted by the Christian Brothers. It is a magnificent edifice, harmoniously tinted in various colours. Further along, at the corner of Farquhar Street and Leith Street, is the Engineers’ Institute, with a frontage to the latter street. At the opposite corner is the International Hotel, which is centrally situated, albeit lacking the advantage of a sea-frontage. On the right-hand side is St. George’s Girls’ School, managed by a committee of trustees belonging to St. George’s Church; and next door, so to speak, is the Eastern and Oriental Hotel.

After negotiating a dangerous turning at the west end of Farquhar Street, we enter Northam Road, one of the prettiest roads in George-town, notwithstanding its proximity to the business centre. It is the beginning of villadom—fine, large residences enclosed in spacious grounds (locally called “compounds”), with tropical foliage on every side. The road itself is well kept, and is beautifully shaded with lovely overhanging trees. It makes a picture worth seeing during the day, when the sea peeps into view between the bungalows on the north side, or at night, when the electric arc-lamps are lighted, their bright rays penetrating through the leaves of the trees on either side.

The first building of note is the pagoda-like residence of a wealthy Chinaman, which is four storeys in height, from the topmost balcony of which a splendid bird’s-eye view of the harbour and mainland is obtained. On the right-hand side, some little distance along, is the Pinang Club, a building of pink hue, quite close to the house with a well-groomed, spacious lawn and fine approaches from the roadway. Next to the club are the headquarters of the Eastern Extension, Australasia, and China Telegraph Company, whose office is kept open night and day for the transmission of telegrams to all parts of the world. We then come to the Presbyterian Church, known as the “Scots Kirk,” a peculiar-looking whitewashed structure, with an uncompleted dome. At the end of Northam Road is the Masonic Hall, in which are held the meetings of Lodge Royal Prince of Wales, No. 1,555, E.C., and Lodge Scotia, No. 1,903, S.C. On the west side is a palatial mansion built by a well-known Chinaman; it is surmounted by a green dome, and no expense seems to have been spared in the work of construction. Altogether it is a decided acquisition to the landscape in that vicinity. If the visitor turns into Pangkor Road, he should turn again at the first cross road—Burma Road—in which, at the junction with Pangkor Road, is the Chinese Recreation Club, with spacious grounds lined out for lawn-tennis, cricket, and football. Proceeding in a westerly direction brings him to the village of Pulau Tikus, which is now really incorporated with Burma Road, although at one time it was a distinct and separate district, with associations all its own.
top of Burma Road to the right along Bagan Jermal Road the drive leads through some very pretty scenery, which at certain points recalls a country road in England—save, of course, where there are palm-trees and other tropical foliage. A good specimen of a Malay village—Tanjong Tokong—is reached, with attap-covered houses, built on wooden piles, which stand in patches of slimy-looking mud and water. As elsewhere round the island, the view seaward is here very picturesque, enhanced as it is by Malay "kolehs" or fishing boats along the water's edge, a row of fishing stakes further out from the beach, a coasting steamer passing in the distance, and the out-

portion of an enjoyable afternoon, and he will, in all likelihood, defer further sight-seeing till another day.

One of the beauty spots of Penang is the Botanical Gardens, situated about four and a half miles from the Victoria Jetty. The best route to take is along Light Street, Farquhar Street, and Northam Road, as far as Larut Road, just before the "Scots Kirk" is reached. After passing a police-station, with a gong outside suspended to a tree—which forms a sort of landmark for the stranger—the journey leads to the left along Anson Road, into McAllister Road on the right, up Barrack Road, past the Criminal Prison, then

with its magnificent open pavilion of rubble, granite pavements, tile roof, massive granite tablets bearing the names of 541 Chinese subscribers and erected at a cost of 2,000 dollars, its colossal statue of Mr. Lee Phee Eow (a former resident of some note), and its spacious cooking and dining rooms for the convenience of the funeral guests. The grounds resemble lovely gardens, but for the gravestones dotted here and there in the hillocks.

Passing the Protestant cemetery in Western Road, the route leads onward through a number of coconut and fruit plantations into Waterfall Road. On the left there is a magnificent Chetty Temple, dedicated to the "God of Fire," which

line of Kedah hills furthest of all. Then the road suddenly curves inland, is steeper than before, and brings into view a few bungalows, with the island of Pulau Tikus (not to be confused with the village of Pulau Tikus already mentioned) in the offing. We are now at Tanjong Bungah ("Flower Point"), which is a popular holiday resort with the residence of Georgetown. There are not many bungalows, and the majority of those which have been built are usually rented by the day, week, or month. Here, too, are the headquarters of the Penang Swimming Club; and, if the drive be continued further along, the village of Batu Feringghi is reached. But the visitor will find that a drive to the Swimming Club and back to town passes the greater

switches to the right once more into Hospital Road, in which are situated the General Hospital and the District or Pauper Hospital. We have now arrived at Sepoy Lines, where are situated the parade-ground and barracks of the Malay States Guides (the Sikh Regiment). To the right are Government House, and, just beyond, the Racecourse and Golf Club; and to the left, in Western Road, is the Residency. The drive along Western Road leads past the Roman Catholic and Protestant Cemeteries, adjoining each other. Incidentally, it might be mentioned that perhaps the best situated and finest laid-out cemetery in Penang is the Chinese Cemetery at Batu Gantong, which may also be reached from Western Road. It is a revelation of what the Chinese can accomplish,
manner of means a Niagara, but still pretty to behold. Close at hand is the reservoir which supplies Georgetown with its water.

Not far from the entrance to the Botanical Gardens is the pathway most often used by those who make the ascent to Crag Hotel and Government Hill. The journey is usually made in chairs suspended from bamboo poles, borne on the shoulders of Tamil coolies. The beauty of the Malayan forest, with its dense tropical foliage, has "to be seen to be believed." Above all, the delicious coolness of the atmosphere at the summit, and the splendid, comprehensive view afforded of the whole town, the harbour, and the hills of Perak in the far distance, enhance a delightful experience that should not be missed.

To overtake all the places of interest the visitor should allot a special afternoon in which to visit the Chinese Temple at Ayer Itam, the drive to which opens up some more pretty country. Or, the journey may be made by electric tramway at a cost of only twenty cents. Five miles across the Ayer Itam Hill lies the village of Balik Pulau, in a world entirely of its own. It can boast of its own waterworks, a police-station, post and telegraph office, hospital, district office and court-house, and a Roman Catholic Mission Church. The highest point on the road across the hill is called "Love's Pass," or "Penera Bulit," from which a fine view is obtainable, especially on a fine, clear day.

Returning to town by way of Ayer Itam Road again, the visitor passes the gaol at the corner of Dato Kramat Road and then what is locally known as Dato Kramat Gardens—a large piece of vacant land now used as a football-ground, at one end of which is an ancient-looking statue of a member of the Brown family, who were among the mercantile pioneers of Pinang. Close at hand is Jelutong Road, leading to Green Lane and Coombe Hill. A deviation from Jelutong Road brings us to Sungai Pinang ("river Pinang"), and Sungai Pinang Bridge, adjoining which a little "factory suburb" is fast springing up. There is already a large rice mill, an ice factory, petroleum "godowns" or stores, and the electric power-station and are the municipal abattoirs, pig market, and animal infirmary—all of them excellently supervised and kept scrupulously clean. Leaving these monuments of municipal progress and enterprise, the south end of Beach Street is entered, along which the "stranger within the gates" makes his way to the jetty and his steamer, deeply and most favourably impressed by all he has seen and heard.
MALACCA, the oldest and largest of the Straits Settlements, is a triangular territory situated on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. It embraces 629 square miles, has a coast line of 50 miles, and is adjacent to the States of Johore and Negri Sembilan. Malacca is essentially an agricultural country. The land is largely held by Europeans, and the chief products are padi, cultivated by Malays, and tapioca, cultivated mainly by Chinese. There are close upon 100,000 acres under tapioca. Since the opening of the railway, which links the country with the whole of the Federated Malay States railway system, the development of the settlement has made rapid progress. Recently several European companies have planted large areas of land with rubber, and the Chinese have extensively interplanted their tapioca with that product, the total area now under rubber being estimated at 34,000 acres. The rapidity with which rubber cultivation has developed is shown by the fact that in 1906 18,500 lbs. of dry rubber were exported, as against 5,000 lbs. in 1905. Several syndicates have lately been formed to work large areas of tin-mining land.

The country generally is typical of cultivated Malaya, with its banyan trees, tall palm trees, and a network of excellent roads. To drive along any of these is to witness scenery of great beauty. On either side are rice fields—green when newly planted, golden when the grain is ripe, and brown when it is fallow—and these are variegated with tapioca and rubber plantations and studded with lofty areca nut palms. In the distance, hills chequer the sky-line and form a blue-green background.

The temperature is lower and the rainfall less in Malacca than in any other part of the Straits Settlements. In 1906 the mean temperature in Malacca was 70½° as against 80½° in Singapore and 80½° in Pinang, while the mean rainfall was 8057 inches as compared with 11838 inches in Singapore and 10221 inches in Pinang. Malacca is also the healthiest of the three settlements. In 1906 its birth-rates was 37.93 per mille as against 22.77 in Singapore and 16.79 in Pinang, while the death-rate was 17.12 per mille as compared with 39.65 in Singapore and 41.81 in Pinang.

At the census of 1901 the total population of the settlement was returned at 95,000, and included 33,000 Malays and 62,000 Chinese. It was estimated in 1906 at 97,387. The value of Malacca's imports in 1906 was about 4,000,000 dollars, and of its exports about 4,700,000 dollars. The great bulk of both imports and exports are shipped through Singapore.

The industry of basket-making by Malay women is almost entirely confined to Malacca. The material used is the leaf of the Pandanus fasciculatus, locally known as the Bang Kuan. The basket is built up from a beginning of six straings woven into a star shape. It takes a woman a whole month working steadily every day to make a set of five baskets of ordinary quality, and three months to make a set of fine quality. Of the various shapes in which the baskets are made, the most popular is the hexagonal, and for a set or nest consisting of three or five of different sizes fitted into one another, from 2.50 to 5 dollars is charged, according to quality and size. Up to fifty years ago the Malays of Malacca made a really fine cotton lace. Whether this art was taught them by the Portuguese or Dutch or was indigenous is unknown. Formerly, this lace was always worn by the men on their coats and trousers, and it may still be seen occasionally at weddings. But all that remains of the industry now is the manufacture of Biku, a kind of lace made out of coloured silk and used for the borders of handkerchiefs and for veils.

The port and chief town of the settlement is at the mouth of the river, and is in latitude 2° 10' North and longitude 102° 14' East. It is 118 miles distant from Singapore by sea and 250 miles from Pinang. As it was the seat of the ancient Malay kingdom and has been occupied by Europeans—first Portuguese, then Dutch, and finally British—since the beginning of the sixteenth century, it is of exceptional historical interest, and, in this respect, is one of the most notable towns of the East. The first Chinese settlers in Malacca made Malacca their headquarters, and all the oldest Straits Chinese families are consequently descended from Malacca ancestors.

There is no real harbour at Malacca, and until a few years ago even small vessels could not get within three or four miles of the shore. Dredging operations, however, have since been carried out, and, as a result of the deepening of the channel at the river mouth and the construction of groynes on the north and south, large lighters and Chinese junks are now able to enter the river and discharge cargo alongside the wharf. It is interesting to note that during the dredging operations quite a large collection of coins representing the several periods of the European occupation of the place and of the ancient Malay dynasty were unearthed in a bank across the river mouth. They are referred to in a special article.

When approaching Malacca from the open sea, one is impressed by its quaint and picturesque appearance. It presents the curious spectacle of a town with its legs in the sea. The reason for this is that the houses which face the main street of Malacca have their backs to the shore, and the rear portions of the dwellings have been built into the water upon high red pillars. This is the style adopted over the whole length of the town on the north side of the river. On the south side is the landing pier, and quite close to it, on the side of St. Paul's Hill, is the Dutch Stadt House. This solid, old world building is approached by a flight of steps, and is used as the Government offices. On the summit of the hill is the ruined and rootless Church of Our Lady, built by the Portuguese and afterwards renamed the Church of St. Paulus by the Dutch. Many Dutch tombs are contained in it. The house of the Resident Councillor and the lighthouse are also situated on the hill-top. The view from the summit is enchanting, whether one looks eastward over the orchards and villages to Gunong Ledang, called Mount Ophir (4,200 feet high), or to the hill which has been appropriated by the Chinese as their fashionable burying-place, or over the dark red roofs of Malacca town, across rice fields and coconut groves, to Cape Rachado. Standing prominently behind the houses which line the shore at the river mouth is the Church of St. Francis Xavier, a beautiful Gothic structure.

The town extends inland about a mile. Its streets are very narrow, and most of the houses are of Dutch origin. One of the most interesting historical structures in the place is the gateway of the old fort, which is preserved by the Government. Upon a marble tablet placed on the relic appears the following inscription: "The only remaining part of the ancient fortress of Malacca built by Alfonso d'Ophir, and by him named Famosa in 1511; near this stood the bastion of Santiago." The town is administered by a Municipal Commission, of which the Resident Councillor is, ex officio, President. Within the municipal limits there is a population of 18,000, mostly Chinese and Malay, the only Europeans being Government officials. There is a good water supply, and within the next few years the town is to be improved by the widening of its streets, which are lighted with oil lamps.

The only other towns in the settlement are Jonjai and Jasim. The former is situated 15 miles up the river from Malacca, and the latter is about midway between the two. At both these places Government District Offices are stationed. There is a hot spring with valuable medicinal properties at Ayer Pana, and the Government have recently constructed a new bath-house there.
VIEWS IN MALACCA.

1. Scene on the River. 2. A Street Scene. 3. The Quay. 4. The Residency. 5. Old Portuguese Gate. 6. Visit of H.E. the Governor.
VIEWS IN MALACCA.

1. Stadt House.
2. The Strand.
3. District Officer of Alor Gajah and Headman of the District.
4. The Fort.
THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES

KUALA LUMPOR.

Kuala Lumpur. The choice of Kuala Lumpur as the capital of the Federated Malay States was a wise one, for the town is healthy, offers many natural advantages as a place of residence, and, above all, it is central. When the Johore section of the Federated Malay States Railway is completed, Kuala Lumpur will be about equi-distant by rail from Singapore and Pinang; it is within an hour's journey of Port Swettenham, which promises to be the chief port of the Malay Peninsula; and it is only a few miles from Kuala Kubu, from which town runs the trunk road into Pahang. The Federal Government appreciated and developed these advantages, and men of business find it convenient to locate their headquarters in the capital by reason of the exceptional facilities which are offered for intercommunication with other parts of the peninsula.

Klang, the seat of the Sultans of Selangor, was the original capital of the State. In those days Kuala Lumpur was little more than a name to the British. A journey to it was an adventure, owing to the absence of any kind of road. An attempt at tin mining in Kuala Lumpur was made in 1857, and two years later tin was exported. A rush of Chinese miners to the new fields of enterprise followed. As their numbers increased friction arose between the different factions. A series of fierce
quarrels broke out, and resulted frequently in bloodshed. The time produced its strong man in the person of Yap Ah Loi. Driven by poverty from his native country to even greater privation in the land of his adoption, he had, by sheer force of character, attained to prosperity and great influence, and when Captain Liu retired, he became the Captain China. According to Chinese versions of the history of his time, he succeeded in quelling the rebellions and restoring the district to a condition of comparative quiet. He owned practically the whole of Kuala Lumpur, and is said to have twice rebuilt the town. He was the chief employer of labour, and discharged the functions of a lawgiver. Upon his death in 1886 Yap Ah Shak became the Captain China.

The first British Resident of Selangor was Mr. J. Guthrie Davidson. His successor, Captain Bloomfield Douglas, held the opinion that Klang, being a seaport, was the natural capital of the State, and it was not until 1886, five years after his appointment, that he made Kuala Lumpur his headquarters.

In those days the only house of any pretensions was that of the Captain China; what is now the padang was a swamp, and the only agricultural products raised in the neighbourhood were tapioca and sugar. The mines lay in the direction of Ampang and Pudoh. There were no roads. A tree-trunk was the only form of bridge in existence, and a few clusters of attap huts constituted the only dwellings. But all this was soon changed. Mr. (now Sir) F. A. Swettenham initiated reform and progress. His successor, Mr. J. P. Rodger, made the welfare of the town his personal concern. He found it a hotbed of filth and dirt; he left it well advanced on the road to modern cleanliness and sanitation, and his name will go down to posterity in the annals of the town and in the name of an important thoroughfare.

The rapid growth of Kuala Lumpur was, however, scarcely foreseen, for Government offices were hardly constructed before they
were found to be inadequate. It is something in the nature of an object-lesson to see the Federal police headquarters on the hill overlooking the padang, and to reflect that this unpretentious building once sufficed for the whole of the administrative offices and courts. Now that Kuala Lumpur has become the Federal capital, so vast is the machinery which has been called into being that even the huge pile of buildings stretching along one side of the padang is inadequate, the work in some departments oozing out of its confines into the verandahs and odd corners. The idea of the new Government buildings originated with Mr. (now Sir) William Maxwell, who was of opinion that advertisement should not be neglected even by a Government, and that a few effective-looking buildings would give an air of prosperity to Selangor that was lacking in the neighbouring States, and cause the wavering Chinaman to throw in his lot with that of Selangor. The result was that in 1894 the foundation-stone of the most imposing edifice in the Federated Malay States was laid. The buildings comprise the Government administrative offices, Town Hall, Post Office, and Railway offices. They are in the modern Saracenic style—the arabesque features of which are in keeping with the surroundings and appropriate in a Mahomedan country—and are constructed of red brick, with imitation stone dressings. A verandah 12 feet in width runs round each block, the pointed arches giving good light, and at the same time protection from the sun. A square clock-tower 135 feet in
height rises from the centre of the administration block, and forms the main feature of the front, whilst two lesser towers, of circular shape, give access by means of spiral staircases to the upper storey and form handsome additions to the façade. The foundation-stone at the base of the clock-tower bears the following inscription:

H.H. Sir Abul Samat, K.C.M.G.,
Sultan.

H.E. Sir Charles B. H. Mitchell, K.C.M.G.,
Governor, Straits Settlements.

W. H. Treacher, C.M.G.,
British Resident.

This stone was laid by H.E. the Governor on the 6th day of October, 1894.

A. C. Norman, C. E. Spooner, B.E.,
Architect.

The Government Offices.

Kuala Lumpor is a town of much beauty. Situated on a small plain, at the junction of the Klang and Gombak rivers, it is sheltered on three sides by hills. Kuala Lumpur means, literally, “mouth of mud,” though the reason for the name is not apparent. The area embraced by the town limits is extensive, and the more important bungalows crown the tops of a cluster of small hillocks. The slopes of these eminences meet in pleasant little valleys, and break up the landscape into the most pleasing combinations, gratifying the beholder with an endless panorama of charming views. Looking eastwards, the Ulu Klang and Ampang hills engage the sight, and carry the eye to the north by the modest little English church, and the road leading to it. Adjoining the padang is the great social institution of the town, the Selangor Club, popularly known as the "Spotted Dog." It is the focus of European sporting life, and, without disparagement to the more aristocratic Lake Club, it has the widest reputation of any club in the Federated Malay States. The Recreation Club, which fulfils a similar place in the life of people other than Europeans, also overlooks the padang; and many are the hard struggles for supremacy in the field which take place between the two institutions.

So thoroughly have the Asiatics assimilated
SOME GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS.

1. The Printing Office.
2. The Barracks.
3. Bachelors' Quarters for Civil Servants.
4. The Residency.
5. The Railway Station.
6. The Post Office.
PETALING STREET.

METHODIST BOYS' SCHOOL.

IN THE BOTANICAL GARDENS.

THE Y.M.C.A.
Early in 1888 it was suggested that it would greatly enhance the beauty of Kuala Lumpur if gardens were laid out. The Resident, Mr. (now Sir) Frank Swettenham, entered heartily into the proposal, and secured the High Commissioner's sanction to the expenditure of the money required to carry it into effect. A valley, through which ran a clear stream, was chosen, the few Chinese living there were bought out, the jungle was cleared, and a lake was formed by throwing a bund across the lower end of the valley. The lake, completed in February of the following year, was named the "Sydney Lake," in honour of the wife of the Resident. In May, 1890, the gardens were formally opened, in the presence of H.E. Sir C. C. Smith, G.C.M.G., and H.E. Sir Charles Warren, G.C.M.G., K.C.B. Since that date they have been steadily improved, and now form one of the most charming features in the neighbourhood. Mr. A. R. Venning, late Federal Secretary, who took a prominent part in the formation of the gardens, has his name perpetuated in a road which runs through them. A plant-house contains about three hundred species of foliage and flowering plants, and quite recently a fern-house and an orchid-house have been added. The whole area of the gardens, about 187 acres, has been constituted by enactment a wild-bird reserve, whilst the lake has been stocked with fish specially imported from China. Overlooking the lake is "Carcosa," a large bungalow occupied by the Resident-General and until recently providing accommodation for his secretary. On the surrounding eminences are the bungalows of leading Government officials, and in the midst of the gardens is the Lake Club, taking its name from the Sydney Lake.

Situated near the Damansara Road entrance to the gardens is the Selangor State Museum, a new building of the Flemish order. It has a central hall from which run two main galleries. The removal from the old museum in Bukit Nanas Road took place in 1906. The exhibits include a very complete collection of birds found in the peninsula, a fine collection of Malayan krises, interesting ethnological examples, and the nucleus of a representative zoological collection. A library attached to the Museum contains several valuable publications.

Near the Museum is the road leading to the European Hospital, which, perched on the summit of a hillock, commands a view well calculated to induce idling among the part of the convalescent. There are two ways of returning to the town—one past the Museum and the cemetery, leaving the railway station on the right and the General Hospital and the American Episcopal Methodist Church on the left; the other, a devious route via Damansara Road and Swettenham Road, past the new quarters of the Agricultural Department, and skirting the hill on which stands the bungalow of the British Resident. The latter brings the visitor out near the little Church of St. Mary the Virgin, which provides Kuala Lumpur with a place where the "two or three" of the Established Church of England may gather together. It is a simple, unpretentious example of the Early English Gothic style, cruciform in plan, with a nave 87 feet by 28 feet and a chancel 29 feet by 22 feet, with octagonal end. It was built in 1894 and consecrated by the Bishop of the diocese early in the following
year, the Rev. F. W. Haines being the chaplain. The affairs of the church are managed by a chairman and a committee of six members elected by the congregation, and the chaplain, now the Rev. G. M. Thompson, is paid partly by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, partly by the Government, and partly by the voluntary offerings of the congregation. A Tamil missionary is also attached to the church.

From the Town Hall a drive may be taken along the Batu Road past the Institute of Medical Research and the District Hospital to the racecourse. Returning by another road, a turning to the rear of the Government buildings takes the visitor to the business part of the town, where he will be astonished to find what of stolid indifference. The principal games played are pooh, fan-tan, chop-ki-ki, and various card games.

In the vicinity of Weld Hill, on which stands the club of that name, are the golf links, with a well situated pavilion, the old rifle range, and the Law Courts; whilst on Bukit Nanas Hill are situated the headquarters of the Roman Catholic Mission in the neighbourhood, the Roman Catholic Church, and the new school, with accommodation for six hundred boys, known as St. John’s Institution.

Returning to High Street, past the Federal Dispensary, the Victoria Institute—an English school with about six hundred boys on the register—is reached, and on the opposite side of the road is the Chinese secretariat. In this repair of engines and rolling stock, and the famous Batu Caves. By road, the new rifle range near the new races course, the grand stand of which is now the Federal Home for Women, is within four miles of the town, whilst in another direction is the Malay Settlement, a unique experiment made by Government with a view to meeting unique conditions.

THE MALAY SETTLEMENT.

The original idea of the Malay Settlement at Kuala Lumpur was to establish an industrial school for the instruction of Malays in the manufacture of metal and silks, and to provide an industry for the Malay Settlement, a unique experiment made by Government with a view to meeting unique conditions.

The entrance to the Batu Caves.

A large proportion of the trade is done by Chinese. At night-time the streets are a sight to be remembered, but of all the recollections which the visitor will carry away with him, the most vivid will be those of the gambling shops legalised by the Government. Lit up with a fascinating brilliance, these popular places of resort are thronged with men intoxicatingly by the love for play, but so inured to the excitement that their faces wear a mask of stolid indifference. The principal games played are pooh, fan-tan, chop-ki-ki, and various card games.

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a stick is used to feel the way across. The main gallery runs on for some distance further, and enters a large open space, from which several directions may be taken. Whether the caves have ever been thoroughly explored it is not easy to say. In several places there are considerable drops, which can only be descended with the aid of a knotted rope fastened to some projection. In one of the galleries a narrow fissure beneath a mass of rock gives access to a rugged descent, at the far end of which is a shallow pit. Gaining the bottom of this pit by means of a rope, a dozen or so paces over swampy ground lead to what is, apparently, a fearful shaft, the depth of which can only be conjectured. "One, two, three, four," may be counted slowly before the third of a stone hurled into it is audible. At no point does the stone strike the sides of the shaft, and it is possible, if not probable, that the shaft may penetrate the roof of another immense cavern. Other galleries radiating from the large open space already referred to may be explored in turn, and, if a wavy line or some other mark is traced across the entrance to each, there need be no fear of covering the same ground twice or of leaving any gallery unvisited. Plenty of curious openings tempt the adventurous, many of them so slippery with wet guano that a rope is absolutely necessary to avert disaster. The caves are inhabited by bats, white snakes, loads, and insects, with probably a few of the smaller nocturnal carnivores. The loads are of extraordinary size; the snakes, which live on bats, attain a length of 6 feet, and not a few of the insects are rare and peculiar to the limestone caves of the peninsula. The bats fly in their thousands, and the floor of the caves is covered with beds of guano, in some places 6 feet or more in thickness. These flitting creatures fill the air with a subdued roar, as of the sound of many waters. The incessant noise is punctuated by the "chink, chink" of water, which, charged with carbonate, drips from the pendent stalactites on to their opposing stalagmites. Some of these formations are large and of great beauty.

At the foot of the hill—for the entrances to the caves described are about half-way up the cliff—a path leads to other caves, less extensive, but well worth visiting.

PERAK.

Perak, with an area of 6,555 square miles, is the largest of the Western States, and the most important commercially. It extends from 3° 37' to 6° 05' North latitude, and from 100° 3' to 101° 51' East longitude. Its boundaries are Province Wellesley, Kedah, and Kelantan on the north, Selangor on the south, and the Straits of Malacca on the west. The coast line extends for about 90 miles.

The rivers of the State are numerous, and, in general, are navigable for vessels of shallow draught. The Perak river, near the mouth of which stands the port of Teluk Anson, takes its rise in the northern hills and flows due south for the greater part of its course. It receives tributary from the Pusu, the Kinta, and the Batang Padang, all of which are deep enough to carry cargo boats, and during its course it flows through some of the loveliest scenery in the Federated Malay States, notably that surrounding Kuala Kangsia. The Bernam river, forming the southern boundary line of the State, is navigable for 100 miles to steamers of three or four hundred tons. A canal runs from Ulu Melintang, near the mouth of the river, to Teluk Anson. Other rivers which may be mentioned are the Dinding, Brua, Larut, Sipeleng, Kuran, and Krian rivers.

The uplands of Perak may be divided roughly into two main chains of mountains and a few detached groups of hills. The highest range is that which runs along the eastern boundary of the State and forms the watershed of the peninsula. Some of the peaks in this range attain an altitude of 7,000 feet. The other chain extends from the south of Larut to the northern boundary of the State, the highest points being Gunong Bubu (5,450 feet) and Gunong Inas (5,866 feet). These ranges enclose the basin of the Perak and Kinta rivers, which are separated by a smaller range of hills.

The geological formation of the State is primarily granitic; secondly, a large series of beds of gneiss, quartzite, schist, and sandstone is overlying many thick beds of crystalline limestone; thirdly, come small sheets of trap rock; and fourthly, river gravels and quaternary deposits. Much, however, remains to be known of the periods in which the Titanic upheavals responsible for the present configuration of the country took place. The scanty data available only permit of the surprise that they were of comparatively recent date. The main hills are composed almost entirely of granite. Some of the smaller hills are of limestone, and, as frequently is the case in this formation, are penetrated by numerous extensive caves of great beauty. The alluvial deposits, consisting chiefly of detritus from the older formation, are richly impregnated with tin and other metallic ores, including lead, iron, gold, silver, copper, zinc, arsenic, tungsten, manganese, bismuth, and titanium. Marble of good quality is abundant, and is worked to a limited extent in Ipoh.

THE LAKES.

The climate of Perak is by no means so trying to the European as that of many other countries at a greater distance from the equator. The temperature has approximately the same range as that of Selangor, varying in the low-lying country between 70° and 90° F. in the shade, with an average mean of from 80° to 85° F. The nights are always cool, with an average temperature of 70° F. In the hills at altitudes of 3,000 feet there is a considerable fall in the temperature, the average being 60° F. at night and 75° by day. The wettest months in the year are March, April, May, October, November, and December, but
these cannot be regarded as true rainy seasons. The average annual rainfall is about 90 inches. Perak is by far the most populous State in the Federation. In 1901, when the last census was taken, the population was returned as 323,663, and in 1906 it was estimated that this figure had increased to 413,000. The increase was largely amongst the Chinese. The number of aborigines in the State was returned as 7,982 at the last census. Perak compares favourably with other parts of the peninsula as regards general health. The State is divided into ten districts—Larut, Matang, Selama, Kinta, Krian, Kuala Kangsa, Lower Perak, Batang Padang, Upper Perak, and New Territory. The Federated Malay States trunk railway, with branch lines from Tapah Road and Tapah Town; whilst 602 miles of metalled roads, 87 miles of earth roads, 267 miles of bridle-paths, and 410 miles of other paths are available for vehicular and pedestrian traffic. Telephones and telegrams extend their service over 620 miles of line and 1,177 miles of wire, whilst the postal arrangements in the State are characterised by efficiency and despatch.

Tapling to Port Weld and from Tapah Road to Teluk Anson, forms the chief means of transport. It is supplemented by a motor service between Temoh and Chanderiang and between the 1,365,500 dollars less than in 1905. The revenue in 1876 was only 273,043 dollars, and the expenditure 280,476 dollars. The enormous wealth of the State is shown by the fact that the value of the merchandise exported in 1866 was 41,200,778 dollars. The exports included tin to the value of 37,234,126 dollars and sugar to the value of 1,044,564 dollars, this latter sum being little short of that for the whole of the exports in 1877, viz., 1,075,423 dollars. The chief sources of revenue are the export duty on tin, which yielded 5,433,709 dollars, as compared with 1,541,447 dollars in 1896 and 140,262 dollars in 1877; and licences, which brought in 2,709,375 dollars. The financial returns show excess assets amounting to 16,721,065 dollars.

The principal industries are, of course, tin mining and agriculture, and, while Selangor takes precedence in regard to the output of rubber, Perak exports far more tin and tin ore, 435,008 piculs, of the approximate value of 38,500,000 dollars, being the quantity sent out of the State during 1896. A total area of 146,024 acres has been alienated for mining purposes, whilst the industry gives employment to 107,057 coolies, whose labours are augmented by machinery representing a force of 39,000 men.

Of 364,303 acres devoted to agricultural products, about 20,800 have been planted with rubber, and during 1906 the quantity of rubber exported was 1,121 piculs, of the value of 316,831 dollars. The other articles of export include areca-nuts, blachan, coffee, copra, dry and salt fish, hides, indigo, padi, pepper, pigs, rice, sugar, and tapioca. Imports, of the value of 21,710,689 dollars, consisted of live animals, food, drink, and narcotics—together representing two-thirds of the total—raw materials, manufactured articles, and sundries. The State spends nearly 4,000,000 dollars annually on rice, but, as a supply to meet the local demand might easily be raised in the country, the Government is doing its utmost to encourage padi cultivation. Taiping, situated in the Larut district, is the capital of the State, the seat of the British Resident, and the headquarters of the Malay States Guides. It contains the principal Government buildings, a Museum which is one of the most complete of its kind in existence, and a large prison which has lately been converted into a convict establishment for the whole of the Federated Malay States. The Perak and New
THE CENTRAL POLICE STATION.
THE OLD GOVERNMENT OFFICES.
THE RESIDENCY.
THE HOSPITAL.
THE HOUSE OF THE SECRETARY TO THE RESIDENT.
THE NEW GOVERNMENT OFFICES.
TUPAI TAIPING, 1879, FROM THE OLD RESIDENCY.

KOTA ROAD.

PONTOON BRIDGE OVER THE PERAK RIVER AT ENGOOR.

THE FIRST BRITISH STATION IN THE KINTA IN 1879 AT PENHAKALEN PEGU, NEAR IPOH.
ABOUT IPOH TOWN.

The Residency.
The Chinese Protectorate.
The Railway Station.

The Malay Kampong.
Leech Street.
SCENE NEAR IPOH.

THE CAVES.

THE HOT SPRINGS.

VIEWS OF TELUK ANSON.

THE COURT HOUSE.

THE TREASURY.

THE CLOCK AND WATER TOWER.
Chiefs exist in friendly rivalry, and have in the paddang, which they overlook, a spacious playground. The extensive public gardens are a popular resort, and there are good golf links situated amidst delightful surroundings. The climate is somewhat enervating, but relief is to be had in the sanitarium known as "The Ten Gardens" and "Maxwell's Hill," situated in the range of hills above the town at elevations of 2,500 and 3,500 feet respectively. It is interesting to note that the first railway in Perak was that constructed between Port Weld and Taiping in 1881, some eight years subsequent to the British occupation. The name of Taiping, which means "Grand Peace," is reminiscent of the pacific settlement of the faction troubles amongst the Chinese which led up to that occupation. In 1879 a regular battle was fought in what was then Gelumong, and 2,000 lives are said to have been lost. Sir Andrew Clarke, then Governor of the Straits Settlements, succeeded in reconciling the rival leaders, and the name of "Taiping" was bestowed on the place. The population of Taiping was returned at 13,331 when the census was taken in 1901, but there has been a gradual increase since that date, and a certain danger of overcrowding exists. The town has an excellent supply of good water and is well lighted.

Ipoh, by far the most prosperous town in the State, lies in the heart of the Kinta valley, the richest mining district in Malaya.

**SELANGOR.**

Though ranking next to Perak in commercial importance, Selangor takes precedence of the neighbouring States by reason of being the seat of the Government of the Federation. It has an area of about 3,200 square miles, and is situated on the western side of the Malay Peninsula. Its boundaries are Perak on the north, Pahang on the east, the Negri Sambilan on the southeast, and the Straits of Malacca on the west and southwest. It extends from 2° 33' S. North latitude to 3° 48' 40" S., and from 100° 40' 57" E. East longitude to 102° 0' 57" E.

It is well watered. The Burnam river, which marks the northern boundary of the State, takes its rise in the range overlooking Tanjong Malim; the Selangor river drains the Ulu Selangor; and the Klang river runs through Kuala Lumpur and the extensive rubber country in the Klang district. The Klang river is the only river readily accessible to vessels of deep draught, and Port Swettenham, situated at its mouth, has in consequence every promise of a prosperous future.

From the chain of granite hills which forms the backbone of the peninsula the geological formation ranges through quartzite, schists, limestone, sandstones, and clay-slates to peaty swamps. Extensive alluvial deposits of tin are found inland, the ore occurring in the form of tin oxide. If the phrase may be permitted, the country is saturated with tin, there being hardly any formation in which it is not be found. Iron occurs in large quantities in laterite formations, but cannot be worked at a profit owing to the absence of coal. The low-lying lands are rich in peaty loam, so admirably adapted for agricultural purposes that the vast acreages alienated for rubber are being added to almost daily.

Selangor possesses a climate of uniform temperature, with a mean of 70° F., by night and 87° F., in the shade by day. On the hills, at an altitude of 5,000 feet, the thermometer registers about ten degrees less by night and fourteen less by day. The rainfall is large, and is fairly evenly distributed throughout the year. In the hilly inland districts it varies from 100 to 200 inches, and in the low-lying country from 70 to 100 inches per annum.

The State is divided into six districts—Kuala Lumpur, Ulu Selangor, Klang, Kuala Langat, Kuala Selangor, and Ulu Langat, with an estimated total population of 283,609, as compared with 168,789 shown in the census return of 1901. The birth-rate in 1906 was 97.44, or slightly less than in the preceding year, while the death-rate was 26.756, as compared with 29.725 in 1905—a satisfactory indication that the general sanitation of populous centres is improving and that the Government appreciates the necessity for the strict supervision of immigrants.

There are well-made roads between the principal towns in the State, including 434 miles of metallic cart-roads, 63 miles of gravelled roads, 57 miles of earth-roads, and facilities for travel. Telegraphic and telephonic communication is maintained over 351 miles of line and 844 miles of wire.

The principal sources of income are land, customs, and licences. The total revenue amounted in 1906 to 9,803,184 dollars, as compared with 8,857,901 dollars in 1905 and 193,476 dollars in 1876. The principal headings of expenditure are personal emoluments and other charges, public works, and federal charges, the total amounting in 1906 to
of the State under British rule, but this prosperity is shown in more detail by a comparison of the land revenue in 1906, when 342,011 dollars was realised, with that of 1878, when the receipts from this source were only 1,326 dollars. In ten years the receipts from licences were trebled, and those from customs rose from 1,866,664 dollars to 4,281,176 dollars. Land sales, which have only of recent years been treated as a separate item, realised 86,986 dollars in 1901 and 212,613 dollars in 1906, whilst in the same period forest revenue increased from 42,751 dollars to 155,025 dollars. In 1880 the postal and telegraph receipts were 27 dollars, and in 1906 they were 154,241 dollars. The export duty on tin brought in 3,357,033 dollars during 1906, as compared with 111,020 dollars in 1878, or, to take a more recent figure, with 1,377,335 dollars in 1896.

The assets of the State are valued at 18,832,351 dollars, and the liabilities at 308,705 dollars, testifying to a condition of financial soundness scarcely equalled anywhere in the world. The expenditure on capital account incurred by the State up to the end of 1906 was 12,032,592 dollars. Out of 2,082,382 dollars expended on public works during 1906, 1,173,413 dollars came under the heading of special services, and included 270,180 dollars for new roads and 29,873 dollars for bridge construction, showing how keenly alive the Government are to the needs of the country.

Without going into further figures—for an article on “Finance” appears elsewhere—reference must now be made to the chief industries carried on in Selangor, and to its trade in general.

Tin mining and agriculture are the staple industries. The former is chiefly in the hands of the Chinese, though of late years a large amount of European capital has been profitably invested in mining shares. The industry gives employment to about 71,249 labourers—not so large a number as in 1895, owing to the increased use of machinery. The mining revenue is steadily increasing, and realised 3,357,033 dollars in 1906, the amount of tin and ore exported being valued at 238,312,200 dollars. The latest available returns give a total area of 68,000 acres of land alienated for mining purposes, the principal mines being in the neighbourhood of Kuala Lumpur.

Foremost among the agricultural enterprises of the State is rubber growing. The Government has exerted itself to the utmost in the matter of offering facilities to planters, reaping in return an enormous accession of revenue, with a promise of still larger returns within the next few years. During 1906 60,068 acres of agricultural land were alienated, bringing the total up to 310,000. The Land Offices have been busy dealing with innumerable applications for rubber country, the revenue derived during the year amounting to upwards of half a million dollars, against 346,360 dollars in 1905 and 322,163 dollars in 1904. The quantity exported during 1906 was 67,410,000 lbs., of the value of 1,234,328 dollars, on which duty was paid to the amount of 20,386 dollars.

The total area under coconuts at the close of 1906 was estimated at 19,210 acres, and 12,720 pints of copra of the value of 43,828 dollars were exported. The most suitable districts for coconuts lie along the coast, and in the hands of skilled cultivators the industry is most profitable.

Padi, or rice, is grown extensively in some parts of the State, notably in the Klang district, but that it by no means supplies the demand may be seen from the fact that rice to the value of 4,154,592 dollars was imported in 1906.

Coffee cultivation is decreasing. The value of the 1906 export was 523,301 dollars, against 684,422 dollars in the previous year. The chief reason is that rubber is fast supersed ing the product, coffee being now planted rather as a catch-crop than as a staple. Areca-nuts to the value of 26,064 dollars, pepper to the value of 55,675 dollars, and vegetables to the value of 53,185 dollars were exported during 1906, the last two items showing a marked decrease as compared with the figures for the preceding year. No tapioca was exported.

The total exports from Selangor during 1906 were valued at 26,613,302 dollars, an increase of 343,258 dollars over the total for the preceding twelve months.

Kuala Lampor, the capital of the State, is described in detail under a separate heading.
The chief towns in the Ulu Selangor district are Kuala Kubu, Serendah, Kiawang, Isu, Ulu Yam, Rham, and Kelumpong. The principal occupation of the inhabitants is mining, for which 19,960 acres have been opened up, and 144,300 acres remain available. An area of 55,839 acres has been taken up for rubber planting and general agriculture. Kuala Kubu, which lies on the main line, at a distance of 39 miles from Kuala Lumpur, is a growing, prosperous town of from 3,000 to 4,000 inhabitants.

A motor-bus service in connection with the Federated Malay States Railway runs from Kuala Lumpur, and passes "The Gap," where a Government bungalow invites the traveller to stay awhile. Another hill-station is situated on Bukit Kiu, commonly known as "Treacher's Hill," after a former British Resident of Selangor. There are two bungalows 1,404 feet above sea-level, and the temperature is refreshing to the jaded plain-dweller, whilst the sight of familiar flowers and vegetables is a pleasant relief after the tropical luxuriance of the lowlands. The district is traversed by 85 miles of metalled roads, 15 miles of gravelled roads, and 28 miles of bridle-paths.

Kajang, the principal town in the Ulu Langat district, is 15 miles to the south-west of Kuala Lumpur by rail. It is a mining centre, and latterly a considerable acreage in the neighbourhood has been placed under Para rubber. Not far from Kajang are the sulphur springs at Dusun Tua, with a Government bungalow for the accommodation of Government officials and other Europeans. The remaining towns in the district are Ulu Langat, Cheran, Senen, and Beranang, near the Negri Sam-
NEGRI SAMBILAN.

The Negri Sambilan, or Nine States, originally consisted of Klang, which has now been absorbed into the State of Selangor, Sungai Ujong, Jelebu, Sri Menanti, Rembau, Johor, Jempol, Inas, and Gemencheh. The territory now known as the Negri Sambilan comprises an area of about 2,600 square miles, extending from latitude 2° 24' North to latitude 3° 11' North, and from longitude 101° 50' East to longitude 102° 45' East. It is, roughly, pentagonal in shape, its boundaries being Selangor, Pahang, Johore, Malacca, and the Straits of Malacca. The coastline extends for 30 miles.

In its physical geography and geology the State resembles Selangor. The main range of mountains forms practically a part of that which traverses the whole length of the peninsula. It extends from Jelebu in a southerly direction for 20 miles, and then turns to the south-east as far as the Malacca boundary. The principal peaks are the Telapak Berok (a little less than 4,000 feet), the Gunong Angsi (2,505 feet), and the Gunong Tampin (1,600 feet). The range forms a watershed in which several rivers have their source. The largest of these, the Muar river, runs through Kuala Pilah, and on through Johore into the Straits of Malacca. Its tributaries are the Jelei, Jempol, Johol,
for administrative purposes—the Coast, Seremban, Jelebu, Kuala Pilah, and Tampin. The roads are generally good, and considerable extensions are in progress, including a road from Kuala Pilah to the Pahang boundary to meet the Bentong road.

The town of Seremban, the capital of the Negri Sembilan and the seat of local administration, is a prosperous planting and mining centre, with a population of about five thousand inhabitants, nearly all of whom are Chinese. The Government offices and buildings are less imposing than those of the other Western States, but a handsome new Residency has recently been built.

The general sanitary condition of the town is satisfactory, and there will be an ample supply of good water when the works, now in course of construction, are completed. There are excellent schools and up-to-date hospital accommodation. The European section of the community consists mainly of civil servants, planters, and mining men, and their bungalows are perched on the eminences surrounding the town. For their benefit there are two social and several recreative clubs, cricket, football, tennis, golf, and billiards being the chief pastimes.

At Sri Menengkong, on Gunong Angsi, at a height of 2,026 feet above sea-level, is a hill sanitarium for Europeans.

Port Dickson, the principal town in the Coast District, is 25 miles by road from Seremban. About 76,714 acres have been alienated in the district for agricultural and mining purposes, but the mining is, comparatively speaking, negligible. Para rubber is coming to be the chief product; till now the staples have been tapioca, gambier, and pepper. An important native industry is that of hat-making. About five thousand hats are exported yearly—a larger number than from any other district of the Federated Malay States. The shipping of the port is showing a slight tendency to decrease, owing to the competition of the railway.

A Government bungalow at Port Dickson, open to the European public, is a popular resort; the air is salubrious, and there are excellent bathing facilities.

Jelebu is a mountainous district. The chief town, Kuala Klawang, is about 25 miles by road from Seremban. Mining is carried on in the district, for the most part on a small scale, by handfuls of Chinese. The famous banyan tree at Jelebu is an object of great veneration amongst the Malays, who regard it as a kramat, or sacred tree. Tradition ascribes great age to it, and the hill on which it stands was used as a burial ground upwards of two hundred years ago. The graves of Tuan Kathi, the head priest of that time, and his wife are still to be seen.

In point of size, Kuala Pilah, the centre of the district of that name, is the second town in importance in the State. It is 26 miles from Seremban by road, and lies near the route of the proposed Pahang extension of the Federated Malay States Railway. The Martin Lister Memorial at Kuala Pilah—a photograph of which appears on page 279—is probably the only public tribute ever paid by the Chinese community to a civil servant in the State.

Tampin is noted for the fact that large areas are worked by Malays for agricultural purposes. Nowhere in the Federated Malay States are more regular, systematic, and successful methods of culture adopted by the people indigenous to the country.
VIEWS IN SEREMBAN.
1. THE GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS.
2. THE RESIDENCY.
3. THE COURT HOUSE.
4. THE RESIDENCY GROUNDS.
THE MAIN STREET OF KUALA PILAH.

THE MARTIN LISTER MEMORIAL AT KUALA PILAH.

PORT DICKSON.
PAHANG.

The principal river in the State is the Pahang river, swollen by the waters of the Tembeling and Jelai rivers. These in turn receive tributary from numerous streams. Into the Tembeling flow the Sungai Tahan, the Sungai Kendiam, the Sungai Jentoh, the Sungai Benas, the Sungai Tckal, and others; whilst the Jelai receives the Telom, Serau, Tenom, Kechau, and Lipis rivers and numerous lesser tributaries. Other main feeders of the Pahang river are the Semantan river, which brings down the waters of the Sungai Bentong and Sungai Bilat; the Sungai Triang and Sungai Bera, which flow from the hills on the Negri Sambilan boundary; and the Sungai Lui and Sungai Lepar, which rise in the uplands of the Kuantan district.

The Pahang is navigable for shallow draught steamers only. Owing to its sandy bed and to the absence of rapids it may be navigated with safety by small cargo boats. The Rompin, which also flows into the China Sea, has six feet of water above the bar at low tide, and there is deep water for nearly a hundred miles of its course. The Kuantan river rises in the Trengganu district, whilst the Endau forms the boundary between Pahang and the State of Johore.

Geologically, the formation of Pahang is granite in the western mountain range, and runs through slate, sandstone, and a conglomerate series to the plains. It is interesting to note the difference between the tin-bearing stratum in Pahang and that on the other side of the range. In Selangor and Perak by far the larger proportion of the workings are

THE HON. MR. CECIL WRAY.
(British Resident, Pahang.)

THE total area of the Federated Malay States is 16,280 square miles, and of this area more than one-half, namely, 14,000 square miles, is comprised in the State of Pahang. This State is bounded on the north by the Siamese Malay States, Kelantan and Trengganu; on the east by the China Sea; on the south by Johore and the Negri Sambilan; and on the west by Perak and Selangor. It lies between latitudes 2° 30' and 4° 50' N., and longitudes 101° 30' and 103° 40' E. Parallel to the coast line, which measures 130 miles, run two chains of islands—the largest ten miles by five—which are included in the territory. By far the larger portion of the State is still covered with virgin jungle, in which elephants, seladangs, rhinoceroses, tigers, deer, and wild pigs roam almost unmolested, for only sportsmen of means and ample leisure can undertake their pursuit. The rivers abound with crocodile, snipe, and waders.

The physical formation of the country may best be understood by a glance at a map of the Malay Peninsula. Along the western boundary runs a ridge of granite hills, attaining in places a height of 7,000 feet. In the northern highlands the Gunong Tahan, 7,950 feet, is the culminating peak of a number of spurs. Through the intervening valleys run the tributaries of the Tembeling and Jelai rivers, which commingle in the plains below to form the broad Pahang river. The next highest summit is that in which the Semantan river takes its rise. Other summits are Gunong Benom (6,000 feet) and Bukit Rakia, in the western hills; Gunong Kenering and Gunong Rakau in the north; Gunong Pallas in the east, from which runs the formidable chain of hills dividing the Tembeling and Kuantan districts; and Gunong Gayong in the south, from which the Sungai Rompin flows.
VIEWS IN PAHANG.

Sorting Fish on the Beach, Besrah.
On the Kuantan River.

Limestone Mountain on the Kuantan River.

Tuba Fishing in the Pahang River.
Sungei Pahut, Pekan.
VIEWS IN PAHANG.

RAUB.

THE BRITISH RESIDENCY, KUALA LIPIS.

THE REST-HOUSE AT RAUB.

TRAS VILLAGE.

THE MOTOR GARAGE AT RAUB.
lombong; that is to say, they are alluvial deposits lying beneath many feet of overburden, as the word means, and of which the ore is won from alluvial washings. As explained briefly in reference to the older States, the rich alluvial deposits there were the result of deposition from the monsoon formation. In Pahang there has been less detritus, with the result that there is less alluvial line and less overburden. But while the lombongs in Pahang are poor, the lumps are exceedingly rich; the tin is high up in the range, most of the paying mines being at elevations of close upon 2,000 feet. One can see from this that the future prosperity of the State, if it ever has any great prosperity, will be derived from the treatment of lode ore by means of crushing machinery. This applies to the Ulu districts. Kuantan is an exception to the rule; its geological formation differs entirely from that of the other districts. Tin is found in lode formation, and in this locality are the deepest underground mines in the Peninsula.

After leaving the granite formation the State country is reached, and here, in the centre line of the State, it is found. Between the auriferous chain and Kuantan lies an enormous tract of country which is only of value for agricultural purposes.

Pahang possesses a warm, moist climate, free from extremes of temperature, and differs from the Western States in that it has seasons governed by the monsoons. The rainfall averages from 350 to 175 inches a year, the wettest period falling between November and February, when the north-east monsoon prevails. The heavy rains are usually followed by floods. The thermometer shows a mean annual temperature of about 75° F. or 80° F., and the climate is usually tolerable compared to the general principles of hygiene requisite to residence in the tropics, live in tolerable comfort.

The State is thinly populated. In 1901 a census returned the number of inhabitants as 84,113. To-day it is estimated to be about 100,000, an average of seven persons to the square mile. There are between seven and eight thousand aborigines in Pahang, the Lipis valley, parts of Temerloh and the Pekan district being their chief strongholds.

Means of communication in the State are scanty, but are being extended as rapidly as resources permit. There are 122 miles of road, 5 miles of gravelled roads, 86 miles of earth roads, 284 miles of bridle-paths, and 145 miles of other paths. From Kuala Kubu, in Selangor, there is an excellent road through Tras, Raub, and Benta to Kuala Lipis, the administrative capital of the State. From Tras a road to Bentong opens up a rich tin country, and will, when the road through the Sempak Pass is completed, give an alternative route to Kuala Lumpur, the federal capital. An important highway will be the Kuantan-Benta road, a continuation of the trunk route across the State from west to east. The line for this road has been found, and now only requires tracing. The Kuantan-Lepar road, which will give access to the tin mines in the Blat valley, is nearing completion, and a road from Kuala Pilah, in Negri Sambian, to Bentong is being rapidly pushed forward. Other than those enumerated, the only transport facilities at present are those afforded by the rivers and their tributaries; some are navigable for cargo-boats and steamers of light draught, with tiny accessions of small rambutan, capers, and sambals. In time, however, will come the railway. Already the permanent survey between Gemas, in Negri Sambian, and Kuala Lipis has been completed, and a commencement will soon be made with this extension. From Kuala Lipis, two major surveys have been carried out. The first runs due north to Kuantan Tembeling, roughly following the course of the Pahang river; and the second bears to the westward along the north-western coast to Kuala Lipis and Bentong. The first line, if made, will form part of the main trunk railway, starting from Gemas and running to the east of the Gunong Tahan massif, the main central range; the second, it has been decided, is unsuitable for a main trunk line, but may be carried out as a branch line to Bentong. The third major survey runs from Kuala Semantan to Kuantan, and this railway, if made, will form a branch line to the sea-port there. It will necessitate the bridging of the Pahang river by a structure of six spans, each of 150 feet. There are 76 miles of telegraph wire and 85 miles of telephone wire in the State.

H.H. SIR AHMAD MAATHAM SHAH’IBINI ALMERHUM ALI, K.C.M.G., SULTAN OF PAHANG, AND FOLLOWERS.

The revenue of the State for 1906 amounted to 66,718 dollars, and the expenditure to 1,574,435 dollars, as compared with 1,254,325 dollars and 1,208,176 dollars respectively in 1905, and with 62,077 and 207,002 dollars in 1890. The expenses of administration are borne chiefly by advances from the neighbouring States, the loan account at the end of 1906 showing 4,360,988 dollars due to Selangor and 1,574,435 dollars due to Perak. These loans are free of interest, and no period of repayment has been fixed. The principal heads of revenue in the financial statement for 1906 include: Land revenue, 78,320 dollars; customs, 206,051 dollars; and licences, &c., 147,907 dollars. Under expenditure the heaviest item was that of 465,072 dollars for roads, streets, and bridges (special services).

The trade returns show on the whole a gradual improvement. In 1906 the value of the exports was 3,770,345 dollars. To this total tin contributed not less than 3,000,124 dollars, the duty paid on it amounting to 270,652 dollars. Gold is exported more largely than any other State in the Federation, and amounted to 102,828 oz., valued at 367,817 dollars. A considerable trade is carried on in dry and salt fish. Other articles of export are attap, tapioca, and lampans. The acreage under rubber at the close of the year was approximately 12,000 acres, although only two years previously there were but 243 acres under this product. The imports during the twelve months under review were worth 1,104,021 dollars. The State is divided into five districts for administrative purposes: Kuantan, Kuantan, Raub, Lipis, Temerloh. The relative importance of these is shown by a comparison of the revenue derived from each district. Lipis contributed 141,257 dollars, Raub 252,546 dollars, Temerloh 16,589 dollars, Pekan 53,711 dollars, and Kuantan 150,084 dollars: and if it be borne in mind that a sum of 122,823 dollars, for farm revenue, credited to Lipis as being the headquarters, three-quarters belongs properly to Raub and the remaining quarter to Kuantan—the districts where Chinese are most largely employed—it will at once be apparent that Raub and Kuantan are by far the most important districts in the State.

Kuala Lipis, the capital, was formerly of some commercial importance as the centre of the gold mining district. Now, all the gold mines in the neighbourhood have closed down, and it has dwindled to a town of five or six hundred inhabitants, only notable because it is at present the seat of local administration. The chief Government offices are situated at Kuala Lipis; and there is a hospital, a gaol, a rest-house, and vernacular schools in the district. The town is the terminus of the motor service from Kuala Lumpur; beyond the small holdings owned by natives there is practically no planting industry in the district.

In Raub, which is 45 miles by road from Kuala Lumpur, to be found the only gold mine now working in the State. This mine is situated on a property of about 12,000 acres with a proved lode of nearly five miles. It is worked almost entirely by electricity generated at a station on the banks of the Sempan river, the power being transmitted through the jungle a distance of 75 miles to Bukit Koman, the headquarters of the mine, two miles from the town. Not only are the pumps and hoists motor-driven, but the shafts and the houses are lit by electricity. It is curious to see native attap huts illuminated by this means, in a place where elephants are employed to carry the ore to the town—to note the contrast between civilisation and jungle life. Of course, the more important industry is tin mining, the district showing an output for 1906 of 18,201 tons of solids, of which quantity Bentong was responsible for two-thirds. The demand for land is great, and the revenue from this source shows a steady increase. There are ten vernacular
schools, and both Government and privately owned hospitals in the district.

Bentong is rapidly growing in importance, and when direct communication is opened up with Selangor and Negri Sembilan it should have a considerable access of prosperity.

Kuantan is regarded by many as the coming district of Pahang. It possesses vast mineral wealth, and contains good agricultural land, for which there is an increasing demand. Most of its tin export during 1906 came from the Blat valley, in which neighbourhood are some of the largest mining concessions in the State.

Kuala Kuantan is the only port of any real value in the State. It is situated, as its name implies, near the estuary of the Kuantan river, and has commercial potentialities which are certain to be utilised to the fullest extent as soon as an enhanced revenue justifies the necessary expenditure. The Kuantan river is navigable for cargo boats, and forms the interior route to the Ulu district.

Tembeling, the point to which one of the trial surveys for the trunk railway has been carried, is noted for its earthenware; incidentally it may be mentioned that the potter's wheel is as yet unknown.

Pekan, the principal town in the district of that name, was originally the capital of the State, and is still the seat of the Sultan of Pahang, who holds his State Council there. Pekan is noted for its mat-making and sarong-weaving industries, which are carried on by the Malays. Seven miles down the river stands Kuala Pahang, of little value as a port except for shallow-draught steamers.

JOHORE.

The State of Johore occupies the southernmost portion of the Malay Peninsula. It embraces about nine thousand square miles. On the north it adjoins Malacca, Negri Sembilan, and Pahang; on the south it is separated from Singapore Island by the Strait of Johore; and on the east and west it is washed by the sea. The territory is still covered to a great extent with virgin jungle, and can only be traversed by indifferent roads. As a whole, the country is less mountainous than any other part of the peninsula. The Blumut Hills (3,180 feet) are the principal mountain group, and Mount Ophir, which is over 4,000 feet high, is the highest peak in the State. The three largest rivers are the Muar, in the north, the Endau on the east, and the Johore in the south.

The first of these is the most important stream in the southern part of the Malay Peninsula.

The main products of Johore are gambier, pepper, sago, tapioca, and rubber. The mineral wealth of the country has not yet been exploited, but tin mining is carried on in

peans with conspicuous success, especially in Muar, the north-western portion of the State. A railway running from north to south is now under construction, and when completed will connect Singapore with the Federated Malay States trunk line, and thus establish through

rail communication between Singapore and Pinang.

Johore is an independent State, ruled by his Highness Ibrahim, Sultan of Johore, D.K., S.P.M.J., K.C.M.G., who came to the throne ten years ago. In the government of his country he is assisted by a Council of State, consisting of ministers and chiefs. This Council also forms the High Court of Appeal. The form of government is akin to an absolute monarchy, and is in accordance with a co-

THE MOSQUE, AND VIEWS OF JOHORE FROM THE FORT.
TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS OF BRITISH MALAYA

The annual revenue of the State is $1,500,000, derived principally from import duties and opium and gambling. Johore Bharu, the principal centre of commerce and the seat of government, is a thriving little town with about 20,000 inhabitants situated opposite the island of Singapore. It is easy of access from the town of Singapore, the 15-mile rail and ferryboat journey occupying about an hour. As seen from Woodlands, the northern terminus of the Singapore railway, it presents a very attractive appearance. Along the sea-front is a broad well-made road, backed for a short distance by a row of substantial buildings, of which the Johore Hotel is the most notable. Over the calm, sunlit waters of the Strait glide picturesque native craft of varying sizes, with their brown sails silhouetted against the sky. Immediately behind the town rise verdure clad slopes, and further inland appears the shadowy outline of high hills. Johore Bharu forms a popular Sunday resort for Singapore people. Its chief places of interest are the Sultan's Istana (palace), the Abubakar mosque—one of the most imposing and beautiful buildings devoted to the Mahometan religion in the Far East—and the gambling saloons, in which a polygenous crowd may always be met trying their luck at the Chinese games poh and fan-tan. The attendance is especially numerous on Sundays, when train-loads of people representative of every class of society in Singapore flock into the town. The Sultan draws a considerable portion of his revenue from the Chinese kongsee which runs the gambling farms.

Besides the capital, the only other township in the State worthy of note is Muar situated at the mouth of the Muar river in the north-western province of the State. Along the banks of this river are the bulk of the gambier, pepper, rubber and rubber produced in the State is grown. Muar is the centre of administration for a district embracing about 2,000 square miles and containing 50,000 inhabitants, and is the chief port of the State. A daily service of steamers runs between Muar and Singapore, and road and telephonic connection between Muar and Malacca, 27 miles away, is shortly to be established.

The Sultan of Johore is a travelled, active, and enlightened ruler. With the example of the Federated Malay States before him, he is doing much to encourage the development of his country, which in the near future is likely to share in the prosperity enjoyed by its neighbours.

His Highness Ibrahim, Sultan of the Independent State of Johore, is the eldest son of the late Sultan Abubakar, G.C.M.G., K.C.S.I., and was born on September 17, 1873. He was proclaimed King on September 7, 1895, and was crowned two months later. Although he has not had the advantage of a European education, he is nevertheless remarkably conversant with European affairs, and adopts the manners, customs, and fashions of Western civilisation. He takes a close personal interest in the administration of his country, but even the active supervision of the various State departments does not absorb the whole of his energy, for he finds time to superintend the management of several rubber estates of which he is the owner.
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