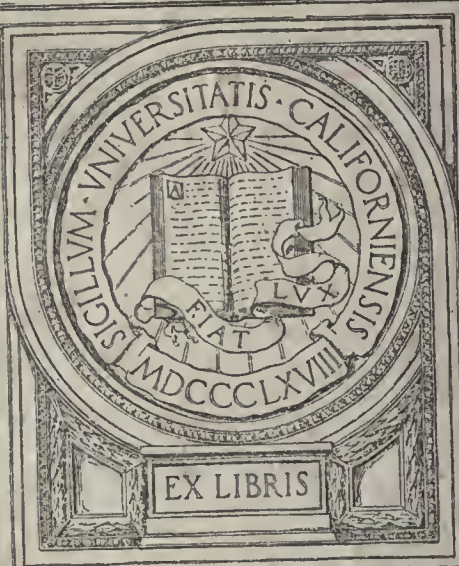
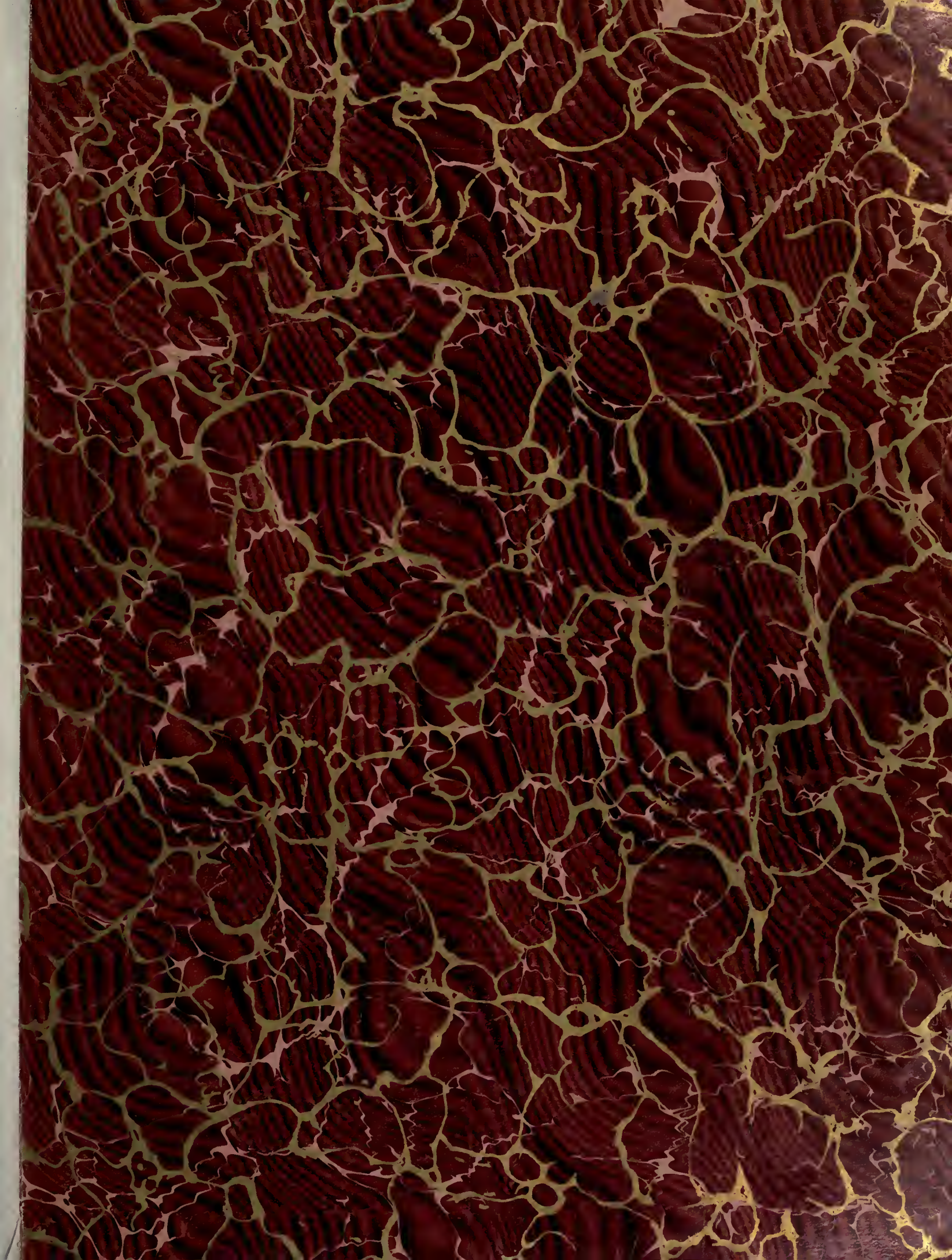




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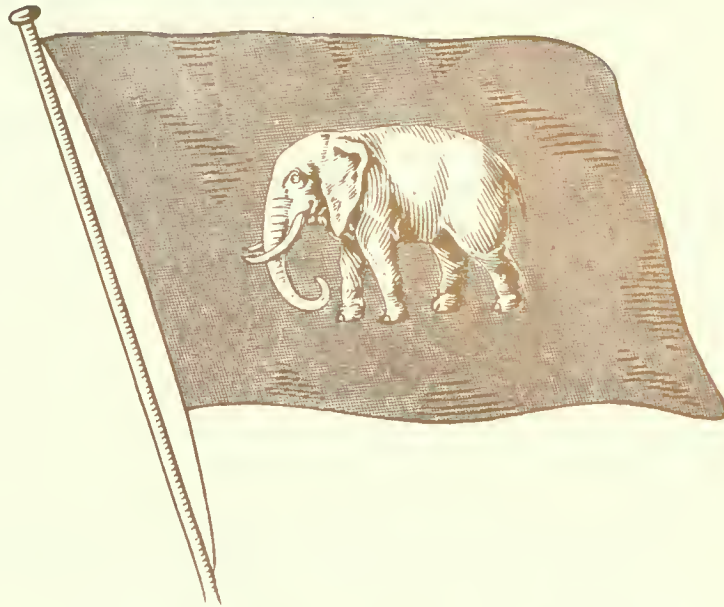
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# Twentieth Century Impressions

of

Siam:

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ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE,  
INDUSTRIES, AND RESOURCES

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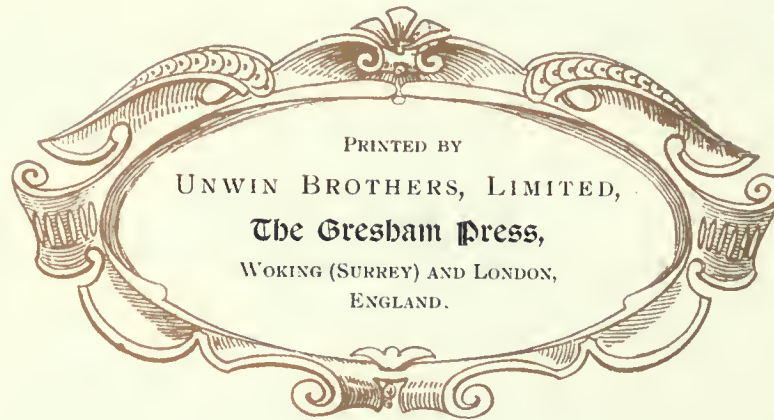
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*Carpet*



H.M. SOMDETECH PHRA PARAMENDR MAHA CHULALONGKORN, KING OF SIAM.



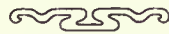
H.M. THE QUEEN OF SIAM.

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## INTRODUCTORY NOTE



*T*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.

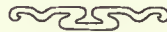
In the present volume, while due regard has been paid to historical claims, no trouble has been spared to give a true picture of Siam as it exists at the present day. There are articles showing how the country is being administered and what advance has been made under the wise and beneficent rule of 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 centring 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.



# CONTENTS



	PAGE
HISTORY. BY ARNOLD WRIGHT . . . . .	15
THE ROYAL FAMILY . . . . .	87
CONSTITUTION AND LAW—	
THE CONSTITUTION . . . . .	91
SIAMESE LAW: OLD AND NEW. BY T. MASAO, D.C. LL.D, <i>Senior Legal Adviser to H.S.M.'s Government and Judge of H.S.M.'s Supreme Court of Appeal</i> . . . . .	91
THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE. BY W. A. G. TILLEKE, <i>Acting Attorney-General</i> . . . . .	94
DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR REPRESENTATIVES . . . . .	97
THE ARMY AND NAVY—	
THE ARMY. BY MAJOR LUANG BHUVANARTH NARUBAL, <i>Chief of General Staff</i> . . . . .	101
THE NAVY . . . . .	105
POLICE AND PROVINCIAL GENDARMERIE—	
THE POLICE. BY ERIC ST. JOHN LAWSON, <i>Commissioner of Police, Bangkok</i> . . . . .	107
THE PROVINCIAL GENDARMERIE . . . . .	110
FINANCE. BY W. J. F. WILLIAMSON, <i>Financial Adviser to the Government of Siam</i> . . . . .	112
ROYAL SURVEY WORK. BY R. W. GIBLIN, F.R.G.S., <i>Director of the Royal Survey Department</i> . . . . .	121
HEALTH AND HOSPITALS—	
CLIMATE AND HEALTH OF BANGKOK. BY DR. H. CAMPBELL HIGHER, <i>Fellow of the Royal Institute of Public Health and Principal Medical Officer, Local Government, Siam</i> . . . . .	128
THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC HEALTH. BY MORDEN CARTHEW, M.B., B.Ch., Edin., <i>Acting Medical Officer of Health for Bangkok</i> . . . . .	132
IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND SHIPPING. BY NORMAN MAXWELL, <i>Principal of the Statistical Office of H.S.M.'s Customs</i> . . . . .	135
RICE. BY A. E. STIVEN, <i>Manager of the Borneo Company, Ltd., Rice Mill, Bangkok</i> . . . . .	144
THE TEAK INDUSTRY. BY A. J. C. DICKSON . . . . .	170
MINES AND MINING ADMINISTRATION. BY JOHN H. HEAL, R.S.M., F.G.S., <i>Inspector-General of the Royal Department of Mines and Geology</i> . . . . .	182
ENGINEERING. BY C. LAMONT GROUNDWATER, M.I.E.E. . . . .	186
MEANS OF COMMUNICATION—	
RIVERS, ROADS, AND CANALS. BY J. HOMAN VAN DER HEIDE, <i>Director-General of the Royal Irrigation Department</i> . . . . .	199
RAILWAYS . . . . .	202
POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS . . . . .	204



	PAGE
ECCLESIASTICAL—	
BUDDHISM. BY O. FRANKFURTER, Ph.D., <i>Chief Librarian of the National Library, Bangkok</i> . . . . .	207
THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH . . . . .	214
THE PROTESTANT CHURCH. BY REV. HENRY J. HILLYARD, M.A., LL.D., <i>Chaplain of Christ Church, Bangkok</i> . . . . .	216
THE SIAMESE LANGUAGE. BY B. O. CARTWRIGHT (CANTAB.), <i>Exhibitioner, King's College, Cambridge; English Tutor to the School of the Royal Pages, Bangkok</i> . . . . .	218
MANNERS AND CUSTOMS . . . . .	220
EDUCATION. BY W. G. JOHNSON, <i>Adviser to the Ministry for Public Instruction and Ecclesiastical Affairs</i> . . . . .	226
SPORT . . . . .	235
BANGKOK . . . . .	238
THE HIGHWAYS AND SANITATION OF BANGKOK. BY L. R. DE LA MAHOTIÈRE, <i>City Engineer and Chief Engineer of the Sanitary Department, Bangkok</i> . . . . .	291
THE PRESS . . . . .	293





CALIFORNIA

# Twentieth Century Impressions of Siam:

ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE, INDUSTRIES, AND RESOURCES

## HISTORY

By ARNOLD WRIGHT

### CHAPTER I

*Ancient history—The Portuguese period—Camoens' description of Siam in the "Lusiad"—Early Dutch and English connection—The English East India Company establishes factories at Ayuthia and Patani.*



**S**IAM, though one of the ancient kingdoms of Asia, possesses a history which is comparatively 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 accuracy, 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 considerable 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 Ispahan, from Ispahan to Ormuz, from Ormuz to Surat, from Surat to Golconda, from Golconda to Maslipatan, there to embark for Denouserin, which is one of the ports belonging to the Kingdom of Siam. From Denouserin 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 troublesome—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 recognition of his title from the King of Siam. Later it lost its hold on Tenasserim and Tavoy, but in the period 1325-1330 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 themselves at Ayuthia in 1350. 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

signification, being derived from the Malay word *sāgām*, 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 enter upon the period of Portuguese domination in Asia the facts in regard to Siam stand 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 "Tenacar" was peopled by Christians and that the king was also a Christian. With greater veracity he went on to describe the natural characteristics of the country. "In this land is much brassyl, which makes a fine vermilion, as good as the grain, and it costs here three cruzades a bahar, whilst in Quayro [Cairo] it costs sixty; also there is here aloes wood, but not much." Leonarda Da Ca' 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 Tenazar," he writes, "grows all the *verzi* [brazil] and it costs 1½ ducats the bzar, equal to four *kantars*. This place though on the coast is on the mainland. The King is a Gentile; and thence come pepper, cinnamon, cloves, mace, nutmeg, galanga, camphor that is eaten and camphor that is not eaten. . . . 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 Azevedo and Manuel Frageso, 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 renewal of the arrangement entered into 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 (Ayuthia). The Siamese were not only 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 confided to the keeping of the Portuguese, who were under the command of Diogo Perreira. The city was successfully defended by the valour of the Portuguese, who are said to have refused large bribes offered by the Peguan 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 1517, 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, allowed to leave 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 Tuft," 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 the governorship 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—failed to find the treasure 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 response was made to this appeal. 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 Fedrici, 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 supposed that it had recovered somewhat from the injury inflicted upon it. Describing Tenasserim, he says: "This citie of right belongeth to the Kingdom of Sion [Siam], which is situate 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 harbour every yeere there lode some ships with versina, nipa, and beniamin, a few cloves, nutmegs, and maces 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' Cambodia Meikon's river goes,  
Well named the "Captain of the waters," while  
So many a summer tributary flows  
To spread its floods upon the sands, as Nile  
Inundates its green banks—

And shall I to this gentle river throw  
My melancholy songs, and to its breast  
Confide the wetted leaves that tell the woe  
Of many a shipwreck, dreary and 'distrest,—  
Of famine, perils, and the overthrow  
Of him, by Fate's stern tyranny opprest—  
Of him whose resonant lyre is doomed 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 Tavai City, whence begin  
Siam's dominions, Reign of vast extent;  
Tenassari, Queda, of towns the Queen,  
That bear the burthen of the hot piment.  
There farther forwards shall ye make, t'ween  
Malaca's market, grand and opulent,  
Whither each province of the long seaboard  
Shall send of merchantry rich varied hoard.

But on her Lands-end throned see Cingapur,  
Where the wide sea road shrinks to narrow way;  
Thence curves the coast to face the Cynosure,  
And lastly trends Aurorawards its lay:

See Pam, Patane, and in length obscure,  
Siam, that ruleth all with Royat sway;  
Behold Menam who rolls his lordly tide  
From source Chiamai called, Lake long and wide.

Thou see'st in spaces of such vast extent  
Nations of thousand names and yet un-named;  
Laos in land and people prepotent,  
Avas and Bramas for vast ranges famed.  
See how in distant wilds and wolds lie pent  
The self-styled Gueons, savage folk untamed:  
Man's flesh they eat, their own they paint and sear,  
Branding with burning iron,—usage fere!

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 intercourse with Siam. They very cleverly turned their position in India to advantage by extending 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 probably the first Englishman to visit that country, and he must have taken home with him a mass of highly interesting information concerning it.

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



ON THE MENAM.

See Mecom river fret Cambodia's coast,  
His name by "Water Captain," men explain;  
In summer only when he swelleth most,  
He leaves his bed to flood and feed the plain;  
As the frone Nile he doth his freshets boast;  
His peoples hold the fond belief and vain,  
That pains and glories after death are 'signed  
To brutes and souless 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 describes the Siamese as "in forme, manner, and visage, much like the inhabitants 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 at Ormuz 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, enumerating the countries with which trade might be freely opened by the English, it mentioned "the rich and mightie Kingdom of Pegu and Juncalaon, Siam, Camboia, and Canchinchina," thereby showing that a full appreciation existed at the time of the possibilities for trade presented by the route across Siam. The Dutch at the same time were casting their eyes longingly 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 was famous. They seem to have made a considerable impression on the King of Siam, for in 1607, on his own volition, that monarch despatched an embassy to Holland. Travelling *viâ* Bantam, the envoys met with anything but a favourable reception there from the Dutch authorities. The Admiral (Matelief) is stated by a 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 Maurice, the Governor 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 doubtless to the influence it exercised that was due the initial effort 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 Bantam. 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 would sell readily in Siam, that gold 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 wily 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 opening up of commercial relations with Siam 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

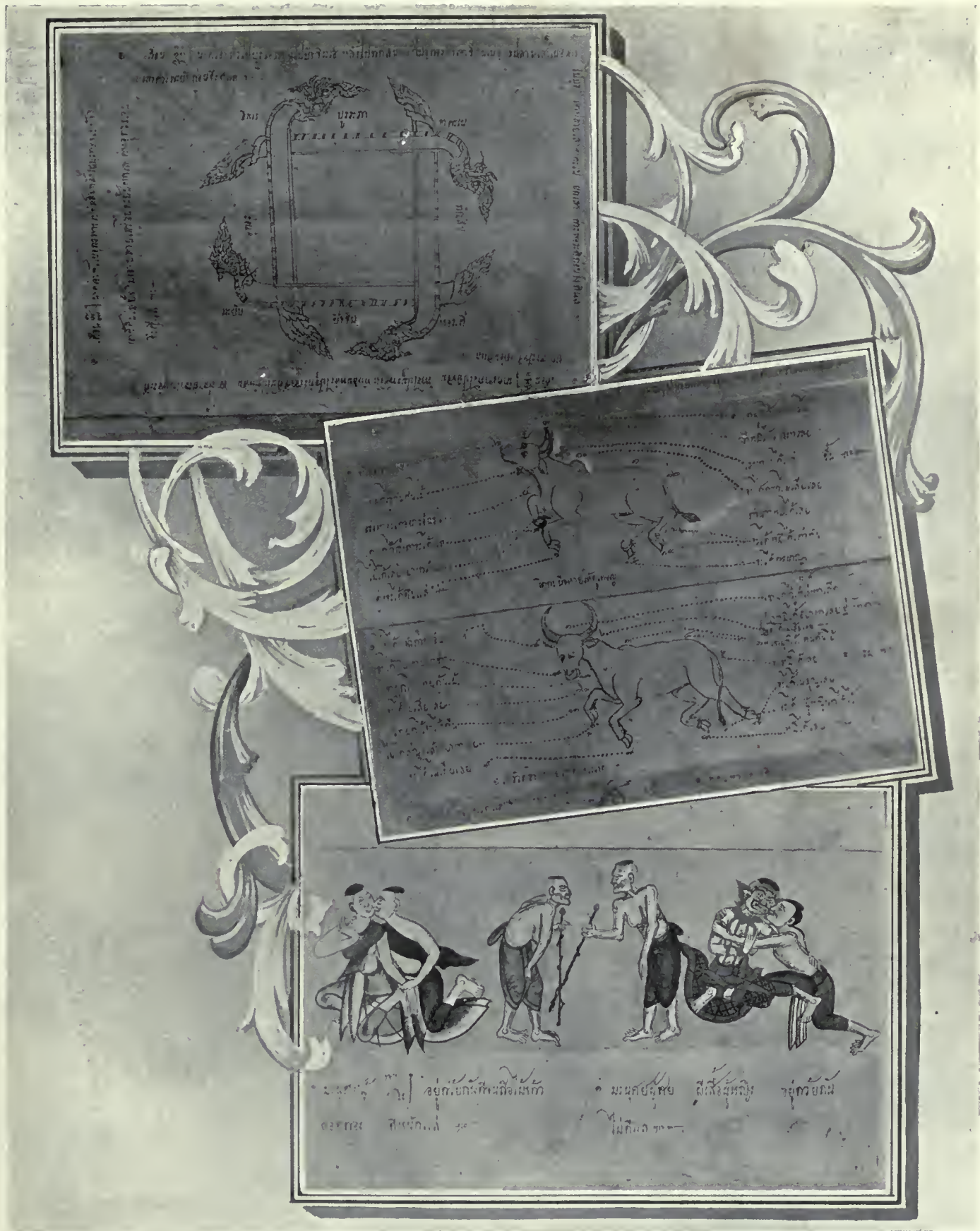
upon it a certain prestige. However that may be, the intrusion of the English into their preserve was hotly resented by the Dutch, who were at no pains to disguise their feelings. The Englishmen were not greatly moved by this display of ill-feeling, more especially as they had had a very friendly reception from the native ruler of the State—a vassal of the King of Siam. A few days after their arrival they went ashore in great state, taking with them a present and 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 Essington, and Lucas Antheuniss. With them went two other Englishmen, Thomas Samuel and Thomas Driver, probably in subordinate capacities. The party proceeded to Ayuthia in a "goudon" they had built, and Denton, describing the journey, mentions that from the roadstead of Siam he and his companions journeyed "up the river some twenty miles to a town called Bancope [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 Syam" on 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 his due for 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 gold cup with a piece of clothing. 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 covetousness and corruption of the local officials, whose one cry, like that of the daughter of the horse-leech, was "Give! give!" Beyond these obstacles, sufficiently grave in themselves, was 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 six 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 seene him. The storme lasted foure or five houres, 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."

## CHAPTER II

*The English traders at Patani—Attempt to open up trade between Patani and Japan—Dutch rivalry—Attack on the English by the Dutch and destruction of the Patani establishment—Hostilities between Portugal and Siam—New attempt in 1660 to establish English factories in Siam—Rise of Dutch influence—Vicissitudes of the English—Burning of the English factory at Ayuthia.*

THE English traders, as we have seen in the previous chapter, had without much difficulty secured a lodgment in Siam and had been received with every manifestation of goodwill on the part of the king and the official classes. In ordinary circumstances they might have hoped to reap substantial and permanent advantage from the connection they had been able to form. But the drawbacks referred to earlier in the narrative were too serious to allow of the establishment of a settled trade of a paying character. Gradually this truth was borne in upon the minds of the factors and they decided to quit Ayuthia. They took their leave of the Siamese officials at the capital in November but left behind Lucas Antheuniss to look after the Company's interests. At Patani the Englishmen appear to have found themselves quite at home. The State was not under direct Siamese authority, but was governed by a queen who was invariably chosen from the same family and always old and beyond child-bearing. The occupant of the throne at the time of the *Globe's* visit was, Floris states, an old lady "three score yeeres of age, tall and full of majestie; in all the Indies we had seen few like her." Despite her years, she seems to have been very active and lively in her manners. The diarist describes an entertainment given on the occasion of the queen leaving the palace after a seclusion of seven years "to hunte wilde buffes and bulles." There was first dancing before the queen by twelve women and children. Then the "gentilitie" were invited to show their paces, and they did so to the amusement of the throng. Finally, the English and the Dutch factors,



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.



RAPIDS ON THE MENAM NEAR CHIENGMAI.

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 Antheuniss 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



RUINS OF WAT YAI AT AYUTHIA.





THE FLOATING BAZAAR AT AYUTHIA.

strengthened 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, incontinently 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 Anthemiss 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 Bantam 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 ashore 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 "purling 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 Pitt, an assistant factor at Ayuthia. Pitt is represented to have invited "James Peterson, the English umper, to a banquet at Syam, and after to have fallen out with hym, and to have gone with iij Japons to bynd hym and take hym prisoner. But Peterson laid sore about him and he kild ij of the Japons and made Pittes 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 Pitt should have had the temerity to attack him. But the suggestion was that "it was doone in drink," which is probably very near the truth, for there are abundant

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 consultation with the Company's representatives at Hirado in Japan, where the English had been settled 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 factors, and they were entrusted with a present 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 repairing the defects which had developed in the craft, the party returned to Hirado on June 11, 1615, the junk "having lost her voyage for this year." 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 shortcomings, was again selected for the work, 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 mornynge the King sent to invite us to supper, because he understood our juncke was ready to departe towards Syam." The royal hospitality apparently was generous to an extreme, for Cocks records that he found "the drynkyng overmuch." The *Sea Adventure* took with it a letter to the factors at Ayuthia from Captain Coppindall, of the Company's ship *Ostander*, which had arrived at Hirado on September 4th previously. In this communication 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 there were, he said, were "eaten up by great presents and charges" extorted 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 ship *Advice*, 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 apparently 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 ompra," an official who is described by Dr. John Anderson in his work "Early English Intercourse with Siam" as "a sort of consul with limited 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 had to run for safety to the Liu-Kiu islands. In consequence the January monsoon, which was relied on to carry the *Sea Adventure* 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 representatives deemed it advisable to replace her by an entirely new craft. Apart from the discouraging 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 spoileth the Japan trade," he said, "is a company of rich usurers whoe have gotten all the trade of Japan into their owne handes. . . . And these fellows are not content to have all at their own disposing above, but they come downe to Firando and Nangasaque [Nagasaki], where they joyne together in seling out of juncques for Syam, Cochin China, Tonkin, Camboja, or any other places where they understand that good is to be donne, and are furnishing Japan with all sortes of comodities which any other stranger can bring, and then stand upon their puntos offering others what they lost themselves, knowing no man will buy it but themselves, or such as they please to joyne in company with them, nether that any stranger can be suffered to transport it into any other porte of Japan. Which maketh me altogether awcary 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 connection. 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 Eastern seas were not in a prosperous condition. A serious adverse factor was Dutch rivalry, which at all points where the two races came into contact maintained a sleepless warfare against the English interests. The feud broke out into active hostilities towards the close of the year 1618, when the English factors, after taking counsel together at Bantam, decided to correct the "insolencys 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 representatives, and, moreover, the times were not propitious owing to local wars. Probably the Siam establishment would have been withdrawn 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 adjacent nations. An instance of the manner in which the favourable situation 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 Chiampa (Champa) arrived at the Siamese court, and he was approached by the English factors with a view to the development of trade with his country. His reception of them was so friendly and his information so encouraging 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 Hall, on reaching its destination 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 to deliberate in regard to the future of the Siam establishments. At all events, in spite of heavy demands made upon them elsewhere, they decided in 1619 to despatch two ships, the *Hound* and the *Samson*, from the Coromandel coast to "new establish both with men and means the almost decayed factories" of Jambi, Patani, Siam (Ayuthia), and Succadana. With John Jourdain as president the new staff arrived at Patani in June, 1619, and arrangements 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 enterprise, immediately despatched three well-manned ships in pursuit under the command of Henrick Johnson, one of their trusted captains. Arriving off Patani on July 17, 1619, the Dutch squadron immediately proceeded to attack the English vessels. Jourdain might have left the harbour and perhaps have escaped before the Hollanders arrived, but he preferred to remain and conduct the fight in the sight of the whole town, so that the natives 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 *Samson* had been killed and wounded the English colours were struck.

While the negotiations for surrender were proceeding a Dutch marksman, seeing Jourdain, "most treacherously and cruelly shot at him with a musket and shot him in the body nere the heart of which wound he dyed



WAT PHRA, PRANG LUANG.

within halfe an houre 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 *Angel*. 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 inhumanly caused and forced to put their legges downe through the gratings, when they were seized and tyed to the capstan barres 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 againe." 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 ships, and a few of them, with the aid of Will Adams, managed to escape. 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-welcomed 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 had set in, that a mission, under the charge of William Webb, was despatched to Ligor with the object of establishing trade relations. But the energy shown was a mere flicker of a decaying 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 General Court agreed that 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 incidents the Portuguese blockaded the mouth of the Tenasserim 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 ruse 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, writing in 1636, gives the following account of the growth of Hollander 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 Iudia [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 Santoine 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 all who were on board them; two years afterwards they escaped by means of a pretended embassy. In the ports of Ligor and Tannasari 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 having built a factory in the town of Iudia, and trafficked largely in deer-skins, Sapanwood, &c. They yearly send these productions to Japan, with increasing reputation, though the profit is little except that provisions are obtained for Batavia, and it is convenient to put this check upon Spanish commerce. In 1633 I caused a new warehouse to be 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 Iuthia, 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 "shewes the English is not yett out of his memory, for at all great feasts of ye Dutch when they trim up their house, hee will have ours also soe in the same nature, and yearely hath it repaired; this wee have from the Dutch themselves." In 1659, when the Cambodia factory was plundered by Cochin 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 employers 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 Cambodia factors held out, the Company in 1660 gave orders for the despatch to Siam of the ship *Hopewell*, 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 scornfull high of pride that divele himselfe could not doe more." After a tedious voyage, protracted by Bladwell's gross miscalculations, the *Hopewell* 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 dimmed 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 all ye greate men swere he is rotten at harte, hopinge next yeare when factory is seattled, he may not continew here." South was greatly 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 *Hopewell'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, Cotes should return to Bantam in one of the numerous Dutch ships voyaging between Ayuthia and that port. Before leaving he was to inform the "vissiers" 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 Cotes 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 *Hopewell's* reception, decided that the Siam trade should be placed under the control of their representatives at Madras. Before the Ayuthia factory could be established on a 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 bitterly 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 Siamese dominions, and gave 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 star 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 disordered condition. A vivid picture of the situation is given in 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 peccant factors 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, smarting 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 "I will be ashamed for English 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, otherwise of no value or unless Elliphants sell well at the coast, then from thence to Tanassare [Tenasserim] very profitable." The Company were in no mood to take up Acworth's quarrel, or, indeed, to adventure anything further in Siam. What with 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*, smarting 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 was more to their immediate purpose, he granted them a monetary loan of \$10,000 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 resentful 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. Gosfright, who was

charged with the duty of making an examination into the complicated affairs of the Company in Siam. Mr. Gosfright'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. Burneby, and it was soon discovered that this individual had been misusing his position, and utilising the Company's goods for the advancement of his private ends. Gosfright and he very speedily became at enmity, as was, perhaps, natural in the circumstances. Secure in his superior command of local influence, Burneby 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." Gosfright, 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. Burneby went to Bantam to appeal against the decision, and present in person his version of the events in Siam. But before he arrived at that port the English had left, and he had to proceed to Balavia 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 Burneby should not be permitted to return to it. On arrival at Ayuthia, Burneby found that during his absence the Company's agents, who had been left in charge—Samuel Polts and Thomas Ivalt—had been making a special effort to collect the outstanding 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 a native 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 Polts to accidental causes, but there was grave reason to suspect that Polts himself had a hand in it. Burneby 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 Polts's career as a servant of the Company.

### CHAPTER III

*Rise to power of the Greek adventurer 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.

fire frequent mention is made of Constantine Phaulkon, a man who was destined in later years to play a great part in the making of Siamese history. Phaulkon was of Greek origin, but had received his early commercial

trade on his own account. Having purchased a ship, the *Mary*, he started on a voyage, but a storm encountered at the month of the Menam drove his vessel ashore. Undaunted by this calamity, he embarked on another ship—only,

—a proposal which the latter was only too glad to accept. The service thus rendered brought Phaulkon into close touch with the higher dignitaries of Siam when he once more set foot in that country. An almost immediate outcome of



WAT POH, INSIDE WHICH IS THE SLEEPING BUDDHA, 145 FEET IN LENGTH.

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 invest 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 ought, the first actor in my history, I will proceed to render him justice. M. Constantine 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 procured for him without difficulty, but he 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 recompense from the king 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 protector 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, he was a master of several languages.

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. A pregnant example of the short-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 *Mexico 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 proffers of exceeding many services," and an intimation that a 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 Pines—happening to arrive from Madras a few days after their disembarkation, Strangh 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 trafficked 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 soe much slighted Siam, threatening to dissolve the factory from tyme to tyme, and never truely settled; Mr. Gosfright carrying off all the effects of this place, and not knowing what I would doe (this being a free port for all strangers to traffick 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 mee afterwards that by my means hee was chased away, which I might be perswaded the King would never doe; especially such a one who with his ready cash, the best of all comodities, outdares us. Soe 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 from this interloper whom maybe they would never see again, with what more in large, signified little to his own selfe interest in the case that tould 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 myselfe. Hee having bought 4 ships cargoes of coast and Suratt goods which would stick close to him for a tyme iff by this means hee did not quitt 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, 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 would see that it was forwarded to its destination. Strangely enough, he had omitted to supply himself with a similar communication from the English monarch to the King of Siam, an oversight which was not unnaturally re-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 into the question of trade. He criticised 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 goods" that might be suitable to Siam. The minister declined 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 as other nations could find here in Siam," and he concluded by saying that as he was no merchant he "could not tell how to remedie same, but would recommend this affaire to the King's merchants and goedonne keepers." Towards the end of the interview Strangh sought to enlist the good offices of the Government in the matter of 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 "broake" or were "not worth anything." 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 may have been some 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 indiscreet conduct and a lack of business capacity.

When Strangh and his associate found that they could make no headway they decided to take counsel of Mr. Hammon Gibbon, 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 yett 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 speake of sending the King's merchants to treat with us, but he is gone with the King and left noe order to any that hee knowes 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<sup>ie</sup> 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 ambassador 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<sup>ie</sup> 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<sup>s</sup> 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 exemplaire punishment on him for what affronts and abuses done to him by his tongue and penn, which he would still awaite, and iff did not gett any from us, swore would take satisfaction, and bore his tongue trew with a hott iron; which after had tould what I had in his behalfe gave him my councill to be better desired and not to hee so revengefull." Soon afterwards the two parted.



HILLS AT PETCHABURI.

comp<sup>ie</sup> to him, therein (as he has seene) 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 beene 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 hee never gave any advice yett to any bodie, but what hee 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 "scarce a day passed without great contests, hott disputes, and invective 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 mee 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 behaviour, 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.

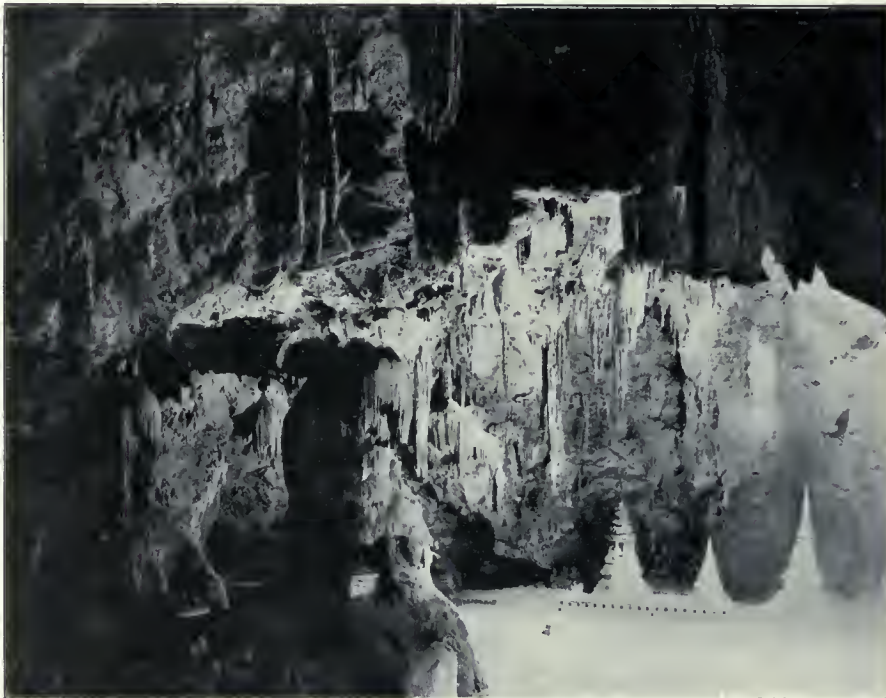
and Mr. John Thomas, factors, and Mr. Abraham Navarro, Chinese interpreter. Strangh took counsel of these experienced colleagues as to the course he should pursue. At the outset it was decided to continue the factory, but on a failure to barter their goods for copper and the use by Phaulkon of threatening 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 w<sup>th</sup>out any hindrance or molestation as noe lesse Mr. Phaulkon perswasion and allurement 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 considerable Debts due to the honble Com<sup>pl</sup>e our Masters, in this place. Notwithstanding all the discouragem<sup>t</sup> I have mett w<sup>t</sup> from my ffrst arrivall (:as often have aquainted yo<sup>r</sup> highnesse :) All w<sup>th</sup> tho it was tould mee that did proceed from Mr. Phaulkon, I could not belevee, because hee gave mee, the same assurance as yo<sup>r</sup> highnesse did, unfill now that he has plainly discovered himself to bee the secret and hidden obstructer, nott only of the former, but present trade of this country w<sup>t</sup> the honble Company on<sup>d</sup>er pretence of authoretic having lately contracted w<sup>ts</sup>ome merch<sup>ts</sup> for a parcell of kop<sup>r</sup> in Barter, for other goods w<sup>ch</sup> noe sooner arriving his notice but hee putts a stop too itt, w<sup>th</sup> imprisoning of the Broaker, and scurrilous reflections on our Masters the honble Companie. Pretending an imbargo from the King ; w<sup>ch</sup> off had been, his Highnesse would have aquainted us therew<sup>t</sup> and never bidd us try the markt. Wherefore seeing soe great obstruction in our Trade I was now come to take my Leave ; desiring his highnesse tara for our departure w<sup>t</sup> all the ho : Com<sup>pl</sup>es effects and servants. And as for the debts, since recomendit to his highnesse for recovery, and that wee could effect nothing in that affaire, I desired hee would please to give countinace to Mr. Hammon Gibbon, to come and mynd his highness in that affaire &c.

"The Barcalong to this gave a short reply. "That as hee was much bussied heere above w<sup>t</sup> States matters of the king, sould not attend below, therefore had apointed Mr. Phaulkon to help and assist us as well as all other merch<sup>ts</sup> Mr. Phaulkon thereupon taking the word out of his Mouth, and after whispering to themselves ; w<sup>t</sup> a Sterne Countenance, and investice Speech, Carried the whole discourse in Enge ; 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 dayes since, and as hee thought the day before I made this bargain, had thould mee of an Embargo upon kop<sup>r</sup> for this yeare, and that for any thing els I had Libertie to Barter for, but not in Cop<sup>r</sup>, Whereupon I going to interrupt him, and to tell him it was falce, 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 primonarie, to contradict 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 had bene of his Natives I should have seene what had bene done too mee. His Highnesse was of the opinion, and had the good hoopoes of mee at first, that the honble Companies affaire might



THE CAVES AT PETCHABURI.

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

story of the Crucifixion that he swore that "iff ever hee found a Jew in this country hee would putt him to the same iff not worse torments." Strangh's account of the mission to Louvo is a very detailed one and is full of interest. On the arrival of the party at that place the Phra-klang sent to inquire as to their business, and a message was forwarded to the effect that they would communicate it to him in person. A meeting was arranged for the next day, which Strangh punctually attended, but to his disgust he found present, in addition to Phaulkon, "the interloper Abeene, Mr. Burneby, Mr. Ivatt and Mr. [Samuel] White, with one Captain Paxton." Strangh "was once of mynd to have desired Mr. Phaulkon to withdraw, . . . but considering the stirr hee would have made at my bidding a Minister of State to absent," he "notwithstanding all that crew" delivered himself "to Franc Robson



NATIVE DRAWINGS FROM AN ANCIENT SIAMESE MANUSCRIPT IN THE ORIENTAL MANUSCRIPT DEPARTMENT OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

be better regulated, then has beene hiltbertoe, but was sorry to see it inclined rather to worssc, and therefore gave me Free Libertie to depart, as I requested, my tara should be readie w<sup>t</sup> 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 desperate, and that could not trouble hi highnesse w<sup>t</sup> such a bussinesse not to be recovered."

To this Strangh replied :—

"That what I have fathered on his Highnesse, was nothing but the Truth w<sup>ch</sup> ought (: though may not :) at all tymes to be spoken before Kings, lett bee Princes. As for the Great Primony and dreadful punishment, I have deserved, though favored I thank him for his graciousness, though must needs tell him, iff had gott his 400 chests of kop<sup>r</sup> I had not yett my full complim<sup>t</sup> according to the Tara for the Ship, w<sup>ch</sup> I supposed to be the Kings, or the Barcalongs tara, procured by himselfe, a sufficient warrant for mee, that I intended to ship soe much kop<sup>r</sup> and was granted. Hee should have left it out of the Tara, and tould mee then if an imbargo: Iff any such were, it is after the grant of the gen<sup>l</sup> tara, w<sup>ch</sup> I hoped the King would not recall. And that w<sup>ch</sup> makes it more plaine and doubtfull whither there bee any embargo, is that those China men has an especiall Tarra from the King himselfe for selling of this kop<sup>r</sup> w<sup>ch</sup> would not have been granted iff any imbargo had been; Moreovei the Queens kop<sup>r</sup> and they hir Merch<sup>ts</sup> Could I or any bodie els, think hee durst oposse or stop same when had yo<sup>r</sup> owen words that had nothing to doe or durst not middle w<sup>t</sup> them. As for his Zeale and Sorrow hee had for the ho: Comp<sup>is</sup> affaires as inclining rather to worssc then heeretofore, hee has shoven it by this, and in it his falce Zeale and Shams put upon them; And bidd him consider w<sup>t</sup> himselfe, what the ho: Comp<sup>ie</sup> has to doe, to settle upon such termes as these, or how I could well ans<sup>r</sup> it to stay The greatest favor I now desired after all this, was that I might have my dispatch.

"To w<sup>ch</sup> Mr. Phaulkon replied somewhat milder, That the Tara I soe much stood upon, was for shiping of, of the kop<sup>r</sup>, I should have had a tara for buying as well as for shiping, they were two different things. and as for the China man hee should be severely punished for telling a Lye that had a tara when had non. Our tara should be readie w<sup>in</sup> a day or two, only we must stay for the King and Barcalongas letter to the Comp<sup>ie</sup> w<sup>ch</sup> must be altered.

"Asking me iff I had any more to say; The Barcalong was weary to sitt soe long. I tould him noe, Soe I could but have my dispatch, hee should soone be ridd of our trouble, and after made our salam or obeysance, The Barcalong as iff raised from Sleepe, tould mee, hee must have all our Ironworcke, for w<sup>ch</sup> would give us other goods, w<sup>ch</sup> I should promisse him, I tould him, hee might. Soe thereby now further hindrance or delay may be created. Hee tould mee the boats that brought doune our goods might bring up the Ironworcke. For was onwilling Phaulkon should have them to his new house a building, and therefore tould

him they were for the most part on board. Yett upon his promisse that should be dispatched, promised hee should have them.

"Soe parted for this tyme: Not w<sup>out</sup> a very severe check at last to Mr. Abraham Navarro, for his former threatening as hee termed it (: though was no such thing:), That iff it were not for the Europe blood w<sup>in</sup> him, hee should not escape his reward in threatening so Great a King, as his Glorious mast<sup>r</sup> at present hee past it by."

Strangh's plain speaking in this interview of which he gives such a graphic account aroused against him a spirit of enmity 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 intentional dilatoriness of the Siamese officials Strangh attempted to leave without the authorisation. 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 such a choice in the person they designed 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 W<sup>m</sup>. Strangh, dated from the Barr of Syam, 2, 7any. 1683/4.*

"I have two of your scurrilous false imputations of the 16th and 24th December to answer with a little larger explanation of the brief though ample import of my first parenetics charge to you of the 2nd December was my sute with your impolite weake capacity jumbled through your sudden and surprizing elevation to a sou'ving Lords<sup>pp</sup> or a heathenish Grace, and that I may not bee allways imperious or like you a rayler shall insert some few p<sup>t</sup>culs relating to my former charging of you: to be the sole and only instrument of all the Honourable Companys 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 clandestine practises set by so many cunning and crafty ingins, corrupting and treacherously seducing little Ivatt and Samuel Harris to your practise and faction, with no less then Hono<sup>rs</sup>. and great employ's for their reward the one a Lord forsooth, the other sent in your employ for so far a voyage that are the only in the Factory when took fire, both honoured and employed, might not discover the bellows of that flame.

"Secondly your sowing and blowing the coals of hatred and dissention betwix the two Factors, affores<sup>d</sup>, to that height that at last tooke hold of and consumed all the Honourable Companys effects in this place to ashes, what formerly and long before that sad and fatal

accident was designed, was ready to be transported off the place to Bantam, had not your false zeal towards the Honourable Companys interest and clandestinely informing the deceased Barcalong that Potts was running away with the Company's effects, hindered his good intentions, and preferred this their great loss to serve your malitious ends.

"And above all this your insolency in heaping so many indignities upon them by imprisonment and putting in the Stocks and pillery their servants without controule making factory with other their disaffected servants and all this for your getting of Credit out of the Honourable Company's Goods. (When by youour own confession not worth a gouree) for so considerable a sum as nigh [?] 400 catt<sup>e</sup> the space of 3 years without interest, and ingratitude that ought to be punished with the highest severity. You not satisfying . . . with your accursed avarice without the utter extirpating the Hon<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>a</sup>. and English nation from trading in this kingdom.

"Att my arrival for preventing my true knowledge and information not only how the Comp<sup>a</sup>. affairs was carried on and ruined by you, but of the trade of this place, sent from a princip. of your self interest, fearing my 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 Hon<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>a</sup>. affairs on you, the only great Sultan Solyman of this nation who to meate your insatiab<sup>l</sup>e avarice protested so great kindness and service to the Comp<sup>a</sup>. amo<sup>t</sup>. to 15000 plended to be proferred 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 contract with the King and by the taking of yearly English manufactures to a considerable value, until such time you by your self to termed foolish Barcalong to whom we were recommended did inform yourself of the Hon<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>a</sup>. design by their letter to the Barcalong as by your private letter from Mr. While your creature touching the discourse the Hon<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>a</sup>. had with him about Mr. Polts writing and calling you Greek and powder monkey 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 prancks and Tricks had not only privately but publickly, some on pain and forfeiture of life and goods, others with threatening and imprisonment forbidden and hindered all Merchant Brokers &c. so much as peepe or come near the Factory either to buy or sell with us as is evident to be proved, with your scurrilous reflections on the Hon<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>a</sup>. of being broke and not worth a gouree that you may well say as you falsely and impudently do insist in yours that I have done nothing this 3 months but consider whether I

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 disaffected 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 seeke their full satisfaction in any place



WAT CHENG FROM THE RIVER.

the factory for above a month, on purpose to lose the monsoons that might not arive in time with Capl. Pines 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<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>s</sup>. effects in the place (which was not willing to leave behind me) was disgracefully 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 ptiend ; but must needs say that as an Orrambarro ; am rather to be pitied than

my Fath<sup>s</sup>. dogg which lost his tayle) more than now have in your possession would have fal'n to your share I'm sure of it, and (tho as you say I have done with Siam yet hop the Hon<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>a</sup> has not, I do believe it with you and therefore in the naine and behalf of the Hon<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>a</sup>. do by these solemnly and in optims forma Protest against you Conslant Phaulkon to be liable to answer and make satisfaction either in body or estate for all above mentioned damages and greal losses, &c. already mentioned or hereafter may accrue to the Hon<sup>ble</sup>. Comp<sup>a</sup>. by your detaining of this the ship *Mexico Merchant* so long to the no less hazard, as Damage of loosing 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, attributed their ill-success to “the sinister and self-interested contrivances of Mr. Const Phaulkon, whose industry is employed in blasting the Hon<sup>ble</sup> Company's business that soe hee 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-

demnation on Strangh in a communication to the Directors, but he wrote to the King of Siam expressing his disapproval of Strangh's behaviour. Child's repudiation of the Company's agent came too late. By this time the mischief had got beyond the point at which smooth words were of any avail.

An incident which occurred soon after the departure of the *Mexico Merchant* tended to aggravate seriously the already strained situation. The king, being in need of some ship's stores, sent through Phaulkon a demand for the articles to the Company's ship *Delight*, which was still in the river awaiting the change of monsoon. The officers on board declined to meet the demand on the ground that Ayuthia was not their consigned port and that they would be breaking bulk and incurring heavy demurrage if they had met the king's requirements. Phaulkon in reply bluntly told the Company's representatives that if they did not promptly supply what was needed the chief factor and the purser of the ship would be imprisoned. This threat not availing, Mr. Peter Crouch, the principal factor, and Mr. Jno. Thomas, the purser, were seized and kept in confinement with little or no food. After remaining in prison for two days they were con-

pany'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 greate 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

## CHAPTER IV

*Siamese mission to France—Louis XIV. extends to it a cordial reception—Imposing French mission to Siam—War between Siam and Golconda—Samuel White, Shahbander of Mergui, summoned to Ayuthia on charges connected with the war—His appeal to Phaulkon—Returns to Mergui—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 centring 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



ELEPHANTS IN ANCIENT WAR DRESS.

strained by 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 Com-

pany of two warships. English influence in Siam for the time being was non-existent.

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



successful revolution mounted the throne of Siam in 1627, he possibly felt the need of external support to maintain him in power. However that may have been, when the doors of the markets of other countries were solidly barred against the foreigner, and especially the European, he extended a cordial welcome to all traders of whatever nationality. Nor, as we have seen in his generous dealings with the English, was his favour confined to the conferment of a mere right to trade. He provided buildings in which the factors might carry on their business, and he even on occasion made them

subsequent years to obtain for his country a share of the Eastern trade. But no doubt the stimulus which directed his policy in regard to France came from the French priests, 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

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 *fêted* 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.<sup>1</sup>



A STATE BARGE ON THE MENAM.

advances of money to help them to the more readily finance their transactions. He appears to have had a perfect passion for trade. Much of the commercial business of his kingdom was conducted through his own appointed agents. He had his own ships plying to various ports to further his transactions. Many branches of the export trade were his exclusive monopoly. Ambassadors were sent by him hither and thither with the object of extending the commercial connections of the country. He was in fact, as well as in name, "king-merchant." Such a monarch could not fail to have been aware of the growing power and influence of France consequent upon the strenuous efforts made by Colbert in 1664 and

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

<sup>1</sup> The following conversation, given in Boswell's "Life of Johnson," shows that the mission also left an enduring impression in England:—

"Dr. Robertson: Dr. Johnson, allow me to say that in one respect I have the advantage of you. When you were in Scotland you would not come to hear any of our preachers; whereas, when I am here, I attend your public worship without scruple, and, indeed, with great satisfaction.

"Dr. Johnson: Why, sir, that is not so extraordinary. The King of Siam sent ambassadors to Louis XIV., but Louis XIV. sent none to the King of Siam."

Boswell remarks: "Here my friend, for once, discovered a want of knowledge or forgetfulness; for Louis XIV. did send an embassy to the King of Siam, and the Abbé Choisi, who was employed in it, published an account of it in two volumes."

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 Maline* and *L'Oiseau*. 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.

your Majesty, to make known to you our desire of establishing a perpetual friendship between us. We shall be most happy to find occasions for testifying our gratitude for the protection you have afforded to the bishops and apostolic missionaries who labour to instruct your subjects in the Christian faith; and our particular esteem for yourself gives us a great desire that you should also deign to hear them, and learn from them the true maxims and sacred mysteries of so holy a law, which gives a knowledge of the true God, who having long permitted you to reign gloriously, can

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-



PHRA CHEDE (PAGODA) AND WAT AT PRAPATOM.

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

ploring them to defeat this plot by sending an ambassador as the French had done and by conferring some high honour upon Phaulkon, who was "sole governor and disposer of all affairs in the kingdom," and who had "declared himself devoted to the court's service." The anxiety thus expressed had ample justification in the circumstances of the period. The Siamese were so impressed with the magnificence of the French mission that they conceived a strong passion for everything French. To such an extent were their feelings coloured by the display of Gallic power that the king expressed a wish that his royal brother of France would send him some French troops

to safeguard his possessions against the Dutch, who were threatening him and whose growing power in the Straits of Malacca he viewed with considerable apprehension. Louis XIV. was only too well pleased to comply with the request, which was formally made by ambassadors who were received at Versailles on September 1, 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 Farges, 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 suppliant 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



WAT SUTHAT, SHOWING STONE CARVINGS.



WAT CHAIYA MONGKHON.

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, sallied 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 tragi-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 innocency 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

this period. The letter, which is dated July 10, 1686, is as follows :—

“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 harkening to the malicious tattling and detraction of over busie 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 Shabander has no other Enemy, that we know of, than the Shabander, 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 hasten yourself thither, let us, as your friend, perswade 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 built up ; but, if we perceive a Structure of our own raising 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 retorted, 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 is 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 Mergui.

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 position, and its active agents 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 effective. Many Macassars, finding that the authorities were ready for them, surrendered, and a considerable number were put to death. Another party sued for, 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 with 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 votaries, all armed with creases and lances, 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 confirm the pardon he had already on that condition offered him ; whereupon 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 underwood ; 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 me at my own House.’”

“All resentment of these daring Expressions was seeminly 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 possible Preparations were with great privacy made to reduce him by force. And according the Lord Phaulkon in Person, accompanied with sixty Europeans, having first in the Night

blockt up the small river, and so surrounded the Macassers Camp with about two hundred of the King's galleys and Boats, that they could not possibly fly, on Tuesday the Fourteenth Instant at break of day gave order for the Onsett, intending first to have fired down all the Houses before them, that so they might force their Skulking Enemies to an open Fight, who otherwise would have the opportunity of Murdering 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 Macassers, ere they could well look about them, rushing out of the Houses dispatcht 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 armour and Arms lost his Life in 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 than his Neighbour : About three hours afterwards having by burning that part of the Camp, and hot 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 disswasions from it) would needs leap ashore where he had not been long, with several other English in his Company, ere a parcel of Macassers, in disguise of Siammers, by hawling a small boat along the Shoalwater, got so near them, undiscerned to be Enemies, as to reach them with their Lances, at which time it unluckily fell to Captain Udalls Lot to lose his life, the rest very difficultly escaping by Taking the Water tho' those Macassers escap't 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 Udalls resolute going a-shore had drawn him thither also, being loth 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 not, (tho' 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 run up to the very Muzzle of a blunderbuss, than 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 Recrute of Siammers, (the whole number imployed 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—Captain 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

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



SIAMESE BRAHMIN PRIESTS.

Fathers fall came on undauntedly with his Lance presented at his Lordship; but drawing within reach, and perceiving his Lordship ready in the like posture to entertain him with his Lance, his heart failed him, so that he cast away his Weapons and threw himself at his Lordships feet, who received him with all Courtesy, and brought him unbound to his Majesty. The next day what Men and Women remained, (for many of the latter were burnt in their houses with their Children) were taken Prisoners by the Siammers. And thus ends the Story of the Macassers with their Lives:

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

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-

tion, was commissioned by Phaulkon to proceed to England to place before King James a true account of the affairs of the two nations in order to put a stop to hostilities. 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 *Curlana* arrived off the Siamese coast in discharge of this project. The commander took with him a proclamation addressed to Burneby and White recalling all the English in Siam, a demand on Phaulkon for £65,000 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 *Curlana* 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 Burneby and White, but White was much concerned in his mind at the visit of the ship and sent a message to Captain Wellden, 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 *Curlana*, piloted by men sent out by White, entered the harbour, anchoring about two miles off the town. Later in the day Wellden landed amid considerable state. He repaired to White's house, where the king's proclamation was read. 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 Wellden's mission. The next day the declaration of war was formally made known, and Englishmen were told that henceforward they must consider themselves as outside the service of the King of Siam. A

suggestion was put forward by Wellden that the men were entitled to reimburse themselves for anything that was due to them from the king's coffers. But in opposition to this view White put in a strong demurrer. The king, he said, owed the men nothing. He (White) was responsible for their salaries, and it was "most unreasonable that there should be such a latitude given them to play the rogue." It was finally agreed that White should pay the men whatever was owing to them.

White, as was shown in this matter of the pay of the English *employés* of the Siamese Government, was not unmindful of what was due from him as a Siamese official. But even more striking testimony of his fidelity to his trust was afforded by the measures he caused to be taken for the defence of the port. On the wharf near his house were "eight or ten guns laden, and the shots lying by, ready to clap into them." The river was staked and cables were placed in position to constitute an additional barrier to ingress, while work actively proceeded on a platform on which guns were mounted. Apparently Wellden regarded these preparations as a breach of the tacit arrangement that no action should be taken for sixty days. He caused many of the stakes to be removed from the river, and on the 9th of July, while White was absent at Tenasserim, took formal possession of the *Resolution*. The vessel, under his direction, was removed from her anchorage and moored near the *Curlana*. White, on returning from Tenasserim and finding what had happened, expressed high indignation, but there is some reason to think that the seizure of the ship did not take White so much by surprise as he professed. At all events, the incident did not lead to any rupture of the friendly relations which existed between the two. Three days later we find the pair conferring together relative to the great assembly of war boats in the harbour. Wellden was becoming alarmed at the menacing aspect of the natives, and through one of his officers he sought information as to the meaning of the manifestations. White replied that the gathering was a harmless one, and to reassure Wellden he went on board the *Curlana*. He rushed off just as he was, "without hat, slippers, or anything but his nightgown and a pair of drawers." On the ship the peril of the hour was speedily forgotten in a discussion of the qualities of the flowing bowl. From the fact conscientiously recorded that sixty-four toasts were drunk it may be assumed that the council was a protracted one.

The next two days were passed in comparative quietude, though the suspicious movements of armed boats in the harbour continued. On the morning of the 14th July Wellden went ashore and called on White, with whom he remained to supper. When the meal was over White walked out with his guest to the wharf, where the latter's boat was awaiting him. The two were on the point of taking leave when a great crowd of natives rushed upon them in the darkness. Wellden was struck a tremendous blow on the head and knocked senseless to the ground. White rushed to the boat and managed to board it without injury. By his directions the craft was pushed off and a course was steered for one of the ships lying

at anchor. As the boat was drifting along the shoals its occupants noticed some one running in the mud calling to them. The individual proved to be Wellden, who, recovering from the blow which had been struck him, had been directed to the boat by a friendly Mahomedan. The fugitive was pulled on board and the entire party ultimately reached the *Resolution* in safety. Meanwhile, on shore the natives were conducting a systematic massacre of the members of the English colony. With such deadly earnest was the movement conducted that scarcely a soul escaped, even Burneby, who was well liked by the natives, falling a victim to their weapons. Nor was this the full measure of their vengeance. Fire was opened from the forts on the sloop *James*, which had come to Mergui as the consort of the *Curlana*, and the vessel was ultimately fired and sunk. No greater calamity had attended the English since they had commenced to trade in Eastern seas. It was precipitated, there can be little doubt, by the action of Wellden in seizing the *Resolution* and pulling up the stakes. The feeling seems to have been that these were treacherous acts in view of the sixty days' truce that had been practically declared. Doubtless, moreover, the intimate relations between Wellden and White, so suggestive of a collusive agreement inimical to Siam, served to inflame the popular mind.

On arriving on board the *Curlana*, Wellden ordered the ship to stand up towards the *Resolution* and anchor near her. When these instructions had been carried out Wellden and White took counsel together as to the best course to pursue in the circumstances. It was eventually decided to leave the harbour and anchor in a bay on the eastern side of King Island. Before the departure of the ships on the 18th July a message was sent ashore by two lascars carrying a flag of truce offering to redeem any Englishmen still alive. By this time, however, the bloody work had been effectually done, and so far as is known there was no response to Wellden and White's well-intentioned, if somewhat belated, effort to rescue their countrymen. The *Curlana* and the *Resolution*, after cruising about for some time, parted company; the former proceeding to Negrais, while the latter remained off Iron Island. On arrival at Negrais Wellden surveyed the port and hoisted the English flag. Thereafter he returned to the rendezvous agreed upon with White, and finding that he had left for Achin, followed him there. The two vessels sailed in company from Achin to Madapollam. Here they parted company, Wellden proceeding to Madras and White to England. The Madras Council were anxious to get White into their power, as they regarded him as only in a minor degree than Phaulkon the author of their misfortunes in Siam, but the ex-Shahbandar was too wary for the Company's agents, and easily eluded the ship they sent in pursuit of him.

News of the tragic events at Mergui was a long time filtering through to India, and it was in entire ignorance of them that the Council at Fort St. George despatched on August 29, 1687, the frigate *Pearl* to Siam with what was intended as a substantial reinforcement of the force under Wellden's command. With the

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 Council 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 is otherwise designed for the French and will certainly fall into their possession." The letter stated that five French men-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 Burneby, 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 months after the departure of the *Pearl*. It was a very directly-worded document, calling upon Burneby 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. He was told in reply to his challenge that the vessel he 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 compliment was returned, 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 morrow 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 intimidating 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 Burneby and a Captain Leslie. They were furthermore

informed that a Frenchman had Burneby'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 envoys, 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 entertainment of the second French mission, which a little while before had arrived in Siam. The two factors occupied their abundant leisure 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, who was suspected of conniving at the rising, to be imprisoned at Louvo. He was there 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 ground for doubting the sincerity of the Siamese official repudiation 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 that the massacre was no spontaneous outburst 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, so strangled 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 account of the English war with Siam, 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 two 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 usurper—Overtures 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 they were beyond the blandishments of Phaulkon. With lowering brows and clenched hands they observed the French soldiers occupy on the Menam the positions which were practically the key of Siam. The discontent smouldered, bursting out occasionally, as at the time of the Macassar revolt, which probably was instigated by anti-foreign malcontents. Nothing serious happened, however, until after the departure of the French squadron in the early part of 1688. The manifestations then took more menacing form. At first they assumed the character of warnings. One, emanating from a Malay prince, with a Dutchman as prime minister, was dismissed as a mere Dutch intrigue. Another, given by a Malay in person to the king, resulted in the man being put to the torture, and finally in his being thrown to the palace tigers. Simultaneously a number of other disaffected Malays were arrested and put to death. Still the ominous rumours of a conspiracy for the overthrow of the dynasty in which the Greeks and the French were concerned circulated. They were put about by a powerful faction, who realised that their only chance of success in a revolutionary movement was to arouse the hostility of the country against the foreigners. At the head of this party was a mandarin named Phra-Phet-Raxa (or Pitraki, as the missionaries called him),





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," a graphic contemporary account of the rising, "half a dozen of our French soldiers would have scattered that rabblement of natives, but the danger was despised until too late." By strategy Phra-Phet-Raxa obtained possession of the palace, made the king a prisoner, and thence issued his orders in his Majesty's name. Phaulkon, on receiving a hint of what was happening, determined to go to the palace to investigate the position. His friends strongly persuaded him to desist from the attempt, which they realised was perilous to a degree. They wanted the minister to rally his English and French friends around him, barricade himself in his house, and await events. But Phaulkon would not hear of any such half-hearted measures. He, however, assented to the despatch of his native secretary to the palace to make inquiries prior to going there himself. The man, after a brief absence, returned with a confirmation of the news that the palace was in the hands of the revolutionaries and that the king was a prisoner. Phaulkon now himself sallied forth on a tour of investigation. With him went three French officers, but no other escort. He had expected to meet his own French guard at the palace gate, as he had sent orders for it to proceed there. It was, however, not visible when he arrived. In its place he found a number of Siamese officials, who received him with the usual marks of respect. Acknowledging their salutations, he passed into the palace and went in the direction of the king's apartments. He had not proceeded far before he was attacked in a narrow passage by a gang of revolutionaries, whose movements were directed by the usurper and his son. Phaulkon and his French friends were disarmed, and the former was taken away alone. The chief executioner, who was in attendance on the usurper, made as if to strike the fallen minister, but he was restrained by Phra-Phet-Raxa, who intervened to save the victim's life for a reason which was soon apparent. Taking Phaulkon with him, the usurper went to a position on the palace walls which was visible from outside, and there, in full view of the people assembled below, conversed quietly for a time with him. This was done to give the impression that Phaulkon was completely at liberty. The ruse deceived not only the people, but many of the French who had assembled outside. No effort was consequently made to interfere with the course of events. When the usurper had accomplished his purpose he took the Greek to the room in which the three French officers were detained and there left him. Meanwhile the guard which Phaulkon had summoned had assembled at the palace entrance. Efforts were made by the revolutionaries to secure its withdrawal,

the plea being urged that as all was quiet in the palace there was no necessity for its presence. But the officer in command declined to move without a direct order from the Greek, and a similar refusal was given by the native guard which accompanied the French and was under the direction of the French commandant. For many hours the gallant Frenchmen, though surrounded by thousands of revolutionaries, held their ground. As night fell the Siamese portion of the guard were seduced from their allegiance and the situation became critical. At last the revolutionaries accomplished 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 bamboos, 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 for conspiring against the State. Then as evening fell he was put on an elephant 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, which was sent him by the King of France, and delivered them to a mandarin, who stood by, desiring him to give them to his little son." And then he turned to his executioners. "One with a sharp sword cut his body nearly in two; and as he fell to the ground another cut off his head." He is said to have met his fate like a man and a good Christian, his eyes being bold and his voice firm to the last. "Thus died, in the flower of his age, Constantine Phaulkon, well worthy of a better fate; but," says the pious chronicler, "if his death appeared tragical in the eyes of men it was precious before God."

The king did not long survive his unfortunate minister. He was either treacherously killed or died from the effects of disease. Contemporary European accounts paint him in very agreeable colours. In the English preface to a translation of the French pamphlet describing the revolution already referred to, it is said that "he was without contradiction the greatest prince that ever reigned in Siam. He was of stature somewhat under the middle size, but straight and well shaped. He had an engaging air, a sweet and obliging carriage, especially to strangers. He was active and brisk, an enemy of idleness and laziness, which seems to be so natural to the Eastern princes, and is accounted by them the noblest prerogative of their crown. This prince on the contrary was always either in the woods a hunting of elephants, or in his palace minding the affairs of his kingdom. He was no lover of war, because it ruined his people whom he tenderly loved; but when his subjects rebelled or neighbouring princes offered him the least affront, or violated that respect that was due to him, there was no king in all the East that

took a more conspicuous revenge, nor appeared more passionate for glory. He was desirous of knowing everything, and having a pregnant and piercing wit, he easily became master of what he had a mind to learn. He was magnificent, generous, and as true a friend as could be desired. These were the illustrious qualities which procured for him the respect of his neighbours, the fear of his enemies and the esteem and love of his subjects."

When the usurper had rid himself or been rid of the king, he turned his attention to those who stood in the way to a full realisation of his ambitious schemes. First he caused to be executed the king's two brothers and his adopted son. Afterwards the young princess, the king's daughter, was done to death. The manner of her execution was peculiar. She was "taken and thrust into a large velvet sack," her brains "were knocked out with great bars of the sweet and so much esteemed wood in all the Indies called Aquila and Catamboar," and the body was "then thrown into the river, it being accounted a prophane thing 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 they did it with great deference and distinguishing 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 a lingering and horrible death. 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 bethought himself of 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, the more cheerfully accompanying 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 by Phra-Phet-Raxa that Phaulkon 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 dissemble, and he therefore replied "that 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.

himself in person to Bancoek, to bring the soldiers with him, in regard that the officers that commanded in his absence would not quit the fortress upon a bare letter." The usurper granted the requisite permission, but as a measure of precaution the wily Siamese insisted on des Farges leaving his two sons behind as hostages and also compelled him to write a letter to Major Debman, in command of the troops at Mergui, ordering him to return to Louvo. In inditing this communication to his colleague des Farges took care "by the use of extravagant terms and unusual expressions" to convey the impression that he was to pay no heed to the order given him. "By good providence," says the historian, "it fell out just as he could have wished, the letter being received and understood in the sense it was designed."

Des Farges on reaching Bangkok concentrated his forces in the inner fort, and destroying all buildings outside which could shelter a besieging force, awaited events. Not many days elapsed before he was vigorously attacked by a mixed force of Indians, Chinese, and Malays sent against him by Phra-Phet-Raxa. Gallantly the two hundred French troops who composed the garrison held their ground, repulsing all assaults with a steady courage which greatly disconcerted the usurper, who had hoped for an easy victory. In his wrath he directed that a prominent French priest (the Bishop of Metelopolis) who had fallen into his hands should be stripped and tied to a gibbet in full view of his countrymen. This plan failing to produce any effect, the bishop was released and sent to treat with the garrison. Eventually, on September 30, 1688, peace terms were arranged. It was agreed that the French should surrender the forts at Bangkok and that the French troops with their officers should leave Siam, the Siamese undertaking to provide transport for them to Pondicherry. The French garrison at Mergui had prior to this quitted the country. They maintained for some weeks a gallant fight against overwhelming odds, and then, their water supply having failed, they embarked on two ships which were moored near their fort, and after a thrilling series of adventures reached Bengal, from whence they were forwarded by the English to Pondicherry.

Prior to the conclusion of peace, at the beginning of August, 1688, Phra-Phet-Raxa had been crowned King of Siam and Tenasserim with much ceremony at Ayuthia. He had not been long on the throne before he gave evidence of his desire to establish friendly relations with the European traders. Through Mr. Hodges, who had remained at Ayuthia during the troublous period just treated, he sent a message expressing his desire to settle all differences with the East India Company. An intimation was also given that the English nation would be welcome to trade as of old, and that they would have all their old privileges. In any circumstances these overtures would probably have been favourably received, but the fact that the Dutch had concluded an important treaty with the king, conferring upon them wide privileges, and the added circumstance that in 1690 a French fleet of six ships appeared in the Bay of Bengal with the

object of re-establishing French influence in Siam, quickened the desire of the Company to accept the olive-branch tendered to them. The President of the Madras Council, Mr. Elihu Yale, in June, 1690, addressed to the King of Siam, through his minister, a letter which showed an eager desire to restore the old relations if it could be done on satisfactory terms. The king was congratulated on his coronation, and he was told in pompous language that "his great and virtuous character promised no less than justice also [alike to] the Right Honourable Company and the English nation, by a due satisfaction of all the injuries and wrongs they had lately received by means of that unhappy, malicious instrument, Constant Phaulkon, as also for the several sums and debts due to us from the late king on several accounts, as well for money lent his Ambassadors to Persia, and hire for their services and reputation of his people and nation, as appears by the copies of their several obligations and accounts herewith sent you." Yale went on to express a hope that these liabilities would be met. Such compliancy, he assured the king, would encourage a return to trade and a cessation of all difficulties and hostility. On the other hand, "if these just desires are disregarded and denied us, we must of necessity have recourse to such ways and methods for the recovery of our rights as we are unwilling to." A prompt reply to this missive was forthcoming. The Phraklang wrote that "Phaulkon and White had wronged the King greatly and owed him much," and suggested that their property in England should be seized in satisfaction of the Company's claims, as "the King had no money of the others to discharge his debt with." Practically this was the end of the overtures for reconciliation. The Company, which had never found Siam a very profitable market, was not eager to renew the connection without some more powerful inducement than had been held out. Its servants, who had beyond question found the Siamese connection a highly lucrative one, did not look at the matter in the same indifferent light. Indeed, they were so eager to get the trade once more into its old groove, that Elihu Yale actually asked the court for permission for himself and others to wage an independent war against Siam. This extraordinary request was not granted, and during the closing years of the seventeenth century there was little or no communication between the English factories in the East and Siam. With the lapse of years the incentive to intercourse became weaker. The new king lacked the liberality of mind and the enterprise which distinguished his predecessor, while his government missed the firm directing hand and commercial genius of Phaulkon. There was, furthermore, as a disturbing factor in the situation, the unrest and uncertainty inseparable from the early years of a dynasty founded on usurped rights. These circumstances all combined to depose the country from the really high position it had reached as a centre of Eastern trade. Its prosperity declined, and for many years European nations found no special reason to induce them to seek to enter into negotiation with its Government.

## CHAPTER VII

*Trouble state of Siam—Death of Phra-Phet-Raxa—His son, a wretched debauchee, succeeds him—War 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 usurper of Chinese descent—Capital established at Bangkok—Siamese expedition to the Malay Peninsula—Revolt and dethronement of the usurper—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 Pegu, 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, seeing the approaching host and suspecting 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 great army of twelve thousand men, which 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 impostor," says Turpin in his "History of Siam," "wandered for some days in the woods with a young man who had not forsaken him. He was taken asleep under a tree and conducted to Yuthia [Ayuthia], where, chained to a stake, he was exposed for some days to the insults of the populace; he was afterwards ripped up alive, and, while still existing, saw his entrails served as food for dogs." After this there was comparative peace in the land, but the king did not live long 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, benumbed 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 Cambaye, 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 Cochin 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 proud at 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 afforded no fruit for the men nor forage for the animals; they were obliged to kill the sumpter cattle to eat their flesh; the soldiers, not accustomed to such food, were attacked with 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 Pontannas to ashes. The Cochin-Chinese profited 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; and fearing that, after this blow, famine would 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 strong. For a considerable time 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 quitted 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 lull 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 king's 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 they 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 having 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 Malays, and after a struggle were killed 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. His son, Chaoul-Padou, was 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 the conduct of a dissolute brother who defied his authority and caused continual strife in 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 ruin and desolation almost to the gates of the capital. The officers of state, in the crisis, implored Chaoul-Padou 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 Chaoul-Padou 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 1759-60 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 ulti-

mately 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 lesson taught by this disastrous adventure sunk deep into 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 surrendered the country to the Siamese. The enterprise was successfully carried through, and then Shembuan turned his attention to the old design of attacking the Siamese in their capital. Assembling a great army, he marched into Siam. The Siamese attempted vainly to withstand his advance. Their forces were hopelessly defeated, and with slow but sure steps the Burmese host approached Ayuthia. Their way was marked by a broad expanse of wasted country. So merciless were they that the population were practically blotted out. When at length Shembuan arrived before the capital he found a comparatively easy task before him. Chaoul-Padou, tired of his responsibilities, had some time before retired once more into his beloved monastery, giving place to a new king in the person of his brother. The change did not tend to the advantage of the State. The reigning monarch was a man of weak character and little influence. This circumstance, coupled with the existence of dissensions and intrigues amongst the State officials, greatly weakened the country's power of existence.

Turpin, in his "History of Siam," vividly paints the scene: "The king, shut up in his seraglio, consoled himself with his concubines for the miseries of his subjects. The news that the enemy had evacuated Tenasserim and Mergui had given room 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 inhabitants 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 assist 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 all the territory. One of their detachments extended its ravages to the very gates of the city. Bancok, a fortress which 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 Powny, 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 Bramas (Burmese), who, masters of Bancok, 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 Chaoul-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



VIEW OF THE CITY OF BANGKOK IN 1824.

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

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



FLOATING HOUSE ON THE MENAM.

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

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,

Patani, Kelantan, Tringganu, 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 himself 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. Crawfurd 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 Pinang. 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 suffer disgrace in tamely suffering 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 sepoy 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." 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 Calcutta 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

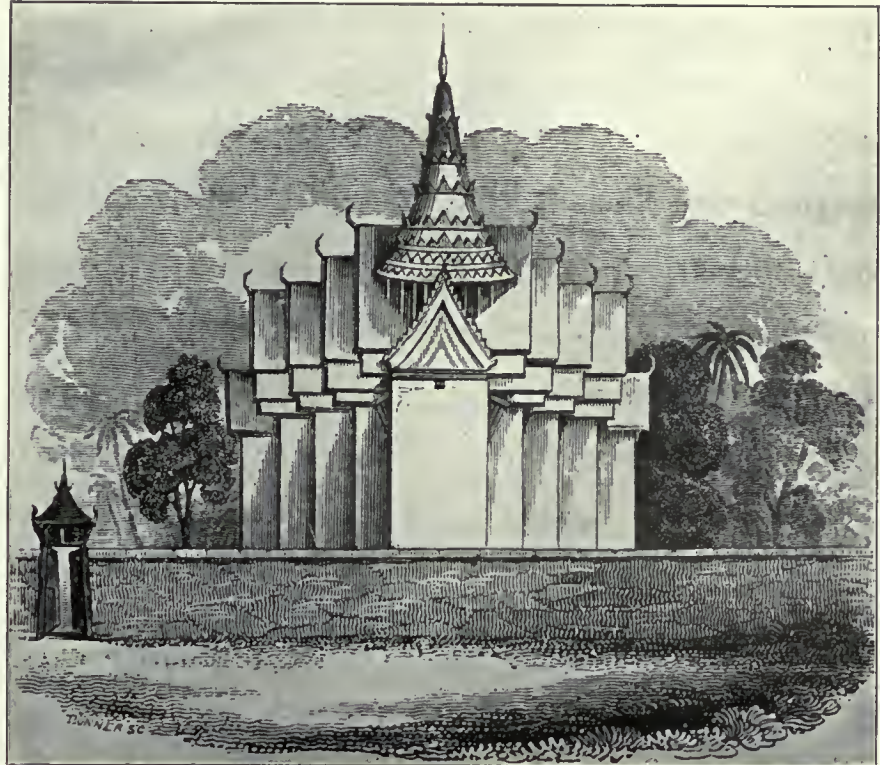


ceded Pinang to Light, fled with difficulty to Province Wellesley, and thence proceeded to Siam, where he placed himself under British protection. A Siamese fleet was despatched to Pinang to demand the surrender of the fugitive, but it was quickly sent about its business by the British authorities, who despatched against it the gunboat *Nautilus*, with orders to fire upon the Siamese prahus 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 Symes, 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

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,

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



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.")

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.

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 entitles 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 despot 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 could surpass in ruthlessness the spirit which dominated the external policy

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 *Johu 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. Crawford 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 Malay to say that the minister would be glad to see Mr. Crawford. 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

proached 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

ceived by Prince Kromchiat, the eldest son of the king. Accompanied by Lieut. Rutherford, Mr. Crawford proceeded at eight o'clock in the evening to the prince's palace. The visitors were ushered into a large hall "deco-



THE OLD PALACE AT BANGKOK AS IT WAS IN 1824.

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



A PRINCE OF THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY IN FULL DRESS.

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

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 ap-

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 grovelling, 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. Crawford 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. Crawford was re-

rated 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. Crawford 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

should make a bow in the European fashion, seat ourselves in the place usually assigned to foreign missions, make an obeisance to 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 Chinese mirror, intended apparently 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 these words: "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, 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 emphasise the action, stretched their faces along the ground six 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 courtyards in their stockinged feet. An inspection of the royal elephants, including the famous sacred 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 any 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 storey. The dwelling which we occupied, however, had been intended for a warehouse, and consisted, as already mentioned, of two storeys, 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 now 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



PRAH PUTTA LOTLAH, KING OF SIAM, 1809-24.

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

missing lamps. Mr. Crawford told the minister that he could not help him, and added that with his countrymen it was the usual custom for an article to go to the person who was prepared to pay the best price for it. Two days after

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



A MANDARIN OF THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY IN ORDINARY COSTUME.

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

ascertained that the victim was their Portuguese interpreter, who was thus punished because he had omitted to report the sale of the lamps. The chastisement 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 Bangkok 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 dirzee, 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 dirzee 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. Crawford, "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 to-day the circumstances of a conversation which he held the day before with one of the brothers of the Prah-klung, 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 SIAMESE WOMAN OF THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY.

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



A SIAMESE MAN OF THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY.

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

and where you are ankle-deep in mire at every step?' The reply, according to the interpreter's report, was, 'Do not speak so; these people are clever and active, and the country

munication was by birth a Siamese, and by disposition very talkative and communicative."

In the conferences 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. Crawford in his Journal, in these words: "When a ship arrives the officers of Government, under pretext 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 tonnage 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 quitted 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 bambooning, 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 *Civis 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

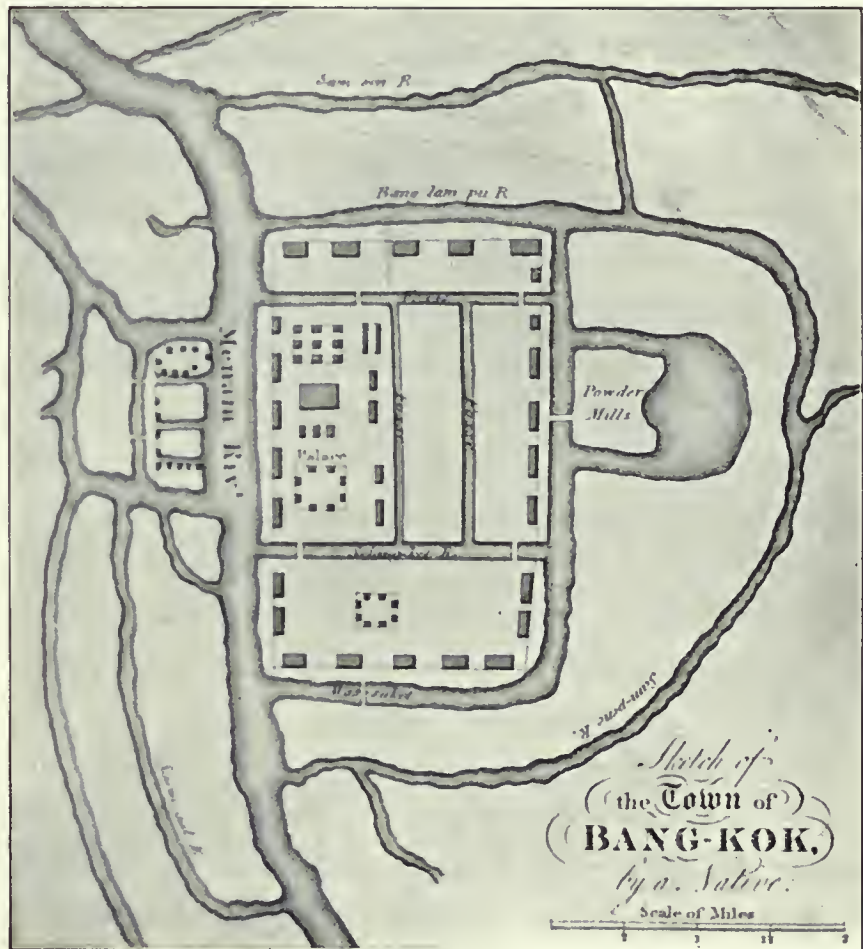
*Accession of a new king—Conclusion of the treaty of Bangkok—The United States mission to Siam in 1833—Sir James Brooke conducts an abortive mission to Siam in 1850—Unsuccessful American mission—Sir John Bowring goes as British envoy to Siam in 1855—He concludes a treaty.*

A NEW king, Somdetch Pra Nang 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 called to account 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.")

was a distinct menace to the independence of a country. So Siam held on its course, living its own life regardless of the blandishments held out to it to enter a wider sphere of trade and politics.

The failure of the Crawford mission was not unexpected by those who understood the Siamese character. What was demanded at that period was not a suppliant attitude, but a bold forward policy, calculated to convince the authorities at Bangkok that their aggression in the Malay States, with all that it implied in wasted territory and a decimated population, could not be tolerated with due regard to British interests in that quarter.

terms as far as concerned the Malay States. The Government of India of the time, fearing a Siamese-Burmese combination, was not disposed to strong courses, and, ignoring the advice tendered it, through the medium of Captain Burney it concluded at Bangkok, on June 20, 1826, a treaty with the Siamese Government recognising the conquest of Kedah and compromising other disputed points. The treaty provided for unrestricted trade between the contracting parties "in the English countries of Prince of Wales Island, Malacca, and Singapore, and the Siamese countries of Ligore, Merdilons, Singara, Patani, Junk Ceylon, Quedah, and other Siamese

provinces"; and that the Siamese should not "obstruct or interrupt commerce in the States of Tringamu and Calantan," and that Kedah should remain in Siamese occupation.

In many particulars the treaty of Bangkok

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

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 1850, 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 (for 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 scrupulous 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 usurper; 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



PALACE CONTAINING THE ASHES OF FORMER KINGS OF SIAM AS IT EXISTED IN 1824.

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

was unsatisfactory, if it was not positively detrimental to British interests. While much was conceded in the recognition of the conquest of Kedah, British trade was hampered in various ways. There were, for example, restrictions upon the residence of British traders in Siam, combined with an extremely objectionable clause which enacted that "the English subjects who visit a Siamese country must conduct themselves according to the laws of the Siamese country in every particular."

As the Siamese laws, as we have seen, sanctioned the savage ill-treatment of a British subject for no greater offence than 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

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. *Sphinx*, which was accompanied by the East India Company's steamer *Nemesis*. On reaching Paknam 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. Ballestier, 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. Ballestier had been engaged in business at Singapore, and not very successfully, 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,

but in the light of subsequent events it may be doubted whether this tender solicitude for the welfare of the visitors was entirely sincere. From the first Mr. Ballestier was subjected to a system of obstruction which made it impossible for him to carry out the objects of his mission. At last, "humiliated,

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



SIR JOHN BOWRING.

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

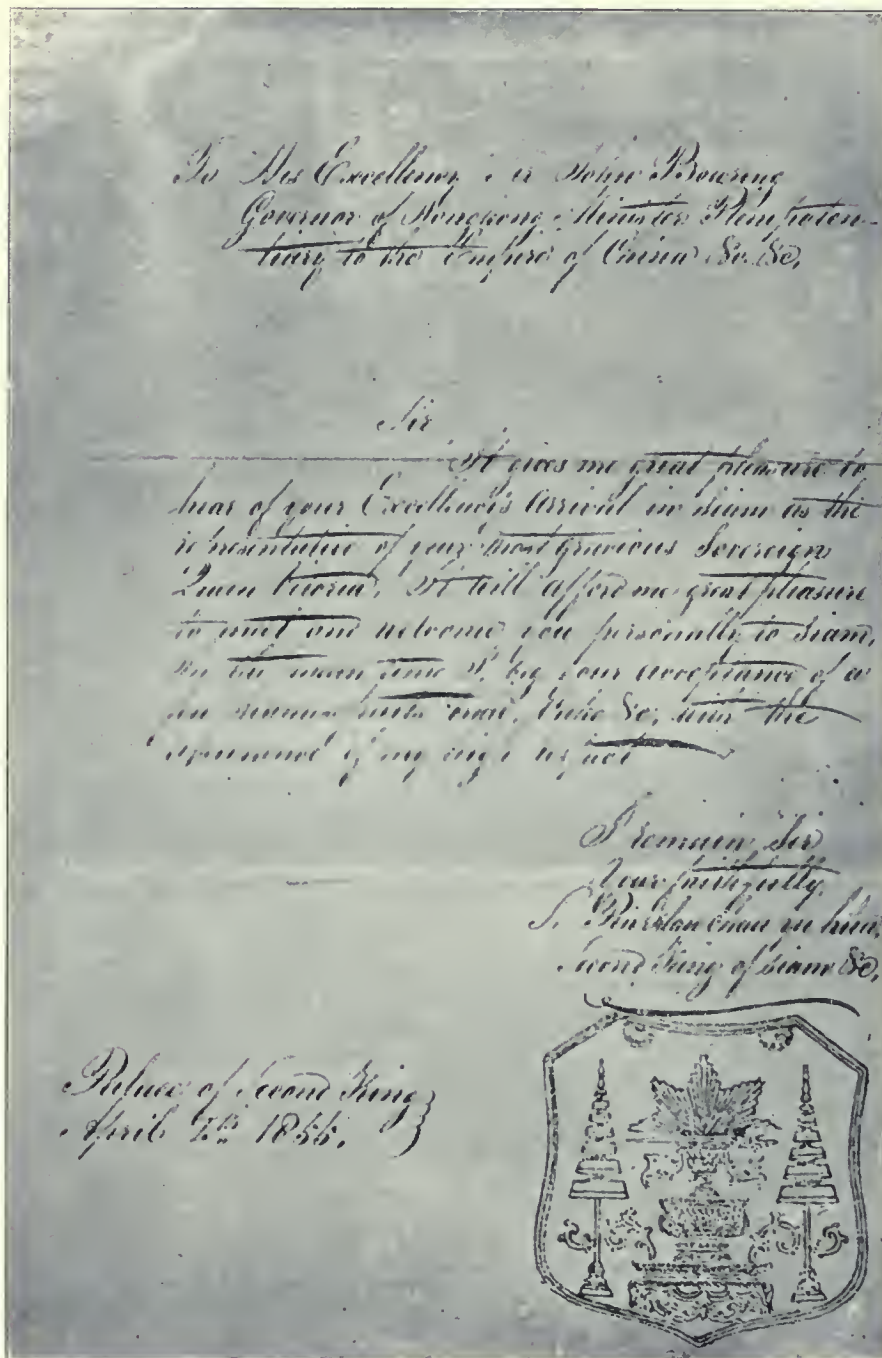
irritated, and completely outgeneralled," to adopt the phrase of a Bangkok chronicler, he left Bangkok in disgust, without having had an opportunity of securing an audience with the king. Subsequently, as if to add insult to injury, the Siamese Government sent a very damaging letter to the United States Government reflecting on Mr. Ballestier'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

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 Cochin China, 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 Somdech. 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 phalkets, a fruit of the size of a gooseberry, gathered in the jungles, but not cultivated in gardens. The bêt, 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 Chau Pin Mong Kei Sriwong, 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 Sriwong 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 honourable 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—fifes, 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 divan 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 excited 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



meal 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 obeisance. After waiting about a quarter of an hour a messenger came, hearing 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



PAGODA OF SOMDETC CHAO PHAJA.

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

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 Cochin Chinese, who would represent them as making humiliating concessions to foreigners, which the Cochin Chinese would never do. I said I would go to Cochin 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."

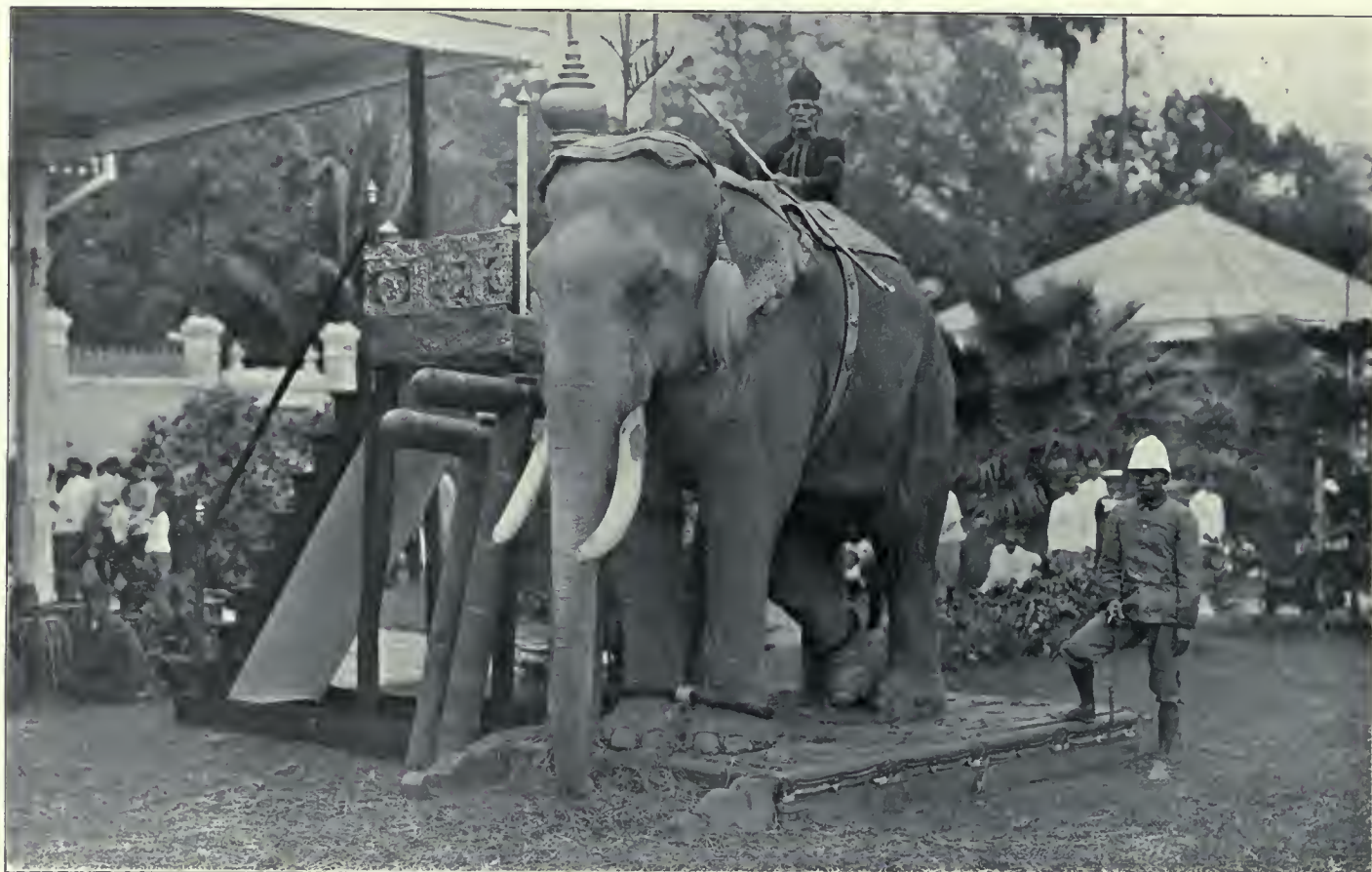
The first favourable impressions produced by the reception given to the mission were strengthened as time wore on. "Nothing," says Sir John Bowring in his record of the mission, "could be more just to Siamese interests, nothing more creditable to the sagacity and honourable intentions of the two Kings, 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 uprooted 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. Crawford'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 attri-

nated 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



A ROYAL WHITE ELEPHANT.

huted to the same influence which nullified the exertions of British ministers. Mr. Ballestier'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 nomi-

brought nearer and nearer to Siamese territory by our continual advances in Birmanah; whether purposes of ambition and a determination to win a deserved popularity—whether these considerations, or any of them, influenced the two younger members, I know not; but it is certain that their influence, their energy, and, above all, the indomitable perseverance of the prime minister, brought our negotiations to a happy issue.

"The King nominated his brother, the Prince Krom Hluang Wongsu, to the presidency of the Commission; and he could not have made a wiser choice, for the prince has had much intercourse with foreigners, among whom, as with the Siamese, he is extremely popular. His influence was undoubtedly flung into the

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. Crawford, 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

*A new reign—An enlightened king—The second king—Employment of European officials—Mission to England—The king's curious offer to the United States—Accession of the present king.*

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—Phrabaht Somdetch Paramindr Maha Mongkut—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 twins 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 Cochin 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.

(From 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 despatch, with a degree of good taste that was quite wonderful in a man who had never been beyond his own little kingdom."<sup>1</sup>

An almost immediate result of this king's accession was a great widening of the avenues of Government employment for Europeans. Indeed, the modern European official hierarchy may be said to date its birth from this period. Under the rule of Somdetch Pra Nang Klow 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 came into vogue. The new king had none of the prejudices of his predecessors against the foreigner. He welcomed Europeans to his capital as a necessary element in the new system under which trade was no longer the special province of the king, but was open to all who desired to enter into it. Many strangers, recruited from most of the nations of continental Europe, flocked to Bangkok. A few of them secured Government employment. The number would have been greater, but for the miserably inadequate pay which the authorities offered. The usual rate was 48 dollars per month. "A greater sum than this was rarely, if ever, given, no matter what the European's ability, and the Siamese then thought this an exorbitant sum, and, compared with the pay of the great nobles, it was so." In the early days of the reign Captain Impey and Mr. T. G. Knox proceeded from India to Siam, and for a season found official employment. The former, after a brief stay, returned to India. Mr. Knox drifted 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 a Mr. Gardener, who was put 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 Montri 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

<sup>1</sup> "Siam Repository," 1869.

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 husbands and so are lost to me."

"When we reached the Castle some three hundred of the Queen's guard, fully equipped, arranged themselves on the right and left, leaving an open way for us to pass into the palace. At the same time the Queen's band struck up their notes of welcome. The guard was a company of magnificent men, looking as though no terror could ever make them quail. So the Siamese were ushered into royal halls. It was Windsor Castle.

"We waited in an 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, the guard stood on the right and left, armed with battle-axes and spears, while we advanced in the opening made 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 awaiting us. We prostrated ourselves 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 standing. He now addressed the throne. 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. Fowle 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 advancement of both kingdoms. Trade, 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 to 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 further 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, until the inhabitants of America 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 uncleared woods and matted jungles where no carriage and cart roads have yet been made." The king proceeded to offer a present of 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 3, 1862, "this Government would not hesitate to avail itself of so generous an offer if the object were one which could be made practically useful in the present condition of the United States. Our political jurisdiction, however, does not reach a latitude so low as to favour the multiplication of the elephant, and steam on land as well as on water has been our best and most efficient agent of transportation in internal commerce." So what might have been the beginning of an interesting intimacy between the United States Government and Siam was nipped in the bud, though at the time and subsequently there were many ties between the citizens of the Republic and the subjects of his Majesty of Siam.

Phrabat Somdetch Paramendr Maha Mongkut died towards the close of 1868, his brother the second king having predeceased him by several years. The succession devolved upon the king's son—Somdetch Phra Paramendr Maha Chulalongkorn, Phra Chula Chom Klao, the present king, then a bright intelligent lad of fifteen. He was crowned with the customary honours at Bangkok on November 11, 1868.

An interesting account of the ceremony is given in the "Siam Repository" for January, 1869. After mentioning that the official invitation asked the foreign consuls to be present at

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 honourables 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.



THE CHAIR USED BY HIS MAJESTY WHEN RIDING ON AN ELEPHANT.

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 con-

gratulatory 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

some time previously been set up in Siam. The formal intimation sent to the various Powers represented, of the king's accession, supplied an opportunity which was not missed of emphasising the existence of this system, by the tendering in dignified fashion of congratulations from the great monarchs of the West to the youth who had attained to royal power in Siam. It is a fact not without significance that the first to do this honour was the King of Prussia, the head of the North German Confederation, as the agglomeration of Germanic States was then known, who was represented at Bangkok at that time in the person of a very able official—Mr. P. Lessler. The circumstances under which the letter was delivered are of sufficient interest to justify the reproduction of this description of the episode which was published at the time in the local magazine:—

"September 1, 1869, at 10.15 a.m., H.S.M.'s beautiful steam yacht, the *Imperatrice*, reached the N.G. Consulate. The decks were covered with soldiers, a Siamese band, some officers of rank, men bearing a double gold vase, seven- and five-sectioned umbrellas, and other insignia of royalty.

"The Siamese officers came up to the N.G. Consulate, announced the object of their mission, and received from the hands of the N.G. Consul the autograph letter of H.M. the King of Prussia. They carefully deposited it in the double vase of gold, surrounded it with the high seven- and five-sectioned umbrellas, and other insignia of royalty. One held over it a large white umbrella pointed with a gold spire sparkling with gems. The men bearing the seven- and five-sectioned umbrellas formed into line.

"The band of Siamese instruments struck up its music and the soldiers presented arms as the letter was borne to the cabin of the *Imperatrice*.

"P. Lessler, Esq., the N.G. Consul, Mr. A. Eisenblat, the Secretary, the Interpreter, and several N.G. gentlemen followed the letter to the steamer.

"When on board the gold vases containing the royal letter were carefully deposited in a prominent place. Then the N.G. flag was hoisted, and the Siamese officers politely requested the Consul and his company to be seated and to make themselves comfortable.

"The *Imperatrice*, which was decorated with flags, crowded with men in uniforms, alive and cheerful with music, steamed away to the landing of the International Court House. When the N.G. party landed they were politely received by the Chief Judge of the Court and his suite, and as the royal letter was landed, the European and native instruments of music struck up their airs, the soldiers in array presenting arms.

"The Consul's company was then led to the handsomely decorated room of the Court, the royal letter was ceremoniously placed upon the centre table, tea and cigars were provided for the entertainment of the guests, and a line of cannon boomed welcome to the fraternal recognition of H.M. the King of Prussia twenty-one times.

"When all was in readiness the royal letter was placed upon a royal seat and was borne

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 dismounted 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 Sri Suriwongse, head of the Senabawdee,' received the company. . . . Just before entering the Audience Hall the letter was placed 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 honoured him with 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. Lessler 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. Lessler replied he was grateful for the grand and honourable mode 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 honours shown.

"His Majesty then recommended Mr. Lessler in his official capacity always to communicate with H.E. Chow Phya Bhanuwongse, 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 audience of the king the—to European minds—degrading form of showing respect practised by the native officials. In anticipation of the formalities attending the presentation of the letters the Consuls 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 sanctioned by the usages of their own 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 graceful 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 spectators and observers, but took no prominent part in the performances of the evening." The Western leaven was indeed working under the inspiring example of the young monarch, who from the very first day of his reign aspired to discharge a progressive rôle.

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 saluted 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 *levée* 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

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 at 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 for Batavia, 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 Anglo-Indian 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 the progressive policy which he 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 (Chakrri Maha Prasad) were laid. This splendid structure was four years in building, and before being occupied was sumptuously furnished in the Western style by English firms. While this work was being prosecuted a royal mint was constructed, and in due course turned out Siamese coinage with machinery of the latest pattern imported from Great Britain. The erection of other Government institutions quickly followed. They included a royal treasury, museum, quarters for royal bodyguard, magnificent barracks for five thousand troops, courts of justice, post and telegraph office, custom house, and a palace for the crown prince. The list was further expanded by the erection of government schools, a college for cadets, a hospital with Victoria Jubilee ward, and colleges of exceptionally ornate design, the two last-named institutions being in honour of the queen consort, who was accidentally drowned in 1880. Furthermore, houses for European officials were erected in suitable positions, the forts at Paknam were repaired and re-armed with modern artillery, an arsenal was built, naval barracks provided, and an enlarged Government dry dock made available.

Simultaneously with the execution of these works measures were taken to improve the *personnel* of the executive. On the one hand European advisers were appointed to supervise special departments; on the other, promising youths were despatched to Europe to acquire instruction in Western arts and sciences, so as to equip them for the discharge of governmental functions on their return to their native country. The king himself became a close student of the English language and obtained considerable facility in it under the instruction of Mrs. Leonowens.

Commercial development all this time was proceeding apace. In the summer of 1869 the Indo-Chinese Sugar Company, a British enterprise, applied for and obtained from the Siamese Government a grant of land for the erection of mills and cultivation of sugar-cane. The grant embraced 3,000 acres of excellent land, and the rent fixed was the low one of 2s. 3d. per acre. The Government, to further meet the promoters of the enterprise, reduced the inland duty on sugar by one-half. Thus encouraged, the company imported and set up large sugar mills on the newest principle, and immediately put a large tract of land under cultivation. Nor was this the only outcome of the Government's liberal policy. The native growers, finding that they had now some one to deal with them on fair terms, showed an anxiety to extend their cultivation and to enter into contracts with the new company for cane.

The year 1879 will be memorable in Siam for the discovery of valuable sapphire mines in the Battambang and Chantaboon districts. The news of the discoveries attracted great crowds of strangers, chiefly from Burmah, to work the mines. In the early days of the rush small fortunes were made by lucky prospectors. The British Consul-General in his report for 1880 tells a story of how a poorly clad and miserable-looking individual showed him at Bangkok a large sapphire in the rough which he valued at 20,000 rupees. He further relates the case of a man who dug out a stone which he offered for sale in Chantaboon at 1,000 rupees without finding a purchaser, and who, proceeding to Rangoon, was offered 15,000 rupees for the find. This tempting offer opened the man's eyes to the value of his possession, and taking the stone to Calcutta, he readily obtained there 30,000 rupees for it. The prosperity of the mines was only temporary. In 1880 the report made upon them was that they were almost wholly abandoned owing to the unhealthy character of the district and the lawlessness of its inhabitants.

Trade in its legitimate sense underwent no sensational development in these early days of Siam's regeneration. Nevertheless substantial progress was made. Some figures relative to the shipping entered and cleared at Bangkok illustrate this fact. In 1866 the tonnage of British ships trading with that port only aggregated 23,969. Three years later the tonnage had increased to 73,188, and the returns for 1879 showed a still further increase to 242,612. In the latter year the total tonnage of that port amounted to 481,098, so that more than half the shipping visiting Siam sailed under the British flag. Other European nations, however, had a substantial stake in the country. When British Consul-General in 1885, Sir Ernest Satow estimated the amount of foreign capital invested in Siam at £191,280, and apportioned the sum as follows:—

British—	£
<i>European</i> ... ..	69,000
<i>Asiatic</i> ... ..	62,280
French ... ..	30,000
German ... ..	30,000

At that time the commercial interests of Great Britain in Siam, as compared with the rest of the world, were in fixed capital as 2 to 1, in

steamers as 8 to 1, in exports as 9 to 2, and in imports as 2 to 1. Mr. Satow (as he then was) thought that commerce generally was more sluggish than the natural wealth of the country warranted, and he pointed to the lack of initiative on the part of the Government as the cause of the inertia. His remarks were fully justified at the time as far as some phases of the administration were concerned. But even then, apart from the provision of public institutions to which reference has been made, there were not wanting signs that the Siamese Government appreciated the fact that it had a place in the circle of civilised nations and must occupy it. In 1883 Siam was brought into intimate touch with the outer world by the construction of telegraph lines to Saigon, on the one hand, and to Tavoy, in British Burmah, on the other. The very next year Siam entered the International Postal Union, a step which was followed by a wide extension of the postal system throughout the interior of the country. Before these events occurred the King of Siam, in 1882, had caused the centennial of the foundation of Bangkok to be celebrated with much grandeur. The principal feature of the programme was an exhibition of Siamese arts and products at the capital. Many thousands of people visited the exhibition, which served to reveal in a striking way the great natural wealth of the country.

In the early part of 1883 a French survey expedition, under the command of Count Bellon, made a thorough exploration of the route across the Isthmus of Kra, so often proposed as the most suitable place for the cutting of a ship canal through the Malay Peninsula. The result of the survey was such as to disappoint the hopes of the least sanguine. The lowest pass discovered in the chain of hills running down the peninsula was 250 feet above the sea-level. There were other difficulties, which rendered the task practically an impossible one. The cost of cutting a canal, it may be added, was estimated at twenty millions sterling, a gigantic sum, seeing that the peninsula in its narrowest part is only 24 miles across.

Siam, at this period in the eighties, was singularly lacking in means of land communication. The roads, where they existed at all, were mere tracks, and the railway was absolutely unknown. This state of affairs could not long exist in the presence of the new spirit which was animating Siamese life. The spell of Oriental indifference was broken in 1889, when a tramway company was formed at Bangkok. The enterprise was an immediate success, a dividend of 10 per cent. being paid on the capital. The line at the outset was a horse tramway of the ordinary type, but the management wisely in 1892 adopted electricity as the motive power, and it therefore happened that the Bangkok people were amongst the first in the East to enjoy the pleasures of a well-equipped electric tramway. Railway schemes followed quickly in the wake of this tramway venture. The pioneer line was one from Bangkok to Paknam, a distance of 14 miles. The project was financed by a company with the modest capital of 400,000 ticals (£33,000), half of which was subscribed by the king.





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 £2,400 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 Paknam to 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, 165 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 (of the firm of Messrs. Murray Campbell & Co.), and the first sod 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 dispute, with the result that Messrs. 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 finally reorganised the machinery of justice on proper lines. Meanwhile, the new leaven of Western civilisation 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 twelve 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 out-

siders 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 into operation any law that it might pass without the authority of the king, provided that his Majesty was not at the time in sufficiently good health to attend to State business. The concession, though qualified by a proviso that all laws and regulations so passed should be subject to revision by the king on his recovery from illness, was a remarkable privilege for an Oriental monarch to grant on his own volition, and it serves perhaps more than any other isolated act to accentuate the extent to which Siam at 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 provincial administration. To each province was appointed 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. "The appointment of the Royal 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 Commissioners were 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 powerless to resent his treatment he had to be content with grumbling and moaning. . . . One day 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 smarted 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 condescension; 'call yourself anything you like, and as to the umbrella, add two tiers or twenty, 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 Chin Haws—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 notable advance along the paths of Western civilisation 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 France. The Powers at the time were "on the pounce," to adopt a colloquialism applied to a famous statesman in another connection. Wherever there were unconsidered trifles of unappropriated territory there the diplomatic eye cast covetous glances. The French conquests in Tonkin, which culminated in 1883 in the declaration of a protectorate over the entire country, caused French attention to be directed towards the kingdom of Siam, which, as one of the last of the un-"protected" small States of the Far East, appeared to invite aggression on behalf of the grandiose scheme of a great Indo-Chinese Empire which France at that period entertained. M. de Lanessan, the great apostle of French expansion, who subsequently filled the office of Governor-General of Indo-China, opened the attack in his well-known book, "L'Expansion Coloniale 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 Mekong and that of the Menam "ought to be considered by France as the natural limit of her Indo-Chinese Empire on the side of Siam." "Having," he said, "retaken the great Lak provinces, which formerly were dependent on Cambodia, and basins of the Mekong and the Se-monn, 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 crystallise 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 the grass to grow 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 on 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 await events. The Chin Haws, finding every one 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 debateable 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 force, 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. "They (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 district 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



A LAOSIAN BOAT.

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 1867, 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.

## CHAPTER XII

*Franco-Siamese Delimitation Commission at work—French claims to territory in the Mekong watershed—Further proposal for a Franco-British understanding relative to Siam—Situation becomes critical—Collision between French and Siamese forces.*

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 debateable 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 Lüs and the Laos are so much alike that without the difference of dress it would be difficult to distinguish one from the other. The men among the Lüs wear loose trousers of dark blue with a fringe of all the colours of the rainbow at the lower edge, a small double-breasted jacket, also of dark blue, with embroidery, a turban and Chinese shoes—if shod at all. The women wear a petticoat of far brighter and more variegated colours than the people further south; a jacket very similar to those of the men and a bright turban complete a very becoming costume. The men are a comparatively tall, active race, and the women 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 Laos of 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 Laos of Chiangmai or of Nan. 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."

ABOUT the middle of 1890 a Franco-Siamese Commission commenced the delimitation of the frontier in the districts bordering on Indo-China. The principal French official employed was M. Pavie, whom we have met before actively engaged in the patriotic enterprise of promoting French influence in Luang Prabang. M. Pavie was a man of much force of character, who had worked his way to the front by sheer ability. He first went out to Siam in 1884 as a telegraph operator on the staff employed on the construction of the line between Saigon and Bangkok. The topographical and political experience gained in the course of his work was turned by him to such good account that the French authorities, in recognition of his services, appointed him in 1888 vice-consul at Luang Prabang. From that time forward, until the appointment of the Boundary Commission, he was constantly employed in surveying and reporting on the country to the north-west of the French position. It was doubtless upon the strength of his information as to the strategic and commercial value of particular districts that the French claims, the pressing of which precipitated such a grave crisis at a later period, were based. These, as has been seen from the despatch of Lord Salisbury of April 3, 1889, previously quoted, were to the districts lying eastward of the Mekong from the point where it leaves China. The Siamese occupation of a considerable portion of this area for a long period of years was unquestionable, but their rights, it was held, were overridden by a French title based on prior ownership by Annam, now a portion of the Indo-Chinese dominions of France.

The position of the question at the time of the constitution of the Franco-Siamese Delimitation Commission is set forth in the following extract from a despatch from Captain Jones, the British minister at Bangkok, to Lord Salisbury of January 6, 1890:—

"As the existing situation of the contested districts will be maintained until modified by the decisions of the Joint Commission, Siam will continue to hold the Basin of the Mekong from (about) the 13th to the 22nd parallel of north latitude, with the exception of three small districts on this side of the Khao-Luang range, settled by the Annamites, where the routes from the east debouch from the mountains into the plains. These are:—

Ai-Lao-Dign, in latitude	17° north.
Kia-Heup, " "	17½° "
Kan-Muan (about) " "	18¼° "

Beyond these to the north, the Siamese hold the districts called Pan-Ha-Thang Hok ('the nation of five or six chiefs'), and the French will continue to occupy Sipsong-Chu-Thai ('the twelve small Siamese States'), from which they have succeeded in driving the Chin Haws and other marauders."

In November, 1890, M. Pavie visited Bangkok 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 there 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 proposals. 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 Bangkok to Korat, to be afterwards continued to Nong Khai 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 had the effect of stimulating the French Government to further action in the disputed territory. In July, 1891, a French force occupied a position in the Luang Prabang district. This advance was a manifest breach of the arrangement entered into with Siam, but it was justified on the ground of Siamese activity—the pushing forward of posts to 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 was a call upon the Government to pursue a strong policy in upholding the territorial integrity of Siam. The French Government appear 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 an essentially Siamese district. The proposal was referred by Lord Salisbury to the Government of India for their opinion, and this, when forthcoming, was entirely opposed to the conclusion 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.

after a decent interval the French Government were politely given to understand that the idea could not be entertained. Meanwhile the relations between the Siamese and the French Governments were becoming daily more strained. Lord Dufferin on February 7, 1893, in a despatch to Lord Rosebery (who had by that time become Foreign Secretary) set out the points in the dispute. "The charges brought against the Siamese Government," he wrote, "are summed up in a speech by M. François Deloncle, contained in the full report of the debate. M. Deloncle asserted that the Siamese persistently ignore the rights of the kingdoms of Annam and Cambodia over the whole of Laos and the territories situated on the two banks of the Mekong, and that the Government were still of the opinion expressed by their predecessors two years ago, to the effect that the left bank of the Mekong was the western limit of the sphere of French influence and that this opinion was based on the incontestable rights of Annam, which had been exercised for several centuries."

Somewhat later M. Waddington, the French ambassador in London, called upon Lord Rosebery and revived the proposal for an understanding as to the boundaries of Siam. The views of the British Government on the subject at the time are embodied in the following despatch from Lord Rosebery to M. Waddington of the date April 3, 1893 :—

"... Her Majesty's Government have not attempted to express an opinion, or to enter into any discussion on the question of the proper frontier of Siam towards the French possessions. But they do not consider it admissible, and they scarcely conceive that the French Government can wish to propose that the two Governments should assume exclusive spheres of influence in territory which actually belongs or which may hereafter be assigned to Siam, and that their respective interests in the independence and integrity of the kingdom should be divided by the Mekong River. Such an arrangement has, as far as I am aware, no precedent in international practice, and seems at variance with the principle of the national independence of Siam, which both Governments wish to preserve.

"As regards territories outside of Siam, Great Britain, as I have already explained, has acquired certain rights to the east of the Mekong in virtue of her annexation of Borneo and her Protectorate of Kyangton. Some of those rights H.M. Government have arranged to cede to Siam, and the others they are proposing to cede on certain conditions to China. They have frankly explained their intentions to the French Government, who will see that they are not of a nature to give rise to uneasiness or jealousy on the part of France. But until these arrangements are completed, and they are furnished with some more definite explanations of the views of the French Government with regard to the frontiers of Siam on the east and north-east, it does not seem to them that there is a sufficiently clear basis for a formal engagement between the two Governments with regard to their respective interests and spheres of influence in these regions."

The position of affairs in Siam, meanwhile,

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 Stung-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 order up reinforcements 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 troops, with the result that a French 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 daily 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 dangers of the position, 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 irritation in France, as the measure was accepted as a confirmation of the suspicions, held quite unjustly, that the British Government was hacking 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 explanation from M. Develle 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 by the difficulty of organising 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 done so.

"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 any case, 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 already been made that I was too supine in the matter, but if a rising were to take 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. Develle 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 coming to a prompt understanding 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—Consternation at Bangkok—Despatch of an ultimatum 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 frontier.*

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 bellicose attitude, and no doubt its resistance 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 might 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 easily understand, under present 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 essential 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 insistence 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 to that effect 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 hauled up their anchors, and the *Inconstant*, with the master of a small French coasting ship, the *J. B. Say*, acting as pilot, proceeded up the river. What further 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 *J. 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 *J. 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 repeatedly 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 menacing conduct and hostile demonstrations 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 teak 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 *Linnet* 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-

ing the bar—the approaching dusk, hastened by the sudden thunderstorm, obscured the view of the vessels from the forts; the obstacles in the channel were insufficient to impede their progress, and of the two torpedoes fired, one exploded too soon and the other too late.

"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. Satisfaction 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 indemnities of 2,000,000 fr.

"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 adjustment of all reasonable claims, the 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 submission, 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 *Incoubant*. 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 commercial 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 felt at the action of France towards 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 frontier question a matter 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 careful language the entire substance of your Lordship's instructions to me as contained in your despatch of July 20th, 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 extending not to the east, and abutting upon Annam, but to the northwards of the Upper Mekong, and conterminous with China, not to mention the districts lying beyond which had been incorporated with her Majesty's Empire of India after the conquest of Burmah.

"M. Develle replied that as it was with Siam, and with Siam alone, that France was dealing, there could be no question of her laying claim to any territory outside the kingdom of Siam, no matter how situated, and he incidentally gave me the further assurance that there was no truth in the report that his Government had any intention of taking possession of the Siamese provinces of Battambang and Angkor.

"I then produced a 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 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 that 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 persistently advanced such a 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 recurred 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 confiscation 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 the kingdom?

"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 limitrophe in Asia, and that Siam as an independent State should be left as a buffer between them. Again referring to the map, 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 naked 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 reversionary interest in this portion of Siamese territory 'which was situated on the left bank of the Mekong.'

"Although there are 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 interpreted in an unrestricted and literal sense? 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 pretensions was undoubtedly calculated to 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 fired upon French ships of war, and we must not be 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 Asiatic possessions of France and England 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 idea 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, but in as courteous a manner as 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:—

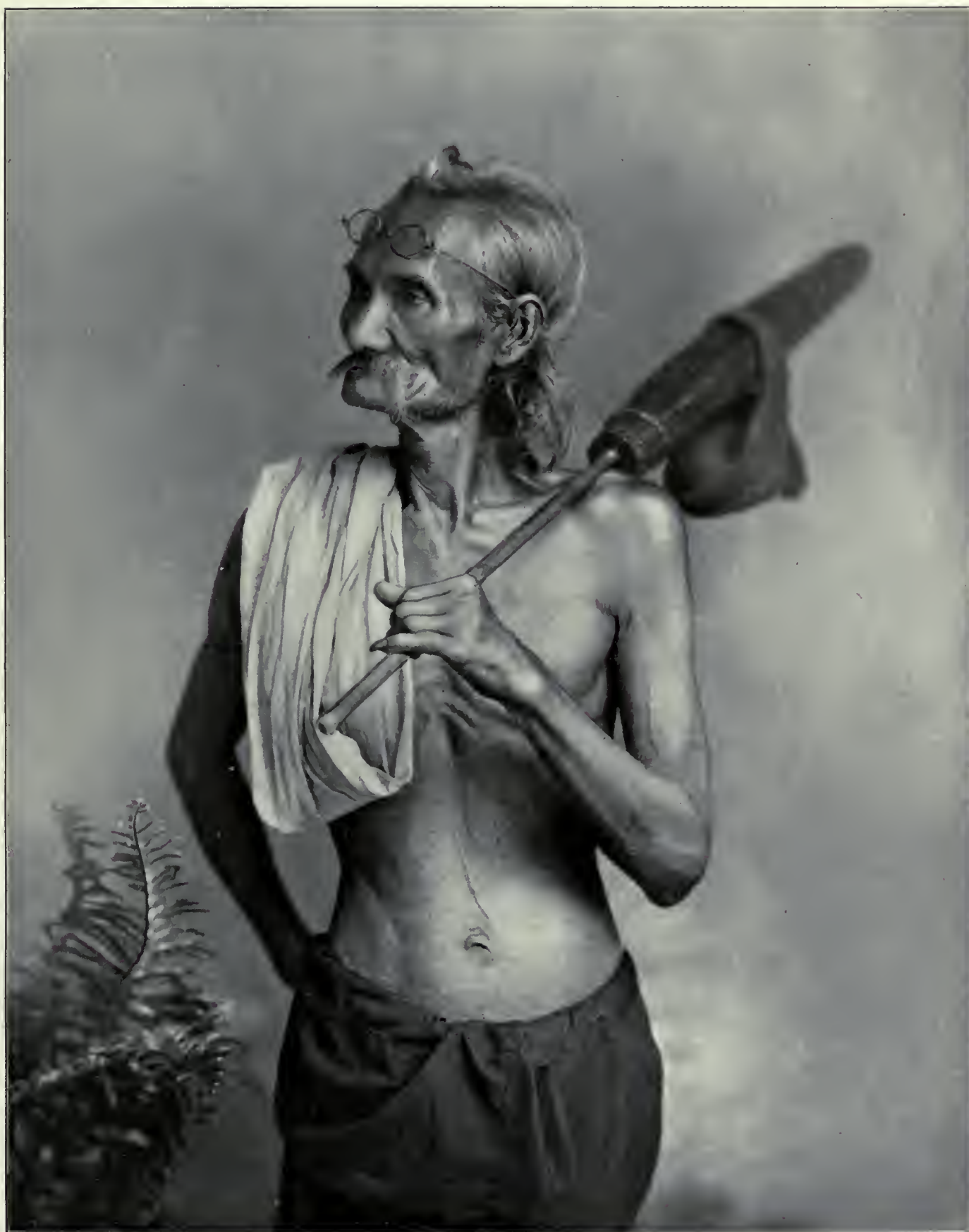
"We proceeded to renew our discussion on the main question, during the course of which we went over a good deal of the ground which we had covered at our interview on Saturday, M. Develle still maintaining his two previous theses: first, that Luang Prahang was an actual dependency of Annam, and, secondly, that France *ab antiquo* 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 Prahang 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 *Annuaire*, in every French map, in every French geographical gazetteer Luang Prahang, 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 minds of French geographical authorities, but as an honest man he must be 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 antiquo* 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 Vice-Consul to Luang Prahang. This in 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 what light Luang Prahang was 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 subjected 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, in the excited state of public opinion, to withdraw or modify it.

"After expressing my great regret at so untoward an intimation 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 independent State 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 that he was most anxious 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 him whether he had in his own mind considered the width of the area which should be left between our respective frontiers, and as we bent over the map together I pointed out the Namu, which flows into the Mekong a little to the west of Luang Prabang, as affording a suitable line of demarcation, if we were driven to a solution on this 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 Burmah the jurisdiction of England had been extended over the Shan province of Kyaing Chaing, which lay on both sides of the Mekong, but with the view of consulting 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 the Siamese authorities to make an immediate 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 at the beginning of August 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 found that the settlement of outstanding questions 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 return to receive the French representative. 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 ineffectual protests, he on September 27th formally handed to Prince Derawongse a convention drawn up by the French Foreign Minister in Paris, with an intimation that he would leave Siam in four days whether the conditions set forth in the document were accepted or not. This had the desired effect. At the last moment the terms 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 for adjustment the delicate 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 had practically reached an agreement 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 of 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 intercourse with Siam, of her friendly 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 those regions.

"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 on your return to Paris you will find M. Develle 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 more months passed before

they had fully completed their labours. Finally, on January 15, 1896, an understanding was reached by Great Britain and France 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 by 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 doubt upon the complete title and rights of the Siamese 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 undisturbed enjoyment, in accordance with 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 lines of communication which will be of considerable importance to neighbouring portions of the British Empire. There seems every prospect that capital will flow into this region if reasonable security is offered for its investment, and great advantage would result to the commerce and industry of the world, and especially of Great Britain, if capitalists could be induced to make such an application of the force which they command. But the history of the region in which Siam is situated has not in recent years been favourable to the extension of industrial enterprise, or to the growth of that confidence which is the first condition of material improvement. A large territory to the north has passed from the hands of the Burmese Government to those of Great Britain. A large territory to the east has passed from the hands of its former possessors to those of France. The events of this recent history certainly have a tendency to encourage doubts of the stability of the Siamese dominion; and without in any degree sharing in these doubts, or admitting the possibility within any future with which we have to deal of the Siamese independence being compromised, her Majesty's Government could not but feel there would be

an advantage in giving some security to the commercial world that in regard to the region where the most active development is likely 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 attest it by admitting the French claims to the ownership of the Mong Hsing 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 neighbourhood."

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 Hsing, the Indian authorities wrote: "We were prepared to cede this district to Siam in 1893 and include it in a buffer State in 1894, and though we were reluctantly compelled to occupy it in 1895, we have all along recognised that this small excrescence 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 advantageous 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 State. 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 Trans-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 debateable 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

tranquillising 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 new Anglo-Siamese Agreement—Description of Kelantan—The political history of Trengganu—Conclusion.*

IN recent years Siam has rejoiced in the happiness which proverbially attaches to the country which has no history—no stirring 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.

	£
1902 ... ..	7,927,646
1903 ... ..	7,431,237
1904 ... ..	10,014,141
1905 ... ..	9,982,735
1906 ... ..	11,948,990

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<sup>1</sup> 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

<sup>1</sup> "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 scattering of the seed by hand, the thrashing floor of hardened mud and buffalo dung tramped by buffalo hoofs, and 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 enterprising 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 Chantabun was opened to traffic by the King of Siam on January 24, 1908. Simultaneously an additional stretch of the northern line, 138 kilometres long, 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 Malayan 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.

Arising indirectly, if not directly, out of the question of railway communication in Siam, there has 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 extra-territoriality 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

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 Kôta Bhâru.

“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 Kôta Bhâru 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



THE KING'S SUMMER PALACE AT BANG PAH INN.

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,

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 outcoming water and a sandy shore. Twelve miles up the river, on its right bank, is

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 occasion of this festival for sea-bathing, boat-sailing, fish-catching, and general junketing is the close 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 gleaming 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 stretch of grey-green wood and yellow sand, divided from the sea by a narrow ribbon of white wave.

"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 palisade with one great central gate flanked by smaller gates on either side. A second and similar set of gates forms a further enclosure,

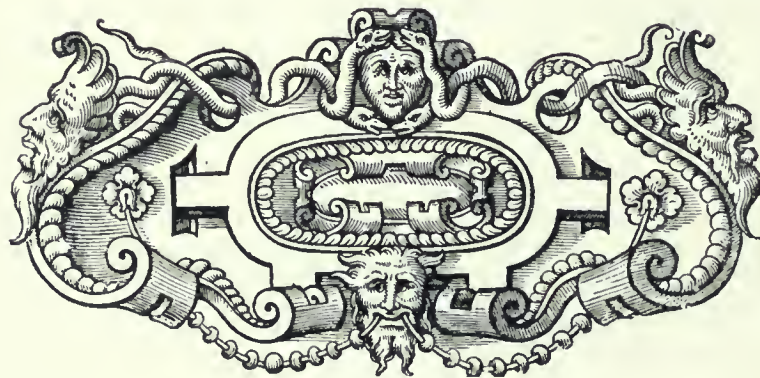
about a hundred yards nearer the river. From these outer portals to the river stretches a long straight road, and on occasions of great ceremony the visitors whom the Sultan delights to honour will find this road lined, on both sides throughout its entire length, by spearmen, while the principal chiefs 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. Immense quantities of coconuts are grown and made into copra, all of which is exported to Singapore."

Kelantan in the past century was a fierce bone 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 Tringanu" from the fate which had overtaken Kedah. It was probably owing to his representations that the article in reference to Kelantan and Trengganu was introduced into the Treaty of Bangkok in 1826. Until 1862 the neutral position assigned to the two States in the treaty was tacitly accepted by Siam, but in that year the Siamese Government 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 peninsula was, Sir Frank Swettenham says, notorious. "At first this remonstrance, made after a personal complaint from the Sultan of Trengganu 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 Cavenagh'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 arrangement. 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 foresight 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 agricultural 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 AYUTHIA WAS BUILT,

CHULA ERA 712, CORRESPONDING WITH A.D. 1850.

NAME.	Chula Era.	A.D.	Length of Reign.	NAME.	Chula Era.	A.D.	Length of Reign.
<b>FIRST DYNASTY.</b>				<b>SECOND DYNASTY—continued.</b>			
1 Sômdêtch P'ra Rahmah T'ibaudee 1st.	712	1351	20	24 P'ra Aht'itaya-wong, a brother of the 23rd, nine years old.	991	1631	5 mo.
2 Sômdêtch P'ra Rame-súan, son of the 1st, who abdicated for	731	1371	1	Here closes this dynasty, being three reigns.			
3 Sômdêtch P'ra Boroma-Rach'a-T'irâht.	732	1371	13	<b>THIRD DYNASTY.</b>			
4 Chôw Oô-T'aung-lân, son of the 3rd.	744	1383	7 days	The last king was driven from the throne by the Siamese nobles and lords, and they put in his place the Prime Minister above mentioned, named			
5 Sômdêtch P'ra Rahme-súan, assassinated the 4th, being the same person as the 2nd reign.	744	1383	6	25 P'ra Chôw Prasâht T'aung.	992	1631	26
6 Sômdêtch P'rayah P'ra Rahm, son of the 5th.	754	1387	15	26 Chôw Fâh Ch'ai, son of the 25th.	1017	1656	9 mo.
7 Sômdêtch P'ra Nak'aun In.	763	1401	18	27 P'ra Sri-sut'ama Rahch'ah, killed the 26th and reigned.	1018	1657	2½ mo.
8 Sômdêtch P'ra Boroma Rahch'a'ah T'irâht, son of the 7th.	780	1419	17	28 Sômdêtch P'ra Narai, son of the 25th, killed the 27th.	1018	1657	26
9 Sômdêtch P'ra Boroma Trai Lôhkanâht, son of the 8th.	796	1435	16	29 P'ra P'et Rahch'ah.	1044	1683	16
10 Sômdêtch P'ra Boroma Rahch'a, son of the 9th.	811	1450	22	He is called a usurper, and is not allowed an honourable place among the kings.			
11 Sômdêtch P'ra Rahmah T'ibaudee 2nd.	832	1470	40	30 P'ra P'utt'a Chôw Sú-a, son of the 28th.	1050	1608	10
12 Sômdêtch P'ra Boroma Rahch'ah Maháh P'utt'ang, son of the 11th.	871	1510	5	31 P'ra Chôw Yü Húa Tai Sâ:, son of the 30th.	1068	1709	27
13 P'ra Ratsat'á T'irâht, son of the 12th, five years old.	875	1514	5 mo.	32 P'ra Chôw Yü Húa Boroma köht, brother of the 31st.	1094	1733	26
14 Sômdêtch P'ra Ch'ai Rahch'a T'irâht, son of the 12th, killed by the 13th.	875	1514	15	33 Chôw Fâh Dânk-madü-a, son of the 32nd, and then abdicated the throne for the elder brother,	1120	1759	10 days
15 P'ra Yaut Fâh, son of the 14th, aged eleven years.	880	1528	2½	34 P'ra Chôw T'inang Suriya Marintara.	1120	1759	9
The 15th was slain by K'un Warawongsâh-T'irâht, 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 P'irena-t'ep, who placed on the throne P'ra T'eean Rahch'ah, who bore the name				With this reign closed the dynasty of Prasâht T'aung. 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 12½ 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 Tonaburee, which is now the site of his Royal Highness Krom P'ra Chakrapatt'apong's palace. He built a walled city in this place, and reigned as			
16 Sômdêtch Maháh Chakra p'atdi Rahch'ah T'irâht.	891	1530	7	35 King P'rayah Tahk-sin.	1129	1767	15
17 Sômdêtch P'ra Mahint'a Rahch'a T'irâht, son of the 16th.	917	1556	1	<b>THE FOURTH AND PRESENT DYNASTY.</b>			
The capital of the kingdom was taken in 918 by the King of Hôngsâh-wadee or Pegu.				A Siamese general of great celebrity under P'rayah Tahk-sin took the throne, named			
18 Sômdêtch P'ra Maháh T'ama Rahch'ah T'irâht.	918	1557	23	36 Sômdêtch P'ra Boroma Rahch'ah P'ra P'utta Yaut Fâh.	1144	1782	27
19 Sômdêtch P'ra Nare-súan, son of the 18th.	940	1579	16	37 P'ra P'utt'a L'ol-lâh, son of the 36th.	1171	1809	15
20 Sômdêtch P'ra Eka Totsarol, younger brother of 19th.	955	1584	9	38 P'rabâht Sômdêtch P'ra Nang Klôw, son of the 37th.	1186	1824	27
21 Chôw Fâh Sri-sawa-p'ahk, son of the 20th. Here closes the dynasty of Sômdêtch P'ra Rahmah T'ibaudee, being twenty different kings, one of them having reigned twice.	963	1609	1 2 mo.	39 P'rabâht Sômdêtch P'ra Paramendr Mahâhmongkut, son of the 37th.	1213	1851	17
<b>SECOND DYNASTY.</b>				40 P'rabâht Sômdêtch P'ra Paramendr Maháh Chulalongkorn Klôw, the present king, son of the 39th.	1230	1868	
22 P'ra Chôw Song T'am slew the 21st and reigned.	964	1603	26				
23 P'ra Ch'etâh Tiraht Olsarot, an elder brother of the 22nd.	989	1628	1 7 mo.				
The Prime Minister, Chôw P'raya Kalahôm Sri-suri-wong, assassinated the 23rd, and placed on the throne							



H.R.H. SOMDETC CHAO FA MAHA VAJIRAVUDH, THE CROWN PRINCE OF SIAM.



## THE ROYAL FAMILY

**H**IS Majesty Sōmdetch Phra Paramendr Maha Chulalongkorn, King of Siam of the North and South, Sovereign of the Laos, the Malays, &c., is the fifth sovereign of the Chakraki dynasty, founded 126 years ago.

His Majesty, who is the eldest son of King Maha Mongkut and of Queen Ramboi Bhanibhorom, was born on September 20, 1853, and, in accordance with the custom of Siam, where the reigning king can choose whomsoever 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 her 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 illu-

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.

sovereign in the world, and is therefore looked upon as the chief supporter of the religion of the Buddha. All other religious creeds, however, are granted full liberty of worship, nor are there any religious disabilities of any kind existing in the country. No one by virtue of his religious beliefs, whatever they may be, is prevented from occupying any particular office under the administration, and the fact that his Majesty has gone so far as to present a site for the erection of a Protestant church in Bangkok is evidence of the broad-minded toleration prevailing. In person his Majesty is of medium height. He has a genial manner and kindly

sent a site for the Royal Sports Club and is the donor of a gold cup for competition at the annual race meeting. During recent years, too, his Majesty has become an enthusiastic motorist, and now may often be seen in one of his numerous cars driving, without escort of any kind, around the streets of his capital.

Her Majesty the queen, who is a half-sister to the king, was, when married, the twenty-third living child of King Mongkut. Her Majesty leads a quiet, retired life and is rarely seen in public except at State functions, when her appearance is rendered necessary by custom or etiquette. Her Majesty has founded



ROYAL PALACE AND PAGODA AT PETCHABURI.

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



THE ROYAL PALACE, BANGKOK.



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 Bhanurangsi, Minister of War and Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Navy, and his Royal Highness Prince Krom Luang Narisara Nuwattiwongse, Minister of the Household. His Majesty has also twenty half-brothers, many of whom hold high offices in the State. Of these, per-

haps 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 archaeology 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.



DINING ROOM AT DUSIT PALACE, BANGKOK.



## CONSTITUTION AND LAW

### THE CONSTITUTION.



**I**N 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 "Senapati," 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 depart-



THE LATE ROLIN JACQUERMYS.  
(General Adviser to H.M. the King.)

ment 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.

**I**N 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 Manu, 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 Manu 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 Manu (Phra Thamasat) 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 Manu 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 Tart) 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 Piyarn) 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)



THE LATE EDWARD H. STROBEL,  
(General Adviser to H.M. the King.)

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 an edition of these laws in two volumes commonly known as "Kot-Mai Rajaburi" (the Law of Rajaburi) or "Kot-Mai Song Lem" (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 toto*, 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 INTRATHIBODI SIHARAJ RONG MUANG (Under-Secretary to the Minister of Local Government).
2. H.E. PHYA SRI SARADEBH (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 SRI SUNTHARA WOCHARA (Under-Secretary for the Ministry of Agriculture).
5. H.E. PHYA PHIPAT KOSA (Permanent Under-Secretary of State).





MINISTERS OF STATE.

1. H.R.H. PRINCE KROM LUANG DAMRONG (Minister of the Interior).
2. H.R.H. PRINCE CHAO FA KROM LUANG NARISARA NUWATTIWONGSE (Minister of the Household)
3. H.R.H. PRINCE CHAO FA BHANURANGSI (Minister of the War Department).
4. PRINCE KROM LUANG DEWAWONGSE 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 WUDIKRAI (Minister of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs).
9. PRINCE KROM LUANG NARES VORARIDHI (Minister for Public Works).
10. H.E. CHOW PHYA DEVESRA (Minister of Agriculture).

codes—i.e., the Penal Code, the Civil Code, the Codes of Procedure, and the Law of Organisation of Courts—and the subsequent conclusion of a revised treaty with France, providing for the immediate relaxation of French consular jurisdiction in Siam as regards French Asiatic subjects and protégés and providing for the final surrender of such jurisdiction by France on the completion and coming into effect of the Siamese codes, including a Commercial Code, were certainly a strong incentive to Siam to put the law reforms which she was already carrying out on a more extensive and fundamental scale. The firstfruit of Siam's effort in this direction was the promulgation of the Penal Code in April, 1908. This code, which may be said to be the product of French, Japanese, Siamese, and English influences combined, taking from the law systems of these and other countries what is believed to be the best in them, consists of 340 short and clear articles, and is, like most other penal codes, divided

into two parts. The first part contains general principles of criminal jurisprudence applicable throughout the whole code, such as "Application of Criminal Laws," "Punishments," "Causes Excluding or Lessening Criminal Liability," "Attempt," "Participation," "Concurrence of Offences," "Recidivism," "Prescription," &c. The second part deals with specific offences grouped under the following headings: (1) Offences against the King and the State; (2) Offences relating to Public Administration; (3) Offences relating to Public Justice; (4) Offences against Religion; (5) Offences against the Public Safety of Persons and Property; (6) Offences against Morality; (7) Offences against Life and Body; (8) Offences against Liberty and Reputation; (9) Offences against Property; (10) Petty Offences. As a temporary measure pending the enactment of a more complete Code of Civil Procedure and Law of Organisation of Courts, all the laws and regulations relating to these

subjects, comprising over twenty enactments, were consolidated and amended, and enacted in 1908 as "An Act Consolidating and Amending the Organisation of the Courts of Justice and the Civil Procedure." An important step taken in the direction of commercial law during the same year was the enactment of the much-needed Bankruptcy Law. For several years past the want of the Bankruptcy Law has been the cause of bitter complaint on the part of the European mercantile community in Siam. With the enactment of this law, it has now become possible for creditors to take steps for placing the property of bankrupts in the hands of an Official Receiver for distribution amongst them. Good progress is being made in the collection of material for the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Civil Code. It is confidently believed that in five years' time from the date of this article (1908) Siam will be provided with all the codes of laws mentioned in her treaties with France and Japan.



## 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

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.

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 Prose-



THE COURTS OF JUSTICE.

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 Rajaburi, 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

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

cution 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.

3. W. A. G. TILLEKE (Acting Attorney-General of Siam). 4. RENÉ SHERIDAN (Legal Adviser to the Court of Foreign Causes).  
 5. C. R. A. NIEL (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).

lative Adviser appointed in conformity with a 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 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 large 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 1906), "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



MR. JUSTICE SKINNER TURNER.

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

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-Consul. 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. His Honour is married to Millicent, second daughter of the late Rev. W. H. Hewett, of South Scarle, Nottinghamshire.

**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 1906.

## 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 Civrac-en-Medoc, in the department of the



MR. JUSTICE HENRI DUSSON.

(French Court.)

Gironde, and was educated for his profession at Bordeaux School, where he secured his *Licencié 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 Contentieux" 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, N.B., and at St. Andrew's University. He was called to the Bar at the Middle Temple, and in 1888 entered his Britannic Majesty's Consular Service as Student Interpreter in Siam, being appointed Assistant in 1893, 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 Mudaliyar, Mr. M. Goonetilleke, of Kandy, who was a justice of the peace for the Central Province, and also held the rank of Gate Mudaliyar—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 Mudaliyar Lonis Wijeyasinghe, 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 to obtain, both as a journalist and lawyer, for he was editor of his college magazine, and a prominent member of the Debating Society. Shortly after obtaining 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 into the legal 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 a week later. 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 days for a man of Mr. 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 increasing legal duties and his being 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 responsibilities attaching to such an important post as that of Attorney-General and the cares of a large private practice, Mr. W. A. G. Tilleke takes a very prominent place in the commercial life of Bangkok. He is Chairman of the Bagan Rubber Company; a Director of the Bangkok Manufacturing Company, Ltd., the Bangkok Dock Company, Ltd., the Siamese Tramways Company, Ltd., the Prabod Railway Company, the Transport Motor Company, the Paknam 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 run 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 attaché 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 in the French Consular Court, but since March, 1908, he has acted as temporary Judge in the Siamese Appeal Court. 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 1880, 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. C. 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 Belgians 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 at the Ministry of Justice, Bangkok. After devoting six months to the study of the language, he was attached to the Court at Rajaburiah. 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 *doyen* 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



C. J. NAYLOR.

(Barrister-at-Law.)

conferred upon him the title of *Nati 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 (uninstalled); Copenhagen (First Secretary),

1899; Washington (Conseiller d'Ambassade), 1901; and Madrid, 1903. He was a member of the French Mission to and Secretary of the Conference at Algieras (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. YACOVLEW (Russia). | 4. RALPH PAGET, C.M.G., C.V.O. (Great Britain). |
| 5. WALTER RALPH DURIE BECKETT (Great Britain, acting). | 6. MAJOR F. CICCOCICOLA (Italy).           | 7. SAKUYA YOSHIDA (Japan).  |   |

tiary in Bangkok for the Netherlands, was born and educated in Amsterdam. After passing the necessary examinations for entrance to the consular service he remained for one year in the Foreign Office at the Hague before joining the Consulate-General for the Netherlands at Singapore. In 1890 he was transferred to Bangkok as Acting Consul-General, a position which he filled for two years prior to his return to the home Foreign Office. From 1895 to 1901 he was Consul-General at Pretoria, South Africa, and then once more he renewed his acquaintanceship with Siam, coming to Bangkok as Chargé d'Affaires and Consul-General. In 1903 he was promoted to his present rank of Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary. Mr. F. J. Domela Nieuwenhuis is a Chevalier of the Order of the Netherlands Lion and an Officer of the Order of Oranje Nassau.

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 Medjida 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

Bangkok for the United States of America was born in 1881 at Schenectady, New York. He received his present appointment on May 12, 1907.

## GERMANY.

**Herr Adolph von Prollius**, his Imperial German Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary in Bangkok, was born on January 12, 1861, at Schwerin in Mecklenburg. He is the son of the minister of Mecklenburg at Berlin. Entering the Diplomatic Service in 1891, he has held positions at the Hague, Mexico, Caracas, Bucharest, and Copenhagen. On September 12, 1905, he arrived in Bangkok to undertake the duties of Minister-Resident, and has held his present position since January, 1908.



1. LUIZ LEOPOLDO FLORES (Consul-General for Portugal). 2. N. K. ELTEKOFF (Secretary of the Russian Legation and Acting Consul-General for Denmark).  
3. J. W. EDIE (Consul-General for Norway). 4. A. MOHR (Consul for Sweden). 5. F. H. LOTZ (Acting Consul for Austro-Hungary).

## RUSSIA.

**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

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.

## UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

**Mr. Hamilton King**, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary for the United States of America, was born at St. John's, Newfoundland, in 1852. After graduating at Olivet College, Michigan, he pursued his studies at Chicago, Leipzig, and Athens. He was appointed Minister-Resident in Siam in January, 1898, and promoted to his present position in 1903.

**Mr. John Van A. MacMurray**, the Consul-General and Secretary of the Legation at

**Dr. Hermann Budenbender**, Vice-Consul for Germany, Secretary of Legation, was born on March 16, 1876. He entered the Foreign Service four years after qualifying as a doctor at Heidelberg, and arrived at Bangkok in February, 1906, where he has since held the position of Vice-Consul for Germany, except for two months in 1907, and from February to November in 1908, when he acted as Chargé d'Affaires. Dr. Budenbender was formerly Vice-Consul at Shanghai.

## BELGIUM.

**Mr. A. Frere**, the Minister-Resident for Belgium, arrived in Bangkok on February 18, 1908, to take up his present duties. He has previously held positions in Africa, India, and China.

## 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, 1864. He was educated at Eton and studied for a short while also with Scoones, of Garrick 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 19, 1890, 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 24, 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 at Bangkok and Consul-General in Siam. On October 28, 1907, he was admitted to the Companionship of the Victorian Order. Mr. Paget married Miss Leila Paget, a daughter of General Sir Arthur Paget. His sister is the Countess of Plymouth.

**Mr. Walter Ralph Durie Beckett**, the second son of Colonel W. H. Beckett, who served for many years in the Indian Military Works Department, was born on August 24, 1864. He was educated at Tonbridge School and subsequently at Scoones's, the well-known crammer of Garrick Street, London, and, after the usual competitive examination, was appointed a Student Interpreter in Siam in February, 1886. He was promoted Second Assistant in 1888, a First Assistant in 1891, and was appointed Vice-Consul two years

later. The local rank of a First Secretary in the Diplomatic Service was given to him on August 30, 1904. Mr. Beckett, who has spent the whole of his career in Siam, was for some time Consul for the Consular District of Chieng-mai and the Northern Provinces. He has on several occasions acted as Chargé d'Affaires in Bangkok, and for a short period was in charge of the Legation.

## 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, 1860, he entered the service of the Royal Artillery in 1879, and in 1887 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 Chancellor 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 1898 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. Kumasabura Tanabé** 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 1883, and four years later became Chancellor of the Japanese Consulate at Chefoo, North China. In a similar capacity he served also in Hongkong, 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. Tanabé came to Bangkok 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, 1852. Having adopted the law as a profession and passed the necessary qualifying examinations, he was nominated a Magistrate of Public Ministry at Diu, 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. Thiago of Portugal (Scientific and Literary Grade).

## NORWAY.

**Mr. J. W. Edie**, 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.





GEN. H.R.H. PRINCE NAKONCHAI.  
(Commander-in-Chief.)



HIS SIAMESE MAJESTY'S TROOPS.



GENERAL OFFICERS OF THE ARMY.

GENERAL H.R.H.  
THE CROWN PRINCE.

MAJOR-GENERAL H.R.H.  
PRINCE PITSANULOH.

MAJOR-GENERAL H.R.H.  
PRINCE OF KAMPENGPETCH.

GENERAL H.R.H.  
PRINCE NAKONCHAI.





# THE ARMY AND NAVY

## THE ARMY.

By MAJOR LUANG BHUVANARTH NARUBAL, CHIEF OF GENERAL STAFF.



HE 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, Com-

missariat, Recruiting Departments and others, numbering altogether no less than nineteen.

By a royal decree of the year Rotana Kosindr 124 (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.

the annual mobilisation. They are bound to be in attendance at manœuvres, wherever held, for a period of not more than two months in the year. The soldiers of the second line of reserve are not called upon unless the first reserve is insufficient for the mobilisation. They, however, are compelled to attend the annual manœuvres for a period not exceeding fifteen days in each year. All those serving in the standing army or in the first or second line of reserve are exempt from both capitation and land taxes, and after the completion of the full seventeen years of service they are freed

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 nine-tenths 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



HEADQUARTERS STAFF OF THE ARMY.

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 :—

cavalry with sabre and the carbine of the 1902 model. The light infantry have carbines similar to those used by the cavalry. The artillery ordnance consists of quick-firing mountain guns, but the gun for the field artillery has not yet been finally decided upon.

A school for the training of cadets has been established by royal decree and, moreover, by order of the Commander-in-Chief, courses of instruction have been arranged in all the military districts with a view to raising the standard of military knowledge among candidates for commissions in the reserve. Regimental schools have also been formed for the

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 manœuvres. 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

"Nai-Dap" schools, their course of instruction being divided into two parts: (1) military studies; (2) general studies. The examinations are also in two sections: (1) entrance examination; (2) commissions or junior officers' examination. The length of the course of study must not exceed two years, and if after the

about a great modification in this system. The Government began to realize 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



A BATTERY OF MOUNTAIN ARTILLERY.  
A SQUADRON OF CAVALRY.

FIELD AMBULANCE CORPS.  
A COMPANY OF INFANTRY FIRING.

for three successive years are liable to expulsion unless they show an aptitude in some special subject and thus gain particular consideration.

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

completion of this period the pupil fails in his examination, he qualifies simply for the first class of the second reserve.

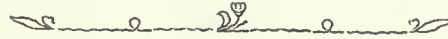
In olden days it was compulsory for all able-bodied citizens, without exception, to serve in the army. There was practically universal conscription, and the kingdom was almost entirely under arms. A period of peace, however, extending over fully a century, brought

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

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



MAJOR-GENERAL H.R.H. PRINCE  
NAKONSAWAN.

(Vice-Admiral of the Navy.)

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



THE ROYAL YACHT.



THE NAVAL DOCKYARD.

standing, the fleet consisted of several small yachts, or despatch boats, several sailing vessels, including the *Than Kiamoom* (the shell of which may now be seen rotting at low water outside the palace of the late Prince Mahisra), 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 *Hau Hak Sakru*, 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 sank the French merchant vessel *Jean Baptiste* in 1893. Other principal vessels in the navy of that date included the *Ran Rook*, which had previously been used as a blockade runner by the Achinese, 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 *Akaret* 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 Chakrri*, 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 *Makut Rajakumar*, 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 *Muralha*, a small gunboat practically identical with the two other vessels, the *Bali* and *Sugrib*, 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 educa-

tion 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.





# POLICE AND PROVINCIAL GENDARMERIE

## THE POLICE.

By ERIC ST. JOHN LAWSON, COMMISSIONER OF POLICE, BANGKOK.



HE 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 ... ..	1
Deputy Commissioner ..	1
Divisional Superintendents ...	7
Assistant Superintendents ...	15
Chief Inspectors...	19
Inspectors ... ..	52
Head Constables ... ..	61
Sergeants... ..	238
Constables ... ..	3,004

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 Laos. 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.

with the movements on duty of every officer and constable attached to the station. Great importance is attached to the immediate entry of every occurrence in this diary, which forms a minutely accurate record of everything connected with crime and police since the institution of the force in the year 1897. The next most important register is the complaint book,

police manual, which is a guide for the use of officers and men on their departmental duties, and also in their duties under the various laws. In the town area there are twice as many constables on duty at night as in the daytime, the men taking one week's day duty and fourteen days' night duty. In the country districts patrols of not less than three men leave all the



A GROUP OF PROFESSIONAL CRIMINALS, WITH GUARD.

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



OFFICERS OF THE POLICE DEPARTMENT.



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-



THE CENTRAL PRISON.



A TOWN GENDARMERIE STATION.

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, 241 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 15,958 persons, were reported to the Bangkok police; of these cases 7,915, involving the arrest of 8,923 persons, were for petty offences. The total number of persons actually prosecuted was 15,932, of whom 11,185 were convicted and 763 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, 256 were policemen wounded while on duty. Ninety-eight 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, 90 laboratory examinations of weapons and articles of clothing for blood, and 5 examinations in cases of suspected poisoning. The daily average of in-patients at the hospital was 33.4 persons.

## THE PROVINCIAL GENDARMERIE.



A CADET SCHOOL AT PRAPATOM.

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 Pachin 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 Phitsnulok, 1901; Monthon Isan, 1902; Monthon Chumpon, 1903; Monthon Petchabun, 1904; Monthon Chantaburi, 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 255 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 Mannlicher 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

did 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 Govern-



GENDARMERIE SCHOOL, PRAPATOM.

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 splen-

ment. 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 23½ 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 13½ 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.

Year.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
	Ticals.	Ticals.
111 (1892-93)	15,378,114	14,918,977
112 (1893-94)	17,389,672	18,174,594
113 (1894-95)	17,334,469	12,487,195
114 (1895-96)	18,074,090	12,685,697
115 (1896-97)	20,644,500	18,482,715
116 (1897-98)	24,808,011	23,996,625
117 (1898-99)	28,496,029	23,787,582
118 (1899-00)	29,902,365	27,952,717
119 (1900-01)	35,611,366	31,841,257
120 (1901-02)	36,157,993	36,646,558
121 (1902-03)	39,152,124	39,928,040
122 (1903-04)	43,458,817	43,908,901
123 (1904-05)	40,046,404	40,934,654
124 (1905-06)	51,657,539	50,935,523
125 (1906-07)	57,614,805	56,837,460
126 (1907-08)	55,825,000	56,500,000 <sup>1</sup>
127 (1908-09)	58,700,000	60,599,611 <sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Revised Estimates.

<sup>2</sup> Estimates.

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 can hardly 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 enormous increase in the above table is, 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 increase of 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 rai, which corresponds to about 2½ ticals, 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 be bid for at auctions results in considerable fluctuations in the amount of the bids, which tends to upset the budget estimates;

ESTIMATED REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE FOR THE YEAR 1908-9.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
	Ticals.		Ticals.
Gambling Farms ... ..	3,352,764	Ministry of the Interior ..	11,180,759
Spirits—		Ministry of War ... ..	14,270,854
Revenue from Farms ... ..	3,206,714	Ministry of Foreign Affairs ...	918,060
Government Administration ...	1,038,000	Ministry of Local Government ...	3,934,529
Opium—		Ministry of Finance ... ..	5,719,407
Revenue from Farms ... ..	135,440	Ministry of Justice ... ..	2,372,547
Government Administration ...	13,444,300	Ministry of Public Instruction and Worship ...	1,527,270
Lottery Farms ... ..	3,200,000	Ministry of Public Works ... ..	3,954,052
Miscellaneous Farms ... ..	606,187	Ministry of Agriculture ... ..	3,238,363
Land and Fishery Taxes... ..	8,454,775	H.M.'s Private Secretaries' Office ...	221,223
Customs ... ..	5,826,600	Legislative Council ... ..	86,705
Ministry of Agriculture ... ..	443,390	Royal Lictors ... ..	129,550
Forests ... ..	1,131,350	H.M.'s Civil List ... ..	7,500,000
Mines ... ..	1,313,600	Privy Purse of H.R.H. the Crown Prince ...	300,000
Posts and Telegraphs ... ..	1,124,308	Allowances to Princes ... ..	161,000
Royal Mint and Treasury ... ..	75,100	Pensions and Gratuities ... ..	600,000
Railway Traffic Receipts... ..	4,100,000	H.M.'s Tour Expenses ... ..	100,000
Judicial Fees and Fines ... ..	736,000	Miscellaneous Construction and Repairs ...	180,000
Prison Manufactures ... ..	98,830	Interest on loans ... ..	2,340,000
Amphurs' Fees ... ..	354,000	Political Payments ... ..	792,192
Entertainment Fees ... ..	24,000	Miscellaneous ... ..	403,500
Slaughter Licence Fees ... ..	1,247,840	Reserve for Unforeseen Expenses ... ..	600,000
Betting Licence Fees ... ..	633,400		
Miscellaneous Fees and Licences ...	1,340,798		
Octroi ... ..	1,685,000		
Capitation Taxes ... ..	3,647,955		
Revenue from Government Property ...	394,193		
Interest and Profit on Exchange ... ..	1,283,653		
Miscellaneous ... ..	303,420		
<b>Total ... ..</b>	<b>59,200,717</b>	<b>Total ... ..</b>	<b>60,599,611</b>
Deduct for short collections ... ..	500,717		
<b>Nett Total ... ..</b>	<b>58,700,000</b>		

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 year or two the only ones remaining, apart from a few miscellaneous farms, such as that for the right of collecting edible birds' nests, will probably be 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 the closing of 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 provinces of Isan and Udon, which together bring in an estimated revenue of only 135,440 ticals out of a total gross figure of over 13½ millions.

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 opium 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 imperative that it would be supplied, at whatever risk, 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 less crime and misery are caused by excessive indulgence in opium than by the immoderate use of alcohol.

Passing to the more usual types of revenue, we come to **Land and Fishery Taxes**, which are estimated to bring in nearly 8½ million ticals. This head, as its name implies, consists of taxes levied directly upon the land and upon the fisheries throughout the country, and these are assessed for purposes of taxation by the revenue authorities. 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 adaptations, 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 atts per rai, or, approximately, 1s. 5d. per acre) on the area actually cultivated, but in certain localities lands were taxed at a lower rate (16 atts per rai, or 11d. 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.

then be confined to rice (husked or unhusked) elephants, and cattle—all 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 at 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 net return upon capital has risen from a little over 2½ per cent. in 1901-02 to about 5½ per cent. in 1906-07—the latest year for which figures are available.

The policy of constructing State railways was inaugurated in the year 1891, and up to March 31, 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, being an average of nearly 2.4 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 £3,000,000, 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:—

	Kms.
Northern line, with branch to Korat	563
Petchaburi or Western line ... ..	151
Patriev or Eastern line ... ..	63
	—
Total ... ..	777

**Slaughter Licence Fees** annually bring in over one million ticals. No animals 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. F. WILLIAMSON.

(Financial Adviser to his Siamese Majesty's Government.)

a new policy was brought into force by which the land is divided into five classes, according to natural advantages of fertility or position, and eventually is to be taxed, generally speaking, according to its class, on the full area held, at rates rising to a maximum of 1 tical per rai (3s. 9d. per acre) for land of the first class, jungle land being taxed at one-eighth of the rate for paddy land. In the meanwhile, in order to hasten the extensions of the system, all land remaining under the old rules, and taxable on the area actually cultivated, is charged at a rate 25 per cent. higher than other land of the same class.

Fisheries are leased annually or triennially, either to single individuals, or, where this would cause hardship, to communities at a fixed rate per head. In addition to the rents

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

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** (11,189,758 ticals), which controls the gendarmerie (2,595,168 ticals),



GROUP OF GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS.

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

the Revenue Department (1,908,064 ticals), the Provincial Administration (5,646,769 ticals) and the Forest Department (477,618 ticals) for



1 ATT (1808).



1 FUANG (1850-68).



SOLOT (1850-68).



SALUNG (Reverse).



2 ATT.



SALUNG (Obverse).

(Reproduced from the Siamese Collection of Coins at the British Museum.)

## COINAGE AND CURRENCY.

## GENERAL.

Up to November, 1902, the currency of Siam was on a purely silver basis, and the exchange value of its unit, the tical, was subject to all the fluctuations incidental to a dependence on the white metal. The inconvenience of this was felt in Siam, as it had been in India some years previously, and the Government accordingly closed the Mint to the free coinage of ticals against deliveries of silver, as heretofore, and announced that it would, for the future, issue them only against gold, at a certain stated price—the latter being at first fixed at 1s. or 20 ticals to the pound sterling. This has been raised by successive stages, until it now stands at its final figure of 1s. 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., or 13 ticals to the pound.

The system thus introduced was based on the one adopted in India in 1893, 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



TICAL.



4 ATT.



TICAL (1808).



ATT (1808).

(Reproduced from the Siamese Collection of Coins at the British Museum.)

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 ticals), including the army (10,000,000 ticals), the navy (3,900,000 ticals), and War Office (370,854 ticals).

The estimated expenditure of the **Ministry of Foreign Affairs** is 918,060 ticals, of which 606,759 ticals is for legations and consulates abroad—the remainder (311,301 ticals) 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 3,934,529 ticals, of which 1,644,155 ticals is for the Sanitary Department, and 1,429,075 ticals 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 ticals, of which the recently formed Government Opium Administration is responsible for no less than 3,883,400 ticals, 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 ticals.

The expenditure of the **Ministry of Justice** amounts to a sum of 2,372,547 ticals. 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 ticals, 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.

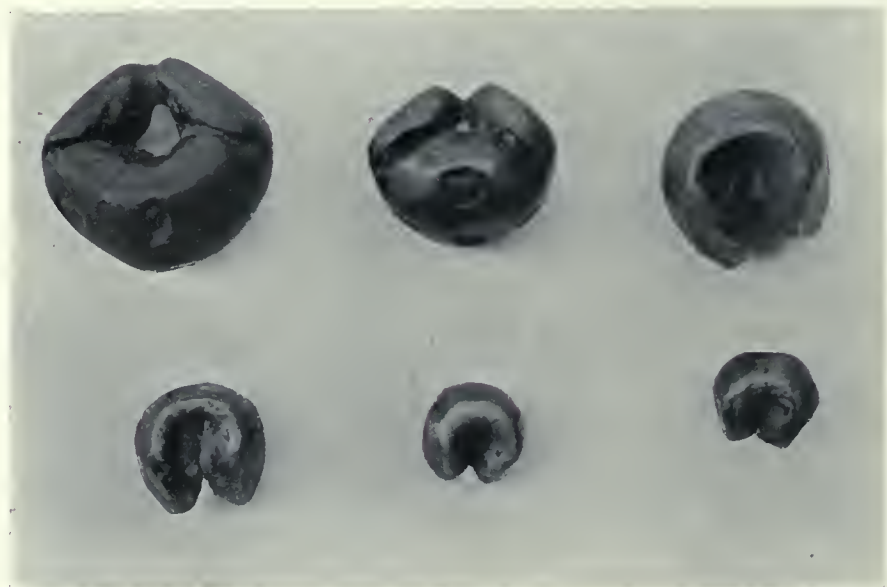
The **Ministry of Public Works** has charge of ordinary public works, posts and telegraphs, and railways. Of these the

Department of Public Works costs half a million ticals, and the posts and telegraphs 1,358,035 ticals, while the expenditure on railway traffic amounts to 1,932,104 ticals,

TICAL OR BAT BEFORE 1782.

BAT, 1850-68.

BAT, 1850-68.



SONG SALUNG, 1782-1809

SALUNG, 1824-29.

SALUNG, 1850-68.

(Reproduced from the Siamese Collection of Coins at the British Museum.)

against estimated receipts of 4,100,000 ticals. The total expenditure of this ministry is 3,954,052 ticals.

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

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 it 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 repay, 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 full 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.



A. H. BARLOW (Agent, Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, Ltd.)  
P. SCHWARZE (Manager, The Siam Commercial Bank, Ltd.)

W. S. LIVINGSTONE (Agent, Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, Ltd.)  
CAMILLE HENRY (Manager, Banque de l'Indo-Chine.)



THE SIAM COMMERCIAL BANK.

(See p. 120.)

COINAGE.

Under the new law, which will shortly be promulgated, the following will be the coins to be minted:—

*Gold.*—10-tical piece, of 6.20 grammes weight and 900 fine.

*Silver.*—Tical, of 15 grammes weight and 900 fine.

2-salung piece, or  $\frac{1}{2}$  tical, of 7.5 grammes weight and 800 fine.

Salung, or  $\frac{1}{4}$  tical, of 3.75 grammes weight and 800 fine.

*Nickel.*—10-stang piece or  $\frac{1}{10}$  tical.

5-stang piece, or  $\frac{1}{20}$  tical.

*Copper.*—1-stang piece or  $\frac{1}{100}$  tical.

The present subsidiary currency of Siam is based on the *att*, or  $\frac{1}{4}$  tical, but the *att* and its connections are to be recalled as soon as the new coins are put into circulation. The change to a decimal system of coinage will undoubtedly simplify all business transactions, and will put the Siamese currency on a modern and up-to-date footing.

PAPER CURRENCY.

The paper currency of Siam consists of a Government issue of notes of the 1,000, 100, 20,

10 and 5 ticals denominations, of which the circulation amounted, on March 31, 1908, to a sum of 14,796,040 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 39 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



S. JOO SENG.

(Manager, Joo Seng Heng Bank.)

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, as 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 issues 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



THE JOO SENG HENG BANK.



THE PREMISES OF THE BANQUE DE L'INDO-CHINE.

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 comrade.

**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 PREMISES OF THE HONGKONG AND SHANGHAI BANKING CORPORATION, LTD.

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 Sanpakarn, 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 1894, 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 grant drafts and buy 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, Kobe, Karachi, Kuala Lumpur, Madras, Manilla, Medan (Deli), Rangoon, Saigon, Shanghai, Singapore, Sourabaya, Thaiping, Tientsin, Yokohama, and Pinnang.

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.



I 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 commandant was the late Mr. Alabaster, his Majesty's adviser, who had under him as assistants the late Mr. Loftus, Luang Samosawn (afterwards made Praya Maha-yota), and Mom Rachawong Deng (now Mom Tewatirat). 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 its 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.S.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:—

"At the close of the season 1875-76 the line of principal triangulation called the Eastern Frontier Series had been brought down to the



R. W. GIBLIN, F.R.G.S.

(Director, Royal Survey Department.)

vicinity of Tavoy, whence during 1876-77 it was carried forward in all a distance of 92 miles, first by Mr. H. Beverly 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 tract 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 Pratom Pagoda, the largest in Siam. The outside circuit of its enclosure is 3,251 feet. Within this enclosure 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 Natyadung 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-

angles. About this time H.R.H. Prince Damrong (then known as Pra Ong Chao Disawara Kumarn) conceived the idea of forming

the residence of H.R.H. Somdet Chao Fa Krom Pra Chakrapatipong was used for the purpose. Thirty men were selected from the royal body-



NO. 2 OFFICE, ROYAL SURVEY DEPARTMENT, BANGKOK.

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

guard for training. After three months at Bang-pa-in, the school was moved to Bangkok towards the end of the year 1882. The first work on which the Siamese surveyors thus



THE MINISTER OF AGRICULTURE, CHAO PRAYA TEWET, THE DIRECTOR AND DEPUTY-DIRECTOR OF THE ROYAL SURVEY DEPARTMENT, TEACHERS AND STUDENTS OF THE SURVEY SCHOOL, ON THE OCCASION OF A PRIZE-GIVING.

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 23, 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 Chiangmai 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 Raman-Perak boundary, being absent from Bangkok from June 19 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 (Yunnanese) 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 thence marched to Korat, which was reached on January 30th. From Korat the route taken lay through Pimai, Putai-song and Kumpawapi 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 Chieng Kong (Muang Puen). Passing through Muangs Fang and Ngan, 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, on June 29th Mr. Bush died of fever, and on July 15th 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, accompanied by Lieutenant Rassmussen and thirty marines as escort, left Bangkok for the north. This time the route was by Utaradit and Muang Fek 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 Chieng 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 two 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 staff of the latter, Captain Sinson and Mr. Clunis. 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 Chiengmai 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. Punchard & 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 Chiengmai.

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 1890 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 Sahadep, 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 1891 the triangulation all round the northern boundary of Siam was started at Chiengmai. Near to Chiengmai 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 Chiengmai. 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 Chieng 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 575 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 re-transferred 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

mapping the route and fixing important positions on the way. During the recess of 1895 the work of completing and plotting the map of Siam was pushed on, and towards the end of



WAT CHE-DI-LUANG, CHIENGMAI.

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.



PRAPATOM PAGODA.

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

engaged on this work Mr. Smiles died of dysentery at Ban Chan and was buried at Sanka. The field season being about to end, Mr. Giblin returned to Bangkok via Korat,

The want of a cadastral survey for administrative and revenue purposes had been felt for some years. In 1896 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

for the purpose. His manner of dealing with the land is described later on. At the end of August he had disposed of 1,500 ownerships, and prepared the way for the formal issue of certificates of title. After much thought and discussion the necessary forms and procedure were fixed upon, including the all-important title-deed itself. At the end of August all was in readiness, a Land Registration Office was opened in Bang-pa-in, and on October 1, 1901, his Majesty the King of Siam, then on his tour to Pitsanulok, handed to the owner the first title-deed issued under the new system, and was presented with a title-deed to one of the royal estates, in the vicinity of Bang-pa-in, by Praya Pra-cha-chip. H.E. Chao Praya Tewet, Minister of Agriculture, was afterwards publicly congratulated on the successful initiation of the new law by H.R.H. Prince Damrong,

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.



SOME OF THE FIELD STAFF.

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 previous to the introduction of the cadastral survey, when the lack of such a survey rendered registration impossible, endless disputes arose as to ownership in land and the true

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-



erty involved. Any subsequent change which may take place must be entered on the proper forms in the presence of the Land Officer...

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.

The mode of registration is simple to maintain, and cheap to those wishing to effect transfers of land. Searches into the history of each parcel of land are expeditious.

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...

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...

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 powerful determination to overcome all obstacles met with.

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.I., 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 securing 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.

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. Hitherto the young students from the Survey School were qualified only to carry on chain and compass and plane-table cadastral survey.

PRESENT STAFF.

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

- Director. R. W. Giblin, F.R.G.S. Deputy-Director. A. J. Irwin, B.A., B.A.I., A.M.I.C.E. Superintendents. P. J. Verdon, N. E. Lowe, J. C. Dumbleton, S. Masterman, A.M.I.C.E., P. R. Kemp, J. Michell, C. Collingwood, A.M.I.C.E. Assistant Superintendents. W. Warner Shand, J. D. Byrne, H. A. Thompson, C. S. McCormick, A. Edwardes, K. G. Gairdner, D. T. Sawkins, B.A., Camb., C. A. Rust, B.A., Camb. Chief Draftsman. Appointment now being made. Assistant Draftsman. J. R. Bell. Officer in Charge of Photo-zincographic 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.

Table with columns: Designation, No. of Officers. Rows include Survey or Field Staff, Drafting Branch, Photo-zincographic Branch, Accountants' Branch, Map Sales Branch, and a Total row.

## ROYAL SURVEY SCHOOL.

Teachers ... ..	2
Students ... ..	35

It is only right to mention here by name the two senior Siamese officials, the Palat Krom; these are Praya Kam-nuan and Pra Sakon. Both these officers were with Mr. McCarthy before the department was created, and both have done good work for the Government, and have set a good example of 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 at certain classes 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 tables, but to many others these appear only as unfathomable masses of figures. A short description will therefore be given of the different classes of survey work which have been taken in hand and are now being carried through, after which will follow a few tables to furnish results in a more condensed form.

Reference was made in 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 carrying out 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 field to field surveys are based. In the earlier days a number of Indian subsurveyors 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 to take their places, 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 only have to be dealt with.

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 sen, which is the Siamese unit of linear measurement. One centimetre, therefore, on this scale represents one sen, and this is found of great convenience. One square sen is equal to one rai, which is the Siamese unit for the measurement of area. Each cadastral sheet is drawn 50 centimetres square and therefore the area represented on each sheet is 2,500 rai, a quantity equal to 1,618.7 English acres. A well-known point in each province is taken when convenient as the centre or point of origin of the cadastral survey of that province, and the whole province is cut up into imaginary but properly co-ordinated squares, each 2,500

rai in extent. Drawing an imaginary line north and south, and another line east and west through the point of origin, each square is given a number 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 is the well-known pagoda, Pu Kao Tong; in the province of Nakawn Chaisi the pagoda at Prapatom was selected, and this is the trigonometrical 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 over 700 square miles per annum. 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—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

Province.	Number of Holdings.	1. Area in Square Miles of Land held.	2. Area in Square Miles of Roads, Waterways and Waste Land unclaimed.	3. Total Area Surveyed in Square Miles.
Bangkok ... ..	85,700	1,541	109	1,650
Krungkiao ... ..	196,747	1,897	339	2,236
Nakawn Chaisi ... ..	77,105	976	345	1,321
Pachin ... ..	77,229	1,334	354	1,688
Pitsanulok ... ..	34,737	233	—	233
Ralaburi ... ..	61,634	391	85	476
Chantaburi ... ..	19,004	96	70	166
Total ... ..	552,156	6,468	1,302	7,770

an extract from the Annual Report of the Survey Department for the year ending September 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 2½ atts per rai, or less than one shilling an acre, which for detailed survey must be considered very reasonable, when it is 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, tents, transport, salaries, supervision, cost of time spent on computations, printing of maps, paper and printing of title-deeds. 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 over and over again. Included in the above cost is that of printing supplies of maps."

Owing to a rise in exchange value of the

tical it would be necessary to state that the cost of the survey is now about 14½ pence per acre.

In 1901 topographical surveys were begun in the province of Nakawn Sritamarat and in Pitsanulok, and in the following year in the province of Pa-yupp. At the present time this survey has been completed in Nakawn Sritamarat and Pa-yupp, and the two provinces Pitsanulok and Puket are each half completed. Roughly speaking, 63,550 square miles have been surveyed, and the maps for the greater part of this area have been printed. The scale used is 1 to 64,000, which is practically one mile to the inch. These surveys have been based on large circuits given by theodolite traverses, the interior being filled in by chain and compass traverses along roads and water-courses: Where such existed advantage has been taken of triangulated points, but the want of trigonometrical survey has been sadly felt.

In 1907 a special survey of the island of Puket, on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, was made, and the maps printed early in 1908. This was on a scale of 1 to 16,000, and a secondary triangulation was pushed through to control the topographical work.

In 1901 a series of triangles was measured in an easterly direction from Bangkok. This reached the Bangpakong river, but it was not until early in 1907 that a base line for this series could be measured. In 1906 the small series of triangles previously referred to as having been pushed out towards Chantabun on the south-east coast of Siam was slightly extended. In 1907 the work referred to above was carried through in Puket, and in the present year a series of triangles to cross the peninsula from Nakawn Sritamarat to Puket was taken in hand.

The following table, which has been brought up to date, shows the area which has been surveyed since the cadastral survey began:—

Province.	Area in Square Miles.
Pitsanulok ... ..	6,800
Nakawn Sritamarat ... ..	9,001
Pa-yupp ... ..	34,685
Chumpawn ... ..	3,837
Patani ... ..	5,409
Puket ... ..	3,821

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 :—

Classification.	Number of Copies Printed.
Departmental Maps ..	18,567
Cadastral Plans ... ..	26,467
Photogravures ... ..	1,106
Miscellaneous Maps ...	3,732
Extra Departmental Maps	9,070
Title-deed Forms... ..	492,010
<b>Total ... ..</b>	<b>550,592</b>

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 :—

Land Transfer Office,	Number of Title-deeds issued August, 1908.
Bangkok ... ..	59,445
Krungkiao ... ..	76,030
Nakawn Chaisi ... ..	25,316
Chon-buri ... ..	29,744
Cha-cherrng-sao ... ..	17,977
<b>Total ... ..</b>	<b>208,512</b>

**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 1889, and later on as an authorised surveyor in Tasmania, 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.





## HEALTH AND HOSPITALS

### CLIMATE AND HEALTH OF BANGKOK.

BY DR. H. CAMPBELL HIGHET,  
FELLOW OF THE ROYAL INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND PRINCIPAL MEDICAL OFFICER,  
LOCAL GOVERNMENT, SIAM.<sup>1</sup>

**B**ANGKOK, 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 93°. December is throughout the coolest month of the year, the average mean temperature for four years being 76.3°. Although hot during the daytime, the atmosphere is dry and bracing and the nights are cool, the mean of the minima being 66.1° 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 56° 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°, 24.6°, 22.4°, and 19.3° respectively. March, in its warmth, is the precursor of April, which is the hottest month of the year, the mean temperature being 86.95° as compared with 76.3° 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 bank 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, hail fell in Bangkok—a phenomenon which, according to Dr. Campbell, is seen once in fifteen years. The average rainfall for the month is about 2½



THE NURSING HOME.

<sup>1</sup> 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 on which rain falls. From now on 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 1'39, and for October 8'1. During these wet months the mean temperature remains almost uniformly at about 85° F., the days are hot and moist, and the minimum temperature rarely falls below 75° F. The daily range, too, which is so extensive even during March and April, now amounts to about 15°. During November the rains cease and the north-east monsoon breaks in, 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.*, 56° 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 81'6° F. and the mean annual rainfall about 54 inches. Consequently, although the climate of the place is not a suitable one for European colonisation, it is not such a bad one after all as sub-tropical climates go. Why Bangkok has gained such an unenviable notoriety as a perfect death-trap 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 scientific study of tropical diseases is the recognition of the fact that climate as a factor in disease has been robbed of many of its old terrors and that much of the sickness 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 men 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. Anæmia, or poorness of blood, handicaps a resident in the tropics at once. It is a well-established fact that a physiological or natural anæmia 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, anæmia may develop into a veritable disease. It is well, therefore, that persons of an anæmic 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, thinner 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 seden-

tary 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 functions of the liver and kidneys become deranged, digestion suffers, and one's mental faculties deteriorate. Of lung complaints contra-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 longer 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 contra-indicate 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 mastication of food is an impossibility. The presence of unsound teeth has been definitely proven to be the cause of pernicious anemia in temperate climates. In tropical climates any additional

where one has to tackle tough beef and tougher and 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 infectious 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 corresponds 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-trying residents, but it is still harder upon young and full-blooded new arrivals. 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.

tendency to anæmia should be avoided. Further, the inability to thoroughly masticate one's food is a serious drawback in Bangkok,

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

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, viyella, or a mixture of silk and wool makes excellent sleeping suits. The cholera 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

more frequently than is the general rule in order to give a fillip to one's jaded appetite. Above all, things for the table must be of the freshest. There is no more fruitful source of bowel complaints than tainted meat or fish in the tropics. No meat or fish should be eaten which is the least soft, and such things as crab, unless the animal can do at least one march across the kitchen floor, should be avoided. Fresh salads, unless made of potato, cucumber, beetroot, or the like, are to be guarded against. Owing to the filthy methods



THE PLAGUE HOSPITAL.

BANGRAK HOSPITAL.

SRIRAJ HOSPITAL AND MEDICAL COLLEGE.

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 56° 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 or the light Indian silks. For underwear, perhaps the best

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 pure 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 this may be interesting, but the majority of Europeans would soon find it a mistake.

#### DRINK.

St. Paul's advice to be temperate in all things is most applicable to the question of alcohol in the tropics. Some residents can be total abstainers for years in this climate, and they are generally very active and healthy specimens of humanity. Others, however, find that without a certain amount of alcohol with meals the appetite lessens, the digestive organs fail to perform their functions in a proper manner, and anæmia and loss of bodily weight take place. This has been specially noticed in people who have spent the first year or so in the tropics as total abstainers. During the first six to ten months or so residence in hot countries sets up a state of functional excitement in the liver and digestive organs in general, and the result is an increase of appetite, an excellent digestion, and general feeling of well-being. As a rule this initial stage of excitement passes gradually into one of abeyance of function, and unless great care be taken at this time liver and stomach troubles set in. Tonics, attention to diet, and gentle exercise may tide over this period of unrest, and it is now advised that a little alcohol should be taken for the stomach's sake. It is really remarkable the benefit that one has seen to accrue from the consumption of only one small whisky and soda with meals. For any sake, however, extremes should not be gone to on the excuse that the doctor ordered the alcohol. From experience it has been found that the longer one stops in Siam the less one can stand alcohol and the better one is without it. Of other drinks hot tea made after the Chinese fashion is one of the best and least dangerous of all beverages in this country. Made as it is with boiling water, all germs of cholera, dysentery, &c., are thereby scotched, and as the infusion, though weak, is a mild stimulant, it is no wonder that it is such a great favourite in Siam, China, and neighbouring countries. Water—pure and simple—is the best beverage all the world over. In Bangkok, however, one is greatly handicapped by the absence of a pure water supply. Until the Government has either itself taken in hand a municipal water scheme or has placed the matter in the hands of some private company it is necessary for all residents in Bangkok to personally superintend their own water supply. This naturally entails the collection of rain-water from the roofs of the houses and its subsequent storage in tanks, which may be of brick lined with cement or of metal—the usual form being the iron 400-gallon tank. A few simple rules should guide in this matter. In the first place no water should be run into tanks until the roof has been washed by several heavy showers of rain. Frequent chemical analysis of rain-water drawn from such tanks has proved that one or two heavy showers are not enough to cleanse the roof, but that only after a good few inches of rainfall can one expect the rain-water to be free from gross impurities. Every year one should see that the water-tanks are thoroughly washed out and then flushed with two or three fills of fresh water. After this annual cleansing the next operation is to have the interior of the tank coated with a fairly thick layer of cement-wash. This not only lengthens the life of an iron tank by many years, but it also does away with the chalybeate flavour which many of the tanks give to the water and so vastly improves the flavour of one's cup of tea. Of course, after this cement washing, it is advisable to once

more flush the tanks with pure rain-water in order to get rid of the earthy flavour which the cement imparts. With several tanks, however, this can easily be done in rotation, but all should be ready for the final catch of water by the middle of September. It is wise to have one's tanks filled up before the end of September. Even after all necessary precautions have been taken with regard to manner and time of collection and condition of tanks it is well to filter the water before use. The best form of filter is the Pasteur-Chamberland system, of which the filtering medium consists of candles made of compressed infusorial earth, through which even the typhoid germ fails to grow within a reasonable time. Such a filter is sufficient in itself to eliminate all noxious germs provided it be taken to pieces once a week and all parts boiled for half an hour. Extra careful people boil the water as well. If this be done, the water should be boiled after, not before, filtration. The loss of aeration due to boiling can be got over by shaking up the water in a bottle for a few minutes. A word may be said about aerated waters, which are so largely consumed in the East. The best advice to be given is to buy the best and purest in the market, and not to think because water has been bottled and aerated under pressure that noxious germs have been destroyed.

#### EXERCISE.

One of the biggest fetiches to which the Britisher especially bows down in the East is exercise. Taken in moderation, such exercise as a round of golf or a set or two of tennis, provided one takes care to avoid chill by changing one's clothing before cooling down, is an excellent method of stirring up the liver. The "muddled oafs" who undergo a couple of hours' violent exercise every afternoon, and an hour of dumb-bells, Indian clubs, or the like, before starting work in the morning, and who seem never to be happy unless in a state of profuse perspiration and absolute fatigue, are more frequently in the doctor's hands than even the men who take no physical exercise at all, and the greater proportion of them have to be sent home on sick leave, and many of them have their end in the local cemetery. It would seem that they use up all their spare energy in "recreation," as they call it, and have nothing to fall back upon when they do happen to fall sick. If one would only remember that one is living in a country not suited to Europeans, that a hard day's work is more trying here than at home, and that, to be beneficial, exercise should mean nothing more than a change of routine, open air, and enough movement to produce free perspiration without going the length of fatigue, such extremes would be avoided. To go to the extreme of fatigue is to court sickness. After a day's hard work a little gentle exercise, either in riding, golf, or tennis, makes for health with the majority of Europeans in the tropics.

#### 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 fool's allowance in this climate. "Early to bed and early to rise" is a golden rule, for the longer one lives in the tropics the more one finds that late nights are a mistake. A word in passing may be said of cold baths. One should be careful not to overdo them, as over-indulgence brings about heart trouble, nervous prostration, and liver complaints. So long as a cold bath is followed by a feeling of exhilaration and a glowing of the skin the custom should be continued, but whenever a feeling of chilliness or depression succeeds the

cold tub, hot water should be used instead. Very many old residents find that a hot shower bath is a better stimulant than a cold bath, and throws less strain on the heart and the liver. Leave is an important and all-absorbing topic of conversation amongst sojourners in a strange land. The question has often been asked how long one should spend in Bangkok before one's first spell of long leave. This naturally depends upon a number of factors, such as the general condition of health, the possibility of being spared from one's duties, and, of course, the state of one's purse. Taking it as a general rule, however, three years for a woman and five years for a man is a long enough period for a first spell, and the period of leave should in either case allow of no less than six months being actually spent in a temperate climate. This practically entails nine months' leave from duty, so as to allow of three months being spent between the home and return journey. Further periods of work in the tropics should not extend to more than three years, with six months' leave at the end of such term. Governments, commercial firms, and, in fact, all employers of labour, would find that such a system of work and leave would make for the health and efficiency of their staff, and therefore for economy in the end. It is no economy to train a man in his work for several years, and then to be forced to invalid him home for good at the very time when he is becoming a valuable servant. The question of short leave, say for a month or two, is one which often crops up in a medical man's experience in Bangkok. Perhaps a man has had a mild attack of malarial fever, typhoid fever, congestion of the liver, or the like. It may not be necessary to send him home, as all that may be required is a short sea trip or a few weeks in a cool climate. Siam is still, unfortunately, most grievously deficient in hill stations or other health resorts. Srimaharacha is practically the only local sanatorium, but it is not much of a change. It is wonderful, however, the benefit that may be obtained from a week or two at this pleasant, though quiet, seaside resort. Bangkok owes a debt of gratitude to his Excellency Chow Phya Surisak for his enterprise in providing the excellent accommodation that is to be found at this place. The great inconvenience is in getting there. Were the long-talked of railway pushed through to Srimaharacha, the benefit to the inhabitants of Bangkok would be incalculable, as one can go there with advantage at any time of the year. Still better will be Chiangmai and the hills beyond when the present railway has been extended so far. Further afield we have Singapore, the return trip to which will often set one upon one's feet again. Then we have Hongkong from October until the end of March; Japan during the spring and autumn; Java during July, August, and September; Pinang Hill during the north-east monsoon; Kandy and Nuwara Eliya in Ceylon from December to April; and Ootacamund, on the Nilgiri Hills, from April till October.

#### SPECIAL DISEASES TO BE GUARDED AGAINST.

Many of the so-called climatic diseases are preventable. They are due to carelessness or ignorance as to prevention, and really unless, as Carlyle says, most of us are fools, there would be little work for the doctors. Sunstroke would surely appear to be a frequent complaint in this climate, where sun maximum temperatures amount to 140° or 150° F., but as a matter of fact remarkably few cases of real sunstroke are met with. The reason for this is that people, as a rule, respect the effect of the sun's rays, and wear a good-sized solah topee during the day. It should not be forgotten, however, that the earlier and later portions of the day are even more dangerous than mid-day, for any kind of topee will pro-

fect one's head and neck from the vertical rays about noon, but only a properly made topee will protect the back of the head and neck from the slanting rays of the morning and afternoon sun. Cholera, typhoid fever, and dysentery may be taken together, as the principal cause of each is contaminated water. Cholera commences as a rule late in December, and attains its maximum in April, thus prevailing during the dry season of the year. Sporadic cases may occur in Bangkok throughout the year, however. In its epidemicity it closely follows the condition of the river. Given a good rainfall, the level of the river remains comparatively high during the dry season, and therefore the inhabitants are not deprived of a regular supply of fresh water. After a poor year of rain the river early becomes brackish, and at once cholera breaks out. Prevention is happily easy. If a European contracts the disease, it is due either to his own or his cook's carelessness. The water supply should at all times be seen to; and while cholera is about all drinking water should be boiled, saline purgatives and fruits should be taken sparingly, fresh green salads should be avoided, and, above all things, all foodstuff should be protected from flies. Quite a number of cases of cholera are recorded in which the only source of infection was contamination of food by flies. Finally, "funk" during an epidemic of cholera should be avoided, for it is well known that fear kills a goodly percentage of those who fall in such an epidemic. Against typhoid fever and dysentery the same precautions as against cholera should be applied. In addition, one should be very careful of one's milk supply, to which contamination has been traced in several cases in Bangkok. Some years ago an exhaustive inspection and inquiry was made into the milk supply, and the conditions were found so bad that all dairies were removed to grazing ground supplied by the Siamese Government on the outskirts of the town at Klóng Toi. Under improved sanitary conditions, and with a purer water supply, one may say that the milk is now less dangerous to health, but in all cases it should be boiled or sterilised in one of the patent sterilisers which are on the market before consumption. As for dysentery, while impurities in food and water play an important rôle in etiology, chills are a frequent exciting cause, therefore the value of a cholera belt should never be overlooked. Diarrhœa is an extremely common complaint amongst Europeans in Bangkok, and is mainly due to chill and to the ingestion of tainted food. This has been sufficiently dealt with already in speaking of food.

#### MALARIA.

Newcomers talk of malaria as if it were a foregone conclusion that they would soon contract the disease; and yet, if they will only make a few inquiries, they will find that it is the exception rather than the rule for Bangkok residents to suffer from malarial fever. Malarial fever is rarely contracted by residents of this city, and those who do happen to get infected have generally contracted the disease while on a trip into the interior. The malaria-bearing mosquito, the Anopheles, is not easily found in Bangkok, even during a search for it. The germs of malarial fever are carried from man to man by the Anopheles mosquito. Therefore, if the resident wishes to protect himself from malarial fever, a good look-out should be kept that the house or compound does not harbour this dangerous species. A few distinctive points will suffice to enable one to differentiate between the harmless Culex and the fever-bearing Anopheles. When a mosquito lands on the hand or on any plane surface, and instead of decently sitting down on all fours, as it were, stands on its head and

digests its proboscis into the skin, that is an Anopheles, and its acquaintance is worthy of further cultivation. Its breeding-place is in some neighbouring pool or sluggish stream, and should be found. The eggs are found in loosely connected masses—three or four together—attached to sticks, weeds, &c. The Culex eggs are in little boat-shaped masses, which float freely on any collection of water about a house, and look like little specks of soot. The larvæ are the little wriggling, fish-like bodies which one sees swimming about so often in one's hand-basin. That of the Anopheles has no long trunk or breathing tube, and so lies with its body parallel to the surface of the water. When disturbed it glides away, tail first, with a kind of skating movement. The Culex, or non-dangerous larva, has a long breathing tube at his tail, which rests on the surface of the water, while the body hangs head downwards. When disturbed they sink rapidly to the bottom of the water.

5. Direction of the Government abattoirs.
6. Police medical work.

#### 1. THE SANITARY SERVICE.

The system of drainage in Bangkok is by means of large open drains—the klongs or canals, which, intersecting 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 pail system of conservancy 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, &c., are made.

#### 2. PORT MEDICAL WORK.

The quarantine station is at the island of

#### MAIN CLIMATIC DATA FOR BANGKOK.

Month.	Mean Temperature.	Mean Maximum Temperature.	Mean Minimum Temperature.	Mean Daily Range.	Rainfall in Inches.	Number of Rainy Days.
January ... ..	78·1	89·7	66·0	24·6	0·05	0·7
February ... ..	79·6	91·4	69·1	22·4	0·175	1·5
March ... ..	85·3	94·7	73·8	19·3	1·23	1·7
April ... ..	86·9	96·2	76·5	19·4	2·67	4·7
May ... ..	85·0	95·3	76·5	18·1	9·56	14·0
June ... ..	84·4	91·7	76·5	15·0	5·617	15·7
July ... ..	84·7	91·4	76·3	15·4	4·165	13·7
August ... ..	84·0	93·6	75·7	15·2	5·95	16·2
September ... ..	82·8	89·8	75·3	14·2	13·9	21·7
October ... ..	82·7	89·6	75·2	14·8	8·17	18·0
November ... ..	79·8	87·5	71·9	16·4	2·1	5·2
December ... ..	76·3	87·0	66·1	20·8	0·58	2·0
Year ... ..	81·6	91·49	73·2	17·9	54·16	115·1

## THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC HEALTH.

By MORDEN CARTHEW, M.B., B.Ch. Edin.,  
Acting M.O.H. for Bangkok.

The Public Health Department of Bangkok, which has been in existence now for eleven years, is a branch of the Local Sanitary Department, and under the Ministry of Local Government.

The staff consists of:—

Medical officer of health ... ..	1
Assistant medical officer of health ... ..	2
Veterinary surgeon ... ..	1
Sanitary inspectors ... ..	5
Quarantine inspector ... ..	1
Clerks ... ..	2

and the usual staff of coolies, numbering about 150.

The work carried on by the department includes:—

1. The ordinary sanitary service for the town and suburbs of Bangkok.
2. Port medical work, with the inspection of ships and direction of the quarantine station at Koh Phra.
3. Direction of the Government hospitals, viz., Bangrak Hospital, Samsen Hospital, Infectious Diseases Hospital, and lunatic asylum.
4. Medical work for the Customs, Survey, and Irrigation Departments.

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 to both places. The station 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, under the immediate supervision of the Medical Officer of Health, though in almost every case they are directly in charge of Siamese doctors.

The Bangrak Hospital, which is under the charge of T. Heyward Hays, M.D., is situated at Bangrak, 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 Mnn, 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 inmates. 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:—

	Total treated.	Total Deaths.	Percentage Rate.
Police Hospital ... ..	1,514	83	5.4
Bangrak " " " " " "	420	60	14.2
Samsen " " " " " "	231	30	13
Isolation " " " " " "	347	92	26.5
Asylum for Insane " " " "	414	107	25.6
Total ... ..	2,926	372	12.7

Record of out-patients treated at the hospitals:—

Police Hospital ... ..	2,367
Bangrak " " " " " "	11,457
Samsen " " " " " "	128
Total ... ..	13,952
Total treated—	
In-patients ... ..	2,926
Out-patients ... ..	13,952
Total ... ..	16,878

CAUSES OF DEATHS IN HOSPITALS.

Disease.	Police.	Bangrak.	Samsen	Isolation.	Asylum.	Total.
Dysentery ... ..	10	14	4	0	0	28
Diarrhoea ... ..	5	4	6	0	7	22
Cholera ... ..	15	17	3	44	0	79
Plague ... ..	0	0	0	9	0	9
Beriberi ... ..	3	0	0	39	96	138
Small-pox ... ..	0	0	0	0	0	0
Fevers ... ..	4	5	1	0	0	10
Wounds ... ..	28	12	1	0	0	41
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.

Month.	Reported at Wats.	Infectious Diseases Hospital.		Bangrak.		Samsen.		Police.	
		Cases.	Deaths.	Cases	Deaths.	Cases.	Deaths.	Cases.	Deaths.
April ... ..	735	20	10	8	1	3	3	7	4
May ... ..	814	7	4	7	5	0	0	0	0
June ... ..	47	3	3	0	0	0	0	1	1
July ... ..	15	5	2	2	2	0	0	3	1
August ... ..	35	3	1	0	0	0	0	3	1
September ... ..	18	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
October ... ..	28	3	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
November ... ..	8	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
December ... ..	0	3	2	1	1	0	0	1	1
January ... ..	1	5	2	1	1	0	0	2	2
February ... ..	10	15	13	4	4	0	0	0	0
March ... ..	3	5	2	3	3	0	0	0	0
Total ... ..	1,714	72	43	26	17	3	3	19	11

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 1,834 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 Prapatom. Last year in Bangkok 3,620 children were vaccinated at these stations, with 69 failures.

The Government abattoirs are situated at Bangkolem, 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.

	Dysentery.	Diarrhoea.	Cholera.	Plague.	Beriberi.	Small-pox.	Unclassified Fevers.	Other diseases, including Wounds.	Unclassified Outdoor Patients.
Police Hospital ... ..	102	155	27	3	329	2	196	1,034	—
Bangrak " " " " " "	43	35	26	—	5	—	40	447	11,457
Samsen " " " " " "	14	14	3	—	—	—	22	177	128
Plague " " " " " "	—	—	79	19	188	2	9	—	—
Lunatic Asylum ... ..	—	7	—	—	96	—	—	414	—
Total ... ..	159	211	135	21	618	4	267	3,072	11,585
Total deaths ... ..	28	22	79	9	138	0	10	84	—
Percentage death rate ... ..	17.6	10.4	58	42.8	22.3	0	3.7	2.7	—

<sup>1</sup> Including outdoor patients.



THE COMMITTEE OF THE CHINESE HOSPITAL.

THE CHINESE HOSPITAL.

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. Reyter**, the physician to his Majesty the King of Siam, is a native of Belgium. Born in 1860, he was educated at Brussels University, graduating in 1885. Practice 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 Superintending Surgeon of the Bangrak 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 solicitations 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.



E. REYTER, M.D.

(Physician to H.M. the King of Siam.)



T. HEYWARD HAYS, M.D.



## 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 MENAM RIVER AT BANGKOK.

(approximately 3s.) per gallon (with a small surcharge on higher strengths); all other goods, 3 per cent. *ad val.*

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

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

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, agilla, 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.



THE MENAM RIVER, SHOWING NATIVE CRAFT AND FLOATING HOUSES.

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.

Years.	Imports. Total Value.	Exports. Total Value.	Volume of Trade.
1892	£ 1,336,548	£ 1,429,888	£ 2,766,436
1893	2,249,969	4,439,143	6,689,112
1894	1,803,253	2,603,945	4,407,198
1895	2,046,143	2,678,008	4,724,151
1896	2,296,243	3,313,036	5,609,279
1897	2,435,993	3,030,716	5,466,709
1898	2,591,864	3,311,690	5,903,554
1899	2,536,925	3,129,683	5,666,608
1900	2,573,806	3,084,542	5,658,348
1901	2,837,754	4,417,352	7,255,106
1902	3,394,926	4,535,646	7,930,572
1903	3,461,254	3,939,916	7,401,170
1904	4,363,966	5,659,175	10,014,141
1905	3,993,635	5,989,100	9,982,735
1906	4,866,849	7,082,141	11,948,990
1907	5,437,816	6,644,200	12,082,016

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

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 sixteen years have also seen considerable developments in the teak trade, the total value of exports rising from £65,038 in 1892 to £1,021,002 in 1907. Considerable fluctuations must be expected from year to year in accordance with the rainfall, and the consequent ease or difficulty of floating the timber down to the main river. But with the tightening of forest regulations since the establishment of the Forest Department in 1896, and with the increasing difficulty of obtaining concessions, a further rapid development of the trade can hardly be expected.

The following table shows the more important exports for the four years 1904 to 1907:—

Names of Articles.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
Hides ... ..	£ 58,215	£ 71,288	£ 119,323	£ 92,943
Rice ... ..	4,520,470	4,600,653	5,546,974	4,853,253
Sticklac ... ..	28,516	48,330	43,480	22,893
Fish, Salt, Platu ... ..	20,739	38,750	63,297	43,212
Fish, Salt, other than Platu... ..	25,876	35,616	40,363	41,127
Pepper ... ..	72,560	55,145	67,494	57,265
Teak ... ..	560,174	817,396	819,654	1,021,002
Silk Piece Goods ... ..	24,389	10,657	27,381	34,523
Treasure ... ..	84,414	21,075	21,235	139,226
All other Goods ... ..	219,256	224,820	258,983	259,526
Goods re-exported ... ..	35,566	59,370	73,957	79,230
Total ... ..	5,650,175	5,989,100	7,082,141	6,644,200



HIS HIGHNESS PRINCE MOM CHOW PROM.

(Director-General of Customs.)

Tanning is still an infant industry, entirely in the hands of Chinese; the small exports are solely to China.



BEHN, MEYER & CO., LTD.

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. |
| 4. GENERAL VIEW OF THE WORKS FROM THE RIVER. | 5. THE WORKSHOP.                 |                   |
- (See p. 143.)

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

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

Names of Articles.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
	Value.	Value.	Value.	Value.
Colton Goods ... ..	£ 879,730	£ 852,587	£ 886,663	£ 984,686
Cotton Yarn ... ..	87,648	119,015	136,213	109,310
Gunny Bags ... ..	168,219	205,761	223,877	196,249
Hardware and Cutlery ... ..	65,937	67,299	113,885	98,422
Jewellery ... ..	49,793	61,545	130,886	112,772
Machinery ... ..	82,745	84,113	98,611	104,813
Matches ... ..	52,385	38,432	66,656	69,350
Steel and Iron... ..	287,047	116,485	318,795	251,711
All other Metal Manufacturing ... ..	87,437	82,398	108,071	121,158
Oil, Petroleum ... ..	116,091	119,348	89,497	136,557
Oil, other sorts ... ..	57,031	62,340	70,818	104,466
Provisions ... ..	266,181	276,356	385,381	459,821
Silk Goods ... ..	151,875	122,382	157,967	215,012
Sugar ... ..	134,247	189,284	219,784	175,451
Spirituos Liquors ... ..	84,803	102,447	111,956	119,527
Opium ... ..	257,044	149,532	65,489	137,356
Treasure ... ..	645,728	417,255	674,431	775,427
All other Goods ... ..	889,425	927,056	1,007,869	1,265,728
Total ... ..	4,363,966	3,993,635	4,866,849	5,437,816

The trade in this wood has come to the front owing to the existence of the Korat Railway, connecting Bangkok with the Prachin district, where the wood is found. Numberless other equally valuable woods exist in the forests of the north, the south-east, and the peninsular districts. A European firm has recently acquired rights on the east coast, and a Danish firm has purchased sawmills in the Bandon district of the peninsula. Considerable developments of all these forests may be expected in the near future.

The imports of Siam embrace almost every variety of manufactured article. But a unique position is enjoyed by the cotton trade, the total imports of all cotton goods in 1907 reaching a value of £1,093,966. Provisions rank next in order of importance, and below these metal manufactures, oil, silk goods, gunny bags, wines and spirits, and opium.

The great bulk of these imports arrive in Bangkok either from Singapore or Hongkong; and the Customs officers experience considerable difficulty in ascertaining countries of origin, a difficulty enhanced by lack of legal powers. It results that in 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 every 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.

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 unsuited 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 drngs. 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 Kosichang 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.

SUMMARY OF SHIPPING.

A.—NATIONALITY AND TONNAGE OF SHIPS CLEARED INWARDS.

Nationality.	1904.				1905.				1906.				1907.			
	Steamers.		Sailing Ships.		Steamers.		Sailing Ships.		Steamers.		Sailing Ships.		Steamers.		Sailing Ships.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
Austrian ...	1	1,374	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
British ...	137	124,811	3	1,925	103	112,242	3	2,813	98	110,001	1	888	100	96,381	—	—
Danish ...	5	8,246	—	—	6	5,925	—	—	6	8,669	—	—	4	5,677	—	—
Dutch ...	21	10,446	—	—	15	9,787	—	—	18	12,429	—	—	23	14,367	—	—
French ...	27	9,876	—	—	26	9,770	—	—	30	14,042	1	704	26	9,776	—	—
German ...	348	380,720	3	5,681	361	385,003	3	5,682	379	409,887	3	8,544	295	316,574	1	1,968
Japanese ...	—	—	—	—	1	115	—	—	4	4,168	—	—	—	—	—	—
Norwegian ...	114	85,622	8	5,658	165	121,576	6	4,607	206	155,340	4	2,712	210	166,855	—	—
Russian ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	2,019	—	—
Siamese ...	69	28,325	—	—	61	23,398	—	—	51	17,427	—	—	54	19,382	—	—
Swedish ...	—	—	2	1,684	1	2,287	3	2,083	—	—	2	1,319	—	—	1	830
American ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	25	—	—	—	—	—	—
Junks <sup>1</sup> ...	—	—	58	—	—	—	59	—	—	—	340	—	—	—	220	—
Total ...	722	649,420	16	14,948	739	670,109	15	15,185	793	731,988	11	14,167	713	631,031	2	2,798

<sup>1</sup> 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."

3. A NEW STEAMER OF THE EUROPEAN LINE, SS. "SAMUI," 4,000 TONS.

(See p. 143.)

## B.—NATIONALITY AND TONNAGE OF SHIPS CLEARED OUTWARDS.

Nationality.	1904.				1905.				1906.				1907.			
	Steamers.		Sailing Ships.		Steamers.		Sailing Ships.		Steamers.		Sailing Ships.		Steamers.		Sailing Ships.	
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.
Austrian ...	1	1,374	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
British ...	133	120,580	2	966	102	110,997	3	2,813	96	110,132	1	888	100	94,098	—	—
Danish ...	5	8,246	—	—	6	5,925	—	—	6	8,669	—	—	5	6,835	—	—
Dutch ...	21	10,446	—	—	14	9,314	—	—	18	12,429	—	—	22	13,209	—	—
French ...	26	9,500	—	—	26	9,776	—	—	30	14,042	1	794	26	9,776	—	—
German ...	350	383,256	3	5,857	357	379,902	3	5,682	378	411,816	3	8,544	295	313,373	1	1,068
Japanese ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	4,168	—	—	—	—	—	—
Norwegian ...	114	85,841	9	6,099	166	122,766	5	3,675	207	156,072	2	1,661	210	166,975	3	1,983
Russian ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	2,019	—	—
Siamese ...	72	20,864	—	—	61	23,398	—	—	51	17,427	—	—	52	18,558	—	—
Swedish ...	—	—	2	1,684	1	2,287	3	2,083	—	—	2	1,311	—	—	1	830
Junks <sup>1</sup> ...	—	—	51	—	—	—	49	—	—	—	305	—	—	—	230	—
Total ...	722	640,107	16	14,606	733	664,365	14	14,253	790	734,755	9	13,116	711	624,843	5	4,781

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

Permission 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.

figures given above apply only to the port of Bangkok. Organisation is not yet sufficiently advanced to permit of the collection of complete trade statistics for the country. No mention has been made of the coasting trade, of the

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 be once again in England.

**Mr. Norman Maxwell**, the Principal of the Statistical Office of H.S.M.'s Customs, is, like Mr. Ambrose, a member of the British Imperial Customs Service. He was lent to the Siamese Government for a period of two years in 1906.

**Mr. Joseph Mackay**, M.I.Mech.E., the Superintendent of the Government Marine Surveys, was born at Dumbarton, Scotland, in 1857, and educated at Glasgow and in New Zealand. He served his apprenticeship to mechanical engineering in Greenock, and during the four years following the completion of his articles he was employed in Messrs. Apar & Co.'s and Roque Brothers' steamers trading between Calcutta, Hongkong, and Haiphong. Mr. Mackay secured the first-class Board of Trade certificates both in Hongkong and Glasgow, but in 1884 he gave up the marine service to become the works manager of the West Point Iron Works, Hongkong. The following year he was appointed superintendent engineer of the Bangkok Dock Company, Ltd., and four years later was promoted manager. Resigning this post in order to start business on his own account, Mr. Mackay became associated in 1901 with Mr. Macarthur, and from 1901 to 1904 was the senior partner of the firm of Mackay & Macarthur, con-



THE CUSTOMS HOUSE.

The largest share of the carrying trade is in German hands, the regular lines to Singapore and Hongkong 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 liner 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

sulting engineers and marine surveyors; in 1905 he acted as manager of the business, and during 1906 and 1907 as the managing director. From 1905 to 1907 Mr. Mackay was the



J. MACKAY.

(Government Marine Surveyor.)

Government Marine Surveyor, and, the partnership of Mackay & Macarthur being dissolved, he has held his present post of Superintendent of Marine Surveys since 1907. 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. Wilkens, the manager of the shipping department of that firm. Mr. Wilkens 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 "Straits" firm is practically in its infancy, dating only from August 1, 1907. On January 1, 1908, 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 formerly associated with Messrs. Schmidt Fertsch & Co.

**WINDSOR & CO.**

Founded in 1873 as Windsor, Redlich & Co., this old-established house was one of the first European firms to start trading in Siam. Its progress is traced through the periods when Windsor, Redlich & Co. became Windsor, Rose & Co., to remain finally Windsor & Co.

The firm carry on a large shipping trade, "Windsor's Wharf" being one of the best known on the river, while the huge stacks of 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 Brockmann, Arthur Frege, and Wilhelm Brehmer. 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 depends, of course, to a great extent on the facilities for transport. The Messageries Fluviales, who are the representatives in Bangkok of the Messageries Maritimes and the Chargeurs Réunis, recognising the necessity for regular communication, have for several years past maintained a constant service between the two ports with the ss. *Douai*, a vessel of some 800 tons. The company established an agency in Bangkok in 1893, but it was not until three years later that Mr. Francon came 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 large sawmill in Bangkok. Their imports consist chiefly of building materials, especially cement, of which no less than thirty to forty thousand casks are imported yearly; while they export, besides teak, such valuable products of the country as sticklac, rubber, gum benjamin, hides, horns, &c. They 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 Copenhagen, Middlesbrough, and Antwerp to Bangkok, and from Bangkok to London and Copenhagen. This line, which up to the present can claim the monopoly of the regular steamer trade between Siam and Europe, 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 transhipment at Singapore. But these enterprises, 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 steamers engaged in the local coast-

ing trade, is due to them. Since these lines have been in operation, and thanks to the regular communication thus maintained, the established trade has grown considerably. In recent years also the company have still further enlarged their interests on the Malay coast by starting forest works at Bandon, where many different varieties of wood are found in abundance, and they have strengthened their foothold by erecting a first-class and up-to-date steam sawmill there at a cost of about £20,000, by means of which it is their intention not only to supply Bangkok, but also the neighbouring countries, with good and, 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.

But there is another department of the company's enterprise in Bangkok which, although quite distinct from their other interests, must not be forgotten. The company own 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 stores."

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 Trengganu.

**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 day, 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 from Siam as sticklac, ivory, pepper, 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 Tiong.

**SUPHAN STEAM PACKET COMPANY.**

The boats of the Suphan Steam Packet Company ply between Suphan and Tachin, calling at Nakorn Chairi on the way and connecting with the different train services of Petchaburi, Tachin, and Meklong. At first this company possessed only two boats, *Khoon Chang* and *Nang Pim*. When, however, owing to good management they became more prosperous, additional boats were built, namely, the *Khoon Paan*, *Phra Wai Woranart*, *Luang Tang Chai*, and two motor boats, *Gumar Tong* and *Nang Simila*. Others, too, are in course of construction. The company possess docks and sheds containing the necessary machinery and implements for the execution of repairs.

Nai Pin Thep Chalerm, the director of the company, and formerly the owner of the steamboats *Sunbeam* and *Sundawn*, which used to ply between Bangkok and Prachin, is the son of the late Phya Sri Sararaj Pakdi Sismuha and grandson of Somdet Chao Phya Borom Maha Pra Yura Wongse. He is married to Somboon, has two daughters, the elder of whom is married to Mom Chao Traidos Prabandh, son of H.R.H. Prince Devawongse Varoprakar. Nai Pin Thep Chalerm is a member of the Order of Chula Chom Klao (third class), which means that he is the recognised heir of the Sri 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

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 Patriew 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 though the country, and the subject has been under the considera-

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 soon afterwards 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 Naonchaisee 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



CLEARING THE JUNGLE.

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.

tion 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

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

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

paddy upward with a stick and to allow the wind to blow away the chaff. In some districts winnowing would appear to be honoured 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 (Klongs 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 35 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



PLOUGHING.

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 Naonchaisee locality, 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 reaping 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 Namuang 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

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



SOWING.

the place is probably aglow with the light of a huge stubble and straw fire.

The method employed of winnowing the grain is very simple and it is not by any means thorough. The system is merely to switch the

paddy for the three or four men who form the crew. These boats will sometimes spend three or four weeks on one trip, covering a distance of a hundred and fifty to two hundred miles. Loaded, these large boats draw 6 to 8 feet of



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

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—wanted 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.

Description of Articles.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
White Rice ... .. Tons	289,176	313,442	288,584	369,851	390,895	388,456	339,922
White Broken Rice ... .. "	64,869	85,946	87,416	131,529	177,986	200,736	148,411
White Meal ... .. "	41,324	48,337	47,743	63,999	74,426	85,182	72,226
Cargo Rice ... .. "	265,344	326,752	142,574	239,331	145,362	199,774	98,639
Cargo Broken Rice ... .. "	17,148	18,016	11,807	24,779	16,088	20,453	10,193
Cargo Meal ... .. "	4,647	4,498	6,478	12,603	13,063	17,680	11,468
Paddy ... .. "	2,417	1,469	643	2,992	3,044	5,401	2,863
Total ... .. Tons	684,925	798,460	585,245	845,084	820,864	917,682	683,722

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

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

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



TRANSPLANTING.

all parts of the machinery well balanced, and to keep as near the happy medium as possible between overmilling and excessive handling.

including the empty husks, are passed over a fan, the duty of which is to blow the husk away. The fan arrangements are simple, being a series of blades revolving in a wooden case into a tunnel with an outlet passing the fall of rice to the husk house. As the rice and husk drop, the husk gets blown out. The strength of draught is regulated by the speed of the fans, and adjustment is also obtainable by manipulation of shutters through which the draught is passing. The smaller products, screened out earlier, pass over an "aspirator," by which means the light husk-points and dust are drawn out, and the remainder, which is cargo broken rice, may then be sent to the bagging shed. An aspirator is built on the fan principle, but, instead of blowing, its function is to exhaust. Aspirators are a very effective means of withdrawing all that is lighter than rice. After passing over the fans the only other operation necessary to turn out cargo rice is separating to the required standard, which is done by means of either square or circular separators. Cargo rice may contain only 2 per cent. unhusked grain, or it may contain 20, but these separators will easily adjust to the required percentage, and the residue of unhusked grain goes back again to the hullers.

To make white rice the separators are required to extract all the unhusked grain, and therefore additional separators are put to work to deal with the tailings. The rice without any paddy is called "loonzain," and it is then ready for the white rice cone. The cone best known in Bangkok is 3 to 4 feet in diameter at the top and 20 to 30 inches deep, tapering downwards. The working surface of the cone is similar to that of the huller, being of cement and emery, although in different proportions and roughness. The cone is driven by a spindle from underneath at an enormous speed, and is cased in with a wire-cloth fitted casing. The rice falling down between the surface of cone and cone casing is swept round



REAPING.

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

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

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

although it is a common practice to bag and ship this product as it stands, the more economical way is to run it through a sifting

quickly. The centrifugal action given by the high speed of the cone helps also to prevent the rice falling at once. Each conc 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



THRESHING.

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

machine first. In one day's output of meal from cones there will probably be found ten to twenty bags of small broken rice, say 5 per cent. to 10 per cent. It



POUNDING.

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



A RICE BOAT.

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 shoots 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. Verysmall " " "
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 hullers.
- 6 screens for sifting out smalls.



- 6 sets of fans.
- 6 square separators.
- 1 aspirator for rough broken rice.
- 12 circular separators.
- 2 square " "
- 5 additional separators for tailings.
- 6 white rice cones.
- 3 " " polishers.
- 2 white meal sifters.
- 2 white rice aspirators.

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 :—

THE ARRACAN COMPANY, LTD.

Upwards of twenty years ago, when Siam rice was just commencing to attract a large share of attention in the European markets, a branch of the Arracan Company, Ltd.—a firm already well known in the rice industry in Burma—was established at Bangkok. A few years later a rice mill, which, up to the present time, ranks as one of the largest mills of its kind in

Destination.	White Rice.	White Broken Rice.	White Meal.	Cargo Rice.	Cargo Broken Rice.	Cargo Meal.	Paddy.	Total.
Singapore ... ..	3,270,768 <sup>42</sup>	437,370 <sup>05</sup>	614,370 <sup>45</sup>	129,730 <sup>53</sup>	2,164 <sup>06</sup>	21,896 <sup>12</sup>	47,977 <sup>79</sup>	4,523,377 <sup>42</sup>
Hongkong ... ..	1,916,257 <sup>79</sup>	1,587,533 <sup>47</sup>	557,475 <sup>02</sup>	1,332,392 <sup>38</sup>	168,736 <sup>64</sup>	170,266 <sup>66</sup>	1,020 <sup>61</sup>	5,733,682 <sup>55</sup>
Europe ... ..	425,371 <sup>24</sup>	461,460 <sup>44</sup>	38,742 <sup>26</sup>	171,874 <sup>89</sup>	—	—	8 <sup>00</sup>	1,097,456 <sup>83</sup>
India .. ...	75 <sup>97</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	—	75 <sup>97</sup>
South Africa ... ..	58,780 <sup>67</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	—	58,780 <sup>67</sup>
Elsewhere ... ..	39,430 <sup>97</sup>	6,945 <sup>33</sup>	2,810 <sup>12</sup>	23,139 <sup>34</sup>	340 <sup>27</sup>	506 <sup>57</sup>	—	73,172 <sup>57</sup>
	5,710,685 <sup>03</sup>	2,493,309 <sup>29</sup>	1,213,397 <sup>82</sup>	1,657,137 <sup>14</sup>	171,240 <sup>97</sup>	192,669 <sup>68</sup>	48,106 <sup>40</sup>	11,486,546 <sup>01</sup>

- 4 white rice screens.
- 3 broken rice " "

All rice mill furnaces are adapted to suit the consumption of paddy husk as fuel, and thus the husk from the mill is almost invariably discharged by a metal spout direct into a metal conveyor over the furnaces. In this way the supply of fuel while the mill is running is automatically delivered. Whatever husk is

These figures are given in piculs, being copied from the returns of H.S.M.'s Customs Department. A picul is equal to 133½ lbs., or 16<sup>80</sup> 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 :—

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

1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.
1/11 <sup>02</sup>	1/10 <sup>47</sup>	1/10 <sup>71</sup>	2/0 <sup>94</sup>	1/11 <sup>15</sup>	1/8 <sup>57</sup>	1/7 <sup>13</sup>	1/3 <sup>91</sup>	1/3 <sup>68</sup>	1/3 <sup>97</sup>	1/2 <sup>83</sup>	1/2 <sup>17</sup>	1/2 <sup>35</sup>	1/2 <sup>56</sup>	1/2 <sup>24</sup>	1/0 <sup>69</sup>	1/1 <sup>00</sup>	1/1 <sup>53</sup>	1/2 <sup>02</sup>	1/3 <sup>76</sup>	1/5 <sup>1</sup>

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 millmen is Tls. 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 area of 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 landing and rice shipping may be allowed 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



A CHINESE HAND RICE MILL.



MEMBERS AND FAMILY HOUSE OF THE FIRM OF KOH HONG LEE.

1. THE LATE POH CHIN SOO (Founder).      2. KOH KUE HONG (present Manager).      3. MRS. NAI NIEANG PHRA PRISARN (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



OLD MILL STONES.

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.



GENERAL VIEW OF KOH HONG LEE MILLS.

## A. MARKWALD &amp; 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

business in Siam, and constructed the large tanks on the river's bank for the Shell Transport Company, Ltd. Messrs. Markwald & Co. are the Bangkok agents for the Norddeutscher Lloyd mail steamers and other shipping companies, and have a large share, too, in the coast shipping trade. In the early days of the port they issued a periodical market and shipping report, and one of these, dated November 14, 1863, throws an interesting side-light on the changes that have taken place in Bangkok's shipping since that time. On the date of the publication of this report there were 136 sailing ships in the river, having an aggregate tonnage of some 13,000 tons—these vessels were loading rice, salt fish, sugar, and teak-wood—while now a sailing ship in the river is rapidly becoming a novelty. The circular

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



## KWANG HAP SENG RICE MILLS.

1. THE RICE MILLS.

2. NGO KIM MUI (the late Founder).

3. GUA KIM MUI.

4. NGO LUK SZU (Manager).

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 coyan, 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 so well known in connection with the rice industry of Siam.

Having been recently equipped with the best

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.

3. "R. C. RICKMERS," THE LARGEST SAILING SHIP AFLOAT.



L. XAVIER RICE MILLS.

1. BACK VIEW OF THE GRANULATING AND RICE MILL, BANGPAKOK.    2. THE WHARF.    3. BACK VIEW OF THE MILL.    4. FRONT VIEW OF THE MILL.

sketch is now generally known by his official title of Phya Phipat Kosa—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,

night, 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 Ou 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 the future. When the founder was succeeded by his son, his Excellency Phya Bariboon Kosakorn (Li Guat Chew), the business was already numbered among the leading Bangkok houses. His Excellency



PAN TIN NAT (Son).  
THE YONG SENG RICE MILL.

PAN OU KENG AND FAMILY.  
PAN OU KENG (Owner).

which were requiring his personal attention. Phya Phipat Kosa 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 his promotion was rapid, and he soon attained 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 Kut 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 Maung Luang, and is consequently easily accessible to paddy boats and lighters from the Menam river. It was founded some ten years ago by Mr. Pan Ou Keng, and has since been successfully managed by him and his sons. The mill is kept running day and

lighters, and other small craft are docked and repaired. Mr. Pan Ou 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 Kuay, are also engaged in business in Bangkok. Amongst other interests Mr. Pan Ou Keng is the owner of a public market at Bonpat, and is a large shareholder in and vice-chairman of the Guan What Lee Chinese Bank in Bangkok.

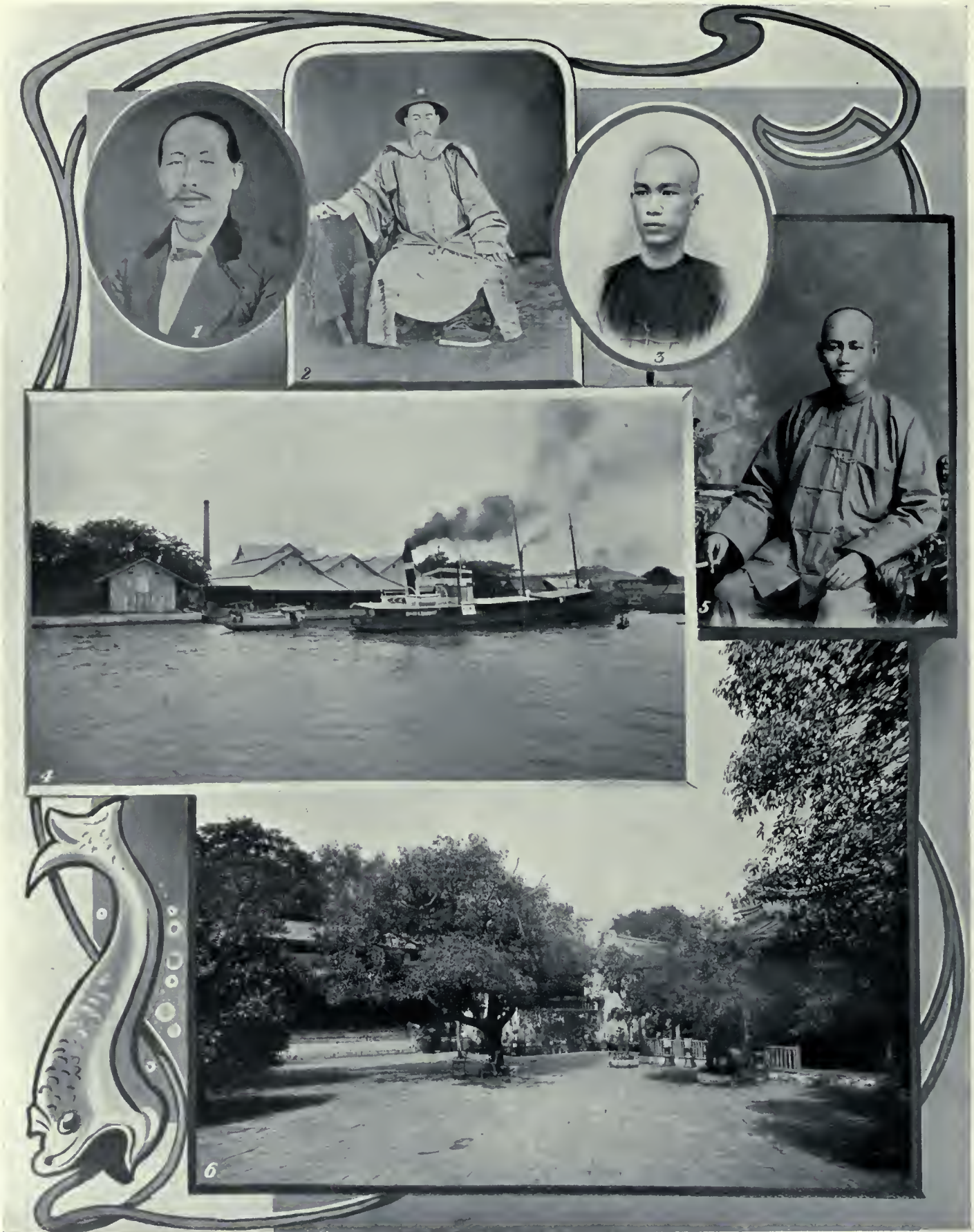
**STEEL BROS. & CO., LTD.**

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 Chuduk Rajasethee (Phook), who carried on a shipping and general

Phya Bariboon Kosakorn recently retired from the active management, and was succeeded by his son Luang Maitri Wanit (Li Thye Phong), who is now in charge of all the firm's interests in Siam. The family have now been prominently connected with Bangkok for over fifty years. In the second generation a large rice mill was added to the firm's undertakings. This is situated on the bank of the River Menam, and is a thoroughly modern mill fitted with good machinery. It runs day and night, and has a capacity of 100 tons of white rice a day, when milling the best quality for the European market, and an output of nearly double that quantity when inferior rice is being dealt with. The mill has an extensive river frontage. The rice is sold locally to European firms for export and is also exported direct to Hongkong, Singapore, and Swatow, Messrs. Li Tit Guan having a branch house in Hongkong known as the Man Fat Cheung. In their shipping department Messrs. Li Tit Guan are agents for the Koe Guan Steamship Company of Pinang, and for Messrs. Taik Lee Guan, of Singapore. They also frequently charter steamers and employ them in the local trade. Amongst other agencies held by the firm are those for Messrs. Godfrey Phillips & Sons' cigarettes and the Star fire extinguisher. The members of the family have at various times



LI TIT GUAN.

1. H. E. PHYA CHUDUK RAJASETHEE (PHOOK) in European dress.      2. H. E. PHYA CHUDUK RAJASETHEE (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 Bariboon Kosakorn was conferred on Phya Chuduk Rajasethee's son in recognition of his many services to the country. Messrs. Li Tit 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 Kut Mai and known by the name of Guan Joo Seng is operated by Messrs. Joo Seng, a Chinese Company with headquarters at Walkok, 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 Thuan 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 the 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 Kebli, 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-



**CHOP JOO SENG.**

THE RICE MILL.

THE SS. "SINGAPORE."

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 Ngan Keng, a native of Swatow, who, before taking up his present

and a piece-goods shop at Samsen 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

duced No. 1 white rice in Bangkok. To keep pace with the great advance that has been made in recent years in the methods of rice milling, the Kim Cheng Mill was, some years ago, equipped with the latest Scotch milling machinery, with patent furnaces for burning the paddy husk, thereby occasioning the saving of about 100 per cent. in the cost of fuel. The



TAN BAN SENG CHIANG RICE MILL.

THE RICE MILL.

TAN YEONG SIAK (Proprietor).

THE ENGINE ROOM.

TAN THUAN HEANG (Manager).

(See p. 157.)

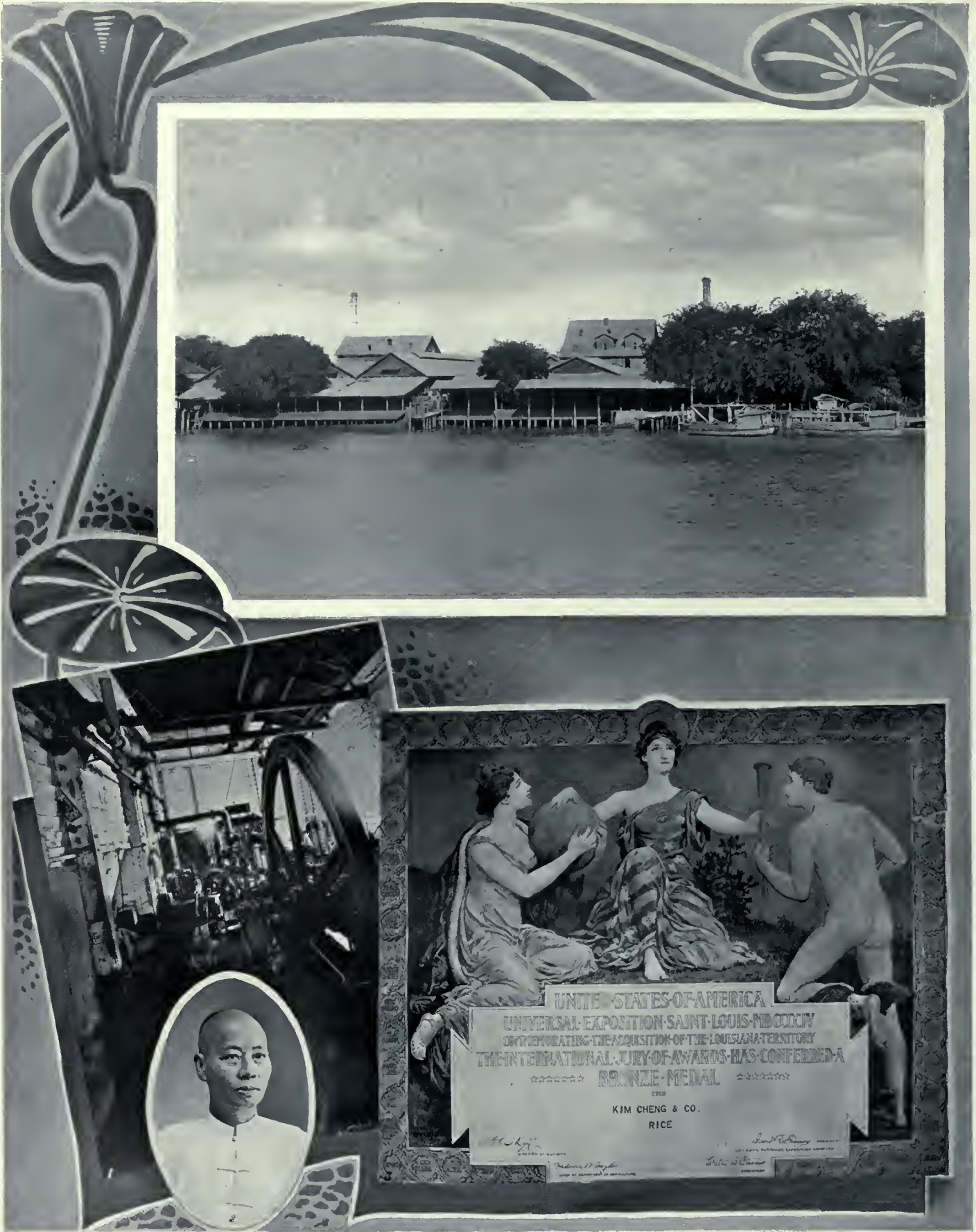


BANG YUI YUEN.

1. THE GUAN HENG SENG MILL.

2. THE GUAN HENG CHAN MILL.  
(See p. 157.)

3. BANG YUI YUEN (Owner).



KIM CHENG & CO.

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 Luang Sapon, 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, to-

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-



**LEE CHENG CHAN AND TOM YAH RICE MILLS.**

1. THE STEAM LAUNCHES.

2. TOM YAH.

3. LEANG CHAI CHANINAN NITI.

The working of the mill is under the immediate control of Mr. W. Sidney Smart, the superintendent engineer, who has been connected with Bangkok rice mills for the last nineteen years.

At the back of the Kim Cheng Mill there may still be seen two immense freestone rollers, now long since replaced by modern machinery, which are reputed to be the first of their kind used in Bangkok. These relics of already antiquated methods illustrate in a striking manner the great progress that has been made in rice-milling even during a comparatively small number of years.

**KIM SENG LEE & CO.**

The firm of Kim Seng Lee is one of the largest engaged in the rice-milling industry in Bangkok. It was founded about twenty-six

gether 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,

bined capacity of the two mills is 70,000 coyans of paddy per month. Five hundred tons of cargo rice are turned out in a day, but when No. 1 white rice is required the output falls to little more than half of that amount. The mills are kept running day and night the whole year round, with but the short stops necessary for cleaning and repairs. All classes of rice are milled, according to the requirements of the market, and the finished article is exported direct to Hongkong, Singapore, England, and the ports of Europe. The mills are provided with the latest class of furnaces for burning paddy husks, and have their own electric lighting plant capable of running 750 lights.

The active partners and general managers of this important industrial undertaking are Nai Tom Yah and Leang Chai Chaninan Niti, a man known in business circles throughout



GUAN TIT LEE.

1 KOH POH KIM (Managing Partner).

2. THE LATE POH CHIN SOO.

3. THE ENGINE ROOM.

4. THE MILL AT SAMSEN.

5. THE OFFICE.

6. THE PRIVATE RESIDENCE.

(See p. 165.)



SIENG KEE CHAN.

TAN KWONG TEE (Manager).  
THE SIENG KEE CHAN MILL.

THE SIENG HUAT MILL.  
THE SENG HENG MILL.  
(See p. 165.)



LEE CHENG CHAN AND TOM YAH RICE MILLS.

1. THE MILL AT BANGKOEM POINT.

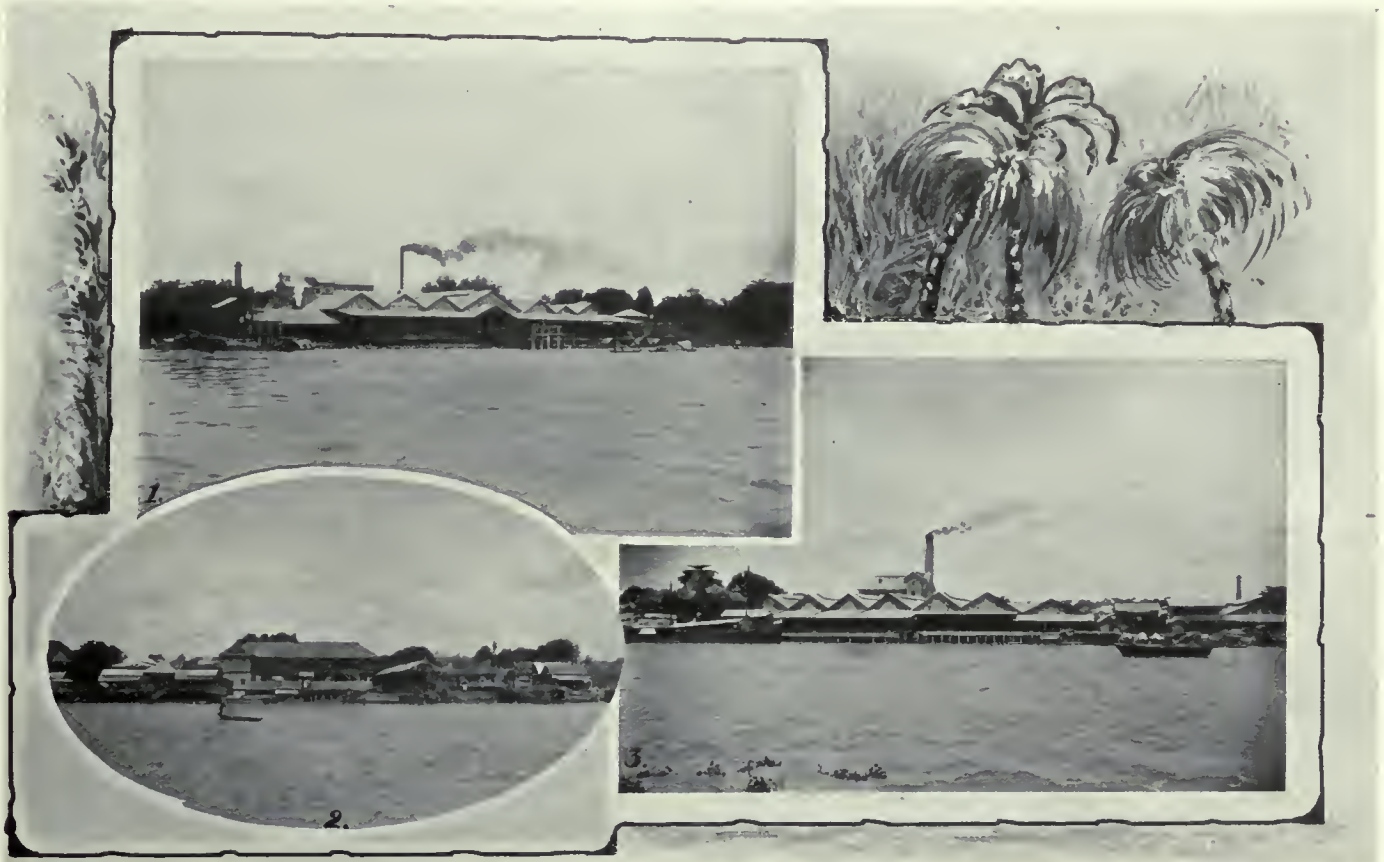
2. THE SMALL MILL.



Siam, who in addition to the milling business is the proprietor of a brickworks 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 lives 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 CHEANG 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 cargo 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 recognised 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 Yuen Fal 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 bank 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,

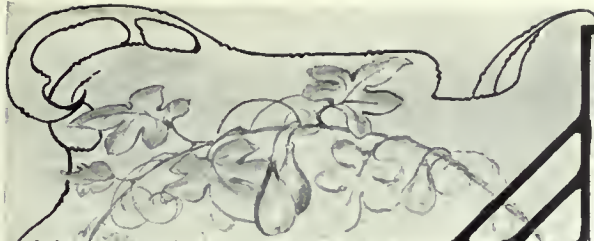


LOW BAN SENG.

1. GENERAL VIEW OF LOW BAN SENG MILLS.

2. SIM KAING LENG (Manager).  
(See p. 169.)

3. HONG KENG TIONG (Manager, Shipping Department).



CHOP FOOK WAH SHAN KEE.

THE FOOK WAH SHAN KEE MILLS.

LEONG SHAU SHAN'S PRIVATE RESIDENCE.

(See p. 169.)



THE LAU BENG SENG RICE MILL.

PHRA CHAROEN RAJATHON (LAU CHONG MIN)

(Proprietor.)

(See p. 169.)



CHOP WONG LI.

1. THE KHIAN LEE CHAN MILLS AT SAMSEN.

2. THE LONG HENG LEE MILLS.

3. TAN LIP BUOY (Present Owner).



THE RESIDENCE OF TAN LIP BUOY.

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 Keak 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 Khian 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 wharfing 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 Samsen. 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 full charge of his business to his son, Mr. Tan Lip Buoy, and is living, with his family, in his native city of Swatow.

**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 Sim 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. Leong 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 Leong 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 Erskine, 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 Thyee.



## THE TEAK INDUSTRY

By A. J. C. DICKSON.



**O**f 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

world. Perhaps Java should be included as a minor, though increasing, source of supply; but while Java teak (vernacularly termed "Djatti") is a true teak, its greater density and heaviness, 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 ship-building 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 outturn 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 Siam-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 20,000 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 nature of the wood appears to be greatly influenced by that of the ground on which it has grown, varying from a comparative 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 "hee-hole" borer, a destructive caterpillar of the sub-order



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

indeed, the largest importer of Burma and Siam teak. It is interesting to read of a despatch in the year 1805 from the Court of Directors of the East India Company to their Indian administrators, inquiring "to what extent the King's Navy might, in view of the growing deficiency of oak in England, depend

Heterocera. The chief virtue of teak is its essential oil, which clogs the cellular tissue 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 combination with metals. The preservative properties of the teak oil render the wood an indispensable material for the "backing" of armour-plate in warship construction, 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 (*termite*), and is therefore an indispensable material in tropical countries for house-building and general constructional purposes. "It possesses, indeed" (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 be 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 Siam 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 1881 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 out-turn 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, had to obtain 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



DRAG-ROAD FOR TIMBER, SHOWING MONO-RAIL LINE.

which exercises reasonable foresight with regard to the preservation of one of its most important sources of wealth. If the trade, as represented by those companies who have sunk large sums of money in extensive saw-mills and establishments on the banks of the Bangkok river, has any real ground for regret, it rather is that forest conservancy measures were not entered upon at least ten years earlier, so that future supplies of teak logs might be less of an uncertainty.

It should here be remarked that the teak trade in Siam is very largely a British interest. Out of ten or eleven steam sawmills in Bangkok five are owned by British firms, and these

northern or Laos territory, lying approximately between the sixteenth and twentieth 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 product 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 Chiang-mai, Lakon Lampang, Prae, and Nan. Chiangmai, about 500 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

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 haulage 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 forestry 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 Paknampoh, the point at which the chief teak rivers have a common junction with the Bangkok 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.



A WORKING ELEPHANT.

A TYPICAL FOREST CAMP.

WORKING TIMBER ON THE ME LA MOE.

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 northerly Chiangmai district, but the absence of river communication with the south is a serious obstacle to their working. Generally 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 Conservators. The tendency is for forest operations to extend further and further northward from the old bases, and forests which, in

round teak logs can reach the Bangkok market from the time they are felled in the forest, and naturally, as working areas are operated increasingly further afield, the tendency of this average is to widen. Also, in a country where a good or bad floating season is primarily dependent on the very variable factor of rainfall, a failure of delivery has to be assured against by holding large reserves of worked-out logs, which again involves a large outstanding of capital.

The various stages in the process of working the logs out of the forests will be found described elsewhere, and need not be set forth here. Assuming that the rainfall has been ample to swell the "huays," or forest streams, the logs commence to move on their long water journey to Bangkok some time about the be-

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

Year	Logs
1898	50,800
1899	53,000
1900	120,000
1901	64,170
1902	64,325
1903	108,530
1904	135,140
1905	146,753
1906	86,066
1907	108,398

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 1898-1902 was 70,459 logs, that for the five years 1903-1907 was considerably larger, viz., 116,977 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.

Despatched from Paknampoh, 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 sawmill. 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 "klong" (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 tables from 40 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 Ameri-

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



RAFTING TEAK LOGS ON THE ME YOME.

can 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

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.

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.

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

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 unsuit-

bility 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:—

Year.	To Europe.	To Eastern and other non-European Markets.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1898	8,859	17,036	26,495
1899	11,576	27,085	38,661
1900	11,182	27,150	38,332
1901	13,157	37,251	50,408
1902	8,217	48,432	56,649
1903	7,543	50,603	58,146
1904	15,987	61,544	77,531
1905	15,699	85,698	101,397
1906	17,266	79,571	96,837
1907	11,464	75,819	87,283

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

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



DENNY, MOTT & DICKSON, LTD.

THE OFFICES AND GODOWNS.

able 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 consumed at the present time. Siam is peculiarly a market which looks less at dura-

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

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 1894. In that year their representative, Mr. A. J. C. Dickson, arrived in Bangkok to supervise the execution

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,

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



DENNY, MOTT & DICKSON, LTD.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SAWMILLS.

IMPORT WHARF AND GODOWNS.

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 1898 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

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 1856, the same year as

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 any further upon them. 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,



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 1899 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. Ngou, Mg. Prayou, Sawankaloke, Phrae, Ooteradit, and Paknampoh, and employ a staff of some twenty Europeans.

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, Tabeck 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 contract for architectural and civil engineering work, and supply all kinds of household furniture.

Messrs. A. Piolet & 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, Caband & Co., and La Société de Construction de Levallais-Perret.

Mr. A. Piolet, the head of the firm, has been

tional length is 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 fibres 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 *Xylia Dolabrisformis*, *Sarcocephelus Cadamba*, *Pterocarpus Indicus*, *Dipterocarpus* (*Tuberculatus*, *Turbinatus*, *Obtusifolius Lævis*), *Hopea Odorata*, *Lagerstroemia Flos Reginae*, *Lagerstroemia Tomentosa*, *Cedrela Toona*, *Mesua Ferrea*, *Rhizophora Mucronata*, *Heritiera Minor*, *Vatica Lanceifolia*, 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,



MESSRS. A. PIALET & CO.'S SAWMILL.

Apart from their interests in the timber trade, the firm conduct an extensive business as import and export merchants, importing chiefly piece goods, gunnies, coals, hardware, machinery, and exporting rice, hides, pepper, rubber, sticklac, gamboge, gum benjamin, and other Siam products. They are agents, too, for the Commercial Union Assurance Company, Ltd., the Guardian Assurance Company, Ltd., the Phoenix Assurance Company, Ltd., the National Bank of China, the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, the Phailin Ruby and Sapphire Mines, and the Kabin Gold Mines, &c., &c. Their head office is at No. 2, Fenchurch Avenue, London.

**A. PIALET & CO.**

The firm of Messrs. A. Piolet & Co., the successors of Messrs. Jourdan & Piolet, have

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 Surasakdi Montri, in 1898, and embraces the whole district known as Srimaharacha, on the east coast of Siam, situated opposite the island of Koi 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 excep-

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 run for about 10½ 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



1. VIEW OF THE SRIRACHA SAWMILLS.



2. VIEW IN ONE OF THE FORESTS, SHOWING HUGE TREES.



3. RAILWAY CONNECTING FORESTS AND MILLS.

THE SRIRACHA COMPANY, LTD.

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 Sriracha 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 Kratt, calling at Srimaharacha *en route*.

Mr. F. V. de Jesus, who, through his connection with the Sriracha 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 Sriracha 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 Samsen. They have large forest concessions at Soophan, Oottai, Kamppeng, 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



THE RESIDENCE.

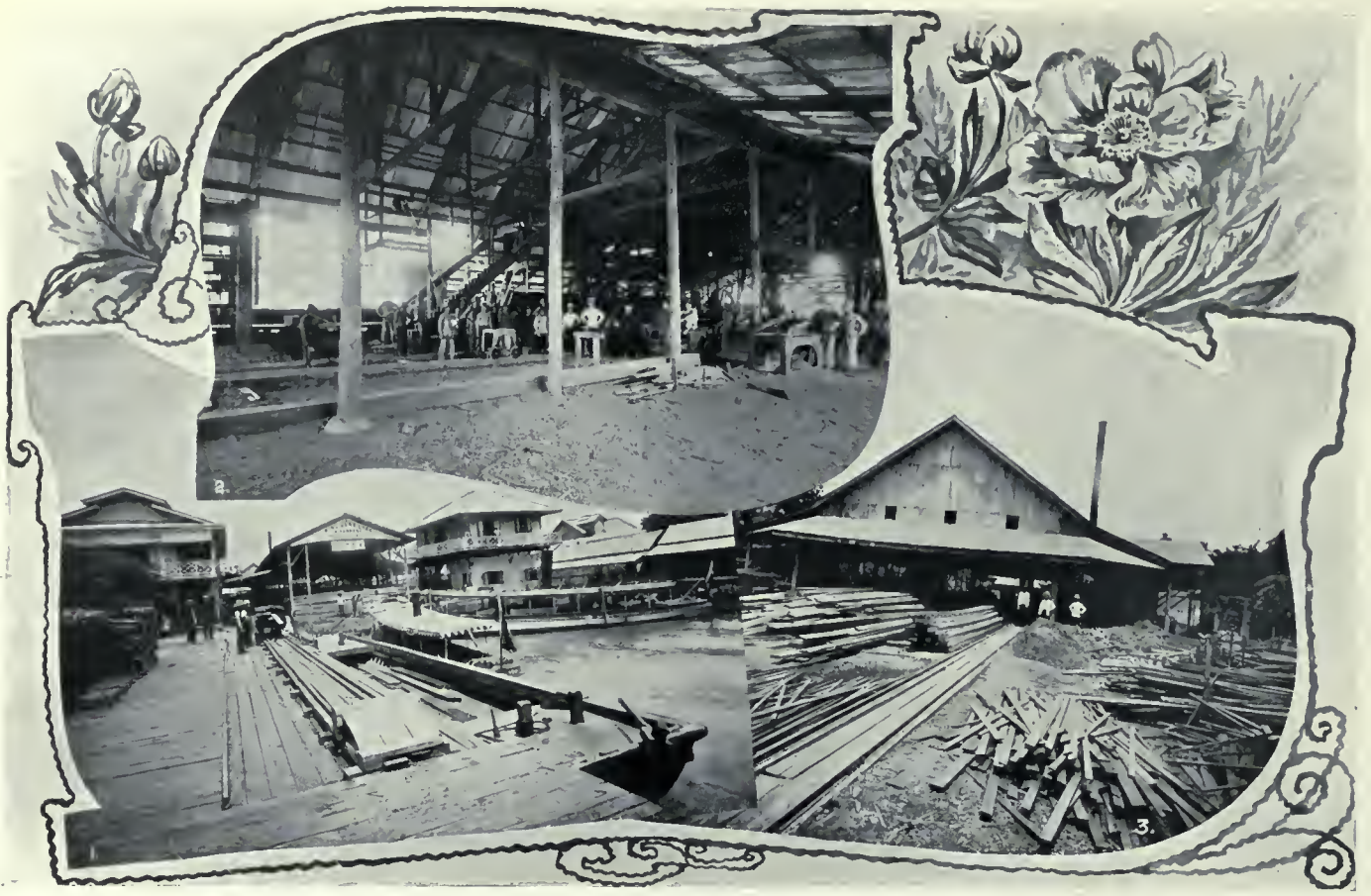
KWONG NGAN FONG.

THE SAWMILLS.

can enjoy pleasant excursions to Bang Pla Soi (Muang Chonburi), taking in Bang Phra Nongmon and Anghin on the route, the latter spot being the outer anchorage for the steamers during the north-east monsoon. There is a well-equipped hospital, with accommodation for one hundred patients, built by the desire of Somdetch Phra Nang Chao Phra Boromaracha Thevi, where there is a resident

Messrs. Anderson & Co. They appointed Mr. de Jesus as manager of their sawmill, a position which he retained when the East Asiatic Company, Ltd., in 1897 took over the interests of Messrs. Anderson & Co. in this country. He left the firm, however, in the early part of 1906, and joined the Sriracha Company as manager of their property at Srimaharacha. In the latter part of 1908,

is Mr. Lam Sam, a man well known for his many charitable works. He advanced the whole of the money for the establishment of the Tan Fah Yee Hospital, which is now in a flourishing condition, and receives the support of all the principal Chinese firms in Bangkok. During Mr. Lam Sam's absence from Siam his interests are looked after by his son, Mr. Yook Long.



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.

2 & 3. STOCK OF TEAK AT BANGKOK READY FOR SHIPMENT.



**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, Moulmein, 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 Sum, Wong Fui, and Lin 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. E. Ritzau, 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. Ritzau 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.

p. 43





## MINES AND MINING ADMINISTRATION

By JOHN H. HEAL, R.S.M., F.G.S.,

INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF THE ROYAL DEPARTMENT OF MINES AND GEOLOGY.



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 Banka and Billiton.

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 in 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 provinces of Pangnga, Takuapa, 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 Pangnga 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 the richness of its tin contents, its average thickness in the working places being about 3 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 it.

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 Taknapa 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 granitic

material which is decomposed down to a considerable depth, and has been worked by the Chinese for very many years. Considerable work has recently been done by an English company in the way of prospecting this huge mass of material with the idea of hydraulising the whole hill. There were numerous 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, but they were unable to work 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 source of the alluvial tin.

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 was built from 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 digger was installed. The results have not as yet justified this enormous expense. No details were ever published, as far as I am aware, as to the amount spent on prospecting.

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 appearance of tin ore, 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 Rahman, 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 Rahman. These old workings are on the side of a hill known as Bukit Paku, and for many years have been managed by a Chinaman of the name of Datoh Chang Wang. The work was carried on by fetching down the alluvial on the hillside and in the valley by means of water brought in by a ditch line from a distance. The valley itself lies about 700 to 800 feet above sea level, and Bukit Paku rises to a height of about 1,000 feet 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 in baskets to the valley below 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 Rahman 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.

At the beginning of the year 1904 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, Ltd. The former has 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 Rajah Prempuan. The former has discovered a large vein or series of parallel veins providing an enormous quantity of excellent milling material. They have constructed an aerial rope-way for bringing this material

down from the top of Bukit Paku to the mill, which has been erected on the top of a small hill projecting into the valley below. This mill consists of a fine up-to-date 20-head stamp battery, with Frue vanners, by Fraser and Chalmers. Practically no development work has, however, been done on the mine.

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 not permit them to work more than three monitors. They have a project for bringing in their water from the Rui, 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 breaking up the lumps which are 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 stacked up behind them. These dumps will well repay the cost of transport to the mill and of milling. Neither of these companies has got to work on a large scale yet, but their prospects are certainly excellent. Their difficulties in the past have been largely connected with transport, and even now, although 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 pioneers for the way they have overcome the many difficulties inherent in work of this kind.

I have referred above to most 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 Puket 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 drillers in operation. There is every reason to believe that this thorough prospecting will bear fruit in the near future in the form of increased production, bringing in a good profit to the investor and an increase of revenue to the Government.

Although up to the present the history of gold-mining in this country has been a tale of failure so far as European companies are concerned, yet there is no doubt that this metal stands second in importance to tin in the mineral resources of the country.

Tomoh, Watana, Bangtaphan, and Kabin each recalls past losses to the investor. It is always difficult in a mining venture to say definitely what the cause of failure has been, but 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 reason to believe that they may turn the tide of past misfortunes.

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 spare capital only are 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 insure that the management is the best possible.

Siam's very remoteness in the past has acted as an incentive to the investment of capital in mining. This has probably been one reason for 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 getting to such a place without thinking that they had earned the right to exaggerate a little when recounting the story of its riches. Hence the formation of a company and failure. There is no doubt that if only a place is far enough off and little enough is known of it, capital can easily be raised for mining there. Some few miles from Tomoh, in the middle of the jungle, overgrown with creepers, and almost rusted away, one comes across two large boilers, a pump, concentrating plant, a five-stamp battery, together with some tons of rails and waggons. This plant must have been brought up the Kelantan river, and then up its tributary, the Pergau, as far as the depth of water would allow. An attempt was then made to drag it through the jungle to the mines. Either the health of the party or the capital of the company appears to have given out before the plant reached its destination, and now it lies surrounded by the densest jungle, a monument to the enterprise and energy of the white man, if not to his wisdom.

The Tomoh Gold Fields Hills, Ltd., was started with a capital of £175,000, and went into liquidation in 1893. The report of the final meeting of the company opens up a tangled vista of disappointment and mutual recrimination.

There appears to be a kind of ill-defined run of gold-bearing country through Raub in Rahang and Pulai in Kelantan, ending at Tomoh. Pulai has, without doubt, turned out very large quantities of gold in the past, the signs of old workings round that district being very extensive indeed.

At Tomoh itself the output of gold by the Chinese in the past must have been considerable, practically the whole of the alluvial having been worked out. There are now some three hundred Chinese engaged in working the veins on the hillside. The only workings that I have visited there are situated some 3,000 feet above sea level. The vein, of bluish semi-transparent quartz, was dipping at an angle of about 45°, while the country was a decomposed slate, requiring a fair amount of timbering. The levels were extremely narrow, and the whole of the stuff was carried out in baskets in the usual Chinese way. The stamps were worked by water-power by means of an overshot wheel, and from the look of the quartz I should say it was very easily broken and perfectly free milling. The whole place seemed tidy and well kept, while the coolies, some thirty in number, appeared healthy and well fed. At some future date, when the means of transport have improved, it might well be worth the while of some company to spend a little time and money investigating this field, but at the present time the expenses of working would be enormous, owing to the transport charges.

To the south of the Tomoh Field lies the country included in the Duff concessions in Kelantan. This company has spent a large amount of capital in prospecting its area. As stated above, there are indications of very extensive old Chinese workings in Kelantan. As at Tomoh, the alluvial has been mostly worked out above river level, and the Duff Company has been engaged for some time past in working the river beds by means of dredges. The results have not as yet brought in dividends to the shareholders, though their output of gold has been as high as 800 oz. in some months.

On the Sokoh river, a tributary of the Kelantan, the Duff Company has done a great deal of prospecting. The ore in this district is of a particularly refractory nature, and though the company have spent a good deal of money in 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 is situated Bangtaphan, the scene of 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 known as the Gold Fields of Siam, Ltd., was floated in 1888 with a capital of £250,000, and their lease expired in 1896. As far as I can ascertain, no gold was obtained by the company; certainly, no royalty was ever paid to the Government on gold produced. The natives still work the streams round Bangtaphan 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 Watina 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 called the New Kabin Gold Mines of Siam, Ltd., with a similar capital. The property was eventually transferred to the Siam Syndicate, Ltd., which syndicate has declared the intention of 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 opening of the Patriew line of railway should facilitate the management of the mine considerably, bringing it into close touch with the head office in 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 the wolfram only, tin, if present at all, being only in very small quantities. The company have shipped over twenty tons of ore up to date. It is hand-picked only 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 was worked for a short time at Chanthuk by a Danish company without success. Lead was worked in Jala by an English company. The fall in the price of 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 can be seen 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 cerussite (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 this product is low and the loss in 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, the introduction of European steel making the work of reducing ores in a small native way unprofitable.

Other minerals, such as antimony, bismuth, graphite, and zinc, are also found in Siam, but not in paying quantities. A deposit of calcium

phosphate in the shape of fossil bones has recently been reported, and I understand that an attempt is to be made to work it; no work has, however, yet been done on it.

Gems in the form of sapphires and rubies have, in the past, provided a fair-sized industry, but the Pailin fields, which were by far the most important, were included in the territory ceded to the French. The isthmus of Kra still provides a few gems, but their value is very low.

Water is not, perhaps, usually regarded as part of the mineral 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, but 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, undoubtedly, 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 Royal Department of Mines, 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 was one of the first to be put down 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 in no case where a well has been properly looked after and the sample properly taken has the result been in any way unfavourable. As a further proof of this, the fact may be 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 Paknam, these three having been put down by the railway companies; three at Prapatom, where a fourth is about to be started; one at Ban Phaji, used by the Royal Railway Department; while unsuccessful attempts have been made at Patriew and Pak Phanang on the east coast of the peninsula.

I will now turn to the matter of 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. The Government therefore decided to start a special department to look after mining affairs. The Royal Department of Mines came into existence on January 1, 1891, the Government engaging the services of two European experts to advise them and help in the work of organising the department.

When first established the department was placed under the Ministry of Agriculture, Chow Phya Phat Satrawongse being the minister at the time.

The concessions that had been issued prior to the establishment of the department usually covered very large areas. The rent for these areas was nominal; a high duty, however, was imposed on all minerals that should be won. There was no clause in these leases saying 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 could hold them for an indefinite time at small expense in the hope that some company would buy the concessions. Thus large areas were tied up, to the detriment both of the Government and of capitalists who wished to work mines in the country. All these old leases gradually lapsed, 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 a mining Act for the regulation of the industry. This could not be satisfactorily accomplished until a study had been made of the local conditions under which titles were held and mines worked. Regulations were first drafted in 1895, but they had to be redrafted several times before they reached the conditions in which they finally passed into law in 1901. In the meantime changes had taken place in the ministers under whom the department was placed. In April, 1892, Chao Phya Surasakdi became Minister of Agriculture. In 1897 the Ministry of Agriculture was done away with and the Mining Department was placed under H.R.H. Prince Mahit, Minister of Finance. In 1899 the Ministry of Agriculture was again established; the Mining Department was, however, placed under the orders of H.R.H. Prince Damrong, 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 for the survey and issue of leases. At the present time, in addition to the main Puket office, small branch offices are being established at Renong and Pangnga. On the east coast of the peninsula there is an office at Patani and a small branch office is being established at Betong, in lower Rahman.

The first director of the department was Mr. de Muller, Mr. Warington Smyth, the author of "Five Years in Siam," being his assistant. After Mr. de Muller left, in April, 1895, Mr. Warington Smyth was director till November, 1896, when he resigned owing to ill-health. On Mr. Scott's retirement the position of director was kept vacant. A new position of Inspector-General of Mines was created, to which the author of these notes was promoted. On the whole the Siamese Government have been very fortunate in their choice of European officials, the position of director especially having been held by men who were most keen, not only in the work of their department, but also to help the Government in every way that was in their power.

There is one technically trained Siamese in the department, viz., Phya Baromabart, who was for some time a student at the Ecole des Mines, Paris. The most satisfactory feature of the whole work of the department is the great progress made by the Siamese staff, many of whom have shown great industry, ability, and devotion to their work and are quite fit to take responsible positions.



## ENGINEERING

By C. LAMONT GROUNDWATER, M.I.E.E.



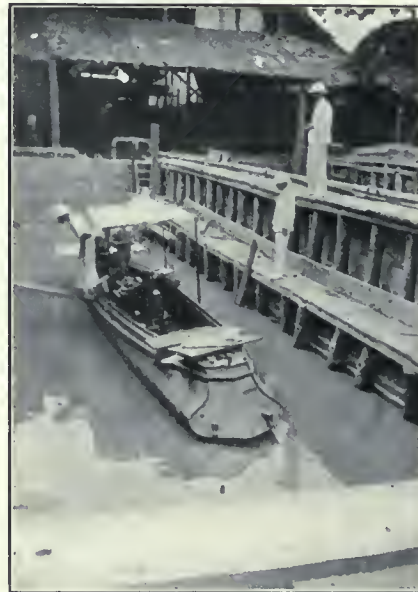
**L**T cannot be said for Siam that the early years of the country's development were productive of much inventiveness. There are no signs of any mechanical contrivance to increase a given output or decrease labour that can be truly said to be the outcome of Siamese thought.

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 merely 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 basket 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



A CHINESE DOCK.

husks and dust are removed, and the grain is then further cleaned by pounding, which takes the place of pearling. In the more advanced hand-mills the beaters are worked by foot, but in the country districts and individual farmsteads this work is done either by large wooden mallets, or by poles resembling an attenuated dumbbell. The foot-pounders form the most primitive method which could be conceived for the performance of the work required, but still the work goes on, and evidently the workers are satisfied, although, judging from the price of rice and the time it takes to prepare, they cannot be overburdened with wealth as a result of their strenuous labour.

The introduction of rice and saw mills into Siam marked the era of modern engineering in the country. With their advent came 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 Borneo 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 workmanship that this, the oldest mill in Siam, is still turning out white rice of the finest quality. There are 65 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, external to the boiler, 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-power 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 wood-working 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 manufactured 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.

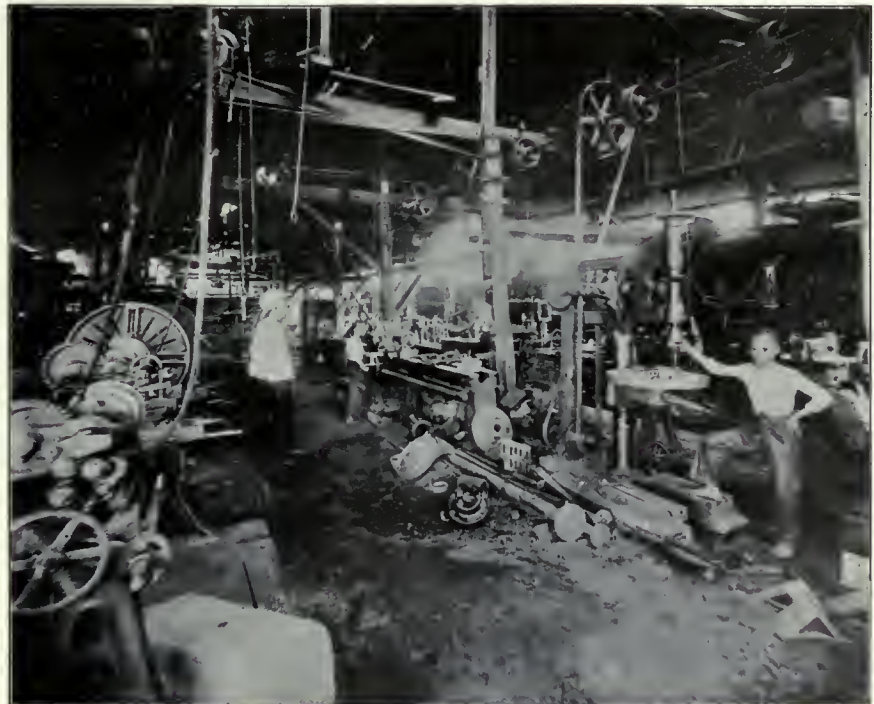
The larger shops owned by European companies receive from time to time contracts to build steel ships and lighters, which have been constructed at home and sent out in pieces. Quite a number of these craft have of late years been turned out, and form a small fleet on the river. Ships of 350 feet in length 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.



A HAND RICE MILL.



INTERIOR OF A CHINESE ENGINEERING SHOP.

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 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

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 but 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 Polytechnical 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

the Siam Electricity Company, Ltd., the concern was not in a very flourishing state. Its present-day value, however, may be gauged by the fact that its concession from the Siamese Government extends until 1950.

The first and principal branch of the company's work is that of electric lighting. By an agreement, dated November 9, 1901, the Government undertake to consume 50,000 units of current from the company in each calendar month, such supply to be entirely for the use of the Government and not for sale or transfer to private persons for the purpose of lighting or working in private houses. The power for tram-running and for lighting in streets and buildings is supplied from the central power station, situated in the middle of the distributing area. We are indebted to officials of the



REPRESENTATIVES OF BANGKOK ENGINEERING FIRMS.

1. AAGE WESTENHOLZ. 2. LIEUT. W. L. GRUT. 3. J. D. MACARTHUR. 4. H. DEHLHOLM. 5. JAMES MURCHIE. 6. JOHN M. DUNLOP, M.I.N.A. 7. J. S. SMYTH.  
8. R. BALFOUR LAW. 9. A. I. CORBETT. 10. W. SIDNEY SMART. 11. A. LENNOX. 12. C. L. GROUNDWATER. 13. H. HANNCKE. 14. J. H. SWANSON.

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

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 2,600. 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—

1. 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. RAAE, MR. LUND, MR. O. GEDDE, MR. H. HANSEN, MR. HELVARD, MR. JENSEN, MR. HENRIKSEN.  
*Sitting*—MR. FRITZBOGER, MR. SUND, MR. DIEMER HANSEN, LIEUT. W. L. GRUT (Vice-Manager), MR. SOMMER, MR. V. GEDDE, MR. NYEGAARD.



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, exciter on main shaft.

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

One 150-kw. Brown-Boveri motor generator for the purpose of utilising the tramway machinery as a reserve in case of breakdowns in the lighting plant.

2. 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 200-kw. Dick, Kerr & Co. dynamo, directly connected to a Browett, Lindley & 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 over-

TRAMWAYS.

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 ... ..	5.63 miles
Samsen line ... ..	5.37 "
Asadang line ... ..	0.33 "
Rachawongs line ... ..	0.50 "

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 Bangkolem Point on the River 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 persons 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. Trail cars, however, will soon be put in use and will relieve the difficulty.

The Samsen line connects the suburbs Bangkrabu 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, 79 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 Electricity Company (Schenectady) make. Up to the present only single motor-cars of 25-37 h.p. have been used, but double motor-cars with trail-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 2,617 are run on the

which take place. This result is achieved by careful inspection and strict rules. The operators, all of whom are natives, are remarkably well paid, but heavily fined or dismissed in case of carelessness.

FIRE BRIGADE.

As the Siam Electricity Company, Ltd., enlarged the scope of its operations the idea of a fire brigade was conceived. It was originally established as a safeguard for the company's own property. The brigade then became a volunteer corps, which undertook to turn out for all fires irrespective of distance, and at a later period of its existence an agreement was made with the Siamese Government whereby the brigade bound itself to turn out to all and any calls with its water-cars. There are two observatories for locating outbreaks, and a special staff of fifteen firemen, but if necessary watchmen and tram-men are brought into requisition to cope with any pressure, so that when the whole force is called out the brigade musters ninety men. The brigade has four Merryweather steam pumps, fitted for transport on tram trucks, and seven hand pumps. There is, in addition, a staff of cyclists with hand pumps, and three electric water-cars equipped for fire outbreaks, which are used at ordinary times as street-watering cars, the Company binding themselves to the Government to place daily "a layer of water 2 mm. thick" on all the roads where their tramways operate. The supply of water for this purpose is obtained from tanks erected by the company near the various bridges on the line. The tanks are seven in number, steel constructed, holding 25 tons of water each, and standing on four screw piles. Under each tank is a "floater" with centrifugal pump, driven by electric motor, with a capability of supplying 20 tons of water per hour.

The company have established a system of telephones with private call offices for their own use, and in fire outbreaks these offices have proved of immense value, and largely through their agency the fire brigade have gained the reputation of always being first on the scene of action. The following table shows the progress the company have made in their electric lighting and tramway departments.

	LIGHT AND POWER PLANT.			TRAMWAYS.			
	No. of Lamps and Motors connected 31st December reduced to 16 c.p.	Output at Station, Units.		Bangkolem.		Samsen.	
		Current sold.	Current for Tramways.	Car Miles run.	Receipts, Ticals.	Car Miles run.	Receipts, Ticals.
1907 ... ..	42,910	2,563,541	1,020,740	900,929	568,036	764,540	322,996
1906 ... ..	37,481	2,292,018	864,610	879,324	581,586	630,365	324,870
1905 ... ..	31,629	1,984,674	740,440	652,067	513,256	475,175	337,155
1904 ... ..	28,117	1,772,502	710,685	536,802	449,312	432,443	315,431
1903 ... ..	25,009	1,751,527	670,403	518,976	404,051	433,217	303,013
1902 ... ..	21,986	1,595,544	631,400	437,378	395,786	422,609	256,054
1901 ... ..	18,174	1,117,883	Started August.	361,746	275,268	Started Sept.	Started Sept.
1900 ... ..	14,708	978,947		370,812	247,983		
1899 ... ..	10,953	No exact figure.		326,552	190,957		
1898 ... ..	8,373						
Increase in previous year	8 years 348 %	6 years 134 %	4 years 37 %	7 years 169 %	7 years 206 %	4 years 49 %	4 years 27 %
Increase last year	15 %	12 %	18 %	2 %	÷ 2 %	21 %	÷ 1 %

head wires fixed on wooden posts. At the spot of consumption the alternating current is transformed to 100 volts. The amount of current consumed by customers is measured 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.

Bangkolem line. The number of cars in daily traffic is 48. Great trouble has been taken by the management to assure exact time and to avoid delays, with the result that there is now immediate connection at all junctions. Cars are run at four-minute intervals on all the company's lines. A remarkable feature about the traffic is the small number of accidents

The Board of Directors of the company is divided into two sections. In Bangkok the Board is composed of Mr. A. Westenholz, C.E., Chairman; A. Jonsen (fleet inspector of machinery, R.S.N.), Vice-Chairman; Mr. H. Dehlholm, C.E.; Captain T. A. Göttsche, Chamun Chong Kwa, Dr. E. Reyter, and Captain H. Schöning (R.S.N.), while upon the

Copenhagen Committee are Captain T. Grut (R.D.A.), Chairman; Mr. O. Benzon, Commodore J. Tuxen (R.D.N.), and Mr. G. Sass.

Mr. Westenholz, who, after a stay of twenty-three years in Siam, intends to retire from the direct management of the company, will be succeeded by Lieut. W. L. Grut, who is at present its vice-manager. Lieut. Grut was born in Sweden in 1881, entered the Naval College in Stockholm, 1896, from which he graduated with honours in 1902, and was appointed sub-lieutenant of the royal Swedish navy the same year. After reaching his full lieutenantcy in 1904, he resigned his commission temporarily and came out to Bangkok to join the Siam Electricity Company. During the greater part of 1906-07 he devoted his time to the navy, which he had rejoined, and went on a special mission for his Government to Japan. He has now, however, retired altogether from naval service.

Mr. L. Diemer Hansen, chief electrician, and Mr. V. Gedde, accountant, have both been attached to the company in their present capacities since the commencement. The other heads of departments are—Mr. Sund, chief engineer; Mr. Sommer, workshop superintendent; Mr. Fritzbojer, electrician, indoor department; Mr. Nyegaard, civil engineer.

The Siam Electricity Company, beside their interest in the Siamese Tramway Company, Ltd., to which reference has already been made, also have a share in the control of the Menam Motor Boat Company, Ltd., and the Jendarata Rubber Company, Ltd.

#### THE SIAMESE TRAMWAY COMPANY, LTD.

The Siamese Tramway Company, Ltd., is a Siamese enterprise. It owes its existence to the initiative of H.R.H. Prince Naradhip, who secured the concession for three tramlines in Bangkok in the year 1903. Having formed a Joint Stock Company for the working of the concession, lines were opened on October 1, 1905. Encouraged by the signal success of the Siam Electricity Company's tramways, great expectations of the company as a money-making concern were held by the promoters, and the shares went up to rather fantastic prices even before operations were commenced. The company works under the financial disadvantage of a very high Government track rent, and has therefore so far given the promoters scanty returns for the capital invested.

In 1907 the majority of shares were bought up by the Siam Electricity Company, Ltd., and the two companies are now under joint management.

The total length of the Siamese Tramway Company's lines is 11.63 miles, single lines, with 41 sidings, dividing in following lines:—

Dusit line ... ..	6.25 miles
Hualampong line ... ..	3.75 "
City Wall line ... ..	1.63 "

The Dusit line runs from a point near the River Menam in Samsen district, through several minor streets, through the Dusit Park and along the City Wall, passing the Royal Palace on the riverside to the terminus at Ta Chang Wang Na.

The Hualampong line runs from a point near the Paknam railway station along Sapatoom road to Seekak Sao Ching Cha, and through Bantanao road to the terminus at Ta Chang Wang Na.

The City Wall line is a branch line running along the City Wall and connecting the two above-mentioned lines. The rails are grooved, 33½ kilogrammes per metre, joined with substantial fishplates and copper bonded, and the overhead material consists of double soft drawn copper wire No. 2/0, with overhead feeders. The system is divided into 4 feeder

sections. All the cars are of Dick, Kerr & Co.'s single motor type of 25 h.p., the bodies being of teak-wood and constructed locally. There is accommodation for 50 cars in the company's 4 car-sheds. The total daily car-mileage on the company's lines is 2,819, and the number of cars in daily traffic is 30.

The company's power station is situated at Wat Samo Kreng, on the river. There are two 200-kw. Dick, Kerr & Co.'s 500-volt direct-current dynamos directly coupled to Browett, Lindley & Co.'s comp. engine. Steam is supplied by two Babcock & Wilcox boilers of 250 h.p. each.

#### THE MENAM MOTOR BOAT COMPANY, LTD.

The Menam Motor Boat Company, Ltd., is a Siamese company started by Mr. Westenholz in 1906 for the purpose of maintaining a passenger service on the River Menam, which should work in conjunction with the Siam Electricity Company's tramways. There are at present 10 motor boats and 2 steam launches running on three different routes. The company, which is under the management of Mr. John Brown, also operates a tramway in the small town, Paklat, on the west bank of the river four miles south of Bangkok.

#### THE JENDARATA RUBBER COMPANY, LTD.

The Jendarata Rubber Company, Ltd., was formed in 1906, with a capital of £20,000, for the purpose of developing some 1,800 acres of land situated in Lower Perak, Federated Malay States, nine miles south of Teluk Anson. Some 640 acres are already under cultivation, and planting is being proceeded with as quickly as possible. The manager of the company is Lieut.-Commander F. Zernichow.

#### J. D. MACARTHUR & CO., LTD.

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

The founder of the enterprise, Mr. J. D. Macarthur, is a native of Sutherlandshire. After securing the silver medal for mathematical knowledge at the Tain Royal Academy, 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 partnership of Mr. Mackay and Mr. Macarthur necessitated the changing of the name of the firm to that of Messrs. Mackay & Macarthur. Shortly afterwards it was converted into a limited liability company, but its title remained unaltered. Mr. Macarthur went to the Langsuan Tin Mining Company, Ltd., as resident engineer in 1905, and while on the property at Langsuan he built a railway of seven miles from the river to the mines and also a steel pipe line four miles in length and 36 inches in diameter, for the purpose of conveying water to the mines from the higher level of Klong Prau. The laying of this pipe necessitated the exercise of a considerable amount of engineering ingenuity and involved the construction of timber bridges up to a length of 850 feet. Mr. Macarthur also had

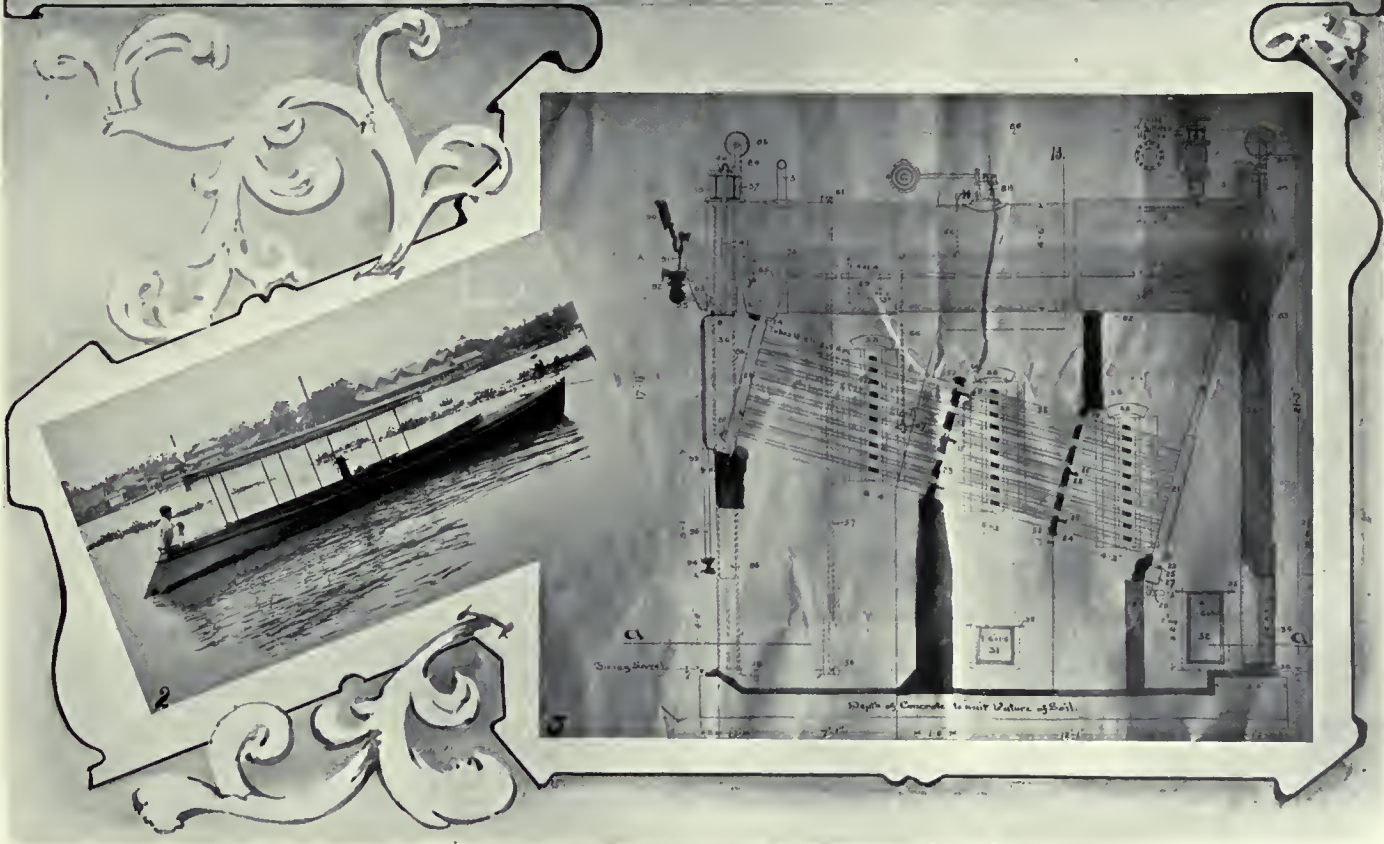
the supervision of all the mining machinery, but owing to a disagreement with his directors upon a question of management, he was recalled, and, disposing of his interest in the company of Mackay & Mackay, he started the firm of Messrs. J. D. Macarthur & Co., Ltd., which is working in Bangkok in connection with the well-known firm of F. C. Macdonald & Co., Ltd., of Glasgow. Since their establishment the firm of J. D. Macarthur & Co. have erected a sawmill, and have carried through numerous repairs and alterations in rice-milling machinery; the largest boiler in Siam at the present time was imported by them. They have also built many steam and motor launches, and are agents for the "Kelvin" make, 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 1900. 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. A. Lennox, R.N.R., M.I.E.S., who came to Siam in 1905 for the firm of Mackay & Macarthur, is surveyor to Lloyd's Register and to Lloyd's agents in Bangkok. Previously he was surveyor to the British Corporation, during which time he had under his charge the first eight deep-water turbine-propelled vessels built in the works of Messrs. Denny & Co., Workman, Clark & Co., & Messrs. Parsons. He also had the task of surveying the *Allan* and other steamers built by Workman, Clark & Co., of Belfast. After severing his connection with Mackay & Macarthur, Ltd., and prior to joining Messrs. J. D. Macarthur & Co., Ltd., Mr. Lennox was for eighteen months Acting Government Marine Surveyor, and on the abolition of that office in September, 1907, the harbourmaster expressed his high appreciation of the excellent services rendered by Mr. Lennox in organising the survey work of the department on European lines.

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 Longsuan. He resigned the management of Messrs. Mackay & Macarthur, however, in February, 1908, to join his old colleague and predecessor. Mr. Groundwater is a member of the Institute of Engineers and Shipbuilders, and before coming to Siam had been chief draughtsman in the electrical department, and later assistant-manager, in the important house of Mather & Platt, of Manchester.

#### HOWARTH ERSKINE, LTD.

There is no engineering firm more widely known throughout the Far East than Howarth Erskine, Ltd. Their operations extend from Calcutta to Shanghai, and their branches or agencies are to be found in practically every centre of commercial importance within this radius. Nor is their branch in Bangkok the least important of these. When they first opened business here their premises consisted of scarcely anything beyond a small shipway. The works were, however, immediately enlarged; a steam shipway was built and improvements have been effected from time to time, until now their workshops are of very considerable size and are all equipped with the most modern machinery. Some idea of the extent and importance of their undertakings may be gained from the fact that they keep a staff of 600 men, including no less than 23 Europeans, constantly employed. They estimate for all kinds of engineering work; and among their most recent contracts in Siam are the Panfalia Bridge, Dusit Park Water Towers of 40,000 gallons capacity, the building of the Banque de l'Indo-Chine,



J. D. MACARTHUR & CO., LTD.

1. THE OFFICES AND STORE.
2. "IRIS," 24-H.P. MOTOR LAUNCH, SPEED 14 MILES.
3. SKETCH OF BARCOCK & 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

gation 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



HOWARTH ERSKINE, LTD.

5. THE PANFALLA BRIDGE.

6. TORPEDO BOAT, REPAIRED BY HOWARTH ERSKINE, LTD.

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 Grosmin, Whilby, 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 Chumpon Island, an installation of an electrical power plant in the king's palace at Bang-pain, and the supervision of the erection of workshops and machinery for the Royal Irriga-

tion 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

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THE BANGKOK DOCK COMPANY, LTD.

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1



3



2

THE BANGKOK DOCK COMPANY, LTD.

1 GENERAL VIEW OF THE WORKS FROM THE RIVER.

2 THE MOTOR GARAGE.

3 THE DRY DOCK.





PROSPECTIVE AND COMPLETED ENGINEERING CONTRACTS BY A. J. CORBETT & CO.

1. PLAN OF THE MENAM BRIDGE, ROYAL STATE RAILWAYS.      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 half a million ticals, 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 Meklong Railway Company, Messrs. Steel Bros., the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Borneo Company, Ltd., the Bombay Burma Trading Corporation, Ltd., and the East Asiatic Company, Ltd.

Among the agencies held by the company are those for Messrs. Stephenson, Brown & Co., Glasgow; Messrs. Tozer, Kemsley & Fisher, London; George Angus & Co., Ltd., of Newcastle; McAlister & Co., Ltd., of Singapore; Ruston, Proctor & Co., Ltd., of Lincoln; Gandy's Belting; the General Electric Company (1900), Ltd., London; Pulsometer pumps, Siddeley motor-cars, Star motor-cars, &c.

The chairman of the company is Mr. Hamilton Price, and the manager Mr. James S. Smyth, C.E., M.I.C.E.

#### A. J. CORBETT & CO.

Mr. A. J. Corbett, who is in charge of the interests of the large engineering firm of Messrs. A. & J. Main, established himself in Bangkok as a consulting engineer and contractor some short time back. Born in Inverness in 1873, 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 qualified as a first-class engineer, and 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. Subsequently he was transferred to Bangkok as manager of the company's branch there, but after serving for two years in this capacity he resigned and went home for a short 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 by 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 600 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 have 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 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 the works. There is a store-room well stocked with accessories and implements for which there is likely to be a call, 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. Hanneke, who came to Bangkok from Hamburg 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 Scotchman, received his technical training in engineering with Messrs. Jas. Howden & Co., of Glasgow. After completing his five years' apprenticeship, he went to Liverpool and entered the marine service. As a sea-going engineer he visited many parts of the world. While in Java he entered the service of the Nederlands Stoomvaart Mootschappij, with whom he remained for four and a half years, while between 1881 and 1884 he interested himself in engineering work in Hongkong and China. Mr. Thos. Bogardt, who was well known in the Straits and Borneo trade, secured his services for the five years to follow, and passing over the short period during which Mr. Dunlop was connected with 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, Ltd., and in 1900 he came to Bangkok to take up the duties connected with that responsible post. He remained with the Dock Company until 1906, when he left for Europe, and on his return he established a business for himself as consulting engineer and marine surveyor. Among Mr. Dunlop's chief works may be mentioned the installation of the first "septic" tank in Bangkok, at the Royal Military College, and the successful introduction into Siam of artesian well boring by the jet system. He also conducted the recent negotiations between the Siamese Government and Messrs. Thorneycroft, of London, whereby the latter firm were commissioned to build and deliver at Bangkok the new Customs cruiser, *Suryat Mouthon*. Mr. Dunlop is the agent in Siam for several well-known firms, such as Messrs. Thorneycroft & Co., Ltd., George Jennings, Ltd., the Atlas Preservatives Company, Blair, Campbell & McLean, and John Tullis & Son, Ltd.

**Mr. H. Dehlholm** was born in Denmark in 1868, and educated at Horsens. He obtained his theoretical knowledge of civil engineering at the Polytechnicum of Copenhagen, 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 Meklong Railway, 67 km. long. On the death of Mr. Kinch, Mr. Dehlholm became the sole proprietor of the firm, and has since successfully carried out many important contracts, including the construction of the Paklat Tramways. Mr. Dehlholm is a member of the Board of the Siam Electricity Company, Chairman and Managing Director of the Paknam Railway, Vice-Chairman of the Jendarala Rubber Company, and a member of the Board of the Siamese Tram 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 Cheng & Co. Besides being associated with several public companies, Mr. Smart is chairman of the Siam Steam Packet Company, Ltd., and one of the managing directors of the Bangkok Manufacturing Company, Ltd.





## 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 Paknampoh, a town some 150 miles distant from the coast. The western of these two main branches, the Nam Ping, reaches

Paknampoh 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 Paknampoh. 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



J. HOMAN VAN DER HEIDE.  
(Director-General, Royal Irrigation Department.)



KLONG (CANAL) DOAKANONG.

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.

and its tributaries. Before joining the Mekong river, the Nam Mun 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 ranges drain off directly into the Mekong river. In the wet season the Nam

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



A MODERN CANAL IN BANGKOK.



KLONG KUT MAI.

The Bangpahong and the Meklong rivers have a similar but not quite so regular régime as the Menam Chow 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 Mun

Mun 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

for many miles northward, but in the dry season they are navigable only in the plains.

#### CANALS.

In addition to the rivers a regular network of canals serve not only for communication purposes, but also contribute largely to the rapid spread of the inundation of the country during flood-time, while when the waters in the rivers go down they act as drainage channels. The canals are of comparatively recent date. It is probable that none of them were in existence a century ago. The principal canals are those in the southern part of the lower Menam plain, which connect the Menam Chow Phya with the Bangpakong river to the east, and with the Supan river and the Meklong to the west.

In some cases these canals are straight channels, immediately connecting one river with the other. But more often the canals are a continuation of existing natural channels which were running more or less in the direction desired. All the old canals were dug by *corvée* labour, partly under the direct orders of the Government, partly by their powerful nobles through their numerous retainers. A recent enterprise, however, on a very grand scale and shaped on modern lines, having for its object the development of the country by a system of canals, may be separately mentioned.

In 1889 the Government granted a concession, for a period of twenty-five years, for digging canals in the jungles between the Menam Chow Phya and the Nakorn Nayok river, to the north of the canal San Sep, to a private company, the Siam Canals Land and Irrigation Company, under stipulation that all the uncultivated lands of the region crossed by the canals to be excavated, to a certain distance at both sides thereof, should belong to the company. The company has constructed by

machinery a system of navigation and inundation canals, to a total length of about 500 miles, embracing an area of land of about 400,000 acres. The main canal, Klong Rangsit, 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.

north-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 to the town of Chainat 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.

IRRIGATION.

As regards irrigation, the first thing to be slated is that regular irrigation does not

ROADS.

In the hill regions, where there are no navigable waterways, of course transport by



A NAVIGATION LOCK AT FATUA.

DRAINAGE SLUICE WITH STONE GATE, BANGHEA.

A NAVIGATION LOCK AT BAN NOK-KWEK.

The scheme, works for which were started in 1904, purports to dredge out the canals concerned to a depth of five feet below low-water level, and to build a certain number of navigation locks in order to be able to retain the water in the canals at a certain desired level.

In the Gulf of Siam there is a difference

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

land is the only possibility, and elephant and cart tracks have consequently come into existence. These, however, are of a most primitive character, and the difficulties to be encountered in establishing ready means of communication have greatly hampered the development of these districts. Nor are roads possible in the



PLAN OF CANALS IN SIAM.

flooded plains. Their construction would prove too expensive under the prevailing primitive

conditions. Transport by land in the plains is only possible in the dry season, chiefly by

buffalo sledge or cart. These devices are used for cross-country transport generally, whether roads or regular tracts are in existence or not. It is, however, of course, evident that such means of transport are not suitable for goods in bulk, the conveyance of which must be confined almost entirely to the rivers and canals. The majority of the people in the country have their residences alongside or near to the water-courses, and the number of boats passing through the most frequented canals in several localities exceeds 600, and in some cases 1,200 a day.

**Mr. J. Homan van der Heide**, who has been the Director-General of the Royal Irrigation Department for the last five years, was born at Groningen, Holland, in 1866. After receiving a good general education in his native town, he began to specialise for the engineering profession. From 1886 to 1892 he studied at the Lingen Polytechnical School, Germany, and subsequently qualified as a civil engineer at Delft, Holland. Shortly afterwards he was appointed to the Netherlands India Waterstaat, and in course of time was promoted third, second, and first engineer. In 1902 he was lent to the Siamese Government in order that he might investigate the best methods for irrigating and draining the Lower Menam Valley, and for the purpose of organising the Government irrigation service. He has published books and many papers on this subject.

## RAILWAYS.

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 Tharua, about 100 kilometres from Bangkok on the State line to the north to Phrabat, 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 1890. 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 69 kilometres in length; it passes through an extremely fertile district, and is paying well.



LINE NEAR PRAPATOM.

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 1904-05 onwards the expenditure on construction has been charged to loan. The first



1



2



3



4

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

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 consummation will be realised for another five or six years. The northern and eastern lines are of the broad gauge, as used

capital. The work of construction was for some years in the hands of a British firm of contractors, but was afterwards 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 half-way to Korat. Finally, in November, 1900, 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 Phaji, which is 91 kilometres from the capital. From thence it goes to Lopburi, one of the ancient capitals 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 Ooteradit for a distance of some 200 kilometres.

Work on the south-western line, running from Bangkok westward, *via* Nakhonchaisi to the Meklong river and then south through Ratburi to Petchaburi, was commenced in 1899. The line was opened by his Majesty the king in April, 1903. Since its inauguration 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 Pinang. 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 1908 the first section of the eastern branch of the State railways, which extends from Bangkok to Patriew, 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.

the 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 5½ per cent. in 1906-07.

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.; Patriew, or eastern

nearly 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



## POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

**I**N 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.

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 offices. The inland letters handled during 1907 reached a total of 3,395,862; 1,832,956 letters were received from abroad, and 970,831 were despatched abroad. Registered letters inland numbered 262,000; foreign letters received reached a total of 58,812; and foreign letters





A RAILWAY CUTTING NEAR HIN LAP.



A SUBURBAN LETTER-BOX.



THE POST OFFICE.

despatched numbered 41,190. Inland parcels during the same period numbered 42,287 ; while 2,379 were sent abroad. Money orders to the number of 2,999, for a total sum of 1,230,563

francs, were issued on offices in Siam during the year ; while on foreign offices 1,161 money orders of the value of 39,624 francs were issued.

Siam 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 123,253.

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. Collmann, 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 Siam by the German Government.



THE POST OFFICE STAFF.



## ECCLESIASTICAL

### BUDDHISM.

BY O. FRANKFURTER, PH.D.,  
CHIEF LIBRARIAN OF THE NATIONAL LIBRARY, BANGKOK.



UNLIKE 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 Mohammedanism, 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 Chaisi, 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

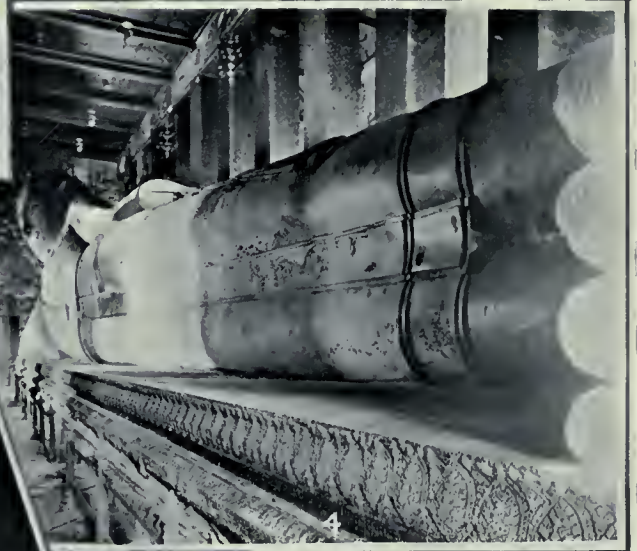


TEMPLE OF THE FOOTPRINT OF BUDDHA AT KHOW PHRABATR.

characters which have a close resemblance to those of Burma. They are, of course, only modifications of an Indian alphabet. The sacred MSS. are written on palm-leaves with a stylus.

Buddhism, as professed in Siam, carries on the tradition of India, and it has been the aim of the kings and princes governing in Siam to keep the tradition intact. With this view

text of the Tipitaka. The high priest Phra Dharmadinabhava presided at the council, and it finished its labours within one year. The king under whose reign it was held was styled the "Supporter of the Faith," and the council was considered the eighth, counting from the first one held at Rajagaha, after the death of the Buddha. History does not relate any united effort after that time to preserve the



WAT POH.

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).



WAT PHRA KEO.

(Within the walls of the Grand Palace.)

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 Hluang 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 Hluang 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 Buddah 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



PHRA CHEDI (PAGODA), KLANG NAM.

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

these labours was written on palm-leaves in Cambodian characters, and was deposited in the Mandiradharmā hall, in Wat Phra Keo,

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 profess there is, of course, no difference. They formed together the Mahanikaya, the great Fraternity. The Gamavasi were formed into two congregations, those of the North and South, with an archpriest for each, and it may be well to explain that the expression Northern and Southern congregation is perhaps to be understood not so much in a geographical sense as showing the two original forms of Buddhism prevalent in Siam, that of the Northern and Southern schools. To the Araññavasi, who were under a separate archpriest as the middle congregation, were added the congregations of Mon and Laos. When the capital was established in Bangkok the same hierarchical order was practically followed, but in the reign of Phra Nang Klao (1824-51) a new division of priests was created by the Prince Chao Fa Mongkut (the King Phra Chom Klao), who, as is known, remained in the priesthood during the whole reign of his half-brother Phra Nang Klao, 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 only, 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 conform to the rules laid down for the guidance of the priesthood in the Tipitaka, to free it from extraneous matter. With the doctrine itself he interfered in no way, full scope was allowed to research, and whilst in going 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 congregations in Siam: the Northern and Southern and the Araññavasi 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 affairs 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 affairs, 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 inclemency 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 the founder, were considered meritorious acts. In Siam itself temples were erected by the kings to commemorate their reigns, and also by nobles and people.

The first and most sacred building in the temple grounds is the Uposatha building. In it the congregation meets, and in it all ecclesiastical votes and resolutions are taken. It is in this building that the Patimokha is rehearsed on sacred days, on the new and full moon, and where the ordination service of priests and the Kathin ceremony, the bestowal of garments on the priests, take place. The building is surrounded by semas (boundary marks), and outside these no ceremony is possible. The next building of importance, and without which no temple is complete, is



CHIEF ENTRANCE TO WAT PHRA KEO.

built expressly for that purpose, and there the original copy is kept at the present time, known under the name of "Thong Yai." Of the kings who followed, more special mention must be made of Phra Nang Klao, who, through the building of temples in his reign, may be said to have revived the art of sacred architecture. Of King Mongkut (1851-68) we shall have occasion to speak in connection with the development of Buddhism in modern times.

The tenth council may be said to have taken place during the present reign. The king decided to print and distribute, in commemoration of the completion of a reign of twenty-five years (1893), a full edition of the Tipitaka. Again a meeting of the archpriests was convened whose duty it was to prepare critically the text. The text was constituted after a comparison with the best MSS. available in Cambodia, Burma, and Ceylon, and also with some of the printed editions as published in Europe. Recourse in doubtful cases was made to the commentaries and the various readings were added. The text constitutes the *editio princeps* of the Tipitaka. It is printed in the common Siamese characters, which lend themselves well to that purpose, as they, as is

of the Jataka, 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 apologies.

The religion of the Buddha 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 esoteric 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. The 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 congregations of priests were distinguished by name—the Gamavasi, those living in temples, and the Araññavasi, 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

the Dhamma-sala, in which the priests assemble and propound the doctrine to their followers. The Vihara is the place to which the priests 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 there is a large concourse of people in the same way as the Dhamma-sala. To the cloisters, with which the temples are surrounded, the priests retire for meditation, 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, as pagodas and dagobas—*i.e.*, cetiya, shrines where relics of the Buddha are kept, or which are erected to his memory, or to the memory of a deceased person. The tapering form is the Chedi, whilst the obtuse form is called the Phra Prang, both, of course, having their origin in the Stupa (skr stupa), the bell-shaped shrine.

The images found in temples all present 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 tawdriness, is the temple Pancarna Pavite, erected by the present king.

The dedication of temples, the erection of Chetis, the casting of statues 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 distribute cloths and garments to the priests (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 state 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 deposes princes and nobles to perform the ceremony in his name and with his gifts.

It is considered 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

hood, 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 (Samanera) 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 also are 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 at 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



BUDDHIST PRIESTS.

Kamnavaca, 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 priest-

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

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 (“metta”) 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 “metta” 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

exemplars; and of the many who have appeared in that character, if strict inquiry

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



PRINCE VAJIRANANA JINOROS.

were made, their virtue would be found to proceed from any other than the true and pure



WAT RAJABOPITR.  
THE ENTRANCE.

ANOTHER VIEW OF WAT RAJABOPITR.





WAT THONG KAM, PAKLAT.  
 WAT SUTHAT.  
 WAT THEPSURINDR.

WAT SAKET (POO KAU TAWNG).  
 WAT CHENG FROM THE LAND.

of it he acquired much useful knowledge of the medicinal properties of plants, and so became a ready physician to those who could not pay for their healing. But he could not rest content with so imperfect a life while the way to perfect knowledge of excellence, truth, and charity remained open to him, so he became a priest.

"This happened sixty-five years ago. Now he is ninety-five years old, and, I fear, has not yet found the truth and excellence he has been in search of so long. But I know no greater man than he. He is great in the Christian sense—loving, pitiful, forbearing, pure.

"Once when he was a gardener he was robbed of his few poor tools by one whom he had befriended in many ways. Some time after that the king met him, and inquired of his necessities. He said he needed tools for his gardening. A great abundance of such implements was sent to him, and immediately he shared them with his neighbours, taking care to send the most and best to the man who had robbed him.

"Of the little that remained to him, he gave freely to all who lacked. Not his own, but another's wants, were his sole argument in asking or bestowing. Now he is great in the Buddhist sense also—not loving life nor fearing death, desiring nothing the world can give, beyond the peace of a beatified spirit. This man—who is now the High Priest of Siam—would, without so much as a thought of shrinking, give his body, alive or dead, to be burned, if so he might obtain one glimpse of eternal truth or save one soul from death or sorrow."

The question of life and death and the outcome of our actions is treated in a sermon which H.R.H. Prince Vajirañāna preached on the death of Prince Sirivama, the son of H.R.H. Prince Bhanurangi, the younger brother of the king. As it explains fully the Buddhist notions regarding our duties in this respect, it may be taken as an exposition of the doctrine on this question:—

"As relatives and friends, well-wishers, shall rejoice to welcome one of themselves who had

left them for a long time and returned from abroad with safety, so Virtue in the same wise shall welcome the virtuous who have passed away from this world to the other, as kinsmen receive kinsmen who are dear to them. Virtue, verily, is no other than the unselfish determination for the advancement and the welfare of others, having as its foundation the purest of all motives. Purity of heart and action, they say, is the shadow that will always follow you and serve you in this world as well as in the world to come, for all other things must be left at Death's door. Mortal life, indeed, resembles the flame that depends on fuel and combustion, and in the absence of accidents, remains burning. There is no indication or guarantee as to how long it will last, and when the day arrives no one is able to sustain it. For "whatever has an origin has also an end." Therefore it behoves you all to cherish that love of virtue, so that it will be to you a consolation in your last hour and a harbour of refuge in your future destiny."



## 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

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 Maha Phram, 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 Lanneau, 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 de Cicé—who succeeded Bishop Lanneau 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 1767, 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 valour 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 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

Corre arrived they obtained the royal grant of the land actually occupied by the Sta. Cruz Church, on September 14, 1769, and on March 22, 1772, secured land upon which to build the Calvary Church, both churches being fittingly



RIGHT REV. J. L. VEY.

(Bishop of Gerasen and Vicar-Apostolic of Siam.)

missionaries at Ayuthia, the ancient capital of the kingdom. Under the beneficent rule of Sondet 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



REV. E. A. COLOMBET.

(Pro-Vicar-Apostolic, Assumption Church.)

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 Florens succeeded Bishop Garnault, who died on March 4, 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 Pallegoix and Deschavanes. Father Pallegoix took charge of the Church at Ayuthia, and erected a chapel upon the site of the old church which had been destroyed by the Burmese in 1767. He then directed his steps to the north, and laboured amongst the Laos for some years. In 1833 Bishop Florens died, and Bishop Courveyz was appointed his successor.

In the following year the Siamese fleet, returning victorious from a warlike expedition in Cochin 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 Prasat Thong, then King of Siam, showed great mercy, 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 Pallegoix was made Bishop of Siam, and Father Courveyz became the first Bishop of the Malay States. Bishop Pallegoix 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 then but recently opened in Petru, Banplasoi, Nakhon Haisi, and Ban nok khuck (Monthon Ratburi). 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 I., 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 usages, 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 learn 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 23,000. 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



ROMAN CATHOLIC CATHEDRAL.

The general work of the Mission increased so rapidly owing to the continual accession of converts, that at last, notwithstanding the fact that he was more favoured than his predecessors in the number of his fellow-labourers, Bishop Vey found himself unable to fulfil adequately the demands made upon him, or to visit the far-distant stations in the Lao district with the frequency necessary to their encouragement. Accordingly his late Holiness Pope Leo XIII. permitted the erection of the Lao district into a separate vicariate. The division was formally accomplished on September 3, 1899, Bishop Cuaz being appointed the first Vicar-Apostolic.

Arts, with 600 students; 1 convent boarding-school for young ladies, with 120 students, conducted by the Sisters of St. Paul of Chartres; 2 convent day schools, with 127 students, conducted by the same Sisters; 16 orphanages; 4 dispensaries 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 *Jesus Hominum Salvator* ("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 Hasseltine 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 1810, 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



CHRIST CHURCH.



AMERICAN PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

Portuguese Consul, Seignior Carlos de Silveira, who furnished them with a house on the Government property, and even protected them

same time. He and Mr. Tomlin distributed twenty-five boxes of books in about two months; but this raised the suspicions of the natives,

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 Burma to labour among the Siamese. He took charge of the little flock which Dr. Abeel had been obliged to leave, and in December of that year he baptized three Chinamen—Dr. Gutzlaff had previously baptized one convert—which was the firstfruit 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 Dean 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. Buell and his wife in 1840. At first the missionaries met with opposition, as the Siamese were jealous of their "merit-making." Fortunately, when things were becoming unbearable the king died, and Maha 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 opportunity, vouchsafed me 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 Bangkok, has stations at Nakawn, Sri Tamarat, Pitsanuloke, Petchaburi, and Rajaburi. These stations have medical missionaries and also secular schools. In Bangkok there is a handsome mission church, the money to build which was contributed by Siamese. The

stations, and recently a mission to the lepers 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 Bangkok had to assemble for Divine service in one of the houses of the American missionaries. A meeting was held at the British Consulate in 1863, 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, consequently the services were conducted by one of the American missionaries. In the year 1894 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 16, 1896, the Right Rev. George Hose, D.D., Bishop of Singapore, came to Bangkok at the request of Canon Greenstock, and held a confirmation. Canon Greenstock 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 still 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 chaplaincy beside it, which was accordingly done. The church contains a Willis two-manual organ, and is fitted with electric light. There is a surpliced choir, and the services are fully choral. Neither of the churches was consecrated, 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.



REV. DR. HILLYARD, M.A., LL.D.  
(Chaplain, Christ Church.)

Christian High School for Boys is doing splendid work under the Rev. W. McClure and Mrs. McClure. 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 employs 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 Nan and Keng Tung. There are schools and medical missionaries at those





## 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 Peguan 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 languages. In some 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 overtaken the two English words "scarlet" and "gentleman." These two words have been corrupted by the Siamese into "sa'ka'lát" and "yentela'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, "yentela'man" meaning smart, well-dressed, *chic*, and thus in Siamese a lady may be quite "yentela'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 "khao" or "kao." 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, step, to scratch, old, nine, musty 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 perpetrated 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

boils the glue in a little doctor. Be sure that the maker of parts does not forget to repair the leak with young ladies 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 the cupboard. 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 juxtaposition of two at first sight very unlikely elements. For example, the word "po" (pronounced as the English word "paw") means "father," and the word "khrua" means "kitchen"; but it would not at first sight, perhaps, be quite clear what the signification of the two words, "po khrua" (father [of the] kitchen), might be. The meaning, however, is "cook." Similarly we have the words "luk child pün gun," so with perfect propriety can a cartridge or bullet ("luk pün") be called "the son of a gun" in Siamese. Occasionally the order of the component parts of a compound expression will effect an alteration of meaning; thus, the separate words "di" (good) "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 particles used with nouns to indicate the number of articles in question apart from numerals. This is one of the arguments that may be adduced to show the common origin of the Siamese and Chinese idiom. In "pigeon English" it is well known that the word "piecee" must be inserted with a noun; thus, "one piecee man, three piecee hat." 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, there are cases in which a particle may completely change the meaning of a noun.

In the usages of the personal pronoun the Siamese language is very different from European tongues. For all three persons there are many different forms of the pronouns "I," "you," "he," &c., 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 "I a hair"—i.e., something 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 44 syllabic consonants, 14 common vowel marks, 10 characters for the numerals, and certain other vowel and accent signs.

These have all been borrowed from Indian sources, and were supposed to have been instituted in the reign of Rama Somdet, circa A.D. 1281.

In order to show the structure and mode of expression of the Siamese language, an absolutely literal interlineal 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 various Indian dialects in the "Linguistic Survey of India."

khon nung mí búť cháí song khon lē  
*person one had child male two person and*  
 búť noi nan wá kē bídá wá bídá  
*child little that said to father said, "Father*  
 tjan khá kho suan sap tí tok  
*master of me please divide properly which falls*  
 yú kē kháptjau tót lē  
*is to me (sign of imperative) and*  
 bídá tjung bēng khong hai kē búť  
*father then shared goods give to children*  
 tang song nan lē mai chá mai nán búť  
*both two those and not slow not long child*  
 noi nan kep khong tjon mot p'ai  
*little that collected goods until all went*  
 tjo muang klai lē dai sia sap  
*journey town far and did waste properly*  
 khong ton ti nan dué kán nak leng  
*things (of) self there with work scoundrel*  
 lē müa sia mot lēu kót kandán  
*and when wasted all finished arose lack*  
 áhán mák tua muang nan lē khau khatson  
*food much all given that and he lacked*  
 lē khau p'ai samnak ásaí kap chao  
*and he went abode live with inhabitant*  
 muang nan khan nung lē khan nan  
*town that person one and person that*  
 tjung cháí khau p'ai liang mú tí tung ná  
*then used him go feed swine in fields*  
 lē khan yák tga im tong dué fak  
*and he wished to fill stomach with husks*  
 tua tí mú kin nan lē mai mí  
*beans that swine cat those and not have*  
 pú dai hai khau kin müa khau  
*person anyone give him to eat. When he*  
 rú súk tua lēn tjung wá lúk  
*knew seek body finished then said, "Children*  
 tjáng khong bídá khá mí  
*wages (servant) of father mine have*  
 kí khan mí áhán im lē yang  
*how many person have food full and yet*  
 lüa ík lē khá chiphai dué yák  
*remains more than I ruined with want*  
 áhán khá tja luk khün p'ai há bídá  
*food I will arise go to find father*  
 khá lē tga wá kē tán wá bídá  
*mine and will say to him say "Father*  
 tjan khá kháptjau dai pit t'o  
*master of me I did wrong towards*  
 sa'wan lē t'o ná tán dué kháptjau  
*heaven and towards face yours also I*  
 mai somkhan tja dai chú wá p'en lúk  
*not befilling will get name say am child*  
 khong tán kho tán hai kháptjan p'en  
*of you please you give me to be*  
 müan lúk tjáng khong tán khon nung  
*like child wages of you person one."*  
 tót  
 (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 Dr. O. Frankfurter, and various papers in the "Journal" of the Siam Society.

SIAMESE PROVERBIAL EXPRESSIONS.

In spite of the fact that Siamese ideas and mode of expression are so utterly different from those of Western nations, still if we come down

to the bed-rock of popular ideas and sayings as embodied in proverbial expressions, we shall find many points of resemblance between the two, and this point is well exemplified in many Siamese proverbs which have almost exact parallel Western equivalents.

Some examples are here subjoined :—

<i>Western Proverb.</i>	<i>Siamese Proverb.</i>
To carry coals to Newcastle.	To take old coconuts for sale to the gardener.
Out of the frying-pan into the fire.	To run away from a tiger and to meet a crocodile; to climb a tree and there to find a wasp's nest.
Forewarned is fore-armed.	When you go to the jungle don't forget your knife.
<i>Carpe diem.</i>	Plant your rice in the rainy season.
To shut the stable door after the horse has escaped.	To put up a corral when the oxen are lost.
Let sleeping dogs lie.	Do not pull the tail of a sleeping tiger.
Do not run your head against a stone wall.	Do not send your boat across a rapid.
To buy a pig in a poke.	To buy a buffalo in the middle of the swamp.

Besides actual proverbs there are many other popular locutions which may be noticed, for example :—

<i>Siamese Saying.</i>	<i>Meaning.</i>
To exchange camphor for salt.	A bad bargain.
A two-headed bird.	A deceitful person.
Thick for the eyes and ears.	A serious matter, a fix.
Splendid externally, but hollow within.	Dead Sea apples, a whitened sepulchre.
To offer the pig and the cat.	A mutual action in which neither party gains an advantage.

Many others could be adduced of a similar nature, but the above are sufficient to indicate the similarities of thought as expressed in the two languages. A few words might, however, be added on the characteristics ascribed to animals in Siamese folklore.

The ox is typical of stupidity and stolidity. The buffalo replaces the ass in Western fable as the type of ignorance and awkwardness. The dog impersonates everything that is base, vulgar, and loathsome. Ferocity is denoted by the tiger, as would be natural, while the crocodile is the embodiment of duplicity and ingratitude. The monkey denotes ugliness, but not cunning as in Western lore. The gecko, a small, noisy house lizard, is taken as the type of a slanderous and scandalmongering nature, while the water monitor is considered as the personification of boorishness, stupidity, and uselessness. The turtle or tortoise is proverbial for ignorance, dulness of mind, and the Siamese word "tan" (tortoise) is applied as a contemptuous epithet to a dull, foolish, inept person. The ideas of vast and diminutive size are, as is natural, indicated by the elephant and the mouse respectively, and the term for mouse or rat is applied as a pet name for small children.

The fox, the embodiment of sharpness and cunning, is replaced in Siamese by the tiger-cat, whereas the lamb, the type of meekness, has its counterpart in the deer.



## MANNERS AND CUSTOMS



HE 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,



THE SWINGING FESTIVAL.





SIAMESE ACTORS.

SIAMESE MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.  
A MUSICAL PARTY.

though 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

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

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 obtainable 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 funeral 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 ticals. 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 ceremonials; 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, pony 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 every one 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 curry 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



A PROCESSION IN CONNECTION WITH THE GOW CHING CHA (SWINGING FESTIVAL).

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

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,



SEA GIPSIES.

important event in the life of a Siamese is 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,

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 *nguan nom*, and literally means "mother's milk money."

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 Brahmin 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-aitis." 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 *Siam 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 latta, 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 Skeat, 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

'Meh See iy Meh See sow sah,  
Yok muek wai Phra;  
Wa cha mee Khun chon';

which may be roughly translated as, 'Oh,



BUDDHIST PRIEST AND DISCIPLE.

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

Meh See, thou virgin, raise your hands in prayer 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,



A TRAVELLING THEATRE.

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 :—

whilst she performs the terpsichorean evolutions or sings. It is very evident that the whole thing is due to some kind of hypnotic influence, and it would certainly be interest-

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 rhi 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 holiday 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 procession 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 holidays, 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



DECORATIONS 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 *tu nam*

(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 *Thot 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-raised 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 15th 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

quence 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,



W. G. JOHNSON.

(Adviser to the Ministry of Public Instruction.)



KING'S COLLEGE.

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 conse-

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

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-

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.



THE CHRISTIAN HIGH SCHOOL.

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.

ment, 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.

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.*—Siam and her neighbours, outlines of those countries connected by trade with Siam, map-drawing.

*Object Lessons and Nature 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,



THE ASSUMPTION COLLEGE.

2. Antiquated methods of teaching are being gradually superseded.

3. More attention is given to modern sub-

love of country and proper respect for authority, justice, principles of religion and commandments, &c.

*Siamese Language.*—Reading, writing, dictation, and paraphrase from approved standard authors ; in composition, ability to write an essay on a subject requiring thought—grammar and style to be considered.

*English Language.*—Reading and translation from suitable books and easy abstracts from the newspapers, &c. ; letter-writing and composition of essays ; special attention to be paid to conversation.

*Arithmetic and Mensuration.*—Proportion, simple and compound interest, insurance, commissions, proportional parts, partnerships, averages, exchange, square root, &c., and simple accounts ; measurement of areas of triangles, quadrilaterals and circles, volumes of common solids.

*Geography and History.*—Geography of the

*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.

*English Language.*—As in Secondary Siamese Course 1, but teachers to be chosen with special reference to science work.

*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.



A SECONDARY SCHOOL.

A TEMPLE SCHOOL.  
AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

world and special reference to those countries which have political and commercial relations with Siam ; map-drawing ; recapitulation of physical geography learnt in the previous years.

*Physiography.*—Recapitulation of previous year's work ; in addition magnets, compass and points of same, movements of heavenly bodies, movable and fixed stars, day and night, meteors and comets, interior of earth, motions of crust, earthquakes, volcanoes, ocean currents, tides, winds, thunder and lightning, hail-stones.

*Drawing.*—Drawing from natural objects in light and shade ; practical geometry.

*Manners.*—Etiquette, behaviour and conversation, freedom from self-consciousness, &c.

*Physical Exercises : Compulsory.*—Military and physical drill, disciplinary exercises.  
*Optional.*—Gymnastics and sports.

suration of areas and volumes, algebra, up to and including progressions ; geometry, Euclid's elements, trigonometry—elements.

*Geography and History.*—The world in outline—special reference to political and commercial sides ; Siam's connection, politically and commercially, with other countries ; map-drawing.

*Science.*—A course of physics is taken during the first two years ; a course in sciences to be chosen from following : (a) botany, (b) experimental sciences, (c) mechanics, (d) magnetism and electricity.

*Chemistry.*—A course in elementary inorganic chemistry.

*Physiology and Hygiene.*—Taken only in the first two years.

*Drawing.*—Mechanical and freehand, scales, plans, and elevations.

*Physical Training.*—As in Secondary Siamese Course 1.

*Geography.*—Asia, Europe, and America in detail ; map-drawing.

*History.*—The nineteenth century, with special reference to (1) inventions and discoveries and their effects ; (2) rise of Russia, Germany, Italy, &c., in Europe ; (3) South America ; rise of United States ; (4) connection between China, Japan and Siam and Western nations ; (5) rise of Japan ; (6) outline history of India.

*Science.*—A further course in experimental science, including chemistry, electricity and magnetism, elementary mechanics.

*Drawing.*—A continuation of previous years' course—use of water colours.

*Physical Exercises.*—As in Secondary Course 1.

*N.B.*—The fifth year's course provides for (1) a thorough revision of work done in previous years, (2) a course in Siamese, and (3) the taking up of another language instead of



ABSTRACT OF SUBJECTS, SHOWING THE NUMBER OF HOURS DEVOTED TO EACH PER WEEK (FIVE DAYS).

Lower Primary.

Subject.	Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.
1. Arithmetic...	7	7	7
2. Reading ...	4	4	4½
3. Dictation ...	2½	1½	1½
4. Writing ...	2½	1½	1½
5. Composition (includes grammar)	2½	4	3½
6. Moral teaching ...	2	2	2
7. Object-lessons ...	1½	1½	1½
8. Geography ...	1	1	1
9. Drawing ...	1½	1½	1½
10. Drill ...	1	1	1
<b>Total ...</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>

Primary Branch.

Subject.	Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.
1. Arithmetic ...	6	6	6½
2. Reading ...	3½	3½	2½
3. Dictation ...	1	2	1
4. Writing ...	2	2	1
5. Composition (and grammar)	4	3½	4½
6. Moral teaching ...	2	2	1½
7. Object-lessons ...	1½	1½	2
8. Geography ...	2½	3	3
9. Drawing ...	1½	1½	1½
10. Drill ...	1	1	1
11. English ...	—	—	1
<b>Total ...</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>

(FIVE AND A HALF DAYS.)

Secondary Course 1.

Subject.	Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.
1. Moral teaching ...	1	1	1
2. Siamese language ...	3	3	3
3. English language ...	8	8	8
4. Mathematics ...	6½	6½	6½
5. Geography (and history)	2	2	2
6. Physiography ...	2	2	2
7. Drawing ...	1	1	1
8. Etiquette ...	½	½	½
9. Drill... ..	1	1	1
<b>Total ...</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>

science (optional). History and geography are not taken this year.

SCHOOLS (Bangkok only).

At the end of the year R.S. 126 (March, 1908) there were in Bangkok 88 schools under the control of the Education Department, classified as follows:—

1. *Special Schools*, 2 in number—
  - (i.) Normal College for Teachers, (ii.) Medical College.
2. *Secondary Schools*, 10 in number—
  - (i.) Taking Course 1, 6 schools.
  - (ii.) " " 2, 1 school.
  - (iii.) " " 3, 3 schools.
3. *Primary Schools*, 76 in number—
  - (i.) Taking Lower Primary Course, 26 (including 2 girls' schools).
  - (ii.) Taking the Primary Course, 50 (including 3 girls' schools).

SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

1. *Royal Medical College*, to which is attached the Siriraj (Wang Lang) Hospital. This college was founded in R.S. 108 (1890), and passed out its first graduates (9 in number) in R.S. 112 (1894). In R.S. 123 (1903) the growing demand for medical men brought about a reorganisation of the college, providing for a greater number of students and an amplified course of studies. Up to the year R.S. 123 (1903) (that is, in fifteen years) only 56 students had graduated from the college, an average of less than four a year. The college was then placed under the control of the Education Department, the number of students increased, and in the last three years (R.S. 124-126) 50 students have successfully passed through the improved course. All lectures are given in Siamese by 10 lecturers (5 Siamese, 5 foreigners), and the course covers three years in theory and practice, followed by an examination. The successful students are then required to take an additional year of practice under observation, no diploma being granted to a student who does not successfully pass through this fourth year of practice. At the present time (June, 1908) there are 109 students taking the medical course, of whom 104 are in residence. Besides the above medical course there are separate small branches for the training of (i.) dressers and ward attendants, and (ii.) maternity nurses which it is hoped will develop in the future. The students of the college practice throughout their course in the Siriraj (Wang Lang) Hospital attached to the college, and the varied nature of the practice may be seen from the following records of the hospital cases for the past five years:—

DISEASE.	R.S. 122 (1903).		R.S. 123 (1904).		R.S. 124 (1905).		R.S. 125 (1906).		R.S. 126 (1907).		TOTALS.	
	Sick.	Died.	Sick.	Died.	Sick.	Died.	Sick.	Died.	Sick.	Died.	Sick.	Died.
Gastro-intestinal ...	102	32	105	24	100	38	74	25	85	39	526	158
Cholera ...	23	11	—	—	22	16	21	16	15	11	81	54
Venereal ...	134	4	114	13	97	7	153	8	115	3	613	35
Fevers ...	98	12	84	12	113	15	73	11	45	3	413	53
Beri-beri ...	51	15	125	25	138	31	116	28	92	8	522	107
Small-pox ...	4	—	29	12	17	7	3	1	3	—	56	20
Consumption ...	34	19	12	6	16	5	23	4	13	2	98	36
Vesical calculus ...	14	1	5	1	11	—	19	2	6	1	55	5
Other causes ...	634	68	433	35	590	42	501	35	302	25	2,400	205
<b>Totals ...</b>	<b>1,094</b>	<b>162</b>	<b>967</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>1,104</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>983</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>676</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>4,824</b>	<b>763</b>

2. *Normal College for Teachers*.—Principal, Mr. F. G. Traves. A residential college for the training of teachers, with a two years' course. During R.S. 126 (1907) there were 63 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 ... ..	3
4. Acting Commissioners for education in the provinces ... ..	7
5. Assistant Commissioners for education in the provinces ... ..	7
6. At work in the Education Department	3
7. At work in other Government departments ... ..	9
8. Dead ... ..	11
9. Present occupation unknown ... ..	31
<b>Total ... ..</b>	<b>242</b>

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 NORMAL COLLEGE.

School.	Number of Pupils at End of R.S. 126 (March, 1908).	Number of Pupils who finished their Course in R.S. 126.	Number of Siamese.	Teachers (Foreign).
1. Royal Military College ... ..	982	71	47	0
2. Royal Naval College ... ..	148	1	6	0
3. Royal Survey College ... ..	31	17	4	0
4. College of Agriculture ... ..	29	18	3	4
5. Civil Service College (Mahal Lek) ... ..	111	—	—	—
6. Post and Telegraph School ... ..	24	22	1	1
7. Gendarmerie School ... ..	36	—	8	1

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 ticals per month; (b) day students, 5 ticals per month.

2. *King's College*.—(a) Boarders, 270 ticals per year; (b) day boys, 108 ticals per year.

3. *Suan Kularp*.—Lower school: (a) juniors, 10 ticals per year; (b) seniors, 20 ticals per year. Upper school, 30 ticals per year.

4. *Maha-pritararn*.—(a) Boys under thirteen on entrance, 30 ticals per year; (b) boys over thirteen on entrance, 40 ticals per year.

5. "*Sulri Vilaya*" and "*Sowapa*" *Girls' Schools*.—One tical per month.

The two most important Secondary Schools belonging to the department in Bangkok are Suan Kularp and King's College. Suan Kularp 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 nobles. This school, under the headmastership 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 to be 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 9,827 pupils in Bangkok Schools under the control of the Education Department, distributed as follows:—

Class of School.	Number of Pupils, 1908.
1. <i>Special Schools</i> (2) ... ..	149
2. <i>Secondary Schools</i> (10)—	
(a) Course 1 ... ..	632
(b) Course 2 ... ..	56
(c) Course 3 ... ..	433
3. <i>Primary Schools</i> (76)—	
(a) Primary Course ... ..	7,236
(b) Lower Primary ... ..	1,321
<b>Total (88 schools) ... ..</b>	<b>9,827</b>

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 ... ..	9,827
4. Average number of pupils on roll throughout the year ... ..	9,499
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) ... ..	37,244
7. Average number of sessions per school for the year ... ..	423
8. Total number of school attendances for the year ... ..	3,339,663
9. Average number of times each pupil attended ... ..	351
10. Average percentage attendance per pupil for the year ... ..	83.2

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—no pupils (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 83.2. 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 190.

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

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.

TEACHERS (Bangkok only).

The following table shows the number of teachers at work under the Department in March, 1908 :—

Teachers.	Male.	Female.	Totals.
1. Siamese ... ..	399	33	432
2. Foreigners ... ..	14 <sup>1</sup>	—	14
Total ... ..	413	33	446

This total does not include special lecturers at the Medical College.

AVERAGE AGES OF PUPILS IN EACH CLASS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS, MARCH, R.S. 126 (1908).

District.	Lower Primary		Upper Primary.		
	Second Year.	Third Year.	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.
1. North-Eastern	10.4	12.1	13.6	14.4	14.9
2. East-Central	9.8	11.9	12.9	14.4	14.5
3. South-Eastern	11.2	12.7	13.7	14.8	15.4
4. South-Western	10.8	12.2	13.3	14.2	15.3
5. North-Western	—	12.8	13.7	13.4	16.1
6. West-Central	10.9	12.8	12.5	13.9	15.1
Primary Schools (Branches of Secondary Schools).					
7. Benchamabopit	11.1	{ 10.4 11.7 }	{ 13.3 13.3 }	{ 13.1 14.1 }	15.6
8. Rajbuna	9.2	11.2	12.2	13.2	11.5
9. Nuan Noradit	{ 10.0 9.2 }	{ 10.4 10.2 }	{ 12.5 12.0 }	{ 13.4 13.1 }	{ 15.5 16.9 13.4 }

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.

School.	First Year.	Second Year.	Third Year.	Whole School.
<i>Secondary (Course 1).</i>				
1. Suan Kularb ... ..	14	15	15.3	14.8
2. Benchamabopitr ... ..	14	15.2	15	14.5
3. Rajbuna... ..	14.3	14.8	15.1	14.8
4. Soolut ... ..	16.1	15.9	15.7	15.9
5. Udom ... ..	14.9	15.3	15.6	15.3
6. Nuan Noradit ... ..	14	15.2	14.8	14.6
<i>Secondary (Course 2).</i>				
7. Rajbuna... ..	{ (a) 12.82 (b) 14.87 }	14	—	13.7

AVERAGE AGES OF PUPILS IN THE CLASSES OF THE SECONDARY ENGLISH SCHOOLS, MARCH, R.S. 126 (1908).

Division.	Class.	Suan Kularb.		King's College.		Mahapitaram.	
		No. in Class.	Average Age.	No. in Class.	Average Age.	No. in Class.	Average Age.
Lower School	First	15	7.2	—	—	—	—
	Second	21	8.3	—	—	—	—
	Third	25	10.3	—	—	42	13.9
	Fourth	21	10.5	12	9.1	18	16.3
	Fifth	25	12.2	10	10.1	24	16.5
	Sixth	23	12.3	13	12.2	12	16.2
Preparatory	A	25	12.2	—	—	—	—
	B	21	14.3	—	—	—	—
Higher School	Seventh	24	14.4	26	13.8	15	16.3
	Eighth	19	14.5	6	15.6	—	—
	Ninth	14	16.1	7	16.2	—	—
	Tenth	8	15.5	5	17.1	—	—
Total ... ..	241	—	79	—	111	—	

This total of 446 teachers was distributed as follows :—

1. Special Schools : (a) Siamese, 10 males ; (b) foreigners, 3 males—total, 13.
2. Secondary Schools : (a) Siamese, 76 males ; (b) foreigners, 11 males—total, 87.
3. Primary Schools : 313 males, 33 females—total, 346.

The full total of 446 thus consists of 413 males and 33 females.

Included in this total (446) there are 92 priests. There were 166 trained Siamese teachers at work in the various schools. There were also in addition at work under the department 7 Siamese, who were trained for educational work in England. Fourteen students are at present studying educational work abroad, all of whom will enter the service of the department on their return.

The following table shows the average number of pupils on roll per teacher :—

Class of School.	Average No. of Pupils per Teacher.
1. Special ... ..	11
2. Secondary ... ..	13
3. Primary ... ..	25
All schools taken together	22

TABLE SHOWING THE VARIOUS GRADES OF SIAMESE TEACHERS, WITH AMOUNT OF SALARIES, MARCH, 1908.

Grade of Teacher.	No. of Teachers.	Total Salaries, March, 1908.
1. Secondary Teachers—		
Grade 1 ... ..	2	850
" 2 ... ..	3	850
" 3 ... ..	4	620
2. Primary Teachers—		
Grade 1 ... ..	8	1,380
" 2 ... ..	15	1,530
" 3 ... ..	47	3,450
" 4 ... ..	116	5,745
" 5 ... ..	198	6,785
3. Pupil Teachers ... ..	41	512
Totals ... ..	434 <sup>1</sup>	21,722

<sup>1</sup> The above includes 2 foreigners.

There were, in addition, 12 other foreign teachers, whose total salaries for March, 1908, was 7,666 ticals.

The total salaries for March, 1908, for 446 teachers were therefore 29,388 ticals, giving an average expenditure for teachers per pupil

(9,827) of 2'99 ticals. The average expenditure for teachers per pupil for the year 1907-8 reached nearly 36 ticals.

qualified, and that they be invested with sufficient authority to enforce the prescribed regulations. No person is qualified for this

TABLE SHOWING AVERAGE EXPENDITURE FOR TEACHERS' SALARIES PER PUPIL IN MARCH, 1908.

Class of School.	No. of Pupils.	Total Salaries, March, 1908.	Average per Pupil.
		Ticals.	Ticals.
1. Special (2) ... ..	149	5,261 <sup>†</sup>	35'3
2. Secondary (10) ... ..	1,121	12,601	11'24
3. Primary (76) ... ..	8,557	11,526	1'34
All Schools ... ..	9,827	29,388	2'99

<sup>†</sup> 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

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 schools in Bangkok under the control of the department are divided into seven districts, as follows, H.E. Phra Bhaial being the Inspector-General:—

District.	Inspector.
1. Secondary Siamese Schools.	Luang Sinit. Khun Banharn. Khun Vilit. Khun Vitoon. Nai Tut. Khun Vitarn. Mr. E. S. Smith.
2. East-Central.	
3. West-Central.	
4. North-East.	
5. North-West.	
6. South-West and South-East.	
7. Special and English Schools.	

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 (Samakyacharn). The Association, of which H.R.H. the Crown Prince is patron and H.E. the Director-General for Education the president, has a membership of over 650, 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:—

1. English. Attended by nearly 200 students.
2. A course of lectures in Physiography.
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.
7. Music.

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

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 211½. 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 2,536'25 ticals (travelling expenses, &c.) made a total sum of 27,986'25 ticals spent on inspection and examination work, showing an average expenditure on this account per pupil of 2'94 ticals for the year. The expenditure on this account for the previous year R.S. 125 (1906-7) showed 3'36 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).

1. Results of examinations in the leaving standard in Primary Course 1 (Elementary Siamese):—

Year.	Number of Pupils Examined.	Number of Pupils Passed.	Percentage of Passes.
R.S. 126 (1907-8)	902	595	65
R.S. 125 (1906-7)	1,136	827	72

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 595 pupils passing this examination 241, or 40 per cent., entered the Secondary Schools.

2. Results of examinations in the leaving standard in Secondary Course 1 (Secondary Siamese):—

Year.	Number Examined.	Number of Passes.	Percentage of Passes.
R.S. 126 (1907-8)	105	48	45'7
R.S. 125 (1906-7)	158	68	43

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):—

Year.	Number Examined.	Number of Passes.	Percentage of Passes.
R.S. 126 (1907-8)	41	26	63
R.S. 125 (1906-7)	39	29	69

4. Results of examination in the leaving standard in Secondary Course 3 (Secondary English):—

Year.	Number Examined.	Number of Passes.	Percentage of Passes.
R.S. 126 (1907-8)	30	20	67
R.S. 125 (1906-7)	27	25	77

5. Results of examination in the final course at the Medical College:—

Year.	Number Examined.	Number of Passes.	Percentage of Passes.
R.S. 126 (1907-8)	22	20	90'9
R.S. 125 (1906-7)	20	18	90

6. Results of examination in the final course at the Normal College for Teachers :—

Year.	Number Examined.	Number of Passes.	Percentage of Passes.
R.S. 126 (1907-8)	22	22	100
R.S. 125 (1906-7)	28	28	100

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 655 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 :—

Province.	Name of Official.
1. Ayuthia.	Luang, Anukit.
2. Pitsanuloke.	Khun Phrapun.
3. Petchabun.	
4. Payup (Chieng-mai).	
5. Nakhon Sritamaraj.	Nai Adoong.
6. Patani.	
7. Isarn.	Nai Tawng Sook.
8. Udon.	Luang Planuntakit.
9. Nakhon Raja Siam (Korat).	Nai Kuey.
10. Chuntabun.	Khun Chumni.
11. Bangkok (North).	Nai Mann.
12. Bangkok (South).	Luang Rajapirom.
13. Puket.	Nai Un.
14. Nakhon Sawan.	Khun Prasart.
15. Raiburi.	Khun Bunnarn.
16. Nakhonchaisri.	Nai Ngern.
17. Choornporn.	Khun Prakart.
18. Prachin.	Khun Vitarn.

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.

TABLE SHOWING FIGURES FOR EACH PROVINCE.

Province.	No. of Temples.	No. of Priests.	No. of Novices and Pupils.	Temples with organised Schools.	Temples in which Pupils are taught in Classes.
1. Bangkok ... ..	800	11,571	14,300	97	65
2. Ayuthia ... ..	1,154	12,147	20,958	47	408
3. Rajburi ... ..	528	8,011	9,358	17	14
4. Puket ... ..	185	949	2,516	10	51
5. Nakhonchaisri ... ..	341	4,062	4,285	9	48
6. Prachin ... ..	684	4,408	5,822	12	21
7. Chumporn ... ..	269	1,461	3,784	10	222
8. Nakhon-Rajasima ... ..	2,614	12,039	32,445	18	13
9. Payup ... ..	720	4,877	10,182	17	17
10. Sraiburi ... ..	21	132	206	—	—
11. Isarn ... ..	2,667	13,080	19,078	24	4
12. Pitsanuloke ... ..	402	3,281	5,300	18	32
13. Chuntabun ... ..	262	2,513	3,015	10	76
14. Patani ... ..	75	657	1,088	2	—
15. Nakhon Sritamaraj ... ..	564	4,552	7,276	14	8
16. Nakhon Sawan ... ..	441	4,354	8,188	22	25
17. Udon ... ..	1,322	5,311	5,962	9	46
18. Petchaburi ... ..		No returns.			
Totals ... ..	13,049	94,195	153,763	336	1,050

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 the 150,000 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

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 :—



THE CONVENT.

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.R.H. the Minister for the Interior and the High Commissioners

(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

whereby exceptionally bright boys might be able to obtain higher instruction ;

(d) That a suitable series of *four* elementary textbooks for (1) reading, (2) arithmetic, (3) moral teaching, and (4) study of common objects and phenomena, should be at once prepared by the department and widely distributed ;

(e) That in the beginning these textbooks should be distributed *free*, the cost to be borne by the Government.

#### SIAMESE STUDENTS ABROAD.

At the end of the year R.S. 126 (1907) there were 27 students (under the control of the Education Department) studying in England. During the year 4 students returned and 6 new students were sent. Mr. J. Algernon Brown, Superintendent of Siamese Government Students in England, says in his annual Report: "Both in conduct and progress the students have given me little cause for other than entire satisfaction. There has been no want of effort even when results have been unfavourable." The uniformly satisfactory results obtained by the students is primarily due to the consistently good work of Mr. Brown, who for so many years has devoted himself to their interests. The actual amount expended on account of these students for the year R.S. 126 (1907) was 110,012 ticals, giving an average of 4,074 ticals per student (approximately £300).

The following table shows the special

branches of study pursued by the various students :—

Branch of Study.	No. of Students.
1. Educational (teachers) ...	10
2. Civil and Diplomatic Service ...	7
3. Civil engineering ...	4
4. Medicine ...	2
5. Law ...	2
6. Army ...	1
7. General education ...	1

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 in the valuable work being done by those students who have returned to serve 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 :—

1. Army ...	8 years 9 months
2. Diplomacy ...	8 " 9 "
3. Civil Service ...	8 " 4 "
4. Law ...	7 " 6 "
5. Civil engineering ...	7 " 2 "
6. Irrigation engineering ...	4 " 11 "
7. Education (teachers) ...	3 " 0 "

The following table shows the special branches of study pursued by those students who have returned to Siam :—

Branch of Study.	No. of Students.
1. Educational (teachers) ...	10
2. Law ...	6
3. Diplomacy and Civil Service ...	6
4. Army ...	3
5. Finance ...	3
6. Civil engineering ...	2
7. Civil engineering and law ...	1
8. Irrigation engineering ...	2
9. Agriculture ...	2
10. Forestry ...	1
11. Electrical engineering ...	1
12. Marine engineering ...	1

It must be remembered that the above total represents only those students who were under the control of the Education Department. There are, in addition, students abroad who are under the control of other Government departments.





THE ROYAL BANGKOK SPORTS CLUB.

## 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 sambhur 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



WILD ELEPHANTS INSIDE THE KRAAL.

skin 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 Walers 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 :—

	Mins. secs.	
1 mile ... ..	2	15
$\frac{3}{4}$ mile ... ..	1	35
5 furs. ... ..	1	20
$\frac{1}{2}$ mile ... ..	1	2

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 300 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 kaleidoscope fashion. They are fed with the larvæ of mosquitoes, for the sale 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 ticals.

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 *savate*, 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 amusement 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 community, 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 jungles, 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.



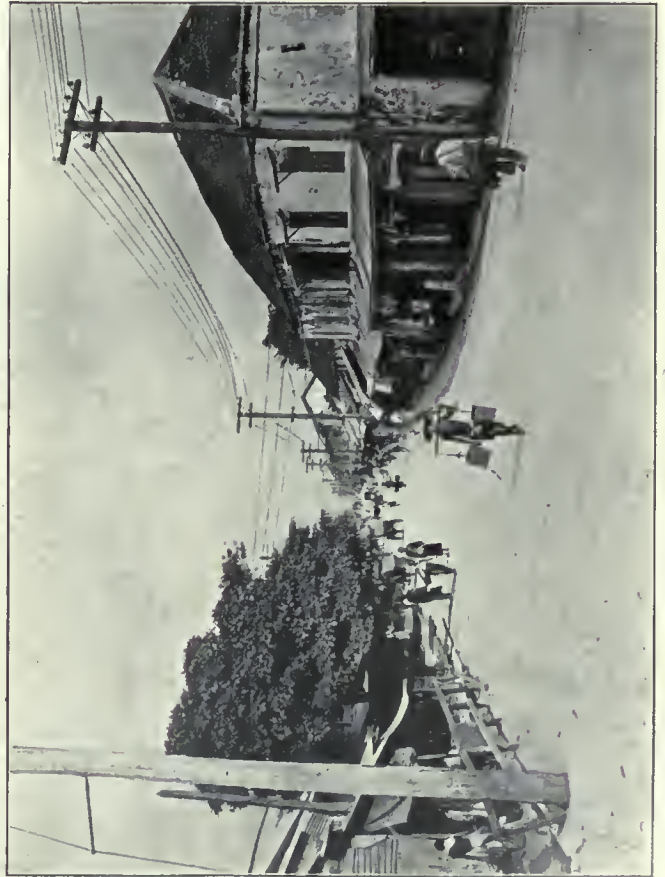
VIEW IN DUSIT PARK.



THE SUMMER-HOUSE IN DUSIT PARK.



THE BRITISH LEGATION.



NEW ROAD—THE MAIN ARTERY OF BANGKOK.



ASADANG ROAD.

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

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



A VIEW OF THE MENAM RIVER FROM THE ROYAL PALACE.

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.

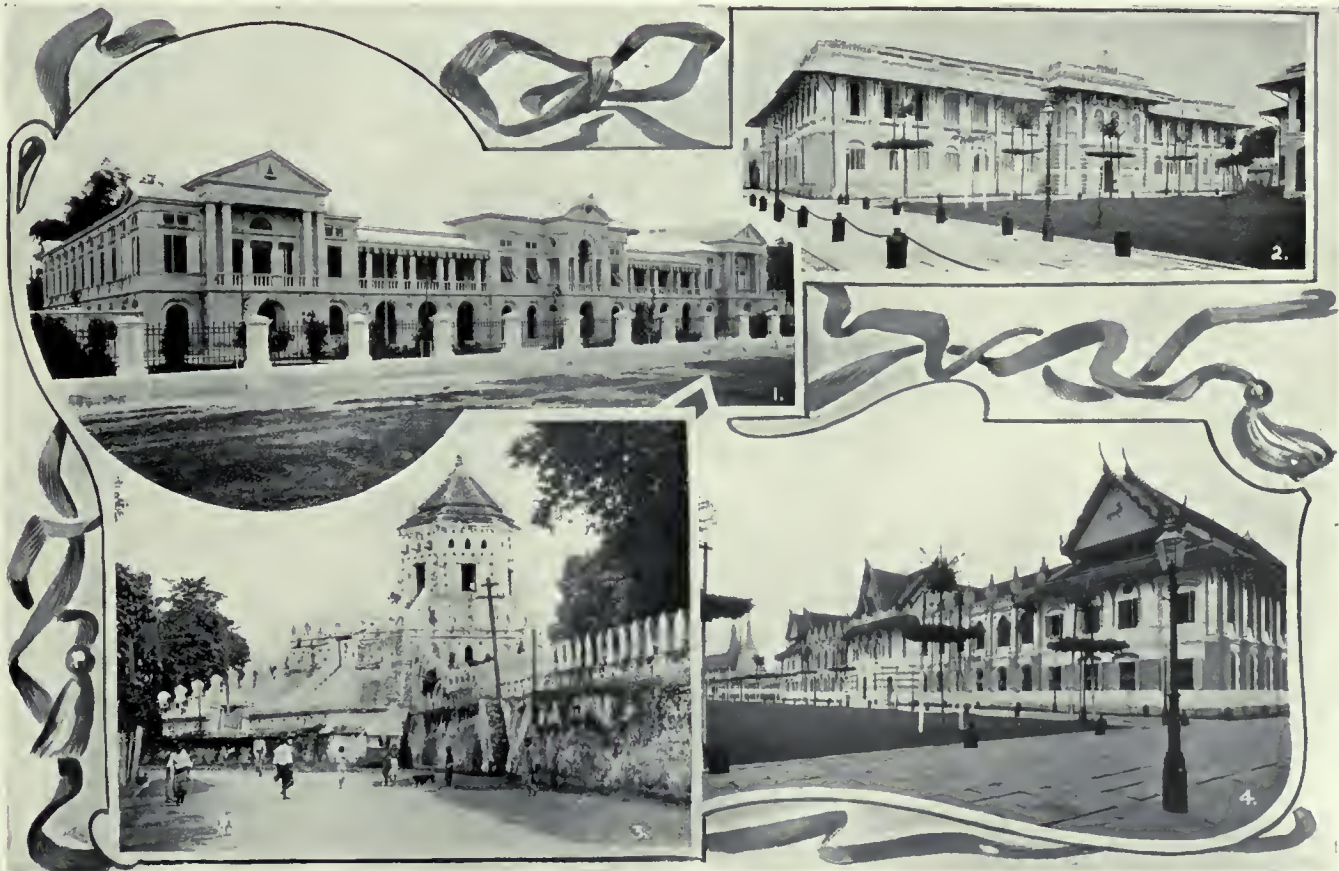
The opening up of the railways to places where regular road metal could be obtained, however, has remedied this state of things. The roads are being gradually improved each year, and as there are over 300 motor-cars now in use in Bangkok the improvement has naturally been appreciated. But, although roads 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



A MODERN STREET SCENE IN BANGKOK.

supplied with filtered water, brought from the river some sixty miles up-stream.

The river at Bangkok is somewhat like the river some sixty miles up-stream.



THE PALACE OF H.R.H. THE CROWN PRINCE OF SIAM.  
THE OLD CITY WALL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE MINISTRY OF THE HOUSEHOLD.  
OFFICES OF THE MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR.



ROUTE OF TRAMWAYS IN BANGKOK.

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

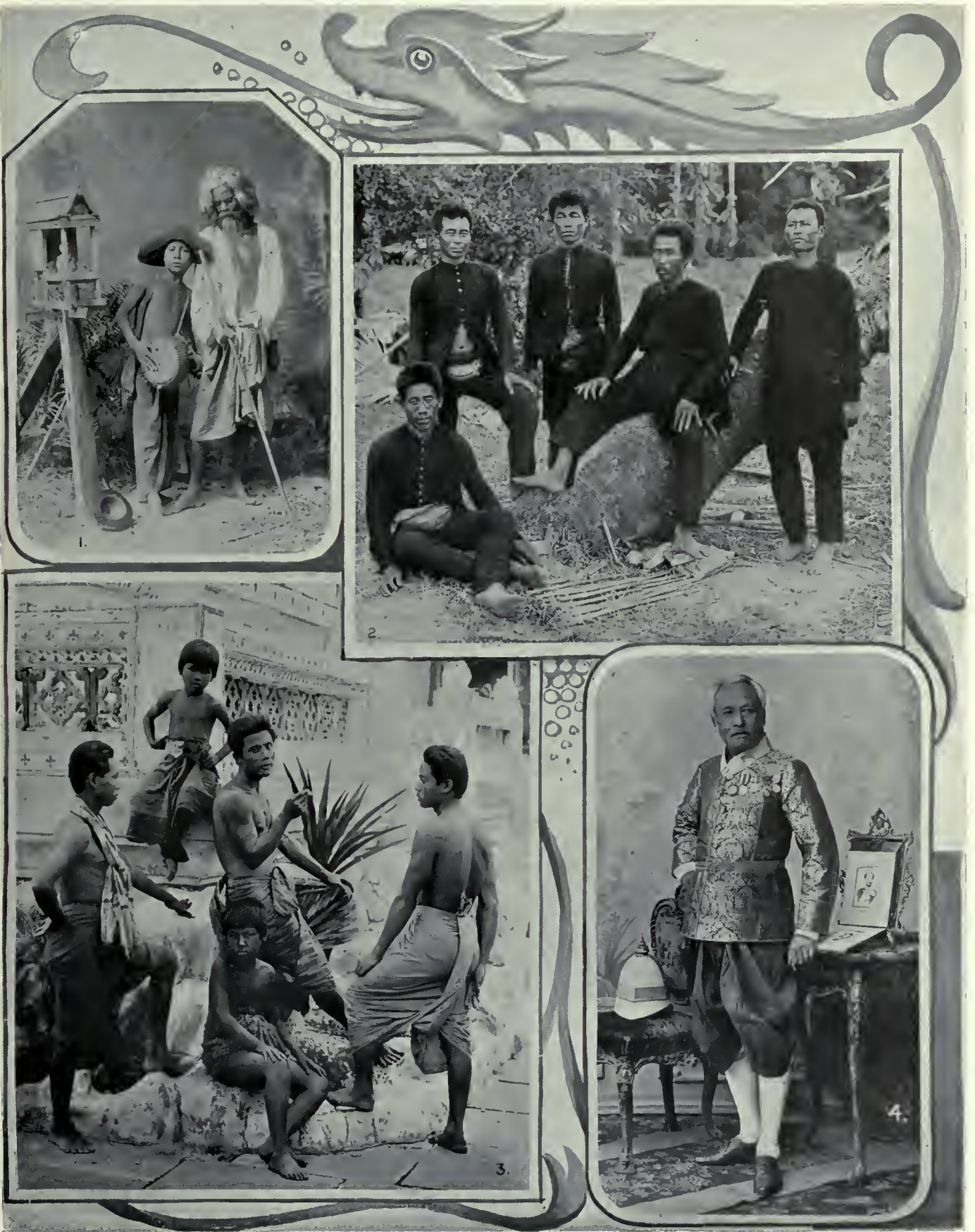


A STREET IN SAMPENG, THE CHINESE QUARTER OF BANGKOK.

THE FLAGSTAFF AT THE ROYAL PALACE.

A STREET IN BANGKOK, SHOWING THE CITY WALL.

A STREET AT WAT SUTHAT, SHOWING THE PRIESTS' HOUSES.



TYPES OF MEN IN SIAM.

1. A BEGGAR.

2. KAMEN TRIBESMEN.

3. SIAMESE MEN.

4. A SIAMESE NOBLEMAN IN COURT DRESS.

Palace, royal mint, military headquarters, law-courts, &c., besides numerous large and picturesque temples. Opposite the Grand Palace, and on the west side of the Menam, is the Rong 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

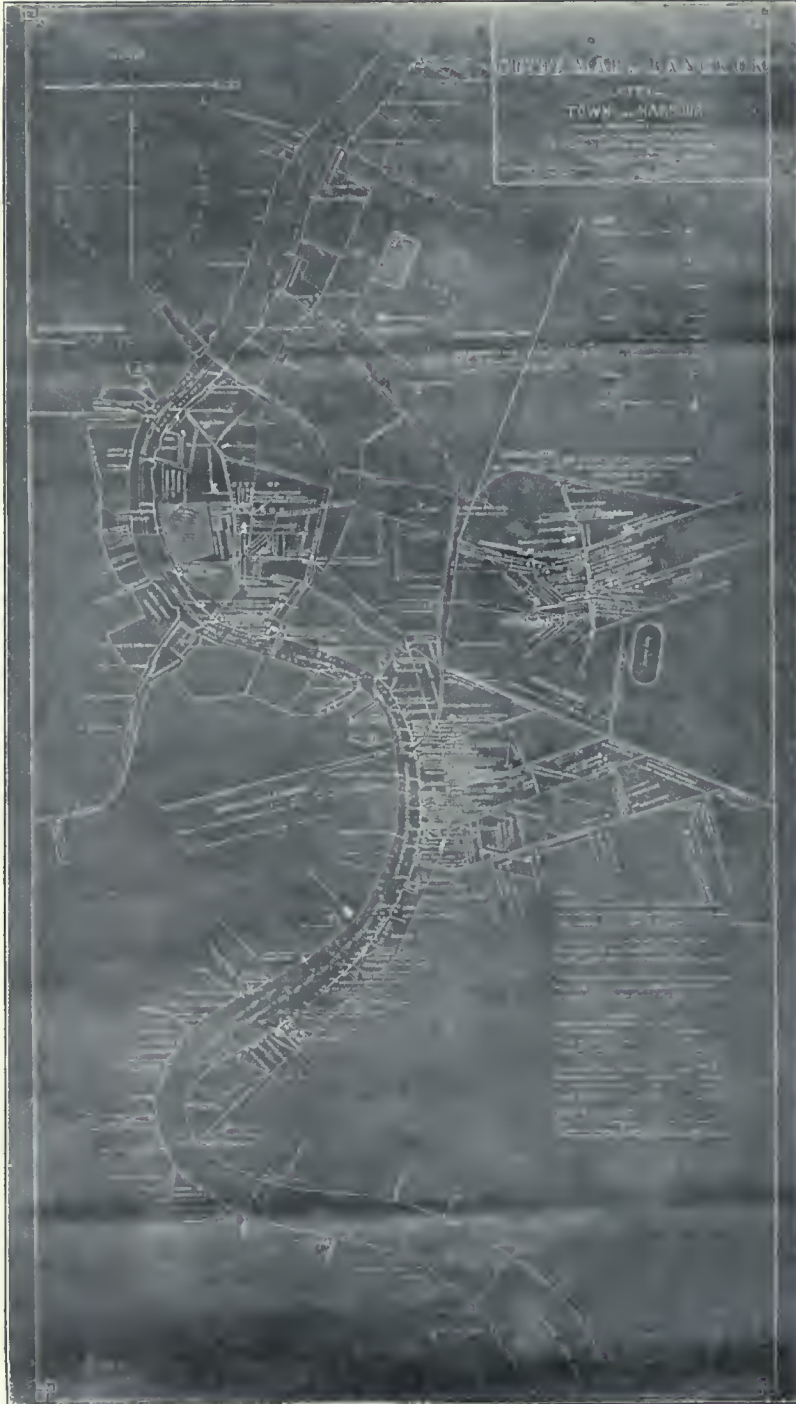
of the roads. The bricks used in these walls are small but extremely durable.

South of the walled city is to be found the main commercial part of Bangkok. Along the riverside is a knotted congeries 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. The locality has few charms for the Europeans 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 Bangrak, where most of the foreign legations and the majority of the banks and offices of Western business people are situated, and from thence to Bangkok Point there is a long string 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 by the authorities upon some of the other districts, and many of the old squalid bamboo and atap 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 covering not altogether dissimilar to the Malay sarong, which is worn by all classes and by 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 picturesque story, and the one which gains the most credence, is that which tells how the women, by their muscular and warlike appear-



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

the gaudily begilt opium dens, the theatres, *maisons de plaisir*, and similar institutions of Canton, with the addition of the gambling-house and police-station of Siam. This district is the real "bazaar" of Bangkok, and in it almost any known article may be purchased, from Siamese Buddhas (made in Birmingham) and ancient Siamese pottery (manufactured the year previously in Japan) to





A STREET HAWKER.

A TRAVELLING RESTAURANT.  
A RIVER MARKET.

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. 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



THE CITY END OF NEW ROAD.

Library contains a large number of very ancient and valuable Pali and Sanskrit books "Mahathai," or Department of the Interior, which is adjacent to the library, has quite an



A STREET SCENE AT PAKNAM.

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 toe-nails 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 *bunga mas*, 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 Premane 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 Saranroin 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 inspection.

#### 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 *salā*, or building in which pilgrims or other homeless persons may encamp; numerous courtyards, a tank for bathing, and houses for the priests. Some contain quadrangular cloisters filled with images of Buddha, while others have their



SELLERS OF BUDDHA IMAGES IN SAMPENG.  
A CARPENTER'S SHOP.

walls adorned with quaint frescoes. The central shrines are usually surmounted by either *phrapangs* or *prachidees*. Smaller *prachidees*, 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 coign of vantage. 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 Phraeko. The best view of the city is obtained from the terrace of Wat Phoo Kao Tawng. 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 Rachabopitr, near the Local Government Department, is interesting on account of the *prachidees* and *phrapangs* which are memorials to the queens of the last reign. Wat Pho, Wat Mahan, Wat Suthat, 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



A SIAMESE HOUSE ON A KLONG (CANAL).



A SIAMESE LADY OF NOBLE BIRTH.

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 "huey," 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 clubs are the most important of the purely social European institutions, but the Siamese nobles have an excellent club also known as the Dvi Panya Club, situated in the charming Saranrom 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 Siam Society, which has for its object the dissemination 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 Deveor, whose royal theatrical troupe performs at intervals all the classic Siamese plays. The Siamese drama proper, or *lakawn*, consists of

owners pay a small fee per diem, while the huey lottery, also licensed by the Government, is drawn nightly. Some idea of the extent to which this latter form of gambling is

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 stand the ruins of the city 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; Ratburi, 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 Paklat, 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 Kmers, at Phi Mai, near Korat.

#### 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 500,000 and 600,000, including about 1,000 Europeans and Americans. The Chinese population, by the returns of the poll tax in 1900, was 65,345 male adults; and the entire estimated Chinese population, allowing for old men, women, and children, who pay no tax, 85,000. In 1903 the number rose to 100,000 and has certainly increased by 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 *Vajirañāna*. 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 *Vajirañāna 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 Pin Klao 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 collect 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 vote of the committee. They had to pay an annual subscription of twenty ticals, and the friendly



FISHING BOATS, PAKNAM.

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 *teekay*, or *jeekay*, 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 Saranrom Amateur Dramatic Association, composed of young Siamese nobles, have produced such plays as Pinero'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 Bangkok 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 Phratoo Sam 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 "tua," 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

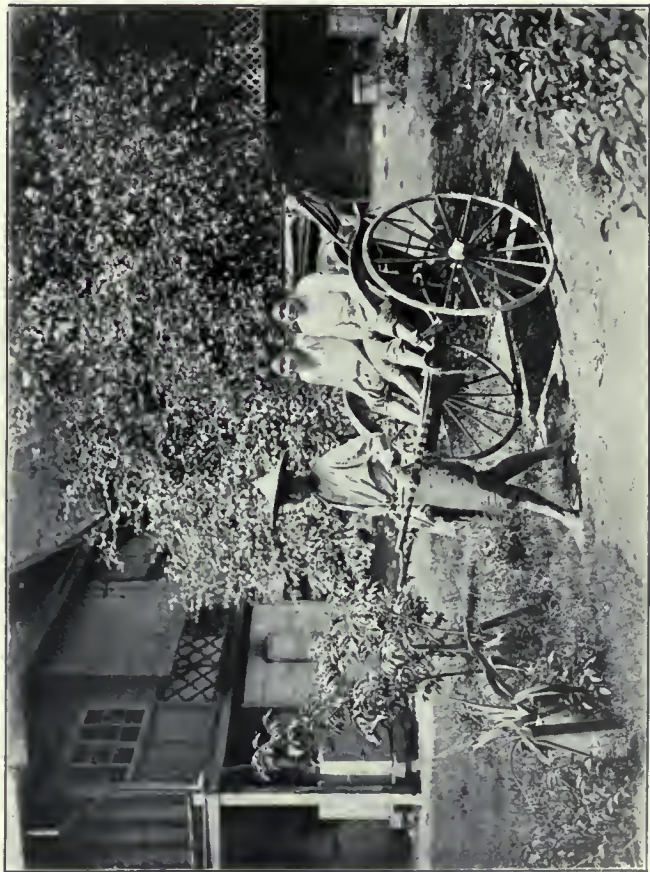
practised in Bangkok may be formed from the large number of little tables, lighted with small square lamps, and presided over by Chinamen, which may be seen in all the business thoroughfares after nightfall. The Chinamen collect the money and distribute the lottery tickets. A little before midnight the 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 organiser 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 3,563,548 ticals—the 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 a 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 Siamese have a proverb, "He who has once tasted of the water of the Chao Phya Menam must perforce 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 81.4° 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



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 H.R.H. the Crown Prince, as President, T.R.H. Prince Sammot and Prince Damrong, Phya Prajakit, and Phya Boranburanuraks 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 Mandiradharma 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 or 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 1836, and came into general use only in the reign of King Mongkut. In the troublous times which 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 official title of the author was 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, both 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 raisonné* 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 facsimiles of inscriptions are collected, transcribed, and described, so as to be one



THE NATIONAL LIBRARY.

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 com-

as founders of the Vajirañāna Library, "that it should be established as the National Library."

The library was thus made accessible "to



THE READING ROOM.

memorating the hundredth anniversary of the birth of his august father, his Majesty Phra Chom Klao, "by an institution of public utility

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 1905. 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 workmanship 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 museum was removed in 1890 to an old palace building, which is a good specimen of Siamese architecture, and now contains specimens of the arts, manufactures, household goods, antiquities, and coins of Siam and neighbouring countries, as well as specimens of natural history. The intention exists to collect and make a permanent exhibition of the antiquities scattered throughout the country.

The museum is open daily, except on Saturdays and Sundays, from 10 to 5, and the public are admitted in the afternoon from 2 to 5.

#### THE UNITED CLUB.

The United Club, which was established upwards of twenty years ago, may perhaps be

#### THE BRITISH CLUB.

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. Adam, 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;

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—85 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. Hight, H. Price, and W. J. F. Williamson, with S. Brighthouse, hon. secretary.

#### THE DEUTSCHER KLUB.

The social centre and general meeting-place for German residents in Bangkok is the



THE UNITED CLUB.

THE BRITISH CLUB.

THE GERMAN CLUB.

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 Siphya 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.

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 £7 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

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 Suriwongse 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 Nakonsuwan, 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.



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, F. Lutz; hon. secretaries, C. Zippert and A. Link; hon. treasurer, A. Osann; committee: E. Guergen, P. Heir, 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 the large measure of success it has attained as the leading social club in Bangkok 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 endeavour to live up to their name and increase their wisdom. They, however, 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 posted 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; hon. treasurer, Phra Sanpakarn; and hon. secretary, Laung 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.



1. PHRA MONTRI POTCHANAKIT. 2. CHAMUN CHONG BHAKDI-ONG KWA. 3. H.E. PHYA VARABONGSA BIBADHANA (Chamberlain to H.M. the King of Siam).  
4. H.E. CHOW PHYA BHASKARAWONGSE. 5. DR. YAI S. SANITWONGSE. 6. H.E. CHOW PHYA SURASAKDI MONTRI. 7. LUANG RIDDHISARDI.

**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, pre-

sented to him by his Majesty the king, was born at Champorn 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 Sriracha 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-organization 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

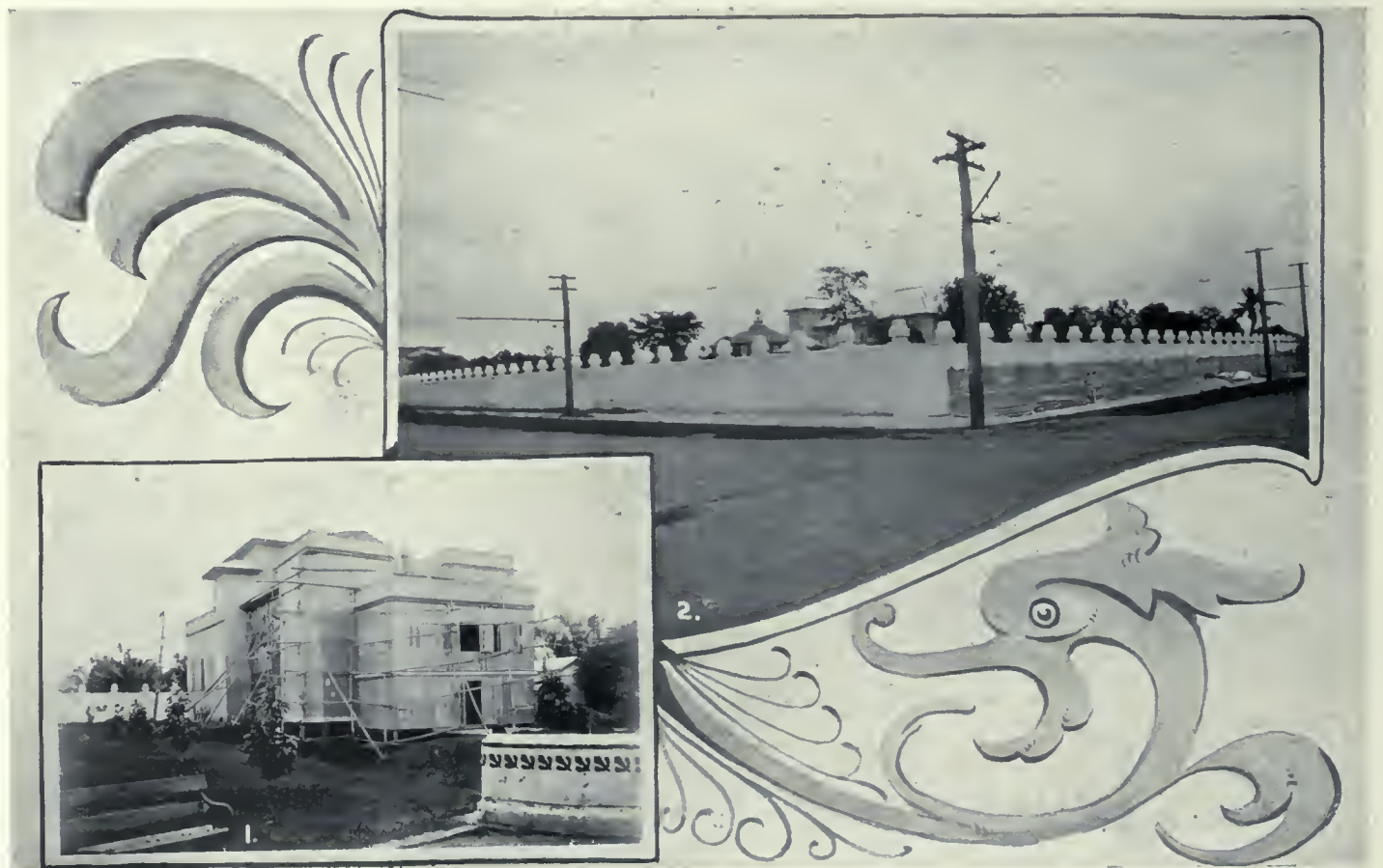
granted a pension by the Government in recognition of his long and valuable service. In 1901, however, he was again in request for frontier duty and was placed in charge of the force sent to quell the disturbances in the Shan States. Since his retirement from the Government, H.E. Chow Phya Surasakdi has turned his attention to commercial matters, and it is to his initiative and enterprise almost solely that the Sriracha Company owes its present important position. The formation of the company was the direct outcome of his Excellency's failing health and subsequent visit to Sriracha. 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 Sriracha district.

**Phya Varabongsa Bibadhana**, 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 Purse 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 Hiranjakitch** is the third son of Phra Phromapibarn, 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 Makisra, 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 THEATRE.

2. VIEW SHOWING THE OUTER WALL OF THE RESIDENTIAL PROPERTY



H.E. PHRA SANPAKARN HIRANJAKITCH.

1. THE LARGE VILLA.

2. THE SMALL VILLA.

3. THE RECEPTION ROOM.



1. H.E. PHRA SANPAKARN HIRANJAKITCH.

2. H.E. PHRA PHROMAPIBARN (father).

3. KHOON SAP SANPAKARN (wife of H.E. Phra Sanpakarn).

4. H.E. PHRA SANPAKARN, WITH HIS FATHER, UNCLE, AND BROTHERS.

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 journeyings. 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 1870. 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 Surasuc against the rebel-

lious 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 ticals for the purpose of opening large livery stables in Bangkok. His enterprise has been entirely successful, and the promoters of the business hope, in a very short time, to have as many as twenty depôts 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 Yugala to England. At the conclusion of the tour he received his present title. Chamun Chong Kwa married, in 1890, Lady Krakoon 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 Rathakitch 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

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 Nguang. As the trade grew branches were opened first in the Talatnoi 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 Nguang 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



SANDHABHOJANA, LIMITED.

NAI THOUAY (Partner).

the works receive the support and secure orders from all the leading members of the Siamese community.

"SANDHABHOJANA, LTD."

The manufacture of Siamese preserves is a trade which, though of considerable age in

owes its success to the efforts of Chow Phya Bhaskharawongse, Lady Bhaskharawongse, and Nai Thouay and his brother. Lady Bhaskharawongse is an expert in Siamese embroidery, and as superintendent of this branch of the enterprise has earned a world-wide reputation.

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 Nguang is a believer in the Christian religion, and during his tour was received in audience by Pope Pius X., the Archbishop of Westminster, and



“SIDDHIBHAND.”

1. THE STORE.

2. THE STORES DEPARTMENT.

3. THE JEWELLERY DEPARTMENT.

(See p. 257.)



1



2



3



5



6



4

**KEE CHIANG & SONS.**

1. THE HEAD OFFICE.

2. THE CITY BRANCH.  
5. JOSEPH KUANG NGUANG.

3. THE CHAROEN KRUNG BRANCH.  
6. F. X. YEW NGUANG (father).

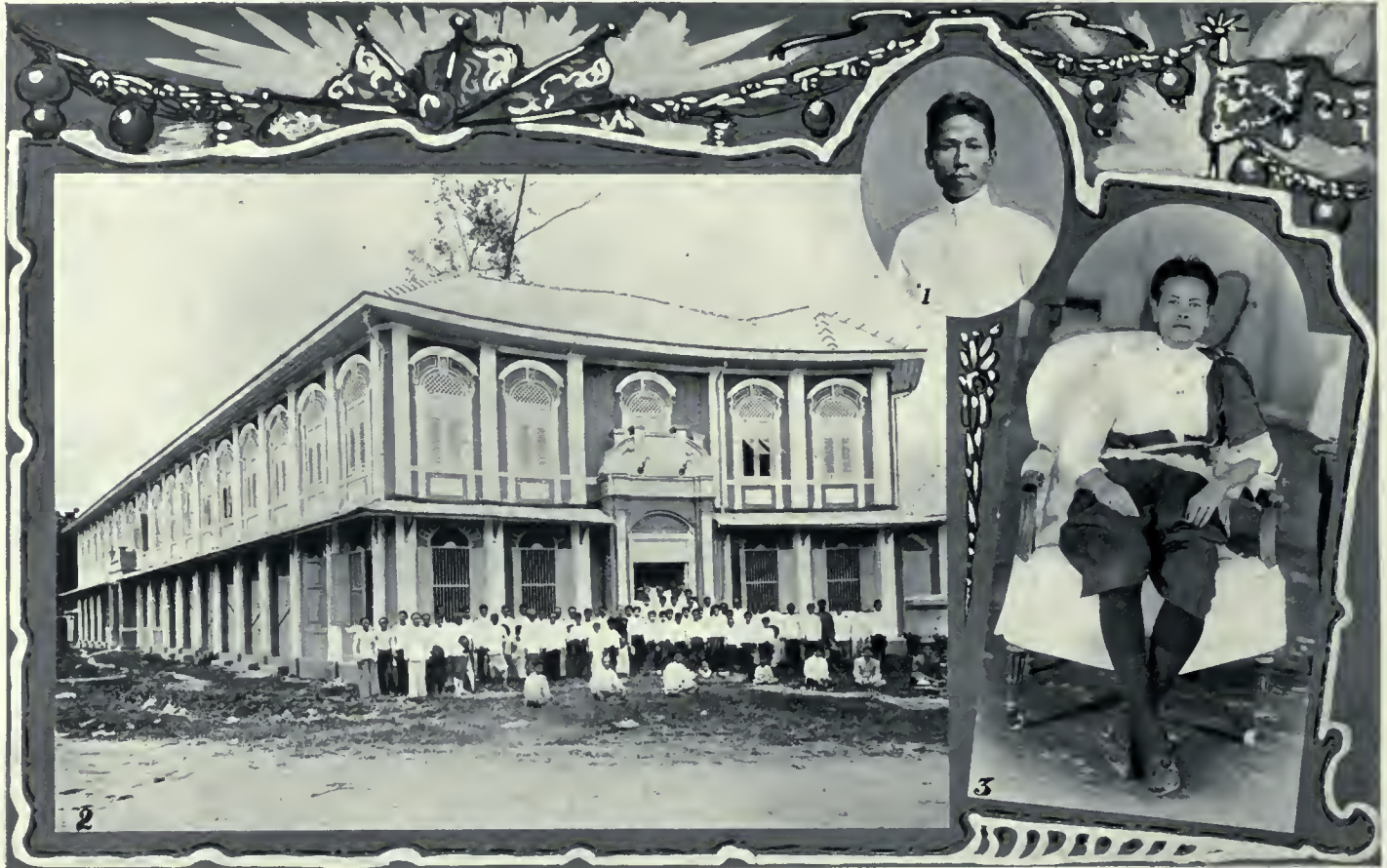
4. AN INTERIOR VIEW.

(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

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



THE AKSORANIT PRINTING OFFICE.

PHRA SIRIAYSAWAN AND HIS WIFE.

#### LUANG SUWANAKIT CHAMNARN.

The gold and silversmith's business carried on by Luang Suwanakit Chamnarn in Warajak Road was established in 1903. The firm, who are jewellers by appointment to her Majesty the Queen and his Royal Highness the Crown Prince, undertake all kinds of work connected with the polishing and setting of precious stones. They make a speciality of electroplating and stamping, and do a large retail trade.

Luang Suwanakit Chamnan, the proprietor, was born in Bangkok in 1867, and educated at the Wat Mahatat. Leaving school at the age of twenty-one years, he was apprenticed for two years to a Siamese goldsmith, and subsequently joined the royal goldsmiths, with whom he remained for a period of three years, gaining a thorough training in all departments of the jeweller's trade. Before starting business on his own account he was also for twelve years in the employment of the well-known firm of Grahlert & Co.

#### THE AKSORANIT PRINTING OFFICE.

The Aksoranit Printing Office stands as a testimony to the steady perseverance and enterprise of Phra Siriaysawan. Phra Siriaysawan, or to give him his full titles, Phon Khun

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 1893, and received the added title of Phra Siriaysawan in recognition of his services. He built and started the Aksoranit 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 PRINTING OFFICE.

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

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.

1. THE BAMRONG NUKUL KITCH PRINTING OFFICE.      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 headquarters, 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

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 1900 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

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 piece goods, and the introduction of French goods into Siam is largely due to their enterprise. They represent in this country the Société Suisse d'Industrie Laitière, 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.



PHAN SUWANAKITCH AND THE PREMISES OF THE FIRM.

**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 though 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 1894 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 & BEIDEK.**

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. Falck and Beidek, a firm of importers and wholesale and retail merchants who have been firmly established in Siam now for some thirty years past. The business was founded in 1878 by Messrs. Falck, Bramann, and Beidek, and

locality for business purposes the large number of orders entrusted to him necessitates the constant employment of over forty work-people.

**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 Ratner safes, Ailsa Craig

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.

Kerr & 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. C. MONOD ET FILS.**

The senior partner in this firm first came to Bangkok in 1897 as manager to the Banque de



BUSINESS MEN OF BANGKOK.

1. LOUIS T. LEONOWENS. 2. S. H. HENDRICK. 3. A. A. SMITH. 4. R. RICKMERS. 5. HAMILTON PRICE. 6. W. W. WOOD. 7. REG. PAGE. 8. E. C. MONOD.  
 9. E. LANZ. 10. W. BREHMER. 11. THOMAS CRAIG. 12. C. ROBERTS. 13. J. FRANCON. 14. J. J. MCBETH.



BUSINESS MEN OF BANGKOK.

1. H. WILKENS. 2. R. DANNO. 3. F. V. DE JESUS. 4. C. PRUSS. 5. F. BOPP. 6. A. C. WARWICK. 7. H. V. BAILEY. 8. J. P. GANDY. 9. F. GRAHLERT.  
 10. L. T. GANDY. 11. E. H. V. MAYNE. 12. F. SAMPSON. 13. DR. G. BOSSONI. 14. A. ZIEGENBEIN. 15. T. POZZI. 16. WALTER KOCH. 17. E. GROOTE.



PREMISES AND SHOWROOMS OF MESSRS. FALCK & BEIDEK.

has, since its inception, been known by the Hong name of "Hang 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

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. Semprez. 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

nowens, Ltd., is the Siamese Trading Corporation. They have mining and other interests in various parts of the country, and are the managers of the Renong Mines, Ltd.

Mr. Louis T. Leonowens has been associated with Siam from his youth, and his name is known and highly respected throughout the country.

**DIETHELM & CO., LTD.**

The head offices of Messrs. Diethelm & Co., Ltd., are at Zurich, and they have branches also at Singapore and Saigon, beside the one in Bangkok. The office in Siam was opened in 1906, and the firm are now carrying on a considerable business in this country as importers and merchants. They import chiefly, perhaps, Manchester piece goods, dyed yarns,



THE OFFICES OF LOUIS T. LEONOWENS, LTD.

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 Singapore or Pinang. Hardware, stationery, furniture, safes, machinery, pumps, machine fittings, china, glass, crockery, trunks, travellers' requisites, 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 sufficiently 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,

to the enterprise and skilful management of its founder, Mr. Louis T. Leonowens. He commenced trading in a comparatively small way as a general merchant, but within a few years his success, and the possibilities of expansion following upon the introduction of new capital, encouraged him to turn his business into a limited liability company. The firm have made rapid progress since that time. They now hold leases in the teak forests of the Lakon district, and devote much of their energy to the export of timber. They are also large importers of general merchandise, and possess several valuable agencies, of which the chief are—Coldbeck, Macgregor & Co.; Argyll Motors, Ltd.; J. & R. Tennent, Ltd.; J. & R. Harvey's Distilleries; Duntop Tyres; Jeyes' Sanitary Compounds; Moet & Chandon Champagnes; and the China Mutual Life Insurance Company.

Working in conjunction with Louis T. Leo-

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 companies.

The manager for the company in Siam is Mr. Fritz Lenthold. 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.

1. THE HEAD OFFICE. 2. THE PREMISES OF THE BANGKOK OUTFITTING COMPANY (B. Grimm & Co., Proprietors). 3. THE PRATU SAMYOT STORE. 4. THE STAFF.





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. F. Bopp, who has charge of the head office at Pak Kloung 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 speciality 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 20-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 Bratby and Hinchliffe, 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 1908 the company erected a public drinking fountain in front of their headquarters. This they keep supplied with iced 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.

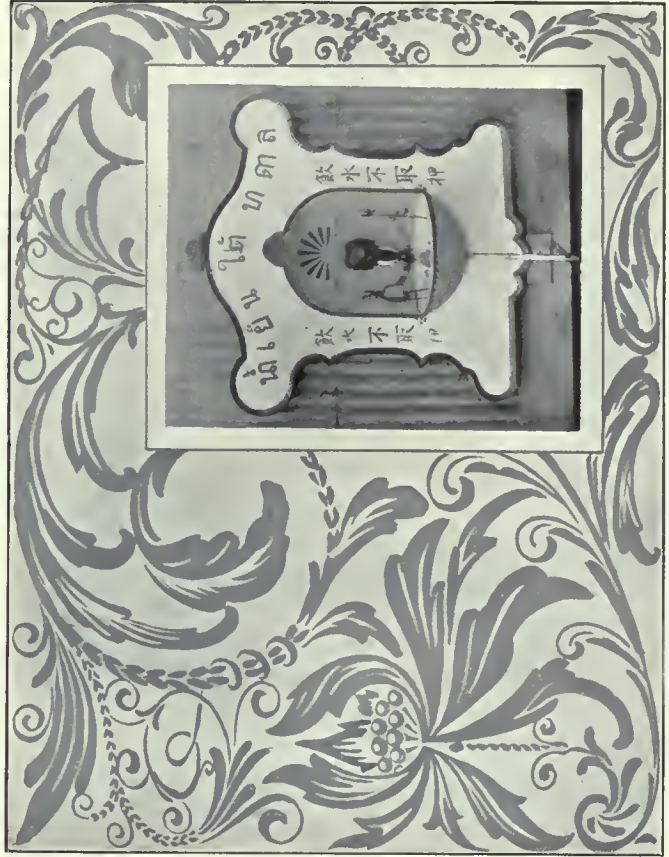
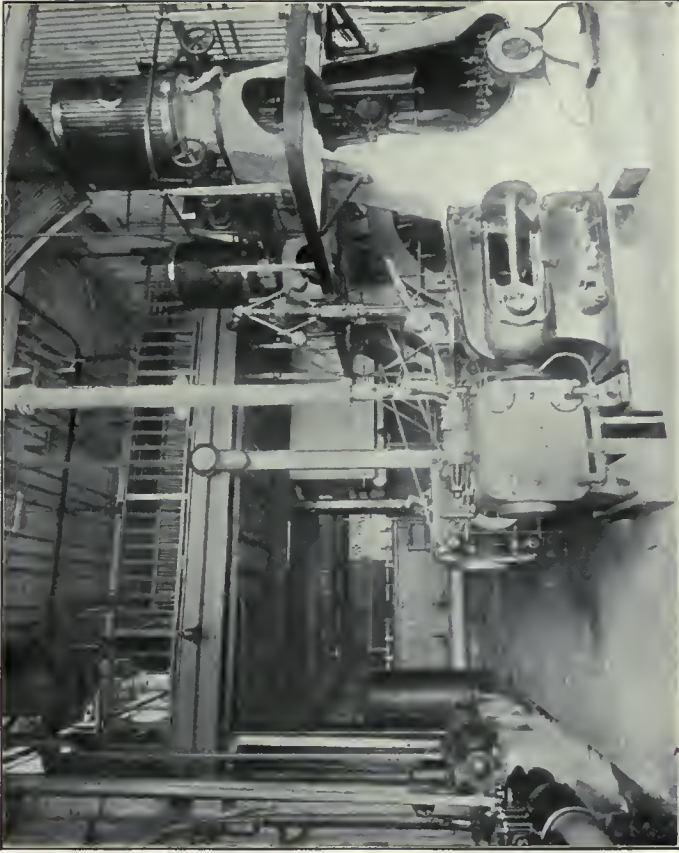
#### MESSRS. HARRY A. BADMAN & CO.

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.



ICE-MAKING MACHINERY.  
A FOUNTAIN.



COLD STORAGE ROOM.  
AERATED WATER FACTORY.

THE BANGKOK MANUFACTURING COMPANY, LTD.



HARRY A. BADMAN & CO.



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 specialities, 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 1902, started business in 1904 as a general

importer and Government contractor. One of his chief agencies is that of J. Friedmann's, Nachfolger, 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, boot-makers, &c. They make a speciality of saddlery and harness-making, and have always a large stock of the best quality of English goods. Theirs is 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. Fornoni, A. Marangoni, and M. Marangoni, was established in 1899 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, Züst, and Dialto 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.

mance by him of a most intricate operation being brought to the notice of his Majesty, he was honoured by a special message of royal congratulations. Born in Belgium in 1872, he graduated at Brussels University in 1896, and for the following seven years was engaged in private practice in that city. During this period he also held the appointments of Surgeon to St. John's Hospital and Vice-Lecturer on Anatomy at Brussels University, and was Secretary of the Anatomico-pathological Society and editor of the *Année Chirurgicale et Journal Médical de Bruxelles*. All these positions, however, he resigned on the occasion of his first trip to the Congo State, which territory he visited a number of times, in the interests of medicine, prior to his arrival in Bangkok in 1903.

**F. GRAHLERT & CO.**

Mr. F. Grahlert 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 jewellers to the Court by special appointment, and are constantly being entrusted with the execution of important commissions by their Majesties the King and Queen of Siam and his Royal 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.

**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 few first-class 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.

**L. TH. UNVERZAGT.**

Mr. Unverzagt's acquaintanceship 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 Kut Mai.

**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 Pain-killer, and Chamberlain's remedies. It is also the appointed depot for Burroughs Wellcome & Co.'s fine products.

ence for a year, and then came to Bangkok. Dr. Bossoni 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. Bossoni married Eulalia 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 occupy a foremost place as opticians, but while this branch of their business is un-



**THE BANGKOK DISPENSARY.**

The dispensary was established some twenty years ago by the late Dr. Gowan, Physician to his 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 to 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.**

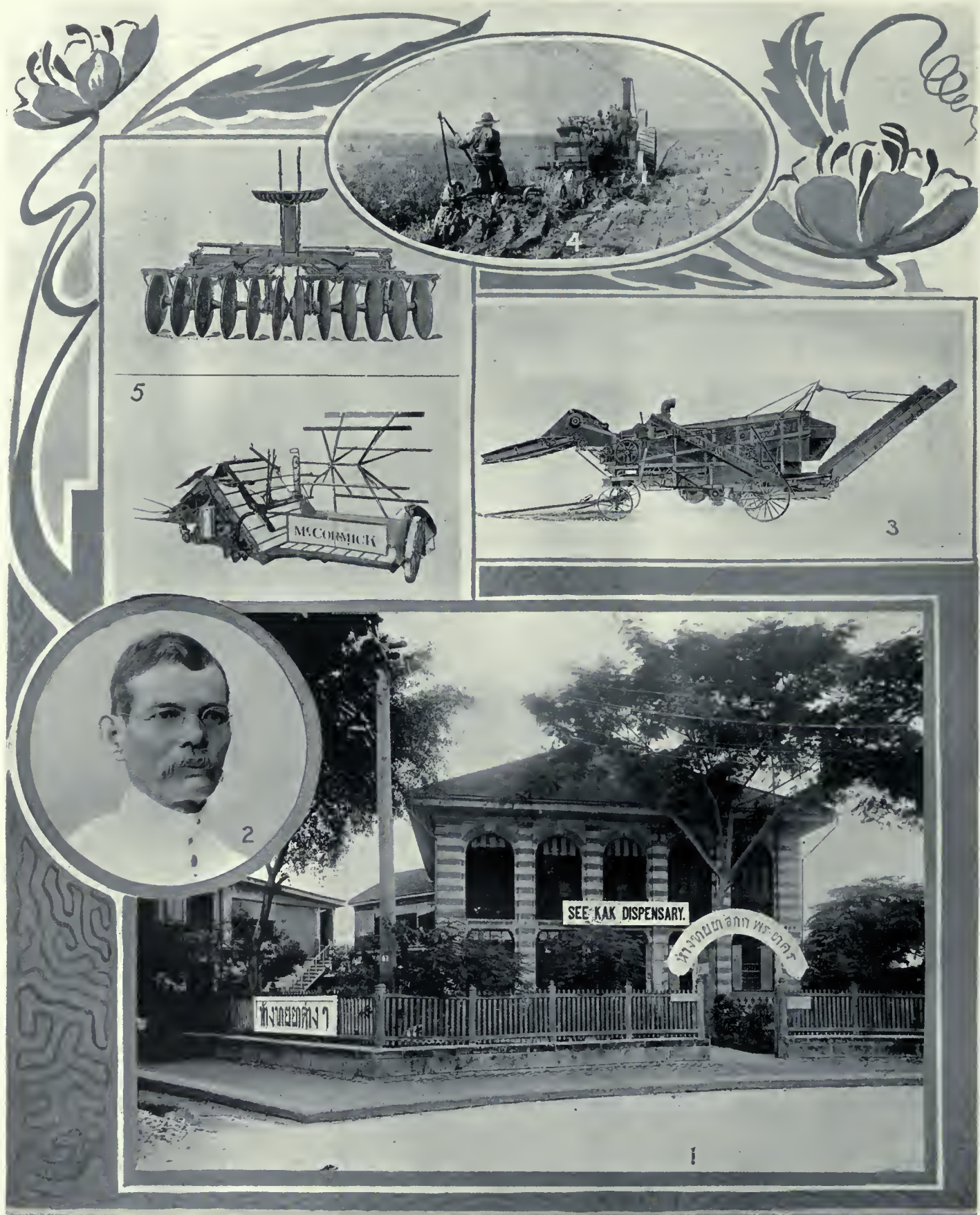
Dr. G. Bossoni, the proprietor of the Tapan Lek Dispensary, was born in the province of Brescia, Italy, in 1881, and educated at the Universities of Florence and Parma, obtaining in 1904 his diploma at the School of Pharmacy, and in July, 1905, his degree of Doctor of Chemistry (*Dottore in Chimica*). He practised in the Government Hospital at Flor-

doubtedly the most important one, other interests are not forgotten. All the first-class chemicals and drugs are kept in stock, and a specially is made of filters and surgical instruments, the best types of filters, especially, commanding a huge sale.

The firm, which is a German one, and sole contractor to the North German Lloyd Steamship Company, was established in 1885, and was purchased by Mr. Richard Schulz in 1906. Mr. Schulz obtained his analytical degrees in Germany, and has had considerable experience in his profession in that country, Italy, Switzerland, and the Straits Settlements.

**ROBERT LENZ & CO.**

Messrs. Robert Lenz & Co., the photographers to the Court of Siam, certainly hold the leading place in the photographic trade of Bangkok. The business was established in 1894 by Mr. R. Lenz, and was personally conducted by him until two years ago, when it was purchased by its present proprietors, Messrs. E. Groote and C. Pruss. The studio has always had a deservedly high reputation, for the work produced is quite upon a level



THE SEEKAK DISPENSARY.

1. THE DISPENSARY.

2. DR. H. ADAMSEN.

3. THRESHER USED BY DR. ADAMSEN ON HIS FARM.

4. AT WORK ON DR. ADAMSEN'S FARM.

5. DISC HARROW AND PLOUGH USED ON DR. ADAMSEN'S 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



M. T. S. MERICAN.

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 speciality of Indian and other silks, but deals very considerably too in English flannels, velvets, serges, and cottons.

Mr. Merican also exports teak and rice. He possesses 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, married, to Siam. On his 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 quarantine was declared against Hongkong, Dr. Adamsen was appointed Quarantine Officer, being the first occupier of such a post in Siam. He held the office for four years, and built the Quarantine Station, which was originally at Koh Pai but has since been removed to Koh Phra. He was deputed by H.M. the Queen to open a school for tuition in nursing and midwifery—a school which during its eight years' existence was the means of sending out no less than thirty women qualified in both branches. Up to the present time Dr. Adamsen retains the position, to which he was appointed in 1894, of Lecturer on Obstetrics and Practice of Medicine at the Royal Medical College. In 1904 he was sent by the Siamese Government to Manila on a mission for the investigation of the method of making rinderpest and anthrax serum. On his return he started the Government Experimental Serum Laboratory, and the same year was successful, with the co-operation of Dr. Braddock, in producing vaccine. The laboratory has since been removed, and now is stationed at Prapatom. While experiments were being carried on, and after the successful 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 Inspector of the Hospitals of the Kingdom and Health Officer of the Interior, the Government furnishing 25,000 licals 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 dispensary 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 harrows—he succeeded, in the end, in proving to the natives that machinery can be used as successfully in Siam as in North and South Carolina. 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." It enjoys an excellent situation 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 spacious verandah 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 BUSSAN KAISHA.

The numerous departments of the house of Mitsui cover practically every phase of commercial and industrial enterprise. Their headquarters are in Tokio, 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. Danno, the manager of the branch, originally intended to follow the legal profession and studied English law at the Imperial University, Tokio. After graduating, however, he decided upon a commercial career, and, in 1899, joined the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha. He served them in various capacities in Tokio, 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 in 1874, and after completing his education he joined the service of the Siamese Government, being attached at



W. KRUSE, KHUN VIRAT, AND CARL KRUSE.

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 insight into 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 auctioneer and contractor, land and commission 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 hand-made, 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 Lukorn, Lampong, and Chiengmai line, besides a railway in the Kowpoong district, some 515 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 Tee Meow Chinese temple, situated at Phlab Phla Fai 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 Appontements de Tongku" 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 Eugène Gourry and E. C. Monnet et Cie.

Recently Mr. Louis Choi has extended his operations to the interior of Siam, and at Ratburi 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



CHEE TSZE TING AND HIS PRIVATE RESIDENCE.



H. SWEE HO.

1. HOON KIM HUAT (Proprietor) AND HIS BROTHERS.

2. THE DISPENSARY.

3. INTERIOR OF THE DISPENSARY.

at Pit Satien Bridge, the centre of the business quarter of the city. The firm trade as general importers, commission agents, manufacturing chemists, and wholesale and retail druggists, 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 either 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 Rajawongsi-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 for upwards of half of that 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 Whay has achieved proves the soundness of his judgment. His business is now an important and



YONG HIANG SIEW.

1. 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.

1. WONG FEI (Wing Seng Long & Co.). 2. NEO MANN FOONG. 3. NEO MANN CHEEN. 4. NEO MANN FONG. 5. KWOK CHIM. 6. NG YOOK LONG (Kwong Ngan Long).  
 7. TOWKAY LEONG SHAU SHAN (Owner of Fook Wah Shan Kee Mills). 8. CAPTAIN CHINA. 9. TAN KAI HO. 10. TEO CHOON KHENG (Koh Mah Wah & Co.).  
 11. LEONG TUCK SING. 12. LAM SAM (Kwong Ngan Long). 13. CHAN KIM LONG. 14. NGA KENG (Chop Joo Seng). 15. LOW PENG KANG (Ban Hong Long & Co.).  
 16. TAN GUAN WHAT. 17. ENG LEANG YONG. 18. LOH SUM (Wing Seng Long & Co.). 19. TAN HONG ENG. 20. LIM CHUN BENG (Wing Seng Long & Co.).



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 Ghee 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 storckeeper, 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.



MESSRS. YONG LEE SENG & CO.

**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



**CHOP CHOO KWANG LEE.**

THE TILE FACTORY AT WAT SAREK.

THE INTERIOR OF THE FACTORY.

CHOO YOON (Proprietor).



TAN TAI GUAN.

1. THE FAMILY HOUSE.

2. TAN HONG JOO.

3. THE LATE TAN BOO WEE.

4. SEOW HOOD SENG.

5. THE FAMILY GROUP.

directions. For instance, Mr. Choo Yoon, the proprietor of the firm known by the chop Choo Kwang Lee, has succeeded in establishing a factory for the manufacture of all classes of tiles, which is now doing a flourishing business, is situated at Samsen, on the bank of the Menam river, and gives constant employment to about seventy workmen. The tiles are made from imported cement and are in great demand, having been very largely used in all the latest buildings in Bangkok.

In addition to this factory Mr. Choo Yoon has a store at Watkok, where he does a large trade in ironware, nails, paints, and oilmen's stores. This business was founded by him some twenty-five years ago; the factory he established seven years later. Mr. Choo Yoon is a British subject, and has now made his home in Bangkok.

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 speciality 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 comprador. 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 comprador to the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China at Bangkok since the Siam 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 comprador 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. Wei Yuk, 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 BOON GEOK (Cashier, Borneo Company, Ltd.).
- 3. KOW SOON HUAT (Cashier, East Asiatic Company).
- 4. LIM CHENG CHUAN.
- 5. NEO MANN NGIAN.
- 6. SEOW KENG LIN (Compradore, Windsor & Co.).
- 7. WONG HANG CHOW (Compradore, Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation, Ltd.).
- 8. SAM HING SI (Compradore, Banque de l'Indo-Chine).
- 9. LIM CHENG THEAM.

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 comprador to the local branch of the Banque de l'Indo-Chine. This he accepted, and has been in complete charge of their comprador's department since that



TOWKAY TAY KOON TEO.

1. THE RESIDENCE.

2. TAY KOON TEO AND FAMILY.

3. TAY KOON TEO.

4. TAY CHENG (son.)

(See p. 290.)



TOWKAY TAE HONG (YI KOH HONG).

YI KOH HONG'S RESIDENCE.  
THE FAMILY OF YI KOH HONG.  
(See p. 290.)

time. Mr. Sam Hing Si is still a young man, being now only thirty-five years of age, and the success he has achieved is a high tribute to his energy and financial ability. He is a man, too, with generous instincts, and he takes a considerable interest in the well-being of his fellow-countrymen in Bangkok. In 1904 he founded a local branch of the Po Leung Kuk (or Society of Charity), which has since done much excellent work in the protection of Chinese girls and boys, and in rescuing unfortunate Chinese children from slavery. But this is only one instance of the many where his sympathy for those in the less fortunate circumstances of life has taken practical shape. He is always willing to help on a good cause, and an appeal to him for assistance from those really in need is rarely made in vain.

**Mr. Kow Soon Huat**, who holds the responsible position of cashier to the East Asiatic Company, Ltd., is the son of Mr. Kow Swee Siong, a former employee of the Siamese Customs Service. Mr. Kow Soon Huat was born in Bangkok, where his father is still living, but was educated in Singapore, and has a good command of the English language. He has occupied his present position for the last four years.

**Mr. Kho Teck Chye**, who has for the past three years held the post of cashier to the East Asiatic Company's sawmill in Bangkok, was born and educated in Singapore. On leaving school he entered the service of a Straits business house. Afterwards he was, for several years, employed by the Borneo Company in Bangkok, and then, returning to Singapore, he remained for two years in the shipping office of Messrs. Behn, Meyer & Co. before taking up his residence again in Bangkok. Mr. Kho Teck Chye's success in business, which has been considerable, furnishes another example of the advantages the Straits-born Chinese receive in the shape of good, sound English education.

**Mr. Lee Boon Geok** has been for half a century in the active service of the Borneo Company, Ltd. He was born in Malacca and received an excellent English education at the Malacca High School. At the age of eighteen he arrived at Bangkok and immediately joined his present employers, and, up till quite recently, held the important position of cashier, a post he relinquished solely on account of his age. He has always been regarded as a valued servant by the company, and at the conclusion of his fifty years' service received what was to him a most gratifying expression of goodwill and esteem from the board of directors and managers. Mr. Lee Boon Geok, who is a British subject and a recognised leader among the Chinese in all public affairs, took an active part in raising the fund for the Queen Victoria Memorial, which was erected largely by Chinese subscriptions. He has, of course, seen many improvements effected in the appearance of the city, and even during his residence in Bangkok land values have in some quarters risen by 300 per cent. Mr. Lee Boon Geok has also achieved no little fame as the discoverer of "new cures" for leprosy and poisonous snake bites.

**Mr. Seow Keng Lin**, the son of Mr. Seow Teck Boo, was born in Singapore in 1862, and after receiving an English education at Raffles Institution, he entered the service of Messrs. Guthrie & Co., a well-known firm in Singapore, where he remained for five years. Arriving in Bangkok in 1885, he joined the firm of Messrs. Windsor & Co. three years later as an assistant. Subsequently he was promoted to the responsible position of compradore, and now controls the whole of the firm's buying business in rice. In many other directions also Mr. Seow Keng Lin's business enterprise has manifested itself. He holds the post of compradore to the firm of Messrs. Steel Bros., and is a

large rice and general broker, handling a great deal of the rice output of many of the mills in Bangkok. He is a member of the committees of the local Chinese club, of the Chinese hospital, and also of the new Chinese school which is now being established.

**Mr. Kwok Chim**, who has for twenty-six years been connected with the shipping of the port of Bangkok, is now the head of the principal Chinese stevedoring company in the city and contractor to Messrs. Windsor & Co. for the loading and unloading of the large fleet of steamers, including those of the Norddeutscher Coasting Service, for which they are agents. To carry out this large amount of work this contract entails over one thousand coolies are kept constantly employed. Mr. Kwok Chim is a native of Canton, the capital of the Kwang Tung province of China, but he has now made his home in Bangkok. When he first came to Siam he joined Messrs. Windsor & Co. as an assistant. After ten years he was transferred to the stevedoring department, of which ten years later he was placed in full charge. Subsequently he formed a company of his own, and has since, as stated, carried out the work for Messrs. Windsor & Co. by contract.

**Mr. Lim Kian Seng**, who has been in charge of the cashier's department at Messrs. Markwald & Co.'s for close on half a century, is a native of Pinang. After receiving a good education in English at the Pinang Free School, he came to Bangkok in 1861, and very shortly after his arrival entered the service of Messrs. A. Markwald & Co., where he has remained ever since. Mr. Lim Kian Seng is a member of a family which is well known and highly respected in Pinang; and the home known as Pinang Hall, which he maintains in his native town, and where his mother, a lady of eighty-four years of age, is still living, is one of the finest in the island. Mr. Lim Kian Seng has several sons in business. The eldest, Mr. Lim Cheng Chuan, is the chief storekeeper of Messrs. Diethelm & Co.; the second, Mr. Lim Cheng Keat, is cashier to the Standard Oil Company of New York; the third, Mr. Lim Cheng Song, is in business on his own account; while the fourth, Mr. Lim Cheng Theam, is cashier to the British American Tobacco Company, Ltd.

**Mr. Neo Mann Ngian**, the chief Chinese assistant in the shipping department (N.D.L. Orient Line) of Messrs. A. Markwald & Co., is a member of a family well known in local business circles. One of his brothers, Mr. Neo Mann Foong, is in the service of the East Asiatic Company as an import compradore; another brother, Mr. Neo Mann Cheen, is with Messrs. R. Lentz & Co., the Court photographers, as a bookkeeper; while a third, Mr. Neo Mann Fong, is in the employment of Messrs. Behn, Meyer & Co. Mr. Neo Mann Ngian, who was born in Bangkok and received an excellent education in English both in his native town and at Raffles Institution, Singapore, has been with Messrs. Markwald & Co. for three years, during which time he has been chiefly responsible for the bulk of the cargo business carried on by the Hongkong and coast services of the Norddeutscher Lloyd Orient Line. He is a keen sportsman, and is very fond of shooting and other outdoor recreations.

**Mr. Chin Wong Teng**, the compradore to the Standard Oil Company, was born and educated in Singapore, and obtained his early business experience in the Straits Settlements. He secured his present position some three years ago.

**Mr. Wee Boon Seng** is one of the oldest Chinese business men in Bangkok. He was born and educated in Malacca, and on coming to Bangkok, over forty years ago, he at once entered the service of the firm of Messrs. A. Markwald & Co., where for thirty-eight years

he held the post of compradore; and a change in the ownership of the company occurring a few years since, Mr. Wee Boon Seng retired from active business, but his son, Mr. Wee Hoon Moh, continues to carry on the family tradition. Mr. Wee Hoon Moh was born in Bangkok, and received a good English education at Raffles Institution, Singapore. On returning to his native city he joined his father as assistant and remained in Messrs. Markwald & Co.'s service for fourteen years. Some three years ago he obtained his present position of storekeeper to the Standard Oil Company of New York.

**Mr. Tae Hong**, or as he is familiarly known in Bangkok, Mr. Yi Koh Hong, is a native of Siam, his father, who was for a long time a prominent business man both in this country and in Burma, having come to Bangkok from the Taichew Province of China (Swatow). After completing his education in Chinese, Yi Koh Hong started business in Bangkok on his own account, and has now, for upwards of twenty years, been a lottery, gambling, 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 Hong is fifty-eight years of age, and has six sons, some of whom are in China completing their education, while his eldest son is in Bangkok assisting his father in his extensive undertakings. Mr. Yi Koh Hong is a mandarin of the fourth class, a member of the Order of the Grand Dragon de l'Annam, and a Grand Chancelier de la 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 best known Chinese residents in Siam. A native of Swatow, he came to Bangkok when quite a young man, and is now sixty-one years of age. His business career 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 was chiefly taken up with opium, spirit, and gambling farms. He paid many hundreds of ticals to the Treasury for these monopolies, but it was money well 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 decorated with the Crystal Button and the Peacock's Feather by the Chinese Government. He has now retired from business, having handed over the management of his 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 Kai 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 quite considerable fortune during the twenty-five years he has been resident in Bangkok. At different periods he has been an opium farmer under 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 is also the owner of an important business in Sampeng known by the chop Ban Ann, which, in addition to his other interests, is managed during his absence by his nephew, Mr. Tan Peak Joo. Mr. Tan Kai Ho has never been forgetful of his less fortunate fellow-countrymen in the success which has attended his various 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 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.



**O**NLY 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 flints 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-roller 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.



L. R. DE LA MAHOTIÈRE.

(City Engineer and Chief Engineer, Sanitary Department, Ministry of Local Government.)

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 water 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 solidly 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 from time to time come under the consideration of the authorities. Of these the most acceptable to the Government has been that which advocated the adoption of a hydro-pneumatic system, but so far the system has not been given a trial.

Refuse is removed from the neighbourhood by means of carts provided by the authorities for the purpose, and is deposited in various open spaces 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 super-

vision 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 Chilean 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 archaeological 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 1864 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 similar fashion. Legal proceedings were instituted against it 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

published regularly during what must be considered a record period, up to that time, of seventeen years. In 1886, 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



THE OFFICES OF THE "BANGKOK TIMES."

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'Encourt, 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 Eatonsvillian 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, 1869, the *Siam Weekly Advertiser* was established, and was

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 1887, 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 Siam Observer.

FIRST DAILY TO BE PUBLISHED IN SIAM

ANGKOR (1911) 1912

BANGKOK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 18, 1911

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"MOP"  
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# The Bangkok Times.

ESTABLISHED 1897

THURSDAY, AUGUST 18, 1911

**STEAM NAVIGATION CO**  
K.A.O.

**N. D. L.**  
NORTH GERMAN LLOYD

**THE SAN FRANCISCO CEMENT WORKS**

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COPY 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 1903 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.



THE OFFICES OF THE "SIAM OBSERVER."

"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, 1887. 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, 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, 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. Mundie, 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 success in Bangkok. There had been several attempts made to establish such a journal, but all had ended in failure. In 1893, 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 was occurring, 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 best be supplied.

They had neither printing plant nor anything that goes 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 Bangkolem; and here, after the vexatious 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 to-day. 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 Hong-kong. 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 *Hioigo 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 twice 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



A COPY OF THE "CHINO-SIAMESE DAILY NEWS."

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 Kong 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.

to take up a responsible appointment in the Government service.

Mr. Chan King Wah, the Chinese editor, is



SEOW HOOD SENG.

(Proprietor and Managing Editor of the *Chino-Siamese Daily News*.)



CHAN KING WAH.

(Chinese Editor of the *Chino-Siamese Daily News*.)

among the reform party in China, but is often found at variance with those in favour of a continuance of the old *régime*. The paper's

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

also a man of strong character. A native of Canton, he came to Bangkok some years ago and founded the *Menam Kong Poh*, to which



MR. O'LEARY DEMPSEY (English Editor).

"SIAM FREE PRESS."

THE OFFICES.

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 Britishers. 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 *Yafan 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 1896, 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.



THE OFFICE OF "THE CHINO-SIAMESE DAILY NEWS."





## INDICES

### INDEX TO LETTERPRESS.

- ADMINISTRATION of Justice, 94-96  
 Advice to New Residents, 129-132  
 Aksoranit Printing Office, 260  
 Allegri, C., 292  
 Ambrose, E., 142  
 André, J. R., 273  
 Army, 101-105  
 Arracan Company, Ltd., 149  
 Badman, Harry A. & Co., 270  
 Bamrong Nukul Kitch Printing Office, 260  
 Bangkok, 238-253  
   British Club, 252  
   Clubs and Theatres, 247  
   Deutscher Klub, 252  
   Dispensary, 275  
   Dock Company, Ltd., 195  
   Dvi Panya Club, 253  
   Gambling Houses, 248  
   Grand Palace, 245  
   Highways, 291  
   Manufacturing Company, Ltd., 270  
   Museum, 251  
   National Library, 248  
   Places of Interest in Neighbourhood, 248  
   Population, 243  
   Sanitation, 291  
   Times, 295  
   United Club, 252  
   Water Supply, 291-292  
   Wats (Temples), 246  
 Banque de l'Indo-Chine, 118  
 Barmen Export-Gesellschaft, 263  
 Beckett, Walter Ralph Durie, 99  
 Behn, Meyer & Co., Ltd., 143  
 Bhaskarawongse, H.E. Chow Phya, 253  
 Bibadhana, Phya Varabongsa, 254  
 Black, John Stewart, 96  
 Bombay - Burma Trading Corporation, Ltd., 181  
 Borneo Company, Ltd., 175  
 British - American Tobacco Company, Ltd., 263  
 British Court for Siam, 95  
 British Dispensary, 275  
 Buddhism, 207-214  
 Budenbender, Dr. Hermann, 98  
 Bun Hong Long & Co., 143  
 Canals, 200  
 Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, Ltd., 120  
 Cheah Chee Seng, 287  
 Chee Tsze Ting, 281  
 Chinese Hospital, 134  
*Chino-Siamese Daily News*, 295  
 Chin Wong Teng, 290  
 Chop Choo Kwang Lee, 285  
 Chop Chan Kim Kee, 161  
 Chop Fook Wah Shan Kee, 169  
 Chop Low Ban Seng, 169  
 Chop Wong Li, 169  
 Chop Yong Tet Hin Tai, 282  
 Ciccodicola, Commendatore Federico, 99  
 Climate, 128-130  
   Data for Bangkok, 132  
 Coinage and Currency, 116-118  
 Commercial Section, 257-260  
 Constitution and Law, 91  
 Consular Representatives, 97-99  
 Corbett, A. J. & Co., 193  
 Customs and Manners, 220-225  
 Dehlholm, H., 198  
 de Jesus, F. V., 179  
 De Margerie, Pierre, 97  
 Denny, Mott & Dickson, Ltd., 174  
 Diethelm & Co., Ltd., 267  
 Dunlop, John M., 198  
 Dusson, Henri, 96  
 East Asiatic Company, Ltd., 143, 181  
 Ecclesiastical, 207-217  
   Buddhism, 207-214  
   Protestant Church, 216, 217  
   Roman Catholic Church, 214, 215  
 Edie, J. W., 99  
 Education, 226-234  
 Eltekoff, Nicholas K., 98  
 Eng Liang Yong Sawmills, 181  
 Engineering, 186-198  
 Expenditure (State), 113, 115 11  
 Falck & Beidek, 263  
 Finance, 112-120  
 Flores, Luiz Leopoldo, 99  
 Frankfurter, Dr. Oscar, 251  
 Frere, A., 98  
 Gendarmerie, 110, 111  
 Giblin, Ronald W., 127  
 Grabert, F. & Co., 275  
 Grimm, B. & Co., 267  
 Guan Heng Seng and Guan Heng Chan Rice Mills, 157  
 Guan Tit Lee & Co., 165  
 Hays, Dr. T. Hayward, 134  
 Heide, J. Homan van der, 202  
 Highways and Sanitation of Bangkok, 291  
 Hiranjakitch, Phra Sanpakarn, 254  
 History—  
   Ancient history, 15; the Portuguese period, 16; Camoens' description of Siam in the "Lusiad," 16; Early Dutch and English connection, 17; the English East India Company establishes factories at Ayuthia and Patani, 18; attempt to open up trade between Patani and Japan, 20; Dutch rivalry, 22; attack on the English by the Dutch and destruction of the Patani establishment, 22; hostilities between Portugal and Siam, 24; new attempt in 1660 to establish English factories in Siam, 24; burning of the English factory at Ayuthia, 26; rise to power of the Greek adventurer, Constantine Phaulkon, 26; English mission to Ayuthia, 30; quarrel between Phaulkon and an English factor, 32; departure of the English factors, 35; Siamese mission to France; 36; imposing French mission to Siam, 38; war between Siam and Golconda, 39; Samuel White, Shabbander of Mergui, summoned to Ayuthia on charges connected with the war, 40; Macassar rising at Ayuthia, 41; Sir John Child sends a fresh trading expedition to Siam, 42; war made on Siam by the East India Company, 42; massacre of the English at Mergui, 43; Samuel White flees to England, 44; the second French embassy, 44; disaffection at Ayuthia, 44; Phra-Phet-Raxa seizes the reins of power, 46; Phaulkon imprisoned at the palace, 46; his tragic end, 46; death of the king and crowning of the usurper, 48; overtures to the East India Company for the re-opening of trade, 48; decline of Siamese prosperity, 48; death of Phra-Phet-Raxa, 48; war made on Cambodia, 48; Burmese invasion of the country under Alompra, 50; sack and destruction of Ayuthia, 51; rise of an usurper of Chinese descent, 51; capital established at Bangkok, 52; Siamese expedition to the Malay Peninsula, 52; revolt and dethronement of the usurper, 52; the present Siamese dynasty established, 52; Siamese invasion of Kedah, 52; Mr. J. Crawford conducts a mission to Siam, 53; failure of the mission, 57; accession of a new king, 57; conclusion of the treaty of Bangkok, 57; the United States mission to Siam in 1833, 58; Sir James Brooke conducts an abortive mission to Siam in 1850, 58; second American mission, 59; Sir John Bowring goes as British envoy to Siam in 1855, 59; he concludes a treaty, 62; a new reign, 63; employment of European officials, 64; mission to England, 64; accession of the present king, 64; French colonial expansion, 70; its effect on Siam, 71; capture of Luang Prabang by the Chin Haws, 71; proposals for a Franco-British understanding relative to Siam, 71; delimitation of the Burmese and Siamese frontiers, 71; Mr. W. J. Archer's report, 71; Franco-Siamese Delimitation Commission at work, 72; French claims to territory in the Mekong watershed, 72; further proposals for a Franco-British understanding relative to Siam, 74; collision between French and Siamese forces, 74; growth of the war spirit in Siam, 75; arrival of French warships at the mouth of the Menam, 75; they pass up to Bangkok under fire from the Siamese forts, 75; despatch of an ultimatum to the Siamese Government, 76; a blockade established, 76; negotiations between the British and French Governments, 76; a convention signed at Bangkok by the French and Siamese representatives,

- History (*continued*)—  
 80; Franco-British agreement relative to the frontier, 80; commercial progress, 81; rice cultivation, 81; railway construction, 81; proposed new Anglo-Siamese Agreement, 81; description of Kelantan, 82; the political history of Trengganu, 84  
 Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, Ltd., 119  
 Hospital Statistics, 133  
 Howarth Erskine, Ltd., 192  
 Irwin, Arthur J., 127  
 Jendarata Rubber Company, Ltd., 192  
 Joo Seng Heng Bank, 118  
 Joo Seng, Messrs., 157  
 Kee Chiang & Sons, 257  
 Kho Teck Chye, 290  
 Kim Cheng Rice Mill, 157  
 Kim Seng Lee & Co., 161  
 King, Hamilton, 98  
 Kings of Siam, 85  
 Koh Hong Lee, 151  
 Koh Mah Wah & Co., 165  
 Kow Soon Huat, 290  
 Kruse, W., 278  
 Kwa, Chaman Chong, 256  
 Kwang Hap Seng Rice Mills, 152  
 Kwok Chim, 290  
 Kwong Ngan Fong, 179  
 Language of Siam, 218, 219  
 Laporte, G. Osmiu, 97  
 Lau Beng Seng, 169  
 Law, Old and New, 91-94  
 Lee Boon Geok, 290  
 Lee Cheng Chan and Tom Yah Rice Mills, 161  
 Lenz, Robt. & Co., 275  
 Lim Kian Seng, 290  
 Li Tit Guan, 155  
 Louis T. Leonowens, Ltd., 267  
 Luang Suwanakit Chamnarn, 260  
 McArthur, J. D. & Co., Ltd., 192  
 Mackay, Joseph, 142  
 MacMurray, John Van A., 98  
 Mahotiére, L. R. de la, 292  
 Manners and Customs, 220-225  
 Markwald, A. & Co., Ltd., 152  
 Maxwell, Norman, 142  
 Means of Communication—Rivers, Roads, Railways, and Canals, 199-204  
 Menam Motor Boat Company, Ltd., 192  
 Merican, M. T. S., 278  
 Messageries Fluviales de Cochín Chine, 143  
 Mines and Mining Administration, 182-185  
 Ministries, 116  
 Mitsui Bussan Kaisha, 278  
 Monod, E. C. et Fils, 263  
 "Monopole" Stores, 281  
 Montri, H. E. Chow Phya Surasakdi, 254  
 Navy, 195-196  
 Naylor, C. J., 96  
 Neo Mann Ngian, 290  
 Niel, C. R. A., 96  
 Nieuwenhuis, F. J. Domela, 97  
 Norddeutscher Lloyd, 143  
 Oriental Hotel, 278  
 Oversea Trade, 135-143  
 Paget, Ralph Spencer, 99  
 Pappayanopulos, C., 281  
 Piolet, A. & Co., 177  
 Police, 107-110  
 Population of Bangkok, 248  
 Posts and Telegraphs, 204-206  
 Potchanakit, Phra Montri, 256  
 Press, The, 293  
 Protestant Church, 216, 217  
 Public Health, 128-134  
 Railways, 202  
 Revenue (State), 112-115  
 Reytter, Dr. E., 134  
 Rice, 144-169  
 Yields, 146  
 Export, 149  
 Riddhisakdi, Luang, 256  
 Rivers, 199, 200  
 Roads, 201, 202  
 Roman Catholic Church, 214, 215  
 Royat Family of Siam, 85-90  
 Sam Hing Si, 287  
 Sampson, John & Son, 273  
 "Sandhabhojana," Ltd., 257  
 Sanitwongse, Dr. Yai S., 254  
 Schau, Colonel G., 111  
 Seng, S. Joo, 118  
 Seow Keng Lin, 290  
 Seckak Dispensary, 278  
 Sheridan, René, 96  
 Shipping—Nationality and Tonnage, 139, 141  
 Siam Commercial Bank, Ltd., 120  
 Siam Electricity Company, Ltd., 188  
 Siam Engineering Company, Ltd., 195  
 Siamese Language, 218, 219  
 Siamese Students Abroad, 234  
 Siamese Tramway Company, Ltd., 192  
 Siam Forest Company, Ltd., 175  
 Siam Free Press, 297  
 Siam Import Company, 263  
 Siam Observer, 295  
 "Siddhibhand" Store, Bangkok, 257  
 Sieng Kee Chan Rice Mills, 165  
 Smart, Sidney, 198  
 Social Section, 253-256  
 Societa Italo-Siamese, 273  
 Société Anonyme Belge, 273  
 Sport, 235-237  
 Sriracha Company, Ltd., 177  
 Standard Oil Company of New York, 263  
 Steel Bros. & Co., Ltd., 155  
 Straits-Siam Mercantile Company, 267  
 Suphan Steam Packet Company, 143  
 Survey, 121-127  
 Suwanakiteli, Phan, 263  
 Swee Ho, H., 281  
 Tae Hong, 290  
 Tanabé Kumasabura, 99  
 Tan Ban Seng Chiang Rice Mill, 157  
 Tan Guan What, 287  
 Tan Kai Ho, 290  
 Tan Keng Whay, 282  
 Tan Tai Guan, 287  
 Tapan Lek Dispensary, 275  
 Teak Industry, The, 170-181  
 Thye Guan Eng Kee Stores, 282  
 Tilleke, Wm. Alfred G., 96  
 Tooth, Lawrence, 96  
 Towkay Tay Koon Teo, 290  
 Transport Company, "Motor," Ltd., 198  
 Turner, His Hon. Judge Skinner, 95  
 Union Dispensary, 281  
 Unverzagt, L. Th., 275  
 Vacuum Oil Company, 275  
 Van der Heide, J. Homan, 202  
 Vincent, His Hon. Judge Arthur Rose, 95  
 Yiratchan-Thorn Dispensary, 260  
 Yon Prollius, Adolph, 98  
 Watson, C. L., 96  
 Wee Boon Seng, 290  
 Windsor & Co., 143  
 Wing Seng Long & Co., 181  
 Wong Hang Chow, 287  
 Wright, G. K., 96  
 Navier Rice Mills, 152  
 Yacovlev, A. G., 98  
 Yong Lee Seng, 285  
 Yong Seng Rice Mill, 155  
 Yoshida Sakuya, 99

## INDEX TO ILLUSTRATIONS.

- ADAMSEN, Dr. H., 276  
 Aksoranit Printing Office, 260  
 Allegri, C., 292  
 American Presbyterian Church, 216  
 Ancient Manuscript, 19  
 Ancient Native Drawings, 33  
 André, J. R.—Premises, 273  
 Army Manœuvres, 104  
 Asadang Road, Bangkok, 240  
 Assumption College, 227  
 Badman, Harry A. & Co., 272  
 Bailey, H. V., 265  
 Banghe Drainage Sluice, 201  
 Bangkok Dispensary, 275  
 Dock Company, Ltd.—Works, Motor Garage, and Dry Dock, 196  
 General View, 238  
 in 1824, 51  
 Manufacturing Company, Ltd. (five views), 270, 271  
 Old Palace, 54  
 Outfitting Company (B. Grimm & Co.), 268  
 Bangkok—Plan of Town, A.D. 1824, 57  
 Royal Decorations, 89  
 Times—copy of front page of an issue, 294  
 Times Offices, 293  
 Bangrak Hospital, 130  
 Bang Yui Yuen, 159  
 Ban Hong Long & Co. (*see* Low Peng, Kang in group), 284  
 Ban Kokwek Navigation Lock, 201  
 Banque de l'Indo-Chine, 119  
 Barlow, A. H., 117  
 Beckett, W. R. D., 97  
 Behn, Meyer & Co., Ltd., 137  
 Bhaskarawongse, H.E. Chow Phya, 253  
 Bopp, F., 265  
 Bossoni, Dr. G., 265  
 Bowring, Sir John, 59  
 Boy Priest, 49  
 Brehmer, W., 264  
 British Club, Bangkok, 252  
 Dispensary (four views), 277  
 Legation, Bangkok, 239  
 Bronze Buddha at Ayuthia, 45  
 Buddhist Priest and Disciple, 223  
 Buddhist Priests, 211  
 Business Men of Bangkok (two groups), 264, 265  
 Cadet School, Prapatom, 110  
 Canal in Bangkok, 200  
 Canals in Siam, Plan of, 202  
 Captain China, 284  
 Central Prison, 109  
 Chamun Chong Bhakdi-ong Kwa, 253  
 Chau Kim Long, 284  
 Chan King Wah—Chinese Editor of the *Chinese-Siamese Daily News*, 296  
 Chao, Phya Vichitwongse Wudikrai, 93  
 Charoen Rajathon, Phra (Lau Chong Min), 167  
 Chee Tsze Ting and his Residence, 281  
 Chinese Business Men and Millers of Bangkok—Group of 20 (also indexed under each name), 284  
 Chinese Dock, 186  
 Engineering Shop, 187  
 Hand Rice Mill, 149  
 Hospital, 134  
 Hospital Committee, 134  
 Chinese Mining in Puket, 184  
*Chino-Siamese Daily News*—(Copy of pages of an issue), 295  
 —Office, 297  
 Ching Wong Teng, 287  
 Choo Yoon, 285  
 Chop Choo Kwang Lee—two views of Tile Factory and portrait of Choo Yoon (proprietor), 285  
 Chop Joo Seng (*see* Nga Keng in group), 284  
 Rice Mill, 157  
 Chop Wong Li, 168  
 Chow Phya Devesra, H.E., 93  
 Chow Phya Surasakim Montri, H.E., 253  
 Christ Church, Bangkok, 216  
 Christian High School, 227  
 Ciccodicola, Major F., 97  
 Clearing Jungle for Rice, 144  
 Coins—Various, 115, 116  
 Colombet, Rev. E. A., 214  
 Compradores and Cashiers, Bangkok—Group of 20 (also indexed against each name), 287  
 Convent, The, 233



- Corbett, A. J., 188  
 A. J. & Co.—Engineering Contracts, 197  
 Courts of Justice, 94  
 Craig, Thos., 264  
 Criminals with Guard, 108  
 Crown Prince of Siam—Full page portrait, 86  
 —in group of Army Officers, 100  
 Crown Prince's Palace, 241  
 Customs House, 142  
  
 Danno, R., 265  
 Daughter of Siamese Nobleman, 249  
 Dehholm, H., 188  
 de Jesus, F. V., 265  
 De la Mahotière, L. R. (also indexed against "Mahotière"), 291  
 De Margerie, P., 97  
 Dempsey, O'Leary—English Editor of the *Siam Free Press*, 296  
 Denny, Mott & Dickson, Ltd.—  
 Offices, 174  
 Saw Mills, 175  
 Wharf, 175  
 Diethelm & Co., Ltd.—Offices and Godowns, 269  
 Drag-road for Timber, 171  
 Dunlop, John M., M.I.N.A., 188  
 Dusit Palace, Bangkok—Dining-room, 90  
 Park, Views in, 239  
 Dusson, Justice Henri, 96  
  
 East Asiatic Co., Ltd., 140, 141  
 —Sawmill and Stock of Teak, 180  
  
 Edie, J. W., 98  
 Elementary School, 228  
 Elephant Hunt, 236  
 Elephants in Ancient War Dress, 36  
 Ellekoff, N. K., 98  
 Eng Luang Yong, 284  
 Extracting Teak Logs, 170  
  
 Facsimile Letter from King to Sir J. Bowring, 60  
 Falck & Beidek—Premises and Show-rooms, 266  
 Falua Navigation Lock, 201  
 Female Dress of Past Days, 56  
 Fishing Boats, Paknam, 248  
 Floating Bazaar, Ayuthia, 21  
 Flores, L. L., 98  
 Francon, J., 264  
 Frankfurter, Dr. O., 251  
  
 Gandy, J. P., 265  
 L. T., 265  
 Gendarmerie School, Prapatom, 111  
 Station, 109  
 German Club, Bangkok, 252  
 Giblin, R. W., 121  
 Girl Making Toilet, 69  
 Government Officials (Group), 115  
 Gahlert, F., 265  
 & Co.—Premises and Specimens, 274  
 Grimm, B. & Co., Views (three) of Premises and Staff, 268  
 Groot, E., 265  
 Groundwater, C. L., 188  
 Grut, Lient. W. L., 188  
 Gna Kim Min, 152  
 Guan Heng Chan Mill, 159  
 Guan Heng Seng Mill, 159  
 Guan Tit Lee, 162  
 Guide Map to Bangkok, 244  
  
 Hair-cutting Ceremony, Prince dressed for, 83  
 Hand Rice Mill, 187  
 Hanucke, H., 188  
 Hays, Dr. T. Heyward, 134  
 Headquarters Staff of Army, 102  
 Hendrick, S. H., 264  
 Henry, Camille, 117  
 Hillyard, R. v. Dr., 217  
 Hong Keng Thong, 166  
 Hong Kong & Shanghai Banking Company, Ltd., 119  
 Hoon Kim Huat and his Brothers, 282  
 Howarth Erskine, Ltd., Business Premises, 194  
 Panfalla Bridge, 195  
 Torpedo Boat Repaired, 195  
  
 Intrathibodi Siharai Rong Muang, H.E. Phya, 92  
 Irrigating Land, 146  
  
 Jacquermyns, The late Rolin, 91  
 Jinricksha, Bangkok, 249  
 Johnson, W. G., 226  
 Joo Seng Heng Bank, 118  
  
 Kee Chiang & Sons (four views of Premises, also portraits of Joseph Kuang Nguang and F. X. Yew Nguang), 259  
 Khun Virat (one of group), 278  
 Kim Cheng & Co.—Mills and Machinery, 160  
 King of Siam, *Frontispiece*  
 King Phrah Putta Lotlah (A.D. 1809-24), 55  
 King's College, 226  
 King's Elephant Chair, 66  
 King's Summer Palace, Bang Pah Inn, 82  
 Klong Doakauong, 199  
 Klong Kut Mai, 200  
 Koch, Walter, 265  
 Koh Hong Lee—Family and House, 150  
 —Mills, 151  
 Koh Kue Hong, 150  
 Koh Mah Wah & Co. (Chop Guan Huat Seng), 165  
 (see Teo Choon Kheng in group, 284)  
  
 Koh Poh Kim, 162  
 Kow Soon Huat (Cashier, East Asiatic Company), 287  
 Kruse, Carl (one of group), 278  
 Kruse, W. (one of group), 278  
 Kwang Hap Seng Rice Mills, 152  
 Kwok Chim, 284  
 Kwong Ngan Fong—Residence and Saw-mills 179  
 Kwong Ngan Long (see Ng Yook Long in group), 284 (see Lam Sam in group, 284)  
  
 Lam Sam (Kwong Ngan Long), 284  
 Lanz, E., 264  
 Laolian Boat, 71  
 Bride, 73  
 Tribesman, 79  
 Lau Beng Seng Rice Mill, 167  
  
 Law, R. Balfour, 188  
 Leang Chi Chaninan Niti, 161  
 Lee Boon Geok (Cashier, Borneo Company, Ltd.), 287  
 Lee Cheng Chan and Tom Yah Rice Mills (with Steam Launches), 161, 164  
 Lennox, A., 188  
 Leong Tuck Sing, 284  
 Leonowens, Louis T., 264  
 —Ltd.—Offices, 267  
 Lim Cheng Chuan, 287  
 Lim Cheng Theam, 287  
 Lim Chun Beng (Wing Seng Long & Co.), 284  
 Lim Teck Lian, 160  
 Li Tit Guan—with Mills and Private Residence, 156  
 Livingstone, W. S., 117  
 Loh Sum (Wing Seng Long & Co.), 284  
 Lotz, F. H., 98  
 Low Ban Seng Mills, with portraits of Managers, 166  
 Low Peng Kang (Ban Hon Long & Co.), 284  
 Luang Damrong Thamasar—Himself and views of Printing Office and School, 262  
 Luang Maitri Wanit (Li Thye Phong), 156  
 Luang Riddhisakdi, 253  
 Luang Suwanakit Chamnarn—Himself and three views, 261  
 Lying-in-State, 65  
  
 Macarthur, J. D., 188  
 & Co., Ltd.—Offices, Store, Motor Launch, &c., 193  
  
 McBeth, J. J., 264  
 Mackay, J., 143  
 Mahotière, L. R. de la, 291  
 Male Dress of Past Days, 56  
 Mandarin of Past Days, 56  
 Markwald, A. & Co.—Mills, 153  
 Loading Rice, 153  
 Ship *R. C. Rickmers*, 153  
  
 Masao, Dr. T., 95  
 Mayne, E. H. V., 265  
 Menam River, Bangkok, 135  
 Floating House, 52  
 From Royal Palace, 240  
 Rapids, 20  
 Native Craft and Floating House, 136  
 View on the, 17  
  
 Merican, M. T. S., 278  
 Ministry of Household—Offices, 241  
 Interior—Offices, 241  
  
 Mohr, A., 98  
 Monod, E. C., 264  
 Montri Potchanakit, Phra, 253  
 Murchie, James, 188  
  
 Nai Nieang Pra Prisarn, Mrs., 150  
 Nai Pin Thep Chalerm, with his Family, Works, and Residence, 138  
 Nai Thouay (Sandhabhojana, Ltd.), 257  
 National Library, Bangkok, 250  
 Native Racing Canoe, 236  
 Naval Dock Yard, 105  
 Naylor, C. J., 96  
 Neo Mann Cheen, 284  
 Neo Mann Fong, 284  
 Nen Mann Foong, 284  
 Neo Mann Ngian, 287  
  
 New Road, The, Bangkok, 239  
 Nga Keng (Chop Joo Seng), 284  
 Ngo Kim Mui, 152  
 Ngo Luk Szu, 152  
 Nguang, Joseph Kuang, and F. X. Yew, 259  
 Ng Yook Long (Kwong Ngan Long), 284  
 Niel, C. R. A., 95  
 Nieuwenhuis, F. J. Domela, 97  
 Normal College, 230  
 Nursing Home, Bangkok, 128  
  
 Old City Wall, 241  
 Old Mill Stones, 151  
 Oriental Hotel (three views), 279  
  
 Page, Reg., 264  
 Paget, Ralph, 97  
 Palace containing Ashes of Former Kings (as in A.D. 1824), 58  
 Pappayanopoulos, C.—Four views of Cigarette Factory and portrait of Mr. G. Pappayanopolos, 280  
 Peasant Women, 47  
 Petchaburi Caves, 32  
 Hills, 31  
 Phan Suwauakitch, and Premises of Firm, 263  
 Phipat Kosa, H.E. Phya, 92  
 Phra Chede and Wat, Prapatom, 38  
 Phra Chedi, Klang Nam, 209  
 Phya Bariboon Kosakorn, H.E. (Li Guat Chew), 156  
 Phya Chuduk Rajasethee, H.E. (Phook) (two portraits), 156  
 Piolet, A. & Company—Saw Mill, 177  
 Plague Hospital, 130  
 Ploughing for Rice, 145  
 Poh Chin Soo, The late, 150, 162  
 Poh Lee Chye, The late, 150  
 Police Officers, 108  
 and Men, 107  
 Posts and Telegraphs—  
 Post Office, 206  
 Staff, 206  
 Suburban Letter Box, 205  
 Pounding Rice, 148  
 Pozzi, T., 265  
 Prapatom Pagoda, 123  
 Price, Hamilton, 264  
 Prince Benya, H.R.H., 92  
 Chao Fa Bhanurangsi, 93  
 Chao Fa Krom Luang Narisara Nuwattiwongse, H.R.H., 93  
 Krom Luang Damrong, H.R.H., 93  
 Krom Luang Devawongse Varoprakar, 93  
 Krom Luang Nares Voraridhi, 93  
 Mom Chow Prom, 136  
 Nakonchaisi (Portrait, and in group), 100  
 Nakonsawan, 105  
 of Chantlaburi, 93  
 of Kampengpetch, 100  
 of Rajaburi, 93  
 Pitsanuloh, 100  
 Prominent Siamese Officials (Group), 92  
 Pruss, C., 265  
  
 Queen of Siam, *Frontispiece*  
  
 Rafting Teak Logs, 173  
 Railways—  
 Bangkok Station, 203  
 Cutting near Hin Lap, 205

- Railways (*continued*)—  
 King's Private Station, Samsen, 203  
 Line near Prapatom, 202 to Korat, 204  
 Petchaburi Station, 203  
 Yard at Bangkok, 203
- Reaping Rice, 147
- Representatives of Bangkok Engineering Firms, Group of 14 (also indexed against each name), 188
- Review of Troops, 101
- Reyfter, Dr. E., 134
- Rice Boat, 148
- Rickmers, R., 264
- Roberts, C., 264
- Roman Catholic Cathedral, 215
- Royal Cremation, 224  
 Military College, 103  
 Museum, Bangkok, 251  
 Palace, " 88  
 " and Pagoda, Petchaburi, 88  
 " in 1824, 53  
 Prince in Dress of Past Day, 54  
 Procession, 103  
 White Elephant, 62  
 Yacht, 105
- Ruins of Wat Yai, Ayuthia, 20
- St. Louis General Hospital, Bangkok, 129
- Sam Hing Si (Compradore, Banque de l'Indo-Chine), 287
- Sampeng (the Native City of Bangkok), Views in, 246
- Sampson, F., 265
- Samsen Rice Mill, 162
- Sandhabhojana, Ltd. (with Nai Thouay), 257
- Sanitwongse, Dr. Yai S., 253
- Sanpakarn Hiranjakitch, H.E. Phra (two views), 254  
 Three views of Residences, 255  
 Himself and Family, 256
- Schau, Colonel G., 110
- Schwarze, P., Manager of Siam Commercial Bank, Ltd., 117
- Sea Gipsies, 222
- Secondary School, 228
- Seekak Dispensary (with Dr. H. Adamsen and his farm implements), 276
- Seng Heng Mill, 163  
 S. Joo, 118
- Seow Hood Seng—Proprietor and Managing Editor of the *Chino-Siamese Daily News*, 206
- Seow Keng Lin (Compradore, Windsor & Co.), 287
- Sheridan, René, 95
- Shrine of Khow Phrabatr, 25
- Siam Commercial Bank, 117  
 Electricity Company, Ltd.—  
 European Staff, &c., 189  
 Power Station, 190  
 Workshop, 190  
 Forest Company, Ltd.—Offices, Sawmills, and Timber Shed, 176  
*Free Press*—English Editor (Mr O'Leary Dempsey) and Offices, 296  
*Observer*—Copy of front page of an issue, 294  
 Offices, 295
- Siamese Actors and Musicians, 221  
 Brahmin Priests, 42  
 Girl, 77  
 House on a Klong, 247  
 Lady of Noble Birth, 247  
 Official of Past Days, 53  
 Troops, 100
- Siddhibhand (three views), 258
- Sieng Huat Mill, 163  
 Kee Chan Mill, 163
- Sim Kaing Leng, 166  
*Singapore*, S.S., 157
- Siriaysawan, Phra, and Wife, 260
- Smart, W. Sidney, 188
- Smith, A. A., 264
- Smyth, J. S., 188
- Somdetch Chao Phaja, Pagoda of, 61
- Sowing Rice, 145
- Sports Club, Bangkok, 235
- Sriracha Company, Ltd., Sawmills, &c., 178
- Sriraj Hospital and Medical College, 130
- Sri Sahadebh, H.E. Phya, 92
- Sri Sunthara Wohara, H.E. Phya, 92
- State Barge on the Menam, 37
- Street Scene, Bangkok, 241  
 Paknam, 246
- Strobel, The late Edward H., 92
- Sukhum Nayvinit, Phya, 93
- Survey Department, Bangkok, 122  
 Field Staff, 124  
 School, Prize-giving, 122
- Swanson, J. H., 188
- Swee Ho, H.—Two views of Dispensary and portrait of Hoon Kim Huat and his Brothers, 282
- Swinging Festival, 220  
 Procession, 222
- Tae Hong. Towkay—Himself, Family, and Residence (also indexed against Yi Koh Hong), 280
- Tan Ban Seng Chiang Rice Mills (with Owner and Manager), 158
- Tan Guan What, 284  
 Hong Eng, 284  
 Kai Ho, 284  
 Keng Whay, with his business Premises, 283  
 Kwong Tee, 163  
 Lip Buoy, 168  
 Residence, 169
- Tai Guan—Family group and house with portraits of Tan Hong Joo, the late Tan Boo Wee, and Seow Hood Seng, 286  
 Thuan Heang, 158  
 Yeong Siak, 158
- Tay Koon Teo—His Son (Tay Cheng), Family, and Residence (also indexed against Towkay Tay Koon Teo), 288
- Temple of Buddha at Khow Phrabatr, 207  
 School, 228
- Teo Choon Kheng (Koh Mah Wah & Co.), 284
- Thouay Nai (Sandhabhojana, Ltd.), 257
- Threshing Rice, 148
- Throne Room, 87
- Tilleke, W. A. G., 95
- Tom Yah, 161
- Tooth, Lawrence, 95
- Towkay Leong Shau Shan (Fook Wah Shan Kee Mills), 284  
 Tay Koon Teo, with portrait of Tay Koon Teo and his Family also view of his Residence, 288
- Tramways Route, Bangkok, 242
- Transplanting Rice, 147
- Travelling Theatre, 223
- Turner, Mr. Justice Skinner, 95
- Types of Siamese Men, 243
- United Club, Bangkok, 252
- Vajiranana Jinoros, Prince, 212
- Van der Heide, J. Homan, 199
- Varabongsa Bibadhana, H.E. Phya—Chamberlain to the King, 253
- Vey, Right Rev. J. L., 214
- Views in Bangkok, 245
- Warwick, A. C., 265
- Wata-naga Temple, Spire of, 63
- Wat Chaiya Mongkhon, 40  
 Che-Di-Luang, Chiangmai, 123  
 Cheng, from the land, 213  
 from river, 35  
 Phra Keo, 209  
 Courtyard, 29  
 Chief Entrance, 210  
 Phra, Prang Luang, 23  
 Poh, four views, 208  
 with Sleeping Buddha, 198  
 Rajabopitr—Views of, 212  
 Saket (Poo Kau Tawng), 213  
 Suthat, 213  
 Interior, 27  
 Stone carvings, 39  
 Thepsurindr, 213  
 Thong Kam, Paklat, 213
- Watson, C. L., 95
- Westenholtz, Aage, 188
- Wild Elephants in Kraal, 235
- Wilkins, H., 265
- Williamson, W. J. F., 114
- Wing Seng Long & Co., Sawmill, 180  
 (see Wong Fui, in group, 284)  
 (see Lim Chun Beng, in group, 284)  
 (see Loh Sum, in group, 284)
- Wong Fui (Wing Seng Long & Co.), 284  
 Hang Chow (Compradore, Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, Ltd.), 287
- Wood, W. W., 264
- Working Teak Timber, 172
- Xavier Rice Mills (four various views), 154
- Yacovlew, A. G., 97
- Yi Koh Hong—Himself, Family, and Residence, 289
- Yong Hiang Siew—with his Wife, Son, Father, and Mother; also private Residence, 283  
 Lee Seng & Co.—Premises, 285  
 Seng Rice Mill, with Owner (Pan Ou Keng) and Family, 155
- Yoshida, Sakuya, 97
- Young Princess, 249
- Ziegenbein, A., 265







TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS  
OF  
BRITISH MALAYA

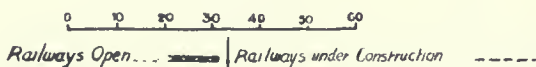




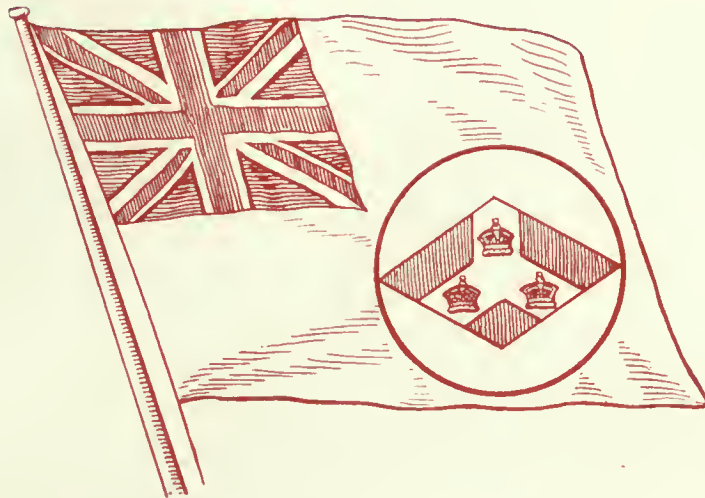


# A MAP OF THE MALAY PENINSULA

Scale of Statute Miles







# Twentieth Century Impressions

of

## British Malaya:

ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE,  
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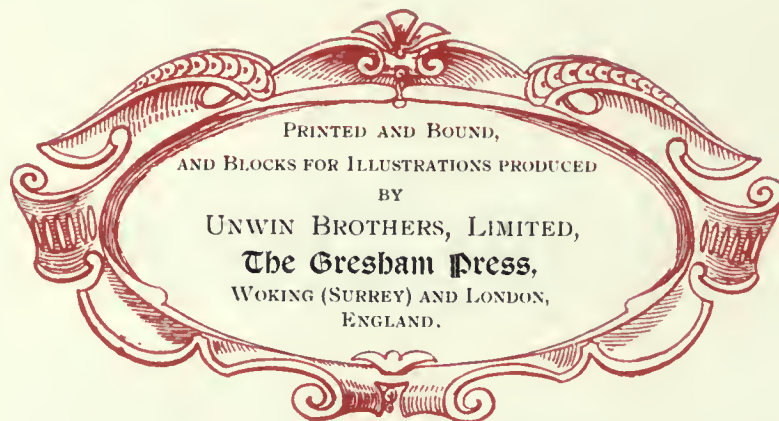
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HIS EXCELLENCY SIR JOHN ANDERSON, K.C.M.G., GOVERNOR AND COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES, AND CONSUL-GENERAL FOR BRITISH NORTH BORNEO, BRUNEL, AND SARAWAK.

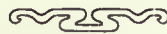


MISS ANDERSON.





## 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.*

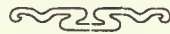
*Briefly, the aim which the publishers keep steadily before them is to give a perfect microcosm of the colony or dependency treated. As old Stow with patient application and scrupulous regard for accuracy set himself to survey the London of his day, so the workers employed in the production of this series 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.*



# CONTENTS

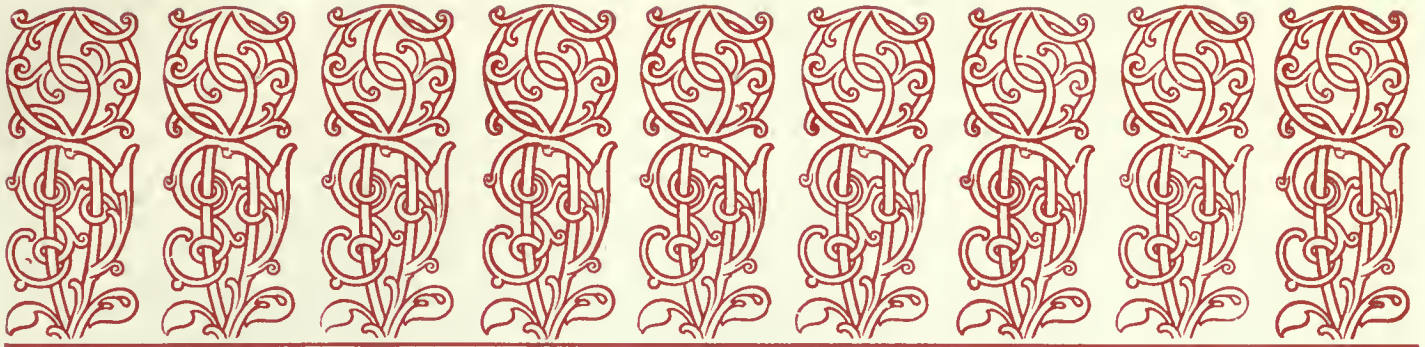


	PAGE
THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS. BY ARNOLD WRIGHT—	
EARLY HISTORY . . . . .	13
SINGAPORE . . . . .	20
PINANG (INCLUDING PROVINCE WELLESLEY AND THE DINDINGS) . . . . .	49
MALACCA . . . . .	65
THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES. BY ARNOLD WRIGHT (with chapters on the early history of the Malays and the Portuguese and Dutch Periods by R. J. WILKINSON, <i>Secretary to the Resident of Perak</i> ) . . . . .	
	74
CHRISTMAS ISLAND, THE COCOS-KEELING ISLANDS, AND LABUAN . . . . .	
	115
THE PRESENT DAY . . . . .	
	117
LIST OF GOVERNORS AND HIGH COMMISSIONERS . . . . .	
	120
THE POPULATION OF MALAYA. BY MRS. REGINALD SANDERSON . . . . .	
	121
THE MALAYS OF BRITISH MALAYA. BY B. O. STONEY, <i>Hon. Sec. of the Malay Settlement, Kuala Lumpur</i> . . . . .	
	131
MALAY LITERATURE. BY R. J. WILKINSON . . . . .	
	138
NATIVE ARTS AND HANDICRAFTS. BY L. WRAY, I.S.O., M.I.E.E., F.Z.S., M.R.P.S., ETC., <i>Director of Museums, Federated Malay States.</i> . . . . .	
	141
FAUNA. BY H. C. ROBINSON, <i>Curator, Selangor Museum</i> . . . . .	
	154
SPORT. BY THEODORE R. HUBBACK . . . . .	
	164
CONSTITUTION AND LAW . . . . .	
	173
RAILWAYS . . . . .	
	176
BOTANY. BY H. N. RIDLEY, M.A., F.R.S., F.L.S., F.R.H.S., ETC., <i>Director of the Botanical Gardens, Singapore</i> . . . . .	
	185
AGRICULTURE. BY R. DERRY, <i>Assistant Superintendent, Botanical Gardens, Singapore</i> . . . . .	
	191
RUBBER. BY J. B. CARRUTHERS, F.R.S.E., F.L.S., <i>Director of Agriculture and Government Botanist, Federated Malay States.</i> . . . . .	
	195
MINING . . . . .	
	209
FISHERIES . . . . .	
	215
METEOROLOGY . . . . .	
	217



	PAGE
GEOLOGY OF THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES. By J. B. SCRIVENOR, <i>Government Geologist</i> , <i>Federated Malay States</i> . . . . .	219
HARBOURS . . . . .	220
THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS—	
SINGAPORE . . . . .	231
PINANG . . . . .	245
MALACCA . . . . .	254
THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES—	
KUALA LUMPOR . . . . .	257
PERAK . . . . .	265
SELANGOR . . . . .	273
NEGRI SAMBILAN . . . . .	276
PAHANG . . . . .	280
JOHORE . . . . .	284





# Twentieth Century Impressions of British Malaya:

ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE, INDUSTRIES, AND RESOURCES

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## THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

By ARNOLD WRIGHT

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### EARLY HISTORY



EW of the oversea possessions of the Crown, outside India and the great self-governing colonies, can compare in interest and importance with the Straits Settlements. They are situated in a region which

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<sup>1</sup> 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-

<sup>1</sup> Sir T. Stamford Raffles, "Memoir on the Administration of the Eastern Islands," in Lady Raffles's "Memoir of Sir T. Stamford Raffles," Appendix L. 25.

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

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 able 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

caster 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 intrusion 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 sterilise 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 themselves. By bribing the spies 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 with much solemnity.<sup>1</sup> 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 ended in 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 foundering 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 NW. on the America side."<sup>2</sup> 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 stateliest verse. Obvious references to Lancaster's voyages are to be found, as Sir George Birdwood has pointed out,<sup>3</sup> in "Paradise Lost," in the poet's descriptions of Satan. Thus, in Book II. we have a presentment of the Evil One as he



PORTRAIT OF SIR FRANCIS DRAKE WITH HAWKINS AND CAVENDISH.

(Reproduced by permission of the Lords of the Admiralty from the picture in the Gallery at Greenwich Hospital.)  
Drake was the first Englishman to navigate a ship through the Straits of Malacca.

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.<sup>1</sup> 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.

<sup>1</sup> 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. 18: "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."

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 *krises*—the characteristic weapon of Malaya, without which no honorific 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 Lan-

"Puts on swift wings and then soars  
Up to the fiery concave towering high  
As when far off at sea a fleet descried  
Hangs in the clouds, by equinoctial winds  
Close sailing from Bengala, or the isles  
Of Ternate and Tidore, whence merchants bring  
Their spicy drugs; they on the trading flood  
Through the wide Ethiopian to the Cape  
Ply, stemming nightly towards the Pole.  
So seemed far off the flying fiend."

<sup>1</sup> Marsden's "History of Sumatra," i. p. 436.

<sup>2</sup> Hakluyt's "Principal Navigations," ii. p. 2, l. 102.

<sup>3</sup> "Report on the Old Records of the East India Company," p. 205.

And again in Book IV. :

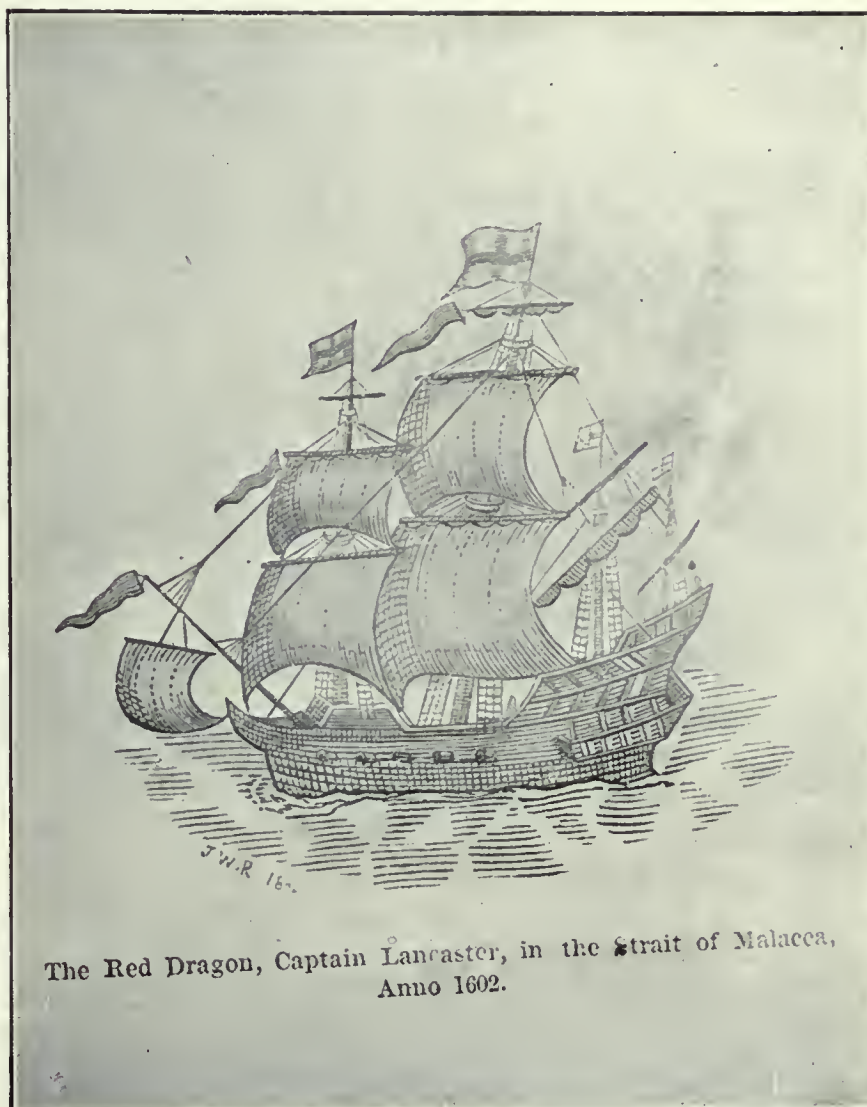
“So on he fares, and to the border comes  
Of Eden . . .  
A sylvan scene . . .  
Of stateliest view . . .  
 . . . able to drive  
All sadness but despair ; now gentle gales  
Fanning their odoriferous wings, dispense  
Native perfumes, and whisper whence they  
stole  
Those balmy spoils. As when to them who  
sail  
Beyond the Cape of Hope, and now are past  
Mozambick, off at sea North East winds blow  
Sabean odours from the spicy shore  
Of Araby the Blest ; with such delay  
Well pleased they slack 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 leisured 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

nearly all their factories from the archipelago. Five years later the factory at Bantam was, however, re-established as a subordinate agency to Surat. It was subsequently (in 1634-



The Red Dragon, Captain Lancaster, in the Strait of Malacca, Anno 1602.



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

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 30 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

35) 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



EUROPEAN TRADERS AT THE COURT OF AN EASTERN PRINCE.

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 periwigs, 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



VIEW OF THE ISLAND OF BANDA.

agent and his council were deported in Dutch vessels to Batavia. A twelvemonth later the expropriated officials were at Surat, attempting

the despatch of a mission, headed by Messrs. Ord and Cawley, two expert officials, to Achin, to set up, if possible, a factory there to take the

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 consoli-

of dignity by reason of the circumstance that it was the headquarters of the Company's power in these regions. But Nature never intended it for a great commercial *entrepôt*, and of the leading factories of the East India Company it represents probably the most signal 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 Tappanuli. 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 1760, during our war with France, a French fleet under Comte d'Estaing 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 despatched 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



VIEW AT BANTAM, ISLAND OF JAVA.

(From W. Alexander's drawings to illustrate Lord Macartney's Embassy to China.)

we retired." The Queen's reply was a favourable one, but circumstances rendered it unnecessary to proceed further with the scheme of establishing a factory in Achin. It chanced that the visit of the English mission coincided with the arrival in Achin of a number of chiefs of Priaman and other places on the West Coast of Sumatra, and these, hearing of the English designs, offered a site for a factory, with the exclusive right of purchasing their pepper. Mr. Ord readily listened to their proposals, and he ultimately got the chiefs to embark with him for Madras, for the purpose of completing a formal arrangement. The business was carried through by the Governor of Madras in the beginning of the year 1685 on the terms proposed. Subsequently an expedition was fitted out with the object of establishing the factory at Priaman. A short time before it sailed, however, an invitation was received at Madras from the chiefs of Beng Kanlu (Bencoolen) to make a settlement there. In view of the fact that a considerable portion of the pepper that was formerly exported from Bantam came from this spot, it was deemed advisable that Mr. Ord should first proceed there. The English expedition arrived at Bencoolen on June 25, 1685, and Mr. Ord took charge of the territory assigned to the Company. Afterwards other settlements were formed at Indrapura and Manjuta. At Priaman the Dutch had anticipated the English action, and the idea of establishing a settlement there had to be abandoned. The Dutch also astutely prevented the creation of another English trading centre at Batang-Kapas in 1686. The unfriendly disposition shown in these instances was part of a deliberate policy of crushing out English trade in the Straits. Where factories had been founded the Dutch sought to nullify them by establishing themselves in the neighbourhood and using the utmost influence to prevent the country people from trading with them. Their machinations were not in the long run

dated, 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



ANJORE POINT, STRAITS OF SUNDA.

(From Alexander's drawings at the India Office.)

which the designation Fort Marlborough was given, was an improvement on the original settlement, and it attained to a certain position

had long been felt that an extension of British influence and power beyond Sumatra was desirable in the interests of a growing com-

merce in the Straits and for the protection of our important China trade. The occupation of Pinang in 1786, 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 1804 is memorable in Straits history

Street. There he remained until the occupation of Pinang gave him the opportunity, for which his ardent spirit longed, of service abroad. He went out with high hopes and an invincible determination to justify the confidence reposed in him. His spare moments on the voyage were occupied in learning the Malay language and studying Malay literature. Thus he was able to land with more than a casual equipment for the work he had to do. At Pinang he continued his linguistic studies, with such good effect that in a short time he was an acknowledged authority on Malayan customs. His exceptional ability did not pass without recognition. Through Dr. Leyden, who had formed Raffles's acquaintance in Pinang, Lord Minto, then Governor-General of India, heard of this brilliant young official who was making so distinguished a reputation in paths not usually trodden by the Company's junior servants. A visit to Calcutta in 1807 by Raffles was an indirect consequence of the introduction. Lord Minto received the young man kindly, and discussed with him the question of the extension of British influence in the Malay Archipelago. Raffles ended by so impressing the statesman with his grasp of the situation that the latter conferred upon him the position of Governor-General's Agent in the Eastern seas. This extraordinary mark of favour was completely justified when, four years later, Lord Minto conducted in person an expedition for the conquest of Java. The expeditionary force consisted of nearly six thousand British and as many Indian troops. Ninety ships were required for the transport of the force, which was at the time the largest ever sent to those seas by a European Power.



SIR T. STAMFORD RAFFLES.

(From the portrait by G. F. Joseph, A.R.A., in the National Portrait Gallery.)

the result. Nine years later Malacca, captured from the Dutch, was added to our possessions. These important centres gave a new strength and significance to our position in the Straits. But no change was made in the administrative system until 1802, when an Act of Parliament was passed authorising the East India Company to make their settlement at Fort Marlborough a factory subordinate to the presidency of Fort William in Bengal, and to transfer to Madras the servants who, on the reduction of the establishment, should be supernumerary. The change was prompted by economical considerations. Bencoolen had always been a very expensive appanage of the East India Company, and the progress of events did not tend to make

as marking the advent to this important centre of British influence of one who has carved in indelible letters his name and fame upon British colonial history. In September of that year there landed at Pinang Thomas Stamford Raffles, the man to whom more than to any other Britain owes her present proud position in the Straits of Malacca. Raffles came out with no other advantages than his natural endowments. The son of a sea captain engaged in the West India trade, he was born on board his father's ship on July 5, 1781. His educational training was of the briefest. After a few years' schooling at Hammersmith he, at the early age of fourteen, entered the East India Company's service as a clerk in Leadenhall



THE FIRST EARL OF MINTO.

(From a portrait by James Atkinson in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Raffles was chosen by Lord Minto as his chief intelligence officer. He discharged his part with the zeal and acumen which distinguished him. But it was a time for all of great anxiety,



as the surveys of the archipelago at that period were very inadequate, and no small peril attended the navigation of so considerable 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 his advice. 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 Janssens. 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 polecats. The natives say that Bencoolen is now a *Tani mati* (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 gaming and cock-fighting were not only practised

under the eye of the chief authority, but publicly patronised by the Government. This laxity had its natural consequences in an excess of criminality. Murders were daily committed and robberies perpetrated which were never traced; profligacy and immorality obtruded themselves in every direction.<sup>1</sup>

The truth is that Bencoolen at this time was decaying of its own rottenness. Throughout its existence it had been a sink of corruption 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

<sup>1</sup> "Memoir of Sir T. Stamford Raffles," p. 297.

completely shut out of doors; the soil is, comparatively with the other Malay countries, inferior; the population scanty; neighbourhood or passing trade it has none; and further, it wants a harbour, to say nothing of its long reputed unhealthiness and the undesirable state of ruin into which it has been allowed to run."<sup>1</sup> Yet at this period the administration of the settlement involved an expenditure of £100,000 a year, and the only return for 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 pekus 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 seating 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.

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 463.

## 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,



CHANTREY'S BUST OF SIR STAMFORD  
RAFFLES.

(From the "Memoir of Sir T. Stamford Raffles.")

had been concentrated in Netherlands India. With it was a powerful naval squadron, well manned and equipped. These and other circumstances which were brought to light indi-

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 intercourse now carried on by British subjects in India "with the countries of Perak, Salangore, and Riho 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 expediency 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 they might even be disposed to concede."<sup>1</sup>

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, Lingén, 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 Lingén, 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



THE ROADS, BATAVIA.

(From Von de Velde's "Gesigtenuit Neerlands Indie.")

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-

cated 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

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 66

could, he after a brief interval weighed anchor and directed his course to Lingen. Here he was told that the political authority was vested in the Raja Muda 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 Bahoo in Siack, 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 Kariman Islands, which are so situate as to be a complete key to the Straits of Singapore, 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 Karimans, however small at first, would, I am convinced, very soon become a port of great consequence, and not only defray its own expenses, but yield in time an overplus revenue to Government." The Karimuns, 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. He did not, however, support Farquhar's suggestion in regard to the Kariman Islands, on the ground that "the expense of maintaining a settlement on an uninhabited island would be enormous," and that "the insulated situation of Karima and its remoteness from all support would require a considerable military force to

guard it against the large fleets of piratical prows infesting that part of the Straits, as well as against the nations of the adjoining countries."

Finally he stated that the subject was under the consideration of the Government of Bengal.

In a later despatch, dated the 7th of Novem-



THE STRAITS OF SUNDA.

(From a sketch in the India Office.)

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 Muda of Riau, asking him if he were willing to forward the transfer of the Kariman 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 Karimuns, 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 Kariman and neighbouring islands, and also a general concurrence in the views of his Government.

ber, Farquhar enclosed a communication from the Dutch Commissioners raising definitely the question of the vassalage of the States of Lingen, Riau, &c., 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, &c., 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 Kariman 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 Kariman 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 aggrandisement 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 Bannerman'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. In a letter dated April 14, 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 conducive to the preservation of the 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 the 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 in the neighbourhood of Bintang."<sup>1</sup>

Bintang, or Bentan as it is now called, is an island in the Riau Strait, about 30 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 he left England. The point is not very material. Even assuming that Raffles had not the undivided 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 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."<sup>2</sup> As a result of the discussions it was decided to concede to the Dutch their pretensions in Sumatra, to leave to them the



FRANCIS RAWDON, FIRST MARQUESS OF HASTINGS.

(From an engraving by Clent 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 southward 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 Rhio, and that I leave Calcutta in a fortnight as the agent to effect this important object. Achin I conceive

to be completely within our power, but the Dutch may be beforehand with us at Rhio. They took possession of Pontiano and Malacca in July and August last, and have been bad politicians if they have so long left Rhio 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 supineness 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 I need not assure your grace that it shall be done and quickly done." It seems probable that in the interval between these two letters information had reached Calcutta of the Dutch occupation of Rhio (Riau). Whether so 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 in 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 site of the ancient city of Singapura." 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 news that the Dutch had compelled the Rajas 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, five hundred of whom were Europeans in a high state of discipline. In transmitting information of these acts to the Governor-General, Colonel Bannerman 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 went on to point out 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 despairingly remarked, "To effect therefore among them any political arrangements as a counterpoise 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

<sup>1</sup> "Memoir of Sir T. S. Raffles," p. 307.

<sup>2</sup> *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 official. His despatches 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 underlaking 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<sup>1</sup> 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 Rian was preoccupied, "the island of Singapore and the districts of Old Johore and the Straits of Indugeeree 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 fiery minute taunted him with vacillation on the ground that he had at the outset been in agreement with his colleagues as to the inadvisability 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

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 182A.

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

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



COLONEL BANNERMAN.

(From an original drawing in the possession of the Rev. J. H. Bannerman, Vicar of St. Stephen's, Congleton, Cheshire.)

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

respect most peculiarly adapted for our object. Its position in the Straits of Singapore is far more convenient and commanding than even Rhio for our China trade, passing down the Straits of Malacca, and every native vessel that sails through the Straits of Rhio must pass in sight of it." Raffles went on to say that there did not appear to be any objection "to a station at Singapore, or on the opposite shore towards Point Romanea, or on any other of the smaller



VIEW OF THE JUNGLE, SINGAPORE.

(From Captain Bethune's "Views in the Eastern Archipelago.")

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<sup>1</sup> there exists a memorandum,

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 10.

drawn up 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, 1820, 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 Netherlandish 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

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. Raffles was instructed, on the supposition of Rhio being preoccupied by the Dutch, to open a negotiation with the chief of Johore on a similar basis to that contemplated at Rhio."

Then follows a relation of the circumstances under which Singapore was selected by Raffles.

"In order to avoid collision with the Dutch authorities, Sir T. S. Raffles determined to avoid Rhio, 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 authority and requested to know 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 replied that Johore Lama, or Old Johore, had long been deserted; that the chief authority over Singapore and all the adjacent islands (excepting those of Lingen 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 the mission to any other spot than Singapore, but it is familiar knowledge that before proceeding to Singapore Raffles put in at the Karimun Islands and at Siack. 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 deemed desirable by the higher authorities. What would be more natural in the circumstances than that he should induce Raffles 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, we have interesting evidence of the circumstance that the Karimuns were visited, and that Raffles found there ample and speedy proof that the port was entirely unsuitable. The facts are set forth in a report dated March 1, 1819, presented to the Pinang Government by Captain Ross, of the East

India Company's Marine. This functionary, it appears, had on the 15th 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 Kariman," he wrote, "rises abruptly from the water all round, and does not afford any situation for a settlement on it. The Great Kariman 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 Raffles was furnished with Captain Ross's opinion immediately on his arrival, and it was that apparently which caused him 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 an interesting historical document 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 clear of hidden danger, the approach to it is 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 thence round to the north point of Batang (bearing ESE.) by the numerous islands forming the southern side of Singapore 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 there being just behind it a 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 town, so it may be found useful to European vessels of easy draft to refill 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 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 napes are irregular at two or three miles off shore, but close in otherwise. 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° 15½ North, and variation of the needle observed on the low eastern point of the bay is 2° 9 East."<sup>1</sup>

Nothing hardly could have been more satisfactory than this opinion by a capable naval officer upon the maritime aspects of Singapore. With it in his possession Raffles 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 a commercial centre, while its commanding position in the narrowest part of the Straits of Malacca gave it 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, Raffles on January 29, 1819,<sup>2</sup> ten days after quitting Pinang, 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 such 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 Raffles was not unmindful of the dangers which still hindered his plans from the jealousy of his rivals and the ignorance and indifference of the authorities at home. 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 Pinang Government."

Raffles 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' Temenggong of Johore,

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 70, p. 432.

<sup>2</sup> In Raffles's "Memoir," by his wife, the date of the hoisting of the flag is given as the 20th 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 assistance 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 consequently a usurper. Without loss of time Raffles, through the Temenggong, sent to Riau for the elder brother, Tunku 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 within 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 refitment 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., &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-



THE JOHORE RIVER.

(From "Skizzen aus Singapur und Djohor.")



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 Siam, Cambodia, 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 requisite in the favourable monsoon for the passage from Singapore to Batavia, Pinang, or Achin, while two days are sufficient for a voyage to Borneo."<sup>1</sup>

Singapore at the time of the British occupation was a mere squalid fishing village, backed by a wild, uninhabited country, the haunt 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 "Sejarah Malayu," or "Malay Annals," a famous work produced at Goa 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 Bachilram Shah (afterwards known as Sang Sapurba), settled originally in Palembang, 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 Frank Swettenham, 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 neighbourhood now cannot 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

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 182.

head jet black, its breast white, in size rather larger than a he-goat.' 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, Tamasak, which is explained by some to mean 'a place of festivals.' But that word, so interpreted, is not Malay, though it has been adopted and applied to other places which suggest festivals 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, Tamasak 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."<sup>2</sup>

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 port in these seas. 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 conquests.

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, 1819, 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 Addenbroke, the

<sup>2</sup> "British Malaya," by Sir Frank Swettenham, p. 13.

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 if 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 negative to the Dutch claim of exclusion, 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 Malta is in the West, that may Singapore be in the East."<sup>3</sup>

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 letter to Marsden from off the Sandheads, in which he specifically indicates Singapore as the possible goal of his mission.

Sir Frank Swettenham very fairly states the case in favour of Raffles in the chapter in his work<sup>4</sup> 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 there to help his senior, and it is certain that if there had been no Raffles in 1819 there would have been no British Singapore to-day."

The actual occupation of Singapore was only the beginning of Raffles's work. Obvious as

<sup>3</sup> "Memoir of Sir T. S. Raffles," p. 380.

<sup>4</sup> "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 authorities. The hostility of these narrow-minded bureaucrats went to lengths which seem perfectly 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 come for throwing aside all false delicacy in the consideration of Sir Stamford Raffles's views and measures. I have long believed that there was a good deal of personal ambition and desire of distinction in his proceeding to the eastward and forming a settlement—at any rate, to add to his old, worn-out establishment at Bencoolen (so styled by himself in a letter to the Court of Directors dated 12th of April last). He has now obtained an island, which he is most anxious to aggrandise as soon as possible at the expense of his neighbours, and with as large a regular force as that stationed at Fort Marlborough. I have no doubt he has already determined to come and make Singapore the seat of his government, and Bencoolen its dependency. . . ."

"I shall now only add that before the expiration of many months I feel convinced the merchants at Calcutta will learn that this new settlement may intercept the trade of this port, but can never restore the commerce they formerly enjoyed with the Eastern Archipelago, 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."<sup>1</sup> The petty spite of this diatribe is only exceeded by the colossal self-complacency and shortsightedness which it displays. And its tone was 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 violently 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 Netherlanders, 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.

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 182A.

"Neither Major Farquhar's honour as a soldier nor the honour of the British Government now require him to attempt the defence of Singapore by force of arms against the Netherlanders, as he knows Sir Stamford Raffles has occupied that island in violation of the orders of the Supreme Government, 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 Farquhar must be certain that he would not be justified in shedding blood in the maintenance of his port at present."

Colonel Bannerman went on to state that he therefore proposed to send by the despatch prahu 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 Governor of Malacca, by means of which he hoped any violent projected measures would be deprecated without affecting 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 six 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 this transport to Major Farquhar I have another object in view. I have just had reason to believe that the *Ganges* and *Nearchus* (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 the port would be most advisable. If, therefore, 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 indispensably necessary, not only all his party, but such 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 Singapore 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 defective instructions and slender resources that, before it has been there a month, its commander 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 expected, and for which he ought to have made an express provision in his instructions to that officer.

"My letters of the 15th 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 instructions to Major Farquhar for the guidance of his conduct in the possible event of the Netherlanders attempting to dislodge him by force of arms. Did he avail himself of my offer? . . . No, he set off for Achin and left Major Farquhar 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. But 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. In one of these communications despatched to 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 to visit this presidency to execute 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 aggrandise his own name and settlement at the expense of the character, dignity, and local influence of this Government." To Calcutta Bannerman addressed despatches condemning 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 despatching Raffles on his mission they had been 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 Raffles's own communications there was 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 determination adopted by Sir Stamford Raffles to occupy that harbour, we cannot think it was within the province of your Government to pronounce

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 Rhio chiefly, 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 inculcation to avoid collision with the Dutch applied itself to any other position, it necessarily did so with a latitude suited to circumstances.

"We think your Government 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 be looked for as certain. . . .

"Under these circumstances it does not appear to us that any doubts which may be excited at the present stage of the business could be a legitimate principle for your guidance, so as to exonerate you from the obligation of fulfilling our directions for your supporting Sir Stamford Raffles with a moderate force should he establish a station on the Eastern sea. So far do we regard you from 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 we lament to 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 measured, but the particular principle 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 hazarding 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 Archipelago. 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 unpossessed by them and not standing within any hitherto asserted pretensions."

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 course that the Pinang authorities had taken, 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 I have not borne harder than 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, my heart knows not, and has never known. 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 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 expense it has saddled on 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

"Straits Settlements Records," No. 182A.

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 Achin 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 expected with the fullest confidence.

"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 our President, other verbal orders from the Governor-General which appeared 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 proceeded to state 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 other motives of an invidious nature they would be fully satisfied. Then followed this parting shot at the occupation:

"Relative to the new establishment of Singapore, 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 original views of the Governor-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 Straits."

Colonel Bannerman was not content to rely on the despatches for his justification. Accompanying them he sent letters to the Chairman and Deputy-Chairman of the Court, in which he said that he hoped and trusted that all his proceedings in respect to Singapore "will bear

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 excepting 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 Government had shown themselves. They replied in a despatch in which, while conceding that Bannerman had been actuated by a sense of duty, they expressed regret that he had been betrayed by the warmth of discussion into an imputation upon Sir Stamford Raffles’s motives “totally irreconcilable with every principle of public duty.” The unfortunate Governor was saved this final stinging rebuke. Before the despatch reached Pinang—before, indeed, it was written—he had gone to his last account. Worn out with worry and depressed by the mortification of defeat, he died on August 1, 1819. He was in some respects an excellent administrator, but he lacked conspicuously the qualities of foresight and force 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 incapacity.

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, wrote a violently worded despatch in which they declared that “any difficulty with the Dutch will be created by Sir Stamford Raffles’s intemperance 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 acquisition at Singapore.”

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 measures to explain the importance of Singapore to 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 31, 1819, 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 commanded 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 return. If I am deserted now I must fain return to Bencoolen and become philosopher.”

Writing later, on February 19th, Raffles says :

“In short, Singapore is everything we could desire, and I may consider myself most fortunate in the selection ; it will soon rise into importance, and with this single station alone I would undertake to counteract all the plans 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 superiority and commercial interests are concerned, of much higher value than whole continents of territory.”

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 a long time the fate of the settlement hung in the balance. Echoes of the discussions from time to time reached Raffles in the Straits, and 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 enormous 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, *via* Siam and Cambodia, Cochin China, &c., to say nothing of the islands themselves. . . . Let the commercial interests for the present drop every idea of a direct trade to China, and let them concentrate their influence 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 their voyages should finish. . . . Singapore may as a free port thus become the connecting link and grand *entrepôt* between Europe, Asia, and China ; it is, in fact, fast becoming so.”

Again, writing on July 22, 1820, Raffles further alludes to the talk of abandonment. “It appears to me impossible that Singapore should be given up, and yet the indecisive manner in which the Ministers express themselves, and

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 Capellan, Governor-General of Netherlands India, protesting against the British action, his lordship maintained that the chiefs who ceded Singapore were perfectly independent chiefs, fully competent to make arrangements 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 withdrawing 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 Eastern seas ; that the views of 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 engagements which might have been made with the native princes before the transfer of Malacca in 1795 ; that their only right depended on the treaty concluded at Riau on November 26, 1818, but which was subsequent to the one entered into by Major Farquhar on the part of the British Government with the Government of Riau as an independent State in the August preceding ; that under this view the Dutch had adopted the most injurious and extraordinary proceeding of making a treaty declaring 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 Linggen, through the first of which the Dutch claimed Singapore, were not dependencies 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 indication of pretensions to supremacy and monopoly on the part of the Netherlandish authorities in seas hitherto free to all parties. The dispute continued to rage in Europe for some time after this, the Dutch pressing their claims with characteristic tenacity upon the attention of the British Government. Indeed, it was not until 1824, when a general settlement was arrived at between the two Governments, that the final word was said on the subject of Singapore. The advocacy of powerful friends whose aid Raffles was able to invoke unquestionably had considerable influence in securing the ultimate verdict in favour of retention. But the concession was grudgingly made, and Raffles was left to reap

the reward of his prescient statesmanship in the knowledge that he had won for his country this great strategic 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 overlord, 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 interrogation, 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 settlement is really growing 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 25th of July, Mrs. Barnard of a daughter. This is the first birth at the new settlement."

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 which 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, probably because of the uncertainty in which the future of the place was enshrouded 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 26, 1819, which he addressed to Farquhar just prior to his second departure from the island. The European town, he directed, should be erected without loss of time. This, he estimated, should extend along the beach for a distance of 200 yards from the lines as far eastward as practicable, and should include as much of the ground that had already been cleared of the Bugis as was required, the occupants being reimbursed for the expense they had been put to in making the clearances, and given other ground in lieu of the sites first chosen. He directed that for the time being the space lying between the new road and the beach should be reserved for Government,

while the area on the opposite side of the road should be immediately marked out into twelve separate allotments, with an equal frontage, to be appropriated to the first respectable European applicants. In practice it was found impossible to adhere to this plan. The merchants were indisposed to build along the north beach on the space allotted to them, owing to the inconvenience to shipping resulting from the low level of the beach. Farquhar, to relieve the situation, granted them permission to appropriate the Government reserved land on the left bank of the river, on the understanding that they must be prepared to move if required to do so. In October, 1822, when Raffles returned to take over the Government of the island, he found that a number of houses had already been built on the reserved ground. He appointed a committee consisting of three disinterested persons—Dr. Wallich of Calcutta, Dr. Lumsdaine and Captain Salmond of Bencoolen—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 characters, for they 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.

"Numbers of clever 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 Siam, 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, sad to tell, broke the stone. 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 characterisation of this piece of silly vandalism on the part of Mr. Coleman than that contained 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 effectually concealed by the destructive operations. Some fragments collected subsequently found their way to Calcutta, to supply the savants there with a knotty 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 as ever from discovering the key to the mystery. Perhaps the most plausible explanation is that of Lieutenant Begbie, who writing in 1834, suggested that the stone was identical with a tablet or tablets mentioned in 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 King sent two stones to place over his grave. The stone unearthed 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, merchants, both 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, prows, &c., &c., a person would naturally exclaim, Surely this cannot be an establishment of only twenty months' standing! One of the principal Chinese merchants has told me in the course of conversation that he would be very glad to give 500,000 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 village is 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 untimely fate awaits it, it promises to become the emporium and pride of the East." Happily no untimely fate did overtake 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 boats alone exceeded four millions of dollars in the year, and that during the whole period of the brief life of the settlement no fewer than 2,889 vessels had entered and cleared from the port, of which 383 were owned and commanded by Europeans. In 1822 the tonnage had risen to 130,689 tons, and the total value of the trade to upwards of eight 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 our own ports, would be to foredoom 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 upon what was 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—a step 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 of that already settled in the town was drawn up, and Raffles himself sat in court to enforce them. He, also established a local magistracy as a means of strengthening the administration of the law and creating a sense of responsibility in the community. As in Bencoolen he had interested himself in the moral well-being of those entrusted to his charge, so here he gave serious consideration to the problem of training the youths of the settlement to be good citizens. The outcome of his deliberations was 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 Institute. It was Raffles's desire to give further strength to the cause of educational progress in the colony by the transfer to Singapore of 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 Singapore in twelve. The capital turned at Bencoolen 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 suggestive facts were given 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 60,000 Spanish dollars. "I had

1 "Memoir of Sir T. S. Raffles," p. 532.

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 year with an available revenue nearly equal to its expenses, and it is extremely mortifying that the irregularities admitted by the local Resident oblige 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 ought 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 discomfort 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 gratifying 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



STATUE OF SIR STAMFORD RAFFLES IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

(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



HENDON CHURCH AND CHURCHYARD, IN WHICH SIR STAMFORD RAFFLES IS BURIED.

(The supposed position of the grave is the spot under the centre window in the middle foreground.)

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



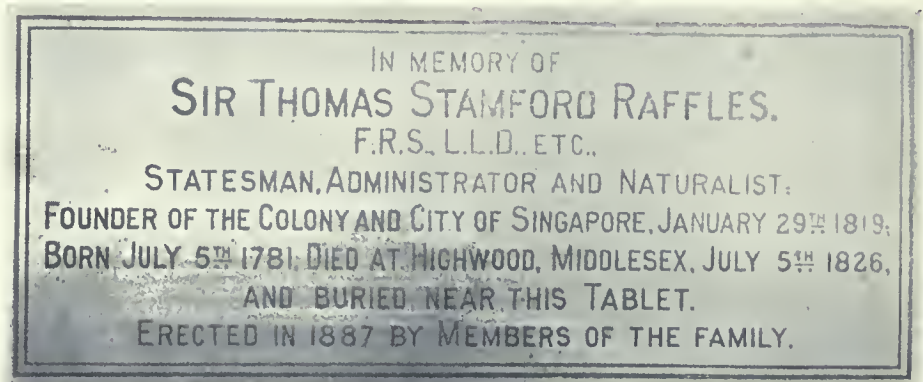
"RAFFLESIA' ARNOLDI."

(The gigantic parasitic plant of Java and Sumatra discovered by Raffles.)

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 oligarchy 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 emphasising 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



TABLET TO SIR STAMFORD RAFFLES IN HENDON CHURCH.



an architectural dignity at that time quite unknown in the European settlements in the East. The value of land in 1824, though small in comparison with the price now realised for property in the business quarter of Singapore, was very satisfactory, having regard to the brief period of the occupation and the uncertainty of the political situation. For plots with a 50-foot frontage on the river and 150 feet deep, 3,000 dollars were paid, in addition to an annual quit-rent of 38 dollars. Residential plots with an area of 1,200 square yards realised 400 dollars, in addition to an annual quit-rent of 28 dollars.<sup>1</sup>

At this time there were twelve European firms of standing established in the settlement in addition to many reputable Chinese and Malay traders. Such was the growth of the commerce of the place that Crawford was impelled on August 23, 1824, to address a long despatch to the Supreme Government pleading for the establishment of a judicial department to deal with the many and complicated legal questions that were constantly arising. The charter of Prince of Wales Island, he thought, might be taken as a safe precedent, but he respectfully suggested that the judicial authority should be separate and distinct from the executive, "as the surest means of rendering it independent and respectable." It took the Calcutta authorities a considerable time to digest this question, but in the long run Crawford's recommendations were adopted. On March 6, 1827, an official notification was issued to the effect that a Court of Judicature would be opened in Singapore, and that as a consequence the Resident's Court would be closed. The establishment of the judicial system followed upon the definitive occupation of the island, under the terms of the diplomatic understanding arrived at in London on March 17, 1824, between the British and the Dutch Governments. Under the agreement the Dutch formally recognised the British right to the settlement, and Crawford was instructed to give the fullest effect to it by completing a final treaty with the Sultan and the Temenggong. With some difficulty the compact was made on August 2, 1824. By its provisions the island of Singapore was ceded absolutely to the British Government, together with the sovereignty of the adjacent seas, straits, and islets to the limit of ten geographical miles from the Singapore coasts, and, acting on instructions, Crawford, on August 3, 1824, embarked in the ship *Malabar* on a voyage round the island, with the object of notifying to all and sundry that the British really had come to stay.

Fullerton, a Madras civilian, was sent out as Governor, with Pinang as the seat of government. Meantime, Singapore had felt itself important enough to support a newspaper. This organ, the *Singapore Chronicle and Commercial Advertiser*, was a tiny sheet of four quarto pages, badly printed on rough paper, but answering, it may be supposed, all the needs of the infant settlement. 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

are missing, as they must have contained much that was of interest. Mr. Crawford seems to have been a frequent contributor to the columns, and he was a writer of no mean literary skill, as his official despatches and his later contributions to the *Edinburgh Review* clearly attest. Still, the files, even in their incomplete condition, are highly instructive and illuminating as guides to the life of the settlement in the dawn of its existence. The first fact that is impressed upon the reader is the censorship which was then maintained



ONE OF THE EARLIEST COPIES EXTANT OF THE "SINGAPORE CHRONICLE."

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.

<sup>1</sup> Resident-General's Report, *Journal of the Indian Archipelago*, ix. 468.

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 seventy-third 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 *l'esc majesté*. 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 there is a press in England over which the *sic volo, sic jubeo* of Indian authority can have no control. The rulers of India might as well attempt, like a celebrated despot of old, to enchain the waves as to place restrictions upon the press of England, and whilst that is the case their measures will be unsparingly censured whenever they shall deserve it, and the remarks issuing from that source, no matter how contraband, will find their way round the Cape, and will be here read by all those, to 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 what the *Chronicle* in its issue of March 29th described as "a very severe 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 pleasant 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, or its ghost, a spirit of unquiet conscience, continues to haunt these settlements. It is said to have been wandering to and fro, and to have arrived lately from Malacca in a vessel from which we would it had been exorcised and cast into the sea.

"The paper is going to the press, and we have but brief space in which to say that we have 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 infirm of purpose, as to promulgate a set of admirable regulations to-day, and *presto!* to revoke 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 very simple one of putting it on again. Should the Government have been guilty of an imbecility such as report assigns them, the 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 following the publication of the paper in 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 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 censor-

ship 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 re-imposing the censorship and censuring 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 dulness which might be looked for in the circumstances. But the Old Adam peeps out occasionally, as in a racy comment on the intimation of a Batavian 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 stinging tail has obviously been excised. Later, Mr. Loch again got into collision with Pinang, and there must have been rejoicing in official altitudes when, on March 26, 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 very early 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." While the new editor was thus modest about 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 unmannerly opinions as old-fashioned as the Glorious Revolution, but *Monsieur notre frère* may depend upon it that the mass of the public are not affected by this leaven, 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's 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 cholera. On April 17, 1827, there is great excitement over the arrival in port of the first steamship<sup>1</sup> ever seen there—the Dutch Government vessel, *Vander Capellan*. The Malays promptly christen her the *Kapal Asap*, 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 much festivity, though the customary dance is not given, out of respect for 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 that the Government there was framing 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 Rochefoucauld, 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

<sup>1</sup> "On the 17th April the Dutch steam vessel *Vander Capellan* arrived here from Batavia, having made the passage from the latter place in seven hours. She is the first vessel that has ever been propelled by steam in these Straits, and the second steam vessel employed to the eastward of the Cape, the *Diana*, of Calcutta, which proved of much service in the Burmese War, being the first."—*Singapore Chronicle*, April 26, 1827.

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 minuteness 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."<sup>1</sup>

These spirited words are suggestive of the prevalent local feeling at the 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 prosperity of Singapore is fixed on too firm a 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 gratuitous 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 bursting 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 almost any place I have visited in India. The native character and peculiarities seem to have merged 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 enlivens the scene not a little. At present here are no fewer 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 from the little bustle that prevails in them; here you stumble at every step over the produce of China and the Straits in active preparation for being conveyed to all parts of the world."

These shrewd observations speak for them-

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, March 15, 1827.

selves, but if additional evidence is needed it is supplied by the population returns of the period which figure in the columns of the paper. Exclusive of the military, the inhabitants of Singapore in 1826 numbered, according to official computation, 10,307 males and 3,443 females. The details of the enumeration may be given, as they are of considerable interest:

	Males.	Females.
Europeans ... ..	69	18
Armenians ... ..	16	3
Native Christians ... ..	128	60
Arabs ... ..	18	8
Chinese ... ..	5,747	341
Malays ... ..	2,501	2,289
Bugis ... ..	666	576
Javanese ... ..	174	93
Natives of Bengal ... ..	209	35
Natives of the Coast of Coromandel ... ..	772	5
Coffries ... ..	2	3
Siamese ... ..	5	2
Totals ... ..	10,307	3,443

The points of interest in this table are the smallness 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 circumstance shows 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 resort 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 fulfil

what you are to consider as the implied condition of our sufferance in all such cases, that of conducting themselves with propriety."<sup>1</sup>

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. Crawford great laxity

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, Rochar river, and Sandy Point, "by which the brick kilns and all the unoccupied 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.

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



MAP OF SINGAPORE IN 1837.

was manifested in respect of the grant of location tickets. Those outstanding issued by Mr. Crawford 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

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 195.

#### 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

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 Pinang 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 two functionaries had been 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. Fullerton 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 1833.

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 26th 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 projected."

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 sterilised 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 general and quarter sessions 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 nugatory 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 legally 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 meeting to understand that they alone possessed 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 of India. The 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 relying 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 expediency of establishing 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 at present 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. 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 between Great Britain and France and 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 laying 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 a court-house and 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 indictable offence" was a source of considerable embarrassment to the Government. The substantial sum derived from the farming of the right to keep licensed gaming-houses could not be readily sacrificed. On the other hand, it was manifestly impossible to disregard the opinion of the highest judicial authority in the settlements. Acting in a 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. 95,482.11.10 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 officialdom 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



LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK.  
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

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. 36,000. 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:

			Rs.
Imports	...	...	1,76,40,969½
Exports	...	...	1,58,25,997½

This paragraph relative to the method of



SINGAPORE FROM THE ESPLANADE.  
(From Captain Bethune's "Views in the Eastern Archipelago," published 1847.)

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."

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 Pinang. The construction put upon this provision by the Straits officials was that Singapore, even when under the government of Pinang, 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. Ibbetson 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 expeditious 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 their 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 Karimun Islands, and from



A MALAY PRAHU.  
(From a sketch in the India Office.)

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.

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 as little apprehension as they navigate the English Channel, it is difficult to

time to time, even after the Dutch annexation of the islands in 1827, these were a favourite resort of the roving hordes which battered on the trade of the new British port. The native chiefs were usually hand in glove with the pirates, and received toll of their nefarious trade. Thus we find Mr. Fullerton, in a communication to Government, writing in April, 1829: "Of the connection of the Sultan of Johore, residing under our protection at Singapore, and his relatives, the chiefs of Rhio and Lingen, with the pirates to the eastward there is little doubt, and there is some reason to believe that the ex-Raja of Quedah, residing under our protection at this island [Pinang], if he does not directly countenance the piratical proceedings of his relatives, does not use any means seriously to discourage them." The usual prey of the pirates was the native junks which traded between China and the Straits ports. But European vessels were attacked when the venture could be undertaken with impunity, and interspersed in the prosaic records of the dull round of ordinary administration are thrilling and romantic accounts of captive Englishmen, and even Englishwomen, detained in bondage in the then remote interior by native chiefs to whom they had been sold by pirates. Spasmodic efforts were made by the authorities from time to time

<sup>1</sup> "Report of the East India Company's Affairs, 1831-32," Part II. p. 656.

<sup>2</sup> "Trade and Travel in the Far East," by G. F. Davidson, p. 69.

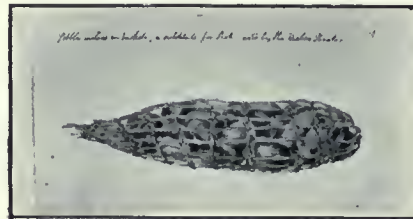
<sup>3</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 184.

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 rovers hovering within gunshot of Singapore river, the writer proceeded: "Our rulers say: 'Let the galled jade wince.' They wander the Straits in well-armed vessels and may well feel apathy and 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 wish no harm, and would exert ourselves to the utmost 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 for herself 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, and it seems not to 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 removed 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 sallying out fell in with two pirate prahus, and succeeded in sinking one of them. 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 conditions not materially improving, 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 double-banked, pulling 36 oars—18 on each side. The rowers were of the lower 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.<sup>1</sup> 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 commandant of the *Wolf*, a sword of honour, and a public dinner was given to him and his officers on June 14, 1837, at which most complimentary speeches were delivered. Severely as the pirates had been handled by the *Wolf*, the iniquitous trade had only been



PEBBLES ENCLOSED IN BASKET.

(A substitute for shot, used in old times by the Malay pirates. From a sketch in the India Office.)

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 piracy on the open sea was concerned 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 in it 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 pirate flotilla. The marauders, thinking she was a sailing-boat 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 flotilla, 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 contrived to postpone for years the inevitable end of the system which had flourished for ages in the archipelago.

<sup>1</sup> "Anecdotal History of Singapore."

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 *Vander Capellan* 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 Singapore, Batavia, Malacca, Pinang, 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. They had to reckon with an immense amount of prejudice on the part of vested interests and a still larger degree of honest incredulity as to the financial practicability of working so expensive an agency as steam appeared to be. We get a vivid impression of the doubtful attitude of the Singapore community in the columns of the *Singapore Chronicle* in 1828. The Malacca paper about the middle of that 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 between 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? Would it pay the heavy and constantly recurring charges of a competent commander, an engineer, a crew, fuel, 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 hold 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." He argued from this that steam navigation, despite its costliness and the difficulties which attended it, was bound to be successful. While this lively polemic was



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. Claridge, 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 2,475 shares were taken up by 706 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-eight hours. The first mail steamer 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 *contretemps* 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 judicious arrangements were made for exempting native trade from some of those restrictive measures usually attendant on custom-house regulations. "The policy of exempting the trade from all impositions on the first establishment of Singapore," he proceeded to say, "cannot, I imagine, be called 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."<sup>1</sup> The "leading strings" were, fortunately, not cast away. The Supreme Government was opposed to any change and 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 a fresh assault made on the principle in 1836, 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, 1836, 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 them. In November the India Board directed 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 1837 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, 1857, to inquire if there was any foundation for the statement that dues were to be levied. "You are doubtless aware," the Court wrote, "that when this subject was under our consideration in the year 1825 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 deprecate 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 port due fees. On February 10, 1856, the Governor of the Straits replied that if not considered to interfere with the freedom of the port he was inclined to agree with the imposition of a due 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 junks 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 inconsiderable 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 judicature and quarter sessions to the Crown, 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 fifty thousand inhabitants, was a jungle with 150 Malay fishermen imbued with a strong propensity to 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.

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 153.

"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. Crawford 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 Raffles'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 656 piculs, yielding an annual value of 39,360 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 1,030 dollars annually. Fruit trees occupied 1,037 acres, and their produce was valued at 9,568 dollars. The gambier cultivation covered an extent of 24,220 acres, and the produce was valued at 80,000 dollars. The pepper cultivation was stated at 2,614 acres, yielding 108,230 dollars annually. Vegetable gardens covered 379 acres, and the produce was stated at 34,675 dollars. The siri or pawn vines extended to 22 acres, and yielded 10,560 dollars, while sugar-cane, pineapples, rice, or paddy engrossed 1,962 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.

In 1845 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 "Skizzen aus Singapur und Djohor.")

£7,000, making a total of £21,000—a sum which, if expended with a just economy, ought to be adequate to every purpose of government in a small sea-girt island, with a population for the most part concentrated in one spot.

"From this statement it is plain enough that whether the police force is paid wholly out of the police revenue or partly from the police and partly from the general revenue, it must, in any case, be paid out of the produce of the

and he expressed a hope that the East India Company would be prepared to follow a course "which, by conciliating the people, secures harmony, strengthens the hands of the local Government, and consequently contributes largely to facilitate the conduct of the administration." In this statement, as Mr. Buckley suggests in his work, we have possibly the commencement of the movement which led twenty years afterwards to the transfer of the

Government in 1906 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 circumstances led irresistibly 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 1858 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 £35,000 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 Asiatic 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 Abdul 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



PATH IN THE PRIMEVAL FOREST, JOHORE.

(From "Skizzen aus Singapur und Djohor.")

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 of

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 1852 the question was again raised by

Mr. E. 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 to the proposal. 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 600 dollars *per mensem*, 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 no concern with the relations between the Sultan and the Temenggong, but that "if the arbitration in question should be proposed and the Temenggong should be willing to purchase entire sovereignty by a sacrifice of revenue in favour of the Sultan, the Governor-General in Council conceives that the measure would be a beneficial one to 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 with an European merchant at 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 negotiation between the parties 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 later 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, though the second condition in the terms 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 Alam, 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 Mahmud. 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 loftily 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 proceedings."

#### 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 connection 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 mischievous strength as the settlement grew and flourished. The mercantile community chafed 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 the agitation based the desire for a 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 which the public have no knowledge of and no opportunity of impugning." The memorialists pointed out that measures of a most obnoxious and harmful character had been introduced by the Government of India, and 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 convicts from 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 1855-56 amounted to £131,375, against an income of £103,187, but it was shown that the deficiency was more than accounted for by charges aggregating £75,358 imposed for military, marine, and convict establishments—"charges which are never made against a local revenue in a royal colony."

Lord Canning, in a despatch discussing the question raised by the petition, wrote in favour of the change. The only object which he could conceive for maintaining the government of the Straits Settlements on its then footing was to have all the possessions in the East under one control. But, he pointed out, this consideration was quite as applicable to Ceylon, which had not in recent times been under the Government of India. He went at length into the whole question of the transfer, and then summarised his views in this form: "I consider it to be established, first, that no good and sufficient reasons now exist for continuing the Straits Settlements on their present footing; secondly, that very strong reasons exist for withdrawing them from the control of the Indian Government and transferring them to the Colonial Office; and, thirdly, that there are no objections to the transfer which should cause her Majesty's Government to hesitate in adopting a measure calculated to be so advantageous to the settlements themselves." The Indian Government asked to be reimbursed the cost of new recently erected barracks for European troops; but the Home Government objected to this, and the point was waived by the Indian authorities. Even then the Imperial Government were not at all eager to accept the charge. They haggled over the cost which, in their shortsighted vision, the settlements were likely to impose upon the imperial exchequer. The Duke of Newcastle, the then Colonial Secretary, in a despatch on the subject, estimated the probable deficiency in the revenue at from £30,000 to £50,000. But in his calculation was included an extravagant contribution for military purposes. It did not dawn upon the sapient rulers of that day that there was an imperial interest in maintaining a fortress at the entrance to the Straits of Malacca through which the world's trade from the West to the East passes. It was left to Lord Beaconsfield,

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 Rosemead) 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



SIR HARRY ORD.

(First Governor of the Straits Settlements under the Crown Colony system. Taken at Government House, Singapore, in 1869.)

region of small commercial importance. The penalty of our shortsightedness in making the bargain 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 teasing doubts of timid statesmen have changed to a feeling of complacent 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 :

Year.	Revenue in Dollars.	Expenditure in Dollars.	Trade.	
			Value of Imports in Dollars.	Value of Exports in Dollars.
1868	1,301,843	1,197,177	42,119,708	37,993,856
1869	1,313,046	1,164,354	43,986,222	40,583,322
1870	1,378,748	1,259,376	54,449,388	47,980,953
1871	1,405,703	1,254,111	56,016,661	51,807,601
1872	1,536,274	1,290,311	63,650,222	62,149,329
1873	1,502,094	1,415,828	64,795,135	60,312,143
1874	1,458,782	1,679,210	67,117,979	62,643,195
1875	1,538,854	1,805,229	63,137,716	62,493,328
1880	2,361,300	2,038,947	83,718,103	78,051,739
1885	3,508,074	3,593,149	110,356,766	100,513,222
1890	4,269,125	3,757,691	147,297,317	127,923,682
1895	4,048,360	3,782,456	198,218,306	172,974,953
1900	5,386,557	6,030,744	314,080,860	262,617,345
1904	10,746,518	10,848,989	383,942,088	326,193,851
1905	11,657,424	10,980,391	332,233,916	282,960,785

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

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 to 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 1857 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 inhabitants. As it is, the port—in the volume of its trade—is 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 revenue, which in 1859 amounted to 90,407 dollars against disbursements totalling 129,396 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.

A question hotly 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 £50,145. At or about this figure it remained until 1889, 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 feeling akin to consternation in the settlements at the action of the imperial authorities. With a rapidly 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, VICEROY OF INDIA.

Though hopelessly worsted 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 10, 1891) embodying this decision of the Colonial Office to persist in their extortionate 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 civilised government"; while a third reminded her 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 supplied 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 exacting Treasury, still declined to make any reduction in the contribution. He promised, 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 6, 1894, announced that the Government were prepared to reduce the colonial contribution to £80,000 for 1894 and £90,000 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 the ultimate liability precisely where it was, and not unnaturally the colony emphatically declined 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 heavy 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 17½ per cent. of the total revenue of the colony. In this arrangement the colonists were compelled perforce 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.

Singapore's development as a great imperial outpost and commercial *entrepôt* is proceeding on lines commensurate with the magnificence of its strategical position and the vastness of its trade. The acquisition by Government of the Tanjong 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 unveiling 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—in 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 quaeris 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 DINDINGS).

### 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 Negus, son of Colonel Francis Negus, 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 quitted 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 Malay 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 it 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

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 *contemps* 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 six 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 Raja, came here and informed me that the Rajah of Bengal ordered him to request Pulau Pinang from me to make an English settlement, where the



WARREN HASTINGS.

(From a portrait in the National Portrait Gallery.)

with this idea he, in 1771, laid 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

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



COL. WILLIAM LIGHT, SON OF THE  
FOUNDER OF PINANG.

(From a portrait in the National Portrait Gallery.)

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 rajahs 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



PULAU PINANG EARLY IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

(Sketch by Captain R. Elliott, R.N., published in Fisher's "Views in India, China, and the Shores of the Red Sea.")



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 Adelaide, 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 arrangement 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. Cullin 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 expedition. Soon a little town of *atap* 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 possession 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



CHARLES, FIRST MARQUESS CORNWALLIS.

(Governor-General of India during the period immediately following the occupation of Pinang. From a portrait in the National Portrait Gallery.)

next day, and that the capital would be known as Georgetown, out of compliment to the sovereign, George III. There were mutual congratulations on the birth of the new settlement,



VIEW FROM HALLIBURTON'S HILL, PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND.

(From Daniell's "Views of Prince of Wales Island," published early in the nineteenth century.)

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 Pinang 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 interior was a thick jungle, 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 on imposing lines. As a residence for himself and 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 Chulias 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 have come in much larger numbers but for the 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 population of the settlement was returned 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 discovered a new channel 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 must leave it to time and to your good management 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 importing at Prince of Wales Island, and it is our wish to make the port free to all nations." Thus it will be seen that Pinang was originally cast for the rôle 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 barter of the manufactures of India for the produce of other countries. The present situation 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 the Chinese junks and the Malay and Bugis prows from passing Malacca, while by threats they cause some of the Malay States and by force oblige others to desist from trading with the English, are obstacles too great to admit of the levying with success any general duties." Light went on to say that in his view the island ought to be treated as a colony, and the expense of maintaining it drawn from land and not from the trade, which should be encouraged as much as possible, to the end that the export of manufactures of the Company's territories in India might be extended, and the remittances to China by the sale of these manufactures increased. Still, he recognised that money had to be found for immediate needs, and he accordingly suggested a system of customs duties on foreign goods or goods imported in foreign vessels. The chief imposts were : 4 per cent. upon all India goods imported in foreign vessels ; 4 per cent. upon all goods imported in Chulia vessels not immediately from any of the Company's settlements ; 6 per cent. upon all China 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 imposts were abolished, and Pinang became, like Singapore, a free port. Meanwhile, a series of excise farms were set up to raise money for specific 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 none too smoothly in the early period of its existence. Apart from the obstructiveness of the Dutch, Light had to deal with the serious 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 in the strongest terms what he regards as the bad faith of the Supreme Government in their dealings 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 affirms that they did, and the mass of documentary evidence which he adduces in favour of that 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 much earnestness the desirability 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 will suffer disgrace in tamely suffering 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 sepoy 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 did to others not less 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 approbation 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 formidable force of ten 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 Europeans 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 Rajah 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 indited a communication to Sir John Shore, who had succeeded Macpherson as Governor-General, urging the necessity of establishing a 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, framed certain 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 under the regulations 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 an irate suitor—a certain Mr. Douglas—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 Raffles, who was then Colonial Secretary, cited it as "another 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 resent 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, a friend of Light's foster parents. He entered 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 of 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. In the circumstances the 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 removal of the Company's centre of influence from Pinang. Major Kyd pointed out that Port Cornwallis, the alternative situation 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 Straits of Malacca 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, sardonically remarked that revenue at the settlement arose from the vices rather than the industry 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 inquiring "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 cleansing 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 houses and ground situated on what is called the Point and within the limits of Georgetown, have had a meeting, and have given it as their



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



THE MARQUESS WELLESLEY.

(Governor-General of India from 1797 to 1806. From the portrait in the National Portrait Gallery.)

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-



VIEW OF THE NORTH BEACH FROM THE COUNCIL HOUSE, PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND.

(From Daniell's "Views of Prince of Wales Island.")

ment. 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 :

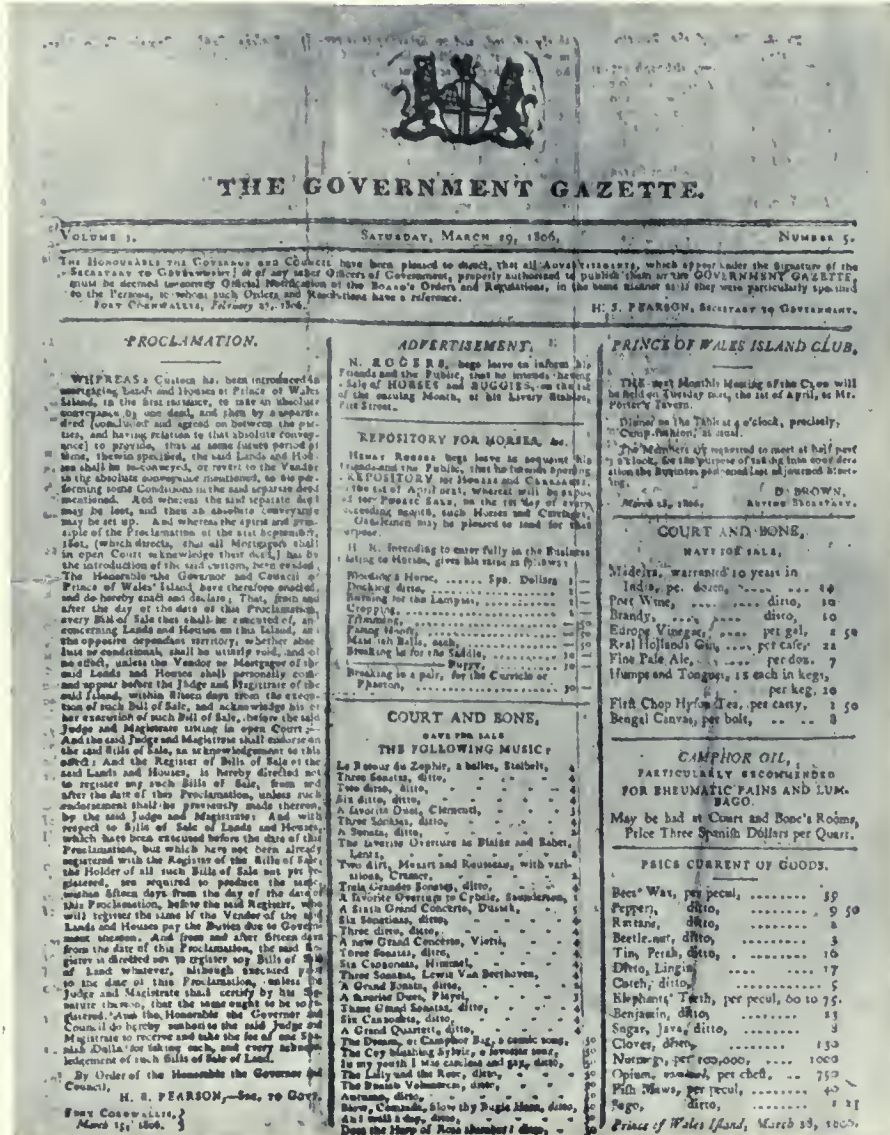
"SIR, . . . I beg leave to inform you, for the information of the Governor-General in Council, that my authority or permission to reside in India is from his Majesty King George the Third—God save him!—also from Superintendent Francis Light, Esquire, the public faith being pledged for that purpose. . . . And as to my character, I shall take particular care that it be laid before the Governor-General in Council."

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 extension 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,

sition did not at the time or for many years afterwards appear to be of any great value apart from its uses in conducting a campaign against pirates. Thus, one writer of the early part of the last century, alluding to the transfer, says : "The amount of purchase money, 2,000 dollars for nearly 150 square miles of country, was not great, but it was probably the full value." There are many who would be glad to get even a decent sized piece of ground in Province Wellesley at the present day for the price. So much for confident assertions based on superficial knowledge. The consideration paid for this new territory was a good deal more than the 2,000 dollars mentioned by the writer. That sum was a mere extra—"the little present for the ladies." The real payment was an annual subsidy of 10,000 dollars "so long as the English shall continue in possession of Pulo Pinang and the country on the opposite shore."

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 Indian Ganges 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 took to itself airs and graces which were unknown in the days of Light's unassuming rule or even in the days of 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 some social function of more than ordinary interest. Thus, we find in the issue of Saturday, August 16, 1806, the following :

"Tuesday last being the anniversary of the birth of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales and of the establishment of this settlement, the Prince of Wales Island Club held an extraordinary meeting at Mr. Nicoll's hotel, for the purpose of commemorating the day. An elegant entertainment was served up by Mr. Nicoll 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—



PINANG GOVERNMENT GAZETTE.

(One of the earliest copies of the first newspaper published in the Straits.)

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

but not without difficulty. There were impediments raised at first to the transfer, but on adopting a hint given and making "a little present" to the ladies of the Sultan's household, he got his treaty. On Monday, July 7, 1800, Sir George Leith took formal possession of the new territory, which was named Province Wellesley, after the Marquess of Wellesley, the then Governor-General of India. The acqui-

"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-fellowship. 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 based on the favourable opinions expressed here and elsewhere was 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 5,344 Europeans, 5,777 natives, and 839 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 these opening 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. The new Governor, Colonel Norman Macalister, retired in 1810, and was succeeded by the Hon. C. A. Bruce, a brother of the Earl of Elgin. Mr. Bruce only lived a few months to enjoy the dignity of his high position, his death taking place on December 26, 1810, at the early age of forty-two. His successor, Mr. Seaton, was also removed by death within a very short period of his appointment, and strangely enough the two following Governors, Mr. Wm. Petrie and Colonel Bannerman, did not outlive their respective terms of office. In less than fourteen years Prince of Wales Island had six chief 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 Province 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 164,000 dollars. A financial committee was appointed to investigate matters, but as the only satisfactory remedy was a severe cutting down 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, 1815, 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 arithmetic, 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 200 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 schoolhouses, one for boys and the other for girls. This ground being required for the church erected about this time, another 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, 1819, the 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 therewith the study of the Christian catechism. The Government granted a monthly allowance of 20 dollars for the furtherance of the scheme, 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. Milne, 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 1815 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 1810 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—to him—essential condition of the original contract. The letter, which is given in full in Anderson's "Conquest of Quedah and Perak," 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 the grace of his Majesty will fill me with gratitude ; under the power and majesty of the King I desire to repose 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 of Pinang to afford me aid and 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 was quite inconsistent with reason to suppose that Pinang was ceded without some 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 to him." It does not appear that any 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. W. E. Phillips, Colonel Bannerman's successor in the government. He was granted an allowance for his maintenance and a force of sepoy 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 fugitive prince's residence became the centre of plots 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 force commanded by Tunku Abdullah, 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 by Mr. Phillips to the communication 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 efforts to reconquer his territory would 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.

An immediate effect of the conquest of Kedah by the Siamese was the filling of Province Wellesley with great bodies of refugees. In the early days of the invasion thousands of these unfortunates crossed the border to escape the diabolical cruelties practised by the Siamese upon all who fell into their hands. Many of them were in a starving condition, and without resources of any kind. The Government authorities in the province exerted themselves to succour the wretched fugitives, and with such success that soon a considerable number of them were settled on the land in comparative comfort. It was fortunate that at this period the local direction of affairs was in the capable hands of Mr. Maingy, a humane and resourceful man, who took a real interest in developing the latent resources of the province. Under his supervision roads were made in various directions by convicts, and convicts were also employed in cutting drains and channels for irrigation of paddy fields and in opening arteries of communication between different rivers. He made small advances to each of the cultivators to encourage cultivation, and obtained at his own expense from Calcutta indigo seeds, together with a person competent to teach the process of concreting the dye, in order to establish a system of indigo cultivation. Meanwhile, with the support and sanction of Government, he opened native schools at Teluk Ayer, Tawar, and Prye, for the education of natives. The rapid growth of the agricultural interest

in the province had, somewhat earlier than the period at which the events just narrated occurred, induced the Government to establish a regular system of administration in the mainland area. The province in 1820 was divided into four distinct districts, each under an official, who was provided with a police establishment and a small military guard. The whole was under a superintendent. These and other beneficent measures had their due effect, and soon the province, which had hitherto been a sort of Malayan Alsatia to which all sorts of bad characters resorted, became a centre of thriving industry.

It is to this period we may date the rise of the great planting industry which now occupies so important a place in the commercial life of the settlements. A communication written by Mr. Phillips on September 18, 1823, reported to the Court of Directors 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 landholder, and certainly one of the most 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 plants hitherto planted by himself and others engaged in this speculation 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 improving the agricultural 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 blessings and security of a British system of government and law, of 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 articles of culture, and to cloves and nutmegs, which private individuals have continued to cultivate, notwithstanding all public encouragement was withdrawn in the year 1805, 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.

3. GLUGOR HOUSE AND SPICE PLANTATION.

(From Daniell'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 acquaint your Honourable Court 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 livelihood, and ultimately a comfortable competency, than Java, the Cape of Good Hope, or Canada."<sup>1</sup>

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 systems of tenure. New regulations 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 Pinang 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 "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 present state of the coast 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 planting industry was carried through a 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. Cracroft, an able official, to Perak and Selangor to conclude treaties with the rulers of those States. His mission was a complete success. He brought back with him agreements which pledged the two chiefs to maintain ties of friendship with the British and not to renew obsolete agreements with other Powers which might tend to exclude or obstruct the trade of British subjects. Subsequently a subsidiary arrangement was made with the Raja 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 650 bahars or 1,950 piculs. The tin was purchased by the commanders of the Company's ships *General Harris* and *Ivarren Hastings* at the rate of 18 dollars per picul (£72 10s. 8d. per ton). After deducting all charges against the import there was a clear profit on the transaction of 5,396.41 Spanish dollars. 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 aggrandising 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 appears that the reputed grant to Captain Mein of this island was not made valid by the seals and signatures of the constitutional authorities of the country."<sup>2</sup> Captain Mein's ambitious venture in islandmongering missed fire, but at a later period, when Sir Andrew Clarke concluded the Treaty of Pangkor in 1874, 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 molest the traders on the coast and inhabitants of the mainland, 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 the interest of the settlements to occupy these 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, and meanwhile Sir Harry Ord paid a visit to the Dindings and convinced himself that the cession of 1826 included portions of the land at the mouth of the Dindings opposite Pulo

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 183.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, No. 182.

Pangkor, because "the cession would have been perfectly useless for the suppression of piracy, since on the appearance of our vessels or boats off Pulo Pangkor the pirates could at once have taken refuge among these islands, where they would have been quite safe 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 Krian, the tracing out of the boundary being left for a commission to carry out subsequently.

CHAPTER IV.

PINANG MADE A FREE PORT—GOVERNMENT REGULATION OF THE PRESS.

THE occupation of Singapore had a very injurious effect upon Pinang trade. Native vessels from China, which formerly made Pinang 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 Pinang, 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, 1823, 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 Pinang to the sale of the staples of continental India and to the property of the merchants of the other presidencies, as these had already contributed 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, 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 our President's minute of the 12th July last, which we have experienced and still experience in discountenancing 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



VIEW OF THE CASCADE, PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND.

(From Daniell's "Views of Prince of Wales Island.")

situation of this island with respect to the pepper staple of the east and west coasts of Sumatra, betul nut of Achin, tin of Junk Ceylon and Malayan Peninsula, bird's nest of Mergui, and oil, teak-wood, and other

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.”<sup>1</sup>

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 sensible of the advantages to be derived from the maintenance of the open door at Singapore to listen to the specious reasoning of the Pinang Government. They confined their action to sanctioning a rearrangement of port dues 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 the less disposed to take a roscate 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 heseeking the Court “not to be so harsh and severe to this settlement as to put a stop at once to 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 placed on an equal footing with their 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 calms so constantly prevail.” With all his prescience, Mr. Fullerton could not anticipate the time when steamboats would make 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 Pinang coincided with the establishment of a regular market system. Up to 1827 the privilege of holding 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 carried on by his son. 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-

ment 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. Under the new proprietor the journal was issued as the *Penang Register and Miscellany*, 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 confession of faith spoke of the restrictions upon the press as having been “no doubt wisely” introduced, and when taken to task by a Singapore scribe for this subserviency, he ingenuously 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 the remark of “an odd little body at Malacca.” “What!” said this individual, “do you think we are fools enough to pay these gents for picking holes in our Sunday coats?” This free-and-easy theory of the censorship as a matter controlled by the subsidy did not find favour in exalted quarters, and there was increasing friction between the newspaper office 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 defiance of authority, and caused a letter to be sent to the editor, a Mr. Ballhotchet, demanding an explanation. The missive was returned unopened. What 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 proprietor of the paper, a Mr. McIntyre, who was a clerk in the office of the Superintendent of Lands, should be dismissed from his office, and that Mr. Ballhotchet's licence to reside in the settlement should be withdrawn. This drastic action was subsequently modified to the extent that the expulsion decree in the latter's case was withdrawn “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 gallantly stepped into the breach, 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 favours of correspondents. This island doubtless contains an abundance of latent talent. Be it our humble office to bring these treasures to light, and thus offer to the man of business an elegant relaxation and to the idler a recreation. . . . We beg, however, thus early to express an aversion to satire as being rarely free from malice or personality, and in no way according with the motto we have assumed.” The editor, true to his professed 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 as 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 sanctum at Pinang. The sands of the paper's existence, however, were by that time running out. The cost of the production was greater than had been anticipated. Moreover, the change in the system of government by which the settlements were brought under the direct control of the Supreme Government was impending, and a new era of freedom for the press throughout the dominions of the East India Company was dawning. Hence 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 circumstanced, 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 Straits journalism commences 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 1830, 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 or 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 86,009 to 91,098. On the other hand the settlement more than maintained its reputation as a costly appanage of the East India Company. In 1835-36, compared with an expenditure of Rs. 253,328 was a revenue of only Rs. 178,930. The position

<sup>1</sup> “Straits Settlements Records,” No. 183.



VIEWS OF PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND.

1. VIEW FROM THE CONVALESCENT BUNGALOW.

2. MOUNT ERSKINE AND PULO TICOOSE BAY.

3. SUFFOLK HOUSE.

4. VIEW FROM STRAWBERRY HILL.

(From Daniell's "Views of Prince of Wales Island.")

became worse as years went by, for in 1845, against the smaller revenue of Rs. 176,495 had to be set the enormously increased expenditure of Rs. 346,659. In the "Report on the Moral and Material Progress of India for 1859-60" 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 ever 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 chiefs took an active hand in it. Indeed, there was reason to believe at the time that more than one of them derived their chief source of revenue from the toll levied on commerce by the rovers. The Government routed these freebooters out from one stronghold after another in and about the island, but still the nefarious trade flourished. It derived not a little of its strength in later years from the anarchical state into which the native States of Perak and Selangor lapsed through the weakness of the native government, or what passed for such. The policy of non-interference in native affairs traditionally pursued by the British in the Straits compelled the Pinang officials to look on with arms folded while these States, by their disorder, were producing a chronic state of lawlessness along the coast and in the territory immediately bordering on Province Wellesley. At length, owing to a particularly menacing development of piratical enterprise off the Larut river, and outrages in Province Wellesley and the Dindings and even in Pinang itself by one of the piratical factions, the Government took action. They sent a naval force to the chief centre of the pirates' enterprise off the coast of Perak, and for months the coast was patrolled. Owing to the shallow nature of the waters hereabouts the operations were most difficult and little progress was made. Sir Frank Swettenham, who speaks from personal experience, gives in "British Malaya" an interesting description of these pirate hunts in the early seventies. "It was," he writes, "impossible to land, for the coast was nothing but mangroves and mud, with here and there a fishing village, inhabited, no doubt, by pirates or their friends, but with nothing to prove their complicity. These mangrove flats were traversed in every direction by deep-water lagoons, and whenever the pirates were sighted,

as not infrequently happened, and chase was given, their faster boats pulled away from their pursuers with the greatest ease, and in a few minutes the pirates would be lost in a maze of waterways, with nothing to indicate which turn they had taken. The whole business became somewhat ludicrous when native craft were pirated (usually by night) under the eyes of the British crews, and when their boats got up to the scene of action there was not a trace to show what had occurred or where the pirates had gone. Finally the boats of H.M.S. *Midge* were attacked in the estuary of the Larut river, and after a longish engagement the pirates were beaten off, having seriously wounded two British officers. The net result of these excursions was that about 50 per cent. of the crews of the gun-vessels were invalidated, and not a single pirate boat or man had been captured." Matters drifted on until 1874, when a particularly impudent case of piracy at the entrance of the Jugra river, a tidal creek connecting with the Langkat river at a point where the Sultan of Selangor was then living, led to a naval demonstration in which the then Governor of the Straits, Sir Andrew Clarke, joined. The Sultan was duly impressed with the powerful arguments presented to him in the shape of a very serviceable portion of the China Squadron, and though one of his own sons was implicated, gave full authority for the trial of the men who had been taken prisoners by the British authorities, and on their being subsequently condemned to death, sent a kris to be used at the execution. This episode had a great moral effect in the Straits, but the decline and final extinction of piracy is to be traced more to the development of the Federated Malay States under British guidance than to coercive measures.

In another section we shall have occasion to describe this great movement in some detail, and it is therefore unnecessary to follow here the course of events in these States, though their influence on Pinang was at times considerable. It must be noted, however, that the rise of the Federation has brought to Pinang a great accession of prosperity and restored to it something of its old prestige as a port. The settled conditions of life and the progressive system of government which replaced the old anarchy not only stimulated the coast trade which centred at Pinang, but they had a vivifying influence on the territory included within the area of the settlement. For a long period European capitalists were shy of investing their money in Province Wellesley and the Dindings. The conditions under which the Government were prepared to grant land were not sufficiently liberal to tempt them. Moreover, there was little faith in the future of agricultural enterprise, hampered as it then was by adverse labour conditions and a general state of unrest which seemed to afford a precarious tenure to any who might be bold enough to sink their money in the operations then open to the planter. As Perak and Selangor were brought more and more under a settled administration and

immense, far-reaching changes were made by the opening up of the country by roads, the value of the Pinang territory as a field of enterprise was recognised, and the country shared in the wonderful prosperity which marked the progress of those States in common with the whole federated area. The rise of rubber helped on the movement, for much of the land in Province Wellesley and the Dindings is suited to the cultivation of this most important article of commerce, and capitalists have not been slow to realise the fact. Lastly, the introduction of railways has been an immense boon to the Pinang administrative area, and is likely to have even more marked results as the system in the peninsula is more developed. Although it is only since 1903 that the line through Province Wellesley has been open to traffic, the effects on Pinang trade have been remarkable. The municipal revenue of the town—a good test of prosperity—has risen from 568,695 dollars in 1903 to 819,531 dollars in 1905, 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 grave of disappointed expectations, but it is now justifying the faith reposed in its future by its founder. Indeed, Light in his most sanguine moments could not have pictured for his settlement a destiny so brilliant as that which even now it has achieved. The transformation from 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 by a succession of able British officials in the past thirty years. But it ought never to be forgotten that much of that work would have been barely possible if there had been no Pinang and no Province Wellesley to provide as it were a base for the diffusion of British influence. Light, as his writings show, clearly recognised in his day how important Pinang was, viewed in the aspect of a centre from which to dominate the Northern Malay States. His representations were unheeded by shortsighted bureaucrats in India, and only the proverbial British luck in such matters prevented the whole of the remarkably wealthy territory which is now peacefully and happily under British protection from passing into foreign hands. The debt which the Empire owes to Light is second only to that which it readily acknowledges as the due of Raffles. In the adjudgment of posthumous honours by the *arbitrator elegantiarum* of colonial history it can scarcely be claimed that the unpretentious sea captain and trader of Junk Ceylon has had his due. But however ignorant the British public as a whole may be of Light's great services, Pinang people are not likely to forget them.

## 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 finials 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

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 "Sejara 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 Lusitanian power in the East. Hard by is the old Dutch Stadt House, solid and grim-looking, recalling the era when the Netherlanders held

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

describes the final conquest of Singapore in 1252, and the withdrawal of the remnants of the Malay population to Malacca, to found there a new city. The founder was Raja Secunder (or Iskander Shah, the erstwhile

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 to 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 pelandooks (moose deer) are full of courage. Let us found a city here." And the city was founded and called Malacca, after the name of the tree under which the Prince was resting—the malacca tree (*Phyllanthus 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 Kechil Besar. In the reign of this potentate 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 attempts of the Siamese kings to subdue them. The Annals give a picturesque description of Malacca as it existed at this period. "From Ayer Leleh, the trickling stream, to the entrance of the Bay of Muar, was one uninterrupted market-place. From the Kling town likewise to the Bay of Penagar the buildings extended along the shore in an uninterrupted line. If a person went from Malacca to Jagra (Parcelar 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, its translator, to Magellan. "This city of Malacca," says 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 reckon otherwise than by *bahars* of gold, 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 downwards cover 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 waists, wrought with rich inlaid work: these they call *querix* (*kris*). And the women dress in wraps 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 slaves, who are married, with wives 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 Federated Malay States the story of Portuguese and Dutch ascendancy 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 Albuquerque in 1511. For one hundred and thirty years it remained in the occupation of the Portuguese. Under their government the place 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 proselytising zeal of the Portuguese went hand in hand with commercial enterprise. They built up a considerable trade in spices and other Eastern products, revitalising 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 to which the merchandise was brought for shipment. 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, perhaps, was scarcely justified by the actual facts. 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 1613 and discovered in quite modern times 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 principal of which was known as Tranquiera. 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 vivifying, 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, deter-

mined 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 their 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 Malacca had sunk into a position of comparative unimportance as a port. But its possession brought to the Dutch a certain degree of prestige and indirect advantages in the facilities it afforded for extending Dutch influence in the native States. Had the Netherlandish officials grasped the essential features of a policy of expansion—or, to give it its most modern designation, peaceful penetration—they might have anticipated to a considerable extent that great work which is now being done under British auspices in the Malay States. Their political outlook, however, was as characteristically narrow as was their economic policy, and though they entered into relations with some of the native chiefs, their diplomacy was directed rather to the exclusion of rivals than to practical ends. So though 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 little beyond the confines of the settlement, save in two or three instances where interests were created for ulterior purposes.

Valentyn, 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 was in the middle period of the Dutch occupation. The region in which the town is situated, he states, was called by Ptolemy and the ancients Terra or Regio Aurifera, or the gold-bearing country, and Aurea Chersonesus, or the Golden Peninsula, the latter name being conferred on account of its being joined to the countries of Tana-sery (Tenasserim) 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 Taypa 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. Paulo; and those of the Minnebroeders (foster brothers) and of Madre de Dios are erected on neighbouring hills, beyond which the land is everywhere low as on the sea coast, where the slope is so gradual that the mud bank which fronts the shore is dry at low water to the distance of two musket shots, and so soft and muddy that great difficulty is experienced in landing. . . . There are several handsome and spacious streets in the town, but unpaved; and many fine stone houses, the greater part of which are built after the Portuguese fashion, very high. They are



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

population of two or three hundred mentioned as inhabiting the fort was doubtless the European and Eurasian community. Outside the walls there was probably a much larger body of native inhabitants. Still, the settlement had

an 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



A VIEW OF OLD MALACCA UNDER THE DUTCH.

(From an old print.)

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 *attap* 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 sank 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

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 Rhio 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," i. 360.

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 domination 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 to be worth while 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, recommended that the Europeans and 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 inhabitants and by the Resident. 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 Supreme Government 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, 1808. Raffles had been profoundly 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 his numerous 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 twofold—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 impor-

ance. The former, perhaps, may in some degree have been effected by the destruction of the works and removal of the ordnance 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 settled 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 little encouragement be induced to remove, 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. . . . The inhabitants are mostly proprietors of property or connected with those that are; and those possessing independence from their gardens, fishing, and the small-trade of Malacca. 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, therefore, be considered as attached to the soil, 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 for Pinang 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 indemnified for the loss of their fixed property, 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 obedient 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 administrator for the passage of the flotilla. Those were lively days for Malacca, and how greatly the natives enjoyed the experience is to be gathered from the pages of the *Hikayat Abdullah*. The faithful Abdullah, with the minuteness almost of a Pepys, sets down in his journal all the incidents of the period. His description of Lord Minto's arrival and of his landing does infinite credit alike to his observation and his descriptive powers. "When I saw Lord Minto and how he bore himself," he writes, "I was amazed. For I had imagined to myself what he would be like, his height, his appearance, his dress. Then I thought of the Malay proverb which says, 'Fair fame is better than a fine appearance,' and I bit my finger. To me he appeared to be a man of middle age with a spare figure, charming manners, and a pleasant countenance. I said to myself that I did not think he could lift as much as 30 lbs. He wore a dark coat and dark trousers, and beyond that there was nothing to remark in his dress. And all the great men who were there to welcome him stood a long way off; and not one of them dared to offer his hand; they only raised their hats and perspired. Then the commander of the soldiers shouted an order, and every musket was brought to the salute. And as he [Lord Minto] came forward he looked to 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 simply bowed without affectation and regarded 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 Stadt House and entered it. Then all the great people of Malacca, and all the great amongst 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 *naïveté* 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 Stadt 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, until the final 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 Malaya, 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 prahu passing up or down 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

"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 Malay 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



THE STRAND, MALACCA.

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. . . .

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 Banca."

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 shuts up every avenue of improvement."

The paper closed with this 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 agreeable, the 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 medical registers of those men 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 fiat, 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 prevented the immediate fulfilment of the Treaty 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 Pinang, they appeared to consider was of minor importance to these positions which could be used with effect for the execution of the long-cherished design of securing a monopoly of the Straits trade for the Dutch. That "profligate speculation," to adopt Lord Hastings's phrase, as we know, was defeated, thanks to Raffles's 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 caretakers 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 on the left of the Dutch line and the Dutch proclamation was read and explained by the Commissioners. The Dutch colours were then hoisted full mast under a royal salute from the British battery and from the Dutch squadron. The ceremony of transfer was completed by the Dutch troops relieving the British garrison guards.

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 his Serene Highness previous to the revolution 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 States General, even subsequent to the Peace of Amiens, and further that none of the former Dutch civil or military servants were retained but such as professed a strict adherence to the cause of the Stadtholders." 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 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 ceremony, but the Dutch Governor, Thyssen, 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 in exchange for Malacca and the small 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 in the marvellous development of the Malay States under British auspices.

On the receipt by the Pinang Government of a despatch from the Supreme Government announcing the conclusion of the treaty with the Dutch, Mr. W. S. Cracroft, senior civil servant, was in March, 1825, sent with a garrison of 100 men to reoccupy the fort. Formal possession was taken on April 9th. A question was raised at the time as to whether the "dependencies of Malacca" included Riau. It was referred home, and finally answered in a negative sense. As far as Malacca itself was concerned, there was little in the situation which the British found on resuming the control of the settlement to excite enthusiasm. In the first place, the trade had been reduced almost to vanishing point by the competition of Singapore, whose superior conveniences as a port attracted to it nearly the whole of the commerce which formerly centred at Malacca. The disastrous character of the rivalry is strikingly illustrated in the revenue returns of the settlement. In 1815 the export and import duties and harbour fees amounted to 50,591 Spanish dollars. In 1821, two years after the establishment of Singapore, the receipts fell to

23,282 Spanish dollars, and in 1823 there was a further fall to 7,217 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 out 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 Penghulus, who occupied a dominant position in the management of Malacca landed 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 proprietorship. 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 Penghulus 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. 16,270 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 she formerly enjoyed.\*

If the mercantile community had cause to complain of the hardness 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 :

	Revenue. Rs.	Expenditure. Rs.	Loss. Rs.
1831-32 ...	48,800	184,500	135,700
1832-33 ...	69,800	359,800	290,000
1833-34 ...	60,700	526,200	465,500

It may be acknowledged that not a little of the excessive expenditure was for objects which were not properly debitable to Malacca—con-

ordinate 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 Penghulu 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 solatium for the loss of their power, Mr. Church was instructed to offer the Penghulu and the other functionaries a pension. The pill, though



VIEW OF MALACCA.

victs, military, &c. Still, when every allowance is made for the influence of the tendency of the Indian authorities to place liabilities in the Straits, we are faced with a position which leaves us in wonder at the patience of the East India Company in maintaining the settlement. They were probably much in the historic position of Micawber—waiting for something to turn up. Something did turn up eventually, but not until long after the Company's rule had faded out.

When Mr. Fullerton had settled the land system of Malacca proper, as has been narrated, it occurred to him that it would be well also to take in hand the adjustment of the land question in the neighbouring territory of Naning. Accordingly, in 1828 Mr. Lewis, the Assistant Resident, was despatched to Tabu, the capital of Naning, to interview the chief with a view to the introduction of the system. He was empowered to offer the Penghulu the sum of six hundred Spanish dollars, and each of the sub-

\* "Straits Settlements Records," No. 195.

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 Penghulu, 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

being under the command of Captain Wyllie, Madras Native Infantry. On the 9th the detachment reached Mullikey, 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 Malays, Captain Wyllie deemed it best to retreat. The force withdrew to Sungie-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 and the loss 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 was not enterprising. If he had any 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 from troops which had arrived from Madras 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 near Alor Gajah, and were compelled 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 lands were confiscated to Government. 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 hale, stout 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 followers of Mahomed, Foh, Brahma, and Buddha."

The operations from first to last 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 contented class 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 Muar, thence to Pahang, and finally to Johore, where he established a kingdom. Naning remained nominally under the Portuguese until 1641-42, 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 Johore, 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 frontiers of Rembau and Johore. This line at a later period was extended beyond Bukit Bruang and Ramoan 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 this time, as the poet Cowper had proudly proclaimed 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 recognised as such under 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 putting a stop to 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 intimated that the stoppage of the 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 acquainting him that he would be held 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, expatiating 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 most desirable 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 diffusing useful knowledge and the principles of religion and morality should be made the instrument for disseminating scandalous aspersions on the Government under which they live, 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 irate 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 paper brought before him." He expressed "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 lucubrations. 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 contribution of Government; the printers are the members of the Mission, alike supported by Government, and I must repeat my belief that, unless supported by Mr. Garling, the editor never would have hazarded such observations,



THE BEACH, MALACCA.

. . . 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 society 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."<sup>1</sup> 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;

<sup>1</sup> "Straits Settlements Records," No. 128.

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.<sup>2</sup>

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

<sup>2</sup> "Anecdotical History of Singapore," i. 228.

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 untutored 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 396 miles of railways built at a cost of 37,261,922 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, un-

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 States 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 Malayan 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 pursuits 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 fresher from the hand of Nature, and the absence of bigotry and inveterate 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 discerners 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 bent 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 established 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 establishment 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.

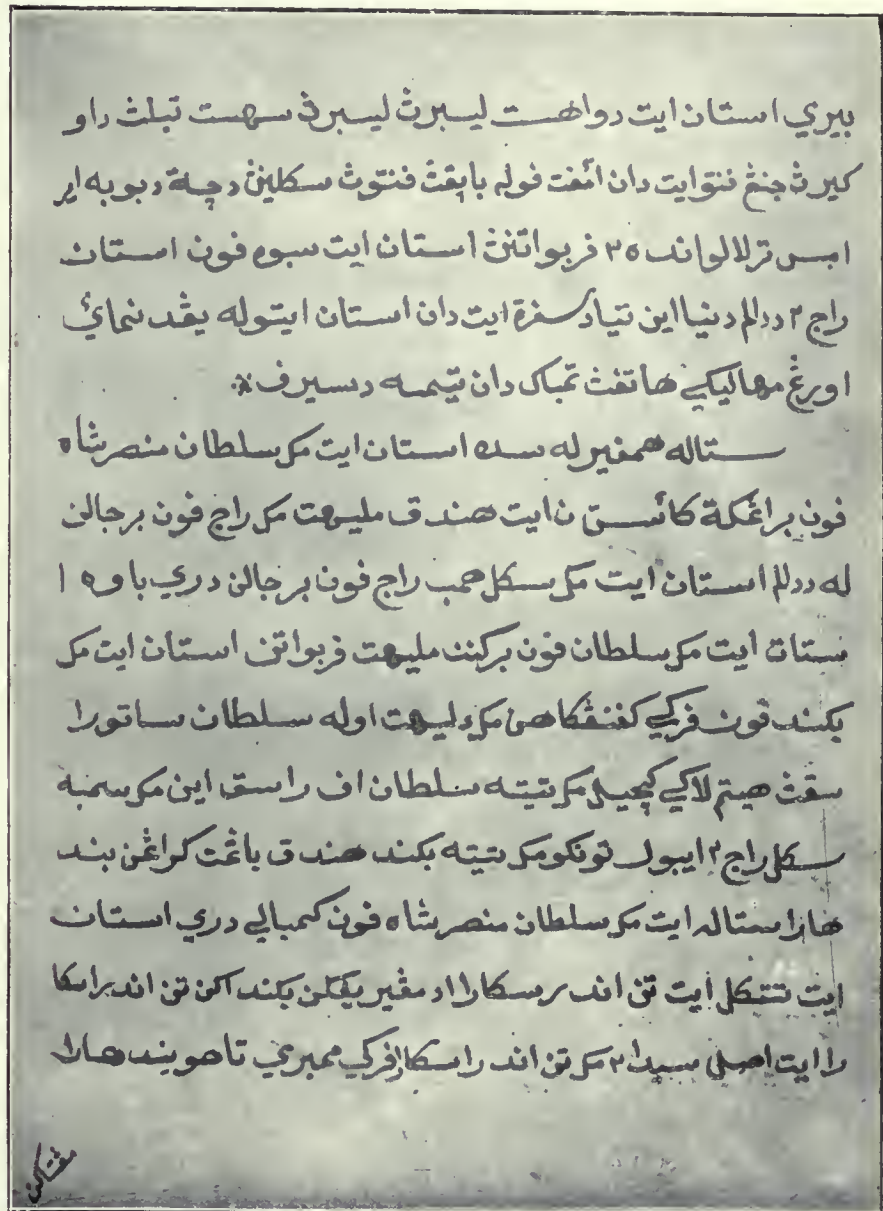
It is a matter of common knowledge that the Malays were not the first inhabitants of the peninsula. Although they intermarried with the aborigines, and although they show many traces of mixed blood, they failed to completely absorb the races that they supplanted. The new settlers kept to the rivers; 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 negrito 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 Mincopies of the Andamans, they must at one time have covered large tracts of country from which they have since completely disappeared, 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 negrito, 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 negrito of British Malaya are usually divided up by the Malays into three: the Semang Paya or Swamp-Semangs (now almost extinct); the Semang Bukit or Mountain Semangs, who inhabit the mountains of Upper Perak; and the Pangan, who are occasionally found in some of the hills between Pahang and Kelantan.

The culture of some of these negrito 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. Skeat is to be relied upon—as to include the theft of a blunderbuss in their little catalogues of crime. Unless, however, 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 "Tembe," 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.

to admit that they must have borrowed some of their neighbours' culture.

A few Semang are still to be found in the mountains between Selama and the Perak valleys. Others doubtless exist in the little known country that lies between Temengor and the river Plus; but south of the Plus we come to a fairer race, the northern division of the numerous tribes that are often grouped together as "Sakai."

a mere mixed race, a cross between their northern and southern neighbours. This is not necessarily the case. Their rather serious appearance, for one thing, does not suggest an admixture of the infantile physiognomy of the Semang and the gay boyish looks of the Sakai of Slim and Bidor. Moreover, their industrial art—to judge by blowpipes and quivers—is higher than that of their neighbours. They practise agriculture, and live in small houses

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

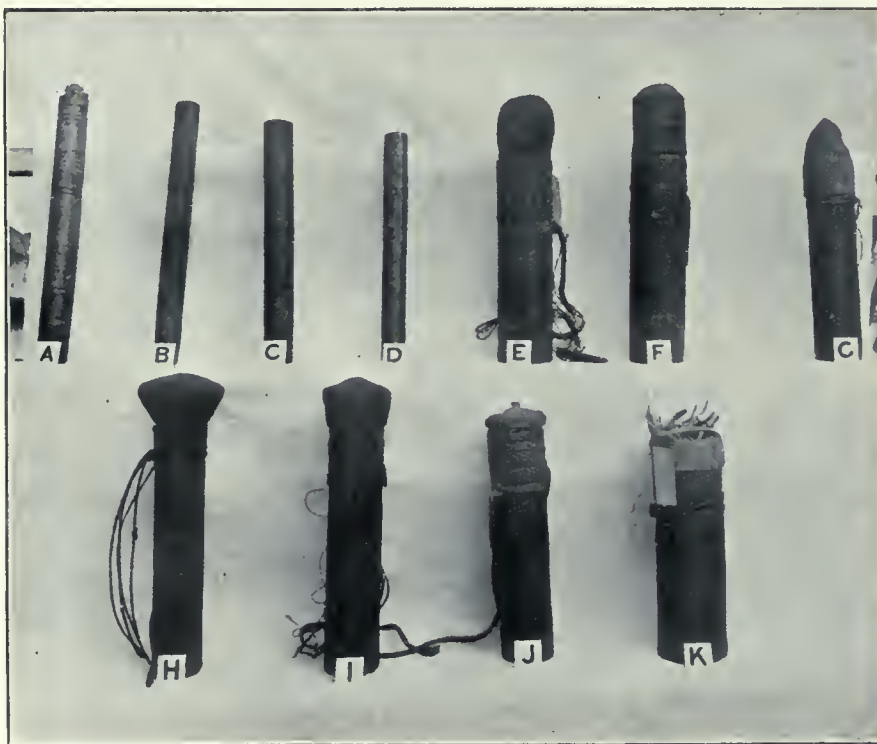
than those of their northern and southern neighbours. Linguistically we are still in the "Central Sakai" region.

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 "Besisi" group of Sakai dialects. The men who speak these Besisi 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 slighter 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

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 Pahang we meet the Serting 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 Rompin river there live many Sakai of whom very little is known. They may be "Besisi," "Serting 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 make it impossible to ever hope to clear up 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 Gunong Benom (in Pahang) there are found other tribes of Sakais speaking a language that has some kinship with Besisi and Serting 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 point to any one dialect as being probably the purest 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 dialects of Kuantan, and of the old 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.

A, B, C, D, Semang Quivers. E, F, Northern Sakai Quivers. G, Batang Padang Quiver.  
H, Quiver from Slim. I, J, Besisi Quivers. K, Kuantan Quiver.

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

small community. This form of tribal organisation—under a *batin*, *jeuang*, and *jekra* (or *jurukrah*)—is common to a very large number of tribes in the south of the peninsula, and is also found among the *Orang Laut*, or Sea-gypsies. The Besisi tribes cultivate the soil, build fair houses, have some artistic sense, are fond of music, possess a few primitive songs, and know something of the art of navigation. They are found all over Selangor, Negri Sembilan, and Malacca.

In the mountains of Jelebu, near the headwaters of the Kongkoi and Kenaboi rivers, are found the Kenaboi, a shy and mysterious people who speak a language totally unlike either Central Sakai, Besisi, or Malay. So little is known about the Kenaboi that it would be dangerous to commit oneself to any conjecture regarding their position in the ethnography of

dwelling, in tribal organisation, in weapons, and in mode of life, we may perhaps be excused for thinking that the racial elements in the peninsula will prove to be 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 negrito who has not learnt to till the ground, but wanders over the country and lives from hand to mouth on the products of the jungle. It gives us the same negrito after he has learnt the rudiments of art and agriculture from his Sakai neighbours. It gives us the Sakai who grows certain simple fruits and vegetables, and is nomadic in a far slighter degree than the primitive Semang. 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 soil begins to 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, Ounkeh Puteh, 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. Charmed 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 Binnas, give an account of their origin which strongly recalls the Noachian story of Scripture. "The ground, they say, on which we stand is not solid. It is merely the skin of the earth (Kulit Bumi). In ancient times God broke up this skin, so that the world was destroyed and overwhelmed with water. Afterwards he caused Gunong Lulumut, with Chimundang and Bechnak, to rise, and this low land which we

inhabit was formed later. These mountains on the south, and Mount Ophir, Gunong Kap, Gunong Tonkat Bangsi and Gunong Tonkat Subang on the north (all mountains within a short radius), give a fixity to the earth's skin. The earth still depends entirely on these mountains for steadiness. The Lulumut mountains are the oldest land. The summit of Gunong Tonkat Bangsi is within one foot of the sky, that of Gunong Tonkat Subang is within an ear-ring's length, 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 some time the prahu was neither directed with 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 Sambau. 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 womb, 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 Malacca, may be given as a pendant 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 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 collected their ashes by means of 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—that is to say, the souls of great sinners, such as homicides and those who have been 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 archæological remains, they are singularly poor in relics of antiquity when contrasted with Java and Cambodia, or even with the northern 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 400 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 its destruction it seems to have been in the ancient Kawi 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 Kampas, on the Linggi 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 *kramat*, 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 buckler. Mahomedan zeal seems also to have carved the holy name of Allah on the sword of the saint, and to

some curious old bronzes resembling bells that have been dug up at Klang, in Selangor, (2) in a little bronze image suggestive of a Buddha that was discovered in a Tanjong Rambutan mine at a depth of some 60 feet below the surface, (3) in an old Bernam tomb beautifully constructed of thin slabs of stone and con-

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 very midst 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 Singgora. There we find undoubted evidence of the existence of powerful Buddhist States like that of Langkasuka, the kingdom of *alang-kah suka* 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 Langgasu 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 "Langkawi" 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.



INSCRIPTION FROM NORTH PROVINCE WELLESLEY.

(See p. 77.)

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 *kramat* is built up.

Besides these inscriptions, traces of ancient non-Malayan civilisations have been found (1) in

taining some broken pottery and three cornelian beads, and (4) 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.

#### 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 Sapurba, son of Raja Suran, the "Ruler 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-

tang, near Mount Mahameru, in the hinterland of Palembang. Two young girls who dwell upon the hill are said to have seen a great light shining through the darkness of night. On ascending the hill in the morning they



THE "SWORD OF THE SAINT."  
(See p. 76.)

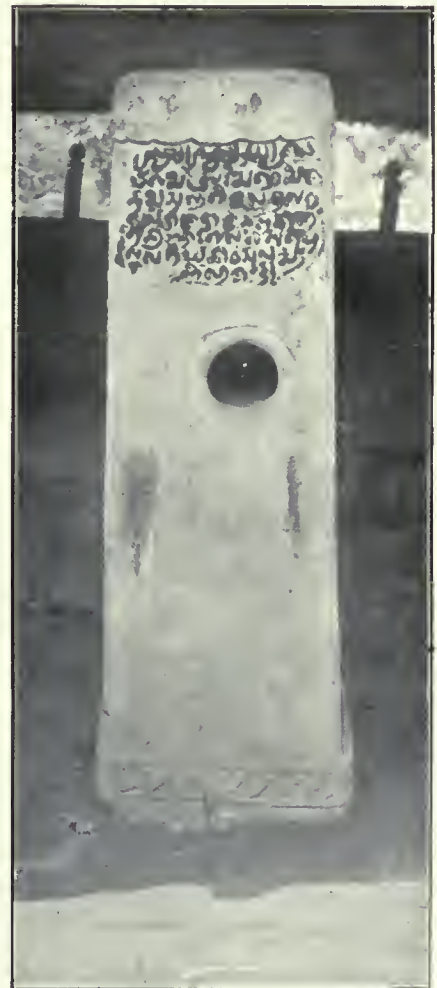
found that their rice-crops had been transformed—the grain into gold, the leaves into silver, the stalks into golden brass. Proceeding further, they came across three young men, the eldest of whom was mounted on a silver-white bull and was dressed as a king, while the two younger, his brothers, bore the sword and spear that indicated sovereign power. "Who, then, are you—spirits or fairies?" said the astonished girls. "Neither spirits nor fairies, but men," said one of the brothers; "we are Princes of the race of the Great Alexander; we have his seal, his sword, and his spear; we seek his inheritance on earth." "And what proof have you of this?" said the girls. "Let the crown I wear bear me witness if necessary," replied the eldest Prince; "but what of that? Is it for naught that my coming has been marked by this crop of golden grain?" Then out of the mouth of the bull there issued a sweet-voiced herald, who at once proclaimed the Prince to be a king bearing the title of Sang Sapurba Trimurti Tribuana. The newly-installed sovereign afterwards descended from the hill of Siguntang into the great plain watered by the Palembang river, where he married the daughter of the local chief, Demang Lebar Daun, and was everywhere accepted as ruler of the country. At a later date he is said to

have crossed the great central range of Sumatra into the mountains of Menangkabau, where he slew the great dragon Si-Katimuna, and was made the king of a grateful people and the founder of the long line of Princes of Menangkabau, the noblest dynasty of Malaya. Meanwhile, however, his relatives in Palembang had crossed the sea, first to the island of Bintang and afterwards from Bintang to the island of Tamasak, 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 "Bustanu'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 chiefs, 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 450 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 Tamasak 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



INSCRIPTION NEAR PENGKALAN  
KAMPAS.

(See p. 77.)

differences could not have been brought about in any brief period of time. The history of the State of Palembang must go back extremely far into the past; and, if only we could

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 Hsiao 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. 519, 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. 905 Palembang reappears in Chinese records under the name of San-bo-tsai. In



BRONZE IMAGE FROM TANJONG RAMBUTAN.

(See p. 78.)

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. 960 "tribute" was again

sent—twice. In A.D. 962 the same thing occurred. From A.D. 962 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 "they at once 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. 1003 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-aloes, 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. 992 we hear of a war between the Javanese and the people of Palembang. It seems, therefore, quite certain that Palembang—between the years 900 and 1360 A.D.—was a country of considerable civilisation and importance, owing its culture to Indian sources and perhaps possessing very close affinities to the powerful States of Java. What, then, were the events that brought about the downfall of this great Malayan kingdom?

The close of the thirteenth century in China saw the Mongol invasion that ended in making 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



A TOMBSTONE FROM BRUAS.

(See p. 78.)

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.

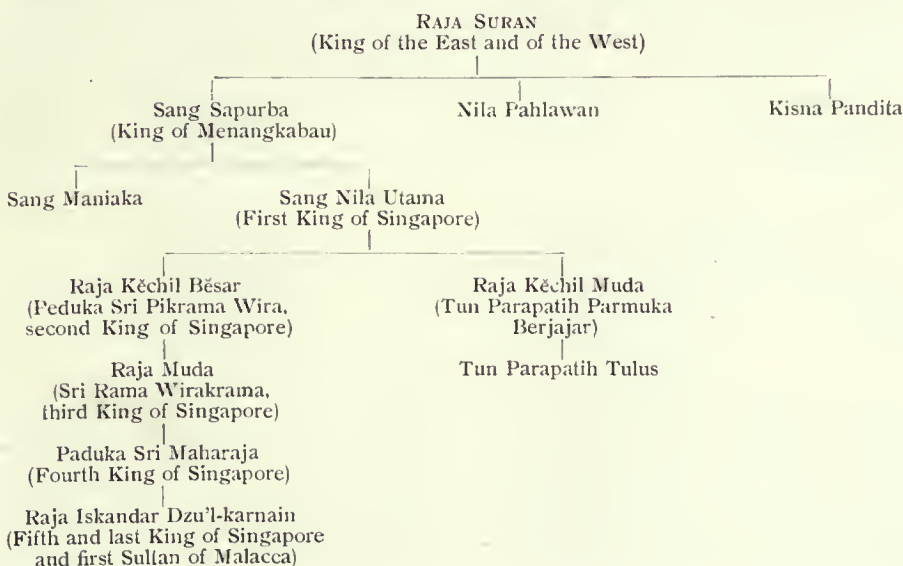
The advent of the Ming dynasty (A.D. 1368) commenced a new era of peace and commerce, in which we again find mention of the State of Palembang. Great changes had, however, taken place since the last reference to the country in A.D. 1178. San-bo-tsai had been split up into three States. We hear (A.D. 1373) of a King Tan-ma-sa-na-ho—probably the King of Tamasak or Singapore. We hear also (A.D. 1374) of a King Ma-na-ha-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-cha Wu-li, 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 annalist goes on to say:

"At that time, however, San-bo-tsai had already been conquered by Java, and the King of this country, hearing 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."

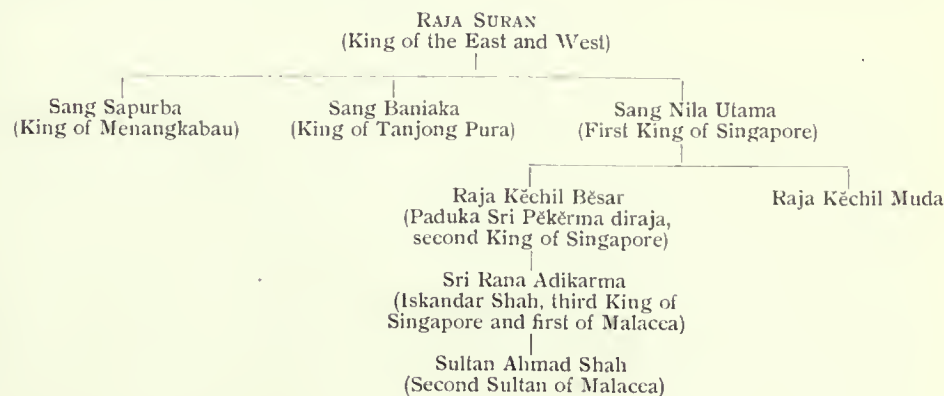
Chinese, Malay, and Javanese historical records all agree in referring to a great war

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 come now 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, Siamese, 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 good 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 :



If this pedigree is to be accepted, the old State of Singapore must have lasted for several generations, but the-annalist who drew it up gave another pedigree to his friend, Nuru'ddin Raniri al-Hasanji, the author of the "Bustanu's salafin." The other pedigree is as follows :



This second pedigree gives a 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. 1819, 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 laid 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 angry 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. 1403, as Chinese records tell us, the ruler or "Paramisura" of Malacca

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

gave us a real key to the chronology of the period. From these records it is quite clear that Singapore fell in A.D. 1377, and not in A.D. 1252, as the "Malay Annals" would

to be identical with Xaquendarsa, and to have come to the throne in A.D. 1414, it will be fairly obvious that the Malay version allows too many generations between him and Mudzafar



RUINS OF THE PANGKOK BLOCKHOUSE.

China and was most hospitably entertained. In the year 1414 the son of this Paramisura came to China to report his father's death, and to apply for recognition as his father's successor. This son's name is given in Chinese records as Mu-Kan-Sa-U-Tir-Sha. He died about the year 1424, and was succeeded by his son, who is described in Chinese as Sri Mahala.

At this point it is advisable to say something about Malay chronology. The dates given in Sir Frank Swettenham's "British Malaya," in the "Colonial Office List," in Valentyn's "History of Malacca," and in many other works, are all obtained from the "Malay Annals" by the simple process of adding together the reputed lengths of the reigns of the various kings. Such a system is usually unreliable. In the case of the "Malay Annals" the unreliability of the method can be proved by taking the history of ministers who served under several kings, and must have attained to impossible ages if the reign lengths are really accurate. The point was brought out clearly for the first time by Mr. C. O. Blagden in a paper read before an Oriental Congress in Paris. Mr. Blagden began by showing that the Malay dates were inaccurate, and then went on to prove that the Chinese records, though meagre and unreliable in many details,

suggest. From the same source it may be shown that the various kings of Malacca reigned between the year 1400 and the year 1511. 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:

<i>Chinese Records.</i>	<i>Albuquerque's List.</i>	<i>Malay Annals.</i>
Palisura (1403-14)	Paramisura	—
Mukansautirsha (1414-24)	Xaquendarsa	Iskandar Shah
Sri Mahala (1424)	—	Raja Besar Muda
Sri Mahala (1433)	—	Raja Tengah
Sri Pamisiwartiupasha (1445)	—	{ Muhammad Shah
Sultan Wutafunasha (1456)	Modafaixa	Abu Shahid
Sultan Wangsusha (1459)	Marsusa	Mudzafar Shah
Mahamusa (undated)	Alaodin	Mansur Shah
Sultan Mamat ("who fled from the Franks")	Mahamat	Alaedin Riayat Shah
		Mahmud Shah

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

Shah, 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

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



of Raja Kéchil Bésar, and also confused Sultan Ahmad with Sultan Muhammad. If the title Muhammad Shah and the conversion to Islam



AN ACHINESE.

are ascribed to the first Rajah Kéchil Bésar instead of to the second, the difficulty of explaining the Mahomedan names of Iskandar Shah and Ahmad Shah disappears at once, and the pedigree is shortened to a reasonable length. The amended version would read as follows :

- Raja Kéchil Bésar  
(Paramisura, Sultan Muhammad Shah)
- Iskandar Shah
- Raja Bésar Muda  
(Ahmad Shah)
- Raja Kasim  
(Mudzafar Shah)
- Raja Abdullah  
(Mansur Shah)
- Raja Husain  
(Alaedin Riayat Shah I.)
- Raja Mahmud  
(Sultan Mahmud Shah).

We can now pass to the reigns of these different kings.

The Chinese account of Malacca, written in A.D. 1416, gives us a very convincing picture of the settlement. It tells us that the inhabitants paid very little attention to agriculture, that

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 "Cellates" 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 Kéchil Bésar,  
Paduka Sri Pékérna Wiraja.
- (2) Raja Muda,  
Sri Rana Wikrama.
- (3) Paduka Sri Maharaja.

*Bustanu's salatin.*

- (1) Raja Kéchil Bésar,  
Paduka Sri Pékérna Diraja.
- (2) Sri Rana Adikerma,  
Sultan Iskandar Shah.
- (3) Raja Bésar Muda,  
Sultan Ahmad Shah.

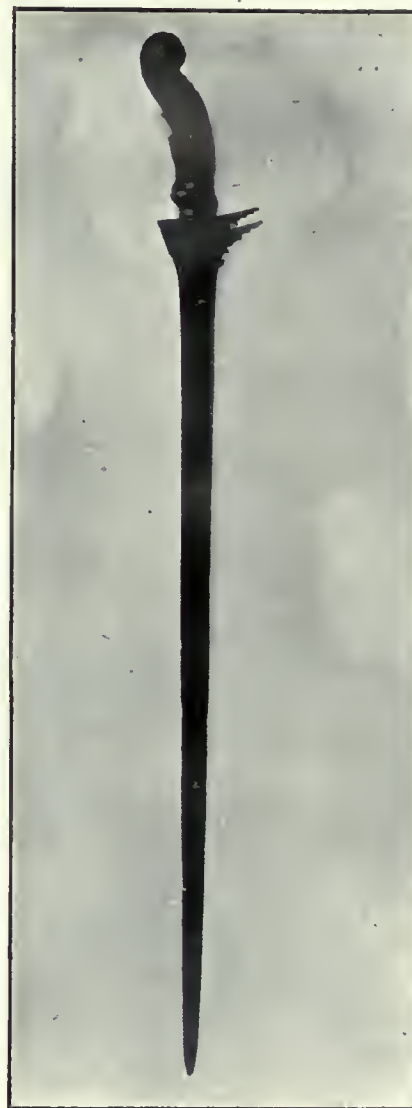
*Chinese.*

- (1) Palisura.
- (2) Mukansautirsha.
- (3) Sri Mahala.

*Portuguese.*

- (1) Paramisura.
- (2) Xaquendarsa.

The only point that we have to suggest is that these lists refer to the same men in the same order. If this is admitted, there is no difficulty in giving the pedigree of the Kings of Malacca ; but the acceptance of this view disposes at once of the theory that the line of the Malacca Kings covers the earlier dynasty of Singapore. The truth seems to be that the author of the "Malay Annals" had only the Malacca pedigree to work upon, but by attaching Singapore legends to the names of Malacca Kings he represented the genealogy as one



AN EXECUTION KRIS.

which descended from the mythical Sang Sapurba of Palembang through the Kings of Singapore (whose very names he did not

know), down to the family with which he was really acquainted.

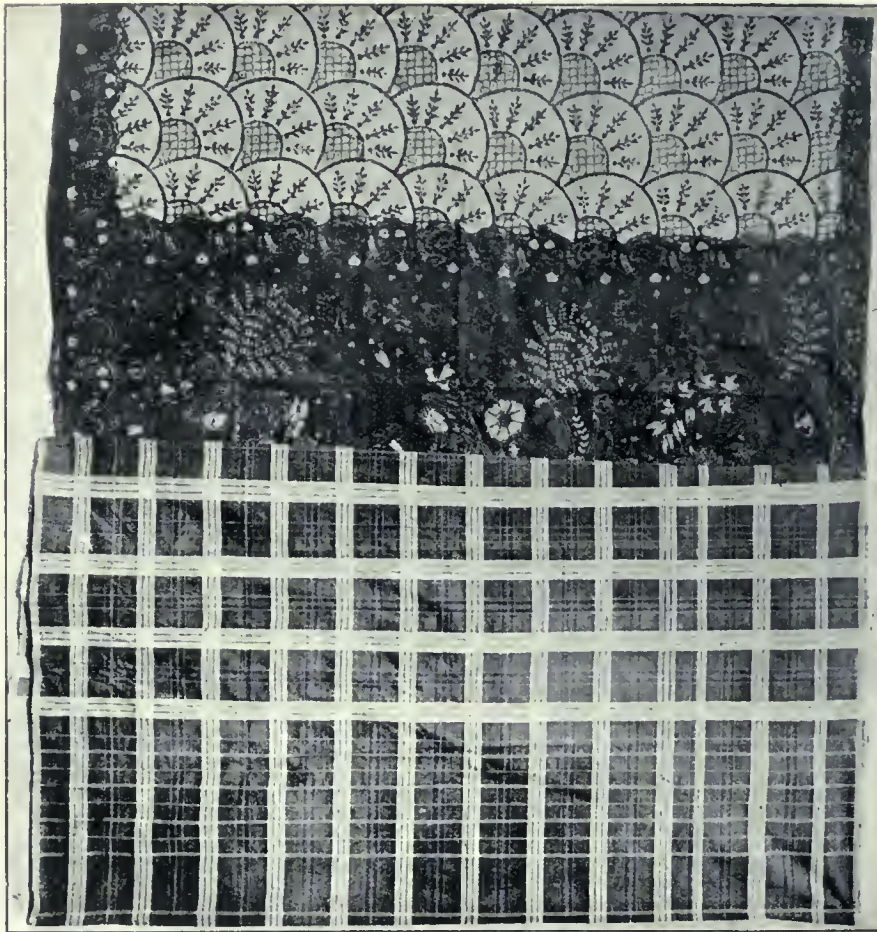
As Malay tradition seems to insist that the first Mahomedan sovereign took the name

stones, and with horses and saddles. His wife got a cap and dresses.

"At the moment of starting he was entertained by the Emperor, and again got a girdle

The Paramisura Muhammad Shah died about A.D. 1414. He was succeeded by his son, Sri Rakna Adikërma, who took the title of Sultan Iskandar Shah—the Xaquendarsa of the Portuguese and the Mukansutirsha 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 Bēsar 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



JAVANESE AND MALAY CLOTH COMPARED.

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 Pèkërma 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 entertained 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 buttery. 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

with precious stones, saddled horses, 100 ounces of gold, 40,000 dollars (*kwan*) in paper money, 2,600 strings of cash, 300 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 Malayu"—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.



A GOLDEN KRIS.

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 Adikërma (Iskandar Shah's

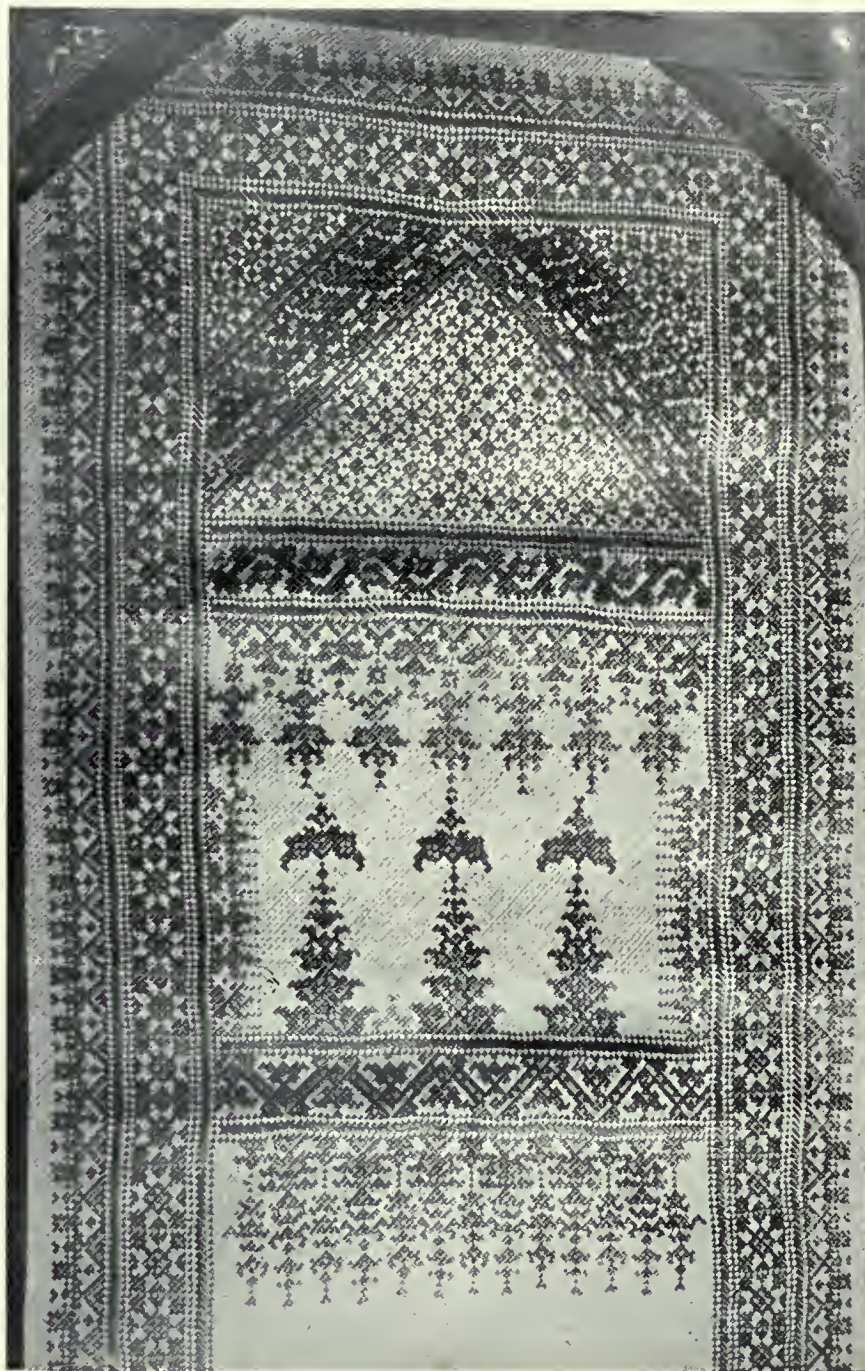
Hindu title), and secondly as Raja Bésar Muda, son of Iskandar Shah. He is also confused with Muhammad Shah, whose place he ought to be given in the pedigree. It is therefore difficult to say whether he or the first King of Malacca ought to be credited with the numerous rules and regulations drawn up 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 time forward the use of yellow 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 Sultan Wu-ta-funa-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 1459 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 Buddhist or Hindu 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 Malayan. 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.

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 Gegleng, 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

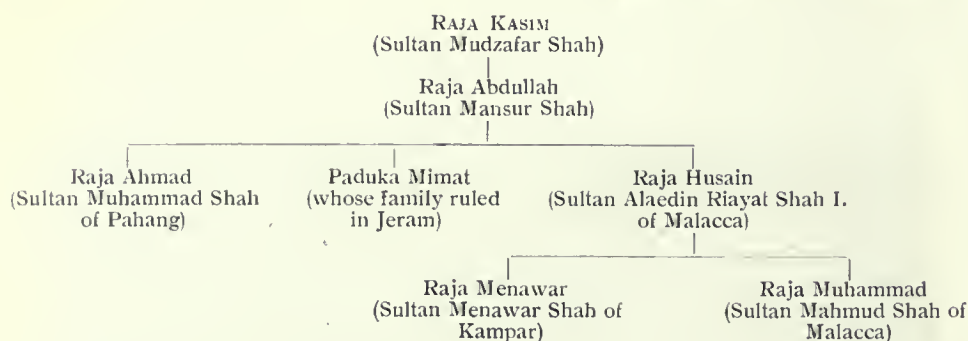


MALAY MATTING.

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

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),

the Sultan only had two daughters. The following table shows how the kingdom of Malacca was divided up :



The policy of war and conquest initiated by Mudzafar Shah and Mansur Shah was a fatal one to a trading port like Malacca. It turned the Malays into a sort of military aristocracy, living on the trade of the foreign settlers in their city. Trade is not, however, killed in a day. The foreign merchants from India and China, though they continued to frequent the harbour of Malacca, began to look upon the Sultan and his people as a mere burden on the town—as indeed they were. The Sultan needed money for his pleasures, his followers, and his wars; he increased his exactions from year to year. But for the coming of the Portuguese, the fate of Malacca would ultimately have been the same as that of Pasai, Samudra, Perlak, and the other trading ports that enjoyed at various times a temporary spell of prosperity as emporia in the Eastern seas. Even as it was, Albuquerque found the foreign settlers in the city perfectly willing to rise in revolt against their Malay masters.

Mansur Shah was succeeded by his son, Raja Husain, who took the name of Alaedin Riayat Shah. This Prince is said by the Portuguese to have been poisoned at the instigation of the rulers of Pahang and Indragiri. He was succeeded by his son, Sultan Mahmud Shah, the last of the Kings of Malacca. Sultan Mahmud Shah seems to have been a weak ruler, who gave himself up to his pleasures, and ultimately delegated all his powers to his son, the Prince Alaedin, whom he raised to sovereign rank under the name of Ahmad Shah. The most important event in his reign—apart from the Portuguese conquest—was the mysterious revolution of A.D. 1510, in which the most powerful chief in Malacca, the Bendahara Sri Maharaja, lost his life. This event is mentioned by Albuquerque, and is described with great vividness by the author of the "Malay Annals," who, being a member of the Bendahara's family, was extremely anxious to represent his great ancestor's case in the best possible light. According to his story, one of the great ministers of state was induced, by a very heavy bribe, to bring a false charge of treason against the Bendahara—"for there is truth in the saying, 'Gold, thou art not God, yet art thou the almighty'"—and the Sultan was tempted by an illicit passion for the Bendahara's daughter into consenting to his minister's death—"Love knows no limitation and passion no consideration." It is probable that the great minister was only overthrown after a

severe conflict, in which most of his relatives were slain. But that is not the account given us 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. 1699 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. 1699 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 Da Gama had been followed to the East by many other famous adventurers—Francisco de Albuquerque, Alfonso de Albuquerque, Francisco de Almeida, Tristano d'Acunha, Jorge de Mello, and Jorge de Aguiar. In 1508 the whole of the Portuguese "empire" in the East was divided into two viceroalties, 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 viceroalties 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, 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 Sequeira. The Bendahara wished to attack the Portuguese at once; the Laksamana 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 Bendahara's party had begun to collect a small flotilla behind 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 a century later—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 Sultan, when his followers wished to cut down a Portuguese who had laid 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 wishing to board the Portuguese vessels, a sentry gave an alarm. A panic at once arose; the Malays 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 flotilla from behind Cape Rachado forced his hand. The Portuguese sailed out to meet this new enemy and so lost the chance of rescuing the stragglers. When they returned it was too late. The city was now openly hostile; the Europeans on shore had been taken; the fleet was not strong enough to take the town unaided. After wasting some days in useless negotiations, Sequeira had to sail 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 Mendez 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 townspeople 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, as often happens in Malay councils, 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 Alaedin 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



MALAY SEAL.

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 Malacca 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 Alaedin and the Sultan of Pahang. It was felt 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 Kampong 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 position was all on the side of the Malays.

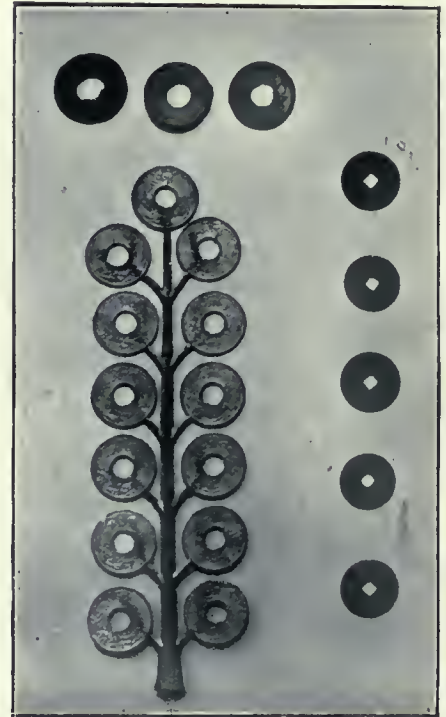
The Viceroy's preparations for attack lasted several days. He spent his time in tampering with the loyalty of the Javanese and other foreign communities, and in constructing a floating battery of very light draught to enter the river and bombard the bridge. This battery was not altogether a success. It grounded at the very mouth of the river, and was exposed for nine days and nights to incessant



MALAY TIN CURRENCY (WITH CASTING MOULD).

attacks from both banks. Its commander, Antonio d'Abreu, 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



CHINESE "CASH" AND MALAY COINS.

(The "tree" shows how Malay tin coins are cast. The hole in the cash is square.)

by no means over. The Prince Alaedin 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.

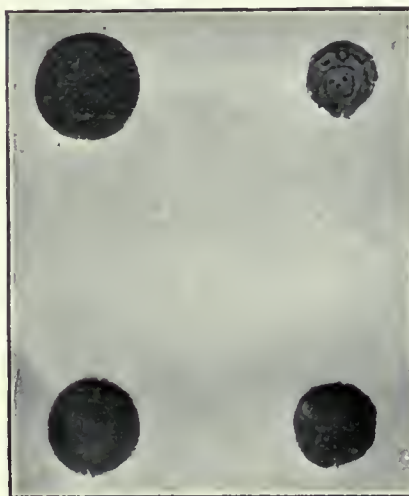
The next attack took place on St. James's Day, July 24, 1511. The Viceroy landed bodies of men on both banks of the river and advanced again upon the bridge. The Portuguese on the south bank were furiously attacked by a Malay force of about seven hundred men, headed by the Sultan in person. The battle 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 retreat. 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 pertinacity 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 guerilla 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 Alaedin. 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 £6,000; 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 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 Malays 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 sepoy. If anything was needed to show the unreality 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



PORTUGUESE TIN COINS OF MALACCA.

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 1605 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 silence 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 its "captain," the heads of the native com-

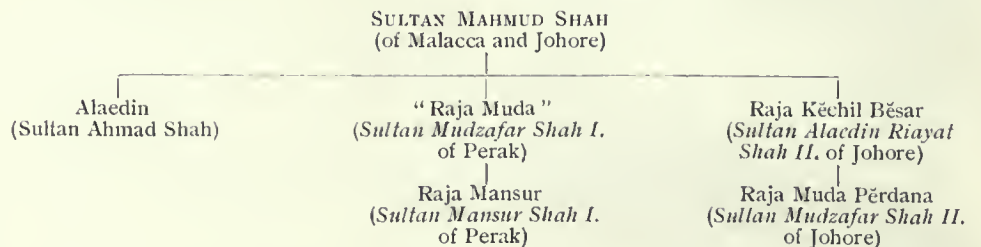
munities were "captains" too. Indeed, Albuquerque went so far as to appoint the Javanese headman, Ultimuti Raja, his *bendahara*. The high officials of the Dutch bore trading names such as "first merchant" or "second merchant"; the civil servants of our own East India Company were "writers." There is no arrogance about any of these descriptions; they only showed what their bearers really 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 any national policy or ambition?

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 not the imperialism of the present day; Albuquerque did not seek 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 vicerealty 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 menace 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 be truly 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 its trade, Malacca had no sufficient revenue and became a useless burden to the Viceroys of Goa. Portuguese pride did indeed induce the Viceroys 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 Hampar, while his son, the Prince Alaedin, 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 either for trade or piracy, so—as the Malays regained confidence—they moved southwards and established themselves on the island of Bintang, Sultan Mahmud at Tebing Tinggi and the Prince Alaedin at Batu Pelabohan. This Prince Alaedin 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 Alaedin. In any case the Sultan Ahmad died at Batu Pelabohan and was buried at Bukit Batu in Bintang; if Malay rumour is to be believed, he was poisoned by his jealous father. 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 Kéchil 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 Alaedin Riayat 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 Mascarenhas, who utterly destroyed it. Sultan Mahmud, again a fugitive, took refuge at Kampar in Sumatra. By a high-handed act of policy the Portuguese had just abducted the ruler of Kampar and had thereby incurred the deadly hostility of the inhabitants 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, Alaedin Riayat 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 Seluynt (Johore Lama) but he had outlying stations on the trade routes. At a later date these 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 be the poisoned Alaedin (Sultan Ahmad Shah), but the young Raja Muda, who was set

aside by his father in favour of the Raja Kéchil Bésar, afterwards Alaedin Riayat Shah II. All that we know about this member of the royal line is that he married a daughter of Tun Fatimah by her 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



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 glories 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 Tauhid. 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 Mahmud) 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 Alaedin Riayat Shah III. It was in the reign of this Alaedin Riayat 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 Heemskerck 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. Their factor, Jacob Buijsen, resided continuously 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. 1606, when Admiral Cornelis 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 had waged a long war against the Portuguese. At his death he left four sons. The eldest, the "King Yang-di-Pertuan" (Alaedin Riayat 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 men too hastily. The Bendahara or prime minister of these Princes was the author of the "Annals," our great source of information on Malay history. The royal drunkard, Alaedin Riayat 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 drunkards; the historian has reason to be grateful to them.

On May 14, 1606, 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 chronicler, "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, 1606. 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, 1606, 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, 1607, 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, 1608: "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 10,000 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 Verhoeff 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 Iskandar 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



MALAY CANNON.

Surrounded by powerful enemies, he was content to think only of the pleasures and of the passions of the moment, leaving all graver matters to the care of his cautious brother, Raja Abdullah.

In A.D. 1610 the marriage of the Sultan's eldest son to his cousin, the daughter of the Raja of Siak, led to a complete change in the attitude of the fickle Alaedin Riayat Shah towards Raja Abdullah and the Dutch. The Raja of Siak, a friend of the Portuguese, became the real power behind the throne of Johore. Again, as in 1608, the Dutch might well have written: "The King drinks more than ever; the chiefs are on the side of the Portuguese; the Raja Abdullah has no power." But vengeance overtook the treacherous Alaedin from a most unexpected quarter. On June 6, 1613, the Achinese, who were at war with Malacca, suddenly made a raid on Johore, captured the capital, and carried the Sultan off into captivity along with his brother Abdullah, the chief Malay Court dignitaries, and the

to seal his destruction. He was now unable either to repel the attack of his enemies or to clear himself of the charge of allying himself with the Portuguese infidel against whom Mahkota Alam was waging religious war. Alaedin Riayat Shah was taken prisoner and died very shortly afterwards; tradition has it that he was put to death by his captors.

Incidentally it may be observed that the "Malay Annals," though dated A.D. 1612, refer to "the late Sultan Alaedin Riayat Shah, who died in Achin." This reference shows that the book, though begun in A.D. 1612, was not actually completed till some years later. It is very much to be regretted that the Malay historian should have confined his work to the records of the past and should have given us no account whatever of the stirring incidents in which he personally, as Bendahara, must have played a most prominent part.

Sultan Alaedin Riayat Shah III. was succeeded by his brother Raja Abdullah, who took the title of Sultan Abdullah Maayat Shah.

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 so jealous 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 an Achinese force. In A.D. 1634 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 Alaedin Riayat Shah III. who died at Achin. The new ruler was more fortunate than his predecessor in that the Achinese power was now on the wane. The mighty Mahkota Alam, the most powerful and most ambitious of the rulers of Achin, was dead; his sceptre 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 not altogether satisfied with the help given them by their Malay allies, 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 Sawar had ever been. Johore had no industries, 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 effectively 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. 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 traditional friendship with Holland was loyally kept up by the Bendahara; internal troubles of all kinds were avoided. Unfortunately the Bendahara died, and his headstrong ward 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., the last Prince of his race—ruler of Pahang 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 is 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 any bold conspirator and the thrones 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 Bendahara Sri Maharaja, head of the great family that is described in the "Malay Annals" as glorying 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 share his lot, he could always find some 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 Maayat Shah, the glory of his land and of his time." 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 murrain or any other misfortune had overtaken the subjects of an upstart king, all Malaya 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 caste, but a great Sultan might create minor Sultans, just as the Emperor of China made a Sultan of the Paramisura Muhammad Shah, or as Sultan Mansur Shah divided his dominions between 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 sultanates of Johore and Pahang. Titular dignity was one thing; real authority was another. Powerful *de facto* rulers such as (in recent times) the Bendahara of Pahang, the Temenggong of Johore and the Dato' of Rembau, and great territorial magnates like the Maharaja Perba of Jelai, 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 Achin found, when too late, that he was 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 power. Royal rank was a great thing in Malay eyes and justified the attention that they devoted to pedigrees 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 is 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 obtain a crown 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 Malayan politics. The first was the great Menangkabau immigration; the second was the continued presence of Bugis fleets and colonies 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 Sembilan. These men, being very tenacious of their own tribal rights and customs, resented any interference from Johore. The Bugis were even more dangerous. They were more warlike and more energetic than the Malays; 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 Kechil

appeared in Johore. He gave himself out to be a posthumous son of the murdered Mahmud 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 consented to revert to his old position of Bendahara Sri Maharaja and to serve under the impostor, Raja Kéchil, 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, Těngku Těngah, 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 Kéchil 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, Sultan Abdul Jalil Riayat Shah. There can be no doubt that the Bendahara's relatives conspired with the Bugis against their new master, but the details of the plot are not very clear. According to one account a woman's jealousy provoked the trouble. Raja Kéchil had jilted Těngku Těngah in order to marry her younger sister, Těngku Kamariah. This little change in the original plan did not injure the Bendahara, but it made a great deal of difference to the ambitious Těngku Těngah 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 intrigues and conspiracies should have been begun. It happened that there was at this time in Johore a Bugis adventurer named Daeng Parani. Těngku Sulaiman, eldest son of the Bendahara, went to this man and appealed to him for help in overthrowing the upstart Raja Kéchil. Daeng Parani hesitated; the odds against him were too great. Těngku Sulaiman then tried to win over the Bugis adventurer by promising him the hand of his sister, Těngku Těngah, in marriage. Daeng Parani again refused. At this juncture Těngku Těngah 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 Kéchil and to abduct Těngku Kamariah. He was only partially successful; the Sultan escaped. Daeng Parani fled to Selangor, leaving his fellow-conspirators behind. Těngku Sulaiman and Těngku Těngah fled to Pahang. The aged Bendahara, father of Těngku Sulaiman and Těngku Těngah, feeling that he would be suspected of having taken a part in the conspiracy, followed his children in their flight, but was overtaken and murdered at Kuala Pahang. He is the Sultan known as *marhum knala Pahang*. Těngku Sulaiman, however, managed to make good his escape and ultimately joined his Bugis friends.

After these incidents Raja Kéchil—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 the Bugis, but was ultimately out-manceuvred and lost his position as Sultan of Johore, because the Bugis ships, having enticed the Malay fleet to Kuala Linggi, doubled back during the night and suddenly appeared before Riau. In the absence of its King and his followers, Riau could offer no resistance. The Bugis proclaimed Těngku Sulaiman Sultan of Johore under the title of Sultan Sulaiman Badru'l-alan Shah. The principal Bugis chief, Daeng Merowah (or Klana Jaya Putra) became "Yang-di-Pertuan Muda" of Riau, with the title of Sultan Alaedin Shah, while another Bugis chief, Daeng Manompo, 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 Malays. Daeng Manompo married Tun Tepati, aunt 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 Těngku Těngah; and Daeng Chelak sought to marry Těngku Kamariah, the captured wife of Raja Kéchil. Other Bugis chiefs—Daeng Sasuru and Daeng Mengato—married nieces of Sultan Sulaiman.

As the Bugis accounts of the Raja Kéchil 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 Kéchil was not a posthumous son of Sultan Mahmud Shah. Dutch records prove that Raja Kéchil was an extremely old man in A.D. 1745; they even provide strong evidence that he was fifty-three years of age 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 Kéchil 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 Kéchil 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 recognised a common ruler.

The Bugis chiefs at Riau paid very little attention to the puppet-Sultans that they set up. They so exasperated Sultan Sulaiman that he soon left his sultanate and fled 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 at Riau was very insecure. Raja Kéchil, 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, Těngku Kamariah, who was held captive at Riau itself. 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 (1721-85) 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.

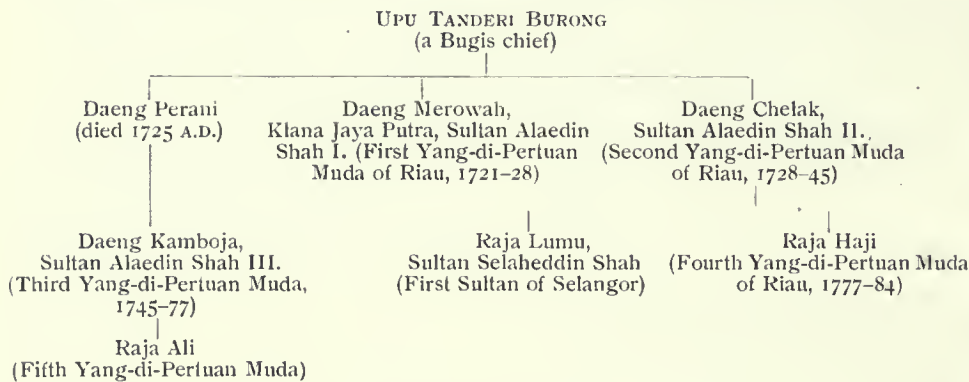
The policy of the Dutch—so far as their general unwillingness to interfere allowed of any policy—was that of supporting the Malays against the restless and piratical Bugis. It was a difficult policy, this assistance of the weak against the strong, but it proved successful in the end. Looking at it in the light of ultimate results, we can compare two exactly similar situations, one in 1756 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 Těngku Běsar, and his son-in-law the Sultan of Trengganu), and forced the Bugis to come to terms (A.D. 1757) 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 Těngku Běsar, was on a mission to the Bugis Princes of Linggi 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 Těngku Běsar and then took his body, with every possible manifestation of grief, back to Riau to be buried. At the burial he proclaimed the Těngku Běsar'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 Mahmud 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 permanent peace. They accordingly 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 "Yamtuan Muda" attacked Riau; the Malay Sultan fled from his capital to get up a coalition against the Dutch; even the Hanun 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 Yamtuan 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.



Sultan Mahmud Riayat Shah of Johore died in the year 1812 A.D., leaving two sons, Tengkus Husain and Tengkus Abdurrahman. The latter was at once proclaimed Sultan by the Bugis Yang-di-Pertuan Muda of Riau. Tengkus 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 accession. 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 Tengkus 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 Naning, and to a less extent over Rembau and the Negeri Sembilan, 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 anarchical. 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 govern-

ment 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 policy in the Malay peninsula. 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 reoccupying 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 for 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 on the part of the Dutch, and secure for Pinang a fair participation in the general trade of the States. There was at the time war raging between Kedah and Perak over the question of the despatch of a token of homage by the latter to the Siam Court. Mr. Cracroft was instructed by the short-sighted autocrat of Pinang to urge 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 given here. The movement was prompted by offers from the Sultans of Perak, Selangor, and Patani to furnish supplies of the product. The Sultan of Perak was especially friendly. As far back as 1816 he not only made an offer to the Government of a tin monopoly, but tendered also the island of Pangkor and the Dinding district on the mainland for the trifling consideration of 2,000 dollars a year. This Sultan was the same chief who expelled the Dutch from Selangor in 1785. In these favourable circumstances Mr. John Anderson was despatched with full powers to negotiate with the chiefs named for the re-establishment of the trade.

In conformity with his instructions, Mr. Anderson proceeded to the States of Perak, Selangor, and Colong. An interesting relation of what befel him is given in a pamphlet he issued some years later under the title of "Observations on the Restoration of Banca and Malacca." From this we may summarise 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 considerably 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 Pinang before he left, would not only be ineffectual 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 the contemplated purpose. It 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, he pointed out, be the means of preventing pirates resorting there, as they had been in the habit of doing. The Government at Pinang approved the scheme, and obtained the sanction of the Supreme Government to establish a factory at Pangkor, "provided 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 had 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 territory, was disposed to regard it as his by right of conquest. To this potentate Mr. Anderson applied in January, 1819, for the cession of the island, and for permission to allow his chiefs to continue disposing of the tin collected to the British agents in 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 had been taking 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 complication 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 Perak to the Sultan 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. The Dutch Government about this time 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 suspend the execution of the contract with 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 5,396.41 Spanish dollars, besides the Custom House duties, which amounted to 800 dollars more. The Hon. Mr. Clubley, 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 timid policy of the neighbouring Malay Governments has opposed to the free transit of that article. The opening of a free communication with the Kwala 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 obstructions. 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 I consider, as the Hon. President does, that it becomes unnecessary to persevere in enforcing our treaties with the Rajas of Perak and Selangor for our annual supply of tin.

Yet, 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, who in the most uncourteous, if not unjustifiable, manner 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 race upon the population 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, 1821, was overrun by a horde of Siamese under the Raja of Ligore, 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: "Having effected the complete subjugation of Quedah and possessed himself of the country, the Raja of Ligore next turned his attention to one of its principal dependencies, one of the Lancavy 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 a large accession by emigrants 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

<sup>1</sup> "Considerations on the Conquest of Quedah and Perak by the Siamese."

the remaining Malayan inhabitants. The King himself for some time was anxious to have made an effort to regain his country, in concert with some native powers which had promised him aid in vessels and men; but he was dissuaded from so perilous and certainly doubtful an enterprise by those who were interested in his cause, and who apprehended his certain overthrow and destruction from an attempt of the kind. There is no doubt 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 Quedah 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 on the part of the Siamese and to have checked such ambitious and unwarrantable 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 from 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; while the disposable force on the island, 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 facility, ere reinforcements could have 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 Quedah 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 reasonable propositions of the Ambassador, but signified their expectation that the King of Quedah should be delivered up to them.

"The King of Ligore, not satisfied with the conquest of Quedah, and grasping at more extended dominion, under pretence of conveying back some messengers from Perak who had carried the Bunga Mas, or token of homage, to Quedah, 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

short struggle, his (the King of Ligore's) forces also possessed themselves of that country, which had been reduced by the Quedah 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."

It was understood that Selangor was to be the next place attacked, but the timely preparations of, and the determined attitude taken up by, the Raja of that country deterred the Siamese from making the attempt. But it was evident from their actions, Mr. Anderson thinks, that they contemplated the total overthrow and subjugation of all the Malayan States on the peninsula and the subversion of the Mahomedan religion. Raffles, with his clear-sighted vision, had an equally strong opinion of the subversive tendencies of Siamese policy. In a letter dated June 7, 1823, addressed to Mr. John Crawford, on the occasion of his handing over to that official the administration of Singapore, he drew attention to the political relations of Siam with the Malay States in order to guide him as to the line he should adopt in his political capacity. After stating that in his opinion the policy hitherto pursued by the British had been founded on erroneous principles, Raffles proceeded: "The dependence of the tributary States in this case is founded on no rational relation which connects them with the Siamese nation. These people are of opposite manners, language, religion, and general interests, and the superiority maintained by the one over the other is so remote from protection on the one side or attachment on the other, that it is but a simple exercise of capricious tyranny by the stronger party, submitted to by the weaker from the law of necessity. We have ourselves for nearly forty years been eye-witnesses of the pernicious influence exercised by the Siamese over the Malayan States. During the revolution of the Siamese Government these profit by its weakness, and from cultivating an intimacy with strangers, especially with ours over other European nations, they are always in a fair train of prosperity; with the settlement of the Siamese Government, on the contrary, it invariably regains the exercise of its tyranny, and the Malayan States are threatened, intimidated, and plundered. The recent invasion of Kedah is a striking example in point, and from the information conveyed to me it would appear that that commercial seat, governed by a prince of the most respectable character, long personally attached to our nation, has only been saved from a similar fate by a most unlooked-for event. By the independent Malayan States, who may be supposed the best judges of this matter, it is important to observe, the connection of the tributary Malays with Siam is looked upon as a matter of simple compulsion. Fully aware of our power and in general deeply impressed with respect for our national character, still it cannot be denied that we suffer at the present moment in their good opinion by withholding from them that protection from the oppression of the Siamese which it would be so easy for us to give; and the case is stronger with regard to Kedah than

the rest, for here a general impression is abroad amongst them that we refuse an assistance that we are by treaty virtually bound to give, since we entered into a treaty with that State as an independent Power, without regarding the supremacy of Siam, or even alluding to its connection for five-and-twenty years after our first establishment at Pinang. The prosperity of the settlement under your direction is so much connected with that of the Malayan nation in its neighbourhood, and this again depends so much upon their liberty and security from foreign oppression, that I must seriously recommend to your attention the contemplation of the probable event of their deliverance from the yoke of Siam, and your making the Supreme Government immediately informed of every event which may promise to lead to that desirable result."

Raffles was so impressed with the vital importance of the question that, besides inditing this suggestive letter of advice to his successor, he wrote to the Supreme Government urging the necessity of a strong policy in dealing with the Siamese. "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. I am satisfied that if, instead of deferring to them so much as we have done in the case of Kedah, we had maintained a higher tone and declared the country to be under our protection, they would have hesitated to invade that unfortunate territory. Having, however, been allowed to indulge their rapacity in this instance with impunity, they are encouraged to similar acts towards the other States of the peninsula, and, if not timely checked, may be expected in a similar manner to destroy the truly respectable State of Tringanu, on the eastern side of the peninsula." Raffles went on to suggest that the blockade of the Menam river, which could at any time be effected by the cruisers from Singapore, would always bring the Siamese to terms as far as concerned the Malay States.

The wise words of the founder of Singapore had little influence on the prejudiced minds of the authorities in India and at home. They disliked the idea of additional responsibility in this region, and they adopted the line of the least resistance, which was the conclusion of a treaty with Siam accepting the conquest of Kedah as an accomplished fact and compromising other disputed points.

The treaty, which was concluded on June 20, 1826, provided, *inter alia*, for unrestricted trade between the contracting parties "in the English countries of Prince of Wales Island, Malacca, and Singapore, and the Siamese countries of Ligore, Merdilons, Singora, Patani, Junk Ceylon, Quedah, and other Siamese provinces;" that the Siamese should not "obstruct or interrupt commerce in the States of Tringanu and Calantan"; that Kedah should remain in Siamese occupation; and that the Raja of Perak should govern his country according to his own will, and should send gold and silver flowers to Siam as heretofore, if he desired so to do. Practically the effect of the treaty was to confirm the Siamese in the possession of an

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 at the time by the most experienced 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 expansion of British influence checked by claims arising out of this Treaty of Bangkok of 1826.

## 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 engage 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 abstention 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 thrusting a hand into the Asiatic wasps' 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 discountenanced 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 possible when the trade of the peninsula was small and steam communication was little developed in the Straits. But when the tin mines of Larut became, as they did in the later sixties, an important centre of Chinese industry and a valuable trade flowed from them through Pinang, the attitude of aloofness 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 1871 a daring act of piracy committed on a British trading boat by Chinese and Selangor Malays led to the bombardment by H.M.S. *Rinaldo* 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 Kedah chief named Tunku Dia Oodin, 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 Mashoor, 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, and at the same time announced that they would support Tunku Dia Oodin. For some reason the demand was not pressed, and the three lively young princelets, 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, 1872, 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 administration, 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, choose 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 enunciated in this communication. 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 authorities."

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 had warmly supported the cause of Tunku Dia Oodin, 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 Mashoor, and Mahmud, who were still holding out against his and the Sultan's authority. Mr. Irving brought back word that Tunku Dia Oodin 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 latter the Sultan resided, and were 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 Dia Oodin 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 tin.

After completing his inquiries at Selangor, Mr. Irving proceeded to Larut, in Perak, where

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 absenting himself from the funeral ceremonies, was superseded by another high official, the Bendahara, who had, with the chiefs' consent, assumed the sultanship. Each party appealed to the Government for countenance and support, and 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 to recognise him. Mr. Irving saw 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 nor much influence with the people. Mr. Irving strongly urged on the three Rajas 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 29, 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 chief of a small territory called Sungei Ujong (one of the Negri Sambilan States), through which the northern branch of the river runs, he made his way to the interior of Selangor and joined his brother rebel chiefs. Although bringing neither men nor arms, his mere presence seems to have acted strongly on his party, and the result was a series of attacks on Tunku Dia Oodin, ending in the recapture of the forts at the mouth of the Selangor river,

which gave them the entire possession of that river, and later of two forts on the upper part of the Klang river. Tunku Dia Oodin, being now hard pressed, applied for assistance to the Bendahara of Pahang, with the assent of the British authorities. But before this could reach him Tunku, irritated with the favour shown to Mahdie by the chief of Sungei Ujong, prevailed on the chief of Rembau, another of the Negri Sambilan group of States, to reassert some old claim which he had to a place called Sempang in Sungei Ujong, and on the banks of the Linggi river, which communicates in the interior with the Langat, Klang, and Selangor rivers. As the immediate effect of this would have been to prevent the Sungei Ujong people from getting in their supplies or getting out their tin, they immediately applied to the Straits Government for protection, offering to hand their country over to the British Government if they would accept it. Thinking that his interference might tend to bring about some arrangement of the matter, Sir Harry Ord sent his Colonial Secretary to the chief of Rembau, and this individual, on being seen, at once expressed his willingness to leave in the Governor's hands the entire settlement of his difference with Sungei Ujong. The Sungei Ujong chief being equally ready to accept the proposal, Sir Harry Ord proceeded on October 29th to Sempang, where he met the chief of Sungei Ujong but not the Rembau chief, who appears to have mistaken the day of meeting. As Sir Harry Ord had an appointment with the Sultan of Selangor on the next day but one, and the day after was the *Ramazan* festival, on which no business could be done, it was impossible for him to wait, and he conducted his inquiries in the absence of the Rembau chief. He was glad to find, after discussing matters with the Tunku and the chief of Sungei Ujong, that the latter stated that he would do all in his power to prevent any assistance whatever from reaching Tunku's enemies. With this assurance Tunku expressed himself satisfied, and the idea of his occupying the Sungei river was allowed to drop. On leaving Sungei Sir Harry Ord proceeded to Langat to meet the Sultan of Selangor. He was accompanied by Tunku, and knowing that Mahdie was in the neighbourhood and that some of the Sultan's people and relatives were ill-affected towards Tunku, he deemed it prudent to ask to be accompanied by the armed boats of H.M.S. *Zebra* and a small escort of the 88th Regiment. Before landing he had a long interview with Tunku Dia Oodin. He pointed out to him the apparently precarious nature of his position, and that although he had the nominal support of the Sultan and was well backed up by people who were satisfied of his ultimate success, yet that he had immense difficulties to contend with in the open hostility of the rebel chiefs and lukewarmness, if not treachery, of the Sultan's sons. Sir Harry suggested that if he did not feel very sanguine of success it would be better for him to retire from the contest while he could do so without loss or disgrace, and that if he decided on this he (Sir Harry) would, in his interview with the Sultan, pave the way for his doing so in an honourable and satisfactory manner. Tunku Dia Oodin, while acknow-

ledging the justice of much that Sir Harry Ord had said, stated that he did not consider his situation desperate so long as he had the prospect of the aid that had been promised him from Pahang. Tunku admitted, however, that this was his last chance, and offered to hand back to the Sultan the authority that had been given him on being reimbursed the expenses he had been put to in endeavouring to carry it out. Sir Harry Ord did not think it necessary to accept this offer, and was glad to find in his interview with the Sultan that individual expressed the utmost confidence in Tunku. The complaints about the blockade were abandoned on Tunku's explanation of the difficulties which compelled him to take this step. At Sir Harry Ord's suggestion it was agreed that any future difficulties should be left for adjustment between Tunku and Raja Yacoof, the Sultan's youngest and favourite son.

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 strength of the elements of disorder 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 Oodin was duly forthcoming, and with its aid the tide was soon turned in Tunku's favour once more. One after another the "rebel" forts were captured, and finally, after a long blockade, Kuala Lumpur, the chief town of the State, now the flourishing headquarters of the Federation, fell into Tunku's hands. The advantage was somewhat dearly purchased, for the intrusion of the Pahang force introduced a fresh disturbing factor into this truly distressful land.

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, signed by practically every leading Chinese merchant in the Straits, representing 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 Great Britain can effect in a native 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 Maharaja's rule. This territory we are 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 Malayan 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 native rulers as to be enabled 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, R.E., 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 with them, and to 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



LIEUT.-GEN. SIR ANDREW CLARKE.

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 not of a character to inspire a hopeful feeling. In the weeks preceding his arrival the troubles all round had 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 Auditor-General, a survey of the history of Larut anterior to these events. In the reign of a previous Sultan, Jafaar of Perak, there was a trader of considerable importance at Bukit Gantang, several miles beyond the tin mines, of the name of Inchi Long Jafaar. This individual was placed by the Sultan 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 Jafaar died, his brother Inchi Nghar Lamat succeeded him. In turn 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 Wee 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 forfeiture 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 Mantri Ampat or 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 Bruas 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, in February, 1872, disturbances commenced 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

the Lieutenant-Governor of Pinang (Mr. Campbell), in which he made bitter complaints of "the trouble that had now befallen him." He asserted that the Go Kwans 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 Gie Siew, the chief of the victorious See Kwan faction. Later in the same month, on the 28th, Too Tye Sin, one of the principal Chinese in Pinang, forwarded a petition signed by forty-four Chinese traders directly accusing the Mantri of having assented 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 recommence 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 4-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 commenting on his proceedings, observed that he should have required the junks 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 citing the sections of the Code bearing upon the matter. But the mischief had then 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. *Midge* 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 marauders, who 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 *Midge'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 pilot bolting 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 got off eventually, but not before two officers had been seriously wounded. In consequence of this outrage Captain Woolcombe, the senior naval officer on the station, proceeded in H.M.S. *Thalia* 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 dismounted 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 further 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.

Sir Andrew Clarke'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



MR. W. A. PICKERING.

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 mandarin 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 arbitrator 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 their dispute to Sir Andrew Clarke for 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 13th, 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 Mantri of Larut were prepared at once 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 an outcome 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 a British officer, 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 one 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 Colonial Secretary. "I am 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 Settlements Association addressed 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 Pinang, 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



A GROUP OF BRITISH OFFICIALS WHO WERE CONCERNED IN ENFORCING THE PROVISIONS OF THE TREATY OF PANGKOR, BY WHICH THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES CAME UNDER BRITISH PROTECTION.

(The photo was taken at Pangkor, in the Dindings.)

Sir Wm. Drummond Jervois, the Governor of the Straits Settlements, is seated in the middle of the group. Standing on his left, with his hand upon a sword, is Mr. J. W. Birch, the first British Resident of Perak, who was murdered in 1875; while the youthful figure leaning upon the banister on the extreme right of the picture is Mr. (afterwards Sir) Frank Swettenham. On the Governor's immediate right is Lieut. (now Sir) Henry McCallum, then Assistant Colonial Engineer of the Straits Settlements, and next to him is Captain Innes, R.E., who was killed at the attack on the stockade at Pasir Salak in 1875. The tall bearded officer standing upon the steps is Captain Speedy, of Abyssinia fame.

British officials and a Chinaman, the head of the See Kwan faction, embarked upon their duties with a resolute determination to succeed, if success were 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 Selama 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 tin, 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 Governor's plans, and promised to do his utmost 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 trouble afterwards 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 busily engaged in 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-fellowship, 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 Chinese, was in very fair order for 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 had been accepted:

"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 reason to anticipate 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 under 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 successful working of the Residential 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 placed in their midst as an authoritative exponent of the views of the suzerain Power. 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 in Malaya, where a sturdy race, with marked independence of character, and with their naturally pugnacious qualities sharpened by generations of incessant strife, 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 Britain 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 internecine 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 following 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 Tunku Dia Oodin) on £1,500 a year, with Mr. (afterwards Sir) F. A. Swettenham as Assistant on £750 a year. Captain Tatham, R.A., was appointed, as a temporary measure, Assistant-Resident of Sungei Ujong. 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 the British, was got in without trouble. 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 equity and justice and their direct methods of dealing, came into contact with the life of the States. The collection of revenue in Larut touched the Mantri on a raw spot, and the Mantri was an influential personage whose ill-will meant much in a situation such as that which existed at the time. He was not alone in his dissatisfaction at the turn of events. Raja Ismail resented Abdullah's recognition as Sultan, and the people generally sided with him. Raja Yusuf was, if anything, more inimical to the new *régime*. He did not even trouble to conceal his intention to upset it if he could. Sultan Abdullah himself fretted under the chains which the new dispensation imposed upon his ill-regulated methods of what, for want of a better term, we may call government. While there was this disaffection amongst the chiefs, there were influences in operation disturbing the minds of the general body of the population. Mr. Birch, with the honest Briton's hatred of oppression, interested himself energetically in the righting 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 worked is well illustrated by a story 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, and sentenced to pay 25 dollars. Being poor and totally unable to pay, she and her children became, according to the

Malay phrase, "bar-utang"—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 scoured the country, inquired 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 Residents. 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 Ismael, 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 methods was imperatively demanded. He therefore determined on his own authority to make a new departure of a rather striking kind. He decided to convert the Residents into Commissioners, and to give them with the new title a more tangible status as advisers in the States. A proclamation embodying the Governor's views was drawn up,

and the Sultan Abdullah was required to sign documents accepting the new policy. He resolutely declined for a time to do what was required, but with the exercise of considerable pressure, and after he had received not obscure hints that he would be deposed if he did not yield, he appended his signature. In adopting the course he did Sir Wm. Jervois was doubtless actuated by the best motives, but it must be acknowledged that he took to himself an astonishing amount of liberty, having regard to the grave issues involved. At least it might have been expected that he would have informed the Government at home by cable of the fact that he had been driven to inaugurate changes. He, however, failed to do so, and later, as we shall see, drew upon himself an uncommon measure of rebuke for his independent action.

When the proclamations had been fully prepared, arrangements were made for their distribution in the districts concerned as an outward and visible token of the determination of the Government to make their supervision of the States a reality. Mr. Swettenham took



SIR WILLIAM JERVOIS.

with him from Singapore a bundle of the documents and handed them over to Mr. Birch at Bandar Bharu. "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 Pathans, Sikhs, and Punjabis) 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 Kuala Kangsa, a village with the worst repute in Perak, and distribute the proclamations in the Upper Country, returning about the 3rd of November to meet Mr. Birch at Pâsir Sâlak, the village of the Maharaja Lela, five miles above Bandar Bhâru. 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 join forces at Pâsir 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, if there was to be trouble it would probably 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, who lived at Kampong Gâjah, on the opposite bank of the river to Pâsir 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 Bharu 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 Pâsir Sâlak on November 2nd. The news induced him to continue his journey, and though he had been informed that the river had been staked at Pâsir 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 Bharu and there and afterwards heard the details of Mr. Birch's assassination.

He had done his work in the low country more quickly than he expected, and reached Pâsir 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 boatmen. In all the party numbered about forty men, and they had plenty of arms 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

or in his own house. To the interpreter who carried the message the chief 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 Pâsir Sâlak, 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 carry them out, and the Maharaja Lela then handed his sword to a man called Pandak Indut, his father-in-law, and told the people to take Pandak 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' Sâgor 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, close to the bank, and this paper was torn down by Pandak Indut and taken to the Maharaja Lela, the occurrence being at the same time reported to Mr. Birch. The crowd on the bank were showing distinct signs of restiveness; but the boatmen began to make fires to cook rice, and Mr. Birch went to take his bath in a floating bath-house by the river bank, his Sikh orderly standing at the door with a loaded revolver. The interpreter was putting up another copy of the proclamation when Pandak Indut tore it down, and as the interpreter remonstrated, Pandak Indut thrust a spear into him and cried out, 'Amok! amok!' The crowd instantly rushed for the bath-house, and attacked the boatmen and any 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 immediately slashed on the head with a sword and was not seen again. Mr. Birch's Sikh orderly had jumped into the river when the first rush was made at the bath-house, and he swam to a boat, taking great care to save the revolver, which he had not fired, from getting wet! The interpreter struggled to the river, and was helped into a boat by two of Mr. Birch's Malays, but he died very shortly afterwards. A Sikh and a Malay boatman were also killed, and several of 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 had a hand in the killing. Pandak 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 Laksâmana I have killed Mr. Birch.' The message was duly delivered, and the Laksâmana said, '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 amok the Resident's station at Bandar Bhâru. 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 at Bandar Bhâru, and it would be quite 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 Bhâru on November 6th.

The news of Mr. Birch's assassination speedily reached Singapore and created a painful sensation. There had often been 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 which marked this incident. 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 Pinang, and arrangements were made for further reinforcements. The Governor believed at the time that the murder was an isolated incident which 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 Pâsir Sâlak, failed. Meanwhile ominous rumours were daily coming in of serious trouble in Selangor and the Negri Sembilan. 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. The demand seriously disturbed 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, 50 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 arrived. Receiving no reply, the Secretary for 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 adopt the principle 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 by post 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 reassertion of British authority, and to prevent the spread of the disturbances in adjoining districts. At a later period Lord Carnarvon again, and at much greater length, addressed Sir William Jervois, the despatch being a review of the latter's own despatch of October 16th previously, in which he for the first time described the new policy which he was inaugurating. 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 impressions conveyed by the interviews 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 acridly remarked that he did not know how far this middle course differed from 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 as an experiment." It would, 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 affected in a more or less degree a vast number of individual interests, provoking 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 he had not really changed the policy of dealing with the States. The action he had taken was, he 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 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 this policy.

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, R.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' Sagar. But the country by this time was thoroughly aroused, and the expeditionary force proved none too large for the work in hand. The troops consisted of the 3rd (Bufs) Regiment, 600 strong, 300 officers and men of the 80th 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*, *Thisle*, *Philomel*, *Ringdove*, 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 Bandar Bharu, and with the Indian troops based at Kuala Kangsa, a series of expeditions was organised against the disaffected Malays under the Maharaja Lela, the Dato' Sagar, and the ex-Sultan Ismail. Transport 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 irrevocably, and when at length they were replaced with a police force, the outlook was perfectly peaceful. Meanwhile, however, the situation in the Negri Sembilan was causing a good deal of anxiety. An attack on a survey party, despatched from Sungei Ujong across the border into Terachi, 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 position. For 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 plainly pointed to the Sultan Abdullah, the Mantri, the Dato' Laksmama, and the Dato' Shabandar as the accomplices of the Maharaja Lela and Pandak Indut in the crime. The four first mentioned were all exiled to the Seychelles at a comparatively early period of the investigation. The Maharaja Lela and others, after eluding pursuit for several months, in July, 1876, gave themselves up to the Maharaja of Johore, and by him 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



SIR W. C. F. ROBINSON.

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 recognised 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 no longer tolerate the conditions of misgovernment 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 country from an abominable thralldom, 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 reintroduced with caution were interpreted very literally 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 Douglas, the Resident of Selangor. In the early part of 1878 a report was made to him that Tunku Panglima, the Panghulu of 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 Douglas had the peccant 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 Jervis as Governor on the latter's appointment to report on the defences of Australia, issued the following "Instructions to Residents": "His Excellency desires that you should be reminded that the Residents have been placed in the native States as advisers and not as rulers, 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 Douglas'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 Douglas's action as an "error of judgment," and indulgently remarked that he fully recognised the delicacy 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 without its effect upon the Government at Singapore and the Residential officials. It was, at all events, in the spirit of his despatch 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 a lack of courage at the outset—indecision on vital matters of principle—would have militated

seriously against the success of the work in hand. Indeed, it may be questioned whether the magnificent result which we see to-day would have been possible if British officials of those early days, when everything was in the melting-pot, had stood idly by while the native chiefs were manipulating the alloys after their own fashion. The Residents, who were all officials selected for their special knowledge of Malays, were not the type of men to accept a rôle of this sort. They knew that British administrative capacity and even the national prestige was at stake; they knew further that here was a splendid heritage for the Empire to be had only for the asking; so, nothing fearing, they kept steadily on their course. They were not "rulers," but they were pre-eminently the power behind the throne. The ship of State was directed whither they wished it to go, and they wished it go along the path of good government, which was also the high-road to commercial prosperity.

One of the earliest developments of the re-constituted Residential system was the establishment of advisory Councils of State. This was a very astute move, for it did more to secure the support of influential Malays and reconcile them to the new régime than any other step taken in these early days. The Councils, on which there was a mixed representation of chiefs, local officials, and leading men, transacted the ordinary business of an executive council. They discussed and passed legislative enactments, considered revenue questions, and the civil and pension lists, and conferred with the Resident on important matters affecting the welfare of the State. The first of these Councils was established in Perak, and was an immediate success owing to the intelligent co-operation of the Malay chiefs and the general goodwill of the leaders of the foreign native community. Selangor later was endowed with a Council, and the other States, after further intervals, followed on the same path. "The institution," Sir Frank Swettenham says, "served its purpose admirably. The Malay members from the first took an intelligent interest in the proceedings, which were always conducted in Malay, and a seat on the Council is much coveted and highly prized. A tactful Resident could always carry the majority with him, and nothing was so useful or effective in cases of difficulty as for those who would have been obstructive to find that their opinions were not shared by others of their own class and nationality."

Perak, as the chief seat of the troubles which led to British intervention, was watched anxiously by the authorities in the period following the cessation of hostilities. Happily in Mr. (afterwards Sir) Hugh Low the State had an adviser of exceptional ability and strength of character. His previous service had been in Borneo, but he thoroughly understood the Oriental character and quickly adapted himself to the special characteristics of the Malay. His was the iron hand beneath the velvet glove. Firm and yet conciliatory, he directed the ship of State with unerring skill through the shoals and quicksands which beset its course in those early days when the population, or an influential part of it, was smarting under the sense of defeat. Perhaps his tactfulness was in no

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 question. He worked quietly to secure the goodwill of the chiefs, and having done this, formulated 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



SIR HUGH LOW.

adopted, December 31, 1883, being fixed as the final date for the continuance 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, many 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 proximity to the scene 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, the Governor, 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 with 40 men. The Lamboh people, seeing the Resident's determined 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 skilful handling have set the whole peninsula aflame 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 213,419 dollars, and the expenditure to 226,379 dollars. In 1883 the revenue had reached a total of 1,474,330 dollars, while the expenditure had grown to 1,350,610 dollars. During the period of Sir Hugh Low's administration debts to the amount of 800,000 dollars incurred in connection with the disturbances had been paid off, and the State was at the period of the review entirely free from such liabilities. There was a cash balance at the close of the year of 254,949 dollars. As to trade, the value of the imports was calculated in 1876 at 831,375 dollars, and the exports at 739,970 dollars. Similar returns for 1883 showed the imports to have been valued at 4,895,940 dollars, and the exports 5,625,335 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 Pinang 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 Pinang and Perak, two or three of which arrive at and depart from Larut daily; there are others plying to and fro between Pinang 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

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

made. It was his practice during his term of office to be continually on the move through the States, seeing for himself the needs of the territory and keeping constantly in touch with



SIR FREDK. A WELD, K.C.M.G.



SIR HUGH LOW AND THE SULTAN OF PERAK.

(From a photograph taken during Sir Hugh Low's term of office as Resident of Perak.)

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

a deep interest in the development of the Malay States, and to his energetic initiative and persistent advocacy was due in large measure the steady uninterrupted progress

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 journeyings were sent to the Colonial Office, and the staid 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, 1883, 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

have directed that it be reserved to the State and preserved.

"In the inhabited districts all the villages were decorated, always tastefully and sometimes very beautifully. I was welcomed with dancing and singing; they emulated their ancient legends of the programme of the passage of certain great Rajas in ancient times, and there is little doubt but that I had at least the advantage in the heartiness of the welcome. Even the wild Sakais and Semangs, the aborigines, came down from the mountains, bringing with them their women and children to meet me. They one and all assured me that under our rule the Malays have ceased to molest them, and one said that if they did he should go straight off to find a European magistrate and the police. They themselves are a most harmless, kindly, and good-tempered race."

#### CHAPTER X.

##### CONTINUED PROGRESS—FEDERATION—MAGNIFICENT RESULTS OF BRITISH INTERVENTION—CONCLUSION.

WHAT Sir Hugh Low accomplished in Perak was done in a minor degree in the other States. In the Nine States progress was for a time retarded by the mutual jealousies of the chiefs and the slumbering resentment of the population, who did not take too kindly to some of the changes wrought by British supervision. Owing largely to these causes the inevitable federation of the group of States was delayed. In 1876 six of the nine States united, agreeing to work together under the headship of Tunku Antar, who was given the title of Yam Tuan of Sri Menanti. The dissenting States, Sungei Ujong, Rembau, and Jelebu, after a few years' independent life, thought better of their refusal, and entered the federation, the formal act being registered in an agreement under which they acknowledged Tunku Muhammad, C.M.G., the successor of Tunku Antar, as their Raja, with the title of Yang-di-Pertuan of Negri Sembilan. In Selangor, first under Mr. Davidson and later under Mr. Swettenham, rapid progress was made when once the country had settled down. The revenue grew from 193,476 dollars in 1876 to 300,423 dollars in 1882. The next year there was a further advance to 450,644 dollars. After the lapse of another five years the receipts had grown to the large figure of 1,417,998 dollars. Thus in twelve years the revenue of the State had increased sevenfold. The expenditure kept pace with the receipts, because at the outset there were heavy liabilities to be liquidated, and throughout the period there were demands ever growing for public works absolutely essential for the development of the territory. The general situation of the States in these early years is illustrated by these figures showing the total receipts and expenditure of Perak, Selangor, and Sungei Ujong at particular periods from 1876 to 1888:

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1876	\$560,997	\$585,189
1880	881,910	794,944
1884	2,148,155	2,138,710
1888	3,657,673	3,013,943

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 the backbone of the system. To it is 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. References to these works are made elsewhere in this volume, and 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 interested themselves in the concerns of the Malay 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 they were, were carried on for the most part by the numerous rivers and waterways in which the coast abounds. The British Residents quickly realised that if the States were to prosper there must be a good 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 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, on the other hand, 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, hit 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 provision of a macadamised road 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 prosecuted 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 realise 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 *adobe* 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 markets, sanitation, slaughter houses, laundries, 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 railways was an inevitable accompaniment of the commercial development 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 no 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 directions we have indicated. 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. The story of how these various

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 perverse 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



GROUP TAKEN AT GOVERNMENT HOUSE, SINGAPORE, DURING SIR F. WELD'S ADMINISTRATION.

The figure in the centre is Sir F. Weld; seated on his left are Sir Hugh Low and the Sultan of Perak.

tures. On one occasion the Straits Government had to bring the chief to reason by a bombardment of his capital. After that there was little or no intercourse, until one day a British war vessel dropped into harbour to see what was doing in that part of the world. The captain landed to pay his respects, and on being ushered into the presence of the chief, found him seated on a pile of cannon balls which had been fired from the British warships on the occasion of the bombardment. The humour of the situation appealed to the British representative, but the incident was not so much relished by the

Resident. The *amende* was accepted, and Mr. (now Sir) J. P. Rodger was appointed Resident, with Mr. Hugh Clifford as Assistant. The new order was not accepted peacefully by an important section, represented by a group of petty chiefs. These resented the British intrusion and all that it implied in ordered administration and restraints on oppression, and they took up arms. A long and expensive campaign was involved in the suppression of this rising; but eventually, thanks largely to Mr. Hugh Clifford's exertions, the revolting element was either hunted down or driven across the border into

deal more effectually with questions of common interest which were continually arising. In 1893 Sir Frank Swettenham, who since the conclusion of the military operations in Perak had filled the post of Secretary for Malay Affairs to the Straits Settlement Government, drew up a scheme for the federation of the four States, and this in due course was forwarded to the Colonial Secretary. When Sir Charles Mitchell was appointed to the government of the Straits Settlements in succession to Sir Clementi Smith, in 1896, he carried with him instructions to report upon the desirability and feasibility of

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



SIR CECIL CLEMENTI SMITH, G.C.M.G.

on these lines, and Sir Frank Swettenham was entrusted with the duty of securing the adhesion of the Residents and chiefs to his plans. His mission was entirely successful. The Residents welcomed the scheme, though it made a striking change in the system of government by putting over them a Resident-General, who was given executive control under the direction of "the High Commissioner for the Federated Malay States," otherwise the Governor of the Straits Settlements. The chiefs also gave the project their cordial approval. They were influenced in its favour, Sir Frank Swettenham says, because it did not touch their own status in any way, and because they believed that as a federation they would be stronger and more important, and that their views would be more likely to receive consideration should a day come when they found themselves at variance with the supreme authority, be it High Commissioner at Singapore or Secretary of State in England. A further consideration was the financial advantage which would accrue from the change. "Two of the States, Perak and Selangor, were then very rich; Negri Sembilan had a small debt, but was financially sound; while Pahang was very poor, owed a large sum to the colony, and, though believed to be rich in minerals, had no resources to develop the country. By federation the rich States were to help the poor ones; so Pahang and Negri Sembilan hoped to gain by the arrangement, while the rulers of Perak and Selangor were large-minded enough to welcome the opportunity of pushing on the backward States for the glory and ultimate benefit of the federation. Further, they welcomed federation because it meant consistency and continuity of policy. It meant the abolition of inter-State frictions and jealousies, and the

power to conceive and execute great projects for the benefit of the partnership without reference to the special interests of any partner. Above all, they not only accepted but desired federation, because they believed that it would give them, in the Resident-General, a powerful advocate of their needs and their views, a friend whose voice would be heard further and carry more weight than that of any Resident, or of all the Residents acting independently."

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 warlike 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 Përak, Sëlangor, Pähang, and the Nëgri Sambilan 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 Sëlangor 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 Pähang 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 the 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 Përak, by Sir Hugh Low, and the present Residents of Sëlangor and Pähang, all officers accustomed to deal with Malays, had to wait several hours on the bank of the Pähang river before any one could persuade the Sultan of Pähang 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 Përak 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.

prised to hear the frank way in which, at the Council, he spoke of British protection, which he did not hesitate to describe as control.

"The deliberations of the Council were both interesting and useful, and there is no doubt that, in some respects, we could not have

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 Sultans and all their chiefs spoke on all the subjects which interested them, without either hesitation or difficulty, and on matters concerning the Mahammadan religion, Malay customs, and questions which specially touch the well-being of Malays, 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 coping-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.

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 weltering 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. In

FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

SPECIAL GENERAL RETURN.

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Trade.		Duty on Tin.	Land Revenue.	Forest Revenue.	Postal and Telegraph Revenue.	Railway Receipts.	Population.					Year.
			Imports.	Exports.						Perak.	Selangor.	Negri Sembilan.	Pahang.	Total.	
1889	5,013,000	4,091,078	15,653,456	19,720,689	1,750,008	190,538	—	26,027	359,025	—	—	—	—	—	1889
1890	4,840,065	5,237,275	15,443,809	17,002,093	1,609,401	166,054	—	37,742	406,032	—	—	—	—	—	1890
1891	4,572,310	5,554,800	14,889,942	18,495,554	1,573,441	199,680	—	44,286	414,889	214,254	81,592	70,730	57,642	424,218	1891†
1892	5,347,189	5,883,407	19,161,159	22,662,359	2,097,274	300,680	—	53,630	537,111	—	—	—	—	—	1892
1893	6,413,134	6,797,538	21,806,117	27,373,700	2,602,380	347,600	—	73,941	723,934	—	—	—	—	—	1893
1894	7,511,809	7,162,396	24,499,615	32,703,147	3,238,000	457,262	—	89,790	986,617	—	—	—	—	—	1894
1895	8,481,007	7,582,553	22,653,271	31,622,805	3,379,813	468,239	—	110,793	1,294,390	—	—	—	—	—	1895
1896	8,434,083	8,598,147	21,148,895	28,395,855	3,126,974	511,237	—	140,230	1,344,994	—	—	—	—	—	1896
1897	8,296,687	8,795,313	25,000,682	31,148,340	2,716,263	636,054	—	141,328	1,294,139	—	—	—	—	—	1897
1898	9,364,467	11,110,042	27,116,446	35,241,003	3,210,699	636,927	—	173,709	1,394,720	—	—	—	—	—	1898
1899	13,486,410	11,499,478	33,765,073	54,895,139	6,181,542	639,890	—	166,838	1,722,475	—	—	—	—	—	1899
1900	15,609,807	12,728,930	38,402,581	60,361,045	7,050,382	712,898	—	191,525	2,254,742	—	—	—	—	—	1900
1901	17,541,507	17,273,158	39,524,603	63,107,177	6,968,183	626,114	287,548	202,121	2,377,040	329,665	168,789	96,028	84,113	678,595	1901†
1902	20,550,543	15,986,247	45,757,240	71,350,243	8,438,775	661,668	388,053	241,944	2,856,640	—	—	—	—	—	1902
1903	22,672,567	16,219,872	47,790,059	80,253,944	9,599,505	721,304	514,657	278,715	3,608,054	381,500	216,920	117,820	85,000	801,240	1903‡
1904	22,255,269	19,318,768	46,955,742	77,620,084	8,814,688	801,959	589,707	317,639	3,605,029	400,000	234,404	118,747	85,000	838,151	1904‡
1905	23,964,593	20,759,395	50,575,455	80,057,654	9,249,627	887,593	622,000	296,323	3,940,599	400,000	240,546	119,454	100,000	860,000	1905‡
*1906	27,223,476	18,899,425	50,926,606	80,832,325	10,036,798	1,437,753	598,999	437,487	4,564,100	413,000	283,619	118,408	100,000	915,027	1906

NOTE.—The total Revenue and the total Expenditure of Perak, Selangor, and Negri Sembilan in 1875 were respectively \$499,394 and \$436,872. Figures for Pahang first appear in 1889. Federation dates from July 1, 1896.

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
* Perak ... ..	\$14,282,484	\$8,776,478
Selangor ... ..	9,803,184	6,414,257
Negri Sembilan ... ..	2,487,090	2,274,337
Pahang ... ..	650,718	1,434,353

† A census of the population was taken in 1891 and in 1901. The population of Perak in 1879 was estimated at 81,084, and in 1889 at 194,801; that of Selangor in 1884 at 46,568 and in 1887 at 97,166. No figures for the other States are given prior to 1891.

‡ Estimated for 1903, 1904, and 1905.

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 to 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,

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

this fact lies the highest justification of the experiment reluctantly and timidly entered upon less than forty years ago. In it is to be found the most splendid testimony to the ability of the British administrators who have been concerned in this most striking example of Empire-building.

SUPPLEMENTARY.

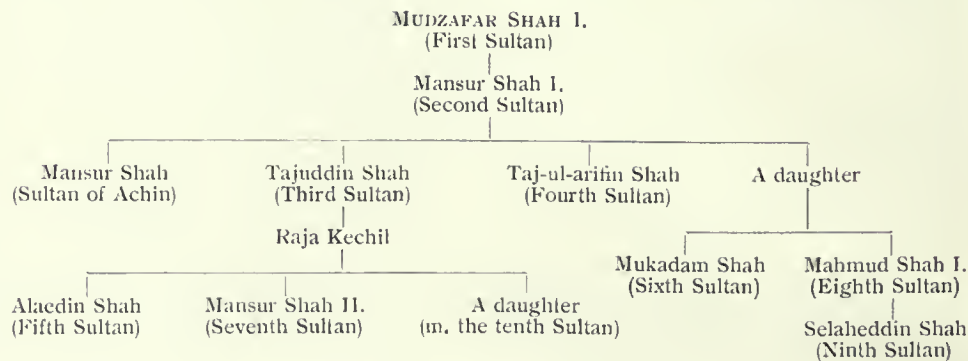
THE PENINSULAR STATES.

**Perak.**—The history of Perak may be divided into four periods. Of the first period (during which the seat of government was at Bruas, in

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 Bruas, 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 Bruas was powerful—the “Malay Annals” tell us—before even the mythical ancestors of the Malacca dynasty appeared on the famous hill of Siguntang, it had begun to decline as the river silted up. In the days of Sultan Mahmud (A.D. 1500) Bruas 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

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 :



Perak tradition identifies its first Sultan, Mudzafar Shah, with a son of Sultan Mahmud I. (of Malacca), who was born about A.D. 1505,

reached his new kingdom after various adventures, such as the slaughter of the great serpent, Si-Katimuna, with the sword Chura Si-Mandong Kini. As will have been seen, the Perak tradition does not hesitate to borrow from the legend of Sang 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 disinherited 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.

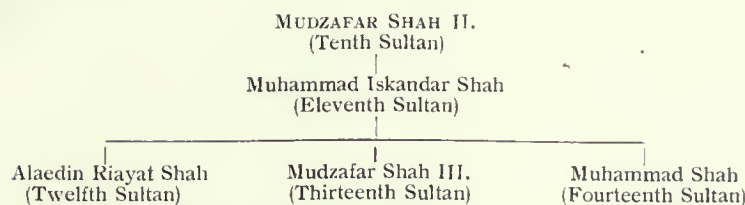
The third period of Perak history begins with the accession of Mudzafar Shah II. (A.D. 1635) and goes down to the death of Mudzafar Shah III. (A.D. 1765). The Sultans with whom tradition fills up this period of 130 years are given in the following table :



THE REGALIA OF THE SULTAN OF PERAK.

from the coming of Mudzafar Shah I., the reputed founder of the long line of Perak

and was at one time heir to the throne of Johore, but was passed over in favour of his



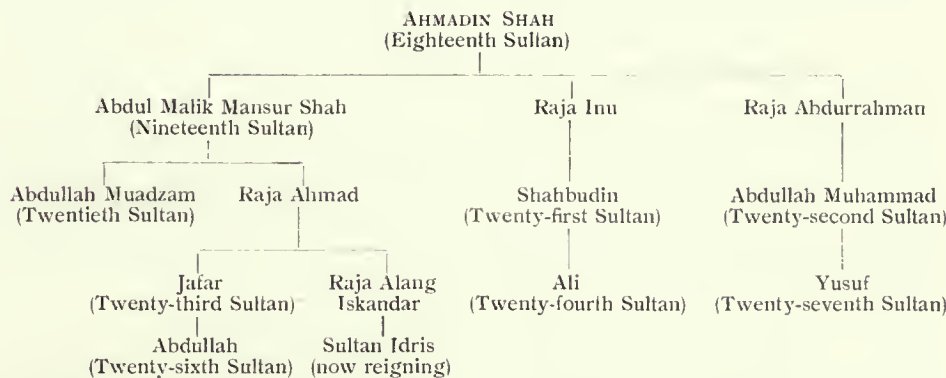
It should be added that the eleventh Sultan is said to have reigned for 111 years, and that the next three Sultans were his nephews by birth and his sons by adoption.

This period presents great difficulties. Raja Sulong, who married a Perak Princess and was sent by the King of Achin 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, Klana Jaya Putra and Daeng Chelak, invaded Perak in the days of Alaedin Riayat Shah. As the Klana 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 Mahmud Shah of Perak in A.D. 1743; who is this Mahmud Shah?

Putting aside these questions of royal descent, we know that this period (A.D. 1655-1665) 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 untractable and rebellious, and the government anarchical. Their religion is a sort of heterodox Muhammedanism. 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 Putus on the Perak river. They subsequently sent a mission to Sultan Mudzafar Shah about A.D. 1764, and concluded a treaty with his successor, Muhammad Shah, in A.D. 1765.

The exact position of the next four Sultans in the Perak pedigree is a matter of doubt, but they seem to have been either brothers or cousins of one another, and to have belonged to the generation immediately following Mudzafar Shah III. and Muhammad Shah. From the eighteenth Sultan onwards the pedigree is officially stated to have been as follows:



The special interest of this table lies in its illustration of the curious law of succession under which the three branches of the royal house take it in turn to provide the reigning Sultan.

**Selangor.**—The present reigning dynasty of Selangor traces its descent to Raja Lumu, son of Daeng Chelak, one of the Bugis chiefs who overthrew the old State of Johore in A.D. 1722. It should be added, however, that Raja Lumu appears to have become Raja of Selangor through his mother and not through his father. In any case, he was recognised as Sultan of Selangor in A.D. 1743. He maintained a close alliance with his Riau relatives and with the Bugis of Kuala Linggi. In A.D. 1756, and again in A.D. 1783, the combined Bugis forces attacked Malacca, but were repulsed with heavy loss. On the second occasion the Dutch followed up their success by attacking Kuala Selangor and ultimately forcing the Sultan to come to terms.

There have been five Sultans of Selangor: Sultan Selaheddin, who founded the dynasty; Sultan Ibrahim, who made the treaty with the Dutch in A.D. 1786; Sultan Muhammad, who reigned from A.D. 1826 to 1856; Sultan Abdul-Samad, who accepted British protection, and Sultan Sulaiman, the present ruler. The principal events in the history of this State during the last century were the development of Lukut as a mining centre and the civil wars between Raja Mahdi and Tengkud-din. The Lukut mining led to a great influx of Chinese immigrants, who paid a poll-tax to the Bugis chiefs for their protection, and who were kept in order by the splendid old fort on the hills near Port Dickson. As the Sultan

seems to have taken rather more of this revenue than the local chiefs would willingly have given him, Raja Jumaat, the principal Lukut chief, succeeded at Sultan Muhammad's death in diverting the succession from the Sultan's son to a weak nominee of his own, who belonged to another branch of the family. The new ruler, Sultan Abdul-Samad, did not interfere with the Lukut Princes, but he allowed himself to be influenced by a stronger will than his own, and ultimately surrendered all true power into the hands of his son-in-law, the Kedah Prince, Tengkud-din. He thereby exasperated many of his subjects, who did not like to see a foreigner become the real ruler of the country.

Politically the State of Selangor has never

been interesting. Piratical and anarchical, it never developed any organised system of government, nor did the authority of the Bugis chiefs ever extend very far beyond their own little settlements on the rivers or near the mines.

**Negri Sembilan.**—About the middle of the seventeenth century, after the decline of Achin and before the coming of the Bugis pirates, a large number of Menangkabau Malays migrated in small detachments from Sumatra into the peninsula, where they founded the little confederacy of States now known as the Negri Sembilan. Extremely proud of their origin, for Menangkabau is the purest-blooded kingdom of Malaya, the descendants of these immigrants still speak of themselves as "we sons of Menangkabau, who live with the heavens above us and the earth beneath our feet, we who once dwelt on the slopes of the mighty volcanoes as far as the Great Pass, through which we came down to the plains of Sumatra in the isle of Andalus." The early settlers taught this formula to their children so that their history might never be forgotten. But they taught more. These sons of Menangkabau were passionately devoted to the old legal sayings, in which is embodied a most extraordinary old system of matriarchal law. They are the most conservative people in Malaya. To their everlasting honour it should be added that they most loyally observed the covenants by which they first obtained possession of their lands, and that to this day, although all real power has long since passed out of the hands of the aborigines, the proud "sons of Menangkabau" acknowledge as ruling chiefs in Rembau and Johol men who are avowedly the representatives of the humble

Sakai race. The migrations seem to have been peaceful. The first comers occupied the nearest lands in the district of Naning; the next arrivals settled in Rembau; the latest settlers had to go further afield—to Sri Menanti, to Inas, to Sungei Ujong, and to Jelebu. In the development of their peculiar systems of constitutional law and statecraft, treaties or conventions (*muafakat*) probably played a great part. In Naning succession to the chieftaincy went by descent in the female line; a Dato' Sri Maharaja was succeeded by his eldest sister's son. This little State has been absorbed into the settlement of Malacca, but the representatives of the old rulers still receive a great deal of popular respect and were even given a small allowance of about £40 a year by the British Government up to a few years ago, when the allowance was withdrawn because the then "Dato' of Naning" omitted to call on Sir William Maxwell when that officer was passing through the district.

Next in antiquity to Naning comes Rembau. Tradition has it that the first settlers in Rembau were headed by two chiefs, Dato' Laut Dalam and Dato' Lela Blang. These men, though they settled in different localities, made an alliance and arranged that their descendants (in the female line) should take it in turn to be rulers of the country. With the craving for high-sounding names that is so striking a feature of Malay character, these two chiefs sought and obtained from the then Sultan of Johore the titles that their descendants still bear. The present ruler is the thirteenth Dato' of Rembau and the seventh "Dato' Sedia Raja," the other six being "Dato' Lela Maharaja."

The founders of the State of Rembau were followed to the Negri Sambilan by many other headmen of small immigrant parties, until at last a whole aristocracy of petty dignitaries was established in the country. Far from their homes in Sumatra and surrounded by possible foes, the early settlers had looked to Johore for protection and recognition; but the last comers, finding themselves strong and Johore weak, began to seek for a Prince of their own from the royal line of Menangkabau. In their own words:

"The villager owes obedience to the village elders,

The village elders to the district chief,

The district chief to the provincial chief,

The provincial chief to the ruler of the State."

This ruler of the State was the Yamtuan Bēsar of Sri Menanti. He occupied a position of great dignity, but of very little real authority over great provincial chiefs like the Dato' of Rembau; but of late years he has had his office strengthened by British support. The principal provincial chiefs are:

The Dato' Klana of Sungei Ujong,

The Dato' Akhizamam of Jēlēbu,

The Dato' Johan Pahlawan of Johol,

The Dato' of Rembau,

The Dato' Bandar of Sungei Ujong,

The Ruler of Tampin, and

The Dato' Muda of Linggi.

**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 reputed 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 Mudzafar 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 Riayat 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, Tēngku 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, there-

fore, 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 one has been compared to a cart-horse and the other to a Batak pony. The Malay population of Perak, Pahang and the Negri Sambilan must be largely Sakai, that of Selangor is Sakai 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 Malayan. The first is what one may call "river" government. The State was a river valley; the Sultan lived 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 King. Pahang, Trengganu, Kelantan 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 Lama, Achin, Riau and Pasai were instances of this type of predatory rule; the Larut and Lukut settlements in the nineteenth century show how it could be applied to comparatively modern conditions. The third type is represented by the matriarchal communities of Menangkabau or Negri Sambilan. Self-sufficing, independent of trade, and rather averse to war, a Negri Sambilan 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 annalists 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 Alam of Achin. None the less, the best political work of the Malay race was done in the little villages that have no history—the matriarchal communities in the highlands of Sumatra and in the valleys of the Negri Sambilan.





## 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  $10^{\circ} 25'$ , E. long.  $105^{\circ} 42'$ . Java, the nearest land, is about 190 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 1,000 fathoms occur within two or three miles of the coast. To the north is Maclear Deep, in which 3,200 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 1666, 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.")

the island "in which the heights are ridiculously exaggerated." In 1771 the *Pigot*, East Indiaman, attempted to find an anchorage but failed. The crews of this and other passing vessels reported the occurrence of wild pigs, coconut palms, and lime-trees, none of which really existed. The first attempt at an exploration was made by the frigate *Amethyst* in 1857. From this vessel a boat's crew was landed with the object of attempting to reach the summit, but the inland cliffs proved an insuperable obstacle, and the ascent was abandoned. In 1886 the surveying vessel *Flying Fish* (Captain Maclear) was ordered to make an examination of the island. A number of men were landed, and collections of the plants and animals were obtained, but since the island seemed of little value no serious attempt at

exploration was made. In the following year H.M.S. *Egeria* (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. *Imperieuse* 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. *Egeria* in 1887 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. G. Clunies Ross, of Cocos-Keeling Islands, and since that date this gentleman's brother, Mr. Andrew Clunies Ross, with his family and a few Cocos Island Malays, has resided there almost continuously. By them houses were built, wells were dug and small clearings for planting coffee, coconut palms, bananas and other plants were made in the neighbourhood 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 a small company, in the possession of which the island still remains.

Writing on the flora and fauna of the island, Mr. Andrews says that they are on the whole, as might be expected, most nearly related to those of the Indo-Malayan islands, but of this there are some exceptions in the case of certain groups. "Of the 319 species of animals recorded 145, or about 45 per cent., are 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 will probably be found to exist in other localities."

The main group of the Cocos-Keeling Islands is situated between 12° 14' and 12° 13' S. and 96° 49' 57" E. A smaller island belonging to the group is in 11° 50' N. and 91° 50' 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 it may be remarked is discredited 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 tree, which flourishes in the islands. Only three of the islands—Settlement, West, and Direction islands—are inhabited. The total population of the group in 1903 was 669, of whom 567 are Cocos born, the remainder representing Bantamese coolies and other imported labour. The entire population is engaged under Mr. Ross's direction 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 Feder-

ated 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 *Himalaya*—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 1906 been associated with 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 30½ square miles—the territory 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 1905 to £130,135 in exports and £108,766 in imports, as compared with £153,770 exports and £157,068 imports in the previous year. The tonnage entered and cleared in 1905 was 321,400, against 311,744 in 1904. The great bulk of the trade being with Singapore, the trade with the United Kingdom direct 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 Hongkong to Singapore touches on its shores, and there is also telegraphic communication with the mainland.





## THE PRESENT DAY



**W**ORLD-WIDE as the colonising influence of the United Kingdom has been, it is doubtful whether its beneficent 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. Pinang and Singapore have been the keys which have unlocked the portals of the Golden Peninsula, so that its wealth in well-laden argosies 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 £7,861,457 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 9,631,944 dollars in 1906, while the expenditure within that period has grown from 7,315,000 dollars to 8,747,820 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 Sembilan show excess assets amounting to 36,576,569 dollars, and the excess liabilities of Pahang, amounting to

5,788,303 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 5,013,000 dollars in 1889 to 27,223,476 dollars in 1906. To the latter sum the export duty on tin contributed no less than 10,036,607 dollars. The expenditure has risen from 4,091,078 dollars in 1889 to 18,899,425 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 due 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 inter-port trade, were valued in 1906 at 281,273 and the imports at 317,851 million dollars. Together these exceeded by 14,392 million dollars the return for 1902, when the figures were 273,622 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 1s. 8½d., whereas in 1906 it was 2s. 4d.

It is gratifying to observe the increasing growth of the import trade with the United Kingdom. The commodities purchased from the mother country exceeded in value those from the Continents of Europe and America by 111 million dollars during the ten years 1887-96 and by 129½ 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 accord-

ing to the market price of the metal, while cultivated rubber, tapioca, gambier, and pepper pay an *ad valorem* export duty of 2½ per cent. The value of the exports (excluding bullion) from the Federated Malay States in 1906 was 79,178,891 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 1,855,486 dollars, sugar 1,044,625 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 44,547,133 dollars as 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 Pinang.

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. Pinang 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, Pinang, and Malacca in 1906 was 11,191,776—an increase of 466,490 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 6,661,549, or 2,667,944 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 974,241 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 1894 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 laws 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 natural consequence 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. 5d. 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 local firms benefit at the cost of others. For, 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 transhipment cargo is excluded from the tariff, the combine is free to accept at any rate foreign goods shipped *via* Singapore on through bills of lading. The British manufacturer is handicapped by the fact that certain goods, such as tin and gums, 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 notably the case with tin, which costs 5s. a ton more to Swansea 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, freights, 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 shipments 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 Pagar 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 in consequence of what 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 develop-

ment. It seems to be generally agreed that Port Swettenham is destined to outstrip its rivals, the intention of the Government being apparently to concentrate there the shipping of the central and southern portion of the Federated Malay States, by developing to the utmost the natural advantages of the port. The east coast, the navigation of which is attended with much danger to small shipping during certain seasons of the year, is singularly destitute of accommodation for shipping, but at the mouth of the river Kuantan, in Pahang, there is a deep-water front extending for some considerable distance. Steps are being taken to remove the sand-bar at the mouth of the river, and these may be followed by the construction of a groyne to prevent further silting.

Opium is a very fruitful source of revenue to the Straits Settlements, contributing no less a sum than five or six million dollars, or rather more than one-half of the total revenue of the colony. In the Federated Malay States, also, the Government derives about two and a half million dollars annually from the drug. The quantity imported into the Federated Malay States, however, is three times as great as in the Straits Settlements. The difference in the sum yielded is attributable to several causes. In the colony the exclusive right to import, manufacture, and sell opium is farmed out to the highest bidder, but in the Federated Malay States, except in the coast districts—a comparatively small area—anyone may import opium on payment of the import duty, which now stands at 560 dollars a chest. Again, the miners in the Federated Malay States are paid to a considerable extent in kind, including opium, and the opium smokers are more extravagant than in the Straits Settlements, where the drug is a much more expensive luxury. It must be remembered also that the figures of opium consumption in the Straits Settlements are those of the drug imported by the farmers; but it is a well known fact that thousands of dollars' worth of opium—much of it from the Federated Malay States—are smuggled into the colony, and this cannot well be stopped, as there is no Customs department in the Straits Settlements. In the Federated Malay States there is a Customs department, and there is less inducement to smuggle owing to the low price at which the drug is retailed there.

The Chinese are inveterate gamblers, and recognising this fact, the Federated Malay States Government have legalised gambling in properly licensed premises. The monopoly of conducting these gambling houses is farmed out, after being submitted to tender. A substantial revenue accrues to the Government from this source. In the Straits Settlements, however, gambling is prohibited, and the law is enforced by severe penalties.

The tin mining industry in the Federated Malay States provides employment for 212,660 labourers, the greater proportion of whom work upon the "tribute" system, under which their earnings are to some extent dependent upon the success or failure of the mine. The total area of land alienated for mining purposes at the close of 1906 was 263,800 acres, more than one-half of which area is in the State of Perak. Upon only a small portion of this acreage, however, are mining operations actually in progress.

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 necessary 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 vogue fall into three classes—the open-cast system, the underground workings, and the alluvial washings known as "lampans." In not 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 outrival 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 territory, as will be seen from the figures given elsewhere. A simple statement of fact will bring home to readers the truly remarkable development which the States are undergoing as a result of the rise of rubber. At the end of 1905 there were in the States 40,000 acres under rubber; twelve months later the area under cultivation was 100,000 acres. Nor is the end yet by a long way. Immense areas still await the attention of the pioneering planter, and without doubt they will receive it. Thus a splendid future awaits planting enterprise in the Federated States unless some great calamity occurs, or, what at the moment seems highly improbable, some efficient substitute for rubber is discovered.

Owing to the difficulty which has been experienced by certain estates in the Federated Malay States in obtaining an adequate supply of labour, the Government have decided to levy a poll-tax, not exceeding five dollars per coolie, on all employers of this class of labour, for the purpose of forming a fund for the establishment of a labour recruiting agency. From this source mine managers and estate agents will be able to obtain all the labour they require for the development of their properties, without incurring the expenditure of bringing over from India Tamils who frequently abscond in order to take up temporary employment of a more remunerative nature before they have repaid the sums advanced to them for the cost of transit, &c.

The Government of the Federated Malay States have not failed to keep pace with private enterprise. The country is intersected with excellent roads, which are being rapidly extended, and a well-equipped railway runs from Puyé, the northern extremity of Perak, opposite Pinang, to the borders of Johore, with branch lines to the various ports on the seaboard. This railway was constructed entirely out of the revenue of the States, and has already paid dividends equal to 40 per cent. of the capital expenditure. Several extensions of the system are under consideration, and it is almost certain that before long a line will be carried into

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 Prye, 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 1906 the Education Departments 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 1906 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 1906 was in the Straits Settlements 328,635 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 83.6 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 germ 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 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 planting 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 conjointly. An arrangement, too, has been made whereby the Puisne 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.





## GOVERNORS OF THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS



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.

Lieut.-Colonel ARCHIBALD EDWARD HARBORD ANSON, R.A., Administrator, March 4, 1871, to March 22, 1872.

Major-General Sir HARRY ST. GEORGE ORD, C.B. (G.C.M.G.), March 23, 1872, to November 2, 1873.

Lieut.-Colonel ARCHIBALD EDWARD HARBORD ANSON, R.A., Administrator, November 3, 1873, to November 4, 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.

Sir WILLIAM CLEAVER FRANCIS ROBINSON, K.C.M.G., October 29, 1877, to February 10, 1879.

Major-General Sir ARCHIBALD EDWARD ANSON, R.A., K.C.M.G., Administrator, February 10, 1879, to May 6, 1880.

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.

Lieut.-Colonel Sir CHARLES BULLEN HUGH MITCHELL, K.C.M.G. (G.C.M.G.), February 1, 1894, to March 27, 1898.

Sir JAMES ALEXANDER SWETTENHAM, K.C.M.G., Administrator, March 28, 1898, to December 29, 1898.

Lieut.-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 WILLIAM TAYLOR, K.C.M.G., Administrator, March 2, 1906.

Sir JOHN ANDERSON, K.C.M.G., present time.





## 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 Loochow 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 civilisation, 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-

Buddhist high priest, all in carriages, in advance of whom, again, is a seemingly endless procession of flags, bannerets, 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,



A CHINESE FUNERAL.

terous expenses at marriages and funerals, anxious that the rule prohibiting young people from meeting before marriage should be rendered obsolete, and determined to abolish the useless towchang and foot-binding.

The funeral of a rich Chinaman is well worth seeing. From 3,000 to 5,000 dollars is not considered too lavish a sum to spend on the arrangements. Preceding the sandalwood coffin are preappointed "guides" and a

attired as monks. On arrival at the cemetery the coffin is placed temporarily in a mortuary, there to await interment at some future date to be arranged by astrologers. The proceedings are characterised by great reverence.

At present marriages are still arranged by go-betweens, who exchange the presents and settle money matters, and, in the majority of cases, the bridegroom gazes on his bride for

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 thereby the State is not mulcted of its revenue, but gains riches from other lands. Hylam stewards and Kranis 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, adding 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 peaceable as opium-smokers in moderation. Returning to the ricksha-



SAKAIS OF BATANG PADANG, PERAK.

costly processions with much music and waving of embroidered banners and scrolls, besides bands of coolies in ceremonial garb carrying Sedan chairs, baked sweetmeats, and curiously designed devices. A bride has her hair cut over the forehead in a fringe, and is expected to slay in the house after being married until her hair has grown long enough to be put back. The women as a general rule live secluded lives, while girls, or Nonyas, are properly only taken out for three days' pleasure at China New Year. At other times they can only leave the house in closed carriages or covered rickshas. This restriction does not equally apply to Christians, though many of them are still kept in retirement.

The Straits Chinese have exhibited considerable generosity in giving towards hospitals and public and private charities, and they add greatly to the stability of the British Empire in Malaya. Their children show an aptitude for learning in the Government and

Hylams, who form the majority of the domestics. As servants they are smart and unscrupulous. They earn high wages, but their money does no good to Malaya, being almost wholly remitted to their native province of Hainan to support their families. No Hylam woman is legally permitted to leave her country. Cases have been known of girls coming over disguised as house-boys, but they were promptly repatriated. The Hylams have strong guilds, which uphold them in every possible way, even going so far as to boycott a house should the servants be dissatisfied. At the same time it must, in fairness, be added that a Hylam will guard his own Tuan's property with the utmost fidelity, if put on his honour, and his talent for cooking is proverbial. In Malacca one class of Hylams work on the rubber and other estates, another pull rickshas, while others are petty shopkeepers and shop coolies. The Hainan decree that women shall not leave the country is a



SAKAI CHIEF, BATANG PADANG, PERAK.

pullers, running in this tropical climate engenders thirst, and itinerant vendors of iced drinks drive a brisk trade. The perspiring coolie, mindful of his impatient fare, 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.



JAVANESE SERVANT.

Hokiens, 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 "ngnai-gauk-neng," while a Hokien enunciates clearly "goa"—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 mangosteens, 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 rattan 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 uncouth chatter may be daily heard in the fine Botanical Gardens, as they discuss their various "mems" peccadilloes while their small charges wander round. Shoemakers, who live, like all Chinese tradesmen, in streets or rows peculiar to their handicraft alone, boast of Canton or Hong-kong as their original home.

Teochews are the chief agriculturists of the peninsula. Their industry is untiring, and is in marked contrast to the indolence of the Malays. The indigenous native is content with a paddy-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, sambals, 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-run; 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 unwary marauders. In durian and other lofty trees they hang lanterns to scare the flying foxes and similar predators.

Chinese wayangs, or travelling theatres, are

ingly. 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 with 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 smoulder there continually. A wonderful Buddhist temple at Pinang attracts thousands of sightseers, besides the ordinary devotee. In Singapore island the Hylams are completing a gorgeous temple. Inside, there are golden gods



SAKAIS OF PAHANG.

to be met with everywhere in Malaya. On wedding or birthday feasts a high platform is erected outside a Towkay's, or rich man's, house, and until the small hours of the morning the actors perform almost unceas-

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 shake 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 imploring 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 wasteland.

Shanghai is the port in China from which hail 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



A JAVANESE HADJI.

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 estab-

lishing 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 *Isu-loh-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.



CHINESE RICKSHA PULLER. CHINESE RATTAN WORKER.  
CHINESE HOUSEBOY. CHINESE LOCKSMITH. CHINESE HAWKER.

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 encomiums.

The Malay is somewhat prone to revenge, and his chief attribute is jealousy. His wife is entirely subservient. Her face is still often hidden with a sarong, and at railway-stations stern matrons may be seen guarding a group of young wives, whose faces are only unveiled in the privacy of the waiting-room. Little brides of eleven years old get very weary on their wedding-day, seated in the decorated arbour inside a warm house, wearing heavy headgear and being freely gazed at and criticised by hosts of visitors, who meanwhile partake of the marriage feast. The bridegroom, soon released, enjoys a quiet pipe with his friends. To chew the betel-nut is the one luxury allowed to a Malay girl after marriage, but it is prohibited before. The Mahomedan faith, though practised in Malaya, is mingled with ancient Dyak superstitions and magical observances. These are not much in evidence and entail careful research. A Malay will be found wandering round one's garden collecting a yellow blossom here and a red bud there to charm away some serious sickness in his home. Ailing babies will wear tiny indiarubber bracelets to ward off the Evil One. Trees possessed with demons are held in dread, and white rags are tied on their branches. Every village or settlement has a public praying-place, with a big drum slung from a beam. This is sounded vigorously on Thursdays, the eve before the day of rest—Friday. To these teak buildings, which are often prettily carved, the people resort when the nearest mosque is at an inconvenient distance. Women are not allowed to enter; they have no souls and therefore no future existence, so why trouble further? They can fast for their sins, and, as a Malay would say, "sudah habis." All this refers to the ordinary Malays and not to the Sultans and high officials, who are bent on benefiting their country. The funeral ceremonies of this people are carried out with Mahomedan ritual. It is a pathetic sight to see a child-burial. The little body, wrapped up carefully, is covered with a gaily-embroidered pall and carried in a man's arms, with a bearer holding the inevitable yellow silk umbrella over all.

The aborigines of the peninsula, the Sakais, are now getting very few in number. They are a quiet, simple folk, who often live in huts erected on high platforms, or else revert to their old tree-dwellings. A hunter will be cordially received by them, and should he kill a tiger and then allow them to use their charms upon it his fame is assured. They believe that each wild beast has an evil spirit, which, unless exorcised, will come to them when the animal is killed. To ward off this direful catastrophe they draw long tree-ferns up and down the dead body in the form of a cross, after which they rest satisfied. They have no religion, but have an instinctive worship of Nature and the Unknown Creator. For weapons of defence they carry blow-pipes, through which they discharge poisoned arrows.

Arabs are amongst the wealthiest inhabitants of these parts. Occasionally they are called "the sharks of the Orient"—this chiefly by Malay and Javanese pilgrims who are working for them for a certain number of years to 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 Sanskrit. 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 "keffiahs," twisted round with small shawls patterned like the old-fashioned

Paisley, they present a sight not easily forgotten.

Armenians, again, have amassed much wealth in the East. Amongst them women occupy quite an exalted position. After a husband's death the widow poses as a kind of queen, before whose authority children and their husbands and their grandchildren must perform bow down. In Singapore they have built a fine church. Their ritual approaches to

and drive a brisk trade amongst unwary shipping men in stale cigars and inferior articles of clothing.

Bagdad 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 zouaves 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



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 Bagdad Jews have two synagogues in Singapore which they alone frequent, the German Jew keeping himself strictly apart from this offshoot, and being, as often as not, a Rationalist.

The laziest nationality represented in Malaya is, without doubt, the Siamese—those un-

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 equalling 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 Annamese are to be found, quite out of their element, in domestic service. Their proclivities lean towards fighting, at which they are adepts. In the Boxer troubles in China the Annamite, though, like the Gurkha, small and wiry, was 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 kabuns or gardeners. These last insist on

New Guinea. The Kampong Bugis in Singapore is built on piles at the edge of the sea. All round their settlement are Chinese, engaged in constructing junks and other boats. 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 hut 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 *kual* (strong for weaving), and on his wrist a seaweed 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 fraternise.

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

their peculiarities of dress, and their diversity of speech. Both Singapore and Malacca were at one time ruled by Hindu kings, who were dispossessed by the Portuguese and



CHINESE BRIDE AND BRIDEGROOM.



NATIVE MUSICIANS.

being given Friday as their Sabbath, though they often employ the day working at other houses. They are more docile than the Malay, and give their wives more liberty, even allowing them to join in the country dances in their own island home.

Battas, who come over from Sumatra, are taller and darker than the Malay. Their women have several husbands, and the Married Woman's Property Act is amongst them an ancient custom.

The Boyanese, another island race, have formed a little settlement in Singapore. When fresh families come over it is curious to see the frightened rows of women, with faces wholly concealed in the useful upper sarong. They excel in making wooden clogs, but like better to become syces, and as such are preferred to Malays. Yet even they drive with one rein in each hand, thereby giving themselves little control over the horses.

Bugis, who are enterprising merchants and sailors, come to Singapore from the Celebes, sailing their own boats, which are from fifty to sixty tons burden. They can navigate these vessels from the farthest port of Sumatra to

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 mushroom-shaped hats.

Singapore being in close proximity to India, black races are conspicuous for their numbers,

henceforth relegated to the position of traders only.

Klings 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-



A CHINESE ACTOR.

dom of Kalinga. This poor class of Tamil are patient and enduring. They have developed some amount of muscle with hard work, and walk with an upright carriage. Even the

women and children might have been drilled in the best gymnasiums. Once a year they rejoice in the Pongul 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 fulfil them by walking over red-hot coals at the god Siva's loathly 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



A KLING (TAMIL) BOY.

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 *folhu*, or round spot placed on the forehead, is worn by men and women, in either red or yellow, saffron being a favourite decoration.

The Telegus are another variety of Indian from the Coromandel coast. They have not the same stamina as the Tamils. They are easily overcome by sickness and fever, and find difficulty in rearing their children. Amongst other work they are engaged in road-making in the native States, women earning slightly higher wages than the men for carrying on their heads light baskets of earth. Their one real pleasure is play-acting, and great is their felicity when the Tuan sends for 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—three large pots of vegetable dye, with which they obtain startling results. Striped tigers, accurately marked, and a bleeding captive, crowned with jungle fern and apparently pierced through the neck by a spear, are realistically presented. The King of the Tigers with his cubs, ornamented with blue and green, perform wild and uncouth 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 parchment, while they pour fresh red paint over the repulsive-looking captive's chest.

Tamils 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 nutritious 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 Chetty, 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 coast. Once a year gill-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 will probably be shocked by the sight of gruesome self-inflicted tortures, annoyed by the invariably filthy state of the temples, and sickened 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 quoits flashing in their turbans were an emblem.

Differing from the Sikh in every favourable characteristic we see the indolent Bengali, whose one ambition is to be spoken of as a Sikh. These people are frequently employed as *jagas*, or watchmen, and carry raltan or canvas couches to stores and lie all night on guard. In the compounds of hotels and private houses sleep is tabooed, but 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. Tight cretonne leggings are the principal feature.

The Madrassee is an obsequious, servile being, who spends his time as a *dirzee*, 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.

Parsees 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 place in which they live. One may recognise the Parsee, as he drives in a fashionable rubber-tired pair-horse carriage, by his peculiar head-gear.

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 swift 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) 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 1160 A.D. the pioneers of the Malays came over from Sumatra and settled on Singapore island, where was founded the original ancient city of Singapur. 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



A KLING (TAMIL) GIRL.

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.

Pinang, which had been founded in 1786 as

it speedily attracted natives from the neighbouring settlements, as well as Chinese, Javanese, Bugis from the Celebes, Klings from India, and Boyans from Bawain. Only four months after it became a British settlement its population



A JAVANESE WOMAN.

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 1,925 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 24,790 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 1860, when the population was approximately 90,000, of whom



JAVANESE GARDENERS.

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 228,555 (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 11.69 per cent. The resident population of Europeans and Americans increased by 669, or 20.5 per cent. The various nationalities were apportioned thus:

Europeans and Americans (including British military, 495)... .. 5,048

Eurasians	...	...	...	7,663
Chinese	...	...	...	281,933
Malays and other natives of the archipelago	...	...	...	215,058
Tamils and other natives of India	...	...	...	57,150
Other nationalities	...	...	...	5,378

The population of the Federated Malay States on March 1, 1901, was 678,595—an increase of 62 per cent. over the return for 1891—made up as follows:

Perak	...	...	...	329,665
Selangor	...	...	...	168,789
Negri Sembilan	...	...	...	96,028
Pahang	...	...	...	84,113

In 1906 the approximate number of immigrants was 274,798, apportioned thus:

Singapore	...	...	...	173,131
Pinang and Province Wellesley	...	...	...	109,491
Malacca	...	...	...	176

—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 "Sinkkeh," 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,

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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 Sumatra about a thousand years ago. To what stock that people originally belonged cannot now be ascertained. Sir Frank Swettenham, in his "British Malaya," 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 Sumatra, 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 Sumatra. The fact that in Palembang there exists a stream called Sungei Malaya 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 Sumatra. Long before the founding of Singapore and Malacca the people of Sumatra 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



A MALAY MAN.

the Malay Peninsula was only one of the many lands which were colonised in this manner. Java, Borneo, Celebes, and the other islands of the archipelago all fell an easy prey to this enterprising people, some of whom went still further afield, even to the Philippines and the islands of the Pacific.

The Malay inhabitants of British Malaya may

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 Malays" 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 Korinchis, and Mendelings, Malays of Menangkabau, Palembang, and Rawa, of Borneo, 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. There is another type—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 beau" 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-sinewed." He is quick and steady on his feet. His arms are long, and hang 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 as 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-

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 tolerant. He hates to be worried himself, and he is not tempted 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 is 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 beyond.

The most important article of Malay attire is without doubt the sarong. It is a comfortable garment, with no buttons and no fastenings whatever. It has often 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 use 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 scarecrow 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 consider the sarong alone quite sufficient as a nether garment for any but ceremonial occasions. 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, according 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 it is immodest for a Malay to 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-worshippers, 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 curry favour with the "Spectre Huntsman," a forest spirit of great potency. This tendency is most visible in the rites by which the ordinary domestic occur-



NOBLE MALAY LADIES.

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

respect towards his superiors. He has a proper reverence for constituted authority, and he is most careful to treat his chieftains with all the homage which is due to them. His domestic life is almost idyllic. Towards his servants he is considerate and friendly. He knows quite well that unless they are treated almost as members of the family and not as slaves they will not give him loyal or willing service. He is indulgent to his wife, and perhaps even

rences, 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

*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

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 "sireh" requisites, and here and there 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.

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*

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

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

and to most people who visited the house. Puteh, her daughter, was in many respects unlike her, though it was possible to trace a distant family resemblance. Her figure was slim, and she moved with that graceful swing of the hips which is peculiar to Malay women. She had an abundance of long black hair, large



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 "filing," 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 fee 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 child-birth a number of "taboos" have to be observed both by the husband and by the wife. It is forbidden to take the life of any animal, or to strike or threaten any living thing. 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 bade 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 palms, which shook faintly in the night-breeze and made the moonlight shadows tremble under his

feet. On every side he heard the monotonous chirping of innumerable cicadas, and now and again the hoot of an owl or the mellow note of a night-jar made him start with fright. He was in that state of nervous excitement which only prolonged suspense can induce. At last he reached the house he sought. It was a small attap-roofed shanty, built on wooden posts, in two parts, with ladder steps leading 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. It was a miserable hovel; for Mak Sadiyah, the bidan, like many a Malay woman whose husband has died and left her solitary, was very poor. Mat Tahir tapped the door gently. He was afraid to rouse the bidan from her sleep with a start. The Malays believe that the soul is temporarily absent during sleep, so that if a sleeper is awakened suddenly it has not time to return to the body. Quickly and silently they made their way along the path by which Mat Tahir had come, back to the house where Aminah awaited them anxiously. The first thing to do was to select a lucky spot within the house for the birth. When the bidan was satisfied that she had found the best spot, the girl was laid there. About an hour afterwards the child was born. At the moment of birth the Bital, who lived some distance off, and had some days previously been invited to stay in the house until the birth took place, at once invoked a blessing on the child. Then the umbilical cord was cut with the sharp edge of a piece of split bamboo, a dollar being first laid below it to bring prosperity. During the cutting the Bital called upon the father to give the child's name, and, as it proved to be a boy, he christened it Mat Sahid. The child was then bathed; after that it was danced in the air seven times by the bidan, and then it was laid to rest on a mat which had been carefully prepared for its reception. Next the mother was purified by being bathed in warm water in which certain herbs were mixed. After this the child was carefully swathed in bandages from head to foot, the idea being that this would prevent it from straining itself and becoming deformed. In the morning the mother had to undergo the ceremony of "roasting," which is one of the strangest customs connected with child-birth. She was suspended over a "roaring" fire, which was lighted by the bidan in the centre of the house. There she was left for about two hours until she was thoroughly "roasted." This ceremony was repeated in the afternoon, and continued twice a day during the whole of the forty-four days of her purification. It is a wonder that Malay mothers ever survive this terrible ordeal.

As the Malay child travels along the path of life he is attended on his way, from start to finish, by Dame Ceremony. She meets him as he sets foot upon the threshold of the world, and she remains at his side until he bids the world farewell. Her presence in some form or other is required for almost every event throughout his life—for the first shaving of his head, for his circumcision, for his betrothal and his marriage, for the sowing of rice and the harvest, for house-building and for hunting, for fishing and for mining, and, lastly, for the healing of every form of sickness that his flesh is heir to. In his youth he is a jovial little soul, boisterous and full of fun. Sir Frank Swettenham has described him as "often beautiful, a thing of wonderful eyes, eyelashes, and eyebrows, with a far-away expression of sadness and solemnity, as though he had left some better place for a compulsory exile on earth." On the whole he appears to enjoy his exile; he is spoilt by his parents, he runs wild and does as he likes, and nothing—not even the indigestible messes with which he is fondly encouraged to stuff himself—appears to upset his hedonistic philosophy of life. The Malay girl in early youth is seldom attractive. She has a round,

almost doll-like face, which lacks both interest and expression. She is generally shy and uncommunicative. On the whole she receives, and perhaps deserves, less attention than her brother. For some years Malay children, boys and girls together, run about in a state of utter nakedness, except, perhaps, for a charm hung round the neck or girth. Soon after it becomes necessary for the girls to wear clothing they are kept in seclusion, no strangers of the other sex being allowed near them. And so the girl grows up, doing odd jobs about the house, such as sewing and cooking, feeding the poultry, and driving the cattle out to graze, or helping her mother in the padi fields at the annual harvest. The friendships of her childhood are forgotten, and she waits impatiently for the day 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 inspection, and, if the inspection proves satisfactory, the proceedings are terminated by the offering of betel-nut and the payment of the betrothal money. The prospective bridegroom takes no part in the proceedings. Often he is mated 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 riverwards to bathe, or as she returned from the padi fields after the day's work was done. Subsequently the meetings may have been carefully premeditated, but no open recognition could be tolerated, and each time he went by the girl would draw her head-covering forward to conceal her face, with an affectation of modesty which custom made compulsory. Even then the ultimate choice of a bride lay 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 large sums of money by the families of both parties, and it also entails a great deal of work in the preparation of the wedding trousseau, the decoration of the houses of both bride and bridegroom, and the cooking of the customary wedding-feast dishes. These preparations take some days. The wedding ceremony proper commences with the bergantong-gantong, or "hanging up." This 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 bright-coloured trappings. 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 carefully decorated, special attention being 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 ends exposed to view from the front. Over 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 glittering mass of gold and silver tinsel.

Meanwhile certain preliminary ceremonies are being performed on the bride and bridegroom to prepare them for the wedding. Their 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 first 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 *fiancée* 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



MALAY BRIDE AND BRIDEGROOM.

sent 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-like head-dress of gold-embroidered 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 loaded 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, sireh 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. 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 his 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 meaner fabric. 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 Mahomedan law, is then taken by one of the bride'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 bahars," to which the bridegroom replies, "I accept this marriage with B for a portion of two bahars." 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 Malay etiquette, for a Malay unmarried 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*, ascends 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 one another 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



A MALAY CARRYING A STATE SPEAR.

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 eat 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-belief 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 rice-paste water, and then with water 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, women included, is drenched to the skin. 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 out to them the list of presents and their donors. As each name is read out the recipients signify their thanks by raising their hands in salute. After this, the husband again sleeps alone in the bridal chamber.

On the evening of the following day the husband is requested to absent himself from the house, and not to return till about two o'clock in the morning. The bride is then taken into the bridal chamber, when she is sung to sleep by some aged drone. 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; at 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 wife's house.

When a Malay dies the relatives place the corpse on its back with its feet towards Mecca. The hands are folded over the breast, and 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 upon a time a cat stepped over a corpse and that the spirit of the cat entered the corpse and made it stand upon its feet. The relatives were naturally much scared, and the incident created a sensation throughout the country. Ever since it has been customary to take precautions against the repetition of such a terrible catastrophe. After the corpse has been arranged in the manner described above, the very best sarongs that the family possesses are brought out to serve as a covering. Sometimes they are 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 persons competent to perform the task are found, the body is stripped and washed several times with different preparations, the greatest care being taken to clean the nails of the fingers and toes. 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 large 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 alter-



A DYAK WOMAN.

cation 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 is then unshrouded, 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 to make sure that the position is secure. The grave is then filled in, and rude wooden grave-posts are put in to mark the place. Then follows 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 hand comes in contact with the torn selvedge that the corpse realises that it really is not alive. The Talkin ended, the company 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 all 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 relegates the larger portion of the work of cultivating it to his women-folk. 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 culti-

vates coconuts, but seldom on a large scale. He plants them all about his house, and intermingles with them every description of fruit-tree, from the quickly growing pisang to the durian, which takes years to come into bearing. In addition he plants sirih and also betel-nut trees, the bloom of which spreads a fragrant odour, not unlike that of the English primrose, 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 ever is most handy—his dietary requirements are fully satisfied.

The Malay is at his best on the river. There he has no equal. See him coming down stream, 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 swirls 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 aim, and the net—which just now was hanging in limp folds over his shoulder and forearm—extends its wings to the full, settling like a great vampire 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 the net gets caught in a snag on the bed of the river. In an instant he is in the water, swimming and diving till he finds the spot. This does not take him long; for in the water he is almost a fish, and is able, by swimming under water, to make headway against the strongest current.

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 natural disinclination of the Malay for work of any sort. But it is due, also, in a great measure, to the introduction into the peninsula of the highly-finished 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 ten whole days in the fashioning of a thing which the "white man" can turn out in ten minutes by using modern machinery. He himself would much prefer the machine-made article after all.

The future of the Malay race in British Malaya is a question about which opinions differ very considerably. It has often been asserted that the Malays are 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 the wall, and that they 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 lack of those qualities which help the Chinaman and the Tamil 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 suited 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 other races are unable to 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

has been here so long that the climate has by this time done its worst for him. It only remains to find some way to correct the faults which he has inherited. Government interference is the remedy which first suggests itself to the mind. There are, of course, many arguments against the preferential treatment of any one class or race of people by the Government, and these arguments hold good in this case. They are, however, to a great extent counterbalanced by the fact that in the case of the Malay, in the Protected States at any rate, the Government is in the position of trustee, bound by treaty to advise for the good of the people of the country. What is now a solemn duty, a matter of conscience, may in the long run prove the best policy economically. The Government can best keep the Malay active by inducing him to do Government work. This object can be attained either by offering higher rates of salary, or by reducing the hours of duty, or by a combination of both methods. At present the Malay candidate for Government employment is, on the whole, rather worse off than the Tamil or the Chinaman. He has, of course, a reputation for laziness, which, whether justified or not, always stands in his way. Moreover, the rates of salary offered to him are in some cases actually less than those offered to other Asiatics in the Federated Malay States. It was only quite recently that the Malay police were allowed the higher rate of salary which the Sikh police had enjoyed for years. The official schedule of wages for Chinese coolies is still higher than that for Malays. A Malay assistant teacher gets a lower salary than a Tamil peon. Jaffna Tamil clerks are allowed leave to return to their homes on half-pay, while a Malay clerk who wishes to visit his parents on leave is granted no pay at all. To get half-pay leave he must go abroad.

Generally speaking, it is only from those officers of the service who have that affectionate regard for Malays which is the natural outcome of intimate acquaintance with them that they really get any degree of preferential treatment. It is laid down by Government as a general maxim that the Malays should be encouraged. But the desire for departmental efficiency is generally so strong that the maxim is more honoured in the breach than in the observance.

Still, much has been, and is being, done for the Malays. A residential college has been founded at Kuala Kangsa 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.



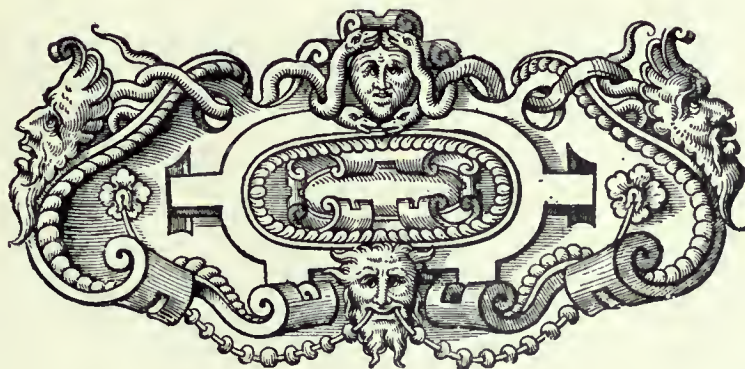
A DYAK.

In Kuala Lumpor 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 study the Malay 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 civilisation 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 enervating. 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 strenuous 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, deftness of hand; 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 Malays 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 Malays 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 on 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 (*karang*) beautiful words and sayings; he describes a story as a necklace of pearls, or a crown of diamonds, or a garland of flowers. He does not consider the parts of a story to be mere accessories 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 Malays was the work of villagers. It appears 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 Brer 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 "Taju's-Salatin" ("Crown of Kings"), dated 1603; the "Sejarah Melayu" ("Malay Annals"), written at Achin in 1612; the "Bustanu's-Salatin" ("Garden of Kings"), and a version of the "Iskandar Dzu'l-Karnain" ("Romance of Alexander").

Generally speaking, Malay literature may be classed under the four headings: Romance, History, Poetry, and Fable or Anecdote.

### ROMANCE.

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 proverb 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 Antæus 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 folk-lore of the European child. The most common form of composition in the classical

literature of the Malays is the *hikayat*, or romanlic biography. The *hikayat* never plunges into the middle of a tale; it generally begins by relating the history of the hero's parents, and in some cases (when the story is of Indo-Javanese origin) it tells us who the hero and heroine were in their earlier incarnations. The hero is invariably a prince, "extremely handsome, with a glowing countenance and a complexion like polished gold, and without a peer among the princes of his time." 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 *Repayang*, cheeks like shelled 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 stereotyped 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 Kala), 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 spoilt when converted into Malay. For instance, in the Javanese romance of "Ken Tambuhan," 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,



the prince slays himself over her body. The whole tale is narrated with great simplicity and pathos, but the canons of Malay convention demand a happier ending; the lovers are brought to life again by Siva (Betara Guru) and the whole pathos of the tragedy is lost. It must be borne in mind, however, that native writers do not claim to reproduce the legends that they study; they simply use certain incidents in those legends as a background for their own tales of love and war. Thus, when a native operatic company stages "Hamlet" in Singapore, it stages a comedy. It does not want to ridicule or parody the original; it simply takes the outline of the Hamlet story as a peg on which to hang the work of its own professional humourists.

HISTORY.

Every Malay romance is believed to relate true history, but certain books are looked upon as more authentic than others, and have consequently received special attention at the hands of students. The best known of these chronicles are the "Malay Annals," the "Kedah Annals," the "History of Pasai," and the second book of "Bustanu's-Salatin." Of these four, the "Malay Annals" is the most important. It is an anecdotal history; its kernel is the pedigree of the royal house of Malacca, its flesh the legends and gossip associated with that royal house. It has been proved that the various Malay histories are unreliable in their chronology, and that their legends are only echoes from Indian and Persian literature. For many years, for instance, native history has been allowed to supply us with an incorrect chronology of early events, such as the foundation and fall of the ancient city of Singapore, the establishment and growth of the Malay kingdom of Malacca, and the names and biographies of various Malay kings. The Colonial Office List for 1907 still perpetuates this chronology in the statement, "There is some evidence of Singapore having been an important trading centre in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and the tradition is that the place was attacked and devastated in A.D. 1252 by the Javanese." An examination of Javanese and Chinese records has made it clear that the old city of Singapore flourished and was destroyed in the fourteenth century.

But it would be unwise because of these weaknesses to discard Malay chronicles as altogether worthless. The "Malay Annals" have the merits and failings of all anecdotal history; they may often sacrifice truth to the point of a story or to the interests of a pedigree; they adorn many anecdotes with unreliable details as to private interviews and secret conversations that could never have taken place, but they must be true to the ideas and to the spirit of the age. They furnish a very lifelike picture of the times. They tell us tales of the tyranny and profligacy of the old Malay kings, of the corruption of the court, of the bribery of officials, of murders and judicial trials, of feuds, vendettas, intrigues, and elopements, and of the attitude of the people to all these episodes. Such matters are of very real importance to the scientific historian, who cares more about the condition of the people than about the biographies of individual monarchs.

POETRY.

The Malays are emphatically a songful race. "For hours and hours," says Major McNair, in his account of a trip to Mount Ophir, "these people kept up quite a little social entertainment by improvising amusing stories which they set to their own native music and sang aloud to harmonious airs, the whole joining 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 words to well-known tunes. Verses, jokes, songs of praise or amusement, all are composed to meet the needs of the moment, and (unless they possess very exceptional merit) are forgotten when the play or festival is over. The horror of literary piracy which characterises European work has no place among primitive peoples. A Malay song-writer 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 the memories of a Malay audience, just as an English audience remembers a good story and repeats it. It must not, however, be supposed that the Malay looks upon verse merely as a means of expressing contempt, or compliment, or jest; he loves the rhythm of poetry for its own sake, and he finds in it a relief for his feelings, especially for his sense of melancholy longing:

"For a heart oppressed with sorrow some solace lingers yet  
In the long low notes of the viol that sweeten a song of regret."  
(Apa lah ubat hati yang dendam?  
Gesek biola tarekkan nyanyi.)

This love of poetry cannot be altogether a new thing, since it enters into the very life of the people, and is shared by the other races 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, *shaers*, or metrical romances, and *fantuns*, or quatrains. The last-named is the true racial verse of Indonesian peoples. It is usually described as a quatrain 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 *fantun* 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 *fantun* it must be pointed out that in the oldest peninsular literature the word is used to signify a proverbial metaphor or simile. Now, Malay proverbial expressions are of two kinds—metaphorical proverbs of the European type, such as "*Paḡar makan padi*"—"The fence eats up the rice"; and proverbs by sound-suggestion, such as "*Sudah gaharu chendana ḡula*"—"It was eagle-wood, and now it is sandalwood again," an apparently meaningless expression, suggesting by its sound the words "*Sudah lahu berlanya ḡula*"—"You have been told, yet you come asking the same question again." This method of sound-suggestion gives the key to the otherwise incomprehensible *fantun*. The following English rendering of a Malay quatrain will give a fair idea of the nature of sound-suggestion:

"The fate of a dove is to fly—  
It flies to its nest on the knoll;  
The gate of true love is the eye,  
The prize 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 significance grows upon the mind, is one of the great charms that the *fantun* possesses in the eyes of its votaries.

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 of avowedly foreign origin, and there are those that are apparently Indonesian. Of the latter, the pre-eminently important are the Malay beast fables. The best of these centre in the cycle of mouse-deer stories. Mouse-deer is not unfit to stand beside Brer Rabbit. He is "a small chevrotain, to be found in almost every part of the jungles of Malaya. He is commonly called the mouse-deer, but, in spite of the name, belongs rather to the antelope tribe, the heel-bone 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 cloven to an extent which in so small a creature is really remarkable. At the same time he is a most beautiful little animal, with big, dark, 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 of "How Snail outran Mouse-deer," "How Mouse-deer escaped Crocodile." In this stage Mouse-deer is a delightfully pagan knave, pitting guile against strength in the struggle for existence.

The following story of "How Mouse-deer cheated Tiger" is a good example:

Mouse-deer took counsel with himself: "What shift is there for me to save myself alive?" And he came to a wild wasps' nest. "Good," said he, "I will bide by this nest." Presently Tiger found him and asked him his business. "I guard *Nabi Sleyman's* gong," said Mouse-deer, pointing to the nest. "May I strike it?" asked Tiger; "of all things, I should 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 bamboos, and there he waited. Then Tiger smote *Nabi Sleyman's* gong and all the wasps came swarming out and stung him till his face was swollen. So he bounded away in a rage and went to 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* viol," said Mouse-deer, pointing to a slit stem, in which the wind sounded. "How do you play it?" asked Tiger. "Lick it here with your tongue," said Mouse-deer, pointing to the slit. "May I?" asked Tiger. "Yes," said Mouse-deer, "but, with your leave, 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 filth. Then Tiger licked the bamboo; and a gust 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 to where Mouse-deer watched over the filth. "See the hurt you have done me, accursed one," said Tiger, showing his tongue; "now, of a truth, I will slay and eat you. But, first, what is this filth, that you guard it?" "It is *Nabi Sleyman's nasi Kuyul*," 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. And Mouse-deer went a long way off and stood by a coiled snake. Then Tiger tasted the filth. "Why is it so bitter?" said he; "beast, this is not rice, but filth only." And he rushed in a rage to where Mouse-deer waited. "Now, indeed, your hour has come," said Tiger; "make ready to die. But, first, what is this you are guarding?" and he looked 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 Sleyman* 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 ousting 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 larder. He is brought before the stock Oriental just potentate, 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 larder.

## MALAY PROVERBS.

Malay proverbs afford a pretty reliable index to the national character, and they reveal much admirable philosophy. The native of the peninsula 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 idler, 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 crocodiles 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 (*Semu Melayu*) is also proverbial, and other proverbs dismiss the men of the various States as follows:

"Wheedlers are the men of Malacca.

Exaggerators are the men of Menangkabau.

Cheats are the men of Rembau.

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 combated 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—lust 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

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### 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.



Fig. 2.—BARK CLOTH AND PLAITED GARMENTS, WITH WOODEN MALLETS FOR BEATING OUT THE CLOTH.

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 (*Antiaris toxicaria*). 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 loin-cloths 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 raitan, the black fungus called *akar 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 *akar 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 cruder 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

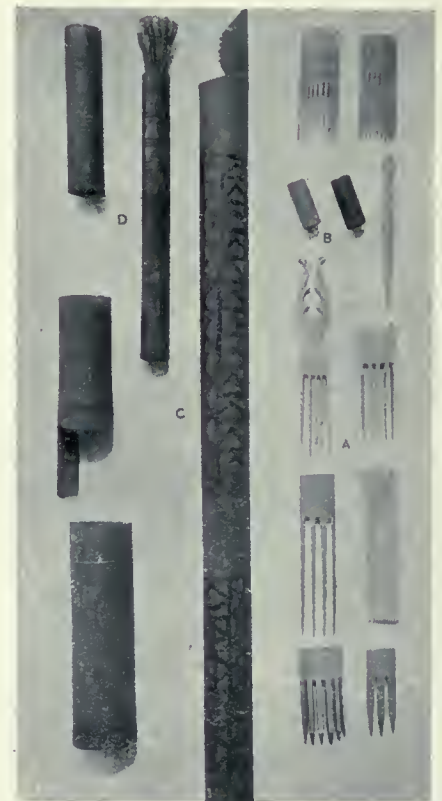


Fig. 3.—BAMBOO ARTICLES ORNAMENTED WITH INCISED, BURNED, AND PAINTED PATTERNS.

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



Fig. 4.—SAKAI WOMAN OF BATU PIPIS, PERAK.  
(The face is painted in red, black, and white.)

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 Pipis, 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 *Buyong*. 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 very 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 fez-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 rather 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 string-bag. The centre basket of the same row is a Pahang shape, and that to the left is a padi 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

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 *Betiyong*, and finishing them off with an adze, known as a *Patil*. It may, therefore, be easily understood that only a few rich people could afford to build wooden houses.

*Tufas* 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.

*Tufas* 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 bicoloured 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 *Tufas* 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.

material called *Tufas*. 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

*Bertam*. This is the size that is used for the finer 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.

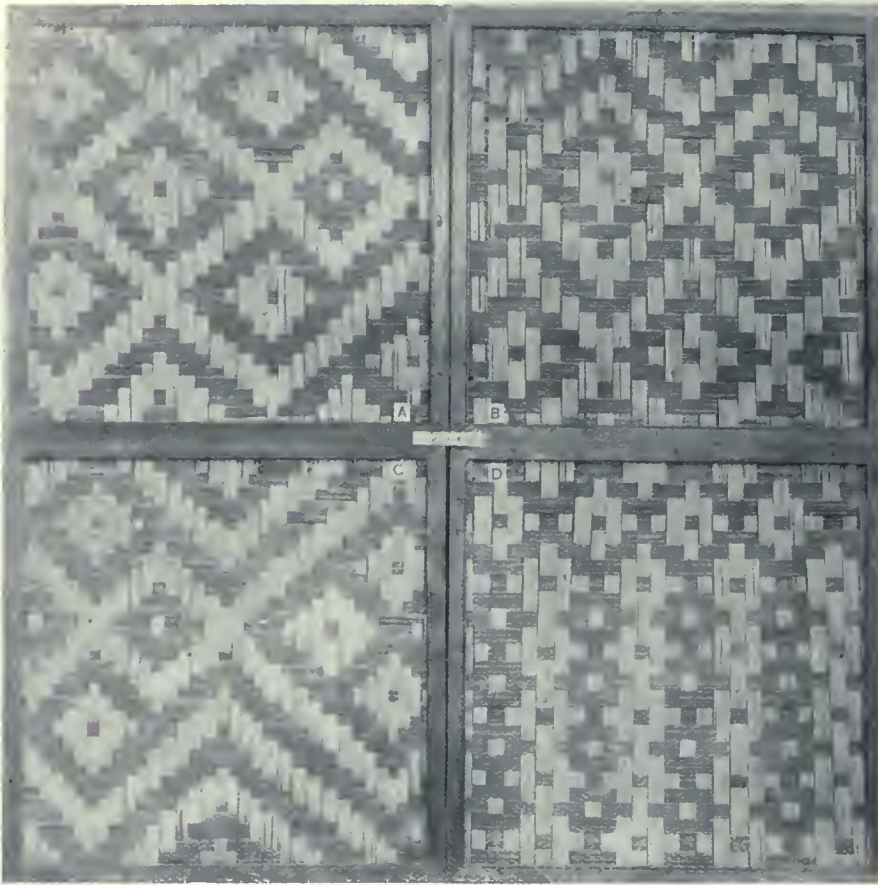


Fig. 6.—FOUR VARIETIES OF PLAITED TUPAS.

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 Chessboard, 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 plainest 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 orna-

mented 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 *Sirih* 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 stiff in texture. As usually made, they consist of nests of differently shaped covered boxes, and have raised patterns on them. This variety of plaiting is known as *Ayam gila*, or "mad weaving," from its great complexity. This "mad weaving" is not confined 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 are of *Pandan* leaves, and the coarser of *Mengkuang* 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 curious 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 a 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-

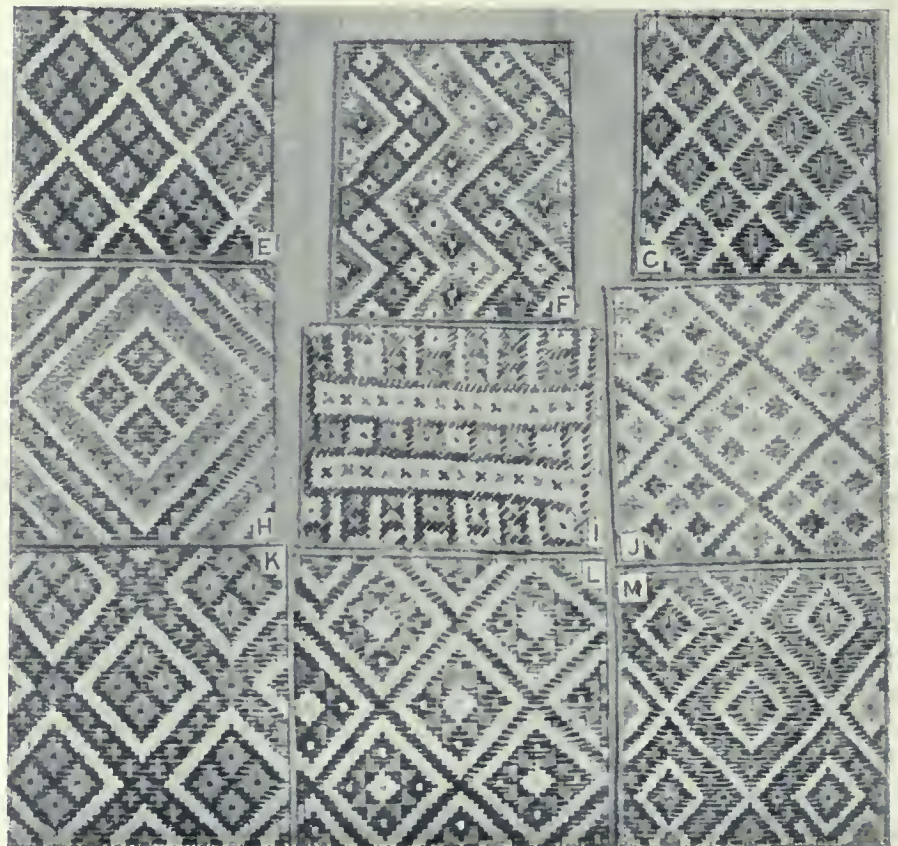


Fig. 7.—NINE VARIETIES OF PAINTED TUPAS.

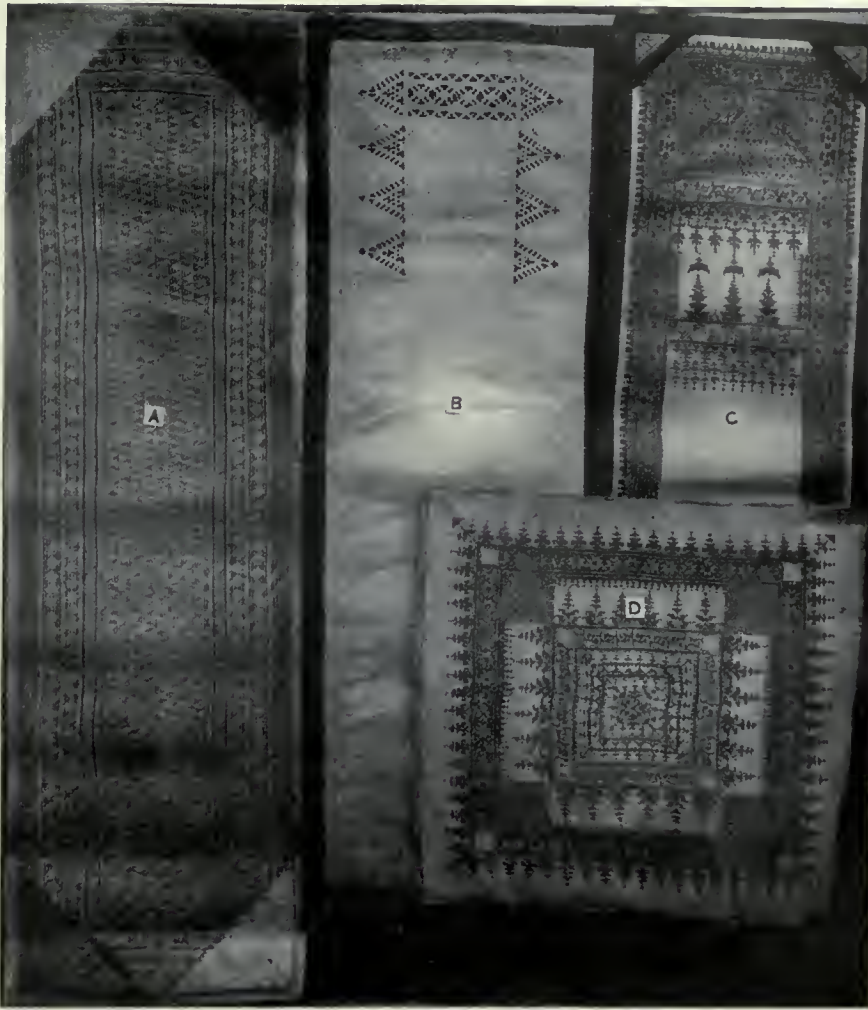


Fig. 8.—THREE LONG MATS AND ONE SQUARE ONE.

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 woof, 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 scarves. 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 sarong, a sort of petticoat 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 thin are waxed thread.) 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 untied. 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 woof 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 bowed 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 *Pelcing*. 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

comes that of weaving. The loom employed (Fig. 10) is a very simple one, almost exactly like



Fig. 9.—MAT BASKETS AND HATS.

undoubtedly due to the woof being of the ground colour, so that each portion of the pattern is mixed with this colour, whereby all crudity of colouring is avoided.

pattern. It is then burnished with a cowry shell. These cloths, though very beautiful when new, do not stand wear well and cannot be washed. The whole process is very

Patani, in the Perak Museum, numbers fifty-five pieces. There 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 on 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. 10.—A MALAY WOMAN OF PERAK WEAVING A CHECK SILK SARONG.

Another method of tie and dye work is practised. White 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 Telepoh*. 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 gilt. 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

similar to the gilding of book-binding. The *Telepoh* sarong shown (C, Fig. 13) is of indigo-

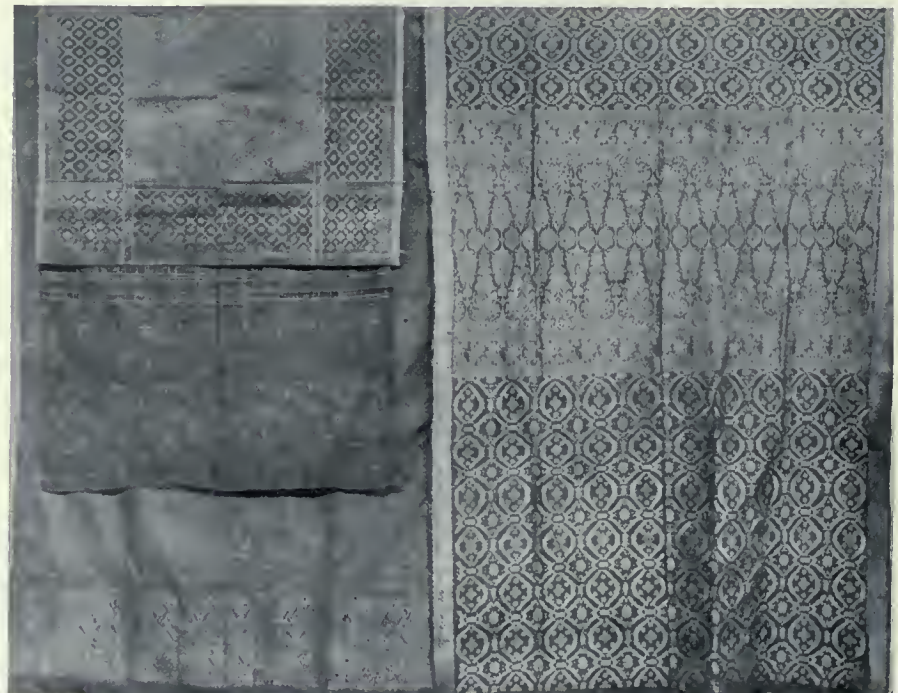


Fig. 11.—FOUR COLOURED SILK AND GOLD THREAD CLOTHS.

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

takes the place of the gold embroidery in the *Suji Timba* work.

Closely related to this is cut-paper work, for



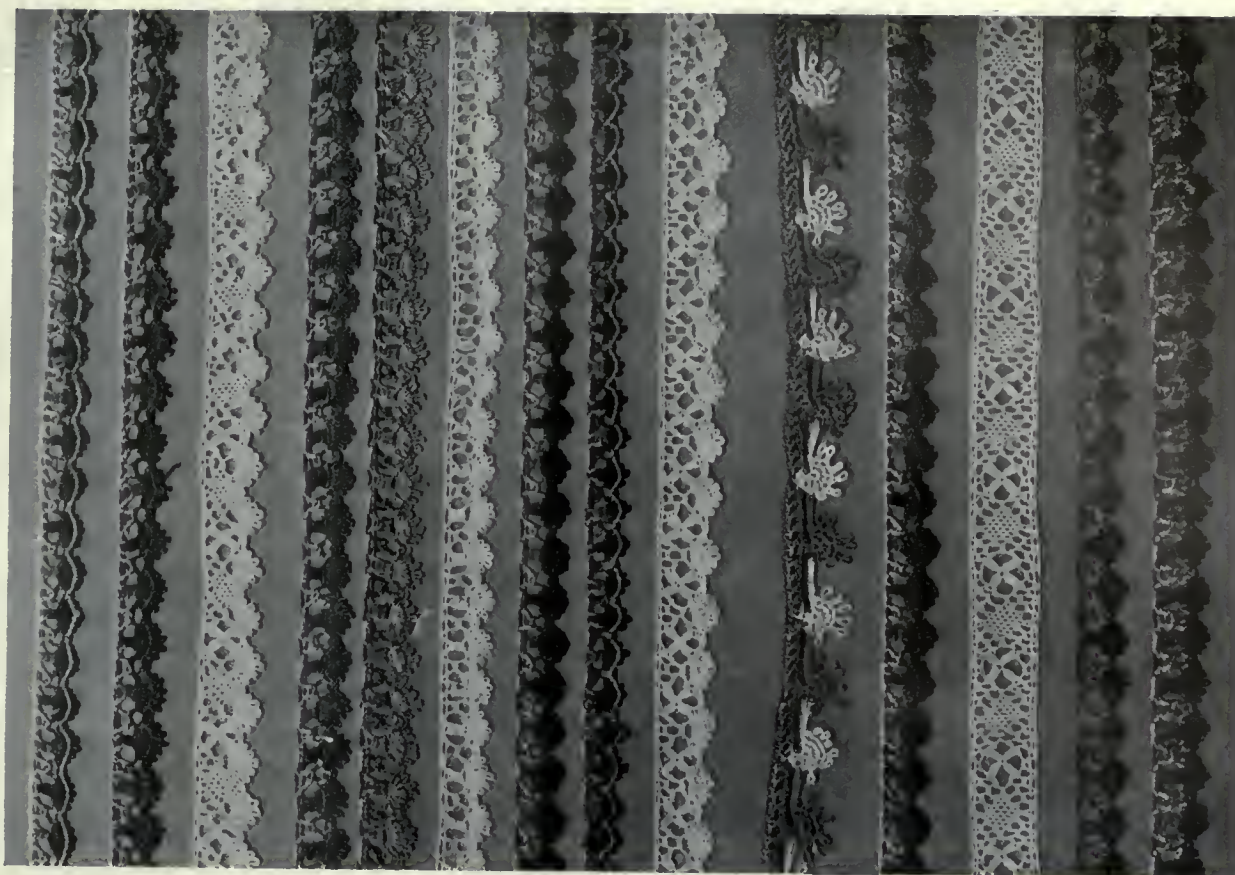


Fig. 16.—SAMPLES OF THE PILLOW LACE CALLED BIKU.

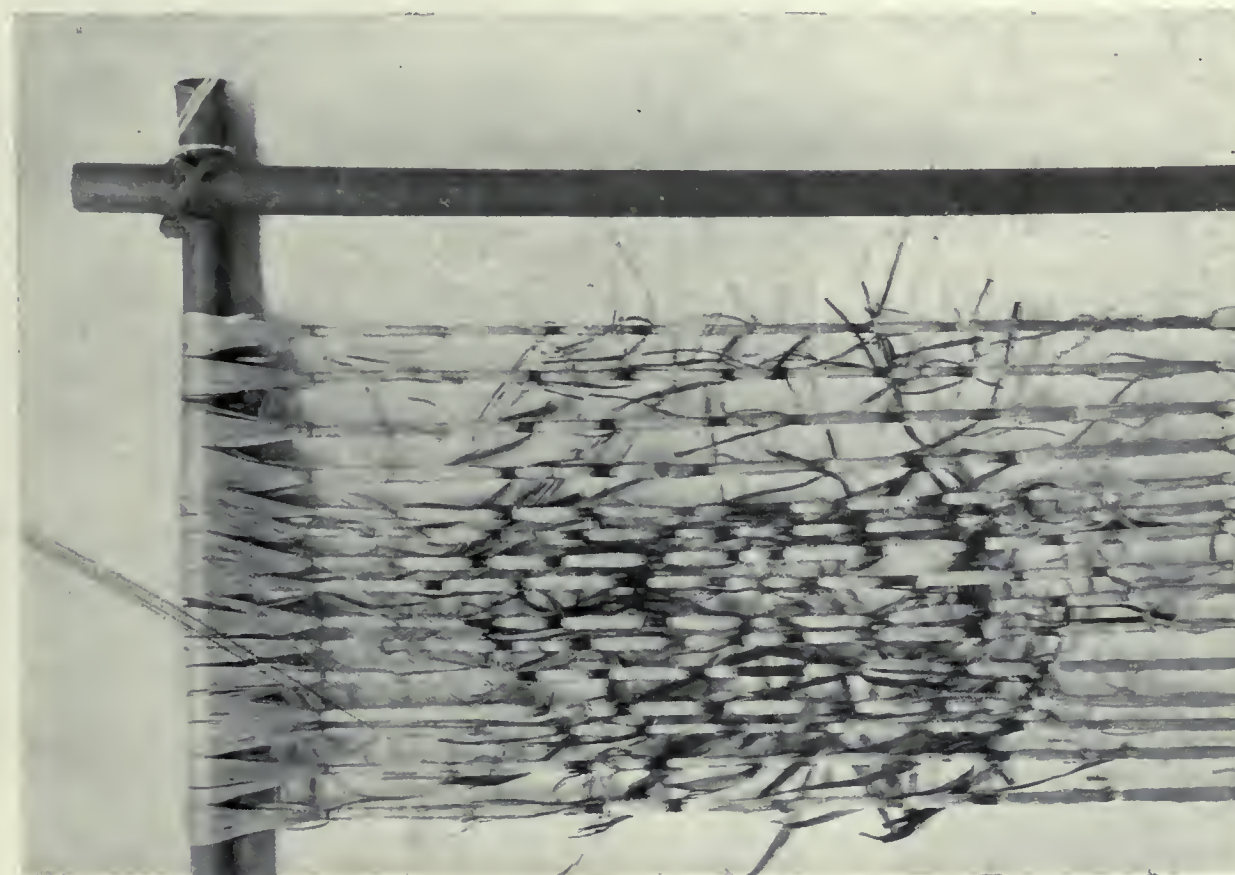


Fig. 12.—SILK WARP THREAD TIED READY FOR DYEING.

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 rattan, 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 *Tupas*, 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 *Kolch* (Fig. 17). It has a keel of a semicircular outline, with high stem and stern posts following the same outline. It is usually gaily painted, and has a curious curved arm at the stem, in the shape of a swan's neck, to hold the mast and sail when lowered.

In Negri Sembilan 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-stirrers, 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

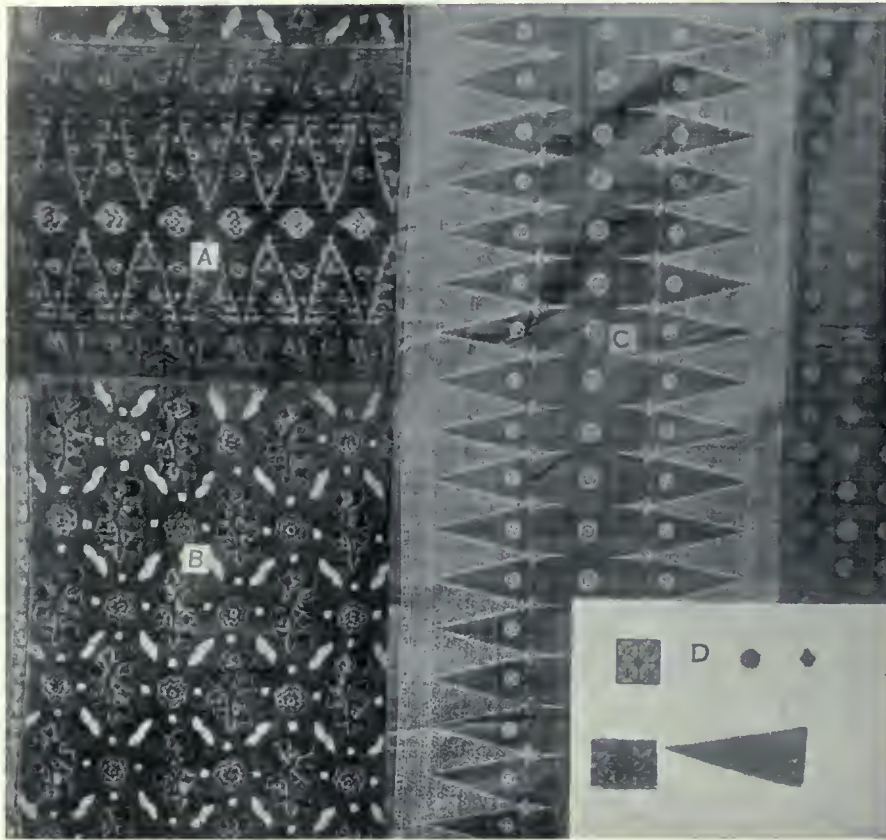


Fig. 13.—KAIN LIMAU, PELANGI, AND TELEPOH CLOTH.

(A cloth of Kain Limau and Kain Pelangi is on the left and another of Kain Telepoth is on the right. In the corner are stamps for gilding the latter.)

one on the top of the other, to produce the desired effect. In another variety coloured bamboo is employed in place of paper. This material is prepared from the inner portion of the cane of the bamboo called *Buluh Plang* (*Bambusa Wrayi*).

Crochet is employed to ornament the short white trousers worn by those Malays who have made the pilgrimage. It is done in the same way as in Europe, but the cotton used is very fine and the resulting work is consequently lace-like in appearance (Fig. 16).

The only other form of lace which is made locally is the so-called *Biku*. It is a pillow lace, and the manufacture of it was introduced into Malacca by the Portuguese some two centuries ago. *Biku* is generally formed of coloured silks, though white lace is also made. It is, as a rule, quite narrow, and many beautiful patterns are to be had. The lace which is most distinctive is that made with the brilliantly coloured silks which appeal to the Malays. The art is, unfortunately, confined to Malacca. Fourteen different patterns of *Biku* are shown in the illustration. Counting from the top, the third, sixth, ninth, and twelfth are of white silk and the remainder of bright coloured silks.

Netting for fishing nets is, both inland and on the sea coast, quite an extensive industry, but as it does not differ in any material respect from netting in other parts of the world, it only requires a passing notice here.

A little has already been said about house-building, but further details are required to make it intelligible. Broadly speaking, the true Malayan house is a structure of round



Fig. 14.—A MALAY CALENDERING CLOTH WITH A COWRY SHELL.

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

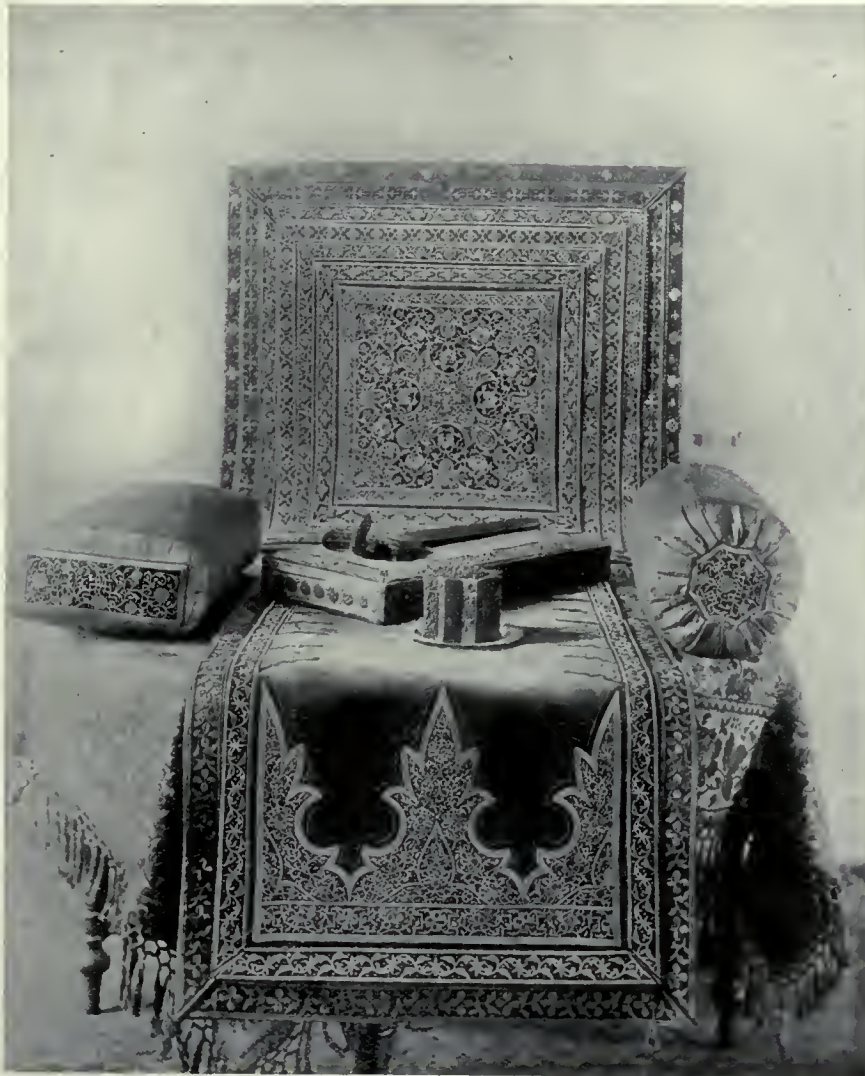


Fig. 15.—EMBROIDERED MATS, PILLOWS, ETC.  
(Presented to T.R.H. the Prince and Princess of Wales in 1901 by the Sultan of Perak.)

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 Saiong, 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 Pahang. 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 direct, 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 *Buyong*, 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 *Buyong*, 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



Fig. 17.—A PAHANG KOLEH.

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



Fig. 18.—A MALAY WOMAN MAKING POTTERY.

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, rewashed, and finally cleaned in a large round shallow wooden tray, called a *Dulang*. 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

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

up so as only to allow enough air to get in to keep the fire slowly burning. As the fire progressed, successive portions of the trunk were covered up with earth, till the whole

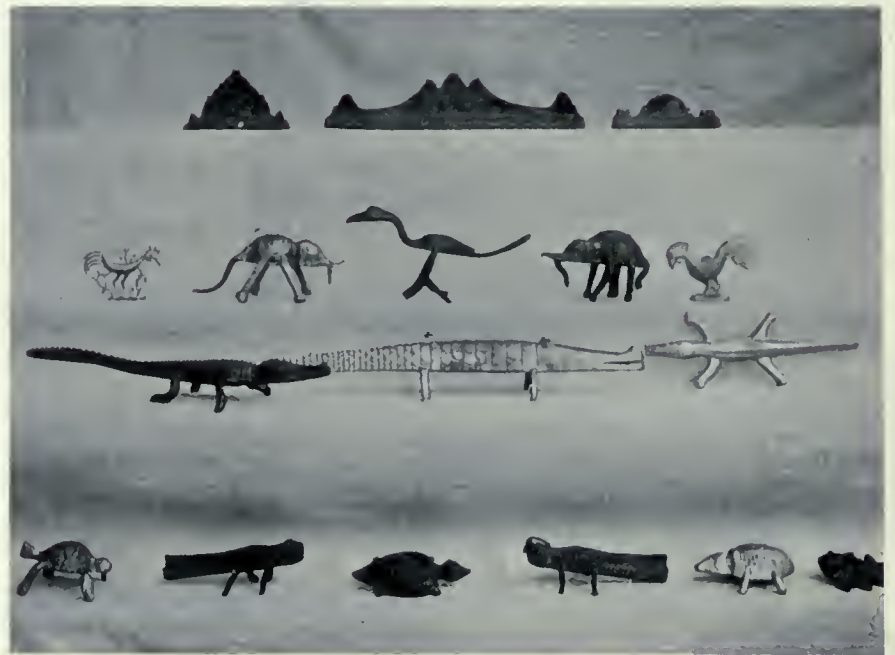


Fig. 20.—MALAYAN TIN TOYS.

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

tree was converted into charcoal. Should the fire from any cause go out, it was never relighted. For this reason, and because only the best timber-trees in the country will burn in this way, the method was prohibited many years ago. Charcoal-burning is now entirely done by the Chinese.

Alluvial gold occurs with the tin in several localities, and is mined in the above-described ways. Taking advantage of the different relative weights of the two substances, the gold dust is afterwards washed out of the tin sand by the skilful use of a *Dulang*.

In all the States tin money and ingots of tin, which in former times passed as money, have been found, and up to the last decade of the nineteenth century the so called "hat money" was current in Pahang. In Trengganu and the Siamese States round perforated tin money is still in use. The Pahang coins were cast in brass moulds, as were also those in circulation in Negri Sembilan.

The Malays used to make very curious tin toys. These were cast in the shape of animals (Fig. 20). This was doubtless wrong, according to Mahomedan ideas, and possibly they are survivals from pre-Mahomedan times. These toys are of two classes—one cast in sand from wooden patterns, like the ordinary ingots of tin, the other cast in piece moulds made out of soft stone. The first are the commonest, and the animal most usually represented is the crocodile; but elephants, birds, tortoises, turtles, fish, grasshoppers, snails, and mountains are also depicted. They are very quaint and grotesque, and at the present time are difficult to obtain.

The chains for sinking cast-nets are cast in wooden, stone, iron and brass moulds. The common way is to cast simple rings, which are afterwards cut and made into a chain. But in one variety of mould a set of rings is first cast, then they are taken out and put into the mould again, in recesses made on purpose, and other rings are cast through them, so that a chain is made up of solid links, and no cutting and soldering is necessary.



Fig. 19.—HAND-MADE POTTERY.

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

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

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 no four, six, or eight-waved krites. 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 hilts and of the true broad-ended Malayan 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

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, tip-tilted nose. G is a gold-mounted forty-seven-waved kris, and its sheath; H is a five-waved



Fig. 23.—SPECIMENS OF MALAYAN SILVER WORK.

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.

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 *Tumbok 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 krites 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



Fig. 21.—REPRESENTATIVE MALAYAN WEAPONS.

and silver; B is a straight sword with a brass Crusader hilt; C is the broad-ended Malay sword called *Lading* (this last has a horn handle with a coloured tassel; the backward

Unlike all others, it is worn at the back, stuck into the belt, with the handle towards the left side. The other forms of kris are worn in the belt, or sarong, over the left hip. The handle



Fig. 22.—BRASS AND COPPER WORK.

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 *Sangkou*, 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 Sambilan 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 *Chimbals*, 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

lathe. The casting is all done by the wax process. A model of the intended article is made in beeswax; it is then coated with fine

then poured in, and takes the place previously occupied by the wax. The clay is chipped off, and the article can then be finished up. Cook-

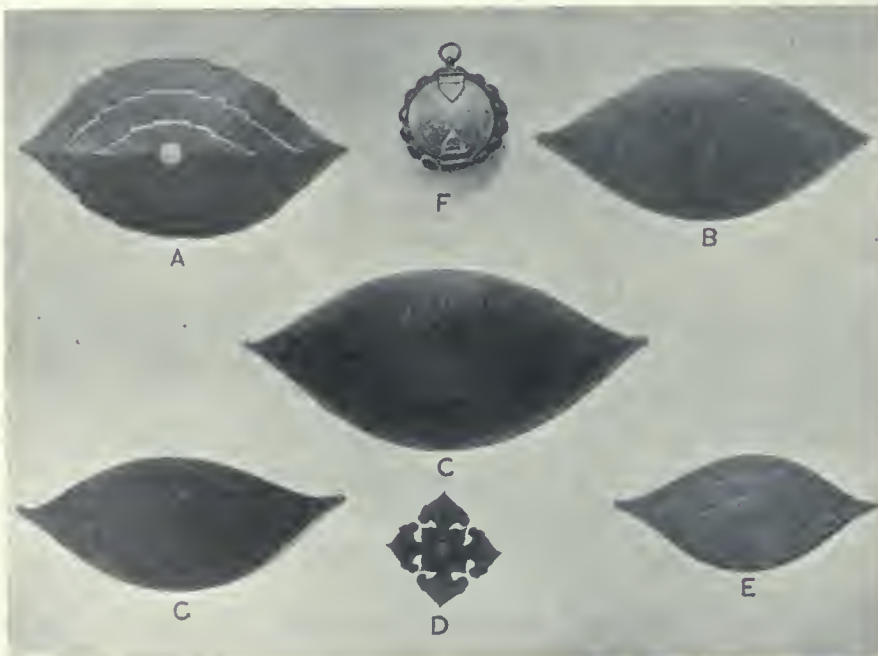


Fig. 24.—JADAM AND NIELLO WORK.

clay, and successively with coarser qualities, till the mould is judged to be thick and strong enough. Having been dried, this is heated and the wax is poured out. Molten metal is

ing-pots, water-jars, lamps, and the boxes and cups for holding *Sirih* and the various things which are chewed with it are the principal utensils which are made of brass.

of them and so depreciate 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 *Jadam*, 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 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 *Pendings*, or waist buckles of *Jadam* 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 *Pending* 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 lafan*, 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 *Sicasa*. Besides the repoussé work, golden articles are often embellished 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 Malay smiths. At my suggestion an attempt has been made by the Government to counteract this regrettable



MALAYAN JUNGLE PRODUCTS.

tendency by instituting an Art School at Kuala Kangsa. In it various Malayan arts and crafts are taught by native teachers. It is too

of pictures in colours, or even in monochrome, is quite unknown to the Malays. Religious feeling is probably responsible for this to a



MALAY HANDIWORK.

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

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.



**E**XTENDING 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,



1. ELEPHANTS AT WORK ALONG THE KUALA KANGSA RIVER.  
 2. ELEPHANT KRAAL NEAR TAPAH, PERAK.      3. NEWLY CAUGHT ELEPHANTS IN A KRAAL NEAR TAPAH, PERAK.



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 even then, though at some later date the former was broken somewhere in the latitude of Kedah and re-united later. The larger mammalia 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 Sembilan. 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 *wau-wau* or *ungka*, 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 silvery black fur.

One species is found among the mangroves of the coast, another among casuarinas in similar situations, but they are more common in virgin



A YOUNG MALE KRA OR CRAB-EATING MACAQUE.

(*Macacus cynomolgus*.)

Now living in the London Zoo.

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 "broh," 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



A YOUNG FEMALE KRA OR CRAB-EATING MACAQUE.

(*Macacus cynomolgus*.)

Straits. The former is an inhabitant of low-country jungle, and in its wild state is somewhat local in distribution. It is much sought



A FEMALE KRA OR CRAB-EATING MACAQUE.

(*Macacus cynomolgus*.)

This animal lived in captivity in its native country for some seven or eight years, during which time it gave birth to three young ones—one female and two males—all by different fathers. She is now living at the Zoological Gardens, London, whither she was taken in March, 1906.



AN OLD MALE KRA OR CRAB-EATING MACAQUE.

(*Macacus cynomolgus*.)

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 retriever 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



FEMALE KRA AND YOUNG.

(*Macacus cynomolgus*.)

It is very rare for monkeys to breed in captivity, but this old Macaque did so freely. The Kra is by far away the commonest monkey in the Malay Peninsula.

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



A YOUNG WHITE (PALE GREY) LUTONG OR LEAF-MONKEY.

(*Semuopithecus obscurus*.)

These are very difficult to rear in captivity, the subject of the portrait only living for about three months.

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,

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 Puleh, 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 Langat 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

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



QUEER PETS.

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-roosts 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. Reimbau, Kuala Pilah, and Gemencheh, all in Negri Sembilan, 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 *rimau anjing*, 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 *binturong* 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.



A TIGER HUNT.

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

the same period seventeen leopards were brought in.

Next in importance to the tiger comes the leopard, of which two varieties, commonly

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



THE BINTURONG OR BEAR-CAT.

(*Arctictis binturong*)

This animal has troubled the classificatory powers of zoologists for many years now, but still remains a zoological problem. As the English name signifies, it has characteristics of both the cats and bears, but such is the uncertainty surrounding it that it is placed in a separate family, of which it is the only known representative. Its principal peculiarity is that the last two or three inches of its tail is prehensile.

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,

viz., 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.

Otters 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 617 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 Trengganu 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.

that at the turn of the tide it flies up the estuaries and creeks uttering its long-drawn scream, which warns the shell-fish of the return of the water.



BOS GAURUS HUBBACKI (MALAYAN BUFFALO).

Other fairly common hawks are the little sparrow-hawk or *raja wali* (*Accipiter gularis*), which creates great havoc in the native poultry-yards, and the Serpent Eagle (*Spilornis*), a large bird of handsome ash-brown plumage variegated with white and a long black crest. The bird frequents the edges of the rice-fields and is very sluggish in its habits, sitting for hours on the tops of dead trees. It feeds mainly on fresh-water crabs, lizards, small fish, and an



HEAD OF A SELADANG (MALAYAN BUFFALO).

(Shot by J. S. Mason.)

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-siput* 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 belalang* or grasshopper hawk, a small bird



YOUNG RHINOCEROS HORN-BILLS.  
(*Buceros 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

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, *Crocodilus 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, *Tomisloma schegeli*, 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 Talé Sap, 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, *Crocodilus 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 at-

tached 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-



D. MAW.  
(A Singapore Shikari.)

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



A CROCODILE.  
(Showing eggs in nest.)

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 wharfs. The Port Weld one fell a victim to an unsportsmanlike European, who had it called up to be fed and then shot it.

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 ruler 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 tortoiseshell 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 Trionychidae, or soft 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 Klings, 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, though 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 (*Cyclemys*), and are by no means uncommon in marshy situations.

Three species of large tortoises, which attain a length of 20 inches and more, are confounded by the Malays under the name *tuntong*. 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 sand-banks 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,



A STUDY.



THE FAVOURITE PERCH.



WAITING FOR THE MID DAY MEAL.



THE FAVOURITE POSITION (ON ONE LEG).

THE ADJUTANT OR MARABOUT STORK—"BURONG BABI" (PIG BIRD)  
OF THE MALAYS.

(*Leploptilus javanicus*.)

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

Far commoner than the leathery turtle are the green or edible turtle (*Chelone mydas*) and the hawksbill turtle (*Chelone imbricata*). The former is met with in abundance on both coasts of the peninsula, and lays its eggs on the sandy shores of small islands, or occasionally on lonely beaches on the mainland. All these

grey with small red spots and nearly a foot in length, is sometimes to be found. It is known as the *lokay*, 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 bamboos, but owing to its habits is rarely met with, 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 each side of the tail, and by having the skin of the sides of the body flattened and extensible so that the animal can parachute 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 sumpa*, or cursers, from their habit of frequently opening and shutting the mouth when irritated or alarmed. The common species in the Straits 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 *biawak* 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 fluvial in its habits, but the other is common round towns and villages, and is a very foul feeder, living on carrion, garbage, and offal of all descriptions.

A very large proportion of the peninsular lizards are included in the family of Scincidae or Skinks, or *bengkarong* in Malay. These are small and inconspicuous in their habits, being usually found among dry leaves, &c., in jungle, though some are fond of basking 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 slow-worm or a snake.

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 sexlineatus*) is characterised by a very long and slender tail three or four times the length of head and 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 (*lalang*), over 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 snakes, 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

while specimens of over twenty-four feet are quite common. The python is the centre of many Malay folk-tales, and its gall-bladder is of very high value for medical and magical purposes, while its flesh is also eaten by Chinese from certain provinces. The python is not a poisonous snake. It kills its prey by constriction, but it possesses such formidable and recurved teeth that it can inflict most dangerous and even fatal bites.

Two families, the Ilysiidae and Xenopeltidae, need only be mentioned. The former, represented by two species, are burrowing snakes, similar in habits to the Typhlopidae, while the latter is a carnivorous species feeding on other snakes and small mammals. Both families are very rare in the peninsula. They are not poisonous.



THE KAMBING GRUN OR MALAYAN GOAT ANTELOPE.

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 Boidae, 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 *ular 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 Rolubridae, which comprises the vast majority of the snakes found in the Malay Peninsula. This group has been divided by certain peculiarities in the dentitions into the following sections:—

*Aglypha*.—All the teeth solid. Harmless.

*Opisthoglypha*.—One or more of the teeth in the back of the upper jaw grooved. Suspected or slightly poisonous.

*Proteroglypha*.—Front teeth in upper jaw grooved or perforated. Poisonous.

The first section, the *Aglypha*, contains a considerable majority of the total number of snakes inhabiting the Malay Peninsula, but only two or three demand special notice.

*Acrochordus javanicus* is a very curious form which inhabits 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 *ular belalai 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



MALAY TAPIRS.

to this section is *Coluber taniurus* var. *Ridleyi*. 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 *ular butan*, 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 Peninsula, which, so far as local experience goes, are quite innocuous to human beings, though possibly their bite has a slight paralyzing 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 prasinus*, the green whip snake, of very slender form, about five feet long and of 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 silvery turquoise blue. This snake is common everywhere, except in old and lofty jungle. It is usually found in small bushes, with which its colouring harmonises so well as to make it very difficult of detection.

Another common but much larger snake of the same group is *Dipsadomorphus dendrophilus*, which is also of very handsome colouration. The body colour is a deep glossy black with a slight bluish cast and with regular vertical bars of brilliant chrome yellow. The Malay name for the snake is *ular katam tebu*, *katam tebu*

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 innocuous 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, inhabits a fresh-water lake 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 that 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, or Hamadryad, 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 chequered 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 WILD PIG OF MALAYA.

Even commoner than the Hamadryad is the cobra, which is almost as 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.

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



CAPTURING THE TAPIR.

being from snake-bite (other than from that of marine snakes) is of very rare occurrence in the Straits Settlements and Federated Malay States, though in the States under Siamese influence such fatalities are more frequent. Even after allowing for the far less dense population, the mortality from this cause is quite insignificant when compared with that attributed to snake-bites in British India.

Three species of "krait" are on record from the Malay Peninsula, but only one, the *bauded krait*, is at all common. The bite of these snakes is almost as dangerous as that of the cobra, though slower in its effect. The common species, *Bungarus fasciatus*, has a strong superficial resemblance to a harmless species of *Dipsadomorphus*.

Of the two remaining genera of Proteroglyphous snakes, represented in the peninsula by four species, the only form worthy of note is *Doliophis bivirgatus*, known to the Malays as the *ular sendok mali 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 here 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 *ular kapak 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 sumaltranus* and *L. gramoncus* 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 wagneri* 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 to go 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 lubbacki*), generally known as the seladang; a local race of Bantin (*Bos sondaicus bulleri*), which appears to be very scarce and does not probably exist south of the Bernam 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 sumatrensis*), 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 nobler 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 handiness 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 Malayan 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 no 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 who will be able to track to a certain extent, and who may try to find game for the sportsman; really good trackers are scarce, and are not obtainable without the assistance 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 pursuit of the seladang. The largest of the ox tribe now existent in the world, its grand proportions and the noble trophy which its head produces make 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 then sometimes killed comparatively easily, but this method of getting them is the exception rather than the rule, and most of the hunter's trophies will be obtained after many hours, even after many days, of hard tramping and careful stalking through the densest of jungles.

A seladang is often represented as being a very dangerous beast to hunt, a favourite expression of the uninitiated in the art of hunting but well initiated in the art of talking being that a seladang charges at sight. This is quite a mistaken idea. If seladang were so inclined, it would be impossible to hunt them for long without coming to grief, and they would certainly be left alone even by the hardest of sportsmen. 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 to a keen scent he has a very sharp pair of eyes, and his hearing is more than ordinarily acute, so it may easily be imagined that it is a 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, staring hard at the intruder before dashing off, thus possibly giving the hunter a chance. If he winds one, however, he never hesitates in any circumstances, never looks round, just disappears like a flash, crashing through the densest jungle, creepers and rattans giving way like so much pack-thread before his mighty bulk. You follow him up, you hope he may not have gone far, you pretend to make yourself believe that 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 hazy 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 never see him again; 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 fight—probably because the wound is so severe that they have no longer any heart or strength to fight, yet are able to get a long distance away—a large proportion of them do, their pluck and vitality being astonishing. I will cite two personal incidents to illustrate what I mean. A seladang, whose head I possess as a valued trophy, was killed by me about 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 just nicked the other, and, after giving it half an hour's grace, I followed the tracks, which were fairly sprinkled with blood, until they crossed the Jerang river, where the blood trail stopped. I deduced from this that the beast had drunk at the stream, and I expected that the water would soon tell on his damaged lungs. Sure enough, not a hundred yards from the river bank—a steep hill rose almost from the river—I caught a glimpse of the beast far up the hill-side standing quite still with its head hanging low, apparently in great distress. I followed up the side of the hill, but the farther I went the less I was able to see 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 whereabouts. I thought he was coming down on the top of us, and expected to see his huge form at any moment, but the snort was evidently one of alarm rather than rage, and nothing happened. Being now in close proximity to a wounded seladang, and feeling sure that he would not go far without stopping again, I followed him with the greatest caution, 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 doubled right back on his tracks. He seemed to see me at the same moment that I saw him, and, turning round, came straight up the hill at me. Now, this hill-side was so steep that a 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 stretch of the imagination to speculate as to what he could have done on the level even in such a badly wounded state. On another occasion I had a shot at a bull seladang just as he rose 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 from 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 seven or eight yards of me, wriggling his way through the undergrowth for all the world like some huge prehistoric monster, with his useless quarters trailing behind him! The spirit was willing, nay, anxious to fight, but the flesh was weak. It is always so with seladang. When dying they will face the point of danger if their strength permits, and if the hunter happens to be close to them, they will certainly try to make some sort of demonstration. The largest authentic seladang head ever obtained in the Malay States was shot by Mr. C. Da Prah, in the Jelai Valley, in the State of Negri Sembilan. This head is a world's record for outside span of horns. The dimensions were:—

Widest outside span of horns, 46 inches; widest inside span of horns, 40 inches; width between tips of horns, 33 inches; tip to tip of horns across forehead, 78½ inches; circumference of base of horns, 20½ inches.

The horns of a good head of 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 there is a great number of types which vary a good deal in the different localities where seladang are found, and no general rule can be laid down. An old bull seladang will stand between 17 and 19 hands at the shoulder, and will measure between 8 feet 6 inches and 9 feet 6 inches from nose to rump, measurements taken between perpendiculars.

If seladang-hunting is to take the first place, elephant-hunting certainly runs it very close, and there is little to choose between them for excitement. Elephant-hunting is probably a little less difficult than seladang-hunting, a seladang having the advantage over the elephant in keener eyesight and keener hearing. In fact, an elephant has wretched eyesight, and it is not surprising that it does not hear much, owing to the habit it has of continually flapping its ears. Of course, if it is alarmed at all it will keep its ears quite still for long periods, during which I have no doubt that it can hear well enough. An elephant seldom makes any mistake though, when once it has got the scent of the human animal, and, in the case of an uninjured beast, it leads for parts unknown immediately; in fact, an elephant can disappear in an instant in a way that no one would credit who had not been through the experience.

A wounded elephant will often wait just off his track for the hunter, and probably, as soon as he has got his wind, will charge home if not stopped with a heavy ball. I do not think that an elephant will attack without first getting the position of his adversary from his scent. Elephants when wounded sometimes behave in a very extraordinary manner, an instance of which I will give. I was returning from a trip down the Triang river, in Pahang, and came on the tracks of a big bull elephant on a sand-spit early one morning. I left my boat and followed up the tracks, which almost immediately joined those of a herd of five or six smaller beasts, who had been feeding about the river bank all night. We got up to them in a quarter of an hour, and I was fortunately able to locate the bull at once, but could not see his head clearly enough to get a shot at it. I manoeuvred for a minute or two but with no success, and, becoming nervous lest the elephant should wind me, I decided to try a body shot. He moved slightly forward and exposed that part of his body which gave me a good chance for his heart, at which I aimed. He was about fifteen yards from me, but nothing appeared to happen to him. The other elephants stampeded, but he remained in exactly the same place. The smoke from my 8-bore clearing away, I gave him the second barrel, which seemed to wake him up a bit, and he moved forward a few steps and swung round to the other side. He now commenced to roar, but not very loudly, and, getting hold of a single 10-bore rifle that I had with me, I brought him down with a shot in the shoulder. Almost immediately he got up again and moved on a little bit. I reloaded my 8-bore, but by this time he had moved away about a dozen yards into a very thick patch of thorn jungle, and I could no longer see him, although I could hear him quite plainly. I approached a few steps and, making out his form through the tangled mass, I fired both barrels one after another, as quickly as I could, at the point of his shoulder. The result was very startling. He came flying out of the thicket like a rocket, lurched round in my direction, and charged straight at the

smoke, I was not there. He came over in his stride two large dead trees which were quite three feet from the ground, and fell dead with a crash on the other side. Subsequent examination showed that the first shot had hit him right through the heart. I might have saved my other cartridges had I known this, but it is very easy to be wise after the event. He was a big elephant, and carried a nice pair of tusks.

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 big game will, I feel sure, satisfy them. 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 seladang. These were obtained during nine weeks of hard work by an experienced 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 his efforts are fruitless. The game is 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.

## SNIFE AND CROCODILE SHOOTING.

By W. D. SCOTT, DISTRICT OFFICER, RAUB.

ON the west coast of the Federated Malay States the seaboard is not very inviting at close quarters, except to the sportsman. Miles 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, to 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 Province Wellesley, the mainland 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 coast districts. The rice-fields and the low scrub jungle in the vicinity are the feeding-ground and resting-place 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 between each little padi-field require the nerve and skill of a Blondin to negotiate them. One tries to keep out of the water, but the inevitable soon happens, and after that one splashes about for the rest of the day. The first feeling is akin to that produced by putting on a wet bathing-suit; but once really wet it does not matter. And then "kik!" up gets a snipe; "bang!" down comes the first bird, and one forgets all about being wet and muddy to the knees. It is hard work getting through the rice-fields when the padi is young, for the ground has been dug up and ploughed, or churned by buffaloes before the young plants are placed out from the nursery. Frequently between field and field a quaking morass has to be crossed. It heaves up and down as one walks over it, and then pop! in goes one foot, and the gunner sinks in sideways to the groin, his other leg being in a position like one of the three in the Manx coat-of-arms. "Kik!" again, but one is in an impossible position to fire. The sun gets up and the snipe desert the padi-field for the shade of the scrub; it is now that the best sport is obtained. The keen sportsman will, if he have the time and opportunity, burn off the scrub-jungle in the dry season just before the rain sets in. Then he has firm ground underfoot, fairly open ground to work over, and the certainty of many a sporting shot as the snipe top the brushwood. Once back

again in the road, there is a dryness of the throat accentuated by the dampness of the body; a long drink, into the buggy with a full snipe stick, and what could a man want more!

With the rapid march of civilisation the shooting does not improve. Twenty guns are out now where there used to be only one. The railway brings down week-end parties to spoil our pet grounds, but we still have a place or two known only to the select few. The sportsman may seem selfish, but the keeping of good things for an intimate friend is highly to be commended.

Messrs. E. W. Birch, C.M.G. (Resident of Perak), and F. J. Weid still hold the record bag for the Federated Malay States, 1903 couple obtained on November 15, 1893, in the Krian padi-fields. The year 1893 was a particularly good one for snipe, and some big bags were made by these two gentlemen and by Sir Frank Swettenham, Mr. Conway Belfield, and the late Mr. G. F. Bird. No fewer than 834 couple fell to Mr. Birch's gun.

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 snipe just at dusk, when the birds alight on the ground. A gleam of silver-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 dinner. *Vale, Snipe!* you are a sporting bird and a toothsome morsel! (N.B.—Grill a snipe's head in brandy; it cannot be beaten.)

And 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 Hoogly,  
If ever you should chance to view a tail just like a  
'Googlie,'  
'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 the snipe-ground to our local Hoogly; past a belt of nipah palm, and we are on the river-bank. As the tide is running out, take a Malay sampan and go with the stream, and have a Malay well versed in the wiles of the crocodile with you. Again I must revile civilisation! 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 on his track is quite sufficient to induce him to 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 his reward. There is a sort of holy joy in shooting a crocodile. His cruel jaws, backed by his fishy green eyes, and flabby web feet, give one at first glance an insight into his character. Again I repeat the advice to take a good Malay with you, for he will see the crocodile long before you will, unless you are well versed in the ways of the beast. He has the wiles of a pickpocket, gliding along unnoticed by any one, and picking up tit-bits here and there. You will see a V-shaped ripple in the stream, which you may mistake for the current breaking against a submerged stick, but it is due to the snout of the crocodile. As you approach, the ripple will cease, and it will be followed by a swirl of the water as the olive-green tail propels the crocodile along. Do not shoot at him in the water; you will not gather him if you do, and you may disturb another of his kin just round the next bend. The tide has now receded, disclosing the oozing mud, the playground of numberless little crabs—black, light blue, and pink, but all alike in one strange deformity, for each has one large and one small claw—the large to slay with, the small to convey food to the mouth. Then there are weird, unholy-looking mudfish playing and feeding on the mud—strange-looking fish, all head and eyes, that can stand on their tails, all fit companions for the loathsome croc! Softly your boatman whispers to you, "There he is," and points out what at first sight looks like a nipah palm frond stuck in the mud. It is a croc right enough, enjoying his mid-day siesta in his mud bath. But he sleeps with one eye open, and with a splutter is waddling fast through the mud, making for the water. Do not fire at his shoulder; take aim at his neck, just behind the base of his skull. Bravo! you've got him! Did you notice how he opened and snapped his jaws? That was a sure sign that he won't move again. Had you hit him in the shoulder he would probably have died, but he would first have given a tremendous swirl with his tail and tobogganned down the mud into the river, with the result that you would not have gathered him.

Every year the crocodiles take their living toll from amongst the river folk. Here is the story of one of their crimes. I quote from a letter written to me in December, 1896, by my old friend, Dr. F. Wellford, who was shot dead in the Boer War: "Shortly after I arrived here this morning (before you were up probably) the Tuan Haji Duaman came with a lot of Malays to tell me that a man had just been

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 rifle. 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 ascer-

tained 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 Sarong Sang. Is it any wonder that I hate crocodiles?

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### 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 Lieutenant Hoseason, 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



THE RACECOURSE, PINANG.



NOTABLE PERFORMERS ON STRAITS SETTLEMENTS AND FEDERATED MALAY STATES RACECOURSES.

VANITAS  
RESIDUE,  
PAWNBROKER.

JIM GOSPER.  
BATTENBERG.

NEREUS.

BANESTER.

a large party from his flagship, the *Agin-court*.

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 Pinang 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

staked 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 it is divided between first, second, and third. For example:

share of pool 900 dollars, dividend 6 dollars. Third horse, 15 tickets; share of pool 900 dollars, dividend 60 dollars.

The records for the Singapore course are as follows:

| Year. | Horse.           | Weight. | Distance.                   | Time. |
|-------|------------------|---------|-----------------------------|-------|
|       |                  | st. lb. |                             | m. s. |
| 1904  | Oberon ... ..    | 10 0    | Round course (1 m. 83 yds.) | 1 52  |
| 1904  | Architect ... .. | 9 7     | Ditto                       | 1 52½ |
| 1898  | Culzean ... ..   | 10 9    | ¾ m.                        | 1 17  |
| 1898  | Locky... ..      | 9 11    | 1¼ m.                       | 2 14½ |
| 1904  | Idler ... ..     | 10 4    | 1½ m.                       | 2 41½ |
| 1897  | Vanitas ... ..   | 11 7    | Round course and a distance | 2 7   |
| 1900  | Residue ... ..   | 9 10    | Singapore Derby (1½ m.)     | 2 42½ |
| 1904  | Essington ... .. | 8 10    | Ditto                       | 2 42½ |

THE TURF CLUB.

The Turf Club in Pinang was founded as long ago as 1867. Mr. David Brown, a well-



E. H. BRATT.  
(Official Handicapper.)

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 1869, and small annual meetings were started. These gatherings were in the nature of gymkhanas, 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 1898 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 5,950 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 26,000 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 prettily situated course, surrounded by a wealth of tropical verdure, presents an attrac-



ON THE RACECOURSE, KUALA LUMPUR.

up from Australia in batches and apportioned by lot among the members of the Sporting Club.

At race time the Singapore course presents a striking contrast in appearance to an English

Total number of tickets taken on seven starters, 600. Value of pool 3,000 dollars—less 300 dollars club's commission = 2,700 dollars. First horse, 90 tickets; share of pool 900 dollars, dividend 10 dollars. Second horse, 150 tickets;



THE GRAND STAND, SINGAPORE.



THE LAWN, PINANG.



THE RACECOURSE, SINGAPORE.



THE GRAND STAND, PINANG.



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 :

| Year. | Horse.             | Weight. | Distance.                                        | Time.              |
|-------|--------------------|---------|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------|
|       |                    | st. lb. |                                                  | m. s.              |
| 1899  | Great Scott ... .. | 9 9     | 1 m.                                             | 1 49               |
| 1900  | Bittern ... ..     | 10 6    | $\frac{3}{4}$ m.                                 | 1 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 1905  | Essington ... ..   | 10 3    | 1 m.                                             | 1 44 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 1898  | Vanitas ... ..     | 11 7    | 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ m.                               | 2 13               |
| 1900  | Reward ... ..      | 8 10    | 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ m.                               | 2 42 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 1898  | Rill ... ..        | 8 8     | { Round course<br>(7 f. 81 $\frac{1}{4}$ yds.) } | 1 39               |

Residue four years previously; indeed, such good form did Essington show that his owners, the Bridge-Kongsee, entered him for the Viceroy's Cup, in India, but he was left at the post. Nasib, trained in Kuata Lumpor, when competing in the Singapore Derby, was considered almost unworthy of notice by the experts, but he was ridden by his owner, Mr. Wm. Dunman, one of the best amateur riders ever seen in the peninsula, and was first past the post after a memorable and exciting contest. It is needless to recall the names of all

which is situated on the right-hand side of the Ampang Road, Kuala Lumpor. It was necessarily of a very primitive description, with atlat 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



P. W. GLEESON  
(Well-known Totalisator Manager.)

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 ginkhanas to the present day of meetings organised under the code of rules now almost universally adopted; from the days when the only racecourse for ordinary racing was that at Taiping, to the present day when the Kuala Lumpor, Batu Gajah, and Negri Sembilan courses have quadrupled the

the horses who enjoyed local fame, but mention may be made of Why Not, Mattie, Jimmy, Cadenas, Reward, Lyon, Malleolus, Lulworth, Banester, Juindo, Benedic, 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

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 Australian stud-book; they are subscribed for, and the subscribers draw lots for them. Mr. Geo. Redfean, son of Mr. James Redfean, 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 sired by



THREE CHINESE SPORTSMEN OF SINGAPORE.

LIM KOON YANG.

LEE PEK HOON.

LEE TOON POON.

opportunities for this, the most popular form of sport.

To take the horse first, the earlier races were run chiefly by Burma 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 $\frac{1}{2}$  sec., equalling the record time of

now stands. The course was made entirely at Government expense, and a grand stand was provided. There was in the title, however, a proviso that only amateurs should be permitted to ride, and the men chiefly interested found, as time went on, that the sport could not be continued profitably with amateur racing only. Sir Wm. Maxwell, who had meanwhile become Governor of Singapore, was asked whether he would allow professional riding, but he returned an emphatic negative, whereupon Mr. Geo. Cumming and two or three other prominent racing men took the matter in hand, and were able to secure the present racecourse,



ARCHIE CAMPBELL.  
(Popular Trainer of Pinang.)

Malvolio, which, with Geo. Redfean 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. Aylesbury, W. H. Tate, H. Ord, Geo. Tate, Wm. Dunman, A. C. Harper, T. W. Raymond, J. W. Welford,



MR. CHUNG THYE PHIN'S DEVILMENT.  
(Winner of Singapore Derby, 1905, &c.)

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 Seremban Gymkhana Club was founded on December 20, 1901. It took the place of the Negri Sembilan Turf Club and consists of about 135 ordinary and visiting members. Dr. Braddon acts as hon. secretary and clerk of the course, and also represents the club on the Straits 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 all 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. Pfenningwerth, H. A. Wootton, and Dr. M. Watson.

The Selangor Club was on January 1, 1896, 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

and F. Douglas Osborne. In later days Capt. Talbot, Dr. Travers, Messrs. W. W. Baitey, 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. Banvard, 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. E. 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 157½ 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—Burma ponies provided most of the racing, and the meetings were primarily social functions. The record times on the Taiping course are:

| Year. | Horse.            | Distance.    | Time.          |
|-------|-------------------|--------------|----------------|
| 1900  | Lucifer * ... ..  | 1 m. 67 yds. | m. s.<br>1 50½ |
| 1897  | Why Not ... ..    | 1 m. 67 yds. | 1 53           |
| 1900  | Silvertone ... .. | ¾ m.         | 1 21           |
| 1898  | Puritan ... ..    | 1 m.         | 1 51½          |
| 1890  | Leichol ... ..    | 1½ m.        | 2 48½          |

\* The Maiden 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.

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:—

| Date.      | Horse.                             | Distance.                   | Time.         |
|------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------|
| Dec., 1904 | Lady Joe and Flora (dead heat) ... | 4 f.                        | m. s.<br>0 55 |
| June, 1904 | Xerxes ... ..                      | 5 f.                        | 1 5½          |
| June, 1906 | Lady Joe ... ..                    | 5 f.                        | 1 5½          |
| June, 1900 | Lyon ... ..                        | 6 f.                        | 1 18½         |
| June, 1904 | Meros ... ..                       | 6 f.                        | 1 18½         |
| July, 1907 | Lady Brockleigh ... ..             | Round course, 1 m. 75½ yds. | 1 49½         |
| July, 1907 | Kington ... ..                     | Round course and distance   | 2 7           |
| June, 1904 | Duchess ... ..                     | 1½ m.                       | 2 13½         |
| Dec., 1904 | Banester ... ..                    | 1½ m.                       | 2 41          |





## 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 a 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 or Cabinet. 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 Dindings, Province Wellesley, the island of Labuan, the Cocos Islands, and Christmas Island—the two last having been acquired in 1886 and 1889 respectively. Pinang was the first British settlement on the Malayan 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 1818. 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 1830, 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 acquirement 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 Malayan archipelago was carried out very much by rule of thumb. The Resident or Governor was 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 importance, however, properly constituted courts of law had to be established, and the laws as applied in India were adopted 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 administer 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 arrack shops and gaming tables. Law and order in the settlement were now maintained by a superintendent of police with less than a dozen native con-

stabulary, 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 cock-fighting 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 banished the country without a trial by his peers, or by due course of law.

Let no man be deprived of his liberty without a cause, and no man detained in confinement beyond forty-eight hours without a right to demand a hearing and trial.

Let the people have a voice through the magistracy by which their sentiments may at all times be freely expressed.

This 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 waged 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 admittedly 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 to-day in Singapore as it was in those early years of the colony's history.

In the Protected Native States there are

Gambling Farms now, as there always have been, the principle underlying these institutions being that the vice may be controlled through a Farm, because it is then necessarily conducted in public, and the farmers (like the opium and spirit farmers, who still exist in the colony) will prevent private gaming in their own interests. It is recognised, too, that the evil cannot be suppressed by an inefficient force of police who are exposed to unlimited corruption.

In consequence of a report received from the Resident complaining of the great inconvenience arising from the want of a resident Judge at Singapore, the Court of Judicature of Pinang, Singapore, and Malacca was established by Letters Patent on November 27, 1826. On March 6th in the following year it was opened by notification of Government, the Resident's Court was closed, and suits for sums above 32 dollars were removed to 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 1828 the first Criminal Sessions were held in Singapore and Malacca. During all these years the administration of the affairs of the colony was vested entirely in the Governor, subject to the Court of Directors of the East India Company; while municipal assessments, &c., were left in the hands of the Court of Magistrates, official and non-official, whose findings were subject to the Governor's approval.

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 three settlements. A Resident Councillor was appointed for each of the three towns, and the Governor visited each in turn to assist in the administration of justice and in any other matters requiring his attention. Meanwhile the Recorder system continued in the Court of Judicature. In 1855 two Recorders were appointed. This arrangement was still in force in 1867, when the government of the Straits Settlements was made over from the Indian Administration to the Colonial Office. The intervening years from 1830 to 1867 show no change in the governmental or judicial systems except such as are incidental to the remarkable growth and development of the colony's trade and population. The civil establishment had, of course, to be increased, and the scope of the judicial courts extended 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, 1867, on which date the Straits Settlements were advanced to the dignity of a Crown Colony, with Colonel 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 below the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel) and the persons discharging the functions of Colonial Secretary, of Resident Councillor in any of the settlements, of Attorney-General, of Treasurer, of Auditor-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 matter 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 circumstances at the earliest opportunity. The Council cannot meet unless summoned by the Governor, who may call a meeting in any settlement in which he may happen to be. A quorum consists of the President and two other members. The Governor is alone empowered to submit questions for consideration, but it is competent for any member to make written 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 its refusal to be recorded in the 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 general community and two members appointed by the Governor on the nomination of the Singapore and Pinang Chambers of Commerce—all seven of whom hold office for three years each. A majority of "official" members is thus always assured. The Council has full power "to establish all such laws, institutions, and ordinances, and to constitute such courts and offices, and to make such provisions and regulations for the proceedings in such courts, and for the administration of justice, and for the raising and expenditure of the public revenue as may be deemed advisable for the peace, order, and good government" of the settlements. 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 then only under certain conditions, to—

1. Any Ordinance for the divorce of persons joined together in holy matrimony.
2. Any Ordinance whereby any grant of land or money, or other donation or gratuity, may be made to himself.
3. Any Ordinance whereby any increase or diminution may 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 banknotes.
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, or the rights and property 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 also subjected or made liable.

II. Any Ordinance containing provisions to which the assent of the Crown has been once refused, or which have been disallowed.

Under the standing orders of the Council Bills are read three times, but in cases of emergency, or when no important amendment is proposed, a measure may be carried through all its stages at one sitting with the approval of 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, together with such Acts 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. Peculiar to the locality are the anti-gambling laws, which are very stringent, as must necessarily be the case where a race so addicted to the vice as the Chinese is concerned; the opium laws, under which the traffic in opium is "farmed out" to the highest bidder for a term of years, thus relieving the Government of the responsibility for preventive measures against smuggling and other incidental abuses; and the Indian and Chinese immigration laws, by which are regulated the immense army of coolies who come to the colony every year *en 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 Court of Requests, Bench Courts (consisting of two 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 Puisne Judges. It sits in civil jurisdiction throughout the year; and, as a small-cause court with jurisdiction up to 500 dollars, it holds a weekly session in Singapore and Pinang. Assizes are conducted every two months in Singapore and Pinang, and every quarter in Malacca, when civil work is also taken. The Supreme Court is also a Vice-Admiralty Court and the final appeal court of the colony.

In the Courts of Requests a magistrate sits as Commissioner in causes for sums not exceeding 100 dollars. Magistrates' Courts hear and determine cases within their jurisdiction in 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 dollars a month, the Resident drawing 1,400 dollars, the Assistant Resident 300 dollars, and the Master Attendant 300 dollars. The present Governor receives £6,000 per annum; the Colonial Secretary £1,700; the Resident Councillors of Pinang and Malacca 9,600 dollars and 7,800 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 was only resumed on January 1, 1906, after having been in the hands of the British North Borneo Company since 1890. Labuan was ceded to Great Britain by the Sultan of Brunei in 1846, and taken possession of in 1848. It is situated off the north-west coast of Borneo, from which it is distant about six miles, and has an area of 30½ 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 then seething with turbulence and anarchy. 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 desiderations; and held out prospects of peace and plenty under British protection in place of strife and irregular revenues. The assistance of British advisers at Perak and Larut was offered and accepted on the understanding that the sovereign powers 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 Sembilan, and in 1888 by Pahang.

Under this *régime* 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. The terms of the treaty stipulated that the native Rulers were "to follow the advice of the Resident-General in all matters of administration other than those touching the Mahomedan religion," and "to give to those States in the Federation which require it such assistance in men, money, or in other respects, as the British Government, through its duly appointed officers, may require." At the same time it was explicitly stated that the "obligations of the Malay Rulers towards the British Residents" would not in any way be affected by this arrangement.

Subject, therefore, to the direction of the Resident-General, who is subordinate to the High Commissioner, the administration of each of the four States proceeds upon nearly the same lines as were formerly followed. The supervision of finance, forests, mines, police, prisons, and railways is vested in the federal officials, but all other matters are dealt with in each State by the State Council, which consists of the Sultan (who presides), the British Resident and his Secretary, the principal native chiefs, and one, or more, of the most influential European or Chinese residents. No measure can become law until it has been passed by the Council of the State to which it applies, but, when it is remembered that the proposed enact-

ments often relate to technical subjects, such as electric lighting and mechanical locomotion, of which the native mind has no previous knowledge, it will readily be understood that the legislative powers of the Council are more apparent than real. Every member is entitled to raise any question with the approval of the president, and, of course, to offer any suggestion for the consideration of the Resident. A privilege highly valued by the native members of the Council is that of travelling free of charge over the railway system.

In the raising of revenue and the expenditure of money the State Council has no voice. A separate account is kept for each State, and federal expenditure and revenue are apportioned on an equitable basis. Each of the States, except Pahang, has a large surplus, which is invested in Indian Rupee Paper, Tanjong Pagar Dock shares, the municipal stock of the neighbouring colony, the Federated Malay States and Johore railway system, and in other sound securities that are from time to time suggested by the High Commissioner, who is the Governor of the Straits Settlements. Fixed allowances, varying in amount in each State, are guaranteed to the Sultans out of the public funds by the British Government. An annual sum is voted for the upkeep of a regiment of Malay States Guards, which, in the event of war breaking out between Great Britain and any other Power, may be requisitioned by the Governor for service in the Straits Settlements.

Each State is divided into districts, varying in size according to their industrial importance and population. These districts are presided over by district officers, who are directly responsible to the British Resident. Each district again is subdivided into Mukims or parishes, which are under the supervision of Malay officials styled Penghulus, who render assistance to the Land Office and act in the capacity of minor magistrates and go-betweens in matters of domestic dispute among natives. The Penghulus are generally relatives of the chiefs of the States in which they act, and they are appointed by the Sultan in Council, subject to the veto of the Resident. In the chief centres of population there are sanitary boards, composed of State officials and a nominated unofficial element.

Originally the Resident was the head of the Judicial, as well as of the Administrative, Department in each State. But when the States were federated in 1896 a Judicial Commissioner was appointed, and that change was accompanied by the admission of practitioners at the Bar, consisting of persons possessing legal qualifications recognised in the United Kingdom, of advocates and solicitors in the Straits Settlements, and of persons who passed the prescribed local examination in law.

Until the Courts Enactment of 1905 came into operation, the Judicial Commissioner tried only capital charges and appeals from the court of the senior magistrate in each State. The senior magistrate, who did not necessarily possess a legal diploma, was supposed to be a quasi-executive officer invested with extensive powers to review the actions and decisions of other magistrates. The office has now been abolished, and two additional Commissioners have been appointed, the Judicial Commissioner of former days being now styled the Chief Judicial Commissioner. He and one other Judicial Commissioner reside at Kuala Lumpur, and hold frequent assizes in the Negri

Sambilan and Pahang. The third Judicial Commissioner resides at Ipoh, in Perak.

The court of a Judicial Commissioner exercises full jurisdiction in all civil and criminal matters, divorce only excepted, and hears appeals from the lower courts. In hearing appeals from the native courts a Judicial Commissioner is required to summon to sit with him "one or more of the principal Mahomedans of the State to aid him with advice." Attached to the court of a Judicial Commissioner there is a Registrar, and, in some cases, a Deputy Registrar, who discharges duties ordinarily performed in England by a Master in Chambers, a Registrar of the Supreme Court, or a Clerk of a Criminal Court.

In all cases where the punishment of death is authorised by law the accused is tried with the aid of two assessors, selected from the most prominent members of the heterogeneous community. In the event of both assessors taking a different view from the judge, a new trial is ordered. Until the end of the last century the jury system was in vogue, but it was then discontinued owing to the difficulty of securing men to serve whose intelligence and integrity could be relied upon to do justice between the prisoner and the State.

The Supreme Court of Appeal consists of two or more Judicial Commissioners. Death sentences, even when confirmed by this court, are reviewed by the Council of the State in which the capital charge was originally preferred. In a civil action involving a sum of not less than £500, a final appeal may be made to his Britannic Majesty in Council.

In all the principal centres in the States there are magisterial courts, and these are of two grades. A first-class magistrate is empowered to try cases the maximum penalty for which does not exceed three years' imprisonment. Until the end of 1905 he could try cases the penalty for which did not exceed seven years' imprisonment. His maximum power of punishment, however, has been throughout limited to a sentence of one year's imprisonment or a fine not exceeding 500 dollars. Cases beyond his jurisdiction, or for which he deems his power of punishment inadequate, are committed to the Supreme Court. A first-class magistrate may hear and determine civil suits when the value in dispute does not exceed 500 dollars. A second-class magistrate is empowered to impose a sentence of three months' imprisonment or a fine not exceeding 250 dollars, which sum is also the limit of his civil jurisdiction.

There are two native tribunals, called respectively the Court of a Kathi and the Court of a Penghulu. The first is an ecclesiastical court for the trial of minor Mahomedan causes. The second deals with petty offences or disputes. Each can inflict a fine up to 10 dollars.

The Bench of the Supreme Court of the Federated Malay States is becoming practically identified with that of the Straits Settlements, for arrangements are now being made under which the Puisne Judges of the settlements and the Judicial Commissioners of the Federated States will be interchangeable.

The general law of the States is codified in a large number of enactments. The Criminal Procedure Code is adapted from that of the Straits Settlements, while the Civil Procedure Code closely follows that of India, which was formerly accepted as law, so far as it was applicable, in most parts of the Federated Malay States.



## RAILWAYS



**I**N no direction has the beneficent 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 Sungei 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

to be allowed to undertake it, Mr. Chamberlain, who was then Secretary of State for the Colonies, gave his sanction on the ground

that, if the value of a great work could be satisfactorily demonstrated, the sooner it was taken in hand the better.



IPOH STATION.



ENGGOR BRIDGE.

Until a quarter of a century ago railways were unknown in the jungle-clad peninsula, but within the next year or so a line will traverse the whole of the east coast States from Prye 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 Malay Peninsula affords an instance of remarkable progress in

Malay States Railway became one concern, establishing through communication between Pinang and Seremban. The first through passenger train from Perak was that conveying H.H. the Sultan of Perak and suite from Kuala Kangsa to Kuala Lumpor on July 17th of that year to attend the Conference of Chiefs of the Federated Malay States. The regular service

added, bringing the total up to 31,060,657 dollars, apportioned roughly as under :

|                       | \$         |
|-----------------------|------------|
| Perak ... ..          | 19,000,000 |
| Selangor ... ..       | 10,000,000 |
| Negri Sembilan ... .. | 2,000,000  |

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 91,365 dollars. The total revenue amounted to 3,685,834 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 Seremban 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 Lumpor and Pinang, calling at the principal stations. The distance, about 242 miles, was covered in 11 hours 2 minutes, the longest stops being at Ipoh, 10 minutes, and Taiping, 8 minutes. Another service started towards the close of 1905 was from Kuala Lumpor 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 Prye (on the mainland opposite Pinang) of 351 miles. In addition to the 429 miles of main and 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 :

|                                      | M. Ch. |
|--------------------------------------|--------|
| Main Line, Prye to Gemas Station ... | 351 13 |
| Branch lines (77 miles 54 chains)    |        |
| Taiping to Port Weld ... ..          | 7 17   |
| Tapah Road to Teluk Anson ... ..     | 17 05  |
| Batu Junction to Batu Caves ... ..   | 5 21   |
| Kuala Lumpor to Port Swettenham ...  | 27 01  |
| Tampin to Malacca ... ..             | 21 10  |
| Total ... ..                         | 428 67 |



THE YARD, KUALA LUMPOR.

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 Lumpor 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 that system has been maintained in all subsequent railway construction in the Malay States ; but the weight of the rails, originally 46½ lbs. 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 300, 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 Malay 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

commenced a month later. At that date there were 339 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



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

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 4,774,124 dollars. To this sum passengers, goods, &c., contributed

Tapah town, introduced at the beginning of that month; while a sum of 57,140 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 proportion of working expenses to receipts was 65.55 per cent., as against 57.80 per cent. Train mileage totalled 1,851,516 miles, an increase of 307,890; goods carried amounted to 589,580 tons, an increase of 75,354; passengers numbered 6,171,596, an increase of 657,147; and live stock 98,973, 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 11,965 tons. The following list is interesting as showing the principal items of goods traffic forwarded during 1905 and 1906 respectively:



SEREMBAN STATION.

|                       | 1905.     | 1906.     |
|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|
| Rice (bags) ...       | 1,193,710 | 1,215,494 |
| Tin (slabs) ...       | 294,024   | 286,152   |
| Tin ore (bags) ...    | 1,332,991 | 1,213,093 |
| Opium (chests) ...    | 4,346     | 4,800     |
| Coffee (bags) ...     | 25,538    | 23,050    |
| Kerosene (tins) ...   | 598,749   | 653,900   |
| Poultry (baskets) ... | 33,884    | 44,035    |
| Pigs ...              | 68,182    | 78,065    |
| Firewood (trucks) ... | 19,148    | 19,742    |
| Timber (trucks) ...   | 5,724     | 5,383     |

respect of all works executed and lines constructed being as follows:

|                                      | \$                     |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------|
| Pinang (including steam ferries) ... | 578,200.15             |
| Province Wellesley ...               | 2,247,235.69           |
| Perak ...                            | 17,075,108.51          |
| Selangor ...                         | 12,032,856.71          |
| Negri Sembilan ...                   | 7,621,892.76           |
| Malacca Territory ...                | 1,719,712.03           |
|                                      | <u>\$41,275,005.85</u> |

4,564,099 dollars, an increase of 715,438 dollars over the figures for 1905. The net weekly earnings per train mile were 85 cents, as against 1.07 dollars, the decrease of 22 cents being due principally to charging to revenue the cost of re-laying part of the line with heavier rails during this year. Between September and December of 1906, 25,554 dollars was paid into the treasury to the credit of general reimbursements, Federated Malay States Government, instead of to the railway

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 329,722, 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 13.99 cents compared with 12.51 cents in 1905, the cost per train-mile being 15.67 cents compared with 14.25 cents. The increase in the cost of fuel per engine and train-mile is attributed to the decrease 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 33,804, the cost per mile being 1.08 dollar, as against 92 cents.

Six new stations were opened to traffic during the twelve months, thus raising the total to 93. There were also seven flag stations, making 100 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 83 additional miles of postal telegraph wires were erected on railway poles, making a total of 745 miles.

Seven 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

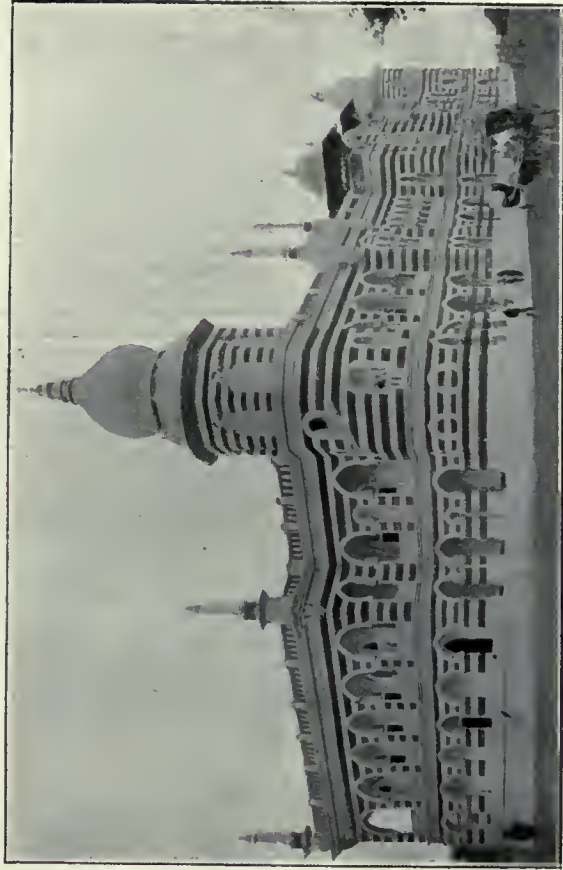


KUALA KUBU STATION.

The net profit for the year's working was 1,572,337 dollars, being 3.81 per cent. on the capital, as compared with 4.46 per cent. in 1905. The net profits earned since 1885 amounted to 15,064,024 dollars, or 36.1 per cent. of the total outlay on railways in the

revenue, which had hitherto been the practice. A sum of 960 dollars was received from the automobile service, being the collection for December for the conveyance of 223 first-class and 2,545 third-class passengers on a single-bus service between Tapah Road station and





NEW OFFICES, PINANG.

FEDERATED MALAY STATES RAILWAYS.

ERECTING SHOP, CENTRAL WORKS, KUALA LUMPUR.

HEAD OFFICES, KUALA LUMPUR.



MARBLE HILL, IPOH.

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-



NEW TYPE COACHING STOCK.

paired, but it would not pay at present to build new locomotives.

The total expenditure during the year 1906 on construction and surveys of new lines in the Federated Malay States, Johore, and Malacca amounted to 3,924,728.39 dollars, compared with 3,629,914.60 dollars, and was made up as follows:

|                                                                                 | \$                    |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Negri Sembilan Extension ...                                                    | 490,266.79            |
| Malacca Branch ... ..                                                           | 116,942.81            |
| Johore State Railway ... ..                                                     | 3,221,761.51          |
| Gemas-Kuala Semantan Permanent Survey ... ..                                    | 60,494.53             |
| Kuala Semantan to Kuala Lipis (stopping at Kuala Tembeling) Trial Survey ... .. | 6,665.13              |
| Ditto <i>via</i> Bentong ... ..                                                 | 11,047.55             |
| Kuala Semantan to Kuantan ...                                                   | 11,183.78             |
| Light Railway Permanent Survey, Tronoh to Ipoh ... ..                           | 4,796.74              |
| Light Railway Teinoh to Chenderiang ... ..                                      | 1,569.55              |
| <b>Total ...</b>                                                                | <b>\$3,924,728.39</b> |

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 pas-

senger coach was introduced, running on 2 feet 9 $\frac{3}{8}$  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 $\frac{3}{8}$  inches wide over mouldings, and the height from the rail level to the top of the roof is 11 feet 7 $\frac{3}{8}$  inches. These coaches weigh



KUALA LUMPUR STATION.

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 120½ 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, situate on the island of Singapore. The two railways will be connected by a wagon or train 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 12,460,881 dollars. Up to the end of 1906, 4,286,429 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 110½ miles of jungle, the construction of 3,778,180 cubic yards of earthwork, or well over one-third of the total quantity; and the completion of 13 bridges and 131 culverts. There were also 13 bridges and 55 culverts in progress. The permanent way was linked in for 25½ miles—viz., 10 at Gemas end and 15½ at Johore Bahru—not counting the length



TAIPING STATION.



OLD STYLE ENGINE AND PRESENT-DAY LOCOMOTIVE.

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 75½ tons. Mr.

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.



MAIL TRAIN.



MOTOR BUS.

C. E. Spooner, the General Manager, had a great deal of opposition to overcome before he prevailed upon the authorities to replace the old 46½-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,

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 24½ miles in length, connects Port Dickson, in Negri Sembilan, 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 TAIPING-PADANG RENGAS.

3. BIDOR BRIDGE, NEAR TELUK ANSON.

4. A TROLLEY.

5. BUKIT PONDU, NEAR PADANG RENGAS.

6. A TUNNEL.



1. PORT DICKSON STATION.

SUNGEI UJONG RAILWAY.

2. THE PIER, PORT DICKSON.

(See p. 181.)

3. JAMES McCLYMONT (Manager).

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 1889, 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



TANK ROAD STATION, SINGAPORE.



RAILWAY BRIDGE OVER SINGAPORE RIVER.

the Crown Agents, and Chinese labour was principally employed. The metre gauge (3 feet 3 $\frac{3}{8}$  inches) was adopted. A notable feature of the line is that in the comparatively short distance of 10 $\frac{3}{4}$  miles there are no fewer than fifty-five gate-crossings, including twenty-three public level-crossings, where gatemen have to be maintainep.

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 inducing 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 426,044 in 1903 to 525,553 in 1905. The heaviest traffic is always on Sunday; for on that day the proprietors of the gambling farms of Johore pay the return fares of all who come from Singapore 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 1,883 dollars in 1903 (eight months only) to 6,266 dollars in 1904, and to 8,940 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 passenger 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 1,967,495 dollars, or about £231,470—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 railway through Johore is completed, as it will be shortly, it will be of great advantage to the colony to have the town of Singapore connected by rail with all the Federated States.



RAILWAY STATION, SINGAPORE.



## BOTANY

By H. N. RIDLEY, M.A., F.R.S., F.L.S., F.R.H.S., ETC., DIRECTOR OF THE BOTANICAL GARDENS, SINGAPORE.



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 (*Dipterocarpeæ*), oaks, and chestnuts (*Quercus* and *Castanopsis*), figs (*Ficus*), *Euphorbiacææ*, *Eugenias*, and trees of all natural orders are mixed with seedlings springing up towards the light, with shrubby *Urophyllums*, *Lascanthus*, *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 *Gingers* (*Scitamineæ*), with their scarlet, yellow, or white flowers almost embedded in the ground, ferns, and *Selaginellas*, 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 *Æschynanthi*, *rhododendrons*, red or white, *vacciniums*, and many other charming plants form a veritable garden on the upper boughs.

Conspicuous among the trees are the *Dipterocarpeæ*—vast trees with a straight stem, ending in a dense crowd 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 (*Dryobalanops 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

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 *Dichopsis gutta*, one of the *Sapotacææ*, 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



GUTTA-PERCHA TREE.

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.

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

1845, submarine telegraphy would have been impossible.

Indiarubber in a wild state is not wanting from the peninsula. The well-known *Ficus elastica*, called here Rambong, occurs in Perak, and we have several rubber vines (*Wittughbeia*

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

attains 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 Malacca," 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 sealing-wax palm (*Cyrtoslachys lacca*), which grows in damp woods by rivers. This charming plant is most attractive from its brilliant red sheath and mid-rib of the leaves. Many fine clumps of it are to be seen in the Botanic Gardens.

Though 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 Kedah 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 (*Grammatophyllum 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 *Calogync asperata* and *C. Cumingi* and the



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.

Palms 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 triphylla*, *Pinanga acaulis*, &c.) only a few inches above the ground, to the great *Caryotas* and *Pholidocarpus*, 40 to 60 feet in height. Especially abundant are the climbing palms or rattans (*Calamus*, *Korthalsia*), armed with innumerable sharp spines, and climbing by the aid of long slender whips furnished with strong sharp hooks. The rattans are much sought for

frequently to be seen *Pandans* (*Pandanus*), often popularly known as Screw pines, the stiff, long, grassy leaves of which are used for the roofs of houses, covers to carts, hats, cigarette-cases, baskets, and many other purposes. The strange Nipa palm, with its great creeping rhizome and huge erect leaves, is abundant along the tidal rivers, and is a very conspicuous feature of them. The leaves are used for thatching, and a portion of the young leaves is much in request for cigarette-papers. The albumen of the seed is eaten, also, like that of the coconut. The Sago palms (*Sagus rumphii* and *Sagus laevis*), though not natives of the peninsula, are abundantly cultivated, and the flour is prepared for the market by Chinese. The Sugar palm (*Arenga saccharifera*) is another prominent and very useful palm. It



CURIOUS BURNT STUMP ON TRONG ESTATE, TAIPING.

green and black *C. pandurata*; the Scorpion orchid *Renanthera moschifera*, with its strange green, brown, and white flowers scented strongly of musk; the white, pink, and red *Renantheras*; the *Nanda Hookeriana*, scrambling over bushes in hot open swamps; the





SINGAPORE BOTANICAL GARDENS.

THE LAKE, A VIEW IN THE GARDENS, "*C. ELOGYNE PANDURATA*," *VICTORIA REGINAS*, AND LAKE FLOWERS.



CLOVE, PINEAPPLE, GAMBIER, COFFEE, AND PEPPER PLANTATIONS.



TRAVELLERS' PALM.

beautiful bamboo orchid, *Arunderia speciosa*, in the mountain streams; *Cypripedium barbatum*, on rocks at an elevation of 3,000 feet; the exquisite little foliage orchids, with their purple leaves netted with gold (*Anæctochilus*), hiding in the gloom of the primæval 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 imperialis*, a shrub,

or tree, with thick, leathery, white, trumpet-shaped flowers as large as a hat. A fine specimen of this striking plant is in the Botanic Gardens at Singapore.

Very characteristic of the Malay region are the Gesneraceæ. Every mountain range seems to possess its own species of *Didymocarpus*, *Didissandra* or *Cyntandra*. These beautiful plants, with their trumpet-shaped flowers of every colour—blue, crimson, red, yellow, white, or purple—are, often very abundant on the banks of the hill forests, and are very attractive, while the scarlet-flowered *Æschynanthes* hang epiphytes from the trees, and *Agalmia* wreathes itself round the trunks with its great tufts of brilliant red flowers.

The forests are very rich in bizarre forms of plants, adapted for the peculiar circumstances of the deep, dark, wet forests with which the whole peninsula is covered. Besides the strange *Rafflesia* already mentioned, we have such curious plants as *Amorphophallus*, *Thisinia*, *Tacca*, the strange black lily *Tupistra*, the minute *Sciaphila*, and many saprophytic orchids and aberrant forms of all orders.

Among the orders poorly represented are the Compositæ and the grasses. This is due to there being no original open country for these plants.

The variation in the floral regions is not so great as in many other countries. Besides the forest flora, which occupies the greater part of the whole peninsula, we have a distinct flora in the Mangroves, a rather peculiar sandhill flora, on a few patches of sandy open country on the East Coast, and a distinct flora in the limestone hills scattered over the peninsula, along the flanks of the main granitic range of hills. This latter flora is closely connected with that of Tenasserim. The forest flora is typically Malayan, and is very closely allied to that of Sumatra, Java, and Borneo, very distinct from the floras of India and Ceylon, and possessing no connection with the Siamese or Cochinchinese flora. This is, to a large extent, due to climate. The complete absence of any regular season and the permanent wetness of the country make this region quite distinct in its flora, both in species and in peculiar forms adapted to the rain forest region of the equator.



A TAIPING CONSERVATORY.



AT THE KUALA KANGSA HORTICULTURAL SHOW, 1907.  
EXHIBITS OF TAPIOCA, VEGETABLES, FRUIT, AND RUBBER.



## AGRICULTURE

BY R. DERRY, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, BOTANICAL GARDENS, SINGAPORE.



HEW, 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 fertilising springs and rills which feed rich rice-

fields, 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 mangosteen and durian nowhere attain to a higher state of perfection than in the Malay Peninsula, but oranges and mangoes, requiring a drier 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 (*Dichopsis gutta*, or *Pataquium oblongifolium*) 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 Malayan plantations enjoy a world-wide reputation. *Castilloa* (*Castilloa elastica*) and Ceara (*Manihot Glaziovii*), however, require a drier 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 laterite formation on the coastal regions, with granite mountain chains intersecting the interior; a rich accumulation of humus; and numerous rivers and streams—little progress 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

while many so-called tropical growths are really sub-tropical. Sugar, tea, quinine, China-grass (*Bodmeria micca*, var. *tenacissima*), from which the so-called commercial ramie is obtained), tobacco and cotton, for instance, are



SINGAPORE FRUIT.

many tropical fruits had been grown—some for exportation—though the yield of rice then, as now, never exceeded local consumption.

Several attempts were made to start an Agricultural Society in Singapore, but they proved abortive. In 1874, however, the present Botanic Gardens became a Government Department on an organised basis. From that time onwards economic plants of any probable tropical value have been collected, cultivated, distributed, and otherwise experimented with in order to ascertain their latent possibilities. In prosecuting research of such a nature as this, it has to be remembered that the Malay Peninsula is essentially a tropical country,

not strictly equatorial products. Apart, therefore, from other considerations, it was important to find out how far such products could be successfully acclimatised. Liberian coffee was introduced. The first batch of Para rubber seedlings and seeds from Brazil, *via* Ceylon, were tended here and eventually became the parent stock of the present great local Para rubber industry. In the same way fruits, oils, fibres, beverages, gums, dyes, drugs, spices, rubbers, fodder-plants, and timber trees received attention, and at the present time some oils and fibres which have long lain dormant under observation are beginning to awaken public interest.

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 £950.

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



A TYPICAL MALAYAN ESTATE.]

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 Sungei 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,

cocoa, and coffee could be grown profitably, were all leased or sold to European planters, excepting the Kuala Kangsa garden.

From Kuala Kangsa garden, fruits, cocoa, pepper, and coffee seedlings were supplied to those natives who desired them. Para seedlings were more extensively planted in the

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, pomeloes (shaddock) 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 rambutan, duku, langsat, pulasan, 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 548,000 cases, valued at 2½ 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



A BUFFALO PLOUGHING A PADDY FIELD.

garden, and some were distributed to the Kamuning estate, Perak, the Linsum estate, Sungei 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 (133½ 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 Kangsa 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



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

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

pandans of the screw pine (*Pandanus atrocarpus* and *P. fascicularis*). Rice, too, is almost exclusively cultivated by Malays.

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 "Joggerly" or "Gula Malacca," a palm

total area would be approximately 150,000 acres. The age at which trees first produce fruits varies according to the conditions under which the trees are planted. On the alluvial lands of Perak it is claimed that some varieties fruit as early as the second year, while in other places on stiff soils from seven to ten years may elapse. But wherever grown (unless too far from the coast) no other cultivated plant responds so

Burma and the Siamese ports, prices varying from 3 to 8 cents a unit. Copra (sun- and kiln-dried) is also prepared for export; but now that oil-mills are established 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 manufactures, the industry promises to be a very sound investment.

#### THE RUBBER INDUSTRY.

After long and careful investigation, 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 1880-1900, 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 favoured sites in 4½ 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 frequently improved. 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 oldest 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 3s. per lb.) 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, chilies, Manila hemp, Murva fibre, bananas, and pineapples are also in demand; while fodder-grasses and a 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. H. N. Ridley, M.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.



JAMBU AYER FRUIT.

juice (*Arenga saccharifera*), is fairly abundant and largely prepared in Malacca.

Although nowhere extensively grown, sago is scattered all over the peninsula and is prepared by Chinese for export. Until recently tapioca was extensively exported, and the rise in price is attracting considerable attention to the industry at the present time.

By far the largest cultivations are represented by coconuts and rubber.

#### COCONUTS.

It is estimated that there is an area of 100,000 acres of coconuts in the native States, of which fully half have reached the bearing age; and, if to this area is added that of the colony, the

readily to the effects of rich soil, manuring, and liberal treatment.

At one time the industry was seriously threatened, and indeed a few plantations were lost, owing to the ravages of the elephant and rhinoceros beetles. To cope with this evil an Ordinance was passed, and inspectors were appointed to visit all estates and gardens and destroy the breeding-places of the beetles; and although the pest is not yet eradicated, it has been so mitigated by continuous destruction that the industry is now in a very flourishing condition and is increasing each year. The value of the coconut plantations may be estimated at not less than 20,000,000 dollars.

In addition to meeting the local demand, a large export trade in coconuts is done with







## RUBBER

By J. B. CARRUTHERS, F.R.S.E., F.L.S.,

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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 Kangsa, 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



A NURSERY.

trees, no planters seriously took up the cultivation, with the exception of Mr. T. Hyslop Hill in Negri Sambitan. 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 1905, 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*.



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-

fect 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 thirty-third 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.

|                                                        | Federated Malay States. | Straits Settlements. | Johore. | Total.     |
|--------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|---------|------------|
| Number of estates ... ..                               | 242                     | 5                    | 7       | 254        |
| Total acreage ... ..                                   | 85,579                  | 11,341               | 2,310   | 99,230     |
| Opened during 1906—acres ... ..                        | 42,154                  | 4,098                | 1,355   | 47,607     |
| Number of trees planted up to December 31, 1906 ... .. | 10,745,002              | 1,987,954            | 147,800 | 12,980,756 |
| Number of trees tapped ... ..                          | 441,488                 | 27,076               | 48,350  | 516,914    |
| Dry rubber extracted—lbs. ... ..                       | 861,732                 | 13,560               | 47,724  | 923,016    |



TAPPING—FULL HERRING-BONE.



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

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

year being those suited to 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 (*Hevea brasiliensis*) 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 State 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 freehold, if the conditions of rent, &c., are



COLLECTING RUBBER SEED AND LATEX.

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  $\frac{1}{2}$  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 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  $1\frac{1}{2}$  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.

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 com-



MAKING BLOCK RUBBER.

pensate for any deficiency in the chemical composition of the soils. There is in no other part of the tropics so equable a rainfall and temperature, the conditions during the whole

duly carried out, the planter proceeds to get rid of the jungle. This he usually does by contract and not by employing daily labour, the native jungle wallahs or Sakais being frequently



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 trees of the jungle are cut with the exception of certain

consumed, while in places smouldering trunks may still be seen. Any pieces which are not quite burnt off can by means of heaping up branches be again burnt so as to leave very little remaining on the ground.

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 comparatively few parasitic root 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 by 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. Plants 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 of 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 of 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 upkept 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 the returns which may be fairly expected repay for the loss of interest during these years. As an interesting and profitable profession for a strong and healthy young Britisher, rubber planting may be confidently recommended. The life is hard, the climate is not healthy, but by no means dangerous; there is no 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 £500 or upwards, and has often opportunities of using his savings to open up either by himself or with others rubber land of his own.



TAPPING—HALF HERRING-BONE.

extremely hard-wooded species, and sometimes of a few of the giants of the forest. The undergrowth is cleared up and piled in heaps near 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 *débris* 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

The big branches and other *débris* 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 first few 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

## 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 confining 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 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



A CREPE AND SHEET EXHIBIT.

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.

£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

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 can 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 *bona 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



AN ESTATE BUNGALOW.

ceased to pay that its shares of 100 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 then 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



PIONEER BUNGALOW IN A NEW CLEARING.

applicant has to satisfy the Director of Agriculture that he is entitled to special terms—that the land has been damaged by previous cultivation, for example—and as much delay would

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-



petuity 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 simplicity 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 felled in the past, chiefly by Chinamen, for the cultivation of tapioca and other exhausting crops, and then has been abandoned, to be promptly reoccupied 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—"chunkling" it is called in Malaya—can eradicate it. Experiments have been made to destroy the lalang by spraying arsenite of soda. The local charge for the material was

certainly cheap and primitive. It is an ordinary bullock-cart, filled with arsenite of soda, with a sheet, half of which is immersed in the liquid, while the other half is trailed over the

so far made; but it has not yet been attempted by any planters on a large scale. They leave lalang land severely alone, as much as they possibly can, and are not yet satisfied that any



A RUBBER PLANTATION WITH TREES WELL DEVELOPED.

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

method is superior in effect to the arduous and expensive "chunkling." Should it be demonstrated that the arsenite of soda method is all that is claimed for it, the authorities may hopefully 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 of 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 1905 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, 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 muds 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."



OLD RUBBER TREES IN MALAYA.

at first prohibitive, but when it had been imported at reasonable rates there remained the need for cheap but efficient spraying "machines," and the cheapest devised is cer-

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



TYPICAL COOLIE LINES AND ESTATE HOSPITAL.

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 50,000 acres, and at the end of 1906 at 99,230 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 1½ 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—crotolaria and other leguminous plants are being tried, on the recommendation of the director and of Mr. Kelway Bamber, 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. Macfadyen: "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 163. 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 80!

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. The

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 *termite*, 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 fasciations occur, without apparent cause, and the practical remedy is to replace the malformed tree with a healthy stump from the nursery. Barren trees are also found, with nothing to explain the phenomenon.

**LABOUR.**

The indigenous Malay will sometimes undertake felling contracts, but will not take employment under the planter as a regular estate labourer. The Kling (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 felled 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 35,000 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 80,000 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 companies registered 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-



CREPE AND SHEET RUBBER MACHINERY.

ments after it had been in operation for some time; and the action of home directors in seeking to delay the passing of the Ordinance referred to was sharply criticised by residents who are in favour of the Ordinance. It is rarely that planting interests fail to show a united front in negotiations with the Govern-

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 in-

growing proofs of the expensive working of estates, whereby estimates of expenditure were being seriously exceeded, the need for greater 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.



OLD RUBBER TREES IN MALAYA.



TAPPING—SPIRAL.

ment, and the present cleavage of opinion is but a passing phase of the situation, and but few years will elapse before most of the younger estates will find their interests are the same as those of the older ones.

Another matter in which there has been some conflict with the Government is the hospital question. Deaths of coolies have been

adequate. 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

### TAPPING AND COAGULATION.

The plantation industry being still in its infancy, many matters affecting the economy of the rubber-tree, its productiveness 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 gouge 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 Imperial 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, 0.21 per cent. ash, 1.87 per cent. resin, and 1.35 per cent. proteids. The lowest percentage of caoutchouc was 92.64 per cent. from an almost white crepe, and in this case the resin was 3.58 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 to-day 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 alkalis—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; alkalis 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 watery 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 thin layer being creosoted in the

Pears' estate in Johore, the celebrated Lanadron 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

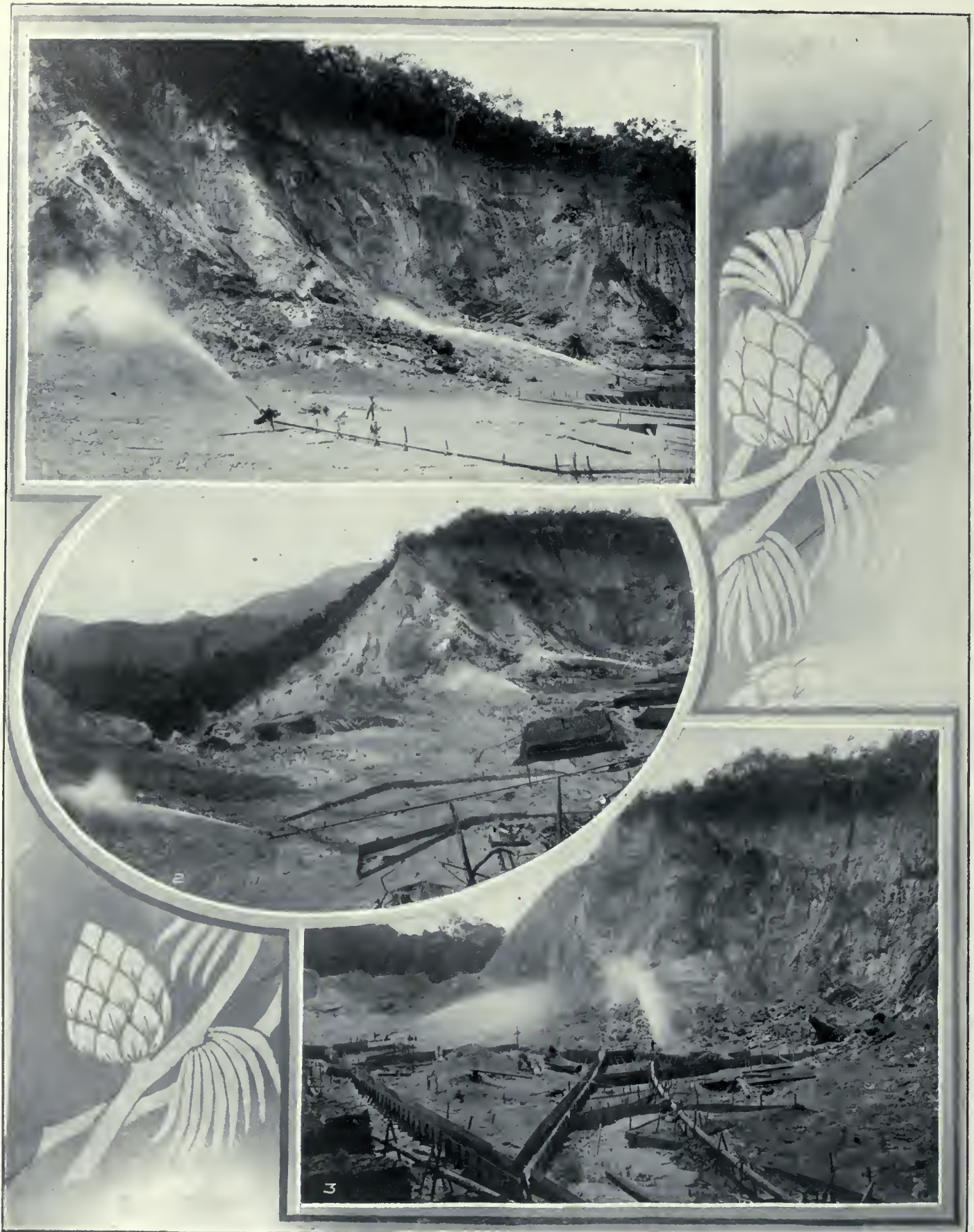


A GIANT RAMBONG TREE.

smoke. The view that plantation rubber is weaker than Brazilian rubber is not universally supported, however, and Messrs. Beadle & Stevens, well-known analytical chemists of London, are keen supporters of the contrary opinion.

Interesting experiments are being made as to the best form in which to supply plantation rubber, which has been produced in many varieties of form since the original biscuit. The Malaya estates have exported much sheet and crepe rubber, and these of a light amber colour continue in great demand. On Messrs.

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.



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, and since that year has declined, the output for 1906 being 816,000 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 overburthen, 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 majority 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 mountains, and on the top of and in the caves of 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 absence of lodes in the country and 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 granites.

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 diviner, and the necessary grants and permissions obtained from the Govern-

ment, a start is made by felling the jungle and burning it off. Attap 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 huge hole is then commenced, the overburthen being carried by coolies, who work on task, 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 are 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 little 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 a 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

waterwheel, 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 kinchar 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

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 1½ 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 single planks laid across for the coolies to walk on



YONG PHIN MINE NEAR TAIPING.

wherever water and clearance for tailings is available by means of lampaning, or ground sluicing. A dam is made and a watercourse cut to the scene of the proposed operations. Then a narrow ditch is cut at a careful grade just below the ground to be treated, and the ground is broken into this ditch, in which the water is kept running, by means of crowbars. One or two men keep stirring the ground as it falls into the ditch, and the water carries away the lighter portions, leaving behind the tin, which is cleaned up every two days or so. When the ground has been broken so far back from the edge of the ditch that it will not easily fall into it, a fresh ditch is cut close up to the face. By this means ground which is very poor in values can be worked profitably.

Thirty years ago no machinery of any kind was used on the mines beyond the Chinese wooden endless chain pump and overshot

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 Etains 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 Kampau, in Perak.

The various systems of working have already been outlined, and an endeavour will now

while stripping the next paddock, so that this work can continue without interfering with the raising of the karang; and in the bottom of each mine a closed drain is carefully constructed by which all the water finds its way to the pump sump.

The karang is washed in a coffin-shaped box fixed at a grade of about 1 in 12, the slope being from the wider end. This end is closed by a baffle-board, about 8 inches deep, over which the water falls, and through one side; about 18 inches below the baffle-board, an aperture is cut, to admit a second stream of water which flows along the edge of a pile of karang and carries it into the box. To assist in this operation, one or two men are constantly engaged raking and mixing the karang with the side stream by means of long-toothed rakes. At the baffle-board stands one man, or more, according to the size of the box, and with a long-handled mattock he pulls the





OPEN CAST TIN MINE AT KAMUNTING.

1. THE COOLIES AT KAMUNTING MINE.

2. WASHING TIN ORE.

karang against the stream of water, constantly stirring it and splashing water on it as it gradually heaps below the baffle-board, so that in time a heap of tin ore accumulates, when the water is shut off and the tin ore lifted out into tubs.

Formerly the wash-boxes were about 30 feet long, tapering from a width of 4 feet 6 inches at the top to 12 or 13 inches at the lower end. Five men were employed in each. This was too costly for small parties of tribute coolies, and consequently when the rush came to Kinta in 1892, a short box of from 12 to 14 feet was used, and with so much success, that a longer box is now seldom seen. In Negri Sembilan the wash-box used was never wider than 2 feet at the top end, and in some of the Siamese States a box is used having the same width throughout.

The endless chain pump consists of a wooden channel about 15 inches deep by 5 wide. In this channel travel a series of flat wooden slats, cleverly linked together, which almost fit the section of the channel. The channel is slightly curved, and the slats, running up continuously, carry the water to the top, where it discharges into a ditch cut for the purpose of carrying it away.

In cases where the overburthen is too deep or the karang too poor to admit of open-cast mining, shafts are sunk. If the ground is too deep, these are roughly timbered and made oblong in section, 6 feet by 3 feet, in two compartments. Rough windlasses are used for hauling, 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 system of working, as though 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 very rich, 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 iron pan is set 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, and the blast comes from a wooden blower, which is a hollow cylinder with a flap valve at either end, with a piston in the centre, which is packed, to make it air-tight, with bunches of cock's feathers. Power is obtained by a man walking backwards and forwards pulling and pushing the piston to and fro. The tin and slag 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 "puddle" it before the tin ore can be separated from the gangue, and in order to do this the karang is deposited 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 coolies, armed with mattocks, 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 puddled on its way to the surface. On the side of the mine are made a series of small stages or terraces, spaced at about 4 feet. On each one of these a coolie is stationed, who scoops up with a small tin dish on a handle the karang from his stage to the next one above. The karang being mixed with water, each scoop assists the disintegration, until on arriving at the surface the karang is puddled ready for the wash-box. There are mines where as many as fifteen lifts are made, but both systems of

puddling are costly and slow, and it was for this work that the Chinaman first adopted European methods. He employed the harrow puddler, which was first introduced by Mr. John Addis, an old-time Australian miner on the now famous Tronon Mine.

With the rise in the value of tin which commenced about 1898, 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 floated to develop tin properties, generally with considerable success.

Modern machinery and labour-saving appliances have been extensively adopted, 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 order to secure this it is sometimes necessary to carry the water for long distances through large iron pipes. The enormous pressure given by the head of water is directed against the sides of the hill containing the pay-dirt, which is washed down in large quantities and then treated in the ordinary way, either in wash-boxes or by a sluice in which riffles are placed to arrest the tin ore.

The Chinese have not been slow to follow the example set them by their Western neighbours; and now no mine is regarded as properly equipped unless rails, trucks, and hauling engines are used to replace the coolie. Puddlers of various kinds are employed to disintegrate the karang on its reaching the surface, and the old-fashioned coffin-shaped wash-box has given way to long sluice-boxes paved with riffles.

Probably this would not have been the case had not the more easily won tin deposits been exhausted, and all expenses greatly increased, so that it became impossible to work profitably under the old systems. That tin is more difficult to win is evidenced by the declining output during the last few years, in spite of increased labour supply and abnormally high price for tin. The day when the Federated Malay States might be regarded as the happy hunting-ground for the small miner seems to have passed, and the future of the tin mining industry in the States will depend upon the economical development on a large scale of low-grade propositions.

Hitherto the tin exported from the States has all come from alluvial deposits, no lode workings of any importance having been opened, with the exception of the mines in Pahang, where work has been carried on for many years, but unsuccessfully. Lately these workings have been reorganised. The lodes are reported to be very rich, and a bright future is anticipated for them under new management. There is also now being developed a promising lode in the Kledang range of hills near Ipoh.

The Government exercises control over the mining industries through the Mines Department, administered at an annual cost of about 153,700 dollars. Revenue to the amount of 40,947.08 dollars was collected in 1906. The Department issues licences to tin-buyers and

smelters, undertakes the survey of boilers and the examination of engine-drivers, and assists prospectors by the loan of boring tools.

The total revenue from all sources relating to mining was as follows:—

|                       | 1905.        | 1905.       |
|-----------------------|--------------|-------------|
|                       | \$           | \$          |
| Perak ... ..          | 5,681,340    | 5,097,216   |
| Selangor ... ..       | 3,582,729    | 3,342,909   |
| Negri Sembilan ... .. | 1,020,080    | 984,246     |
| Pahang ... ..         | 304,666      | 265,130     |
| Total ... ..          | \$10,588,824 | \$9,689,501 |

The revenue was derived from the following sources:—

|                                            | 1906.        | 1905.       |
|--------------------------------------------|--------------|-------------|
|                                            | \$           | \$          |
| Warden's office ... ..                     | 40,946       | 35,095      |
| Premia on leases ... ..                    | 216,279      | 114,230     |
| Rent on leases ... ..                      | 264,280      | 262,332     |
| Individual licences ... ..                 | 11,529       | 10,087      |
| Prospecting licences ... ..                | 4,450        | 4,250       |
| Export duty on tin ore ... ..              | 10,036,796   | 9,249,627   |
| Export duty on wolfram ... ..              | 2,259        | 2,213       |
| Royalty on gold ... ..                     | 11,140       | 9,830       |
| Commuted royalty on gold ... ..            | 902          | 1,609       |
| Ore-buyers and goldsmiths' licences ... .. | 243          | 228         |
| Total ... ..                               | \$10,588,824 | \$9,689,501 |

The total expenditure on the administration of the Mines Department was 1.45 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 1889 the total output was 440,000 piculs, valued at £2,400,000, or an average of £94 per ton. The output rapidly increased during the next three years, but the price remained about the same. In 1893 there began a tremendous fall in price, the increase in the output, however, continuing, with the result that in 1895 the tin and tin ore exported amounted to 820,000 piculs, valued at £3,800,000, or an average of £64 per ton. In 1896 the average price fell to £62 per ton for a slightly lower output, but two years later came a rapid recovery. The year 1900 saw an output of 720,000 piculs, of the value of £5,500,000, or an average of £130 per ton. A drop to an average of £108 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 local prices for 1906 and 1905—viz., 89.60 dollars and 80.77 dollars per picul respectively (exchange at 2s. 4d. per dollar)—were as follows:—

|                       | 1906.   |              | 1905.   |              | Decrease. | Increase.   |
|-----------------------|---------|--------------|---------|--------------|-----------|-------------|
|                       | Piculs. | Value.       | Piculs. | Value.       |           |             |
| Perak ... ..          | 435,909 | \$39,057,446 | 446,781 | \$36,086,512 | 10,872    | \$2,970,934 |
| Selangor ... ..       | 268,624 | 24,068,710   | 289,867 | 23,412,558   | 21,243    | 656,152     |
| Negri Sembilan ... .. | 77,765  | 6,967,745    | 85,133  | 6,876,192    | 7,367     | 91,553      |
| Pahang ... ..         | 34,488  | 3,090,124    | 34,879  | 2,817,166    | 391       | 272,958     |
| Total ... ..          | 816,786 | \$73,184,025 | 856,659 | \$69,192,428 | 39,873    | \$3,991,597 |



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 102.50 dollars and the lowest 80.25 dollars. On the London market the highest price was £215 per ton and the lowest £161 10s., the average price, as quoted by the *Mining Journal*, being £180 12s. 9d. The following table gives the sterling values in each State for 1906:—

| State.                | Block Tin. |       | Tin Ore. |       | Value in Sterling.<br>Local Price. |    |    |
|-----------------------|------------|-------|----------|-------|------------------------------------|----|----|
|                       | Tons.      | Cwts. | Tons.    | Cwts. | £                                  | s. | d. |
| Perak ... ..          | 7,908      | 18.13 | 18,038   | 1.14  | 4,550,702                          | 0  | 8  |
| Selangor ... ..       | 6,962      | 8     | 9,027    | 3.23  | 2,808,016                          | 3  | 4  |
| Negri Sembilan ... .. | 2,826      | 15.54 | 1,802    | 2.65  | 812,903                            | 11 | 8  |
| Pahang ... ..         | 560        | 14.55 | 1,492    | 2.77  | 360,514                            | 9  | 4  |
| Total ... ..          | 18,258     | 16.22 | 30,359   | 9.79  | £8,538,136                         | 5  | 0  |

The figures are obtained by multiplying the number of tons by the local sterling value per ton, £175 12s. 3d., 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 Sembilan, 23,427; Pahang, 10,933. Of this labour force, 163,104 are employed in open-cast mines, 20,369 in underground workings, and 29,187 in lampaning. The total may again be divided into 59,259 who work on the contract system, 27,519 who work for wages, and 125,882 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 8,180 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

labour force at the end of 1906 was, therefore, approximately 278,100.

The total area of land alienated for mining purposes at the close of 1906 was 263,800 acres, namely, 150,376 in Perak, 68,512 in Selangor, 28,476 in Negri Sembilan, and 16,436 in Pahang. A net increase of 6,285 acres over the total for 1905 was shown. It must be remembered that upon only a small portion of the acreage

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 Sembilan 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 Chumor, 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 56,475 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 Sembilan, and 10,089 from Pahang. The gold won in 1905 amounted to 11,453 ounces. The value was roughly 397,028 dollars, or £46,320, in 1906, against 392,672 dollars, or £45,812, 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.





## FISHERIES

**N**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*, *blanah*, *chencharu*, *gelama*, *kurau*, *parang-parang*, *siakap*, *tenggiri*, *yu-laras*, *yu-parang*, *slangin*, *slangat*, *kidera*, *jenahak*, *gurot-gurot*, *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 fishmongers 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 manure 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 *koleh*, which carries a crew of three men. During rough weather, however, this is abandoned in favour of the *jalak*, 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 dalam*, *pukat tangkul*, and *pukat tangkok*. 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. Slakes 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 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 narrowest, and when once the fish get into this, they are unable to get out again.

In Singapore waters nearly 200 fishing-boats and 249 fishing-stakes are registered, and it is computed that 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 8,000 tons, valued together at about 1,800,000 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 5.75 dollars per head.

In the State of Selangor about 1,300 fishermen were engaged in the industry, and the revenue was 7,934 dollars, taxation thus amounting to about 6 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 4,614 dollars. The number of fishermen 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, 490 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 Bernam for the coolies on the gambier and pepper plantations at Sepang.

On the coast of the Negri Sembilan 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 Pahang in 1906 represented in value roughly 60,000 dollars, to which no less than 58,470 dollars was contributed by the Kuantan 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 43 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 Bersuku 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 coasts 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 12½ cents per picul (133½ lbs.) payable on all fish sent out of the country. In Negri Sembilan 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.





# METEOROLOGY

## THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.



HE 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  $1^{\circ} 17' N.$  and

longitude  $103^{\circ} 51' E.$ , 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 as 29.910 inches, while the lowest was 29.802 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  $91.5^{\circ} F.$  was registered, and the lowest minimum in 1884 with  $71.8^{\circ} F.$  In 1906 the rainfall was greater than in any other year of the period under review, excepting 1870, the respective figures being 118.38 inches in 1906 and 123.24 inches in 1870. In the year 1905 the rainfall was 83.40 inches. During the time covered by the annexed table the lowest rainfalls were recorded in 1877 and 1883, the figure for each of these years being 58.37 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, 176; in 1901, 169; in 1902, 150; in 1903, 183; in 1904, 176; in 1905, 157—giving a mean annual return of 175 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 later, so that during the last two months of the year the winds, as a rule, blow from varying directions, usually east, north, and north-north-east. The north-east monsoon ceases in March, and is followed by an interval of a few weeks in which the winds are again shifty and uncertain in direction. The south-west monsoon begins usually in April, 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

—hot, moist, and unhealthy. The average velocity of the wind is greatest at this season, there being comparatively few calms.

From the following list the principal meteorological records for the last 38 years for Singapore will be seen at a glance.

1906 was 102.21 inches. The wettest month was November, when there was a rainfall of 13.74 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 5.70 inches fell.

ABSTRACT OF METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS TAKEN AT SINGAPORE.

|      | Annual Mean Barometrical Pressure Reduced to $32^{\circ} F.$ | Annual Mean Temperature of Air. |          | Annual Mean Temperature of Radiation. |           | Total Mean Rainfall. |
|------|--------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------|---------------------------------------|-----------|----------------------|
|      |                                                              | Maximum.                        | Minimum. | In the Sun.                           | On Grass. |                      |
| 1869 | 29.846                                                       | 86.6                            | 74.6     | 149.2                                 | 70.7      | Inches. 90.63        |
| 1870 | 29.802                                                       | 85.9                            | 73.5     | 149.1                                 | 70.9      | 123.24               |
| 1871 | 29.836                                                       | 85.9                            | 73.2     | 147.5                                 | 71.3      | 109.45               |
| 1872 | 29.824                                                       | 86.5                            | 73.4     | 144.0                                 | 71.0      | 75.30                |
| 1873 | 29.829                                                       | 86.6                            | 74.0     | 145.3                                 | 71.9      | 85.60                |
| 1874 | 29.879                                                       | 86.3                            | 72.7     | 150.6                                 | 70.2      | 87.05                |
| 1875 | 29.884                                                       | 86.0                            | 72.5     | 147.0                                 | 70.1      | 93.96                |
| 1876 | 29.885                                                       | 86.6                            | 73.3     | 148.8                                 | 70.2      | 89.91                |
| 1877 | 29.903                                                       | 87.9                            | 73.7     | 151.7                                 | 70.0      | 58.37                |
| 1878 | 29.864                                                       | 87.4                            | 74.9     | 148.4                                 | 72.5      | 103.16               |
| 1879 | 29.857                                                       | 86.1                            | 73.6     | 147.0                                 | 70.7      | 116.14               |
| 1880 | 29.863                                                       | 87.1                            | 73.5     | 148.6                                 | 70.9      | 111.58               |
| 1881 | 29.874                                                       | 88.0                            | 73.3     | 150.9                                 | 70.8      | 94.00                |
| 1882 | 29.863                                                       | 87.6                            | 72.9     | 149.6                                 | 69.7      | 88.16                |
| 1883 | 29.878                                                       | 86.6                            | 72.2     | 146.9                                 | 69.3      | 58.37                |
| 1884 | 29.890                                                       | 86.3                            | 71.8     | 146.1                                 | 69.5      | 80.13                |
| 1885 | 29.889                                                       | 87.2                            | 72.3     | 148.7                                 | 69.1      | 67.32                |
| 1886 | 29.869                                                       | 87.0                            | 72.5     | 147.0                                 | 71.0      | 95.19                |
| 1887 | 29.867                                                       | 85.9                            | 72.7     | 144.7                                 | 70.4      | 112.97               |
| 1888 | 29.892                                                       | 87.7                            | 73.2     | 147.7                                 | 71.2      | 65.56                |
| 1889 | 29.891                                                       | 87.6                            | 74.2     | 144.4                                 | 71.8      | 84.13                |
| 1890 | 29.887                                                       | 86.1                            | 72.9     | 145.5                                 | 70.3      | 117.78               |
| 1891 | 29.878                                                       | 87.2                            | 73.2     | 147.1                                 | 71.1      | 88.48                |
| 1892 | 29.836                                                       | 86.8                            | 73.5     | 147.3                                 | 70.6      | 99.70                |
| 1893 | 29.830                                                       | 86.8                            | 72.3     | 145.2                                 | 68.1      | 111.41               |
| 1894 | 29.837                                                       | 86.7                            | 73.3     | 148.5                                 | 70.8      | 81.24                |
| 1895 | 29.857                                                       | 86.5                            | 73.6     | 146.5                                 | 71.1      | 98.14                |
| 1896 | 29.877                                                       | 86.9                            | 74.0     | 145.6                                 | 70.0      | 74.07                |
| 1897 | 29.890                                                       | 87.2                            | 74.9     | 145.2                                 | 69.8      | 101.58               |
| 1898 | 29.876                                                       | 86.8                            | 74.1     | 142.3                                 | 71.2      | 166.19               |
| 1899 | 29.893                                                       | 86.9                            | 73.9     | 144.3                                 | 71.1      | 108.60               |
| 1900 | 29.886                                                       | 88.0                            | 74.8     | 145.5                                 | 72.6      | 90.98                |
| 1901 | 29.890                                                       | 87.3                            | 73.4     | 139.2                                 | 71.4      | 83.56                |
| 1902 | 29.891                                                       | 87.1                            | 72.4     | 139.3                                 | 70.7      | 82.28                |
| 1903 | 29.826                                                       | 91.5                            | 73.7     | 143.0                                 | 72.6      | 103.95               |
| 1904 | 29.890                                                       | 86.7                            | 72.8     | 139.7                                 | 70.5      | 101.54               |
| 1905 | 29.910                                                       | 89.1                            | 74.3     | 140.6                                 | 71.4      | 83.40                |
| 1906 | 29.897                                                       | 88.1                            | 74.7     | 140.9                                 | 72.7      | 118.38               |

In Pinang, which is situated in lat.  $5^{\circ} 24' N.$  and long.  $100^{\circ} 20' E.$ , the total rainfall during

Over the whole year the barometrical readings, corrected and reduced to  $32^{\circ} F.$ ahrenheit, showed

a mean of 29.908°. The mean air-temperature was 80.3°, with a maximum of 88.9° and a minimum of 74.4°; the temperature of radiation was 148.0° in the sun and 71.0° 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° 14' E.) the rainfall was 80.57 inches; barometrical readings showed a mean of 29.834°; 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 81.0°, with a maximum of 91.9° and a minimum of 74.0°; and the temperature of radiation was 143.3° 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 3½ 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 3.2° 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

**MEAN READINGS OF THERMOMETER.**

| Place.                 | Period.   | Max. °. | Min. °. |
|------------------------|-----------|---------|---------|
| <b>PERAK.</b>          |           |         |         |
| Taiping ...            | 1896-1905 | 89.22   | 73.59   |
| Kuala Kangsa ...       | "         | 89.22   | 72.81   |
| Batu Gajah ...         | "         | 89.63   | 73.16   |
| Gopeng ...             | "         | 89.28   | 69.27   |
| Ipoh ...               | "         | 89.46   | 73.09   |
| Teluk Anson ...        | "         | 88.70   | 71.85   |
| Tapah ...              | "         | 89.00   | 71.31   |
| Parit Buntar ...       | "         | 88.83   | 73.42   |
| Kampar ...             | 1898-1904 | 88.92   | 71.01   |
| <b>SELANGOR.</b>       |           |         |         |
| Ulu Selangor ...       | 1901-1905 | 91.0    | 71.5    |
| Kuala Selangor ...     | "         | 86.7    | 75.4    |
| Ulu Langat ...         | "         | 88.3    | 74.1    |
| Kuala Langat ...       | "         | 86.2    | 72.2    |
| Kuala Lumpur ...       | 1896-1905 | 90.0    | 71.1    |
| Klang ...              | 1901-1905 | 86.2    | 73.6    |
| <b>NEGRI SAMBILAN.</b> |           |         |         |
| Seremban ...           | 1897-1905 | 89.1    | 68.7    |
| <b>PAHANG.</b>         |           |         |         |
| Kuala Lipis ...        | 1901-1905 | 94.0    | 69.5    |

may be reached even at high altitudes. On Gunong Ulu Liang, at a height of 6,335 feet, 93° were registered.

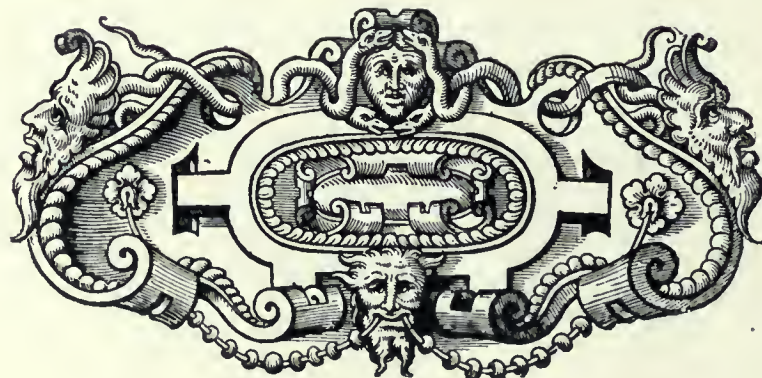
The subjoined tables give the average rainfall and the readings of the thermometer, so far as they are ascertainable, in each of the four States for several years.

**AVERAGE RAINFALL.**

| Place.                       | Period.   | Mean Totals. |
|------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| <b>PERAK.</b>                |           |              |
| Taiping ...                  | 1894-1903 | 163.53       |
| Kuala Kangsa ...             | "         | 75.50        |
| Batu Gajah ...               | "         | 98.25        |
| Gopeng ...                   | "         | 110.29       |
| Ipoh ...                     | "         | 101.28       |
| Teluk Anson ...              | "         | 103.01       |
| Tapah ...                    | "         | 140.81       |
| Parit Buntar ...             | "         | 84.98        |
| Selama ...                   | "         | 132.75       |
| <b>SELANGOR.<sup>1</sup></b> |           |              |
| Ulu Selangor ...             | "         | 120.40       |
| Kuala Selangor ...           | "         | 76.76        |
| Ulu Langat ...               | "         | 89.31        |
| Kuala Langat ...             | "         | 81.04        |
| Kuala Lumpur ...             | "         | 102.02       |
| Klang ...                    | "         | 89.53        |
| <b>NEGRI SAMBILAN.</b>       |           |              |
| Seremban ...                 | 1896-1903 | 88.02        |
| Jebebu ...                   | 1896-1900 | 70.22        |
| Kuala Pilah ...              | "         | 71.12        |
| Tampin ...                   | 1898-1900 | 81.81        |
| <b>PAHANG.<sup>2</sup></b>   |           |              |
| Kuala Lipis ...              | 1898-1903 | 97.19        |
| Temerloh ...                 | 1898-1902 | 77.19        |
| Pekan ...                    | "         | 97.83        |
| Kuantan ...                  | "         | 104.97       |
| Raub ...                     | "         | 83.59        |

<sup>1</sup> Above shows average for nine years, no record for 1900 being found.

<sup>2</sup> In each case above no records were found for 1900.







# GEOLOGY OF THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES

By M. J. B. SCRIVENOR,

GOVERNMENT GEOLOGIST, FEDERATED MALAY STATES.



**A** GEOLOGICAL survey of the mining districts of the Federated Malay States was commenced by the writer towards the close of 1903. As he was without any colleagues in this work, it will readily be under-

stood that ideas concerning the general structure of so large and so densely wooded a country must as yet be somewhat vague, and therefore it is necessary to remark at the outset 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's immediate aim is the Economic Geology of the Federated Malay States, and a large proportion of his three years' service has been expended in studying the gold-mining districts. Unfortunately this industry has given very poor returns, 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 Semangol 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 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 Timor 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, Lias, and Dogger of West Borneo. Again, the Raub and Tembeling Series may be respectively referred to the *Productus* beds of the Saed Range and the Upper Gondwana in India.

A further series of rocks, comprising chert and carbonaceous shale, both with radiolaria, and light-coloured siliceous shale, in which no radiolaria have been found as yet, has been 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 conglomerate 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 Fed-

erated Malay States. Later denudation demolished superincumbent 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 Manchis) 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 under the soil, and is to a certain extent distributed by soil-creep. At Bruseh, in Perak, quartz reefs projecting into the soil have acted as natural ripples against tin ore coming slowly down a hill slope. At Tanjong Serai, 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 granitic rock. Prospecting has been carried on with a suction dredge. At Sungei Siput, Kuala Dipang, 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 Dangsang and Changkat Pari, while at Siak a *Stockwerk* 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.



**L** "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 prahus from China, Siam, 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.

vessels lying in the harbour that the horizon could not be seen for their hulls. Now the huge steamers which visit the port seldom stay more than a day or so.

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 1,500 acres of water. Within this area is usually congregated as heterogeneous 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, unwieldy but very picturesque when they have full sail set; in one part 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 Pulo Batam and Pulo 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 Beranti, it is only  $2\frac{1}{2}$  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 interminable 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 lighthouses. Even now the large numbers of surrounding islands, the sunken reefs, and the variations of the tide necessitate very careful navigation, which is



ENTRANCE TO NEW HARBOUR, SINGAPORE.

East that first attracted the attention of Sir Stamford Raffles when he was looking for a station to counteract the influence of the Dutch in the Malay Archipelago, and that has since led to the great prosperity and importance of the settlement. Within twenty years of the

In former days, before the increased steamer traffic to the East consequent upon the opening of the Suez Canal, Singapore Harbour presented an even more imposing appearance than it does to-day. The sailing vessels used to remain for several weeks, discharging and loading in the roads, and there were so many



OFF COLLYER QUAY, SINGAPORE.

JOHNSTON'S PIER, SINGAPORE.

MOUTH OF THE SINGAPORE RIVER.

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-



MALAY VILLAGE AT PULO BRANI, SINGAPORE.

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 1905 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 450 feet in length, with a width at its entrance of 65 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 30,752 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



[2526]

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 £56,000 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.

1 & 4. SLIPWAY, TANJONG RHOO. 2. ALBERT DOCK FROM SIGNAL STATION. 3 & 5. ALBERT GRAVING DOCK (entrance). 6. EAST WHARF, SHOWING GODOWN FACILITIES.



THE TANJONG PAGAR DOCKS.

1 & 2. THE WHARVES. 3. THE GODOWNS. 4. KEPPEL HARBOUR FROM BUKIT CHERMIN. 5. FIRE FLOAT "VARUNA." 6. BRITISH INDIA STEAMER "TEESTA" DRY DOCKED.

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 53,000 dollars. 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-float has been constructed by the Board. It is fitted with a Merryweather pump, with complete fire and salvage connections, capable of discharging 1,800 gallons of water a minute.

It is of interest to note here that during 1878 there were 541 steamers and 91 sailing vessels at the wharf, their respective tonnage being 639,081 and 72,625 tons. The cargoes landed at the wharf during the same year were: Coals, 85,477 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-shops 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 1899, 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 Rhoo. 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 12,000,000 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 20, 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 230 dollars. After the announcement of the Government's intentions, however, the shares



TANJONG PAGAR ARBITRATION GROUP.

LORD ST. ALDWYN (SIR MICHAEL HICKS-BEACH), PRESIDENT, IN THE CENTRE.

(See p. 226.)

and opium 5,570 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 64,175 tons, in addition to 1,851 chests, 106,957 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 Prye 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 Tanjong 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 expropriation and the Government's proposal to pay for the property at the rate of 240 dollars per share. It was pointed out that although the concern had been paying 12 per cent. only, disbursements, which might rightly have been charged to capital, had been made out of revenue representing an additional 24 per cent., while the liquid assets had been augmented to the extent of a further 6 per cent., thus bringing the earnings of the company up to a figure representing a dividend of 42 per cent. The shareholders also protested 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 railway fame, as Arbitrators for the company and the Government respectively, with Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, M.P. (now Lord St. Aldwyn), as Umpire. The Court began its sittings in Singapore on October 16th and rose on October 26, 1905. The leading counsel for the company was Lord Robert Cecil, K.C., and for the Government, Mr. Balfour Browne, K.C. The company's claim amounted to 76,510,976 dollars and included 33,539,792 dollars for the general undertaking at twenty-two years' purchase, based on the average profit for five years, and 26,150,200 dollars for prospective appreciation. The Government's offer was for 11,244,996, being eighteen years' purchase calculated on adjusted profits, plus an allowance for surplus properties. It was not 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 27,929,177 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 Dock Company, viz. the six months ended June, 1905, the net profit which would, under ordinary circumstances, have been available for distribution, including 206,645 dollars brought forward from the preceding account, was 891,675 dollars. From this the directors recommended a dividend of 24 dollars per share. In the first 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 2,335,000 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 Prye Dock. After deducting expenditure, the actual profits in each of the three periods specified were respectively 663,000 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 have to be met in future. This shows a steady growth in the earnings, despite the fact that there was a considerable decrease in dock repair tonnage in the last half of 1906, the figures for the three periods being respectively 1,118,146 tons for 165 vessels, 1,065,320 for 155 vessels, and 838,280 for 144 vessels.

In the meantime, the great 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 70 or 80 acres and add largely to the shipping accommodation of the port.



PINANG HARBOUR.

upon investigation, that the Tanjong 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 dollars 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 provisos: 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 on 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

who declined to accept any effective Government control unless their dividend of 12 per cent. were guaranteed to them. This condition the Colonial Office declined to accede to, and eventually the Secretary of State decided upon expropriation. An Expropriation Bill was forthwith introduced into the Legislative Council, setting out the conditions under which the property should be acquired. It was hoped that an arrangement would be possible without arbitration, on the lines of the London Water Act of 1902. A Board, to be called the Tanjong Pagar Dock Board, was to be constituted. The appointments to it were to be made by the Governor, one-third of the members retiring by rotation every three years. It was provided that there was to be no interference by the Government in the ordinary administration of the port management. The Board was to pay into the general revenue of the colony a sum not exceeding 4 per cent. per annum of the amount paid by the Government for the undertaking, the object being that the company should be self-supporting. It was also stipulated that any further profits should go to a reserve fund, available for any purpose connected with the business of the Board, providing that whatever remained over after the necessary charges had been met should be devoted to works of improvement or extension, or to the reduction of charges, if thought desirable. There was the assurance given also of absolute continuity of policy on the part of the new Board, as well as of non-interference by the Government in the management. This Bill was eventually passed into law; the property was taken over on June 30, 1905, and the new Board was appointed with eight non-official and two official members, since reduced to six non-official and one official member.

In the meantime there had been a meeting



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 £2,092,600.

At Tanjong Pagar the works now being undertaken by the Dock Board are :

(a) The construction of a wet dock with a

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 rise and fall of the tide is 7 feet in neap tides and 9 feet in spring tides.

With the exception of the boats of the



PINANG HARBOUR (ANOTHER VIEW).

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 wharfage 3,840 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.

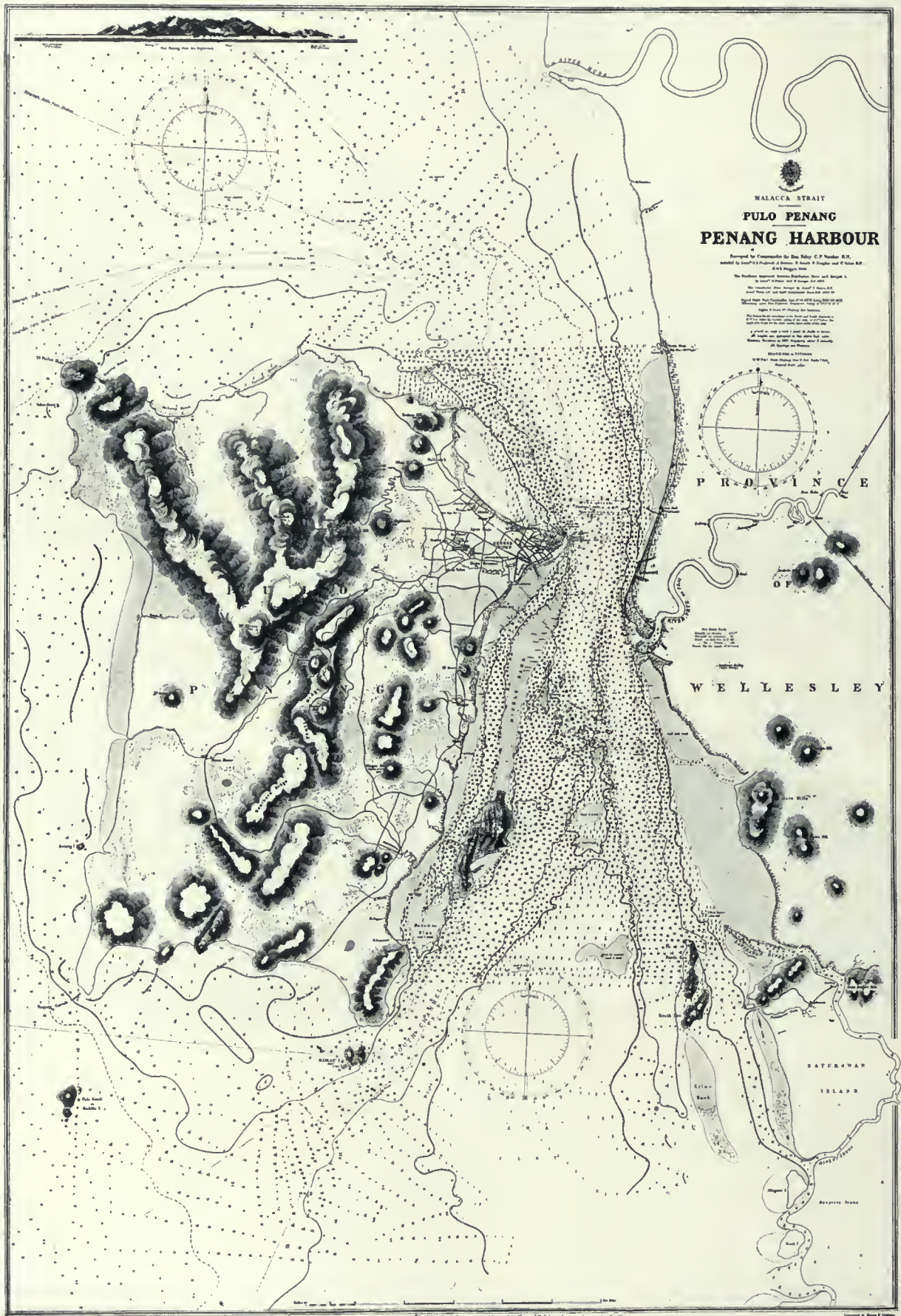
(d) The removal and concentration of the workshops at Keppel Harbour, involving the entire reconstruction of the buildings, which will be provided with the most modern machine tools electrically driven from a large power-station now being constructed at Keppel Harbour to supply electrical energy to the whole of the Board's undertaking.

## PINANG HARBOUR.

Pinang is the great transhipment centre for the northern part of the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra. It possesses a safe and extensive sheltered anchorage lying between Georgetown, on the north and east of the island, and Province Wellesley, on the mainland of the Malay Peninsula. The channel between the island and the mainland is a little over a mile in width at this point. All large ocean-going steamers, whether eastward or westward bound, enter the port by the north channel, which can be navigated safely in any state of the tide by vessels drawing 27 feet of water. The south channel is only used by small local steamers. It is studded with small islands, and has a depth

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 beacons, wigham and other kinds of buoys, the approaches to the port are shown at night by three principal lights—one on Muka Head, at the north-west corner of the island; one on Rinau Island, which lies off the south-east of Pinang; and one on the flagstaff of Fort Cornwallis, in Georgetown itself.

No really bad weather is experienced at Pinang either in the north-east or south-west monsoons. Sudden squalls, accompanied by heavy rain, prevail sometimes during the south-west monsoon, but they never last more than a couple of hours, and they are not dangerous to shipping. They are known locally and by seafaring men the world over as "Sumatras,"



MALACCA STRAIT  
**FULO PENANG**  
**PENANG HARBOUR**

Surveyed by Commander Sir John P. C. P. ...  
 published by ...

The ...  
 ...



W E L L E S L E Y

BATERAWAN ISLAND

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 berthage 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 berthage 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 Prye 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.

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



PINANG HARBOUR (ANOTHER VIEW).

### 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 and 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, the one on the north and the other on the south side of the channel at the river mouth. The north groyne is 1,850 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 62,321 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 1906, 1,530 steam vessels of an aggregate tonnage of 320,121 tons, and 1,241 native craft, representing 25,832 tons, cleared at the port. A weekly service of steamers to Pinang, Singapore, and the Federated Malay States ports calls at Malacca.

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### 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 Sembilan, and Kuantan in Pahang.

The boom in the trade of the Federated Malay States during the past few years and the



PORT SWETTENHAM—THE RAILWAY SIDING.

and by the southern entrance—between Pulo Lumut and the mainland—twelve miles. Originally the port of call for Selangor was Klang, which is four or five miles further up the river. Owing to the inadequate accommo-

steamers have put in at the port with increasing frequency, until in 1906 fifteen vessels called there direct from Europe. These vessels anchor in the stream in 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 Lumpor, the Federal capital, 28 miles

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

States. It is situated at the mouth of the Sapatang river, and is only seven 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.

Teluk 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 Teluk 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 Sembilan 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.



PORT DICKSON.

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

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



PORT SWETTENHAM.



## THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

### SINGAPORE.



**C**LAD 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 "singha," 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 Singhapura in A.D. 1160, changing the original name Tamasak to the present-day title because he saw a singha, 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 Pinang 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 sandstone, 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 92.697 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



SECTIONAL VIEW OF THE CITY.

owes its bright and luxuriant verdure and its moderate temperature—so remarkable for a place situated within 80 miles of the equator. The thermometer seldom registers more than 82.31 degrees of heat or less than 79.55. Thus it would appear that the mean temperature is lower by 9.90 degrees than that of many localities in the same latitude. Furious gales are of rare occurrence. If exceptional heat has led to the accumulation of moisture and electricity, a squall sets in, accompanied by a heavy shower. The direction from which these squalls come is determined by the prevailing

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 command 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 criticised in Imperial Parliament, and these criticisms were cordially echoed in Singapore, where Britishers 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—like ants upon an ant-hill. On the opposite side of the waterway stand the Pulo Brani 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—sampan (rowing-boats), tonkangs (lighters), launches, fishing-



WESTERN ENTRANCE TO THE HARBOUR.

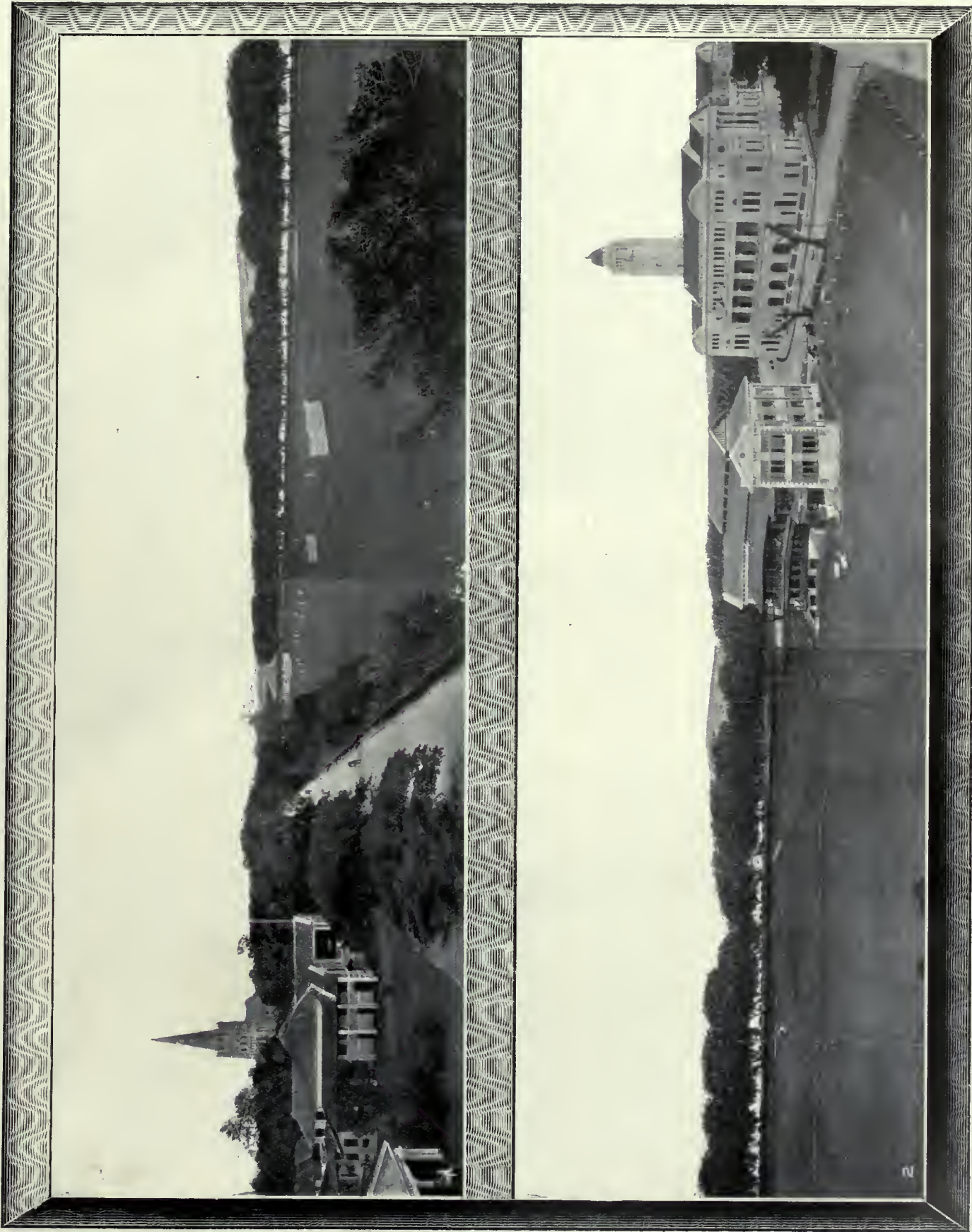
mines and are commanded by heavily-armed forts on the outlying islands of Blakang Mati and Pulo Brani, manned by British Garrison Artillery corps, the Hongkong-Singapore Battalion Royal Artillery, fortress engineers, and submarine miners. There is always a British infantry regiment, too, stationed at Singapore—just now it is the Queen's Own (Royal West Kent)—besides an Indian regiment (95th 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 80 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 fro between the shore and the fleet of sea-going vessels lying in the roads. The most congested 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-



VIEW FROM THE ROOF GARDEN OF THE GRAND HOTEL DE L'EUROPE, SHOWING THE RECREATION GROUNDS, HARBOUR, MEMORIAL HALL, AND ST. ANDREW'S CATHEDRAL.



TANJONG PAGAR ROAD.

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 clock-tower 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 Keppel 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



COLLYER QUAY.

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 stand 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 seen 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 hostelries 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 unending 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 Chermin and Passir Panjang. The second, River Valley Road, runs along the north side 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,



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 Selitar; 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 park-like grounds and occupying a commanding site. It is built in the Renaissance style of architecture, with a square tower rising from the centre.

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 *lingua franca*, and rubs shoulders with "all sorts and conditions of men"—with opulent Chinese Towkays in grey felt hat, nankeen jacket, and capacious trousers; Straits-born Babas as proud as Lucifer; easy-going Malays in picturesque sarong and baju; stately Sikhs from the garrison; lanky Bengalis; ubiquitous Jews in old-time gabardine; exorbitant Chetties with closely-shaven heads and muslin-swathed 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, Sinhalese, 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 hosteleries.

A curious combination of Orientalism and Occidentalism is to be observed on every side. From the midst of tawdry-looking native shops



RAFFLES SQUARE.

rise modern European establishments of commanding appearance; hand-drawn rickshas and lumbering ox-waggons move side by side with electric tramcars, 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 Teutonia 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' Lawn Tennis Club, and the Turf Club. The Turf Club counts amongst



CAVENAGH BRIDGE.



RAFFLES MONUMENT AND ESPLANADE.

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-



BOAT QUAY.

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 kolehs and Chinese junks glide over the shimmering surface of the intervening strait. At sunset, when the outlying islands are silhouetted against a glowing background 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 Passir 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 without 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-

wards the principle of popular representation was given effect to by the passing of an Act to establish a municipality; and this concession

The town, which has an estimated population of 235,000 inhabitants, is divided into the following five wards: Tanjong Pagar (No. 1),



VICTORIA MEMORIAL HALL AND OBELISK.

ment against the non-representative character of this body, the members of which were all nominated by the Governor. Two years after-

was extended under the first Municipal Ordinance in 1887. From that time onwards there has been no change in the constitution of the municipal body—five of whose members, including the President, are nominated by the Governor, while five are elected by the ratepayers. 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 be the occupier of a house within the same area of the annual rateable value of not less than 480 dollars. In order to vote a resident must be over twenty-one years of age, and 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 Commission retire by rotation annually, and the elections take place in December. On the voters' list there are nearly five thousand persons, but so little interest is taken in the elections that a contest is a thing unknown. 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 Commissioners 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,



STAMFORD ROAD.

ment against the non-representative character of this body, the members of which were all nominated by the Governor. Two years after-

cluding the President, are nominated by the Governor, while five are elected by the ratepayers.



TANJONG KATONG.

Burial Grounds Committee, and Assessment Appeals Committee.

The Commissioners levy rates and taxes for general municipal purposes. The consolidated rate for 1907 was 12 per cent. on the annual value of all property within the municipality, with an additional rate of 3 per cent. in respect of water supply.

In 1906 the assessments on houses and land amounted to 1,071,784 dollars; taxes on carriages, carts, horses, mules, dogs, motors, &c., to 172,647 dollars; licences for offensive

trades to 27,560 dollars; miscellaneous fees (including 50,809 dollars received for use of the slaughter-houses) to 74,591 dollars; rents for markets to 233,230 dollars; and water charges to 435,060 dollars. The revenue from the sale of gas was 232,366 dollars (showing a profit for the year of 81,040 dollars), and from the sale of electric current 8,307 dollars.

The chief items of expenditure were:—Personal emoluments, 358,303.13; other charges, 113,583.71; annually recurrent expenditure, 563,602.04; disbursements recover-



BUKIT TIMAH ROAD.

able, 164,866.88; special services, 641,405.57; loan charges 210,609.86; miscellaneous services, 202,004.76—total, 2,254,375.95 dollars.

On loan works the expenditure was as follows:—New reservoir, 217,495.28; Kallang tunnel works, 59,627.56; new water mains, 55,497.05; salt water supply for street-watering, 942.03; bridge over Singapore river 1,820.66; fire stations, 0.24; quarantine camp, 296.39; new markets and extensions, 1,798.17; Pearl's Hill reservoir, 26,748.07; Bidadari cemetery, 35,468.45; reforming town drains, 8,643.60; Stamford canal, 14,792.20; electric power installation, 87,844.03; raising dam, 3,561.57; new incinerators, 25,564.08; Mahomedan cemetery, 45,922.35; Tanjong Katong roads, 25,884.23; and Cantonment Road, 15,809.16—in all, 627,715.12 dollars.

The work of the municipality is spread over seven departments, viz., the Engineer's, Health Officer'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 1,990,122 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 requirements; a clear water tank, to hold 3,000,000 gallons; seven miles of pipes, 30 inches diameter; a new cemetery, of 45 acres; an infectious diseases hospital, with a site 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 store 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 15.70 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 43.86 per 1,000, the lowest being 36.14 in 1898, and the highest 48.66 in 1896. In 1906 the general death-rate was 37.93, the European rate being 14.97. The chief causes of death were phthisis, 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 1900, 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 193 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 45 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



GOVERNMENT HOUSE.

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-

During 1896 the consumption of water was about 3½ million gallons per day, whereas at the present time it amounts to 6½ 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:

|                                                   | Dollars.    |
|---------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| To shipping over wharves ... ..                   | 1.50*       |
| For prime movers ... ..                           | 1.00*       |
| To water boats ... ..                             | 1.00*       |
| For manufacturing purposes ... ..                 | 0.80*       |
| For trades—                                       |             |
| To Dispensaries ·                                 |             |
| „ Dhobies                                         | } ... 0.50† |
| „ Barbers                                         |             |
| „ Cattle sheds and stables                        |             |
| „ Livery stables                                  |             |
| „ Recreation grounds, &c.                         | } ... 0.30† |
| „ Premises without gardens                        |             |
| „     with                                        | } ... 0.40† |
| „     and/or stables                              |             |
| „ Private stables not attached to dwelling-houses |             |

\* Plus meter rent.  
† No meter rent.



GENERAL HOSPITAL.

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 1894. 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. R. 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

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.



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 dollars, which was remitted to London at the bank rate of rs. 10½d. 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 Kallang Road. They

15 per cent. for prospective profits. In the meantime the company has to pay to the municipality 5 per cent. of the net profits annually—a contribution which will be trebled if the Commissioners should extend the term of the lease for a further seven years. The Commissioners have the right of access to the company's books and records and the power to inspect all cars, machinery, wires, &c.

The supply of electricity for light and power was undertaken by the municipality early in 1906, the energy being obtained from the Tramway Company's generating station in McKenzie Road, about a mile and a half from the municipal electric sub-station, which is

and the number of arc lamps for street lighting purposes nine, the latter being 10 amperes 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 8,500 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 Passir 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



THE FIRE BRIGADE.

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

situated 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 jute vulcanised bitumen-covered cables, laid solid in earthenware gutters. 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,

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 Kampong 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 unfit 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 reorganisation 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 52,855 dollars, a reduction of 209,919 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 Municipal Commissioners have discontinued the insurance of their buildings and property with the insurance companies, and have inaugurated a Municipal Fire Insurance Fund on their own account.

From the beginning of 1906 the regulation and licensing of dangerous trades was transferred from the Health Department to the Fire Brigade Department. During the twelvemonth 1,369 licences were issued, an increase of 26, 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 Jinricksha Department deals with the issuing of licences, the inspection of vehicles, &c. During 1906 20,870 ricksha licences were issued, an increase of 1,329 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 7,469, 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 registered 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 dilapidated rickshas, or owners who allow their rickshas to ply for hire after the licences have 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

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



THE WATERWORKS.

were dealt with by the magistrates, but the cases occurred in such numbers that the work of the police courts became congested, and in

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.

1903 the Registrar was invested with magisterial powers. Some idea of the extent of his work may be gathered from the fact that more

Twenty-four cases were tried by the Acting Registrar against hackney-carriage owners and drivers, and they resulted in 16 convictions.

## 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

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 Malay 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

graph 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



RAFFLES MUSEUM, SINGAPORE.

Raffles Institution, but in September, 1862, it was removed 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 1887.

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 1898 it contained the Curator's quarters as well. The building at the rear was commenced in 1904, finished towards the end of

purchased in 1897 from the executors of 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, closes with the year 1900, 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 photo-

graph in *Punch*—and nearly forty species of other monkeys—siamang 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





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, 15½ 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 hamadryad. The lizards, turtles,

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 middle Jurassic 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 krisses, some plain, 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 "boat 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 fiddles, 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 Banjermassin, 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 quaintly ornamented with raised 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 Pagi 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 bolsters 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, Banjermassin, Sarawak, British North Borneo, and other places. Practically unique is a collection of Portuguese tin coins, which were discovered in 1900 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. R. 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 Emmanuel (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 archaeological record 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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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, cicadas and lantern flies, grasshoppers, and stick and leaf insects. Finally, there are also some fearsome scorpions and spiders.

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 1804 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.

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 Peking 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



MUNICIPAL STAFF.



THE RESIDENCY.

sampans are crowded with a very mixed "cargo" of Asiatics 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

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



MUNICIPAL TRAMWAYS.

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 *tongkangs*, 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 400 per cent.

As the visitor approaches Victoria Pier—a small covered-in jetty—he will see on his right-hand side Swettenham Pier, named after Sir Frank Swettenham, 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 goods 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 ungainly—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



PINANG IN 1828.

small coasting vessels and large ocean liners. A cursory glance over at the mainland—at Province Wellesley (which is part of the settlement of Pinang)—will unfold to him a beautiful coast-line fringed with graceful palm-trees, and dotted here and there with Malay or

are disturbed, however, by the arrival of a steam-launch, which swiftly bears him on his mission—not to “see Naples and die,” but to see Pinang, and live ever afterwards with only the most pleasant memories of his visit, be it long or brief.



PINANG IN 1837.

other Oriental and European habitations, besides a bird's-eye view of the village of Butlerworth and the tin-smelting works of

The short run between the steamer and the Victoria Jetty will in itself be a “voyage of discovery.” Pinang, taken as a unit, is no great

rectangular design, which renders the task of finding one's way about the town simplicity itself, and within those 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 not, 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 Asiatics of other nationalities, who have, metaphorically speaking, "pitched their tents" in Pinang in order to gain a livelihood—the Indian money-changers, whose stalls are to be seen on every pavement; the Chetty 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 131,917 persons who made up the estimated population of Pinang in 1906 (excluding Province Wellesley), there were 1,056 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 1906 at 99,400.

A touch of picturesqueness is lent to the streets at the busiest parts of the day by the throngs of Orientals of all races, clad in garments peculiar to their respective countries. The "nonias" or wives of the "towkays" are usually resplendent in jewellery worn over a neat-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 menfolk 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 Asiatics. Now, however, a European residential quarter is springing up in the vicinity of the Sepoy Lines—once upon a time the *local* 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

Malays and Tamils, live in mere hovels, in huts built on piles, or huddled together in cubicles 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



THE HOSPITAL.

wretched-looking habitations of the natives are to be found alongside a huge Chinese club or residence, or adjacent to a European bungalow.

Bangkok, the temperature rarely reaching 94°, while it is sometimes as low as 72°. The average maximum is about 89.5°, the average minimum 74.2°, and the mean tem-



CHINA STREET.

Still, notwithstanding the poverty and squalor of the large majority of its inhabitants, the average annual death-rate of the Municipality is no higher than 39.43 per mille. The

perature is about 80.60°. 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

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-

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.

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.

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,



THE GOVERNMENT OFFICES.

Esplanade thronged with rickshas and carriages, while the southern portion of the recreation-ground is for the nonce transformed into a public park in which Europeans, Eurasians, and Asiatics 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 19,000 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.R.H. 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; its 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 done duty 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,

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



THE MUNICIPAL OFFICES.

so that two judges can hear cases at the same time, and between the two divisions is the bar library and bar-room for the convenience of the legal profession. A session of Assize is held quarterly, when the presiding judge, wearing a scarlet robe, is preceded by a native Court official in uniform bearing a sword.

cheapest circulating libraries in the East, and deserves greater popularity than it at present obtains.

Within the Supreme Court ground 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 Legisla-



THE MARKET.

THE MUNICIPAL ABATTOIRS.

ELTON BELL.  
(Municipal Veterinary Surgeon.)

THE PIG MARKET.

five 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

trally 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

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 either 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 sea-front, 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. 1,003, 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 finely laid 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.



PINANG CRICKET CLUB.

AT THE CRICKET CLUB PAVILION ON THE OCCASION OF THE ANNUAL MATCH, STRAITS SETTLEMENTS v. FEDERATED MALAY STATES, AUGUST, 1907.

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 architec-

ture, simple and unpretentious, and is now fitted with electric light and electric fans.

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-



THE FORT.

ture, 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 cen-

trally situated, albeit lacking the advantage of a sea-frontage. It is the beginning of villadom—fine, large residences enclosed in spacious grounds (locally called "compounds"), with



PINANG AMATEUR DRAMATIC SOCIETY.

town, notwithstanding its proximity to the business centre. Like Northam Road, the greater portion of Burma Road is a pretty avenue, and when the ansena trees on either side are in bloom, they are most beautiful to behold. From the





SCENE IN THE BOTANICAL GARDENS.  
THE GARDENS FROM THE HILL.  
RIFLE RANGE ROAD.

BALIK PULAU.  
AYER ETAM VALLEY.

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 "kolchs" 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 Pinang 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 McAlister 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



THE VICTORIA MEMORIAL CLOCK TOWER.

line of Kedah hills furthestmost 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 ("Flowery Point"), which is a popular holiday resort with the residents 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 Pinang Swimming Club; and, if the drive be continued further along, the village of Batu Feringhi 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 Pinang 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,

is thrown open to the general public at the annual "Taipusum" festival. A few minutes later we arrive at the Botanical Gardens, situated in an amphitheatre of hills. They are excellently laid out, with innumerable plots of grass intersected by pathways, all of which are invariably in good order. The trees, plants, and flowers are neatly labelled with their respective technical names, while the plant and fern houses present a vision of tropical loveliness that it would be hard to excel anywhere. To the extreme left is a disused swimming pond, where the youth of the town were once wont to disport themselves. Now it is in a neglected condition—the only blot on the otherwise fair landscape. A slight incline along a broad pathway leads to the waterfall—by no



THE AYER ETAM WATERFALL.

THE WATERFALL RESERVOIR.

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 the 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 Etam, 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 Etam 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 "Low's Pass," or "Penera Bukit," from which a fine view is obtainable, especially on a fine, clear day.

Returning to town by way of Ayer Etam Road again, the visitor passes the gaot 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 Sungei Pinang ("river Pinang"), and Sungei 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



THE ESPLANADE.

tramway depôt. A visit to Sungei Pinang will afford a better insight into the commercial development of Pinang than tomes of dry-as-dust statistics. Continuing our way along Bridge Street, we pass Cecil Street, in which

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.

MALACCA, the oldest and largest of the Straits Settlements, is a triangular territory situated on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. It embraces 659 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 Orientals, 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 3,000 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 at its best, and is traversed by a network of excellent roads. To drive along any of these is to witness scenery of great beauty. On either side are rice fields—emerald green when newly planted, golden when the grain is ripe, and brown when it is fallow—and these are variated with tapioca and rubber plantations and studded with lofty areca-nut palms. In the distance, hills chequer the sky-line and form a blue-grey 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 79°6' as against 80°5' in Singapore and 80°3' in Pinang, while the mean rainfall was 80·57 inches as compared with 118·38 inches in Singapore and 102·21 inches in Pinang. Malacca is also the healthiest of the three settlements. In 1906 its birth-rate was 37·05 per mille as against 22·27 in Singapore and 16·79 in Pinang, while the death-rate was 37·12 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 73,000 Malays and 20,000 Chinese. It was estimated in 1906 at 97,387. The value of Malacca's imports in 1906 was about 4,900,000 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 fascicularis*, locally known as the Bang Kuang. The basket is built up from a beginning of six strands 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 filled 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 Malaya 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 roofless 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 light-house 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 mural tablet placed on the relic appears the following inscription: "The only remaining part of the ancient fortress of Malacca built by Alfonso d'Albuquerque 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 Malays, 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 townships in the settlement are Alor Gajah and Jasin. 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 Officers are stationed. There is a hot spring with valuable medicinal properties at Ayer Panas, 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.



1. STADT HOUSE.

2. THE STRAND.

VIEWS IN MALACCA.  
3. DISTRICT OFFICER OF ALOR GAJAH AND HEADMAN OF THE DISTRICT.

4. THE FORT.



## THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES

### KUALA LUMPOR.



HE 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



KUALA LUMPOR IN 1882.



GENERAL VIEW, SHOWING GOVERNMENT AND FEDERAL OFFICES.

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 1880, 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 Pudo. 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

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



GROUP OF MEMBERS OF THE FEDERAL COUNCIL.





H.H. ALA'IDIN SULEIMAN BIN ALMERHUM RAJA MUSA, C.M.G., SULTAN OF SELANGOR AND FOLLOWERS.

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



VIEW SHOWING RAILWAY OFFICES AND RAILWAY YARD.

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 ABDUL 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.* *State Engineer.*

Kuala Lumpur 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

the main range, a clear blue outline, in which the initiated may distinguish the Ginting Bedai, one of the passes leading to Pahang. In the heart of the town is the padang, an ideal

"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



THE GOVERNMENT OFFICES.

playground, on which football, cricket, hockey, and tennis are in turn enjoyed. This grassy plain is bounded on the east by the Government Offices and the new Post Office, on the west by the railway line, skirting Government Hill; on the south by the Chartered Bank and the Government Printing Office, and on the

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



SELANGOR HOCKEY CLUB TEAM.



SELANGOR FOOTBALL CLUB TEAM AT WHITSUN, 1907.

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

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

the sporting proclivities of their instructors that they not infrequently "better the instruction." It is doubtful whether anything in the Federated Malay States has contributed more



SOME GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS.

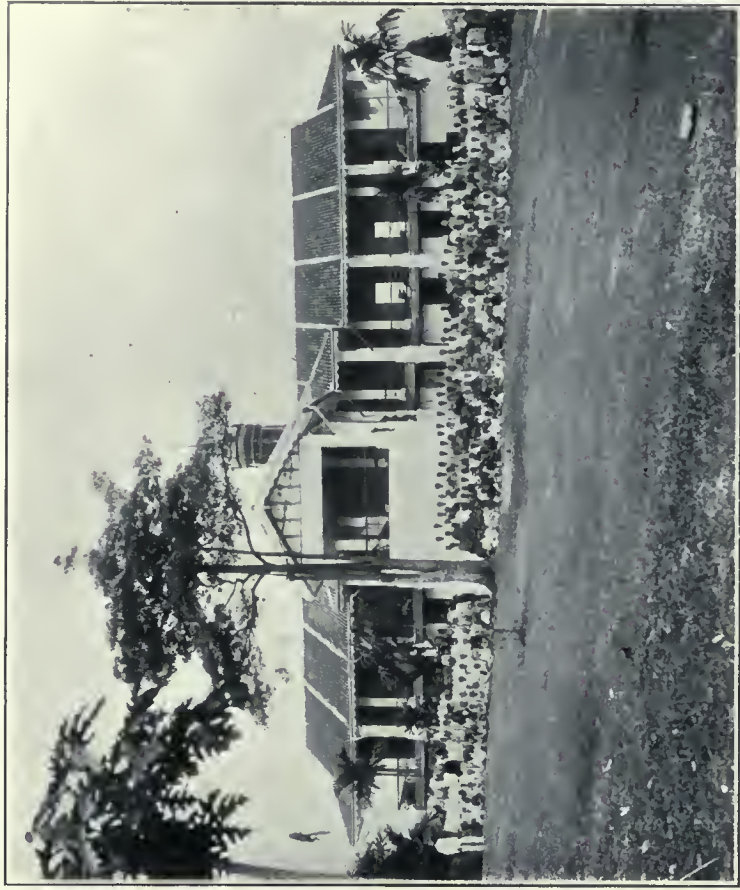
1. THE PRINTING OFFICE.

2. THE BARRACKS.  
5. THE RAILWAY STATION.

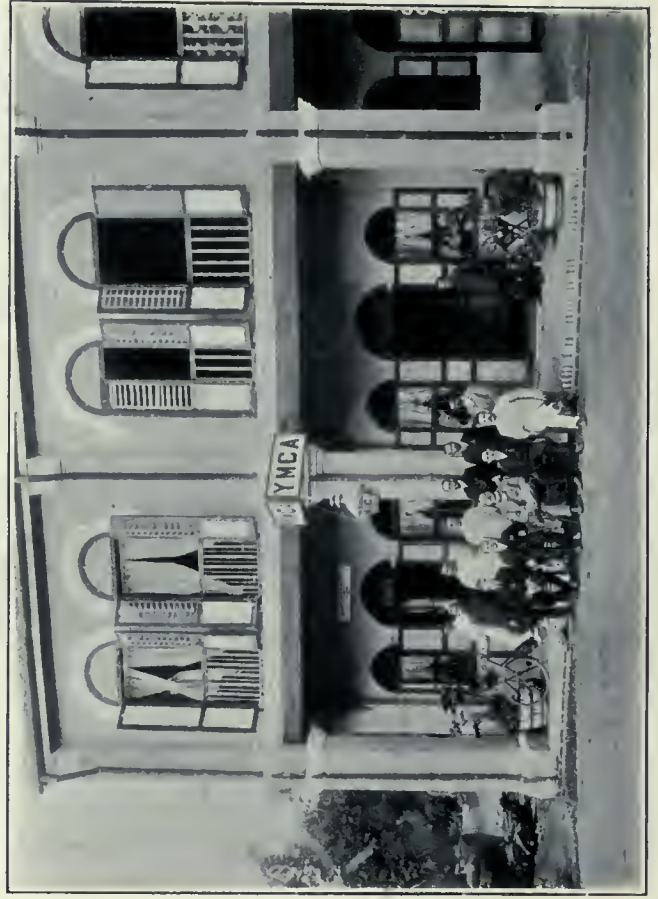
3. BACHELORS' QUARTERS FOR CIVIL SERVANTS.

6. THE POST OFFICE.

4. THE RESIDENCY.



METHODIST BOYS' SCHOOL.



THE Y.M.C.A.



PETALING STREET.



IN THE BOTANICAL GARDENS.

to the furtherance of the intimate understanding which exists between the various sections of the community than the padangs, scattered through the States, upon which all classes meet in friendly emulation.

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, 1899, 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 secretariat. 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



ROAD TO THE WATERWORKS.



THE AMPANG WATERWORKS.

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 malingering on 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 poeh, fan-tan, chap-ji-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 old racecourse, the grand stand of which is now the Federal Home for Women, is within four miles of the town, whilst in another direction lies 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 making of the silver ware peculiar to the country, weaving, &c., and to provide Malays employed in Kuala Lumpur with a reserve in which they could live according to their own manners and customs. For this purpose 250 acres of land within the municipal limits were set aside by the Government under the Land Enactment, and lots of half an acre were granted to Malays willing to settle there. The conditions imposed upon Malays taking advantage of this offer were that they should build their own houses and fence and plant the land. Their allotment was free of rent or premium. Certain buildings were erected with a view to giving the technical instruction already referred to, and the settlers were required to devote a certain amount of their time to learning Malay industries; but the Government found they had not secured the right class of people. Most of the men, having work in Kuala Lumpur, could not find time for weaving and silver work; and eventually it was decided to abandon the technical instruction and allow the settlement to become a purely residential reserve, where the Malays can live in surroundings natural to them, instead of being huddled together in back streets, burdened with the high rents prevailing in Kuala Lumpur. Mr. A. Hale, now a District Officer in Perak, took a great interest in the settlement when it was first formed, and spent much time in the endeavour to make it of use to the Malay community. In recognition of this his name has been given to the main road through the reserve. The Raja Muda of Kuala Lumpur is *ex officio* chairman of the committee of management, and the Inspector of Schools is *ex officio* vice-chairman. Mr. B. O. Stoney, the hon. secretary, takes an indefatigable interest in the welfare of the community.

#### THE BATU CAVES.

Though by no means the most extensive, the Batu ("Stone") Caves, of which we give illustrations, are perhaps more widely known than any others in the Federated Malay States. They are distant about seven miles from Kuala Lumpur, and may be reached either by rail—the short line to the central railway workshops having been extended to the stone quarries near the caves—or by road. Ten minutes' walk from the station brings one to the entrance to the light cave, usually the first visited. It is a huge dome-like cavern, impressive in its vastness, exciting in the mind a vague awe. Beyond is a lesser cave, lit by a circular shaft, covered from top to bottom with profuse vegetation, a patch of sky, fringed with a delicate leafy tracery, being visible. On returning to the entrance to the cave a charming view opens out and compels a moment's halt. It is but a short distance to the dark cave, the exploration of which is an experience not soon forgotten. Some two or three hundred yards from the entrance, after scrambling over some rocky ground, a shallow stream of water is met crossing the tunnel, and this must be waded if the inner recesses of the cave are to be penetrated. There is, however, no difficulty if acetylene lamps are carried and



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 intoxicated by the love for play, but so inured to the excitement that their faces wear a mask

vicinity, too, lies the Chinese Roman Catholic Church, a handsome structure dedicated to Our Lady of the Rosary. Hard by is the convent, the sequestered scene of the labours of a devout sisterhood, working for the benefit of all classes, irrespective of creed or race.

A short journey by rail includes two interesting features of the neighbourhood—the central railway workshops, equipped with the most modern machinery for the construction and

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 thud 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, toads, and insects, with probably a few of the smaller nocturnal carnivores. The toads 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 Rahman on the north, Selangor on the south, Kelantan and Pahang on the east, 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

are the Dinding, Bruas, Larut, Sa'petang, Kurau, 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 (5,896 feet). These ranges enclose the

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 metalliferous 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.

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 tribute from the Plus, 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 Kangsa. 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 Utan Melintan, near the mouth of the river, to Teluk Anson. Other rivers which may be mentioned

basins 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 overlaid in many places by 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 as to the various periods in which the Titanic upheavals responsible for the present configuration of the country took place. The scanty data available only permit of the surmise that they were of comparatively

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 about 3,000 feet there is a considerable fall in the temperature, the average being 60° F. at night and 73° 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

Tapah 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

dollars less than in 1905. The revenue in 1876 was only 273,043 dollars, and the expenditure 289,476 dollars. The enormous wealth of the State is shown by the fact that the value of the merchandise exported in 1906 was 41,299,778 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 1,541,442 dollars in 1896 and 140,292 dollars in 1877; and licences, which brought in 2,279,475 dollars. The financial returns show excess assets amounting to 16,721,965 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, 435,908 piculs, of the approximate value of 38,500,000 dollars, being the quantity sent out of the State during 1906. A total area of 146,624 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.



THE TOWN IN 1878, FROM THE OLD RESIDENCY.

was taken, the population was returned as 329,665, 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,

Tapah Road and Tapah Town; whilst 602 miles of metalled roads, 83 miles of earth roads, 267 miles of bridle-paths, and 410 miles of other paths are available for vehicular and pedestrian traffic. Telegraphs and telephones extend their service over 629 miles of line and 1,177 miles of wire, whilst the postal arrangements in the State are characterised by efficiency and despatch.



NEAR THE ESPLANADE.

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

The revenue of the State in 1906 was 14,282,484 dollars, as compared with 12,242,897 dollars in the preceding year. The expenditure amounted to 8,776,478 dollars, or 1,365,500



THE LATE J. W. BIRCH.

(First British Resident of Perak.)

Of 364,303 acres devoted to agricultural products, about 20,890 have been planted with rubber, and during 1906 the quantity of rubber exported was 1,122 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.

Tapah, 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 HOSPITAL.

THE RESIDENCY.

THE HOUSE OF THE SECRETARY TO THE RESIDENT.

THE NEW GOVERNMENT OFFICES.



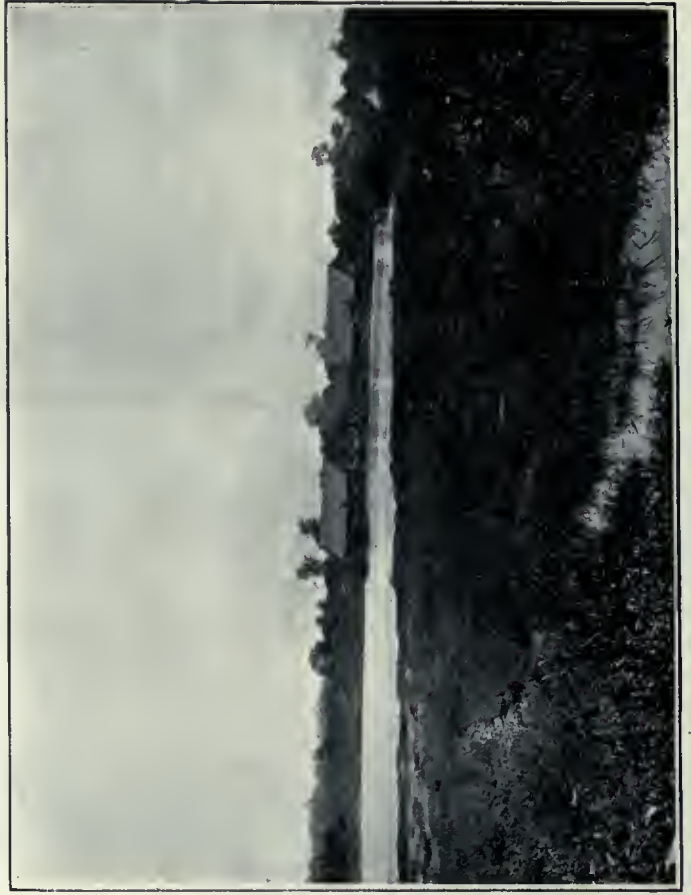
TUPAI TAIPING, 1878, FROM THE OLD RESIDENCY.



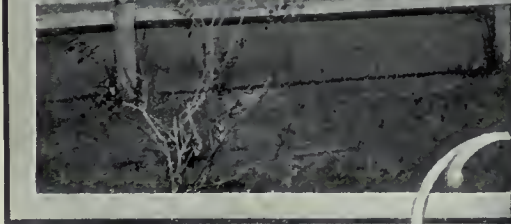
KOTA ROAD.



PONTOON BRIDGE OVER THE PERAK RIVER AT ENGGOR.



THE FIRST BRITISH STATION IN THE KINTA IN 1878 AT PENHKALEN  
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.



THE COURT HOUSE.



THE TREASURY.



THE CLOCK AND WATER TOWER.

VIEWS OF TELUK ANSON.



THE SULTAN'S BODYGUARD.



H.H. THE SULTAN OF PERAK AND HIS COURT.



THE ISTANA AT KUALA KANGSA.



THE THRONE ROOM.



KAMPAR, PERAK.



MALAY HOUSE-BOATS ON THE PERAK RIVER.



GOPENG, PERAK, FROM THE REST-HOUSE.



MEMBERS OF THE FIRST DURBAR HELD AT KUALA KANGSA.

Clubs exist in friendly rivalry, and have in the padang, which they overlook, a spacious playground. The extensive public gardens are a popular resort, and there are good golf links situated amidst the most delightful surroundings. The climate is somewhat enervating, but relief is to be had in the sanatoria known as "The Tea 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 1874 a regular battle was fought in what was then Geluntong, 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.

**T**HOUGH 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 Sembilan on the south-east, and the Straits of Malacca on the west and south-west. It extends from 2° 33' 52" North latitude to 3° 48' 46", and from 100° 46' 57" East longitude to 102° 0' 53".

It is well watered. The Burnam river, which marks the northern boundary of the State, takes its rise in the range overlooking Tanjong Malin; 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 to 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 3,000 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 283,619, as compared with 168,789 shown in the census return of 1901. The birth-rate in 1906 was 99.42, or slightly less than in the preceding year, while the death-rate was 26.756, as compared with 29.275 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 454 miles of metalled cart-roads, 63 miles of gravelled roads, 57 miles of earth-roads, and

210 miles of bridle-paths. The gradients are good. The local railway service is most creditable, and a great point is made of punctuality; whilst the recent development of motor-bus routes has added greatly to the

The principal sources of income are land, customs, and licences. The total revenue amounted in 1906 to 9,803,184 dollars, as compared with 8,857,793 dollars in 1905 and 193,476 dollars in 1876. The principal headings



KLANG CLUB.

facilities for travel. Telegraphic and telephonic communication is maintained over 351 miles of line and 844 miles of wire.

of expenditure are personal emoluments and other charges, public works, and federal charges, the total amounting in 1906 to

6,414,257 dollars, as compared with 7,186,146 dollars in 1905 and 191,174 dollars in 1876. These figures give an epitome of the prosperity

mining revenue is steadily increasing, and realised 3,357,033 dollars in 1906, the amount of tin and ore exported being valued at 23,831,220

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 69,968 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 340,360 dollars in 1905 and 322,163 dollars in 1904. The quantity exported during 1906 was 674,100 lbs., of the value of 1,234,326 dollars, on which duty was paid to the amount of 29,386 dollars.

The total area under coconuts at the close of 1906 was estimated at 19,216 acres, and 12,720 piculs of copra of the value of 43,826 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 Kuang district, but that it by no means supplies the demand may be seen from the fact that rice to the value of 4,134,562 dollars was imported in 1906.

Coffee cultivation is decreasing. The value of the 1906 export was 523,361 dollars, against 684,422 dollars in the previous year. The chief reason is that rubber is fast superseding the product, coffee being now planted rather as a catch-crop than as a staple. Areca-nuts to the value of 20,664 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 342,348 dollars over the total for the preceding twelve months.

Kuala Lumpur, the capital of the State, is described in detail under a separate heading.



STREET SCENE, KLANG.

of the State under British rule, but this prosperity is shown in more detail by a comparison of the land revenue in 1906, when 342,911 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 1,816,664 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; in 1906 they were 154,241 dollars. The export duty on tin brought in 3,357,033 dollars during 1906, as compared with 111,920 dollars in 1878, or, to take a more recent figure, with 1,377,325 dollars in 1896.

The assets of the State are valued at 18,852,351 dollars, and the liabilities at 308,795 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 12,032,856 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 71,240 labourers—not so large a number as in 1905, owing to the increased use of machinery. The

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.



ON THE KLANG RIVER.

Foremost among the agricultural enterprises of the State is rubber growing. The Government has exerted itself to the utmost in the

Klang, the next town of importance, is the centre of one of the largest agricultural districts in the Federated Malay States, an area of



84,000 acres having been alienated for cultivation, of which about 34,000 acres are under Para rubber. The district has a population of

The chief towns in the Ulu Selangor district are Kuala Kubu, Serendah, Rawang, Rasu, Ulu Yam Bharu, and Kalumpung. The principal

perous town of from 3,000 to 4,000 inhabitants. A motor-bus service in connection with the Federated Malay States Railway runs to Pahang, and passes "The Gap," where a Government bungalow invites the traveller to stay awhile. Another hill-station is situated on Bukit Kutu, commonly known as "Traacher's Hill," after a former British Resident of Selangor. There are two hungalows 3,464 feet above sea-level, and the temperature is refreshing to the jaded plain-dweller, whilst the



GENERAL VIEW OF KUALA KUBU.

about 32,000, including over 200 Europeans. The town itself, which has a population of 8,000, lies near the mouth of the river. It is the seat of the Sultans of Selangor, and originally was the capital of the State. It was also formerly the port for Selangor, and it was a serious blow to the town when Port Swettenham was opened; but, fortunately, with the advent of rubber came a rapid rise in its prosperity. In regard to general health Klang stands a monument to the effectiveness of anti-malarial measures. Years ago it was one of the worst fever districts in the State, but drainage and improved sanitation have changed it into a healthy town, in which a European may live quite comfortably and enjoy complete immunity from malaria.

The club, which, like the new Istana (or Sultan's palace), overlooks the padang, has a large membership, and is the centre of the social life of the neighbourhood. There is a little English Church at Klang, and excellent educational facilities are provided by the Anglo-Chinese School. The District Hospital has recently been extended.

A new steel bridge is shortly to be built over the Klang river at an estimated cost of about £20,000. This bridge will consist of four spans of 140 feet each, supported on cylindrical piers, each of an estimated depth of 90 feet. It is expected that it will be opened for traffic by the end of 1908. Klang is about half an hour's railway journey from Kuala Lumpur, and the neighbourhood is opened up by good roads. There is an abundant supply of good water.

Port Swettenham, though only a small town at present, is rapidly coming into prominence by reason of the deep water anchorage it offers to ocean-going vessels, and because of its proximity to Kuala Lumpur. Liners can wharf alongside the railway line, and excellent provision has been made for handling and warehousing merchandise. There is a regular service of coasting steamers between Port Swettenham and the other ports of British Malaya.

occupation of the inhabitants is mining, for which 19,360 acres have been opened up, and 144,300 acres remain available. An area of 58,849 acres has been taken up for rubber



SULTAN'S PALACE, KLANG.

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, 17 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 townships in the district are Ulu Langat, Cheras,



OYSTER BED AT PULAU ANGSA (ISLAND OF GEESE).  
(Fifteen miles from Port Swettenham).

planting and general agriculture. Kuala Kubu, which lies on the main line, at a distance of 39 miles from Kuala Lumpur, is a growing, pros-

Semenyih, and Beranang, near the Negri Sembilan border. The district is drained by the Langat river.

## NEGRI SAMBILAN.



A COUNTRY ROAD NEAR  
SEREMBAN.

THE Negri Sambilan, or Nine States, originally consisted of Klang, which has now been absorbed into the State of Selangor, Sungei Ujong, Jelebu, Sri Menanti, Rembau, Johol, Jempol, Inas, and Gemencheh. The territory now known as the Negri Sambilan comprises an area of about 2,600 square miles, extending from latitude  $2^{\circ} 24'$  North to latitude  $3^{\circ} 11'$  North, and from longitude  $101^{\circ} 50'$  East to longitude  $102^{\circ} 45'$  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 (2,695 feet), and the Gunong Tampin (1,800 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,

Gemencheh, and Gemas. Other streams which empty themselves into the Straits are the Sungei Sepang, which forms part of the Selangor boundary line, the Sungei Linggi, and the Sungei Lukut. On the other side of the range the Sungei Triang rises, and, after receiving the waters of the Kenaboi, Pertang, and Jeram rivers, flows into the Pahang river.

The population of the State, estimated at 121,763, has increased considerably since 1901, when the census returns showed a total of 96,028, made up of 64,565 males and 31,463 females. This great disparity between the sexes is noticeable throughout the Eastern States, and is, of course, due to the large number of male immigrants.

The chief source of revenue, as with the other States, is in the export of tin, but this industry is not conducted on a scale comparable with Perak or Selangor. New country is, however, being opened up by the construction of roads and railways, and it is hoped that new fields will thus be found. Rubber planting is in an exceedingly prosperous condition, and it is possible to travel for miles by road and railway through country entirely planted with rubber, or cleared for the cultivation of this product. Other products are coconuts, tapioca, coffee, and rice.

The main line of railway runs through the State from Selangor to Johore, and a new line is to be constructed immediately from Gemas, the junction of the Johore line, to run through Pahang to the north-east of the peninsula. There is a branch line connecting Seremban with Port Dickson.

The revenue of the State amounted in 1906 to 2,487,090 dollars, an increase of 151,555 dollars over that of 1905, and more than twenty times the amount of the revenue in 1876. The expenditure in 1906 was 2,274,337 dollars, or 60,243 dollars more than in the preceding year. In 1876 the expenditure was only 104,538 dollars. The State has a credit balance of 1,311,049 dollars.

Negri Sambilan is divided into five districts



THE RAJAS OF NEGRI SAMBILAN AND FOLLOWERS.

for administrative purposes—the Coast, Seremban, Jelevu, 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.

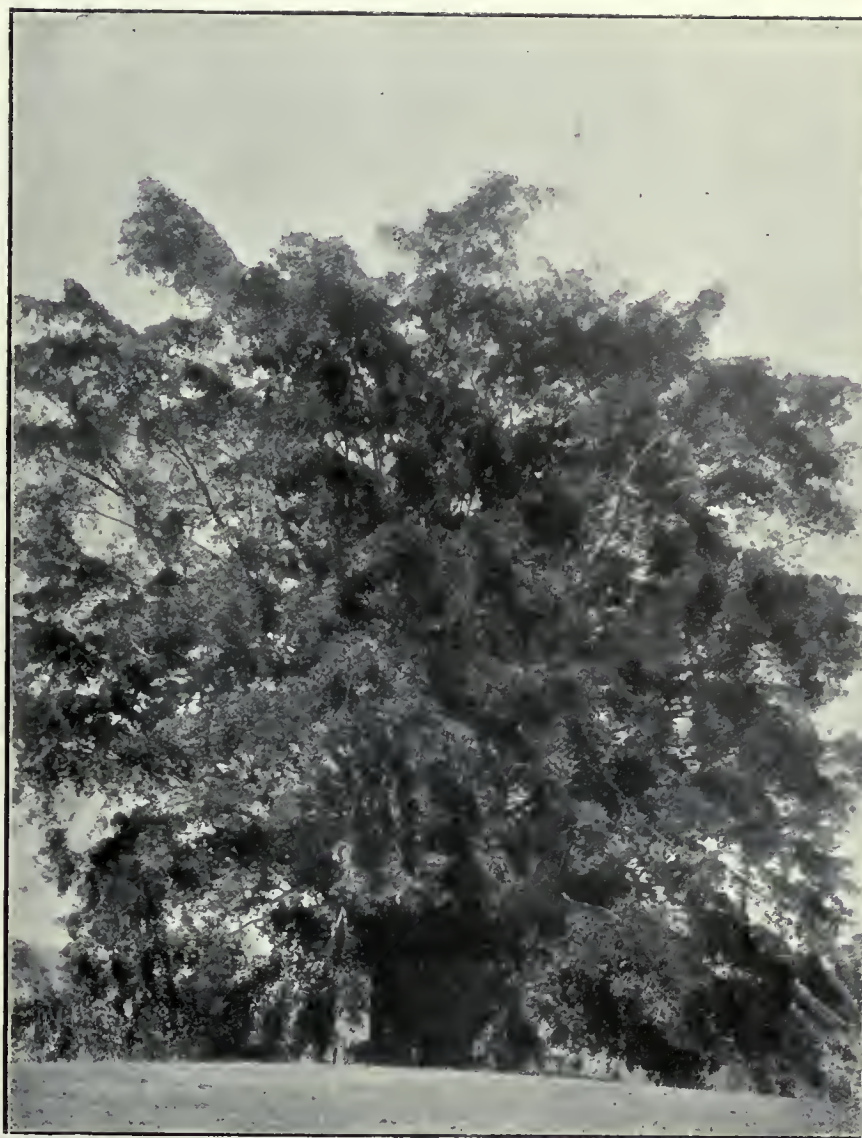
The general sanitary condition of the town is satisfactory, and there will be an ample supply of good water when the water-works, now in course of construction, are completed. There are excellent schools and up-to-date hospital accommodation. The European section of the community consists mainly of civil 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 Menengok, on Gunong Angsi, at a height of 2,626 feet above sea-level, is a hill sanitarium for Europeans.

Port Dickson, the principal town in the Coast District, is 25 miles by rail from Seremban. About 70,714 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.

Jelevu is a mountainous district. The chief town, Kuala Klawang, is about 25 miles by road



THE FAMOUS BANYAN TREE AT JELEBU, VENERATED BY MALAYS.



VIEW OF JELEBU.

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 Jelevu 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 HON. MR. CECIL WRAY.  
(British Resident, Pahang.)

THE total area of the Federated Malay States is 26,380 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 Sembilan; and on the west by Perak and Selangor. It lies between latitudes  $2^{\circ} 30'$  and  $4^{\circ} 50'$  N., and longitudes  $101^{\circ} 30'$  and  $103^{\circ} 40'$  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, 7,050 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 (6,900 feet) and Bukit Raka, in the western hills; Gunong Kenering and Gunong Bakau in the north; Gunong Pallas in the east, from

The principal river in the State is the Pahang river, swelled by the waters of the Tembeling and Jelai rivers. These in turn receive tribute from numerous streams. Into the Tembeling flow the Sungei Tahan, the Sungei Kendiam, the Sungei Jentoh, the Sungei Benus, the Sungei Tekai, 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 Sungei Bentong and Sungei Bilut; the Sungei Triang and Sungei Bera, which flow from the hills on the Negri Sembilan boundary; and the Sungei Lui and Sungei 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



MRS. WRAY.

which runs the formidable chain of hills dividing the Temerloh and Kuantan districts; and Gunong Gayong in the south, from which the Sungei Rompin flows.

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



VIEWS IN PAHANG.

SORTING FISH ON THE BEACH, BESRAH.  
ON THE KUANTAN RIVER.

TUBA FISHING IN THE PAHANG RIVER.  
SUNGEI PARUT, PEKAN.

LIMESTONE MOUNTAIN ON THE KUANTAN RIVER.



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 opposed to lampans workings, in 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 detritus from the stanniferous granite formation. In Pahang there has been less detritus, with the result that there is less alluvial tin and less overburden. But while the lombongs in Pahang are poor, the lampans 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. It would seem 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 slate country is reached, and here, in the centre line of the State, gold 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 150 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 European may, if he takes due regard 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 cart-roads, 5 miles of gravelled roads, 86 miles of earth roads, 28½ miles of bridle-paths, and 145 miles of other paths. From Kuala Kubu, in Selangor, an excellent road runs 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 Sembilan, 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, while others are accessible only to small native dug-outs, or sampans. In time, however, will come the railway. Already the permanent survey between Gemas, in Negri Sembilan, and Kuala Semantan, on the Pahang river, has been completed, and a commencement will soon be made with this extension. From Kuala Semantan three trial surveys have been carried out. The first runs due north to

Kuala Tembeling, roughly following the course of the Pahang river; and the second bears to the westward and then north to Kuala Lipis *via* Bentong. The first line, if made, will form part of the main trunk railway, starting from Gemas and running to the east of the Gunung 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 trial survey runs from Kuala Semantan to Kuantan, and this railway, if made, will form a branch line to the seaport 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.

administrative purposes: Pekan, 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 252,346 dollars, Temerloh 19,559 dollars, Pekan 53,711 dollars, and Kuantan 159,484 dollars; and if it be borne in mind that of 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



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 650,718 dollars, and the expenditure to 1,434,353 dollars, as compared with 528,368 and 1,208,176 dollars respectively in 1905, and with 62,077 and 297,702 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 4,366,568 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, 78,329 dollars; customs, 290,651 dollars; and licences, &c., 147,907 dollars. Under expenditure the heaviest item was that of 653,073 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 3,770,325 dollars. To this total tin contributed no less than 3,090,124 dollars, the duty paid on it amounting to 276,672 dollars. Gold is exported more largely than from any other State in the Federation, and amounted to 10,728 oz., valued at 367,817 dollars. A considerable trade is carried on in dry and salt fish. Other articles of export are guttas and tapioca. The acreage under rubber at the close of the year was approximately 12,000 acres, although only two years previously there were but 245 acres under this product. The imports during the twelve months under review were worth 1,194,921 dollars.

The State is divided into five districts for

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 are 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, is 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 7½ 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 18,261 piculs, 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.

Temerloh is chiefly an agricultural district, the population being to a great extent confined to small villages scattered along the banks of the rivers. 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.

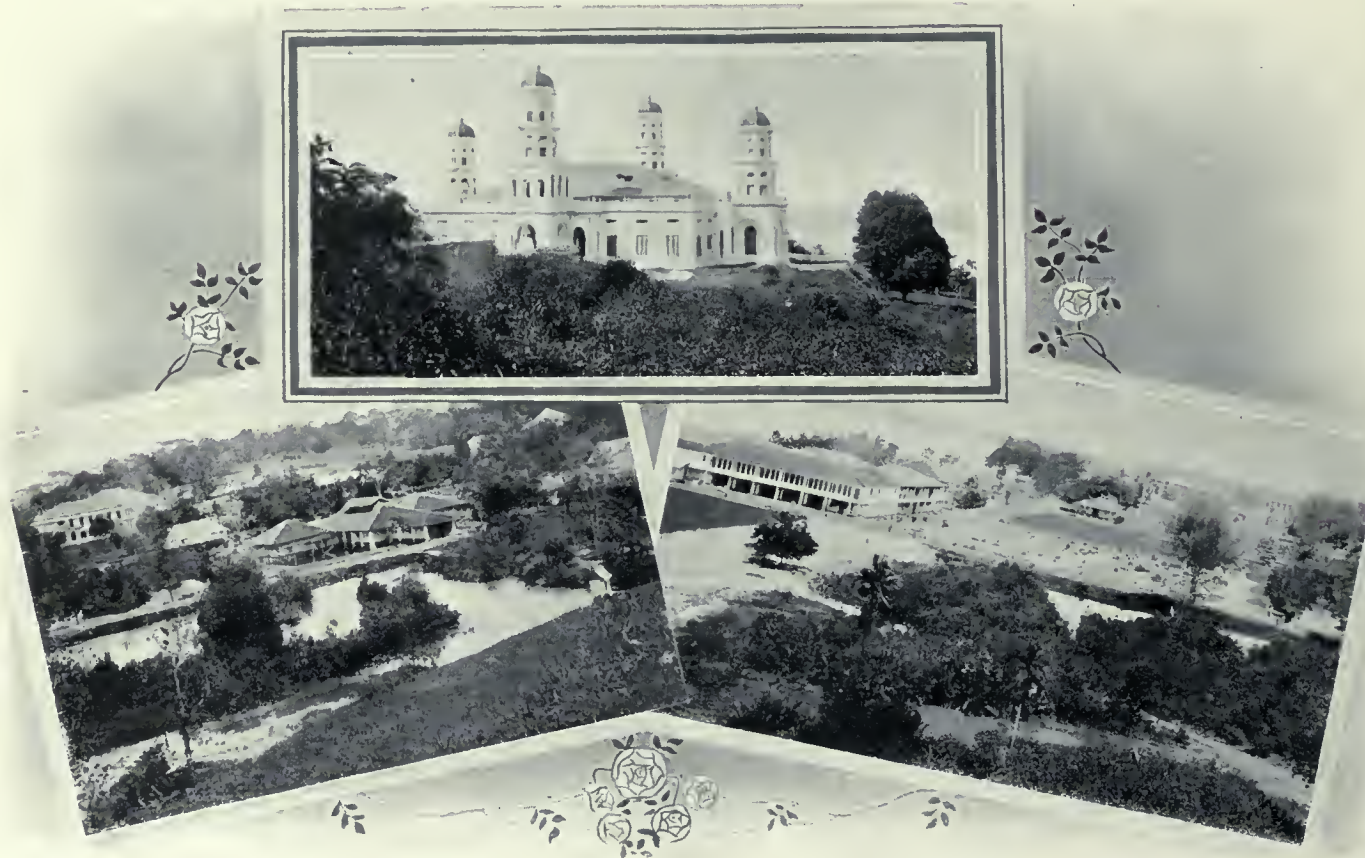
## JOHORE.

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

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



THE MOSQUE, AND VIEWS OF JOHORE FROM THE FORT.

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.

one or two districts. Iron is plentiful all over the State, but so far it has not been worked, owing to the absence of coal.

The population of the State is, approximately, 250,000, of whom no fewer than 200,000 are Chinese. The trade is almost entirely in the hands of the Chinese, and passes through Singapore. Recently, widespread attention has been drawn to the commercial potentialities of the State, and several large tracts have been opened up and planted with rubber by Euro-

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 con-

stitution promulgated in 1895. The annual revenue of the State is 1,500,000 dollars, derived principally from import taxes and opium and gambling farms.

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 Mahomedan 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-lan. 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.

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

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



DATO' MAJOR ABDULLAH.  
(State Commissioner, Muar.)

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 the bulk of the gambier, pepper,



H.H. IBRAHIM, D.K., D.M.J., K.C.M.G., SULTAN OF JOHORE.

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.

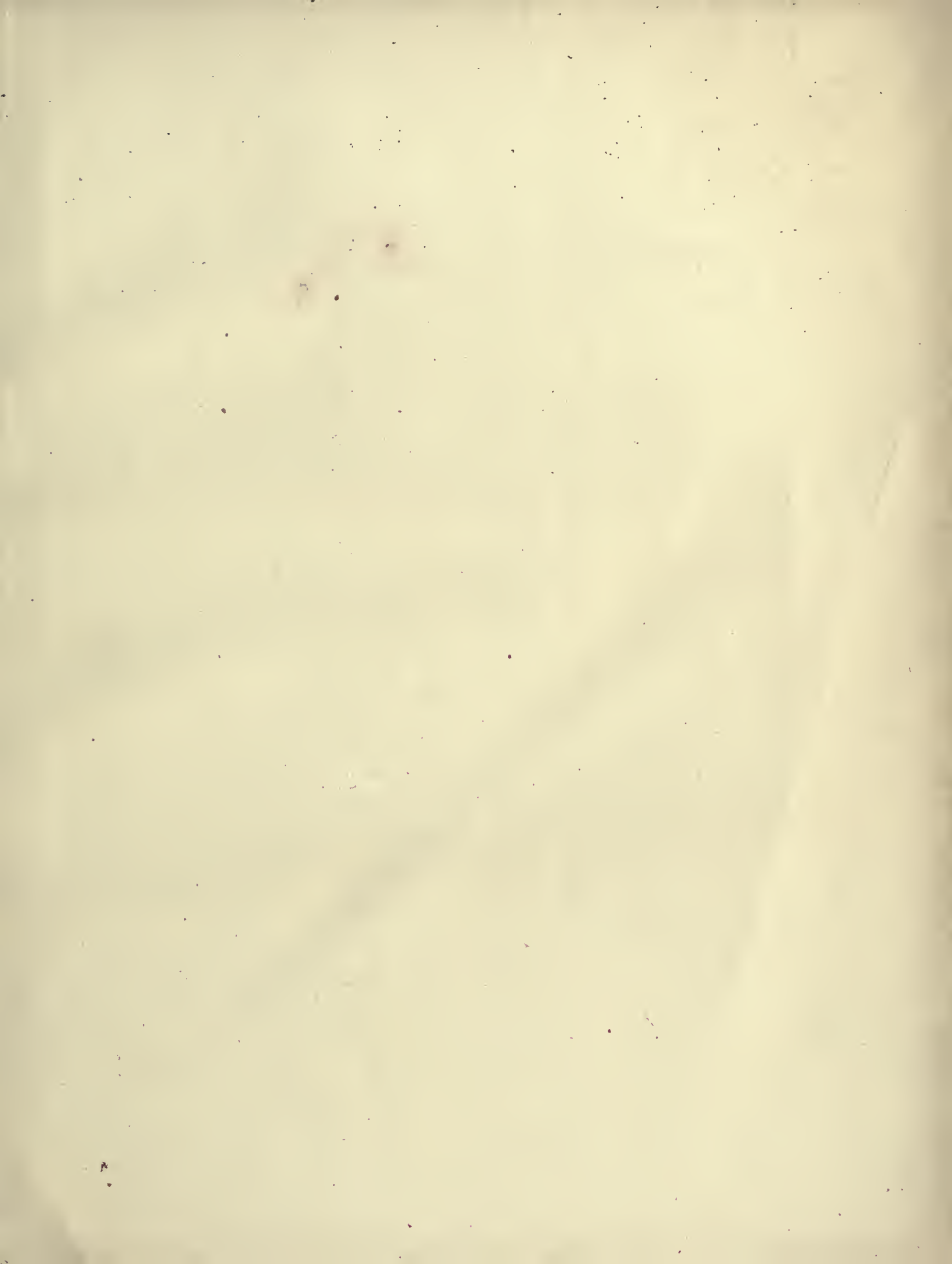
His Highness Ibrahim, Sultan of the

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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