CIHM
Microfiche
Series
(Monographs)

ICMH
Collection de
microfiches
(monographies)

Canadian Institute for Historical Microreproductions / Institut canadien de microreproductions historiques

©1997

Technical and Bibliographic Notes / Notes techniques et bibliographiques

The Institute has attempted to obtain the best original copy available for filming. Features of this copy which may be bibliographically unique, which may alter any of the images in the reproduction, or which may significantly change the usual method of filming are checked below.

- [ ] Coloured covers / Couverture de couleur
- [ ] Covers damaged / Couverture endommagée
- [ ] Covers restored and/or laminated / Couverture restaurée et/ou pelliculée
- [ ] Cover title missing / Le titre de couverture manque
- [x] Coloured maps / Cartes géographiques en couleur
- [ ] Coloured ink (i.e. other than blue or black) / Encre de couleur (i.e. autre que bleue ou noire)
- [ ] Coloured plates and/or illustrations / Planches et/ou illustrations en couleur
- [ ] Bound with other material / Relié avec d'autres documents
- [ ] Only edition available / Seule édition disponible
- [ ] Tight binding may cause shadows or distortion along interior margin / La reliure serrée peut causer de l'ombre ou de la distorsion le long de la marge intérieure.
- [ ] Blank leaves added during restorations may appear within the text. Whenever possible, these have been omitted from filming / Il se peut que certaines pages blanches ajoutées lors d'une restauration apparaissent dans le texte, mais, lorsque cela était possible, ces pages n'ont pas été filmées.
- [x] Additional comments / Commentaires supplémentaires: Various pagings.

L'Institut a microfilmé le meilleur exemplaire qu'il lui a été possible de se procurer. Les détails de cet exemplaire qui sont peut-être uniques du point de vue bibliographique, qui peuvent modifier une image reproduite, ou qui peuvent exiger une modification dans la méthode normale de filmage sont indiqués ci-dessous.

- [ ] Coloured pages / Pages de couleur
- [ ] Pages damaged / Pages endommagées
- [ ] Pages restored and/or laminated / Pages restaurées et/ou pelliculées
- [x] Pages discoloured, stained or foxed / Pages décolorées, tachetées ou piquées
- [ ] Pages detached / Pages détachées
- [x] Showthrough / Transparence
- [ ] Quality of print varies / Qualité inégale de l'impression
- [ ] Includes supplementary material / Comprend du matériel supplémentaire
- [ ] Pages wholly or partially obscured by errata slips, tissues, etc., have been refilmed to ensure the best possible image / Les pages totalement ou partiellement obscurcies par un feuillet d'errata, une pelure, etc., ont été filmées à nouveau de façon à obtenir la meilleure image possible.
- [ ] Opposing pages with varying colouration or discolourations are filmed twice to ensure the best possible image / Les pages s'opposant ayant des colorations variables ou des décolorations sont filmées deux fois afin d'obtenir la meilleure image possible.

This item is filmed at the reduction ratio checked below /
Ce document est filmé au taux de réduction indiqué ci-dessous.

10x 12x 14x 16x 18x 20x ✓ 22x 24x 26x 28x 30x 32x

The copy filmed here has been reproduced thanks to the generosity of:

National Library of Canada

The images appearing here are the best quality possible considering the condition and legibility of the original copy and in keeping with the filming contract specifications.

Original copies in printed paper covers are filmed beginning with the front cover and ending on the last page with a printed or illustrated impression, or the back cover when appropriate. All other original copies are filmed beginning on the first page with a printed or illustrated impression, and ending on the last page with a printed or illustrated impression.

The last recorded frame on each microfiche shall contain the symbol —▶ (meaning "CONTINUED"), or the symbol ▼ (meaning "END"), whichever applies.

Maps, plates, charts, etc., may be filmed at different reduction ratios. Those too large to be entirely included in one exposure are filmed beginning in the upper left hand corner, left to right and top to bottom, as many frames as required. The following diagrams illustrate the method:

L'exemplaire filmé fut reproduit grâce à la générosité de:

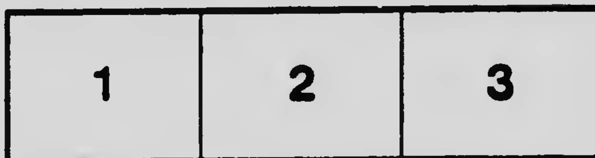
Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

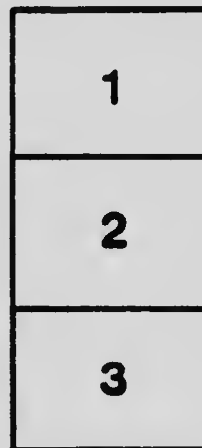
Les images suivantes ont été reproduites avec le plus grand soin, compte tenu de la condition et de la netteté de l'exemplaire filmé, et en conformité avec les conditions du contrat de filmage.

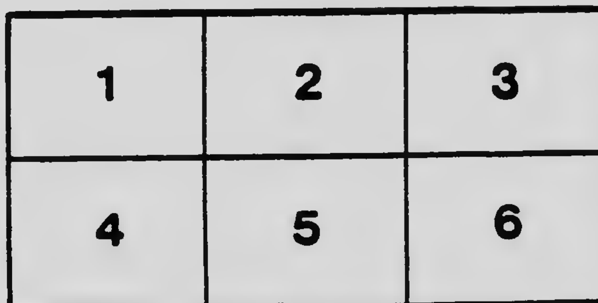
Les exemplaires originaux dont la couverture en papier est imprimée sont filmés en commençant par le premier plat et en terminant soit par la dernière page qui comporte une empreinte d'impression ou d'illustration, soit par le second plat, selon le cas. Tous les autres exemplaires originaux sont filmés en commençant par la première page qui comporte une empreinte d'impression ou d'illustration et en terminant par la dernière page qui comporte une telle empreinte.

Un des symboles suivants apparaîtra sur la dernière image de chaque microfiche, selon le cas: le symbole —▶ signifie "A SUIVRE", le symbole ▼ signifie "FIN".

Les cartes, planches, tableaux, etc., peuvent être filmés à des taux de réduction différents. Lorsque le document est trop grand pour être reproduit en un seul cliché, il est filmé à partir de l'angle supérieur gauche, de gauche à droite, et de haut en bas, en prenant le nombre d'images nécessaire. Les diagrammes suivants illustrent la méthode.

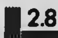


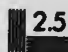


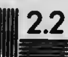


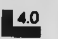
MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

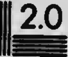
(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)

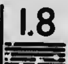


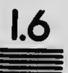




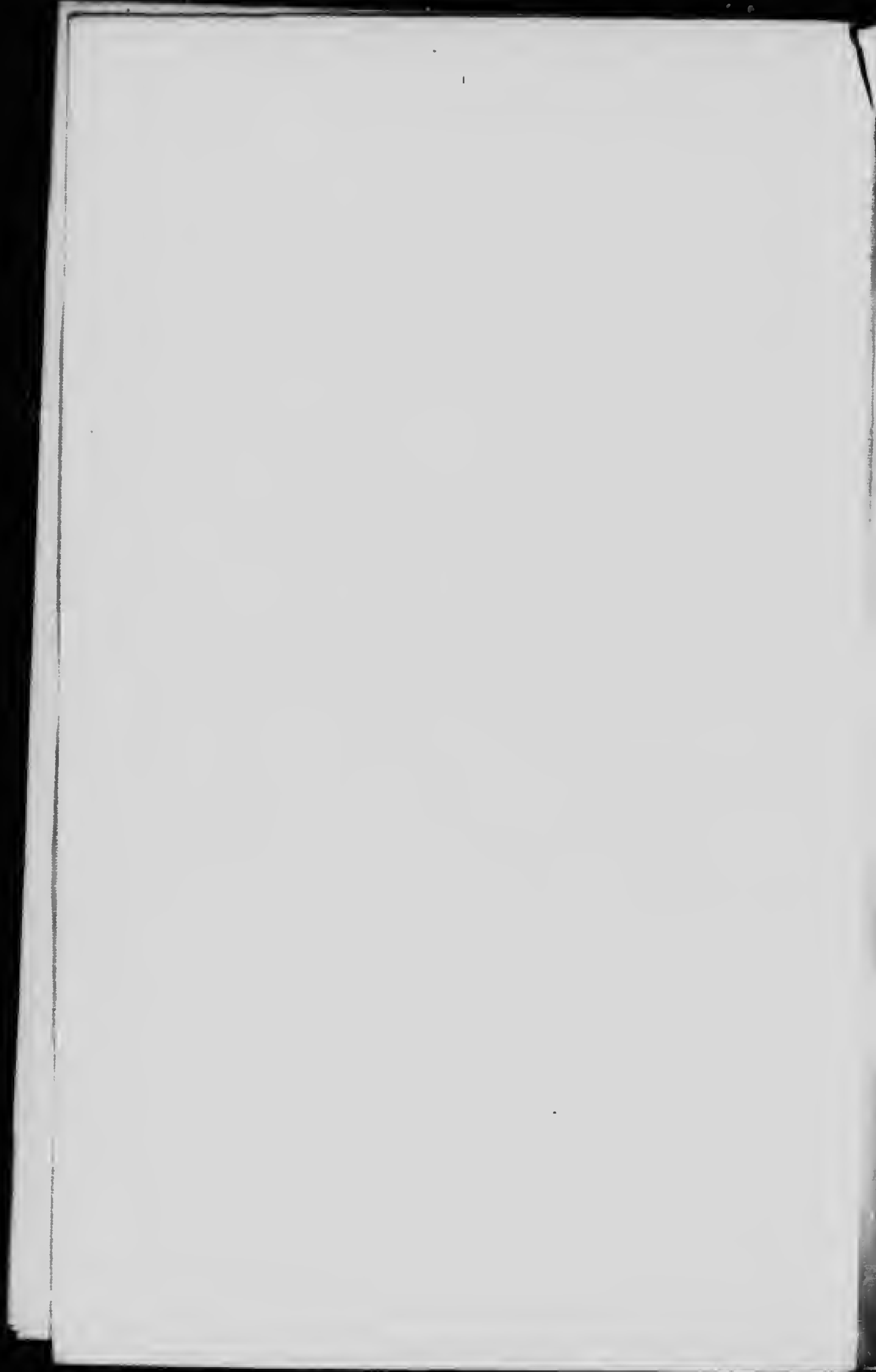








APPLIED IMAGE Inc
1653 East Main Street
Rochester, New York 14609 USA
(716) 482 - 0300 - Phone
(716) 288 - 5989 - Fax



A

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY

OF THE BRITISH COLONIES

LUCAS

London

HENRY FROWDE

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS WAREHOUSE

AMEN CORNER, E.C.

A HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES

BY

C. P. LUCAS, B.A.

OF BALLIOL COLLEGE, OXFORD
AND THE COLONIAL OFFICE, LONDON

VOL. I

Oxford
AT THE CLARENDON PRESS
1888

[*All rights reserved*]

JV1026
L9
1900
c.2
v.1

PREFACE.

THE pages o this book relating to Malta and Cyprus have been written mainly by Mr. R. L. Antrobus of the Colonial Office, who will undertake one or more of any succeeding parts of the Geography.

Most of the book is issued with the help of special local knowledge.

Among many others to whom I am indebted for revision and correction, are Sir T. O'Brien, K.C.M.G., Governor of Heligoland, as regards that colony; Mr. A. Gray, Barrister-at-law, and late of the Ceylon Civil Service, as to the part on Ceylon and the Maldives; Mr. F. A. Swettenham, C.M.G., British Resident in Selangor, as to the part dealing with the Malay peninsula; and Mr. F. R. Round, C.M.G., of the Colonial Office, as regards Mauritius.

I must also acknowledge the help derived from the invaluable Colonial Office List.

is almost impossible in a book of this kind to keep the d. .ls entirely up to date; but the latest figures have been given as far as possible, and it will be, I hope, remembered that the aim of the book is to give a description of the Colonies in subordination to their history, and as connected parts of an empire rather than as separate entities[1].

August, 1888.

C. P. LUCAS.

[1] Since this book was finished, the territory of the British North Borneo Company and the State of Sarawak have both been brought under British Protectorate

CONTENTS.

SECTION I.

THE EUROPEAN DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

	PAGE
PREFACE	1
CHAP. I. *Heligoland*	3
CHAP. II. *The Mediterranean Colonies and Cyprus*	7
Preliminary remarks. Gibraltar. Malta. Cyprus. Concluding remarks.	

SECTION II.

THE MINOR ASIATIC DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

PREFACE	50
CHAP. I. *The British Dependencies at the mouth of the Red Sea*	53
Aden and Perim. Socotra.	
CHAP. II. *Ceylon and the Maldives*	65
CHAP. III. *The British Dependencies in the Malay Seas*	95
The Straits Settlements and the Native States of the Malay Peninsula [Perak, Selangor, Sungei Ujong]. Labuan. North Borneo.	
CHAP. IV. *Hong Kong*	133

SECTION III.

THE BRITISH DEPENDENCIES IN THE INDIAN OCEAN.

CHAP. I. *Mauritius and its Dependencies*	143
Mauritius. Seychelles. Rodrigues. The minor dependencies. Appendix.	
CHAP. II. *The Cocos Islands*	182

LIST OF MAPS.

1. Map of Heligoland	*To face Page*	3
2. Map of Mediterranean (including map of Gibraltar)	,, ,,	7
3. Map of Malta (including map of Valletta) .	,, ,,	13
4. Map of Cyprus	,, ,,	31
5. Map of Indian Ocean and South coast of Asia, showing the British Dependencies	,, ,,	51
6. Map of Aden and Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb .	,, ,,	53
7. Map of Ceylon	,, ,,	65
8. Map of the Far East	,, ,,	95
9. Map of the Malay Peninsula (including map of Singapore)	,, ,,	105
10. Map of Labuan, North Borneo, and Hong Kong	,, ,,	127
11. Map of Mauritius	,, ,,	143

SECTION I.

THE EUROPEAN DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

PREFACE.

PREFACE.

THE European dependencies of Great Britain are Heligoland, Gibraltar, Malta with its dependent islands, and Cyprus, which, though not strictly speaking a British possession, is yet occupied and administered by Great Britain.

The following table shows the way in which, and the date at which, each was acquired, its area, and its population at the last census (1881):—

Name of dependency.	*How acquired.*	*Date.*	*Area in sq. miles.*	*Population.*
Heligoland	Taken	1807	$\frac{3}{4}$	2,001
Gibraltar	Taken	1704	2	18,381
Malta[1], &c.	Ceded	1800	117	149,782
Cyprus[2]	Occupied under treaty	1878	3584	186,173

Total area of European dependencies ... $3703\frac{3}{4}$ sq. miles.
Total population of ditto ... ... 356337.

These dependencies have much in common with one another. They are all the results of cession or conquest. With

[1] For the circumstances attending the cession of Malta, see under Malta, p. 21.

[2] Cyprus is taken as falling in the European Section with the other Mediterranean dependencies, rather than in the Asiatic

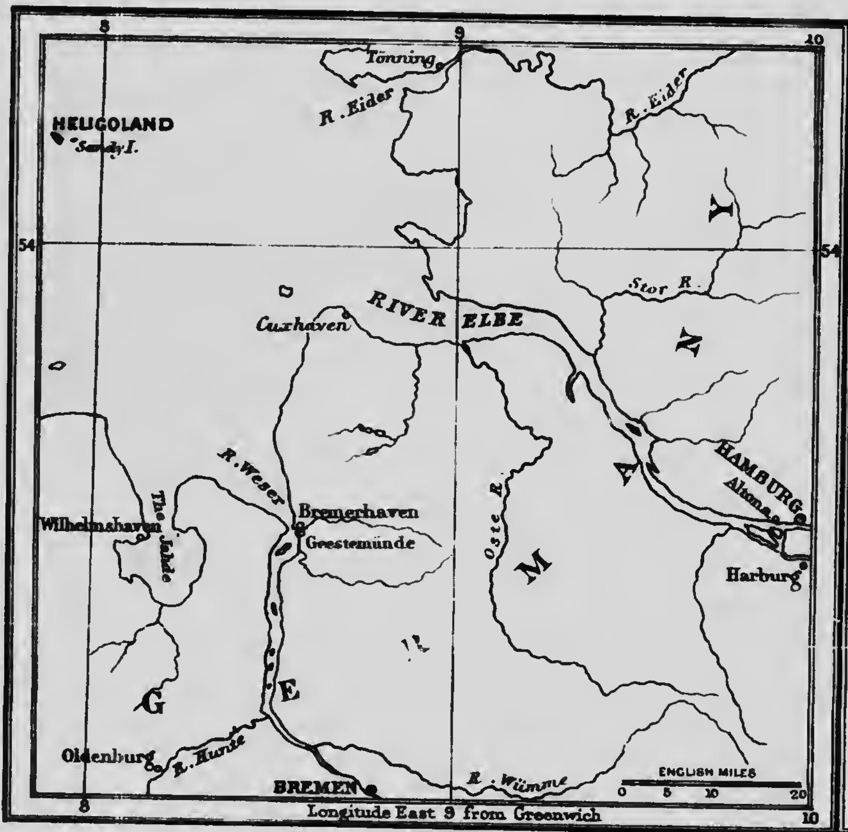
SECTION I.

the exception of Gibraltar, they are comparatively recent acquisitions. With the same exception, they are all islands, and Gibraltar itself is practically an island. Lastly, they all come under the category of outposts of the empire. Their value to Great Britain is for the most part indirect. They were occupied and are retained, not as possessing internal resources or as suitable homes for the English race, but simply as depôts, as footholds to keep open trade routes, or as links between more distant dependencies and the mother country[1].

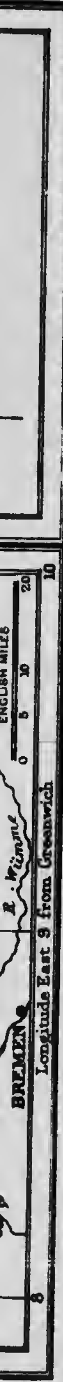
[1] The Channel Islands are in no sense Colonies. They are the only remaining part of the ancient duchy of Normandy, retained by the Queen as the Representative of its Dukes. They are governed by their own laws, and the intervention of the British Parliament in their affairs is extremely rare. In Professor Freeman's words (Historical Geography of Europe, chap. xiii), 'Practically the islands have during all changes remained attached to the English Crown, but they have never been incorporated with the kingdom.' Any business connected with them passes through the Home Office, not the Colonial Office.

ecent
ands,
ey all
Their
They
ernal
mply
links
try[1].

only
y the
their
affairs
raphy
anges
ncor-
asses



Oxford University Press



CHAPTER I.

HELIGOLAND.

Chapter I. — *History.*

HELIGOLAND, 'Holy Island,' was taken from Denmark in 1807, the year memorable for the bombardment and occupation of Copenhagen by an English force under Lord Cathcart, and for the capture of the whole Danish fleet. Its possession was formally secured to Great Britain by the treaty of Kiel in 1814.

Administration, &c.

The islanders were for a long time allowed to retain their old Frisian constitution. But in 1864 a new constitution was substituted for it; and finally, in 1868, the latter was abolished, and the legislative and executive authority was placed entirely in the hands of the governor, acting under instructions from the Colonial Office.

The governor is also judge of the Court of Sessions; and there is a magisterial court, presided over by a stipendiary magistrate.

Area and Geography.

From a map[1] claiming to have been found on the island, it would seem that Heligoland was at one time very much larger than it is at present. The area now, including Sandy Island, does not exceed three quarters of a square mile. The main island is a precipitous sandstone rock of triangular shape, with the apex towards the North-West and the open ocean, the base towards the South-East and Germany. The little town, at the South-Eastern corner, is divided into two parts, one placed at the top of the cliff, the other on the

[1] There is a chart in the Colonial Office Library, headed 'Plan of Heligoland from a map found on the island in the possession of Sir William Gell, showing the extent in the 8th, 13th, and 17th centuries.'

SECTION I.

beach below. A flight of steps leads up the cliff, which is some 170 feet high; and additional communication has lately been provided by means of a steam lift.

The strip of sand, known as Sandy Island, represents the remains of a large area of land, the rest of which has been swallowed up by the sea. Up to the year 1720 it was joined to the main island. Now it is nearly a mile away, but it is all important to the Heligolanders for the sea bathing which takes place from it, and which in summer time draws so many visitors to their shores[1].

Climate, &c.

Heligoland is in nearly the same latitude as Scarborough. The ocean gives it a temperate climate; and its healthiness is attested by the longevity of the people, whose average length of life is over 60, and by the extremely low rate of infant mortality. But, exposed as the rock is to all the winds and storms of the North Sea, it is hardly a tempting place for a winter residence, while for the same reason trees will grow only where they are protected from the wind. Almost the whole of the surface of the island, however, above the cliff is cultivated, mainly for potatoes.

Population, &c.

The inhabitants number slightly over 2000, the total being kept nearly stationary by emigration. They are of Frisian race and speak a Frisian dialect. They hold the Lutheran creed. Education is compulsory, and both English and German are taught in the government schools.

Industries.

The Heligolanders depend almost entirely on lobster and deep sea fishing, and on the proceeds of the bathing season. The former source of income is somewhat precarious from want of a proper harbour; the latter was threatened by the inroads, which a few years back the sea was perpetually making on Sandy Island, but which have latterly been more than checked. The curing of bird skins has now become an industry of some importance. In old days pilotage em-

[1] The number in 1887, in addition to day excursionists, was over 9000: the large majority being, of course, Germans.

ployed a considerable number of the inhabitants: and from 1830 to 1871 gaming tables were one of the attractions of the island.

To ornithologists[1] Heligoland is well known as a point of observation for the migration of birds, great flights of which make the island a temporary resting place.

Finances.

Import duties form the principal item of the local revenue. The finances have steadily improved under the care of the present governor, the public debt has been paid off, and the normal receipts now cover the necessary expenditure, with the exception of the governor's salary, which, since Danish times, has been always paid by the mother country.

English and German coins are both current in the island.

Position and general résumé.

Heligoland is reached from England viâ the continent in about 30 hours. Steamers ply between the island and Cuxhaven at the mouth of the Elbe twice a week during the winter. During the summer months there is more than daily communication with the mainland, from Hamburg direct, from Cuxhaven on the Elbe, and from Bremerhaven on the Weser. The ordinary time taken on the sea passage is about an hour and a half. The island is some 25 miles from the mouth of the Elbe, and about the same distance from the mouth of the Weser. It thus commands the great outlets to the sea of German trade from Hamburg and Bremen; and it commands also the entrance to the naval station of Wilhelmshaven on the Jahde, and to the small port of Tönning on the Eider.

It was no doubt occupied in the first instance on account of its possible importance as a strategical and commercial position. But it has at the present time no fortifications, and no garrison beyond a few members of the coastguard, and relies for protection upon the fleet of its adopted mother country.

[1] The government secretary, Herr Gätke, has a collection of birds shot on the island, which is almost unrivalled of its kind.

SECTION I.

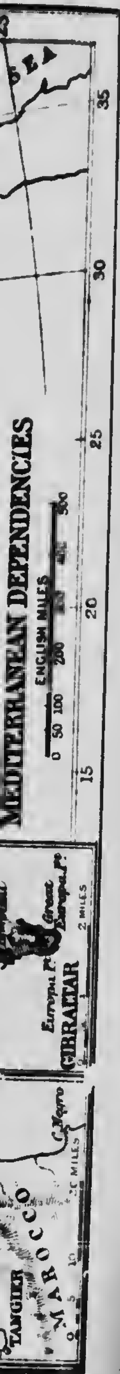
Heligoland is the smallest of all the British dependencies. It derives its revenue to a great extent from foreign visitors. It is interesting as being the point at which Great Britain and Germany come most nearly into contact with each other, and as being the only part of the world in which the British government rules an exclusively Teuton though not English-speaking population.

N.

cies.
tors.
and
and
itish
lish-

MAP OF
MEDITERRANEAN DEPENDENCIES

ENGLISH MILES
0 50 100 200 300 400 500



CHAPTER II.

THE MEDITERRANEAN COLCNIES AND CYPRUS.

CHAPTER II.

THE three dependencies of Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus, are well placed for commanding the trade of the Mediterranean and the route to the East and Australia.

Gibraltar is at the Western opening of the inland sea. Cyprus is at its Eastern extremity, nearer than any other of the Levantine islands to Egypt and the Suez cana' Malta is in the centre, half-way between Gibraltar and Cyprus, and near the coasts of Italy and Tunis,—the two points in the circle of the Mediterranean which in old days justified the advantages of their natural position by giving to Rome and Carthage pre-eminence over their neighbours.

Distances.

The distance by sea from Plymouth to Gibraltar is 1050 nautical miles; from Gibraltar to Malta 980; from Malta to Port Said about 940,and to Cyprus rather under 1000 miles; and from Cyprus to Port Said 250 miles.

The land route from England to Gibraltar is through France and Spain. Malta is reached from Marseilles, Naples, or Sicily, in four to five days from leaving England. Marseilles, Trieste, or the Italian ports of Venice or Brindisi, are the ordinary starting-points for Cyprus, the whole journey from England to that island usually taking not less than ten days.

SECTION I.

The history of these three dependencies has followed their geography. They have been in past times points at which Europe and the East, Christianity and Mohammedanism, have met. And, if they have now passed into the hands of a Christian power from the North of Europe, their present owner has, beyond all Western nations, an interest in the East, and has become the sovereign of a large multitude of Mohammedan peoples.

GIBRALTAR.

History.

A CERTAIN amount of romance attaches to the possession of Gibraltar apart from its actual value to England. It has long been regarded as the ideal fortress of a naval power.

Known to the Ancients as Calpe, one of the Pillars of Hercules, which bounded the horizon of the Mediterranean, it passed at the beginning of the 8th century A.D. into Moorish hands. [1] In July 710 A.D. a company of Moors crossed the Strait of Gibraltar to Tarifa and Algeçiras; and in the following spring a Moorish force, destined for the conquest of Spain, occupied the rock and laid the foundations of the present Moorish castle. The name of their commander was Tarik, and Gebal Tarik or 'Tarik's hill' has been corrupted into the modern Gibraltar.

Gibraltar was not finally retaken by the Spaniards until the year 1462. For some time after that date it was owned by the dukes of Medina Sidonia: and finally in 1502, Ferdinand and Isabella, in their work of consolidating Spain, annexed its Southern outpost to the kingdom of Castille. The Spanish government made Gibraltar a penal station—an example which was followed, after it had passed into English hands. They employed the convicts in repairing and strengthening the fortifications; and a more complete

[1] See Gibbon, chap. li.

system of defences was subsequently carried out by the orders of the emperor Charles the Fifth.

CHAPTER II.

In 1704, during the war of the Spanish succession, Gibraltar was taken, after a three days' siege, by an English force under Sir George Rooke; and in 1713 it was formally ceded to Great Britain under the tenth article of the treaty of Utrecht—a treaty engagement, the bearing of which has given rise to much diplomatic controversy. Of the many attempts to retake it, the last and most celebrated was the great siege of Gibraltar in 1779–1783; when General Eliott [afterwards Lord Heathfield] held it for three years and seven months against a combined French and Spanish force. His fine defence of the rock seemed to show the uselessness of further attempts to recover it by force, and on the other hand left a deep and lasting impression on the minds of the English people. Henceforward sentiment combined with motives of interest to perpetuate the British occupation[1].

Administration, &c.

Gibraltar remains to this day more of a fortress than a civil community. Although in 1830 a certain amount of civil rights was conceded to its inhabitants, the Legislative and Executive power is vested solely in the hands of the governor; and the governor is always a general officer, having under his military command a garrison of some 5000 men. Justice is administered by a chief justice of the Supreme Court and by a police magistrate.

So strict is the régime, and so carefully is the military character of the dependency maintained, that aliens are not allowed to enter or remain in the town without a special permit of some kind: the character of the pass given depending on the object of the visit and its intended duration. Where the space available for living is so narrowly confined, there are obvious sanitary as well as military and political reasons for limiting the numbers of the resident population;

[1] Some interesting remarks as to the morality of keeping Gibraltar will be found in Morley's Life of Cobden, chap. iv.

SECTION I.

and the mortality, caused by fever and cholera epidemics in past years, is a practical justification of stringent measures against overcrowding.

Area and Geography.

Gibraltar is, next to Heligoland, the smallest dependency of Great Britain, having an area of about two square miles. The promontory, which stretches out nearly due South, between the bay of Gibraltar on the West and the Mediterranean on the East, is some $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length, with a maximum breadth of $\frac{3}{4}$ mile. It rises at its highest point to nearly 1400 feet. The Northern and Eastern sides are almost inaccessible. The Southern side is also very precipitous, the heights descending abruptly to the Windmill Hill plateau, and thence to the Europa flats, which terminate in the cliff of Europa Point. On the Western side alone is there something of a gradual slope; and here the town lies, stretching from North to South along the bay. It is divided by the Alameda public gardens into the North and South Towns, the former, which is nearer to Spain, containing the main bulk of the buildings.

The promontory of Gibraltar is joined to the mainland by a sandy isthmus. The part of this isthmus nearest to the rock and reached by a causeway along the Western shore, is counted as British territory and known as the 'North Front.' It is the playground of the garrison and residents of Gibraltar, containing the race-course, cricket ground, and an esplanade along the Eastern beach. Here also are the cemeteries and slaughter-houses, and the wells from which the town derives the bulk of its water supply, the water being pumped up into tanks within the fortress. Beyond the 'North Front' is the 'Neutral Ground,' lying between the British and the Spanish lines.

Fortifications.

The land side of Gibraltar with the North-Western corner towards the bay is commanded by the famous galleries in the cliff. There are two ranges, hewn out of the rock, one above the other; the excavation having been begun at the

time of the great siege. As regards the rest of the fortress, batteries have been erected at various points of vantage, and a sea-wall and breakwater protects the face of the town.

Climate and Health.

The climate of Gibraltar is subtropical. The sheltered position of the town makes the heat of the summer months more oppressive than would otherwise be the case; and the air, which reaches it from the East, comes too often in the form of the damp, heavy, unhealthy wind, known as the 'Levanter.' The winter is also the rainy season, the average annual rainfall being much the same as in this country, though the amount varies very greatly from year to year.

The station is now a healthy one in consequence of extensive and costly works of sanitation, carried out in conjunction by the local Sanitary Commissioners, the War Office, and the Admiralty; and, if rock fever prevails from time to time, the death rate of the population will bear comparison with that of England and Wales.

Geology, fauna, flora, &c.

Being of limestone formation, the promontory abounds in natural caves, in which large quantities of fossil remains have been found, including many species of mammals. At present rabbits, foxes, badgers, goats, and a few monkeys are the chief living representatives of mammal life on the rock. On the other hand, considering the nature of the ground, the flowers, ferns and shrubs are at once numerous in quantity and varied in kind. In the spring the rock is covered with narcissus and other wild flowers, and one plant—an Iberis—is peculiar to Gibraltar.

Population.

The population of Gibraltar, excluding the garrison, numbers over 18,000. The inhabitants are mainly of Spanish descent, and Roman Catholics in religion. There is also a considerable number of residents of Jewish and of Maltese descent.

Trade, finance, &c.

Gibraltar has, of course, no home products to depend upon. Its trade is a transit trade; it is largely used as a port of call and coaling station for vessels plying between the Atlantic and the East, or between European ports and the North-

SECTION I.

West of Africa. Its revenue and expenditure now respectively amount to about £50,000 per annum. The revenue is derived mainly from Port dues, Crown rents, and duties on imported alcohol for home consumption. The currency of Gibraltar is the currency of Spain, accounts being kept in Pesetas and Centimos.

General résumé.

Considered as a part of the English empire Gibraltar possesses much interest. It is unique in the natural strength of its position. It is the Western gate of the Mediterranean and of the road to the East. And it brings Great Britain into direct contact with Spain, and gives her some thousands of Spanish-speaking subjects[1].

MALTA.

Its importance due to its position, its harbours, and its fortifications.

THE fortunate position of Malta between the two continents of Europe and Africa, and within easy reach of the Syrian coast of Asia, has made it, from the very earliest times, a place of importance to the races which have successively laid claim to the command of the Mediterranean Sea. In ancient times, the manufactures and commerce of the island appear to have raised it to a high degree of prosperity. Under the Byzantine Emperors, its commercial greatness declined; but the extent and safety of its natural harbours, and the world-renowned fortifications, begun by the Arabs, continued by the European nations who succeeded them, and completed with all the skill that Europe could afford by the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, gave it still greater value as a fortress, by means of which Christianity was successful in opposing the advance of the Turkish power. And now, in modern times, it has become, as a British possession, more important than ever, commanding as it

[1] The 'Gibraltar Directory,' published at the Garrison Library printing establishment at Gibraltar, gives a very full and interesting account of the dependency.

ow re-
The
ts, and
The
counts

oraltar
ength
anean
Britain
sands

con-
f the
rliest
cces-
Sea.
the
rity.
ness
ours,
abs,
em,
by
ater
was
ver.
tish
s it

int-
unt

MALTESE ISLANDS

ENGLISH MILES

0 1 2 3 4 5

Railway

GOZO

Cape San Dimitri

Rabato

Nadur

Xeuchia

Cominetto I.d

Comino I.d

MALTA

Melleha Bay

St. Paul's Bay

Torre Gineyna

Naxxar

Birchircara

Valletta

Citta Vecchia

Notabile

Zebbug

Dingli

Siggieui

Crendi

Tarxien

Zeitun

Micabba

Zabbar

Marsa Scala

Marsa Scirocco

Fifla I.d

VALLETTA

Sliema Cr.k

Lazaretto I.d

Dragut P.t

F.t Tigne

Lazaretto Cr.k

Marsamuscetto or Western H.r

F.t St. Elmo

VALLETTA

F.t Ricasoli

Fort St. Angelo

Grand Harbour

Dockyard

Calcara Cr.

Vittoriosa

Senglea

French Cr.

Floriana

The Marsa

Corradino

Cospicua

Longitude East 14° 5' of Greenwich

Oxford University Press

does, not merely the Mediterranean, but what is perhaps the greatest highway of the world.

CHAPTER II.

Historical interest of the Maltese people.

But, besides being in one sense one of the most valuable, it is also historically one of the most interesting, of the British possessions. It is not, like Gibraltar, little more than a fortress: but it is inhabited by a people who have a long and eventful history, who enjoyed in past ages a considerable measure of self-government, and whose aspirations, in so far as they are not incompatible with the safety of the fortress, are recognised by the British Government as entitled to be met.

Area of the Maltese islands.

It is usual to speak of Malta as if there were only one island: but there are really two principal islands, Malta and Gozo, and several smaller ones. The area of Gozo is only $24\frac{3}{4}$ square miles. Malta is $17\frac{1}{4}$ miles long and about 9 miles broad, and it has an area of $91\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, being thus not quite two-thirds of the size of the Isle of Wight[1]. The area of the whole group is about 117 square miles.

Whether they belong to Europe or to Africa.

It is an old question whether Malta should be regarded as belonging to Europe or to Africa. It is 60 miles from the nearest point in Sicily, and about 200 from the nearest in Africa. The palms, and other subtropical plants which flourish there, seem to assign it to Africa; but in its fauna, including the Maltese dog, which is mentioned by ancient writers and still survives, it is more like Europe. The matter has been settled as regards the service of British soldiers by an Act of Parliament declaring it to be in Europe. But geographically, at any rate, it [illegible] between the two continents: and it is owing to this f[illegible] and to its being also roughly halfway between Gibraltar on the west and Egypt on the east, that so many different nations have occupied it in turn. Phœnicians, Greeks, Carthaginians, Romans, Byzantine Greeks, Arabs, Normans, Germans, Angevins, Spaniards, French, and English, have held it in succession, not to

[1] The area of the Isle of Wight is about 145 square miles.

SECTION I.

mention the Knights of St. John, w' se numbers were recruited from all the chief peoples of Europe.

Phœnicians.

The earliest navigators of the Mediterranean were the Phœnicians, and until the end of the 8th century B.C. they had no rivals. Starting from Tyre and Sidon on the coast of Syria, they acquired the command of the sea as far as Gades (Cadiz), which they founded, perhaps nea'ly 1000 years before Christ, beyond the Pillars of Hercules. Utica, the most ancient of their colonies upon the coast of Africa, was not far from Malta; and several inscriptions and images, and many specimens of pottery and glass, remain to this day as evidences of their occupation of the Maltese group. There are also in Malta and Gozo many sepulchral caves and tombs cut in the rocks, besides the ruins of no less than three most remarkable buildings formed of gigantic stones, some of which are attributed, apparently with good reason, to the Phœnicians.

Greeks.

In 735 B. C. the first Greek[1] colony was founded in Sicily, and a long str'ggle began between Greeks and Phœnicians for supremacy in the Mediterranean. During this time Malta probably followed, as it did in after years, the fortunes of Sicily[2]. From an inscription on a tessera in bronze attributed to the 5th century B. C., which is now preserved at Naples[3], it appears that the Government of Malta at that time was formed on the pattern of a Greek Republic.

Carthaginians.

Subsequently, when the power of Carthage was at its height, Malta was occupied by the Carthaginians, in whose possession it was at the commencement of the First Punic War. During that war (264–241 B. C.) Malta appears to have been more than once taken by the Romans and recovered by the Carthaginians. At the conclusion of the war, it

[1] Naxos from Chalcis was founded in 735, and Syracuse from Corinth in 734 B.C.: these were soon succeeded by others.

[2] Professor Freeman (Histor. Geog. of Europe) speaks of Malta as 'the natural appendage of Sicily.'

[3] Dr. A. A. Caruana, Report on Antiquities of Malta, 1882.

remained with the Carthaginians; but during the Second Punic War it was taken by the Romans in 218 B.C.[1]

CHAPTER II.

Romans.

Under the Romans, Malta appears to have maintained its prosperity, at least down to the Augustan age. Diodorus Siculus[2], who lived in the times of Julius Cæsar and Augustus, speaks of the excellence of its harbours, of the beauty of its houses and the wealth of the inhabitants, and of the many skilful artificers which the island produced. Cicero[3] also refers to Malta as abounding in curiosities and riches, and as famous for the manufacture of textile fabrics. The remains of more than one fine temple of the Roman period, and of other buildings, existed until a few years ago; and the foundations of a mole and important harbour works, quite recently discovered, bear the marks of Roman handiwork.

St. Paul's shipwreck.

It was during the Roman occupation of Malta that, in 58 A.D., the shipwreck of St. Paul occurred. Much ingenuity has been perversely exercised in the attempt,—based mainly on the statement that they 'were driven up and down in Adria,'—to prove that the island on which St. Paul and his companions were wrecked was Meleda, off the Illyrian coast, in what is now known as the Adriatic Sea. But the name of Adria was unquestionably applied in those days, not merely to the Venetian Gulf, but to the whole of the sea between Italy, Greece, and Africa; and the result of the controversy has been to prove that the island could only have been Malta, and to confirm the tradition, which has existed from time immemorial in Malta, that the wreck took place in St. Paul's Bay, on the North-Western coast of the island.

Introduction of Christianity.

Tradition also asserts that the Maltese have always professed Christianity since it was first preached there by St. Paul: and many Christian monograms and inscriptions have been found, ranging from the 2nd to the 9th century.

[1] Livy xxi. 51.
[2] Bibliotheca Historica, v. 12.
[3] In Verrem, iv. 18. and 46.

SECTION I.

Byzantines.

On the final division of the Empire in 395 A.D., Malta fell to the Eastern, or Byzantine, Emperor, and during the next 500 years its history is almost a blank. It is uncertain whether it was ever occupied by the Vandals who took Sicily in 454 A.D., or by the Goths who followed them there ten years afterwards. At any rate, neither people left any traces of their occupation. Belisarius, the great Byzantine general, who reconquered Carthage from the Vandals in 533-4 A.D. and Sicily from the Goths in 535 A.D., is said to have landed in Malta during one of these expeditions; and a Byzantine garrison is mentioned as still holding the island in 870 A.D. But the period of its commercial greatness was at an end, and that of its importance as a fortress had not yet begun.

Arabs.

Meanwhile, the appearance of Mahomet in Arabia was the commencement of a revolution in the old order of things, which soon extended to the Mediterranean. Mahomet died in 632 A.D.; and between 647 and 698 A.D. his disciples had won their way along the coast of Africa as far as the Pillars of Hercules. It was not, however, until 828 A.D., more than 100 years after Gibraltar had become a Moorish stronghold, that the Arabs first attacked Malta. Another attack was made in 836 A.D., when Gozo suffered more especially; but this, like the first, was repulsed. In 870 A.D., however, the Maltese themselves massacred the Greek (Byzantine) garrison, and delivered up the island to the Arabs, who held it for 220 years.

Very little is known of the condition of Malta under the Arabs. They appear to have used it mainly as a base for piratical expeditions. But two noteworthy memorials of their occupation remain. The name of Melita was corrupted by them into Malta: and the mass of the people still, though more than 1000 years have elapsed, speak no other language than that which was in the main acquired from their Arab masters. It is remarkable, however, that, although the Maltese adopted the language of their conquerors, they did

not adopt their religion. There is a break in the line of bishops during the Arab dominion. But, when Count Roger Guiscard, after the Norman conquest of Sicily, proceeded about 1090 A.D. to attack the Arabs in Malta, he was received with joy by the native inhabitants, some of whom, if not all, were certainly Christians.

CHAPTER II.

Norman conquest of Malta.

The conquest of Malta by the Normans forms an epoch in its history, not less important to the Maltese than the Norman Conquest of England was to the English. Malta then, for the first time, came under the influence of a Teutonic race: the feudal laws and administration were introduced: the succession of Christian bishops was restored: tithes and other endowments were granted to the Church: and the first establishment of the 'Consiglio Popolare,' or National Council, although apparently not in the form which it afterwards assumed, has also been attributed to this date.

Malta under the German Emperors:

In 1194 A.D., owing to the marriage of Constance the heiress of the kingdom of Sicily with the Emperor Henry VI of Germany (son of the famous Frederick Barbarossa), Malta came, as a fief of Sicily, under the authority of the Emperors, and was granted by them to feudal lords who exercised uncontrolled authority over the inhabitants.

under the Angevin Kings of Sicily:

In 1266 A.D., when Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX of France, became master of Sicily, Malta also passed under his authority. The Maltese do not appear to have taken any part in the 'Sicilian Vespers' in 1282 A.D., when the Sicilians rose against Charles and massacred the French garrison. But Peter of Aragon, to whom the throne of Sicily was transferred, immediately sent his fleet against Malta and captured it, although gallantly defended for Charles by an Englishman named Corner.

under the kings of Aragon:

Malta thus, in 1282 A.D., came under the dominion of Spanish kings, who held it for 248 years. During this time the Maltese appear to have enjoyed a considerable measure of self-government. The chief executive officer

SECTION I.

and representative of the feudal lord was the 'Capitano di Verga.' He was usually selected by the king, as Suzerain, out of three persons proposed by the 'Consiglio Popolare,' and was liable to dismissal on complaint by the Council. Twice the Suzerain disposed of the office in perpetuity to foreign families; but on each occasion the Maltese raised among themselves the amount which had been paid for it, and in 1397 A.D. they obtained a promise from Martin, king of Aragon, which was confirmed by each of his successors, that Malta should never be alienated from the Crown of Sicily[1]. It would seem, indeed, that, although the Maltese were few[2] in number, they were fairly prosperous during this period. If they were exposed to frequent attacks from the Moors, on the other hand they often successfully retaliated upon them on the mainland of Africa. The liberal constitution under which they lived fostered in them the spirit of liberty and self-reliance; and, however obscure their country may have been in the eyes of the world, they look back upon this period, when they were practically independent, with far more satisfaction than they can upon the succeeding period, when they suffered under the splendid rule of the Knights of St. John.

under the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem.

The Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem[3] was founded at Jerusalem in 1023 A.D. for the reception of the crowds of pilgrims who came to visit the Holy Sepulchre. About a century later the Hospitaller Brothers were made a military order. The mission of the Knights was to defend the Holy Sepulchre and to combat the 'infidels' wherever they might meet them: and, as their badge, they took the white cross on a black ground, which is now known as the Maltese

[1] Eton, p. 80.

[2] In 1514 A.D. Malta and Gozo together are said to have contained only 22,000 inhabitants.

[3] Hallam says that this St. John was neither the Evangelist nor the Baptist, but a certain Cypriot, surnamed the Charitable, who had been Patriarch of Alexandria. Middle Ages, chap. i, part i, note r.

cross. In 1291 A.D. they were compelled to retreat from Palestine to Cyprus. About 20 years later they established themselves in Rhodes, where they remained for some two centuries. In 1522 A.D. the Sultan, Solyman the Magnificent, drove them out of the island: and the Emperor Charles V, who as king of Aragon was also king of Sicily and Suzerain of Malta, was induced, though not without difficulty, to grant them the islands of Malta and Gozo and the city of Tripoli, to be governed by them, subject only to their presenting a falcon annually as homage to the king of Sicily.

The Knights took possession of Malta in 1530 A.D. and held it for 268 years. No period of Maltese history has been more widely celebrated. Histories of Malta are mostly histories of the Knights, whose gallant deeds and lavish expenditure in fortifying and adorning the island were such as could not fail to produce a brilliant effect upon the popular imagination. Immediately on their arrival they began to strengthen the fortifications; and in 1565 A.D. they sustained the famous siege, when the Grand Master, La Vallette, successfully opposed the apparently overwhelming force which Solyman the Magnificent sent against them in the greatest and final effort of the Turks to take the island.

When the Turks retired, La Vallette proceeded in 1566 A.D. to found the new city which, on his death, was called after him Valletta. Contributions towards the building were received from the chief princes of Europe in recognition of the services which the Knights had rendered to Christendom. But the Knights had also a large income of their own, derived from their estates throughout Europe, by means of which successive Grand Masters were able to strengthen and add to the fortifications, until they had made them the strongest and the most renowned in the world. They also made good roads: built and kept up hospitals: raised in 1614 A.D. the great aqueduct, called after the Grand Master Vignacourt,

SECTION I.

which is still used to bring water to Valletta: and carried out many other public works, which all served to enhance the glory of their rule.

But in the midst of all this splendour the interests of the Maltese people suffered. The effect of the grant which Charles V made to the Knights was that the Order occupied in perpetuity the position previously held by the Capitano di Verga. The Maltese consequently lost the important safeguard of their liberties which they had while that officer was practically selected and controlled by themselves. They consented, indeed, to receive the Knights, for the sake of the protection which would thus be afforded them against the Moors and Turks: but they stipulated that each Grand Master on taking office should swear to maintain their ancient rights and liberties. The Knights, however, began by deceiving the Maltese candidates for admission to the Order, and, as time went on, the people were deprived of all their privileges. The 'Consiglio Popolare' came to consist of persons nominated by the Knights; and in 1775 A.D., when it had long ceased to represent the people, it was abolished.

In the same year an insurrection occurred, known as the 'Rebellion of the Priests,' when the Maltese were successful in capturing fort St. Elmo; and, although order was soon restored, the misgovernment and oppression from which the Maltese had suffered were to some extent mitigated by the reforms granted by the Grand Master de Rohan.

But the power of the Knights was declining. Their mission was ended. Christendom no longer required their protection; and their contests with the infidels had degenerated into the capture of slaves, with whom Malta was filled. The French Revolution deprived them of the large revenue which they derived from France, and shortly afterwards their property in Spain and Italy was sequestrated. In 1798 A.D. Buonaparte, on his way to Egypt, appeared off the island,

Capture of Malta by the French.

and, after a half-hearted defence, the Knights surrendered it to him.

Expulsion of the French garrison.

Within three months, however, of his departure, the Maltese, who felt that they had been betrayed by the Knights, rose against the French garrison, as centuries before they had risen against their Byzantine rulers, and compelled them to shut themselves up in Valletta. For two years they were able, with some assistance from the British and Portuguese fleets, and during the latter part of the time with the aid of British and Neapolitan troops, to keep the French garrison closely blockaded, until at length they compelled them to capitulate.

Cession to the British Crown.

The French garrison surrendered early in September 1800 to the combined Maltese, English, and Neapolitan forces: and at a meeting of the National Council, or Congress, of the representatives of the Maltese people, which had been formed to conduct the siege, the islands were solemnly ceded to the British Crown.

Confirmed by the Great Powers.

Captain Ball immediately assumed the administration of the Government, and from that time forward the islands have been governed as a British possession. It was not, however, until the conclusion of the Treaty of Paris in 1814 that the cession received the sanction of the great European powers: and the joy with which that decision was received in the island is recorded in the following inscription, placed in the principal square of Valletta, where it may still be read :—

MAGNAE ET INVICTAE BRITANNIAE
MELITENSIUM AMOR ET EUROPAE VOX
HAS INSULAS CONFIRMANT
A.D. MDCCCXIV.

Changes in the Constitution of Malta under British rule.

Even before the cession was ratified, the popular leaders of the Maltese had begun to press for the re-establishment of the 'Consiglio Popolare.' Mr. (afterwards Sir Charles) Cameron, who was sent out from England in 1801 as

SECTION I.

Civil Commissioner to administer the Government, had issued a proclamation stating that the King granted to the Maltese people full protection and the enjoyment of all their dearest rights, and that he would protect their churches, their holy religion, their persons, and their property. This, however, did not satisfy the Maltese; and from that time to this the main problem which has faced the British Government in connexion with Malta has been how to meet the wishes of the people, while at the same time ensuring the security of the fortress and the Imperial interests connected with it.

In 1836 Mr. John Austin, the well-known writer on jurisprudence, and Mr. (afterwards Sir) George Cornewall Lewis, were sent out as Royal Commissioners to enquire into the condition of the islands. The main results of their recommendations were that the censorship of the press was abolished, the tariff was revised, the charitable institutions and the system of primary education were reorganised, and the procedure of the law courts was simplified.

In 1847 the experiment was made of appointing a civilian and Roman Catholic to be Governor of Malta. In the early years of the British occupation the civil administration had usually been kept distinct from the command of the troops; but latterly it had become the rule for the Commander in Chief of the garrison to be also Governor, which was resented by the Maltese, on the ground that to put a military man at the head of the administration was to treat them as a conquered people. The Right Hon. R. More O'Ferrall was accordingly appointed, and was received in Malta with the greatest enthusiasm. During his administration, and while Lord Grey was at the Colonial Office, Letters Patent were issued in 1849 providing that the 'Council of Government' (or local legislature) should consist of the Governor, nine official members, and eight members (seven for Malta and one

for Gozo) elected by persons qualified to serve as jurors. The electorate numbered about 2000.

In the Council thus constituted the Government could of course always command a majority. But the publicity which was given to the acts of the Government was indirectly beneficial to the people; and during the administration of Mr. O'Ferrall's successor, Sir W. Reid, who, although a military officer, was appointed only to the civil administration, the official majority was so seldom used that the restraint was scarcely felt. It was at this time that the Crimean War took place: and in the spring of 1854 large numbers of troops were stationed in the island before being sent on to the seat of war.

The next Governor, Lt.-Gen. Sir Gaspard Le Marchant, again united the chief civil and military duties in his own person, and they have not since been separated. His administration was distinguished by the number of great public works which were carried out under his direction. Many of them were works of great utility to the island. But the constant use of the official majority in the Council to obtain the necessary votes of money led to a renewal of the agitation for the reform of the Constitution.

In 1864 Mr. (afterwards Viscount) Cardwell, who was then Secretary of State for the Colonies, gave instructions[1] to the Governor that great consideration should be shewn to the opinions of the elected members of Council in matters of local and domestic interest, and that above all no vote of money should be pressed against the majority of the elected members, except in very special circumstances in which the public interests or credit were seriously at stake, and never without an immediate report to the Secretary of State.

This, however, did not settle the matter: for the want of any clear definition of those local questions, in respect of

[1] In a despatch dated the 19th of Sept., 1864.

SECTION I.

which the wishes of the local representatives were to prevail, afforded opportunities for endless disputes.

Present form of government.

Accordingly, in 1887, a new constitution was granted by Letters Patent, under which full power is, as before, reserved to the Crown to legislate on any question, but such power must be exercised, not indirectly by the use of the official majority, but by a direct use of the prerogative. The Council of Government, i.e. the Legislative Council, consists of the Governor, six official, and fourteen elected, members. Of the elected members, ten[1] are elected by the 'general' electors, and four by 'special' electors with a high qualification. Of those elected by the special electors, one must be an ecclesiastical person, one a noble or possessed of £150 a year from immoveable property in Malta, one a graduate of the University, and one a member of the Chamber of Commerce. Votes of money are determined by the elected members alone.

Executive Government.

The Government is administered by the Governor, assisted by an Executive Council consisting of certain official members and of not less than three salaried unofficial members taken from the elected members of the Council of Government. All appointments in the Civil Service, except that of Chief Secretary, are held by natives of Malta.

Administration of justice.

The Maltese live under their own native laws, and justice is administered by a Superior Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and five puisne Judges, and by Magistrates of Judicial Police. The Chief Justice and the other Judges, as well as the Magistrates, are all Maltese.

Finances.

Malta has no Public Debt, and the Maltese pay no direct taxes of any kind. The most important sources of revenue are the Customs duties: and the largest amount is derived from the duty of 10*s.* a quarter on wheat. The revenue from every source amounted in 1837 to £95,600, and in 1886 to £223,753. A comparison of the years 1876 and 1886 shows

[1] i.e. one member for each of the nine electoral districts into which, as the result of the late Royal Commission (1888), Malta is now divided, and one for Gozo.

an increase of revenue in 10 years of nearly 27 per cent. English sterling is now the currency of the islands.

Natural features.

The area of the islands composing the Maltese group has been already stated to be about 117 square miles. Geologically, they belong to the late Eocene period. [1] They consist almost entirely of porous rocks only thinly and partially covered by vegetable soil, which vary in character from a very porous calcareous sandstone to a compact crystalline limestone often abounding in fossils, and are divided into two series by an intervening bed of marl. The surface is made up of valleys and steep hills, the sides of which are seamed by water-courses made during the heavy rains. Owing to the porous nature of the rocks, there are no rivers, brooks, or lakes; but springs are thrown out along the upper edge of the marl, where it is exposed on the sides of the hills. On the West and South the coast consists of sheer cliffs. On the North the land slopes more gradually to the sea, except in the neighbourhood of Valletta. There are no mountains, and the highest hills are only 1200 feet high.

General appearance.

The general appearance of the country is bare and far from pleasing: for almost the only tree is the carob, or locust-bean tree, and, in order to protect the crops from the violence of the 'gregale' [illegible]th-East wind, the fields are made so small, and surrounde[illegible]h high walls, that the island looks more like a huge stone quarry than the closely cultivated country which it really is. The soil is thin; and in many places it would be washed altogether away by the winter rains if the sides of the hills were not terraced. But it is very fertile, and highly cultivated [2]. Corn, early potatoes for the London market, cotton, and various fruits, especially oranges and figs, are among the chief vegetable products. Vines are grown; and from the honey, which now comes principally from Gozo, it is supposed that the Greek name of Melita was derived. Goats,

Products.

[1] Report by Mr. J. F. Bateman, C.E., May 11, 1867.

[2] In 1881 there were 15,990 persons engaged in agriculture.

SECTION I.

mules, and asses are the principal live-stock. The lace-making, which is more especially carried on in Gozo, maintains the traditional reputation of the islands for textile goods[1]. It has been calculated that in the six hours, during which the Peninsular and Oriental steamers usually stay in the harbour, about £100 on an average is spent by the passengers of each ship on lace, coral, filagree-work, and other minor products.

Climate.

The climate of Malta, although not actually tropical, is very hot in summer; in winter it is temperate and healthy. Rain falls with tropical violence in the winter months; but in the summer there is not a cloud to be seen, and the effect of the heat is aggravated in Valletta by the radiation from the surrounding rocks. In the spring and autumn there are occasional showers. The annual rain-fall is said to be from 10 to 20 inches. The most important factor in the climate is the direction of the wind. The North-East wind, known as the 'gregale' (the Euroclydon of the account of St. Paul's shipwreck), sometimes lasts for two or three days together in the winter, and, as it blows directly into the Grand Harbour, it often does much damage to the shipping; but it is not unhealthy. The North-West and South-East winds are the most prevalent. The South-East wind, or Sirocco, blows from the Sahara in August and September. It is warm, damp, and unhealthy; but it lasts only for a few hours at a time[2].

Population.

Nothing is known as to the origin of the early inhabitants of Malta. It is inferred, from the extensive trade then carried on, that in the times of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians the islands were thickly inhabited: but it was not until comparatively modern times that any attempts were made to give the actual number of the population. It is stated that in 1530 A.D., when the Knights took possession, the number was 15,000: that in 1569, after the memorable siege, it had fallen to

[1] In 1881 there were 4512 women and girls, nearly all in Gozo, employed in lace making.

[2] The death-rate in the population in 1886 was 27 per 1000, against 19·20 per 1000 in England and Wales.

CHAPTER II.

10,000: and that in 1798, when the French expelled the Knights, it had mounted up to 114,000. By the Census taken in 1881 the population of all the islands was found to be 149,782, exclusive of the Imperial troops and their families who numbered 5507 [1].

Attempts have been made from time to time to relieve the over-population [2] by means of emigration. But the Maltese are devoted to their country, and few can be persuaded permanently to settle elsewhere [3]. There are, however, many Maltese residing in the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. The returns are necessarily incomplete; but it is estimated that there are 10,000 Maltese in Tunis, 1400 in Algiers, at least 2500 in Egypt, and about 1000 in Gibraltar.

Race.

In race and character the lower orders appear to be mainly Arabic, but they have a strong admixture of Italian or Sicilian blood. They are a frugal and industrious people, living almost entirely on vegetable food. In the upper classes the Latin strain is still stronger; and the three great Latin countries, France, Italy, and Spain, have all contributed to it. The upper classes usually speak Italian; but the majority of the people use the Maltese language, a Semitic dialect, closely resembling, and no doubt derived from, the Arabic of the Arab rulers of the island.

Maltese nobles.

There is an order of nobility in Malta which is said to date from the time of Count Roger the Norman. Most of the hereditary titles now extant were granted by the Grand Masters; but there are some of earlier date, and one which dates from the fourteenth century. The 'Titolati,' as they are called, now number 28 families, the heads of which bear titles, which have been recognised by the British Crown, and which

[1] At the end of 1886 it was estimated at nearly 160,000.

[2] There are in Malta 1443, and in Gozo 684, persons to the square mile, as against 446 to the square mile in England and Wales (Census of 1881).

[3] Several Maltese doctors have in recent years been offered and have accepted official appointments in other colonies.

SECTION I.

serve as a living reminder that the island had a long and honourable history before it was occupied by Great Britain.

Religion.

The Maltese are Roman Catholics in religion. There is a Bishop of Malta, who is also Archbishop of Rhodes, and a Bishop of Gozo.

Education.

Primary education is carried on almost exclusively in Government schools[1]. There is also a public lyceum or secondary school, and a university (founded in 1769). The primary schools are free, and in the other institutions the fees are extremely low. English and Italian are taught in the schools as well as Maltese.

Towns:— Citta Vecchia or Notabile.

The former capital of Malta, now called Citta Vecchia, or Notabile, is situated in the centre of the island about 7½ miles from Valletta, with which it is connected by a railway. Many of the Maltese gentry still live there, and it contained in 1881, with its suburbs, 6152 inhabitants. Its Roman name was Civitas Melita: the Arabs called it Medina ('the Great City'): and it acquired the name of Citta Vecchia ('the Old City') when Valletta was founded.

Valletta.

Valletta is now the chief town of Malta. It was begun, as already mentioned, by the Grand Master La Vallette, after the repulse of the Turks in 1565. The population of the Town and District of Valletta in 1881 was 42,782, or nearly one-third of the whole population of all the islands. In 'the Three Cities,' on the opposite side of the Grand Harbour, there were 24,802 persons. Out of the 149,782 persons, therefore, in all the islands, there were no less than 67,584 living in the immediate neighbourhood of the harbours; and in all the casals, or villages, within a radius of five or six miles, there are many persons who are daily employed as labourers at the Port. In 1881 there were 19,980 persons, or rather more than half the whole male population above 15 years of age, engaged in trade or performing services connected with it.

[1] See the Colonial Office List.

CHAPTER II. — *The Harbour.*

The double harbour of Valletta is on the North-East of the island, and looks towards Europe. It is one of the finest natural harbours in the world, deep, commodious, and completely sheltered except from the North-East; when the wind blows heavily from that quarter it is difficult and dangerous for small boats. The coast is broken by a large bay, bisected by a well-defined and compact promontory on which the town is placed. At the extreme point of the promontory is the fort of St. Elmo, which, with fort Ricasoli on the opposite shore, guards the entrance to the Grand Harbour. Behind the fort stands the city of Valletta, and on the land side behind Valletta is the suburb of Floriana. The Eastern or Grand Harbour is about a quarter of a mile wide at its mouth, and runs inland for about two miles. Its eastern shore is deeply indented. Here are 'the Three Cities,' as they are called, of Cospicua, Vittoriosa, and Senglea; and the naval arsenal and the head-quarters of the Mediterranean fleet. The Marsamuscetto, or Western Harbour, on the other side of the promontory on which Valletta stands, has not such a jagged outline as that of the Grand Harbour. It is mainly formed by one semicircular bay, in the midst of which is the Lazaretto Island. The width of its entrance is nearly the same as that of the Great Harbour, and its length is slightly less. It is chiefly used by the steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, and by vessels in quarantine.

General Résumé.

Malta is the most central of the Mediterranean ports, and the point at which the possessions of Great Britain and Italy are brought most nearly into contact. But its importance is not bounded by the limits of the Mediterranean. It is a port of call for the shipping engaged in the enormous trade which passes, by the Suez Canal, between the United Kingdom and the great British dependencies in Australasia and the East. On this passing trade the prosperity of the people of Malta mainly depends; and to Great Britain the

SECTION I.

possession of the island is of vital importance, both for the protection of her commerce, and as the head-quarters of the Mediterranean fleet.

BOOKS AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO MALTA

In addition to official publications, Parliamentary papers, etc., the following books may be mentioned:—

Authentic materials for a history of the people of Malta. W. ETON. London, 1802, 1803, and 1807.

British Colonial Library. Vol. vii. R. M. MARTIN. 1837.

History of the Knights of Malta. MAJOR W. PORTER, R.E. London. 1858.

Malta, Past and Present. H. SEDDALL. London, 1870.

Report on the Phœnician and Roman antiquities in the group of the islands of Malta. A. A. CARUANA. Malta, 1882.

CYPRUS.

Not a British colony.

CYPRUS is not, strictly speaking, a British colony. It is at present occupied and administered by Great Britain, under the terms of a Convention of defensive alliance between Great Britain and Turkey, which was signed at Constantinople on the 4th of June, 1878. But it is still part of the Ottoman empire; its inhabitants are not British subjects; and in an annex to the Convention it is provided that, if Kars and the other conquests made by Russia in Armenia during the Russo-Turkish war of 1877–8 are restored to Turkey, the island of Cyprus will be evacuated by Great Britain.

Derivation of name[1].

Cyprus is said to have derived its name from a plant (κύπρος), a species of henna, which grew in abundance on the

[1] See note to Rawlinson's Herodotus, Bk. 2, chap. 182. For other instances of places taking their names from plants or trees upon them, cp. Malacca, p. 107.

V.

the
of

rs,

N.

n,

he

CYPRUS

ENGLISH MILES

Ancient names in brackets

Longitude East 33° from Greenwich

MORPHOU BAY

C. Kormakiti (Crommyon)

KYRENIA

NICOSIA

FAMAGUSTA BAY

(Salamis)

FAMAGUSTA

Varoshia

Cape Elaea

Ayios Theodoros

Yialousa

C. Flakon

Cape Greco

C. Pyla

LARNACA (Citium)

LARNACA BAY

Cape Kiti

Vatili

Dali (Idalium)

Morphou

Lefka

Pomos Point

Papho (Paphos)

Kouklia (Palaea Paphos)

C. Aspro

EPISKOPI BAY

Zevgari

C. Gata

LIMASSOL

AKROTIRI BAY

C. Dolos

Lefkoniko

Kythraea

30° 33° 30° 34° 30°

35° 30′ 35°

Oxford University Press

island; and, in turn, it gave its name to the metal known to the ancients as χαλκὸς κύπριος or Æs Cyprium, and to ourselves as copper.

Its varied fortunes.

Although Cyprus is associated in mythological lore with all that is pleasant and peaceful, and was celebrated by poets as the land of flowers [1] and the chosen abode of the goddess of love [2], there is no country in the world whose fortunes have reflected more faithfully the ebb and flow of races. It has been the meeting-place of Aryan and Semitic races, of West and East, of Egypt and Asia, of Catholic and Orthodox, of Christian and Moslem. It was conquered by more than one of the great monarchies of the East. Here, as in Sicily, Phœnicians and Greeks settled side by side. It held for a time a prominent position in the Hellenic world. It became a province of the Roman empire. It fell a prey to the fanaticism of the Jews, and again, many centuries later, to that of the Turks. It was a dependency of Constantinople under the Byzantine Emperors. The wave of the Crusades passed over the island. The military orders made it a temporary resting-place. Genoa and Venice, the two great naval powers of the Mediterranean in the Middle Ages, each obtained a footing in it. It became, with the other islands of the Levant, part and parcel of the Turkish dominions. And in the latest phase of its history, it is still, so to speak, in the balance, occupied by a Christian power of the West, but paying tribute, as in the earliest times, to an Eastern master.

Early inhabitants.

The history of Cyprus begins at a much earlier date, and is of even wider interest, than that of Malta. Cyprus is mentioned in Egyptian and Assyrian inscriptions of a very early

[1] One Greek epithet of the island was εὐώδης. Gibbon (chap. 60) speaks of 'the island of Cyprus, whose name excites the ideas of elegance and pleasure.'

[2] The Cyprian Venus and her worship were of Phœnician origin, though adopted by the Greeks.

SECTION I.

date. The Kittim or Chittim[1], named in the book of Genesis as one of Japhet's descendants, has been identified with the island or its inhabitants; and in Greek poetry, as in Greek history, it holds a prominent place. The actual history of Malta can only be traced back to the time of the Punic wars, although it is inferred from certain inscriptions and remains that it had previously been inhabited by Phœnicians and Greeks. But the existence of Phœnician and Greek settlements in Cyprus is no matter of inference. Both nations are known to have settled in the island, in times probably long before any settlers from either nation appeared in Malta: while from certain inscriptions written in characters peculiar to Cyprus, and in a language which has been described as a dialect of Greek, it would seem that neither Phœnicians nor Greeks, but another people of Aryan origin, were the earliest inhabitants of the island[2].

Phœnicians.

The date of the first Phœnician immigration cannot be ascertained, but it was probably very far back in history. The island is not much more than one hundred miles from the coasts of Tyre and Sidon; and the Phœnicians, who in very early days brought tin for their skilful craftsmen from the distant mines of Cornwall, can hardly have failed to discover in still earlier times the abundant supplies of copper in an island so close to their shores as Cyprus.

Greeks.

The manner in which the Greek colonies were established in the island is equally unknown, so far at least as authentic history is concerned. But in the 'Cyprian verses' (τὰ κύπρια), one of the poems of the Epic Cycle which the early Greeks attributed to Homer and which were no doubt of very ancient date, the fortunes of the Greek colonists in Cyprus

[1] Genesis x. 4. The name also occurs in several other places in the Bible. Josephus points out that the name was preserved in that of the town of Citium.

[2] These inscriptions have been interpreted by means of a bilingual inscription in Phœnician and Cypriote, now in the British Museum, which was discovered by Mr. Hamilton Lang, C.M.G., at Dali (the ancient Idalium), in 1868.

are traced back to a time prior to the siege of Troy; and the Iliad[1] and the Odyssey themselves contain more than one allusion to Cyprus and her kings. The people of Salamis, the leading Greek city in the island, ascribed its foundation to Teucer, whose father Telamon ruled the more famous island of Salamis in prehistoric times; and the name of the town of Soli was supposed to recall the memory of Solon's visit to Cyprus[2].

Early notices of Cyprus.

The first authentic record with regard to Cyprus is an inscription on an Egyptian tombstone of the 17th century B.C., from which it appears that the island was conquered by Thothmes III of Egypt, in whose reign the Exodus of the Children of Israel is supposed to have taken place. This was no doubt anterior to the establishment of any Greek colon[illegible] a[illegible]d probably, also, before the Phœnicians had settl[illegible] [illegible] the island. In those early days the position of Cyp[illegible] [illegible]n relation to the ancient monarchies of the East was similar to that which Malta came to occupy in later times with regard to the leading states of the Mediterranean, when the centre of the civilised world had shifted to the Westward. Hence, as appears from various inscriptions and other records, Cyprus became subject successively to Egypt, as just mentioned, to Assyria, to Egypt again in 568 B.C. when it was conquered by Amasis, and in 525 B.C. to Persia.

Meanwhile the power of the Greeks had been increasing. Civilisation was no longer confined to Egypt and the countries to the East of Cyprus. The civilisation of the West was about to assert itself at Marathon and Salamis; and Cyprus, being midway between East and West, could not fail to be involved in the coming conflict.

Ionic revolt.

On the occasion of the Ionic revolt the Greek element in Cyprus showed its strength: and in 502 B.C. the whole

[1] Iliad xi. 20 speaks of a suit of armour given to Agamemnon by Cinyras, the legendary hero (though not a Greek hero) of Cyprus.

[2] The kingdom of Soli is, however, mentioned in an Assyrian inscription of much earlier date than the time of Solon.

SECTION I.

island, with the single exception of the Phœnician town of Amathus, took part with the Ionians in renouncing the authority of the Persian king. In the war which followed, the Persians were assisted by the Phœnicians of the mainland; and, although the Ionian fleet was victorious in an engagement which took place off Cyprus, the Persian army landed on the island and utterly defeated the Cypriotes. Thus Cyprus was again, after one brief year of freedom, brought under Persian rule, and at the battle of Salamis in 480 B.C. the island contributed a contingent of not less than 150 ships to the fleet of Xerxes.

The reconquest of the island by the Persians, assisted as they were by the Phœnicians, tended to discourage the Greeks in Cyprus. For a time they were strengthened by an Athenian fleet under Cimon, the son of the victor of Marathon; but, when he fell, about 450 B.C., while attacking Citium, the most important stronghold of Phœnician and Persian influence in the island, the Greek cause fell with him, and even the essentially Greek city of Salamis passed shortly after his death into Phœnician hands.

Evagoras.

About 410 B.C. a reaction began. Evagoras, a Greek of the royal house of Teucer, made himself master of Salamis, and by his vigour and intelligence succeeded, not only in reviving the literature and the arts of Greece in his own city, but in establishing a general supremacy over the whole of the island. So great was his power that he took even the great town of Tyre on the mainland, and carried on a struggle with Persia for no less than ten years, which was only ended by his obtaining an honourable peace.

The reign of Evagoras is perhaps the most brilliant period in the history of Cyprus. Before his death, which took place in 374 B.C., he had raised the island from the position of a mere dependency of one or other of the great Eastern monarchies, had gained for it a place among the leading states of Greece, and had solved the question as to which

division of the ancient world the Cyprian people should be assigned. Consequently when, some forty years later, the power of Persia was shattered by Alexander the Great at the battle of the Issus, the kings of the island hastened to offer him their submission as the leader of the Greek race, and sent 120 ships to assist him in the siege of Tyre.

CHAPTER II.

Cyprus under the Ptolemies:

When Alexander died in 323 B.C., and his conquests were divided among his generals, the possession of Cyprus was again disputed by two rival powers on the East and South, though both claimants were now of Greek descent. Antigonus, who had established himself in Syria, and Ptolemy, the founder of the Greek dynasty in Egypt, engaged in a long struggle for the island, which in the end remained with Ptolemy. In the course of this struggle, the various little kingdoms, into which it had been divided from the earliest times, were finally abolished; and under the Greek kings of Egypt it was governed by a viceroy, usually a member of the royal family, who appears at times to have administered it as an independent kingdom. During this time the island appears to have enjoyed a high degree of prosperity; and when Cato took possession of it for the Roman people in 57 B.C., he sold the treasures which were captured for the enormous sum of 9000 talents [1].

under the Romans:

The Romans claimed Cyprus under the will [2] of the last legitimate possessor of the throne of the Ptolemies; and they also asserted, as an excuse for taking it, that it harboured pirates [3]—a reason which has more than once been used to justify annexation. It was at first joined with Cilicia, and during this time it was administered by Cicero. It was afterwards made one of the senatorial provinces: and this was its position when St. Paul visited it, accompanied by

[1] Cato paid the whole amount into the public treasury, keeping for himself only a bust of Zeno the Stoic, who was a native of Cyprus.

[2] Compare the claims of the Portuguese to Ceylon, p. 70.

[3] Compare the reasons given for the annexation of Province Wellesley, page 102, and Labuan, page 104.

SECTION I.

St. Barnabas who was by birth a Jew of Cyprus, and converted the pro-consul, Sergius Paulus, to Christianity. The new religion appears subsequently to have spread rapidly through the island.

In 116 A.D., during the reign of Trajan, there was an insurrection of the Jews in Cyprus, who are stated to have massacred no less than 240,000 of the inhabitants. They were suppressed by Hadrian, who had not then become Emperor. All Jews were expelled from the island, and forbidden to return on pain of death[1].

under the Byzantine Emperors.

When the Empire was divided, on the death of Constantine the Great, Cyprus, like Malta, passed into the hands of the Byzantine Emperors. Like Malta, also, it was exposed to frequent attacks from the Arabs; but, although they several times occupied the island, and once held it for no less than 160 years, they were always expelled again by the Byzantine Emperors, and never established themselves there as firmly as they did in Malta.

Taken by Richard Cœur de Lion.

The Crusades first brought Cyprus into contact with the Western nations of Modern Europe. Its position made it a convenient halting-place for the Crusaders on their way to and from the Holy Land, just as the West Indian islands were at once a resting-place and a starting-point for the early European invaders of America. In 1191 A.D. Richard Cœur de Lion landed there on his way to Palestine, and deposed the Byzantine ruler, Isaac Comnenus[2]. The latter's crime was that he had imprisoned some shipwrecked English sailors, and even endeavoured to gain possession of Berengaria of Navarre, while sheltering in the roadstead of Limassol. Cyprus thus came into the power of

[1] The census of 1881 showed that there were only sixty-nine Jews then in the island. Some hundreds of Russian and Roumanian Jews subsequently visited it, but these, with five or six exceptions, have now all left.

[2] A nephew of the Emperor. He appears to have obtained the same sort of independent position as was held by the governors of Cyprus in the times of the later Ptolemies.

the King of England, as Malta, just a century before, had been conquered by Count Roger of Normandy; and Richard was married to Berengaria at Limassol. Being anxious, however, to proceed to the Holy Land, he forthwith sold his new possession to the Knights Templars, who in this way acquired Cyprus, just as the other great order of chivalry, the Knights of St. John [1], became masters of Malta more than 300 years later. But the Templars had hardly established themselves in the island when a serious insurrection broke out; and, although they succeeded in quelling it, they were glad to hand back the island to Richard, who bestowed it upon the French Crusader, Guy de Lusignan, titular King of Jerusalem.

Dynasty of Lusignan.

The dynasty of Lusignan ruled Cyprus from 1192 to 1456, with the exception of the town of Famagusta. Famagusta was seized by the Genoese in 1376, and held by them until 1464, when it was recovered by the Lusignans. During the latter years of the Lusignan rule the island suffered severely from the plague, from drought, and from locusts. The last King married a Venetian lady, the beautiful Catherine Cornaro; and after his death, which was followed in a few months by that of his posthumous son, Catherine held the throne, until 1488, when she abdicated in favour of the Republic of Venice. Thus both the great naval republics of the Middle Ages established a connexion with Cyprus; but, while Genoa held one fort and harbour only, her more Eastern rival became mistress of the whole island [2].

Genoa and Venice.

Under the rule of Venice, from 1488 to 1570, Cyprus continued to suffer from natural causes. The years 1492 and 1542 were marked by disastrous earthquakes; in the second of these two years locusts destroyed the vegetation,

[1] The Knights of St. John, after being driven out from the Holy Land and before they took Rhodes, were some twenty years in Cyprus, 1291–1310.

[2] Professor Freeman (Hist. Geog. of Europe, chap. 10) says, 'Genoa was a mere stranger in the East, Venice was in a manner at home.'

SECTION I.

and for two seasons all food was imported into the island; while in 1547 the rainfall was so heavy that the whole plain of the Mesaorea was flooded.

Cyprus under the Turks.

These misfortunes were followed in 1570 by the invasion of the Turks, who had been repulsed a few years previously from Malta. The Turkish Army landed near Limassol, took Nicosia, the capital of the island, by storm after a seven weeks' siege, and put 20,000 of the inhabitants to death. They then laid siege to Famagusta, which capitulated after having held out for ten months in the vain hope of receiving help from Venice. The terms of surrender were not respected by the conquerors. They repeated the massacre of Nicosia with every form of savagery; and thus, amid murder and outrage, Cyprus again became subject to an Eastern power.

Bad as the condition of the Cypriotes had been before, it was still worse under the dominion of the Turks. The island fell more and more into decay; and the Turkish rule was marked by spells of great severity, the most notable of which occurred in 1825, when a number of the clergy and leading men, who had been summoned to Nicosia, and charged with complicity in the revolt of Greece, were put to death.

From 1832 to 1840, the island was once more attached to Egypt, the pasha of which province was at war with his suzerain at Constantinople. When it again became directly subject to the Sultan, the signs of the times were evidenced by improved administration. A governor was appointed with a fixed salary, and, later on, the establishment of what is known as the Vilayet system gave the Cypriotes a consultative share in the management of their own affairs. Under this system prosperity began to return; and, on the whole, the condition of the people compared favourably with that of other Christian subjects of Turkey when, by the Anglo-Turkish Convention of the 4th of June, 1878, the island

was handed over by the Porte to be administered by Great Britain.

Chapter II.

Anglo-Turkish Convention

By this Convention, which was made in the interval between the conclusion of the treaty which Russia compelled Turkey to sign at San Stefano as the result of the Russo-Turkish war, and the meeting of the Berlin Conference, the British Government undertook to join the Sultan in defending his Asiatic possessions by force of arms, in the event of Batoum, Ardahan, or Kars, being retained by Russia, and of any attempt being made at any future time by Russia to take any further territories in Asia. This undertaking, however, was given upon two conditions—(1) that the Sultan would introduce necessary reforms into the government of those territories; and (2) that, in order to enable the British Government to make provision for executing their part of the engagement, the Sultan should assign Cyprus to be occupied and administered by Great Britain. In an annex to the Convention it was provided that a sum equivalent to the excess of revenue over the expenditure of Cyprus, calculated upon the average of the previous five years, should be paid over annually to the Sultan; and that, if Russia should restore to Turkey Kars and the other conquests made by her in Armenia during the last war, the island would be evacuated by England, and the Convention would be at an end.

Administration.

On the administration being taken over by Great Britain, the government was entrusted to an officer bearing the title of High Commissioner, who received all the powers usually conferred upon a Colonial Governor; and a Legislative Council was constituted with an official majority as in a Crown Colony. In two or three years, however, the Christian population began to press for some form of self-government; and in 1882 the Legislative Council was reconstructed, and made to consist of twelve elected and only six official members, besides the High Commissioner.

SECTION I.

The elected members, who are thus in a majority of two to one, are composed of two orders, one member being elected by the Mohammedan voters, and three by those who are not Mohammedans, in each of the three electoral districts into which the island is divided. The 'non-Mohammedan' voters are mainly Christians, but the term has been adopted to include a few Jews and others who are neither Christians nor Mohammedans. British subjects, and foreigners who have resided for five years in Cyprus, are entitled to the franchise, and are eligible for election, in the same way as Ottoman subjects.

Administrative divisions.

For administrative purposes, the island is divided into six districts—Nicosia, Kyrenia, Famagusta, Larnaca, Limassol, and Papho. Each district is presided over by a commissioner, representing the Executive authority, who has under his command the revenue, police, clerical, and medical establishments, and who acts for certain purposes on behalf of the education, forest, and postal departments of the Government.

Taxation.

The principal sources of revenue are tithes on all the chief produ. s of the island, taxes known as 'verghi' on property and income, taxes on sheep, goats and pigs, customs and excise duties, and the profits realised on the sale of salt which here, as in Ceylon, is a Government monopoly.

The Turks taxed everything, and employed almost every known device for raising revenue. Since the British occupation certain readjustments have been effected in the case of taxes which pressed unfairly on the people: but the revenue falls so far short of the expenditure, including the Turkish tribute, that no considerable remission of taxation has been possible.

Finances.

The average revenue during the seven financial years from the 1st April 1880 to the 31st March 1887, was £176,380 a year, and the average expenditure, exclusive of the tribute, was £120.496 a year. But as the tribute amounts to

£92,800 a year, there has been a deficit amounting, on an average, to £36,016 a year, which has had to be made good by a vote of the House of Commons[1].

CHAPTER II.

Currency.

British gold and silver coins, and Cyprus bronze piastres (9 Cyprus piastres=1 shilling), the Turkish lira (=162 piastres), and French 20 franc pieces, are the legal tender currency of Cyprus.

Area and geography.

The area of Cyprus is 3584 square miles. It is 30 times as large as Malta, and larger than any island in the Mediterranean except Sicily and Sardinia. As compared with English counties, it is not quite so large as the space occupied by Kent, Sussex, and Surrey, which contain altogether 3758 square miles.

In shape it was compared by the ancients to the outspread skin of a deer. Its greatest length is about 140 miles, and its greatest breadth from North to South about 60 miles. The larger part of it consists of an irregular parallelogram about 100 miles long and from 60 to 30 miles broad; the remainder consists of a peninsula, called the Carpas, which runs out towards the North-West for some 40 miles, with an average width of only 5 or 6 miles.

Cyprus looks towards the South and East, towards Egypt and Syria. It is not an easily accessible island. Its shores are not indented with estuaries; it has no navigable rivers; and its mountains line the coast to a great extent, forming a barrier against the outside world.

Mountains.

There are two main ranges or groups of mountains. One runs continuously along the edge of the Northern coast, for some 100 miles, from Cape Kormakiti to Cape Andreas. It is nowhere more than a few miles wide, and its highest

[1] Cyprus is, however, really a source of profit to the British taxpayers: for the tribute is paid over by the Island Government to a special account at the Bank of England, and is then applied, with the acquiescence of Turkey, to the payment of interest on the Turkish guaranteed loan of 1855, which would otherwise have had to be paid by Great Britain and France.

SECTION I.

peaks are only half as high as those of the Southern range. The latter, less continuous, loftier, and more extensive than the Northern mountains, fills up in great measure the West and South-West of the island, its eastern spurs running nearly to Larnaca. It attains its greatest height in Mount Troödos (the ancient Olympus), which is about 6400 feet above the sea. Between the Northern range and the Southern group of mountains is the fertile plain of the Mesaorea, varying in breadth from 10 to 20 miles, and extending from the bay of Morphou upon the West to that of Famagusta on the East.

Rivers.

Cyprus is not so entirely destitute of rivers as Malta: but those which it has resemble mountain torrents and are dry in the summer time. The most important is the Pedias, which rises in the range of Mount Troödos, and, after flowing by Nicosia, through the plain of the Mesaorea, attempts to make its way into the sea about four miles to the north of Famagusta. The bulk of its waters forms extensive marshes near its mouth, and little actually reaches the sea.

Climate.

The climate is not generally unhealthy. But the rainfall is small, the annual average being stated to be about 21 inches; the heat in summer is considerable; and the configuration of the land combined with defective drainage, is conducive to fever, which is not of a very severe type. Since the commencement of the British occupation, however, various sanitary measures have been enforced by law, and Cyprus has now nearly as low a death-rate as any other European country. When first stationed in the island the British troops suffered severely; but a healthy winter station was found after a time, and splendid summer quarters have been provided on the high ground of Troödos. At present the soldiers in Cyprus show a smaller percentage of sickness than any other portion of the British army.

Products: (1) Ancient.

In ancient times Cyprus was celebrated both for its mineral and for its vegetable products. Its mines yielded

large quantities of copper, richer metals are said to have been found, and salt was then, as now, one of its resources. Its flowers were famous; it was credited with wine, oil, and honey; and forests of pine and cedar, much used in shipbuilding, covered a large extent of both mountain and plain. The copper mines, which were situated on the slopes of Mount Troödos, were extensively worked down to the time of the Romans, but they have been left idle since. An attempt, however, is now being made by an English firm to open mines near Chrysochou in the Papho district, on or near the site of ancient workings. The forests, which once spread over the whole island, are now mainly confined to the highest parts of the mountain ranges. The destruction of the trees is believed to have taken place mainly within the last 100 years, and their disappearance has, as in other lands, been accompanied with detriment to soil and health alike[1]. Efforts, however, are now being made to demarcate and protect such forest tracts as still remain, and so to allow of the restoration of the trees by natural processes.

(2) *Modern.*

The prosperity of the island at the present day depends upon its agricultural produce. The most important products are grain of all kinds, sesame, linseed, wine, silk, olives, locust beans (carobs), and cotton.

Drought and locusts are the two main difficulties with which agriculture has to contend. The want of water may, it is hoped, be partially remedied by the restoration of the forests; and for several years in succession a regular campaign has been carried on against the locusts with the object of reducing to a minimum this pest of the island. No less a sum than £67,000 has been spent on this work alone, with the satisfactory result that at the present time the damage done to the crops by locusts is very slight. The great and progressive fall in the value of agricultural produce

[1] Compare what is said on this point in connexion with Ceylon and Mauritius, pp. 78 and 161.

SECTION I.

during the last 10 years all over the world has been severely felt in Cyprus, but the gradual rise in the importation of the luxuries consumed by the poorer classes seems to show that the general condition of the people is improving under British rule. One important industry, the production of wine, has been distinctly and directly bettered by the new order of things. Under the Turks the production was limited by vexatious regulations and double taxation. The British Government took off half the taxation, and in three years the amount of wine produced had more than doubled.

Population.

There is reason to believe that the population of Cyprus, like that of Malta, was very much larger before the Christian era than it is at the present time, although the statements of ancient writers on the subject are no doubt greatly exaggerated. Earthquakes and drought in the days of the Romans, the incursions of the Arabs in the 7th and 8th centuries, and earthquakes, locusts, and excessive rainfall during the Venetian occupation, reduced it so much that, after the conquest by the Turks in 1571, the island is said to have contained only 80,000 inhabitants. But, during the later years of the Ottoman administration, the population steadily increased; and at the Census of 1881 there were 186,173 persons in the island. The population is therefore rather larger than that of Malta, which had, in 1881, 149,782 inhabitants: but, while in Malta and Gozo there are 1276, in Cyprus there are only 50 inhabitants to every square mile.

Race and religion.

The population at the present day contains, as it did in the earliest times, both an Eastern and a Western element. The distinction between the descendants of the Greek and the Phœnician settlers was practically obliterated when the various independent kingdoms were united under one ruler in the time of the Ptolemies; and, until the capture of the island by the Turks in 1571, the inhabitants might have been described as being mainly Greek in character, although differing somewhat from the Greeks proper as the result of their

closer contact with the East. But the occupation of the Turks brought in again a considerable population of Eastern origin, who have kept themselves distinct from the rest of the inhabitants; and at the Census of 1881, the total population of 186,173 was made up of 45,458 Mohammedans, 137,631 members of the Orthodox Greek Church, and 3084 persons of other denominations. The Mohammedans form, as the foregoing figures shew, about one quarter of the whole population, but they are said to be decreasing in number as compared with the more energetic Greek element.

Language.

Many of the Mohammedans speak Greek as well as Turkish; and in several outlying districts there are some whose mother-tongue is Greek. These last are believed to be the descendants of Greeks who from motives of policy embraced the religion of their conquerors.

Towns.

The principal towns at the present time are Nicosia, Larnaca, and Limassol, which, in 1881, had respectively 11,536, 7833, and 6006 inhabitants. Nicosia, the capital, which is situated in the middle of the plain of the Mesaorea, is a comparatively modern town, having only become the seat of Government in the time of the Lusignan kings. Larnaca, on the other hand, is upon or close to the site of the Phœnician town of Citium, whose origin is lost in antiquity. Limassol is situated on the south coast, about six miles to the westward of the site of the ancient town of Amathus. Nicosia is, as already stated, the seat of government. Larnaca is the chief port of the Mesaorea, and the principal commercial town. Limassol is also a trading town, and a seaport of growing importance both on account of the wine trade and from the fact that it is close to Polymedia, the head-quarters of the British troops. Neither Larnaca nor Limassol, however, has more than a roadstead. The two towns of Paphos, once renowned throughout the world as the site of the worship of the Cyprian Venus, have both ceased to exist. Salamis, upon the eastern coast, the most

SECTION I.

famous of the Greek towns in ancient days, has been for many centuries in ruins; and the more recent town of Famagusta, which is four or five miles from the site of Salamis, and which was the most important port and fortress under the Lusignan and Venetian rule, is also mainly in ruins, although the fortifications still remain and the port has some trade with the neighbouring coasts. The town of Varoshia, about a mile outside the walls, is of some importance, and with Famagusta forms a municipality. It is inhabited by Greeks, the few Turks of the place usually residing within the fortified area of Famagusta itself.

Education

When Cyprus was first occupied by Great Britain there were but few schools, and not a single printing press, in the island. No Government aid was given to any Christian school. The only schools in receipt of grants were a Turkish High School at Nicosia and a number of 'Hodja Schools' throughout the island, in which latter nothing was taught except the recitation of the Koran in Arabic—a tongue unknown to the Cypriote Turks. Now there are several Greek newspapers and one English; and in 1886–7 there were 216 Christian and 79 Moslem schools in operation. A general system of grants in aid to efficient schools has been established. In 1886–7, 102 Christian and 65 Moslem schools were able to claim a share of the grants, of which one quarter is assigned to the Moslems and the remainder to the Christians.

Law and Justice.

But the change which has probably been most acceptable to the people at large is the reform of the law-courts. Under the Turkish régime, the administration of justice was in the hands of the officers of the executive government; and this system was at first continued. The result, however, was not satisfactory, and, after much discussion, a radical change was made. The law courts were wholly dissociated from the executive government. Barristers from the United Kingdom were appointed to preside constantly in every court of any

importance; and justice was brought home to the people by the establishment of a number of native village judges to hear petty civil causes. Justice is now administered by a Supreme Court, composed of a Chief Justice and one puisne Judge; by District Courts, consisting of an English barrister as president, and two other members—one a Christian and the other a Mohammedan, who also possess magisterial powers; by the village courts already mentioned; and, as regards religious cases affecting the Mohammedan population, by Mohammedan religious courts, for the continuance of which special provision was made in the Convention. All Ottoman subjects in the island are subject to Turkish law (most of which is embodied in codes), modified by the local ordinances and orders of the Queen in Council which have been passed since the date of the British occupation. British, and all other non-Ottoman, subjects live under British law, modified by any local ordinance or order in Council which may affect the particular question at issue.

General résumé.

Cyprus is not one of the parts of the world destined for British settlement. It is not a rocky promontory or island suited to be a fortress of a great naval power, nor is it an important port of call for passing trade. It has not been won by British arms, or even ceded by the direct action of its inhabitants. But it has passed into the keeping of the British Government, who hold it for the benefit of the Cypriote people, and as a point from which the coasts of Asia Minor can be watched. Situated as it is upon the border line between East and West, its possession brings Great Britain into contact both with the Greek race and with Turkish rule. Here, and here alone, the British Empire takes in one of the centres of classical romance: here the English have returned to an island which was conquered long centuries ago by an English king: and here they are called upon to nurse back, if possible, to prosperity an Eastern land of promise and decay.

SECTION I.

BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO CYPRUS.

Cyprus, its ancient cities, tombs, and temples, by General L. P. DI CESNOLA. London, 1877.

Cyprus. By R. HAMILTON LANG, C.M.G. London, 1878.

An article in the *Law Magazine* for May, 1880, by Sir TRAVERS TWISS, Q.C., D.C.L.

Various official papers presented to Parliament, of which the most important are *Correspondence respecting the Convention between Great Britain and Turkey of June 4, 1878*, C. 2057; *Papers relating to the administration and finances of Cyprus*, C. 3661, June, 1883; and the *Annual Reports* of the High Commissioner.

Handbook to Cyprus and Catalogue of the Exhibits in the Colonial and Indian Exhibition, 1886, by R. HAMILTON LANG, C.M.G.

An attempt at a Bibliography of Cyprus, by C. D. COBHAM. Cyprus, 1886.

Lectures on the Study of Medieval and Modern History, by W. STUBBS, D.D., BISHOP OF CHESTER. Oxford, 1886.

The whole aspect of the Mediterranean was changed by the opening of the Suez Canal. Viewing it under its modern conditions as the high road to the East, the three dependencies of Great Britain in this sea—Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus—are, taken together, a singularly strong chain of positions. But it must not be forgotten that the great colonising nation of the present day holds points which in old times would have practically tapped the whole of the Mediterranean.

While the world centred round the inland sea, and that sea was all in all, the parts of its shores, from which commerce and civilisation flowed, were the coasts of Phœnicia and Asia Minor, the Delta of the Nile, the African promontory of Carthage, and the three northern peninsulas of Greece, Italy, and Spain.

Gibraltar between Spain and Africa; Malta between Sicily and Tunis; Cyprus, hard by Phœnicia, near to Egypt, and not far from Greece and the coast of Asia Minor which the

Greeks had made their own, seem to bear witness that, while the minds of the English have been set on the East, they have, by the mere force of geographical attraction, occupied the points which were connecting links between the various commercial and colonising districts of the ancient world.

CHAPTER II.

SECTION II.

THE MINOR ASIATIC DEPENDENCIES OF GREAT BRITAIN.

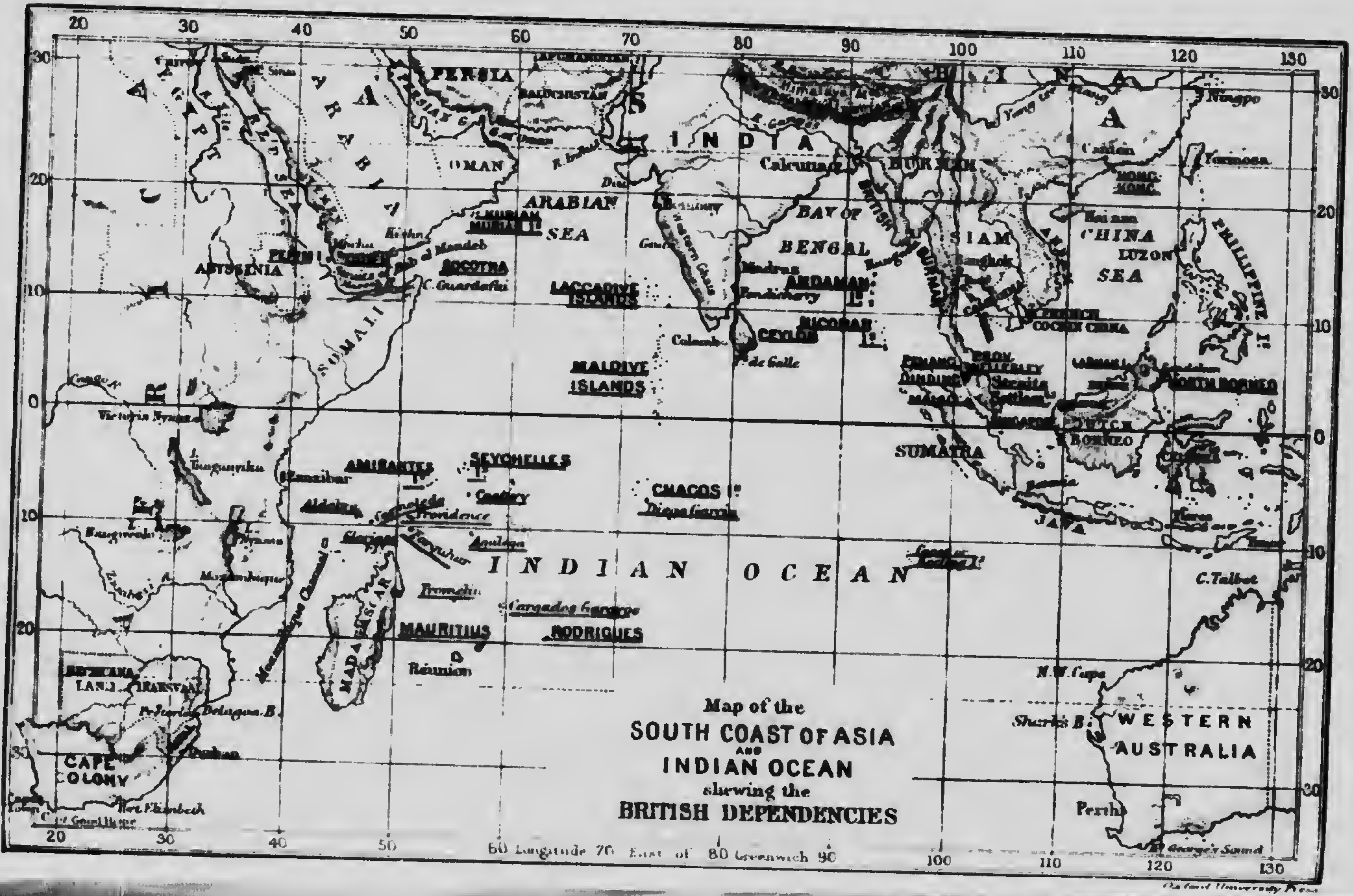
PREFACE.

SECTION II.

GEOGRAPHERS have often pointed out that there is a rough general similarity between the outlines of Europe and Asia; and especially that the three Southern peninsulas of Asia—Arabia, India, and Malay India—are magnified editions of the three Southern peninsulas of Europe—Spain, Italy, and Greece.

As has been seen, the British dependencies of Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus are in some sort outposts to the three European peninsulas; for even Cyprus, though it lies so close to Asia Minor, is and always has been in close connexion with Greece.

Similarly, in her course of expansion, Great Britain has laid hold of the three Southern projections of Asia. Aden in Arabia is an almost exact counterpart of Gibraltar in Spain. But if Italy and India, the two central peninsulas, be compared, it is seen at once that the English have done much more in Asia than in Europe. In Europe they only hold Malta over against the extreme end of Italy, whereas in Asia they seem to have instinctively recognised, as history has recognised, the pre-eminence which must attach to a nation holding the central position, and have made themselves masters of the whole of India. So also in Further India they



Map of the SOUTH COAST OF ASIA AND INDIAN OCEAN shewing the BRITISH DEPENDENCIES

PREFACE.

have not confined themselves to a solitary island, but are more and more extending their influence in the Malay peninsula.

A comparison of the South of Europe and the South of Asia is interesting from the point of view of historical geography; but a comparison of the British dependencies in the Mediterranean with those in the East is apt to be misleading. It happens that Great Britain holds in the Mediterranean positions slightly analogous to those which she holds in Southern Asia; but she holds them because they lead to the East and as stations on the road to India and Australia. If India had not been where it is, or if the English had not gone to the East, it is perhaps more than doubtful whether there would now be any British dependencies in the Mediterranean.

Excluding India, the Asiatic dependencies of Great Britain are Aden and Perim, Socotra, Ceylon and the Maldive Islands, the Straits Settlements, Labuan, North Borneo, and Hong Kong.

The following table shows the mode and date of acquisition in each case, the area, and the population (at the 1881 census, where there was a census):—

Name of dependency.	*How acquired.*	*Date.*	*Area in sq. miles.*	*Population.*
Aden	Taken	1839	70	34,860 (Aden and Perim)
Perim	Occupied	1857	5	
Socotra	Under British Protectorate	1886	3000 (est.)	2000 (est.)
Ceylon	Taken	1796	25,365	2,763,984
Maldives	"	"	(?)	30,000 (est.)
Straits Settlements	Ceded	1786	1472½	423,384
Labuan	Ceded	1846	30	5995
North Borneo	Ceded to Private Co.	1881[1]	31,000 (est.)	150,000 (est.)
Hong Kong	Ceded	1841	30½	160,402

Total Area ... ... 60,973 sq. miles.
Total Population ... 3,570,625.

[1] This is the date of the incorporation of the British North Borneo Company.

SECTION II.

These dependencies are the results of cession or conquest, not of simple settlement. They were all acquired comparatively lately, at the end of the last or during the present century. They all lie within the tropics, and are all peninsulas or islands. Some of them, like Aden and Hong Kong, are partly military posts, partly commercial emporia; others, like Ceylon, are valuable also for their internal resources. But they are none of them colonies in the true sense of the word, i.e. places outside Great Britain, which have been made homes for the English people [1].

[1] The list given above, and any other which might be given, is open to numberless criticisms. With India have been omitted Burmah and the islands regarded as belonging to India, e.g. the Laccadives, Nicobars, Andaman Islands, &c. Aden, with its kindred dependencies, has on the contrary been included, as geographically distinct from, though politically incorporated with, India. Socotra is associated with Aden, and kept in the same group, though it belongs geographically to Africa rather than to Asia: the British Protectorate over the Island having been lately confirmed, it has been included in the list of British dependencies. The Native States of the Malay peninsula have not been so included, though an account of them is given further on. North Borneo, popularly known as British North Borneo, is included, as belonging to British subjects holding a charter from the Crown though not to the British Government. Sarawak is not included, being an independent state though ruled by an Englishman. The Cocos Islands, though a dependency of the Straits Settlements, have been placed, in accordance with their geographical position, among the British dependencies in the Indian Ocean.

MAP SHEWING
BRITISH DEPENDENCIES
OF
ADEN & PERIM

ENGLISH MILES

0 5 10 20 40 60 80 100

RED SEA

Mokha

Jebel Yafai

Lahej

BRITISH TERRITORY

ADEN

Cape Aden

BRITISH PROTECTORATE

STRAIT OF BAB EL MANDEB

GULF OF ADEN

Obock

Tejureh

Gulf of Tejureh

Zeila

Ras Mashon

BRITISH PROTECTORATE

SOMALI

Berbera

Longitude East 45 from Greenwich

THE PENINSULA
OF
ADEN

Khor Maksar

Swamp

REMAINS OF AQUEDUCT

N

Jam Ali

Aliyah

Jezirat Sawayah

ADEN OR BACK BAY

Aden Anchorage

Marzuk Kabir

Flint I.

Steamer Point

Ras Marbut

Ras Tarshein

Signal Station 1600 ft.

1776 ft.

Ras el Erugh

Sirah I.

Round I.

Jezirut Benafsah

CAPE ADEN

Ras Sinailah

Ras Marsigh

Bandar Duras

Ras Taih

ENGLISH MILES

ADEN
shewing
BRITISH TERRITORY

LITTLE ADEN

Sheikh Othman

Huswah

ADEN OR BACK BAY

Low and Sandy

ADEN

Sirah I.

Round I.

Cape Aden

Ras Sinailah

Ras Marsigh

ENGLISH MILES

0 1 2 3 4 5

Oxford University Press

CHAPTER I.

THE BRITISH DEPENDENCIES AT THE MOUTH OF THE RED SEA.

Chapter I.

General.

STEAMERS, following the direct route from England to the East and Australia, enter the inland seas by the Straits of Gibraltar [1], and pass again, in about a fortnight's time, into the open ocean by the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, or 'Gate of Tears,' which form the southern entrance to the Red Sea.

Aden lies about 100 miles to the east of the Straits, on the southern coast of Arabia. Its outpost, the little island of Perim, is in the middle of the Straits. In the same group of British dependencies may be placed the Kuriah Muriah islands, lying far to the eastward of Aden, off the southern coast of Arabia: while the island of Socotra off Cape Guardafui, a strip of the Somali coast over against Aden, and the district of Arabia in the neighbourhood of Aden, are under British protection.

The popular view of Aden is that it is a barren rock, now utilised as a coaling station for British steamers, but otherwise devoid of historical interest or of commercial importance. It has, on the contrary, had a considerable past; and its history is full of interest as an index to the changes which have taken place in the trade routes between the East and the West. It was of great importance before the passage round the Cape was discovered. It declined as that route came more and more into use: and it has risen again with the opening of the Suez Canal, and with the return of trade

[1] The Straits of Gibraltar are, at their narrowest points, $7\frac{3}{4}$ miles wide. The Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, $13\frac{1}{2}$.

SECTION II.

to the first and natural highway between Europe and Asia—a highway more important than ever, now that there is a Southern as well as an Eastern world to be reached from Europe.

Name.

Aden is in the part of Arabia included in the province of Yemen. The 'Eden' of Ezekiel xxvii. 23[1] has been rightly or wrongly identified with it. Ἀδάνη is found as a name for it, though not in classical times; it was called by Ptolemy Ἀραβίας ἐμπόριον; and both the port and the district were known to the ancients as εὐδαίμων Ἀραβία[2]—Arabia Felix.

The classical name of Perim[3] was the island of Diodorus. That of Socotra[4] was the island of Dioscorides, both 'Socotra' and 'Dioscorides' being supposed to be a corruption of the Sanscrit dvîpa Sukhâdhâra, 'island abode of bliss.'

Aden and Socotra would now-a-days hardly be selected as the scenes of an earthly paradise; but the ancients naturally looked for islands of the blest at the extreme limits of their world: and the spices and other riches, which reached them from Arabia and the East, caused a halo to be thrown around the parts from which they were vaguely known to come, and which in the very earliest times were grouped under the name of Ophir[5].

History: Ancient.

At any rate, at the beginning of ancient history, Aden,

[1] 'Haran and Canneh and Eden, the merchants of Sheba, Asshur, and Chilmad were thy merchants.'

[2] See the 'Commerce and Navigation of the Erythræan Sea, being a translation of the "Periplus Maris Erythræi"' by J. M. McCrindle, M.A., Trübner & Co. 1879. In the Periplus the name εὐδαίμων Ἀραβία is applied to the town alone, and the epithet is explained by the rich transit trade between India and Egypt of which Aden had been the scene before the date at which the Periplus was written: that date was probably towards the end of the 1st century A.D.

[3] In King's description of Perim it is stated that the island is called in Ptolemy 'Perantonomasiam,' 'extending across to Asia.'

[4] For the name and early notices of Socotra see 'The Book of Ser Marco Polo,' edited by Col. Yule, vol. ii. pp. 400, etc.

[5] For Ophir see Humbolt's Kosmos, and Heeren's Historical Researches, Asiatic Nations, Phœnicians, chap. 3. Heeren says, 'Ophir was the general name for the rich countries of the South, lying on the African, Arabian, and Indian coasts as far as at that time known.'

under its native kings, seems to have been well known to Phœnician merchants as a centre for the Arabian trade both by land and by sea, and also as a great entrepôt of commerce between the far East on the one side and Egypt and Europe on the other: while the Greek names quoted above, and the legend of a Greek colony having been planted in Socotra by Alexander the Great, show that this part of the world was known at least to the later Greeks.

Aden is supposed to have been taken by the Romans, under one of the earlier emperors; but the fact is doubtful [1], and the date is unknown. A Christian mission reached it in the reign of Constantius, in the year 342 A.D.; and at some time or other Christianity was introduced into Socotra, where it lasted in a debased form well into the middle ages.

Mediaeval.

In the 6th century A.D. Aden fell into the hands of the Abyssinians, subsequently into those of the Persians. It became Mohammedan with the rest of Arabia; and in the 10th century Yemen became an independent province. Aden was visited by Marco Polo towards the end of the 13th century. His account shows the port to have been, at the time of his visit, a great place for the transit of goods between India and Egypt, and also for the export of horses from Arabia to India. It had also, according to some authorities, trading relations with China; and later, early in the 15th century, ships are recorded to have been sent from China to Aden [2].

Among other travellers, who visited the port in the Middle Ages, were Sanuto, the compatriot of Marco Polo, who reached it at the beginning of the 14th century, and who alludes to it as Ahaden: the Moor Ibn Batuta, whose visit was a few years later, and who describes it as a place of

[1] The alleged capture by the Romans is based on a passage in the 'Periplus,' for which see the translation referred to on the preceding page.

[2] See 'Cathay and the way thither' [Hakluyt series], Preliminary Essay. See also Col. Yule's Marco Polo, vol. ii. pp. 436-7.

SECTION II.

great trade, and mentions the tanks, which have been lately in great measure repaired: and the Venetian Conti, who found it a rich city in the first half of the 15th century.

At the beginning of the 16th century the Bolognese traveller, Ludovico di Varthema, reached Aden. He has left a record of it as 'the strongest city that was ever seen on level ground,' and as the rendezvous for ships from India, Æthiopia, and Persia.

Modern. The Portuguese.

By the time of his visit the Portuguese had already found their way to the East round the Cape. Religion combined with the prospect of commercial advantages to attract them to the Red Sea. They hoped to reach the land of the Abyssinian Christians, whose king they identified with the long-talked-of Prester John[1]; and they wished, by blocking the Red Sea route, to secure a monopoly of the rich trade which passed through Mohammedan hands between the East and the West.

In 1506–7 Tristan d'Acunha and Albuquerque landed in Socotra. There they found native Christians, whose Christianity was reputed to have dated from the days of St. Thomas, but who required to be reinstructed in the ceremonies of the Church. After taking a Mohammedan stronghold, they built a fortress of their own in the island, which was, however, soon afterwards abandoned. The possession of Aden was one of the central points of Albuquerque's policy in the East[2]. He left on record that, for the preservation of India to the Portuguese empire, there were four places of which his countrymen should have absolute command; one of them was Aden, the other three, Ormuz, Diu, and Goa: and the author of the 'Commentaries of Albuquerque' mentions three points as being the keys of the East and the principal marts of commerce, Malacca,

[1] See Gibbon's note on Prester John, in chap. 47. In the same chapter he refers to Nestorian Christianity in Socotra.

[2] See the 'Commentaries of Albuquerque,' in the Hakluyt series.

CHAPTER I.

Aden, and Ormuz. The great governor, however, never succeeded in taking Aden. In 1513 he attacked it at Easter time with a strong force, but was beaten off; and after sailing up the Red Sea, and erecting a cross on the island of Perim, he turned again to the more accessible and more profitable coasts of India. His further preparations for taking the coveted point of vantage were cut short by death.

In 1516 an offer of submission to Portugal was made by the inhabitants of Aden, but was quickly withdrawn; and, except for a few months in 1551, the Portuguese never held possession of the town. The historian of Albuquerque states that Aden was a small place before the arrival of the Europeans in the East, and that it became great as a point of call for native shipping, under stress of the blockade maintained by the Portuguese fleets over the traffic of the Indies. This may have been the temporary result of the coming of the Portuguese to India, but the lasting effect of opening the ocean highway round the Cape was to diminish the importance of the Red Sea route and of the position which commanded it. The Dutch paid little attention to Aden, though their countryman Linschoten described it as the strongest and fairest town of Arabia Felix; and, with the growth of the coffee industry, Mocha superseded it as an outlet for Arabian produce. It was in the hands of the Turks from 1538 to 1630, when the province of Yemen again became independent. Thenceforward it remained in the hands of one native potentate or another, and, when visited at the beginning of the present century, was in a half-ruined condition [1].

The English.

The English East India Company first sent a ship to Aden in 1609. Nine years later a factory was established at Mocha. In 1799, in consequence of the French invasion of Egypt, the island of Perim was occupied by a British force, but after a few months was again abandoned. In 1802 a

[1] See the notice of it in Lord Valentia's travels, in the years 1802–1806.

SECTION II.

treaty was concluded with the then ruler of Aden. About 1829 the idea of making it a coaling station was entertained: and finally, outrages having been committed by its inhabitants on British subjects, the Sultan of Aden entered into a contract, at the beginning of 1838, to sell the peninsula to Great Britain. In January 1839, the fulfilment of the contract having been evaded, resort was had to force, and Aden was attacked and taken by British ships acting under instructions from the government of Bombay. It was the first addition made to the British empire during the present reign. In 1840, the Massah islands, and the island of Eibat, off the opposite coast of Africa, were bought. In 1850 Aden was declared a free port. In 1854 the Kuriah Muriah islands were ceded by the Sultan of Muscat. In 1857 Perim was again occupied. In 1868 the peninsula of Little Aden, forming the Western arm of the harbour, and the little island of Sirah on the Eastern side of the main peninsula, were secured by purchase. And in 1882 the area of British territory in Arabia was doubled by buying up a tract inland, including the village of Shaikh Othman on the North-West. This last transaction placed the vicinity of the harbour in British hands, gave command of one of the sources of the water supply, i.e. the wells at Shaikh Othman, as well as of valuable salt-pits, and provided space for the overflowing population of Aden proper.

Since 1876, the owner of Socotra, the Sultan of Kishn in Arabia, had been under agreement not to admit the interference of any foreign power in that island. In 1886 a further step was taken, and the island was placed more directly under a British protectorate. Lastly, treaties of friendship have from time to time been made or renewed, confirming British influence over the Arab tribes round Aden, and over the Somalis of the neighbouring African coast.

Administration, etc.

Politically, Aden is, and has been ever since its first occupation by British forces, under the authority of the

government of Bombay. Its administration is in the hands of a Political Resident, who is also usually commander of the garrison, and who has two Assistants.

CHAPTER I.

For legal purposes, it is considered as part of British India. In 1864 a special act was passed by the government of India to regulate the administration of justice in the settlement. Under this act the administration of criminal justice is vested in the court of the Resident, minor cases being tried by the Assistant Residents, the Cantonment Magistrate, and the Officer Commanding the Aden troop. Death sentences are subject to revision by the High Court at Bombay. The Indian criminal procedure code and the Indian penal code are followed, and the civil procedure is on the same lines as that of the Mofussil.

Area and Geography.

The total area of the settlement of Aden, exclusive of Perim, is 70 square miles, made up as follows:—Aden, 21; Shaikh Othman, 34; Little Aden, 15. It is therefore about half as large as the Isle of Wight. Aden consists of two peninsulas, running out from the south coast of Arabia, and of a small piece of territory inland, called Shaikh Othman after the name of its principal village. The Eastern peninsula is Aden proper; the Western, Little Aden. They enclose between them a bay, known as Aden Back Bay, 8 miles broad from East to West, 4 miles deep from North to South. The entrance of the bay is rather more than 3 miles wide, and just inside the entrance, on the Eastern side, is Steamer Point, where the large ships call and which is about 4 miles from the town. Inside, the bay is divided by a spit of land into two parts. The inner bay, which contains several little islands, runs into the narrow neck of land, connecting the town and promontory of Aden with the mainland. The isthmus is only about 1350 yards wide, and is nearly covered by the sea at high tide. Across it runs the aqueduct, which brings water into the settlement from the wells at Shaikh Othman: and, where it joins the mainland, is the creek known

SECTION II.

as Khor Maksar. On the Eastern side of the peninsula is the little fortified island of Sirah, connected with Aden by a causeway.

The peninsula of Aden consists mainly of the crater of an extinct volcano, within which the town is placed. The sides of the crater are for the most part precipitous, the highest rock rising to 1776 feet, but there is a gap in the rocky side on the East, opposite the island of Sirah. The entrance into the crater from the isthmus is known as the Northern or main pass.

Climate.

Situated as Aden is in the heart of the tropics, and shut in by bare rocks, its climate is necessarily very hot; and, though not considered unhealthy, it tells after a while on European residents. The pleasantest time is during the prevalence of the North-East monsoon, from October to April: during the rest of the year the settlement in the crater is subject to the hot North wind, blowing from the Arabian desert.

Rainfall and water supply.

The average annual rainfall in the crater is about 3 inches. As much as 8 inches has fallen in the year; on the other hand, in some years there has been hardly any rain at all. The water for the settlement is supplied from various sources. There are some wells in the peninsula itself. From others, on the mainland, water is brought into Aden, partly in skins on camels' backs, partly by the aqueduct which has been already mentioned[1], and which conducts the water from the wells at Shaikh Othman across the isthmus into tanks constructed to receive it. Condensers are also employed: and lastly there is the celebrated series of tanks framed to catch the occasional rains, dating back, it is supposed, from 600 A.D., mentioned by travellers at various times, and of late years to a great extent repaired. They are on the Western side of the town, and consist of a chain of reservoirs, one above the other, so constructed as to intercept

[1] This aqueduct must not be confused with the one built by the native sovereign of Yemen towards the end of the 15th century, the ruins of which still remain.

CHAPTER I.

the drainage of the main ravine, into which most of the various gullies on the inner face of the crater converge. When rain falls, little is absorbed on the steep hard sides of the rocks; consequently from a comparatively small fall a large supply of water is collected. These tanks are one among many instances of the engineering capacity of Eastern races, and can only have been built to supply a city with a flourishing trade and a large population [1].

Population.

When the town was taken in 1839, the population had dwindled to some 6000. According to the census of 1881, the numbers were 34,860, the males being nearly double as many as the females [2]. The increase in the population in the ten years 1871–1881 was very large, due, no doubt, in great measure to the opening of the Suez Canal. Here, as at Gibraltar, over-population has been one of the main difficulties with which the government has had to deal; and it has led, as already pointed out, to the acquisition of fresh territory outside the peninsula.

The main bulk of the inhabitants are Mohammedans, chiefly Arabs, or Somalis from the African coast: and Jews are also an important element in the population.

The garrison numbers about 2000, the cantonments being in the crater, at Steamer Point, on the isthmus, and at Khor Maksar.

Trade, Finance, etc.

Aden practically produces nothing except pumice stone. Its supplies of food, fodder, fire-wood, and to a great extent water also, are imported by land [3] or sea; and its great trade is purely a transit trade. It is not only the main coaling station for vessels passing up and down the Red Sea, but is also a place where Arabia and Africa, Europe and the East interchange their wares. European and Indian goods are

[1] See what is said of the tanks in Ceylon, pp. 77-8.

[2] These numbers include the garrison and also the few residents at Perim.

[3] A description of the caravan routes from the interior to Aden is given in Hunter's Account of Aden.

SECTION II.

imported and supplied to the Arabs and Somalis, while dyes[1], jams, Mocha coffee, ostrich feathers, shells, and other commodities are in turn exported.

Its trade grew rapidly when it was declared a free port in 1850, and the opening of the Suez Canal added enormously to it. Latterly, duties have been levied on spirits, wines, and arms. The proceeds of these duties, of the salt revenue, of stamps, of certain taxes, and of some minor receipts, are credited to India, either to the Imperial or to the Provincial Exchequer; but they represent only a very small proportion of the cost incurred by the Indian government in maintaining the station. The up-keep of the harbour and its establishment is paid for by port dues; and there is a municipal fund, administered by the Resident and his Assistants, and supported by quit rents, licenses, small fees and rates, and the sale of water from the wells in the peninsula.

The Indian silver coinage is current in the settlement.

Distances and General résumé.

Aden is rather over 1300 miles from Suez, over 1600 from Bombay, about 2100 from Colombo, about 1500 from the Seychelles, about 2400 from Mauritius, nearly 2100 miles from Diego Garcia, and nearly 5000 from the nearest point of Australia. Like Gibraltar, it is one of the main gates on the high-roads of the world, held by the leading naval and commercial power. Like Gibraltar, though not in Africa it commands the African coast. As bare of products as any spot on the surface of the globe, its position makes it the scene of a vast transit trade. It has great historical interest, as having been in the past, as it is in the present, one of the meeting-places of the world: and its possession gives Great Britain a foothold in the land which was the birth-place of Mohammedanism.

Perim.

The little island of Perim, the Arab name of which is Mayun, lies right in the middle of the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, about 1¼ miles from the nearest point of Arabia.

[1] The Commentaries of Albuquerque mention the export of 'madder' as the principal source of revenue of the king of Aden.

and about 10 from the nearest point of Africa. It is of volcanic formation. Its greatest length is rather over 3 miles, its average breadth about 1¾, and its total area about 5 square miles. It is little more than a rock, bare and waterless, though goats manage to subsist in it upon the coarse grass and stunted shrubs. It consists of a series of low hills, running up to slightly over 200 feet, and surrounding a fine harbour on the South-West side, secure in all weathers, 1½ miles in length, about the same in breadth, and with an entrance 860 yards wide.

On the East of the harbour is the fort and station for the small detachment of Indian troops which garrisons the rock. All their food is brought from the outside: they are supplied with water by condensers: and they are relieved, if possible, every few months. There is a coaling station on the island belonging to the Perim coal company.

Socotra.

The island of Socotra lies off Cape Guardafui, at a distance of more than 150 miles from that Cape, and about 230 from the nearest point of Arabia. It is rather less than 100 miles long from East to West, about 30 miles broad [1], and is said to have an area of 3000 square miles. It consists of a strip of land along the coast, and of a mountainous interior, with mountains running up to a height of some 4000 feet and fertile valleys, giving good pasturage for cows, sheep, and goats. On a bay on the North coast is Tamarida, the principal village on the island. The climate of Socotra is moist and hot, though the heat is said not to be excessive. The chief vegetable products of the island are aloes and the dragon's-blood tree [2], and its inhabitants live on dates and on the produce of their

[1] This statement of area is a pure guess. The most varied statements of dimensions, area, and population are given. In the 'Sailing Directory for the Indian Ocean,' the dimensions given are, length 71¼ miles, greatest breadth 22¼, area 1100 sq. miles.

[2] In old days this island like many others was famous for ambergris: and the author of the 'Periplus' speaks of it as producing the large land tortoise.

SECTION II.

flocks and herds. The population is now estimated as low as 2000. Around the coast they are a mixed breed[1], containing Arab, Somali, and even Portuguese elements, the mixture of race being no doubt due in some measure to the pirates who long frequented the island. Inland the inhabitants are apparently of quite a different origin; and here, as elsewhere, the mountains seem to have preserved the old native race. Christianity has long died out, even in the debased form in which it was found by Albuquerque and his followers; and the inhabitants are either Mohammedans or Pagans.

The Kuriah Muriah islands.

The Kuriah Muriah islands are five small islands in the bay of that name on the South coast of Arabia, which finds a place in the Commentaries of Albuquerque.

They contain deposits of guano, and shortly after their cession to Great Britain, a licence was issued to a private company to raise and export guano from three of the islands. Only a small amount however was actually exported.

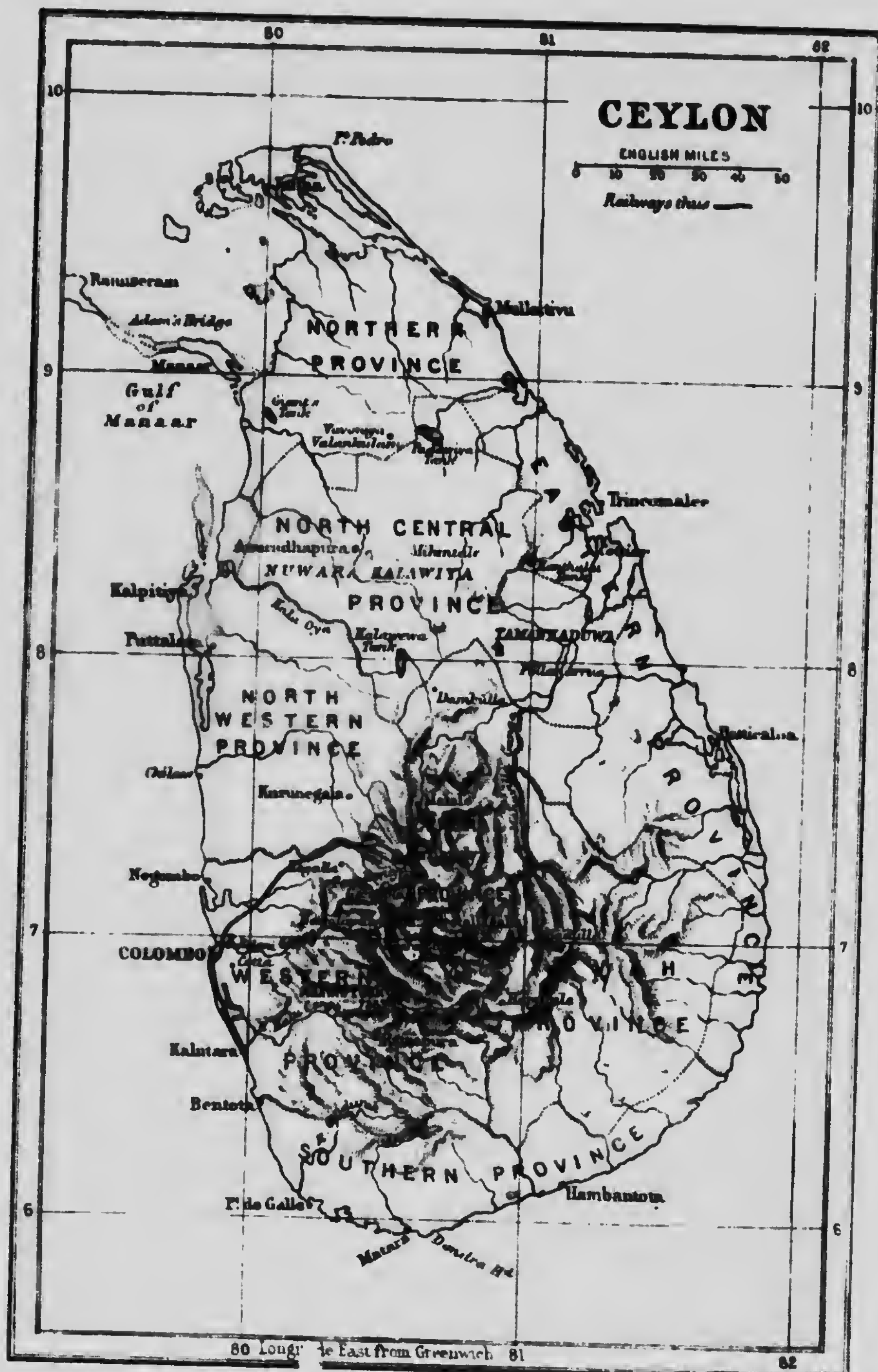
BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO ADEN, ETC.

In addition to the annual administrative reports, a good account of Aden will be found in the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, s. v.

The early history can be gathered from various volumes of the Hakluyt series; from Col. YULE'S *Marco Polo*, which also gives an account of Socotra; from McCRINDLE'S translation of the 'Periplus Maris Erythræi;' and from PLAYFAIR'S *History of Arabia Felix or Yemen* (Bombay, 1859), included in the selections from the *Records of the Bombay Government*, No. 49. The standard work on Aden however is *An Account of the British Settlement of Aden in Arabia*, by Capt. HUNTER, 1877; Trübner and Co. A full account of Perim is given in Lieut. KING'S *Descriptive and Historical Account of the British outpost of Perim* (Bombay, 1877), included in the selections from the *Records of the Bombay Government*, No. 149. The 'Sailing Directory for the Indian Ocean,' by A. G. FINDLAY, contains much useful geographical information on the various British dependencies in that ocean.

---

[1] The author of the 'Periplus' speaks of the population as scanty in numbers, inhabiting the North side of the island, and consisting of a mixture of foreigners, Arabs, Indians, and Greeks.



Oxford University Press

CHAPTER II.

CEYLON.

Chapter II. — *Name.*

THE traditional native name for Ceylon is Lanka[1]; but in very early times it was given in Sanskrit the alternative name of Sinhala-dvîpa, or island of the Sinhala. Sinhala means 'lions' abode,' and the natives of Ceylon still use the word adjectivally to denote everything belonging to themselves, as we use 'English.' The Greek name for the island was Taprobane[2], a modification of which occurs in the mediaeval Mappa Mundi now in Hereford Cathedral, the inscription being 'Taphana insula Indie subjacens. . . .'

Sinhala-dvîpa developed into Serendivi in Ammianus Marcellinus. Then came the Sarandib or Serendib of the Arabs, and 'dib' merely signifying island, Saran the distinctive name became, by the interchange of l for r, Sailan or Seilan in the writings of the mediaeval travellers. Thence came the final development of the French Ceylan and the English Ceylon.

History. Classical notices.

Among classical writers Onesicritos is said to be the first to notice Ceylon. He was the chief pilot of the fleet which in B.C. 326 Alexander the Great sent from the mouth of the Indus to the head of the Persian Gulf; but nothing of his writings has been preserved beyond quotations by later authors. In the reign of the Roman Emperor Claudius, A.D. 41–54, an embassy was sent to Rome by the King of Ceylon, and an

[1] For the meaning of 'Lanka' (Sanskrit), see under 'Lanka' in the invaluable Glossary of Anglo-Indian words by Yule and Burnell.

[2] Said to be a corruption of Pali words meaning 'copper-palmed,' and to refer to the colour of the soil. For 'Taphana' see the essay on the Hereford Mappa Mundi by Beavan and Phillott, published by Messrs. Stanford, 1874. In the 'Periplus' the island is said to have been called 'by the ancients' Taprobane.

SECTION II.

account of the island is given by Pliny the elder, who wrote about the same date, and who records the fact of the embassy. Three centuries later in the reign of Julian, A.D. 362, it is recorded by Ammianus Marcellinus that ambassadors arrived at Rome 'ab usque Divis et Serendivis.' Lastly, the Geography of Ptolemy of Alexandria, written in the second century A.D., contains a description of Taprobane sufficiently full and accurate to prove that the coasts of the island had by that time been visited and explored by traders, and that Ceylon might thenceforward be included within the limits of the known world.

Position of Ceylon.

A reference to the map of Asia shows first, that Ceylon is geographically more or less an appendage of India and would naturally be peopled from the great peninsula; and secondly, that it lies, very roughly speaking, half-way between Arabia on the West and China on the East. These two main features in the geography of the island give the clue to its early history.

The Sinhalese.

The Sinhalese, who form the main bulk of the population, were immigrants from India, the date assigned to their first entry into Ceylon under the leadership of Wijayo being B.C. 543. The immigration therefore took place well within historic times; and consequently it might be supposed that ample traces would be found of Aboriginal inhabitants of the island. But for some reason or other such traces are difficult to find; for it is considered doubtful whether the Veddahs, some of whom still remain in the heart of the jungle, are the remnant of an Aboriginal race or merely backward members of the Sinhalese family.

The Sinhalese are supposed to have come from the valley of the Ganges, although the race is a mixed one, and the language has been grouped rather with the Dravidian languages of the South of India than with the Aryan tongues of the North[1]. Ceylon was therefore in the main peopled by a

[1] See Keane's Ethnological Appendix to 'Asia' [Stanford's compendium of Geography and Travel].

definite invasion, not by the gradual displacement of neighbouring peoples; and the streams of migration from Southern India did not begin to pour into the island till after the Sinhalese had taken root in it and made it their home.

CHAPTER II.

The Sinhalese were a people of agriculturists. They brought with them into Ceylon the system of village communities, which is still so important a factor in the social system of the island; and they constructed throughout the land the magnificent series of tanks and reservoirs for purposes of irrigation, the restoration of which is one of the main objects of the present government. They brought with them too the reverence for caste, which has ever had so overpowering and deadening an effect among Hindus; but they did not import the Buddhist religion, which is professed by the Sinhalese of the present day.

Buddhism.

The date assigned to the introduction of Buddhism into Ceylon is 307 B.C., and the planting of the sacred Bo-tree at Anuradhapura as the centre-point of the national religion is supposed to date from 288 B.C. From that time the new religion spread through the island, marking its progress by the construction of numberless monasteries and dagobas [1]. It breathed a spirit of toleration. It set itself, in theory at any rate, in opposition to the rigorous laws of caste as prescribed by the Brahmin religion. It promoted irrigation and agriculture. But at the same time it weighted the island with a numerous, powerful, and richly endowed priesthood.

The Tamils.

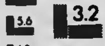
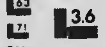
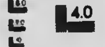
In the third century B.C. the pressure of the Malabars [2] or Tamils from Southern India began to be felt in Ceylon. They were introduced in the first instance as mercenaries by the Sinhalese Kings; and, as in other countries under the same circumstances, the servants gradually became masters.

[1] The name dagoba is, according to Col. Yule's Glossary, 'applied to any dome-like Buddhist shrine.'

[2] Tennent points out that the 'Malabar' invaders came from a much wider area than the part of India now known as Malabar (vol. i. pt. 3. chap. 5. p. 353, *note*).

MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)

APPLIED IMAGE Inc
1653 East Main Street
Rochester, New York 14609 USA
(716) 482 - 0300 - Phone
(716) 288 - 5989 - Fax

SECTION II.

In 237 B.C. two leaders of Malabar mercenaries made themselves supreme for twenty years. Shortly afterwards, in 205 B.C., a Malabar invader, Elala by name, seized the throne. He ruled ably and well for forty years; and from that time onward the island was periodically overrun from India, in B.C. 103, in A.D. 110, and in A.D. 433.

From the end of the 11th to the beginning of the 13th century A.D. there was a brilliant revival of the Sinhalese power, chiefly due to the ability of the King Prakrama Bahu; but, with this exception, the history of Ceylon from 500 to 1500 A.D. is a history of internal weakness and foreign invasion. The Malabars permanently occupied the Jaffna peninsula. The Sinhalese were driven South towards the mountain districts; and their capital was removed from Anuradhapura to Pollanarrua, and from Pollanarrua to Kurunegala, to Gampola, to Kandy, and finally to Cotta[1]. Cotta, a few miles from Colombo, was the last resting-place of an expiring dynasty, when the Portuguese landed in the island in 1507.

Ceylon and China.

But, while the main stream of the early history of Ceylon flowed directly from India, other influences reached the island from the East and West. Community of religion connected it with China. Chinese merchants and travellers appear at an early date to have visited it overland, and at a later date Chinese trading vessels frequented its shores[2]. Official intercourse between the two countries seems to have begun towards the end of the 4th century A.D.; various

[1] Writing in 1685, the Portuguese Ribeyro says, 'Ceylon is said to have seven kingdoms' exclusive of the Malabar kingdom at Jaffna. He goes on to say, 'The most powerful of its former princes was the king of Cotta, whom all the others revered as their emperor.' The king of Cotta therefore was the representative of the old Sinhalese dynasty.

[2] In chapter 40 of his history, speaking of Ceylon in the time of Justinian, Gibbon says, 'In this hospitable isle, at an equal distance (as it was computed) from their respective countries, the silk merchants of China, who had collected in their voyages aloes, cloves, nutmeg, and sandalwood, maintained a free and beneficial intercourse with the inhabitants of the Persian Gulf.'

embassies passed from one to the other, and for the first half of the 15th century Ceylon was recognised as a tributary vassal of China.

CHAPTER II.

The Arabs.

As the Chinese traders came up from the East round the Malay peninsula, so, from early times, the Arabs came down from the West along the Malabar coast of India; and Galle and Colombo became centre-points for the trade from either quarter. The Arabs brought with them in due course the Mohammedan religion, and their connection with the island has remained unbroken. Their descendants, the Moors as they are called, still form a considerable proportion of the coast population, though mainly on the Eastern side—the farthest removed from Arabia; and, at the present day, the Mohammedans are among the most enterprising merchants at all the trading centres of Ceylon. One of the earliest mediaeval travellers from the West to Ceylon was Ibn Batuta, the Moor of Tangier, who left a long and interesting account of his pilgrimage to Adam's Peak in 1344.

Mediaeval travellers to Ceylon.

Ceylon was visited in the Middle Ages by various European travellers, hailing principally from the Italian cities. As the Mediterranean had been the scene of ancient colonisation, so, in the Middle Ages, from the cities on its shores explorers went forth, who gradually lifted the veil from the lands beyond the seas, and, when the fulness of time had come, opened the world to modern trade and settlement. The most celebrated of these earlier visitors to Ceylon was the Venetian Marco Polo, whose wanderings in the East extended over the years 1271 to 1295. Among his successors were John de Marignolli, the Franciscan friar of Florence; Conti, like Marco Polo, a citizen of Venice; the Genoese, Hieronymo di Santo Stefano; and Varthema of Bologna, who visited the island in 1505, little more than a year before the first Portuguese vessels reached its shores [1].

[1] See Col. Yule's Marco Polo, 2 vols. 1871 (2nd edit. 1875): and the following volumes of the Hakluyt Society: *Cathay*, edd. by Col. Yule; *Varthema*, edd. by Dr. Badger; India in the 15th century, by R. H. Major.

SECTION II.

The Portuguese.

The Portuguese arrived in Ceylon in 1507[1]. In that year Lorenzo de Almeyda, son of the first Viceroy of India, was accidentally carried to Galle. He found the trade of the island in the hands of the Moors, who naturally resented any European intrusion upon their monopoly. In 1517 Soarez, the successor of Albuquerque, established a factory at Colombo; and in no long time the Portuguese, taking advantage of native feuds and dissensions, gained a foothold at Galle, Kalutara, Negombo, Manaar and elsewhere; and, by a succession of fortresses, acquired absolute control over the coasting trade. The Kings of Cotta, the nominal sovereigns of Ceylon, became their dependents. Christianity was spread in high places by Portuguese gold and Portuguese arms. And when the last of the legitimate Kings of Ceylon died in 1597, he bequeathed, or was asserted to have bequeathed, his dominions to Philip II, then King of Portugal as well as Spain. Upon this bequest, in the main, rested the Portuguese title to the sovereignty of the island. But, though in 1617 Jaffna, the stronghold of the Malabars, was taken, the invaders' authority extended only over the low-lying districts; and among the mountains in the centre of the island, the Kandyans still maintained their independence.

The Dutch.

Even before Jaffna had been taken the Dutch had already appeared on the scene. Ever dogging the footsteps of the Portuguese in the Eastern seas, they were yet ever careful to avoid collision as far as possible with their powerful rivals. Accordingly their earliest visits were to the Eastern side of the island, the first Dutch ship anchoring at Batticaloa in 1602. The new-comers were welcomed by the Kandyan King as allies against the Portuguese, and in 1612 they were allowed to build a fort at Cottiar on the bay of Trincomalee.

In 1638 a Dutch fleet was despatched to Ceylon with the definite intention of driving the Portuguese out of the island.

[1] Tennent gives 1505 as the date.

Batticaloa was taken in that year; Galle and Negombo in 1640; Colombo in 1656; and Jaffna, the last point in Ceylon to be held by the Portuguese as it was the last to be taken by them, in 1658. From that date the Dutch were supreme in Ceylon at every point outside the mountains of the central province, until in their turn they gave way to the English.

CHAPTER II.

The Portuguese and Dutch bore rule in Ceylon for almost the same number of years; but the Portuguese left a more distinct mark on the island than was left by their successors. Portuguese names are more common than Dutch; the Eurasians are mainly of Portuguese descent; and more converts were made by the Roman Catholic Church than by Dutch Protestantism. The one great legacy of the Netherlands to Ceylon was the Roman Dutch law, which is still, in a modified form, the law of the land.

The English.

Engrossed in the work of securing and extending their Indian possessions, the English sent no force to Ceylon till 1782, when Trincomalee was temporarily occupied by Sir Hector Munro. In the autumn of 1795, the Netherlands having become a dependency of France, Lord Hobart the Governor of Madras, sent a second expedition to Ceylon; and early in 1796 the whole of the Dutch possessions in the island were formally ceded to Great Britain, the cession being confirmed by the Peace of Amiens in 1802.

The Sinhalese at first sided with the English from enmity to the Dutch, just as a century and a half before they had sided with the Dutch against the Portuguese. But no sooner was the struggle at an end, than the new-comers became in their turn objects of suspicion and distrust to the native population. The sudden change of administration, and the introduction of the revenue system of Madras, led to an outbreak in 1797. In consequence the obnoxious arrangements were promptly reversed, the Indian officials were removed, and Ceylon was definitively separated from India and constituted a Crown Colony. The course of events however showed that

SECTION II.

the Kandyans, like the Affghan mountaineers in later times, were not lightly prepared to submit to foreign rule. The rejection of a British embassy with a strong armed escort was followed by the occupation of Kandy in 1803. A hollow convention, accompanied by the withdrawal of the main body of the occupying forces, was in turn followed by an indiscriminate massacre of those who had been left behind; and it was not till 1815 that, aided by the terror and disgust which the savage tyranny of the King of Kandy had excited among his subjects, the English reoccupied the capital. The King was then formally deposed and banished, and his dominions vested in the British Crown. Even this was not the end of troubles. Within two years, in 1817, the Kandyans broke out into revolt which took a year to quell. Their hostility represented in part the bonâ fide discontent of a native race subjected to foreign masters, but still more the struggle of a feudal aristocracy against the levelling justice of British rule. Gradually, however, the long standing customs were modified, which had kept the lower classes of the natives in subjection to the higher; and the construction of roads through the inland districts, especially the great highway from Colombo to Kandy, the work of Sir Edward Barnes[1], begun in 1821 and finally completed in 1831, in time consolidated British supremacy in Ceylon. The last Kandyan rising occurred in 1848, during the Government of Lord Torrington, but it was quelled within three months, and since that date the history of the island has been one of unbroken peace.

Government and Administration.

Ceylon is a typical Crown Colony. The Executive and administrative power is in the hands of the Governor and the five officials composing his Executive Council: while the Legislative Council consists of the Governor, eight official,

[1] This road fulfilled a native prophecy, resembling the prophecies to be found in Herodotus, that 'the Kandyan kingdom would perish when a bullock should be driven through a certain hill and a horseman ride through a rock.' Tennent, vol. ii. part 7. chap. 4.

and six unofficial members. The latter are nominated by the Governor. Three of them are Europeans, representing respectively, the planters, the merchants, and the general European community. Of the other three, one is a Sinhalese, one is a Tamil, and the third is a Burgher or in other words an Eurasian. Thus, while there is no form of election or pretence at popular government, an attempt is yet made to allow the different classes and interests to be in a manner represented in the legislature.

CHAPTER II.

The administration of the island still retains traces of the old native régime. In the Sinhalese districts, away from the towns and from the ordinary police courts, the village community system is utilised for administrative and judicial purposes. The village councils frame rules for the furtherance of irrigation, the cultivation of lands, the protection of paths and bridges, and other village purposes; and numberless petty cases are tried before the village tribunals. Th natives still pay to the English Government, as they paid to their native rulers, the tithe of their paddy crops; though they pay it now in money, not in kinl Salt still remains a valuable Government monopoly: and compulsory labour is still exacted in a modified form, for all the adult males in the island, who are not specially exempted, are required by law either to work on the roads for six days in the year, or to pay a small sum in lieu of personal labour.

Law and Justice.

Justice is administered in Ceylon by a Supreme Court consisting of a Chief Justice and two Puisne Judges, by District Judges, and Police Magistrates. The law of the land is the Roman Dutch, supplemented by local ordinances. In the Kandyan provinces the old Kandyan common law regulates all questions of marriage and devolution of property.

Finances.

The silver rupee coinage is current in Ceylon. The revenue is derived mainly from railway receipts, from customs, licences, and stamps, and from the grain tax and the salt monopoly which directly touch the native population.

SECTION II.

Ceylon has of late years suffer[ed] the fate which too often befalls countries depending to [a g]reat extent on a single industry. The spread of the coffee-leaf disease, combined with general commercial depression, has reduced the revenue from some 17 million rupees in 1877 to a little over 13 millions at the present time. But the tide seems now to have turned[1], other industries are supplementing coffee, and the expenditure on Public Works, which was inevitably curtailed, is again beginning to bear witness to returning prosperity.

Area and Geography.

The area of Ceylon is 25,365 square miles. Its size therefore is rather more than three-fourths of that of Ireland[2]. Its greatest length, from Point Pedro or Palmyra in the extreme North to Dondra Head in the extreme South, is said to be 266 miles; and its greatest breadth is 140 miles. The Southern end of the island is rather less than 6 degrees, and the Northern end rather less than 10 degrees, to the North of the Equator. It is therefore in the heart of the tropics.

[3] It hangs like a pear, to which it is generally compared in shape, from the South-Eastern extremity of India, and is nearly joined to it by the islands of Manaar and Ramiseram and the reef between them known as Adam's Bridge. But, in spite of its close proximity to the great peninsula, its geological formation, fauna, and flora, differ considerably from those of India.

Coasts.

Although a considerable extent of its coast, especially on the Eastern side, is honeycombed by a series of lakes and lagoons, in which the rivers lose themselves on their way to the sea, yet the island as a whole is deficient in well-defined estuaries and indentations. There is, however, one notable exception, the Bay of Trincomalee.. This bay

Bay of Trincomalee.

[1] The latest revenue returns from the colony are very encouraging.

[2] The area of Ireland is 32,524 sq. miles.

[3] The Buddhist poets spoke of Ceylon as 'a pearl on the brow of India.' The more prosaic Dutch compared it to a leg of mutton.

forms one of the finest harbours in the Eastern seas, and has long been appropriated as an Imperial naval station. The importance of Trincomalee was recognised by the Dutch, who early established themselves here. It was the first point in Ceylon occupied by the English, and it was twice taken by the French, in 1672 and 1782. The bay contains an outer and an inner harbour, separated by a promontory, on which the town stands. The inner harbour, said to measure about 2 miles each way, is deep, safe, nearly landlocked, and accessible in all weathers. Unfortunately it is on the North-East of the island—the side furthest from Europe, and consequently lies outside the route of vessels plying between England, Australia, and the far East. Such vessels touched till lately at Galle; but now that extensive harbour works have been constructed at Colombo, the capital of the island has become the regular port of call. Further, Trincomalee is removed from the main centres of trade within the island, having behind it a long tract of what is at present half-opened and thinly populated country.

Interior.

The main features of the interior of Ceylon are clearly marked. The Northern and North-Central parts form one great plain from sea to sea, and the maritime districts on all sides are also a series of plains except on the West and South [illegible] The centre of the island, however, at its

Mountains.

widest [illegible] filled by a circular mountain plateau almost equid[illegible]een the two seas. The 7th degree of North latitude [illegible] through the heart of this mountain district, which forms so to speak the core of the island, and which is estimated to cover an area of over 4000 square miles. The mountains break off abruptly to the South-East and North, but on the West and South-West the country between the plateau and the sea is hilly and undulating.

Adam's Peak.

In the South-West corner of the outer circle of the mountains is the far-famed Adam's Peak, rising to a height

SECTION II.

of over 7000 feet. It is visited alike by Buddhist and Mohammedan pilgrims, for both religions have appropriated the rock as a holy place. On its summit is a small hollow in the shape of a foot. To the Sinhalese it is the footprint of Buddha, and it remains in the keeping of Buddhist priests. To the Mohammedans it is the footprint of Adam, and marks the place to which he retired on expulsion from Paradise; and, if the older creed holds possession of the sacred spot, Mohammedanism has the consolation of having given to the mountain the name by which it is known to Europeans.

Through the centre of the plateau, from Horton plains in the South to Kandy in the North, there runs a dividing range of mountains, containing the highest peaks in the island—Pedrotallagalla standing first with an elevation of 8296 feet.

In this hill district are Kandy the Sinhalese capital, and Nuwara Eliya, like Simlah in Northern India, the Sanatorium for English officials; and among the mountains far more than in other parts of the island are to be found traces of the old native régime, of an ancient aristocracy and a powerful priesthood.

Rivers.

The rivers of Ceylon are of but little use for navigation. Broad estuaries, and waterways leading far into the interior, are conspicuous by their absence. The largest river of the island is the Mahavilla Ganga, which rises in the heart of the mountains near Pedrotallagalla, and, after an Easterly and North-Easterly course of some 140 miles, finds its way amid bars and sandbanks partly into the bay of Trincomalee, partly into the sea to the South of that bay. It is at present practically not navigable, but might, it is stated, be made so with the aid of engineering operations. The other principal rivers have for the most part a Southerly or Westerly course. Among them are the Gindurah, which flows into the sea a little to the North of Galle, and the Kalu Ganga and Kelani Ganga, the mouths of which are near Kalutara and Colombo respectively. These three streams are navigable

for a short distance inland. Further to the North, on the Western side of the island, is the Kalâ Oya, noticeable as being the river which supplies the great Kalâwewa tank.

Tanks and irrigation.

In old days the want of constantly flowing streams in the interior of Ceylon was partially met, and the water supply of the island was stored and widely distributed, by magnificent canals and reservoirs constructed under the authority of the native Kings. As has been stated, the art of irrigation was brought from India by the Sinhalese; and an Oriental despotism, with its unlimited command of human labour and its patriarchal supervision of the lives and lands of its subjects, carried out works which modern science and modern economy hesitate to undertake. Further, the Buddhist religion lent its powerful influence to schemes of cultivation, partly in order to wean the people from the use of animal food, partly in order to increase the value of the vast area of temple lands.

In later times of trouble and invasion, these channels and tanks were allowed to go to rack and ruin, so much so that native villages may now-a-days be found planted in the beds of ancient reservoirs; and it is only in comparatively recent years that the Government has steadily taken up the task of restoring the works, especially in the Eastern and North-Central provinces. Where such restorations have been carried out, the results have been most beneficial at once to the natives, who secure a constant water supply for their paddy crops, and indirectly to the general revenue: while the draining of the land and the clearing of the jungle have added greatly to the healthiness of the districts where the works have been carried out. At present it is mainly the smaller reservoirs and village tanks which have been taken in hand; but the Kanthalai tank near Trincomalee, which was repaired some years ago, covers an area of between 3000 and 4000 acres; and a large sum of money has lately been laid out on the Kalâwewa tank in the North-Central

SECTION II.

province, with an estimated area of 2300 acres, and on the Yoda Ela canal, by which the waters of the tank are carried Northward for 54 miles to Anuradhapura[1]. Still larger works remain, which have not been restored, such as the Padawiya in the North-Central and the Giants' tank in the Northern province, the area of which is estimated at 10,000 and over 6000 acres respectively; and more years must have passed, and much money have been expended, before Ceylon again becomes the well irrigated, richly cultivated land, which it once was in the days of the old Sinhalese monarchy.

Soil.

In addition to a defective water supply the island suffers from shallowness of soil. In parts, which have been cleared of forest and exposed to the full force of the tropical rains, the surface mould is soon washed away, leaving a bare substratum of gravel or rock.

Forests.

In spite of these drawbacks, however, Ceylon is proverbial for richness of vegetation. The forests of the island were once far more extensive and more valuable than they are at present. The system of 'Chena' cultivation practised by the natives, and only lately and partially checked by the Government, has gone far to rid Ceylon of its fine timber. Under this system the trees are cut down and burnt; the surface thus cleared is raked over and sown with dry grain, such as hill-paddy, kurakkan, or other grain; and, after one or at the most two crops have been taken off, the spot is deserted and left to be overgrown with worthless scrub, while the cultivators, having ruined one patch of ground within a year, make further inroads into the forest and repeat their wasteful operations. In the Central province another cause has been at work to destroy the forests. Acre after acre of timber has here been cleared to make way for coffee and tea plantations. Thus Europeans and natives alike have combined to deforest Ceylon. There is however much

[1] This great work has lately been finished, and its completion was formally celebrated early in the present year.

valuable timber still left especially in the Eastern and North-Central provinces, where ebony, satinwood, and other forest trees demand, and are beginning to receive, due protection from the Government.

Animals.

In the forests and jungle of Ceylon, and especially in the more open park country to the South-East of the island, various wild animals are to be found. Among them are bears, leopards, and wild cats, several species of deer, and above all elephants—now to a certain extent protected by Government. Wild buffaloes are said to have become almost extinct in the island.

Vegetable products.

Passing from forest trees to the cultivated vegetable products of the island, the first place among trees must be given to the coco-nut palm, which lines the coasts, and which is replaced in the Northern districts by the Palmyra palm. The uses to which these trees are applied by the natives are too numerous to be here specified; but the arrack spirit, which is distilled from the coco-nut palm, may be specially noted, because it brings in indirectly through the licences, which are farmed out under the renting system, a considerable revenue to the Government. Grain is represented mainly by rice in its two forms; paddy, which is grown wherever the water supply is sufficient; and hill-paddy, a species of dry grain, which is grown mainly in the North of the island. Among the spices, which attracted early European traders, especially the Dutch, to the East, cinnamon was the great speciality of Ceylon. It was cultivated mainly on the West coast in the neighbourhood of Colombo, and the value attached to it was one of the reasons for fixing the main European settlement in the island at Colombo. Under the Dutch, the trade in this spice was kept rigidly in the hands of the Government. The English, however, abandoned the monopoly years ago, and other products of the island have long since superseded cinnamon in importance. Such are coffee, grown in the

SECTION II.

hill districts of the Central province, and supplemented by Liberian coffee in the low country; tea, which since the spread of the fatal coffee disease has rapidly risen to importance; cinchona bark, cacao, cardamoms, vanilla, and other products, which have attracted European capital and supply European markets; while, lastly, a considerable amount of tobacco is grown in the Jaffna peninsula.

Climate and rainfall.

The variations of climate and vegetation in Ceylon depend on two factors, the different altitude of the districts and the distribution of the rainfall. The coffee and tea plantations belong mainly to the hill country, tea thriving at a greater height than coffee; and the open patches of grass land known as 'patanas' are found only among the hills. The rise from Colombo to Kandy, and the further rise to Nuwara Eliya, forms a gradual transition from a tropical to a temperate climate; and in few countries, within the same latitudes as Ceylon, is so complete a change attainable within so short a distance. The distribution of the rainfall is an almost more important element than difference of altitude in determining the character of the climate and vegetation in different parts of the island. The rainfall is in great measure controlled by the position of the mountains, and especially by the cross range to which reference has already been made[1]. There are two seasons in Ceylon, roughly speaking. The South-West monsoon prevails from April to September, the North-East monsoon from October to March. During the hot summer months, when the wind blows from the South-West, the moisture, which it brings from the Indian Ocean, is condensed only when driven upward by the mountain barrier: the rainfall therefore at this time of the year is mainly confined to the South-West corner of the island, where it constitutes a moist zone and makes the district, of which Ratnapura is the chief town, the wettest part of Ceylon. The North-East monsoon, on the contrary, comes from a quarter where

[1] page 76.

there are no mountains directly in its path; and, as it blows in the winter time when the surface of the land is comparatively cool, its moisture is condensed uniformly over the whole island, and its rains are equally distributed through the various districts. Along the coast the mean annual temperature is about 80 degrees: at Kandy it is about 76, and at the higher hill stations it is lower still. The mean annual rainfall varies from between 30 and 40 inches at Manaar in the North-West and Hambantota in the South-East, to some 150 inches at Ratnapura.

Being an island, Ceylon compares favourably on the whole with India in the matter of climate, but the low-lying districts are naturally less healthy than the hill country, and the jungle less healthy than those parts of the island which have been cleared, drained, and cultivated.

Mineral products.

Ceylon has from time immemorial been famed for its gems. No diamonds have been found in the island, but the district round Ratnapura, 'the city of gems,' is rich in catseyes, sapphires, rubies, and other precious stones. The pearl fishery of the Gulf of Manaar on the West coast to the South of Manaar belongs to the Government, and is from time to time a valuable source of revenue [1]. Another mineral monopoly of the Government is salt, worked chiefly in the Puttalam district of the North-Western province, and in the Hambantota district of the Southern. Of the remaining mineral products, plumbago is the most valuable, being exported in considerable quantities for making crucibles and lead pencils, as well as for other uses.

Population, race, and religion.

The population of Ceylon is now not much short of three millions. The last census [2], taken in 1881, gave 2,763,984

[1] The pearl fishery in the present year (1888) realised 800,000 rupees.

[2] According to the census the numbers, excluding military and shipping, were 2,759,738: including Sinhalese, 1,846,614; Tamils, 687,248; Moors, 184,542. Mr. Lee, the Registrar-General, in his report on the census, estimates that 'when the island was in the zenith of its prosperity the population of Ceylon must of necessity have been at least ten times as great as it is at the present day.' He refers to Tennent, vol. i. p. 421.

SECTION II.

as the total number, and showed much the same density of population to the square mile as exists in Scotland. The Western province—excluding the town of Colombo—is the most thickly populated; while the North-Central province, which was in old days the centre of life in the island, has now both actually and relatively the smallest number of inhabitants.

Sinhalese.

The Sinhalese number nearly two millions or two-thirds of the total population—91 per cent. being Buddhists and the rest Christians. They inhabit nearly three-fourths of the island; and are divided into two main branches, the low-countrymen mainly in the Western and Southern provinces, and the Kandyans mainly in the Central, North-Western and North-Central provinces. The latter have been brought less into daily contact with Europeans, and have in consequence retained more fully their customs, traditions, and pride of race.

Tamils.

The Tamils number about 700,000, or a quarter of the total population of the island. Some 86 per cent. are Hindus, the rest Christians. The native Tamils are to be found mainly in the Northern province where the inhabitants are almost exclusively of Tamil origin, and in the Eastern province where they constitute more than one-half of the population. Speaking generally, the Southern and Central districts of Ceylon with the Western coasts belong to the Sinhalese, the Northern peninsula and the North-Western and Eastern coasts to the Tamils. In addition to the settled Tamil population, however, a large number of immigrants from the South of India find their way each year to the plantations of the Central province, nearly the whole work on which is done by Indian coolies, hardier and less indolent than the Sinhalese. The 1881 census showed that the number of Indian immigrants at that time in Ceylon was 277,000, and that more than three-fourths of them were to be found in the Central province, forming about one-third of the population of that province.

Moors.

The Moormen of Arab breed intermixed with Tamil, and of Mohammedan religion, number nearly 200,000. They are, and always have been, the traders of the island, and in the Eastern province they form nearly one-third of the population. Among the minor elements of the native community are Malays, Parsees, Affghans, and Veddahs.

Other Eastern races.

Burghers.

The Eurasians or Burghers[1] number only about 18,000, but their importance as a class is out of all proportion to their numerical strength. They are nearly all Christians. The majority inherit the Portuguese strain and bear Portuguese names; but among the lawyers, clerks, and doctors, who are mainly recruited from the ranks of Eurasians, the Dutch Burghers predominate, some of them of pure Dutch blood, bearing witness to the legal instincts of the race which gave Ceylon its code of law.

Europeans.

The Europeans in Ceylon are about 5000 in number. They fall into two main classes, the officials, including the Imperial garrison stationed at Colombo, Galle, and Trincomalee, and the unofficial residents, chiefly Colombo merchants and owners or managers of the hill plantations.

Christian sects.

Among Christian sects in the island, the Roman Catholics are far the most numerous; but there is also a considerable number of Protestants, the Wesleyans, among other sects, having made many converts especially in the North.

The Provinces.

Ceylon has been divided for administrative purposes into eight provinces, each in charge of a Government agent corresponding to the Indian 'collector.' First in population comes the Western province, containing Colombo which has ever since the first arrival of the Portuguese been the main

The Western Province.

[1] The term 'Burgher' is now applied to all Eurasians, including pure descendants of Dutch citizens, but Eurasian (per se) is equivalent to half-caste. A good number of the so-called Burghers are of pure Dutch descent, whereas there are perhaps no pure Portuguese in the island.

SECTION II.

Colombo.

station of the Europeans in the island[1]. In addition to being the seat of administration, it is at once the largest town (containing considerably over 100,000 inhabitants), the principal trade centre, and, since the construction of the breakwater works, the chief port of the island. Colombo possesses a municipality, similar institutions having been given also to Kandy and Galle, while local boards exist in some few other towns of the island. From the capital a railway, 72 miles in length, runs up to Kandy, supplementing the great highroad between the hill country and the sea which was made by Sir E. Barnes[2]; and, while coffee cultivation was in the zenith of its prosperity, this line was a mine of wealth to the Government, carrying the produce of the hills direct to the sea, as the Taff Vale railway carries the iron and coal of the Merthyr Tydvil district to the port of Cardiff. A short branch of rail now runs South for 28 miles along the thickly populated coast from Colombo to Kalutara, in the direction of Galle and the Southern province.

Municipalities.

The Western province, extending along the coast from Negombo to Bentota, and comprising inland the districts of Kegalle and Ratnapura, consists mainly of low country or of hills which break away from the mountains to the sea, but it also takes in part of the high central plateau, as in the Ratnapura district which includes one side of Adam's Peak within its borders.

The Southern province.

The Southern province, small but very thickly populated, is, like the Western, a purely Sinhalese district, and is even more exclusively the home of the lowland Sinhalese. It extends round the South end of the island from the borders of the Western to those of the Eastern province, and contains inland a tract of open park-like country

[1] Long before, in the fourteenth century, Ibn Batuta spoke of it as one of the finest and largest cities of the island of Serendib. See Col. Yule's Glossary, under 'Colombo.'

[2] See page 72.

stretching away towards the mountains. Its chief town is Galle with some 30,000 inhabitants, less prosperous than it was before Colombo was made the port of the island; and it comprises also Matara, near the Southernmost point of Ceylon, and the salt drying district of which Hambantota is the centre. From Hambantota northwards, along the Eastern side of the island, is the best part of Ceylon for sporting purposes, elephants especially being plentiful in the comparatively little-known country between the mountains and the Eastern or South-Eastern coast.

The Central Province.

Kandy is the chief town of the mountainous Central province. It is a town of more than 20,000 inhabitants, with a position accounting for its importance in the days of the Sinhalese kings. It is the inland centre, as Colombo is the maritime centre, of Ceylon. In addition to the main line of rail to Colombo, two other lines branch out from Kandy to the North and South respectively. The Northern line, 17 miles long, runs to Matale. Matale was, some years back, one of the centres of coffee planting, and is the chief town of a district stretching away far to the North, past the cave temples of Dambulla, to the thinly populated North-Central province. The Southern line, intended to serve the hill plantation districts to the South of Kandy, has been at present carried some 59 miles from the Paradeniya junction in a semicircular direction through Gampola, one of the old Sinhalese capitals, and Nawalapitiya, as far as Nanu Oya[1]. North-East of the present railway terminus lies the health-giving station of Nuwara Eliya, at an elevation of 6000 feet above the sea.

The province of Uvah.

The Badulla district of the Central province has lately been created into the separate province of Uvah. It comprises the Eastern part of the mountain plateau rich in plantations, and a large tract of low country stretching to the

[1] A further extension of 25 miles, from Nanu Oya to Haputale, has just been decided upon. It will tap the province of Uvah.

SECTION II.

South and East. On that side it is bounded by the Hambantota district of the Southern province, and by the wilds of the Eastern province.

The Eastern Province.

This last-named province, the home of Tamils and Moormen, is at present but little opened up, and consists in great measure of jungle, in which a few tribes of Veddahs are almost the only human inhabitants. It is one of the parts of Ceylon where much has been done, and much remains to be done, in irrigating and reclaiming the ground. The Southern half of the province is comprised in the district of Batticaloa, the town of Batticaloa being the administrative centre of the province. The Northern half constitutes the district of Trincomalee.

The North-Western Province.

On the opposite side of the island is the North-Western province, including a broad tract of low-lying country, and a long strip of coast-line. The chief town of the province is the inland town of Kurunegala, a few miles to the North of the Kandy-Colombo railway; but the most prosperous part is nearer to the sea, the agricultural district round Chilaw, and the neighbourhood of Puttalam, from which the Government derives the bulk of its salt revenue.

The North-Central Province.

Between the North-Western and the Eastern provinces lies the North-Central province, like Uvah a purely inland district. In old days the most richly cultivated and most thickly populated part of the island, and the seat of the Sinhalese power in the time of its prosperity, it is at present less opened up and more sparsely inhabited than almost any other part of Ceylon; but with its rich forests, and its manifold tanks and reservoirs waiting to be restored, it possesses capabilities for the future second to no other province of the island. For the antiquary it is the most interesting district in the Colony. It contains the sacred rock of Mihintale; the old city of Anuradhapura, still the centre of administration, with its sacred Bo-tree, its ruined palaces, and other relics of political and religious greatness; Pollanarruwa to the South-

East of the province, where the Sinhalese kings retreated when Tamil invasions made Anuradhapura no longer a safe resting-place for their dynasty; and many other spots which recall a great past.

CHAPTER II.

The province falls into two parts, the Central and Western district known as Nuwarakalawiya with an almost purely Sinhalese population; and the Tamankaduwa district in the South-East, traversed by the Mahavilla Ganga, which should rather be classed with the Eastern province, as Moormen and Tamils form a large proportion of its scanty inhabitants.

The Northern Province.

The Northern cone of Ceylon with the strips of coast on either side is comprised in the Northern province. This province has in great measure an independent existence from the rest of Ceylon. It is far removed from the centre of Government. It is inhabited almost entirely by Tamils; and, as compared with the other provinces, it is at once closer to and has more in common with the South of India. Inland, on the borders of the North-Central province, is the dry, poverty and parangi[1] stricken district round Vavoniya Vilankulam. On the East coast is the lonely station of Mullaitivu, difficult to reach from sea or land. On the West coast is the district of Manaar, deriving its importance from the pearl fisheries: and at the extreme North is the Jaffna peninsula, very thickly populated and turned into a series of gardens by the industry of its Tamil inhabitants. The peninsula comprises scarcely more than one-fourth of the area of the province, but contains more than five-sixths of its inhabitants; and the town of Jaffna has a population of over 40,000. It has an old Dutch fort, and was laid out in great measure by the Dutch.

General résumé.

Looked at from the inside, Ceylon has large resources, mainly agricultural. It has the lie of land which makes for

[1] Parangi is a disease due to bad water, bad drainage, low living, etc. In its results it is very similar to leprosy or pellagra. It gradually disappears with the opening up of the jungle and restoration of the tanks.

SECTION II.

prosperity. The mountains are grouped in the centre, instead of lying like barriers along the coast. It has variations of climate and rainfall and consequently of products. But it lacks a rich soil and good water communication. Looked at from the outside, its coasts are wanting in those breaks and fissures which usually attract merchants and settlers; and the one great indentation, the bay of Trincomalee, has been carefully put by nature out of the way of those who hail from Europe. Looked at in its relation to the outer world and especially to the British portion of it, Ceylon is at once connected with and distinct from India. Geographically, it is an appendage of India, as Sicily is of Italy; but in its history, though it has roughly followed the fortunes of India, it has from first to last been what it is at present, a separate Eastern dependency and not an Indian province. Its varied resources make it valuable for its own sake to a commercial nation; the harbour of Trincomalee is a sufficient inducement to make a naval power with an interest in the Eastern seas glad to own and prepared to keep it; and it holds a singularly central position as a place of call on the route from the West to the South and East. Colombo is about 2100 miles from Aden, nearly 900 from Bombay, about 600 from Madras, about 1300 from Penang and 1600 from Singapore, over 2000 miles from Mauritius, and over 3000 miles from Western Australia.

Distances

But even if this Colony were not, as it is, of both direct and indirect advantage to the naval trading nation which owns it, Ceylon is one of the regions of the world with a large native population, which, having fallen under the sway of Great Britain, has become entitled to the continuance of good government, in other words to the maintenance of British supremacy.

BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS BEARING ON CEYLON.

Of official publications, Mr. VINCENT'S *Report on the Forests of Ceylon*, printed for the Colonial Government in 1883, is most useful for geographical purposes.

Of books, EMERSON TENNENT'S *Ceylon*, published in 1859, is still the main standard work on the Colony; and special mention should be made of Haeckel's *Visit to Ceylon* 1883.

Of Directories, FERGUSON'S *Ceylon Handbook and Directory* gives a vast amount of detail.

THE MALDIVES.

THE Maldive Archipelago is a dependency of Ceylon, and the Sultan of the Maldives pays allegiance to and enjoys the protection of the British Government.

Name. The Maldives (Male dvîpa, i.e. Male Island) are called after Malé, which is the principal island of the group and the residence of the Sultan: and Malé[1] is perhaps a corruption of the Hindu word 'mahal' or palace.

History. The Islands are supposed to have been peopled either directly from Ceylon, or by a race identical with or at least closely akin to the Sinhalese, and the Maldive language approximates to the Sinhalese tongue in its oldest and purest form. *The Arabs.* The Arab traders, however, who settled along the coasts of Southern India and Ceylon, and who are so largely represented at the present day in the latter island under the name of Moors, easily found their way to the Maldives, which lie on or hard by the route from Arabia to the far East. The merchants established themselves in large numbers in the islands, intermarried with the natives, and in course of time converted them to the Mohammedan faith[2]. Mohammedanism is at the present day the recognised religion of the Islanders.

[1] According to Col. Yule's Glossary this derivation is not very probable.

[2] 1200 A.D. is given as the date of conversion.

SECTION II.

The Portuguese.

The Portuguese discovered the Maldives about the same time as they discovered Ceylon, the ships which first sighted Ceylon having been destined for the Maldives. In 1512 the King of the Maldives was said to have become a vassal of Portugal, but probably nothing more was effected than a temporary engagement on the part of the Sultan not to harbour the Arabian merchantmen who made the Maldives their refuge in order to escape the Portuguese monopoly. For many years the Portuguese carried out the policy so often followed by Europeans in the East, that of spasmodic, half-successful interference, and of indirect assertion of authority by supporting one or other of the rival claimants to the sovereignty of the islands. About 1566 they concluded a treaty, which gave the Maldivians a qualified independence, while securing to themselves the monopoly of the island produce; and in this condition matters remained, until the Dutch supplanted their European rivals in the Eastern seas.

Pyrard.

Before this change took place, a French vessel was wrecked on one of the island groups, and among the crew who were then stranded and kept in captivity from 1602 to 1607 was François Pyrard, whose account of the Maldives and their inhabitants is one of the very few existing authorities on the subject[1].

The Dutch.

The Maldive islands passed voluntarily under the protection of the Dutch, directly the latter had taken the place of the Portuguese in Ceylon; and throughout the years, during which the Dutch were supreme in the Eastern seas, their relations with the Maldivians were peaceful and harmonious. A Dutch vessel was sent from Ceylon to the Archipelago in 1640. In 1645 the first annual embassy was sent by the Sultan to the Governor of Ceylon, and the friendship between the two peoples continued uninterrupted, until the Dutch were driven out of Ceylon by the English; the absence of jealousy

[1] *Voyage de François Pyrard de Laval*, 1st edit. 1611, 2nd edit. 1615, 3rd edit. 1619, 4th edit. 1679.

on the part of the Dutch, as wise as it was unusual in their dealings with native races, being shown by their recognising the Maldive flag as a symbol of national independence in the year 1753. The year 1754 saw a detachment of French troops sent from India to Malé by Dupleix in the furtherance of his great scheme for an Eastern empire, but they were withdrawn by his successor Lally in 1759.

Chapter II.

The French.

About 1795 the Maldives, still following the fortunes of Ceylon, passed from the suzerainty of the Netherlands to that of Great Britain; and ever since that date the relations between the Maldivians and the English have in the main continued on the same footing of friendly non-interference, on which they were placed and left by the Dutch. The poverty of the islands has offered little attraction to traders; and the kindly good sense of successive Sultans in befriending shipwrecked crews has kept alive a friendly feeling between the natives and their European protectors. The annual embassy sent from Malé to Colombo, bearing good wishes and trifling gifts from the Sultan to the Governor, recognises the British Protectorate; and the Maldivians find in Ceylon and British India a market for their scanty products.

The English.

The population of the Maldives is supposed to number some 30,000, a large proportion of whom are engaged in fishing. They are bold and skilful sailors, and ingenious workmen in the few crafts, such as mat-making and lacquer-work, which are followed in the islands.

Population, customs, etc.

Serious crime is little known, but the natives are said to be lazy and sensual, and, owing to their isolated position, they are timid and suspicious of strangers, though they have been found humane and kindly to those who have been so unfortunate as to be wrecked on their coasts. Their customs are in great measure coloured by their Mohammedan religion, polygamy for instance being practised by those who can afford to keep or maintain more than one wife.

SECTION II.

The Government is a despotism, the Sultan being supreme, but it is a despotism of the mildest form and tempered with a certain amount of constitutional administration. The head of the church is also the chief magistrate, and stands second only to the Sultan; ordinary political and financial matters are in the hands of three chief ministers; and various agents, sub-agents, and headmen superintend the collection of revenue from the different atolls. The Treasury is supplied by a tax on the produce of the various islands chiefly paid in kind, by a claim on the part of the Government to all wrecks, and by a right of pre-emption at low rates on all important cargoes.

Geography.

The Maldives lie to the S.W. of India and Ceylon, the Northernmost of the group of islands which form the Archipelago being about 350 miles distant from Cape Comorin, and Malé being about 400 miles from Ceylon. They extend in a line, and in the centre in two parallel lines, from North to South, from 7 degrees North of the Equator to about ½ a degree South of the Equator. They consist of a series of atolls[1] or circular groups of islands of coral formation. Each atoll is surrounded by barrier reefs, and separated from its neighbours by channels differing greatly in width, depth, and security for purposes of navigation. There are four main channels which lie, roughly speaking, at 5° N. Lat., 2° N. Lat., 1½° N. Lat., and on the Equator. The number of islands is almost infinite; but there are thirteen main groups, which are recognised as political divisions; and among them the Malé atoll, lying in the centre, is and has always been the seat of Government.

Climate.

The sea and the periodical winds prevent the climate from being oppressively hot, and the range of the thermometer varies but little during the year. Partly, however, owing to the absence of change in temperature, and partly owing to the

[1] The Maldivian word *atolu*, whence this term comes, is probably the only one which the island language has supplied to the European vocabularies.

malaria rising from the undrained jungle and the land-locked lagoons, the islands are very unhealthy even to the natives, the mortality among children being said to be so excessive that only one in five attains mature years.

Products.

As far as is known, the flora and fauna of the Maldives present no very distinctive features. The coco-nut palm grows to great perfection in the islands, and supplies the inhabitants with most of the necessaries of life. In old days the Coco de Mer[1] was supposed to be a product of the islands, and was known to the Portuguese as the Cocos des Maldives, but botanical research has proved that this fruit, when found at the Maldives, has been washed there from the Seychelles islands, where alone the palm which bears it is to be found.

The Portuguese regarded the coir yarn manufactured from the coco-nut-fibre as the most important article of trade to be obtained from the Maldives. The Dutch paid most attention to the traffic in cowry shells, which served as a substitute for coin and were used in this capacity to a great extent in the West African slave trade. During their possession of Ceylon they established a monopoly over this trade, fixing a price for the shells much below the market value; but this policy, as might have been expected, had the effect of encouraging foreign competition, and the Sultan of the Maldives found that English and French vessels gave him a better price for his shells than was allowed by his Dutch protectors. At the present day the export of cowries is much smaller than it once was, and the principal product exported to India and Ceylon is dried fish, nearly one-third of the whole supply of fish required by Ceylon being brought from the Maldives. Coco-nut coir and tortoise shell are also exported; and among other products of the islands are rush

[1] *Lodoicea Sechellarum.* It was supposed to be the fruit of a palm growing under the sea. See Mr. Gray's translation of Pyrard's voyage, vol. i. p. 230–1 note. See also Col. Yule's Glossary, under Coco de Mer. See also below under Seychelles.

SECTION II.

mats manufactured in one of the southern atolls, and some ambergris, though owing to the gradual extinction of whales this last product is much rarer than in former times.

Imports.

The principal import is grain, hardly any being grown in the islands except some millet on the southern atolls. Areca nuts and cotton goods are the next most important articles in the list of imports.

General résumé.

The most interesting point in the history of the Maldives is that though they have lain in the path of European conquerors and merchants when pressing on to the Malayan and Chinese seas, and though they have passed under the protection of different powers and been numbered among their dependencies, they have yet in the main been left undisturbed for centuries past. This result has been due partly to the good sense both of the islanders themselves and of the Dutch and English with whom they have had to deal, but still more to the recognised poverty and unhealthiness of this curious cluster of islands, and to the absence of those products which find favour with and lead to the interference of European traders.

PUBLICATIONS RESPECTING THE MALDIVES.

A full account of the Maldives was drawn up by Mr. H. C. Bell of the Ceylon Civil Service, and printed by the Ceylon Government. The print is nominally an 1881 Sessional Paper, but it was not published till 1883.

The *Voyage of François Pyrard* has lately been translated for the Hakluyt Society by Mr. ALBERT GRAY. The notes of the book (vol. i) contain most full and valuable information with regard to the islands.

MAP OF THE
FAR EAST

RUSSIA
MONGOLIA
CHINESE EMPIRE
CHINA
Manchooria
COREA
JAPAN
SEA OF JAPAN
NIPHON
YELLOW SEA
UPPER BURMAH
Lower Burmah
SIAM
ANAM
Cambodia
French Cochin China
CHINA SEA
Luzon
PHILLIPPINE ISLANDS
SULU SEA
CELEBES SEA
Nth BORNEO
BORNEO (Dutch Borneo)
PROTECTED STATES
SUMATRA
JAVA SEA
BANDA SEA
ARAFURA SEA
NEW GUINEA
L. Baikal
R. Amur
Peter the Great Bay
Broughton B.
New Chwang
Pekin
Tien-tsin
Gulf of Pechili
Chefoo
Tsi-nan
Hoang Ho
Korean Strait
Nagasaki
Kiusiu
Sikok
Yeddo
Yokohama
Ichang
Hankow
Nankin
Chin Kiang
Shanghai
Ningpo
Hangchow
Kew Kiang
Yang-tse-Kiang
Loo Choo Islands
Foochow
Amoy
Formosa
Taiwan
Canton
Swatow
Macao
Hongkong
Tonquin
Hanoi
Gulf of Tonquin
Hainan
Hue
Mekong
Menam R.
Bangkok
Saigon
Gulf of Siam
Malay Peninsula
Acheen
Wellesley
Malacca
Singapore
Palembang
Bencoolen
Billiton
Batavia
Sunda Str.
Sourabaya
Balli
Lombok
Sumbawa
Flores
Timor
Timor Laut
Manila
Mindoro
Samar
Leyte
Palawan
Negros
Mindanao
Sandakan
Labuan
Brunei
Sarawak
Macassar
Celebes
Gilolo
MOLUCCA Is.
Boero
Ceram
Tropic of Cancer

English .... Red.
French ..... Orange.
Spanish .... Green.
Dutch ...... Yellow.
Portuguese . Purple.

Longitude East 120 from Greenwich

Oxford University Press

CHAPTER III.

THE BRITISH DEPENDENCIES IN THE MALAY SEAS.

CHAPTER III.

General.

It has been pointed out that the geographical outline of Southern Asia is marked by three well-defined peninsulas —Arabia; India; and the Easternmost peninsula, sometimes known as Further India, extending from Burmah to Tonquin, and including Siam, Cochin China, and the Malay States.

This last block of land trends away far to the South in the Malay Peninsula, which is driven as a wedge between the Indian and the Chinese Seas, just as its Malay inhabitants are interposed between the Indian and the Chinese races. Hemmed in by sea on East and West it seems as though it had expanded to the South into the numberless islands which form the Malay Archipelago. In that Archipelago British influence centres round the North and West of Borneo, where the little island of Labuan has for 40 years been an English dependency, where the British North Borneo Company have more lately acquired a large concession of territory from the Sultan of Brunei, and where Raja Brooke's kingdom of Sarawak is still ruled by an Englishman, though independent of the British Crown.

The Straits Settlements are the British possessions in or near the Malay peninsula, deriving their name from the Straits of Malacca, which divide that peninsula from the great island of Sumatra. Taken from North to South, they consist of the island of Penang with the strip of mainland opposite, known as Province Wellesley, the territory and

SECTION II.

islands of the Dindings, the territory of Malacca, and the island of Singapore.

The Malay peninsula.

Outside British territory, the peninsula from the isthmus of Kra to the Southern extremity is divided into a number of states, governed by native rulers, and partly independent, partly more or less subject to foreign influence. Over Kedah and Patani (the most Northerly states of the peninsula proper), the former on the West, the latter on the East coast, the Siamese have by conquest in past times established their ascendancy; and, while the populations of those states remain essentially Malay, the government is carried on to a certain extent under directions from Bangkok. The other states on the West coast—Perak, Selangor, Sungei Ujong, and the states bordering on the Malacca territory, are under British influence. On the East coast Kelantan[1], Tringanu, and Pahang are independent; so also is Johor, the Southernmost state of all, which begins on the Straits of Malacca and ends on the China Sea. With Pahang and Johor, however, the British Government has treaties of friendship and alliance.

The Malay race.

The origin and affinities of the Malay race are still much disputed. It is not yet certain whether they are a continental race which has spread into the islands. or an island race which has reached the outskirts of the continent. Their domain extends from Madagascar on the West to Formosa on the East; but they have not appropriated any part of the mainland of Asia except the Malay peninsula, and the East Indian Islands are their main home. From the fact that their physical type is akin to that of the Mongols, and that a line can be drawn from North-East to South-West through the Archipelago, more or less clearly dividing the islands into an Asiatic group inhabited by Malays and an Australasian group inhabited by Papuans,

[1] The independence of Kelantan and Tringanu is guaranteed by Art. 12 of the treaty of 1826 between Great Britain and Siam.

CHAPTER III.

it has been held that the original home of the Malays was the mainland of Asia, possibly at a time when the islands, where they are now found, formed a part of that mainland. On the other hand, the fact that they are physically akin to the New Zealand Maoris, that they are essentially a maritime people [1], and are found nowhere settled in numbers on the mainland, except along the coasts and rivers of the peninsula which bears their name, points to their having an Oceanic origin.

Aborigines of the peninsula.

In the Malay peninsula they are distinctly colonists, not aborigines. Representatives of the latter are still found, mainly inland, towards the sources of the Perak river and in the mountainous jungles of Perak and Selangor, in the interior of the Malacca territory, throughout a great part of Pahang and the other states on the East coast of the peninsula, and in Johor. These tribes are known under the names of Sakei, Semang, Orang Utan, Orang bukit, Jacoons, etc. In Perak the Sakei and Semang are distinguished from each other—the former being found to the East, the latter to the West of the Perak river. Here the Semang resemble the Negrito tribes which are found in the Philippine Islands, while the Sakei seem more akin to the Malays, though with striking differences in form, language, customs, and religion. In Selangor the hair and features of the Sakei are stated to be more nearly akin to the Papuan than to the Malay type, and their language to be quite distinct from that of the Malays. Unlike the Malays, these tribes pass for the most part a nomad life in the jungle, living on wild fruits [illegible]s, and whatever animals or vermin they kill with their bl[illegible]pes or bows and arrows. They have no part or lot in the Mohammedan religion, which is now the established creed of the Malays, but believe in good and evil spirits. They are to all outward appearance the original inhabitants of the peninsula,

[1] In Borneo, however, they are found inland, if the Dyaks are a Malayan race, as commonly supposed.

SECTION II.

who have been driven inland[1] by the invasions of a race from the Southern sea, and who have not risen above the level of primitive savage life.

Early Malay history in the Straits Settlements.

The island of Singapore is said to have been settled about 1160 A.D. by Malays from Sumatra, Java, or the neighbouring Johor Archipelago. The settlement was named Sinhapura (Lion city[2]), and, according to old accounts, was large and prosperous. The following century saw the conversion of the Malay inhabitants of the peninsula to Mohammedanism; and in 1262 the colonists of Singapore were driven by Javanese invaders to Malacca. At Malacca they remained till the Portuguese conquest in 1511, when they turned South again to what is now the territory of Johor and there founded a kingdom which included their old home of Singapore. Malacca held a more important position in old times than it does at the present day. According to some accounts it was the original centre from which the stream of Malay colonisation issued; but this is improbable, though there is no doubt that under its native rulers it was reputed to be one of the first cities of the East, and when it passed into Western hands it remained for many years the focus of European trade and settlement in the further East Indies[3].

The Portuguese in the Malay Indies.

The Portuguese first visited Malacca and Sumatra in the years 1507–9. In 1511 their great leader Albuquerque took Malacca, and in that and the following year sent his ships to Java, Sumatra, the Spice Islands, and Siam.

The following 20 years saw the speedy spread of Portuguese discovery and trade through the Malay Indies. New Guinea and the Celebes were sighted in 1525–26, and Borneo was

[1] In Selangor, however, some of the Sakei are found near the coast and are expert fishermen and boat-builders. See the annual reports of the British Residents in the Protected Malay States, the Eastern Geography, Part I, edited by A. M. Skinner, and a pamphlet on the Sakei by Abraham Hale, Esq., reprinted from the Journal of the Anthropological Institute, 1886.

[2] Compare the word Sinhala, p. 65.

[3] See the reference to Malacca, p. 56.

Magellan.

visited in 1527. The Portuguese, however, were not the first European mariners to touch at Borneo[1], for in 1521 the ships of Magellan's expedition reached the island on their way from the Philippines, having there lost their daring leader, who had formed and carried out the plan of establishing Spanish claims in the Portuguese seas.

The Dutch.

The Dutch did not interfere with the Portuguese till the end of the century. Houtman reached Java in 1596 and established a factory at Bantam. Dutch ships first visited Sumatra in 1600. In 1602 the Dutch East India Company was constituted, and in the following year no fewer than twelve ships were sent out to the Eastern islands. In 1619 Batavia was founded and became the capital of the Dutch East Indies in place of the more distant Amboyna. In pursuing their one object of monopolising the trade of these islands, the Dutch had at once to exclude the English and to supplant the Portuguese. By the massacre of Amboyna in 1623, a savage burst of trading jealousy, they for the time put a stop to the competition of English merchants; and the taking of Malacca in 1640 marked the final substitution of Dutch for Portuguese supremacy in the Malay Indies.

Many years before this latter date, however, they had become the leading European power in the Archipelago; and, throughout the greater part of the 17th and 18th centuries, they kept in their own hands the bulk of the trade of Java, Sumatra, the Moluccas, Amboyna, Banda, Celebes and other islands; while their explorers passed on by New Guinea out of the Malayan into the Australasian seas, and gave Dutch names to the great lands of the Southern Ocean. In the Malay peninsula, in addition to Malacca, they held for a while factories in Perak, in Selangor, on the islands of Pangkor or Dinding, and on that of Junk Ceylon[2]. A Dutch ship visited

[1] Borneo was visited by Friar Odoric in 1322, and by Varthema of Bologna between the years 1503 and 1507.
[2] A corruption of the Malay name, which is Ujong Salang.

SECTION II.

Borneo as early as 1600, and in 1608–1609 two Dutch factories were for a while established on the South-Western coast. Little attention, however, was paid to the island by the Netherlands Company till 1747, when a factory was formed at Banjarmasin in the South-Eastern corner, which was maintained for more than half a century; and in 1785 a treaty was concluded with the King of Banjarmasin, under which, in return for Dutch assistance in placing him on the throne, he ceded to Holland the sovereignty of all his dominions and proclaimed himself the vassal of the Dutch [1].

The English.

The first Englishman to sail through the Malay seas was Sir Francis Drake, who in 1579–1580 touched at the Moluccas on his celebrated voyage round the world. Lancaster anchored off Penang on his first voyage to the East in 1591–1594, and in 1600–1603 he was sent out on a regular trading mission by the newly formed East India Company [2]. He then visited Sumatra and the Moluccas, and established a factory at Bantam in Java. In 1604–1605 Middleton pushed on to Banda and Amboyna. About 1610–1611 Captain Hippon visited the Malay Peninsula, and is said to have planted a factory at Patani on its Eastern side: and about 1609 a factory was planted at Sukadana on the South-Western coast of Borneo, which was given up in 1623. The competition between the English and Dutch in the Malay Archipelago was keenest during the 17th century, especially during the first half of that century. As years went on the conquest of India began to absorb the attention of the English, and the trade of the islands passed more and more into the hands of the Dutch.

In Java.

At the beginning of the 17th century, Bantam in Java was

[1] In the 'Report on the Records of the India Office' (Danvers), vol. i. pt. i. page 97, it is stated that 'this is the treaty under which the Dutch claim the sovereignty of Banjarmasin, and whatever was once dependent on it.'

[2] The Charter of the old East India Company, the London Company, was signed on December 31, 1600. The new East India Company was incorporated in 1690. The two Companies were united by 1709.

CHAPTER III.

the chief station of the East India Company, and all other factories in the East were subordinate to it. The English factories in Java were temporarily abandoned in consequence of the massacre of Amboyna in 1623, but they were soon re-established, and in 1634–1635 Bantam was restored to its leading position, all the agencies in India and the islands being placed under its control. In 1682 however it was finally taken by the Dutch. From that date onward the English practically gave up all footing in Java; and, except during the years 1811–1816 when a British force conquered and held the island as being a French dependency, the Dutch were left in undisturbed possession of the island, which has been reputed the richest in the world.

In Sumatra.

In Sumatra the East India Company made a much longer stand. The first factory was planted at Tiku on the Western coast in 1614. In 1684–1685, less than two years after the abandonment of Bantam, Fort Marlborough was built near Bencoolen towards the South-West of the island, mainly with a view to the exportation of pepper. It was taken and destroyed by the French in 1760, but was soon re-established, and it remained down to the early part of the present century the chief English port in the East Indian Islands. Eventually, however, by the treaty of 1824, all the British possessions in Sumatra were ceded to the Dutch in exchange for Malacca; and the only remnant of English influence in the island was a stipulation for the independence of the Sultan of Atchin as an ancient ally of Great Britain, which reservation was definitely abandoned in 1872.

The Straits Settlements.

English colonisation in the Malay Peninsula came late in the day, and came from two opposite directions. The occupation of Singapore by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1819 may be said to represent the back current of English enterprise from the islands to the mainland. The occupation of Penang, on the contrary, was rather in the nature of a feeler thrown out to the Southward by the Indian Government.

SECTION II.

When the intermediate station of Malacca was ceded by the Dutch under the treaty of 1824 and taken over in the following year, the coast of the mainland was practically left to the English, and the Southern islands to the Dutch.

Penang.

Penang was ceded to the East India Company in 1786 by the Rajah of Kedah, who received in return an annuity of 6000 dollars. It was given the name of Prince of Wales' Island, which has now almost passed out of popular use. In 1796 it was constituted a penal station for Bengal. In 1800 a strip of mainland opposite the island, most of what is now known as Province Wellesley, was bought from the Rajah with a view to extirpating the pirates who infested that part of the coast, and obtaining command of both sides of the harbour[1]. In 1805 Penang was considered of sufficient importance to be constituted a separate Presidency.

Province Wellesley.

Malacca.

Meanwhile Malacca had been taken from the Dutch, and, after having been restored to them in 1818, was finally taken over in 1825 when it had lost its importance and been eclipsed by the more thriving settlement of Penang. Penang was in turn out-stripped by Singapore, occupied as has been seen in 1819, and formally ceded with its seas and islets by treaty with the Sultan of Johor in 1824. A free port from the first, it speedily justified the foresight of Sir Stamford Raffles in selecting it as a future centre of trade, and grew out of all proportion to the two older settlements.

Singapore.

In 1826 the three settlements were incorporated in one government under Penang, and in 1837 the centre of administration was moved to Singapore. This state of things continued till 1867, when these Malay dependencies were finally severed from India, received their present constitution, and were made a separate Crown Colony.

The Native States.

The colony having been given a definite form, British

[1] Similarly the occupation of the island of Hong Kong was followed up some years later by the acquisition of the promontory of Kowloon on the opposite side of the harbour. See under Hong Kong, p. 135.

influence began to make itself more directly felt in the neighbouring native states. In accordance with the system pursued in India, Residents were in 1874 placed in Perak (under the provisions of the treaty concluded at Pangkor by Sir Andrew Clarke), in Selangor, and Sungei Ujong. In the following year, 1875, there was an outbreak on the borders of Sungei Ujong, while the British Resident in Perak was murdered, and it was found necessary to call English troops into the country. The disturbances however were soon quelled; the insurgent Malays were driven out of Sungei Ujong; and the Sultan of Perak with his principal adherents was banished to the Seychelles, another member of the royal family being created Regent, and Mr., now Sir Hugh, Low, who had had long experience of Malays in Labuan and Borneo, being appointed Resident. The subsequent progress of these three States has more than justified the step taken in placing them under British protection.

Latterly Johor, Pahang, and other states have entered into agreements with the British Government tending to the maintenance of peace and order in the peninsula, and to the furtherance of trade; and money has been advanced from the Colonial revenues to open up and develop the resources of the small Malay communities situated around the inland boundaries of Malacca.

Borneo.

Reference has already[1] been made to the factory which was planted by the East India Company at Sukadana in Borneo about 1609, but which was a few years afterwards withdrawn. During the same years the Company attempted, with but slight success, to open trade at other points in the island, especially at Banjarmasin in the South-East. At the end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century, both the old and the new East India Companies and subsequently the united Company made renewed efforts to gain a footing in Borneo. For a few months in 1707 a factory was

[1] p. 100.

SECTION II.

maintained at Banjarmasin, but again no lasting result was achieved. In 1762 the island of Balambangan off the Northern extremity of Borneo was ceded to the Company by the Sultan of Sulu, in spite of the protests of the Spanish authorities in Manila; but in 1775 the fort which had been established there was taken by the natives, and the English withdrew for a while to Labuan and not long afterwards from Labuan also. Balambangan was re-occupied in 1803, but was again abandoned in the following year, and thenceforward the East India Company had no dealings with Borneo.

During the last fifty years a wholly new connexion has sprung up between England and Borneo, completely distinct from all previous phases of English enterprise in the East.

Sarawak.

Mr. James Brooke, afterwards famous as 'Raja' Brooke, took his yacht to the East in 1838, and in 1841 he obtained a cession of part of the Sultanate of Brunei, viz. the district of Sarawak on the West of the Island. This territory has been enlarged by three subsequent grants of land from the Sultan of Brunei in 1861, 1882 and 1885 respectively; the work of its first great ruler has stood the test of time[1]; and Sarawak is still an independent principality, governed by a nephew of the first Raja with the help of a staff of European officers.

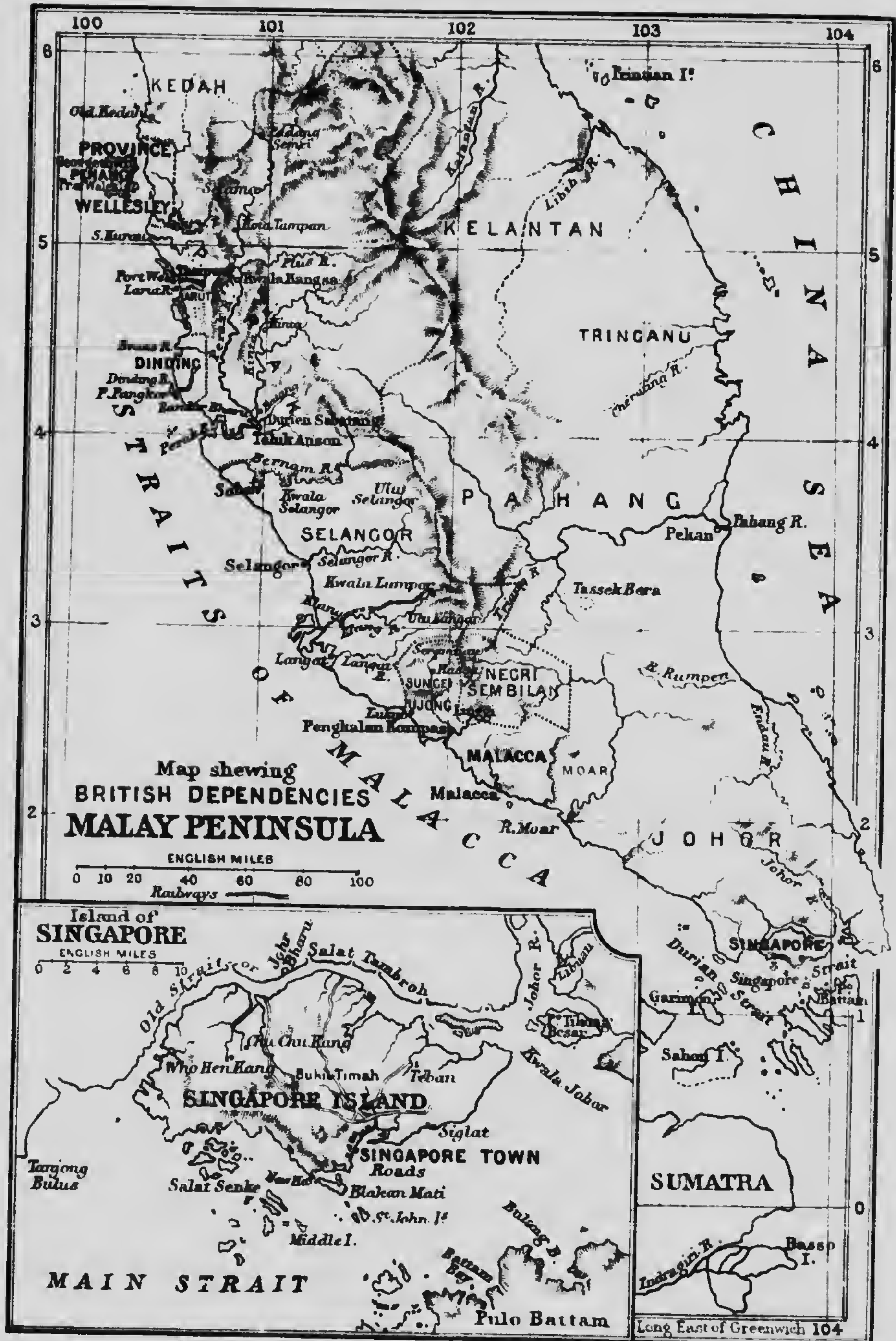
Labuan.

In 1846[2] the Sultan of Brunei ceded the island of Labuan, almost at the threshold of his own capital, to the British Government; and Raja Brooke, who had been mainly instrumental in bringing about the cession with a view to the protection of British trade against the pirates of these seas, became the first Governor of this little Crown Colony.

[illegible] end of 1877 and the beginning of 1878 Mr. Alfred [illegible]d by grant from the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu

[1] A long [illegible] ght be made of the various books and reports relating to Sarawak and Raja Brooke. Strong testimony is borne to his high qualities as a man and a ruler in Wallace's 'Malay Archipelago.'

[2] Labuan was taken possession of at the end of 1846, after an agreement with the Sultan of Brunei: the cession was finally confirmed by a treaty of May 1847.



Map shewing
BRITISH DEPENDENCIES
MALAY PENINSULA
ENGLISH MILES
0 10 20 40 60 80 100
Railways
100
101
102
103
104
KEDAH
PROVINCE
WELLESLEY
KELANTAN
TRINGANU
DINDING
PAHANG
SELANGOR
NEGRI
SEMBILAN
SUNGEI
UJONG
MALACCA
MOAR
JOHOR
SINGAPORE
CHINA SEA
STRAITS OF MALACCA
Kelantan R.
Libin R.
Cheraling R.
Teluk Anson
Bernam R.
Kwala Selangor
Ulu Selangor
Selangor
Selangor R.
Kwala Lumpor
Langat
Penghalan Kempas
Malacca
R. Moar
Pekan
Pahang R.
Tassek Bera
R. Rumpen
Endau R.
Johor R.
Durian Strait
Singapore Strait
Garimon I.
Sahon I.
SUMATRA
Indragiri R.
Basso I.
Long East of Greenwich 104
Island of
SINGAPORE
ENGLISH MILES
0 2 4 6 8 10
Old Strait or Johor Bharu
Salat Tambroh
Johor R.
Chu Chu Kang
Who Hen Kang
Bukit Timah
Teban
SINGAPORE ISLAND
Siglat
SINGAPORE TOWN
Roads
Tanjong Bulus
Salat Senki
Blakan Mati
St. John. I.
Middle I.
Kwala Johor
Bulang B.
Battam Bay
MAIN STRAIT
Pulo Battam
Oxford University Press

a large concession of land in the North of Borneo, in return for certain annual payments to the two Sultans. As the result of this cession the British North Borneo Company[1] was formed and incorporated under Royal Charter in 1881, thus receiving the formal recognition of the British Government. The ceded territory has gradually been enlarged to the Southward till it includes an area of some 31,000 square miles; and, as Sarawak has expanded *pari passu* to the North, the old kingdom of Brunei which lies between these two states, and at the expense of which they have grown, has now nearly disappeared from the map. Over the rest of Borneo Dutch claims extend: nearly the whole of the island therefore has come directly or indirectly under European authority.

CHAPTER III.

The British North Borneo Company.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

The Straits Settlements are ruled under the ordinary form of Crown Colony Government; the constitution consisting of a Governor, an Executive Council of ten officials including the Governor, and a Legislative Council. The last consists of the Executive Council with the addition of seven nominated unofficial members. The latter are chiefly English merchants or professional men, living at Singapore or Penang, two of them representing the Chambers of Commerce of Singapore and Penang respectively: there is one Chinese member, but no representative of the Malays.

Government and administration.

The legal system of the Straits Settlements is somewhat

Law and justice.

[1] Lord Granville's despatch to Her Majesty's Ambassador at Madrid, dated January 7, 1882, and printed in Blue Book c. 3108–82, points out the difference between the Charter granted to the North Borneo Company and previous Charters granted to the East India Company, the Hudson's Bay Company, etc. In the case of the North Borneo Company the Crown assumed no sovereignty over the Company's territories and did not purport to grant to the Company any powers of government, leaving the sovereignty of the Sultans untouched: and it prohibited instead of granting a general monopoly of trade. This last point is specially interesting as a good illustration of the change of view with regard to monopolies which has grown up in the present century.

SECTION II.

complex. The original foundation was certain English statutes. On these were grafted acts of the Indian Company and Government, until the Indian dependency became in 1867 a Crown colony. Since that date the old laws have been modified by the passing of local ordinances, allowance being made in cases affecting certain nationalities or creeds for the customs peculiar to the races or the special tenets of their faith.

The laws of the colony were, under the Indian Government, administered by a Recorder and magistrates; now, the lower courts are presided over by magistrates, selected from the colony's trained civil servants, while a Chief Justice and three Puisne Judges constitute the Supreme Court.

Civil Service.

Like Ceylon and Hong Kong, the Straits Settlements have the advantage of a regular Civil Service. The main offices of Government are at Singapore, but Penang and Malacca are each presided over by a Resident Councillor who is at the head of a considerable staff of civil officers.

Municipalities.

The towns of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca have each a municipal board for the management of purely local matters.

Area of the Settlements.

The total area of the Straits Settlements is given at 1472½ square miles, i.e. it is about the size of the County of Suffolk. The areas[1] of the separate divisions are as follows:—

Singapore and islets . .	223 square miles
Malacca	659 „ „
Dindings	200 „ „
Penang	106 „ „
Province Wellesley . .	270 „ „

Singapore.

The island of Singapore lies at the extreme end of the Malay peninsula. The strait, which divides it from the territory of Johor at the Southern end of that peninsula, is no more than three-quarters of a mile wide, and in old days was believed to be the only navigable channel in and out of the Eastern end of the Straits of Malacca.

[1] The details given in the books as above do not square with the total area given.

In shape and in its position with regard to the mainland Singapore may roughly be compared to the Isle of Wight, but it is more than half as large again. The island is some 27 miles long by 14 wide. It is studded with numberless low hills, and in many parts is still covered with jungle. The town of Singapore is built on the South shore of the island. The harbour, one of the greatest trading centres in the East, consists of two parts, the New and the Old harbour. The New harbour, which is first reached on coming from Europe, is a narrow channel of some $2\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length, lying between Singapore on the North and two little islands on the South. It is thus sheltered and safe; it has deep water, and is lined on the Singapore shore by extensive wharves, where steamers of all sizes can take supplies of coal. The Eastern end of the New harbour opens into the Old harbour or Singapore Roads. They have 5 miles of sea-frontage, are safe in all weathers, and are free of rocks, though only vessels of light draught can anchor near the shore.

Malacca.

About 110 miles to the North-West of Singapore along the coast of the peninsula is the Settlement of Malacca, said to be called after a native tree of the same name (Malaka)[1]. This settlement consists of a strip of mainland about 42 miles in length by 8 to 25 [illegible] adth. About the middle of its coast-line on the Malacc [illegible] is the old town, which three centuries ago was the great emporium of the Eastern Archipelago. Singapore embodies all the life and prosperity of modern English trade and colonisation, but Malacca, which has long been left behind by the newer settlements, is mainly interesting for its memorials of past greatness. The ruins of the old Portuguese Cathedral, and the Stadt house, in former times the residence of the Dutch Governors, recall the European nations which once were all powerful in the Malay seas; while the absence of any harbour, and the sleepiness of the town and neighbour-

[1] See Col. Yule's Glossary. 'Malay' and 'Malacca' may possibly be connected with each other.

SECTION II.

hood, betoken a place which lacks the energy, and perhaps the physical conditions, to rival the greatness of its past.

Away from the town the soil, where cleared from jungle, has been in great measure devoted to and impoverished by tapioca plantations; but the main products of the territory are rice and fruits, and it is on their cultivation that the considerable native population of Malacca is chiefly employed.

The Dindings.

Penang is 240 miles to the North-West of Malacca. Between these two settlements are the Dindings to the North of the Perak River and some 80 miles South of Penang. They consist of a strip of mainland, running North and South of the Dinding River, and the islands of Pangkor, which were in old days occupied for a while by the Dutch. The Dindings were taken over from Perak in 1874 in accordance with the intentions of a previous treaty of 1826 and with a view to the suppression of piracy [1]. At present they are of no great value for commercial purposes, except in so far as they supply Penang with excellent timber. Tin, however, is to be found there; much of the land is suitable for agricultural purposes; and the Dinding estuary is said to be the best natural harbour on the Western side of the peninsula.

Penang.

The island of Penang, which is said to take its name from the betel-nut [2], is about 15 miles long by 9 broad. It is more than one-third smaller than the Isle of Wight. It is divided from the mainland by a channel from 2 to 5 miles wide, which forms a fine harbour, and on the Northern end of which stands the town of Penang, properly called Georgetown. The hills in the island run up to 2400 feet, and in old days were resorted to from India as a Sanatorium.

Penang is a busy commercial place with a large trade, but the wharves and docks which line the shores at Singapore are

[1] The Dindings now form part of the settlement of Singapore under an ordinance of 1886.

[2] Bûah Pînang is the Malay for the areca-nut or betel-nut. The island of Penang was supposed to be like a betel nut.

wanting here, the only dock near at hand being the Prye dock in Province Wellesley.

CHAPTER III.

Province Wellesley.

Province Wellesley, which fronts Penang upon the mainland, stretches for about 45 miles along the coast, an additional few miles of territory to the south of the Krian River having lately[1] been acquired from Perak. The average width of the province is from 8 to 10 miles. It contains rich alluvial soil; and, while Penang boasts of no home products but coco-nuts, betel-nuts, spices, and fruits, the Province grows a considerable quantity of rice, and has attracted European planters, who have opened up sugar and tapioca estates with the help of coolie labour imported from India.

The two islands, Singapore and Penang, are great trading depôts. The two mainland territories, Malacca and Province Wellesley, are agricultural districts; Chinese tapioca planters being prominent in the former, European sugar cultivators in the latter, while Malay rice and fruit growers are numerous in both.

Population.

The population of the Straits Settlements at the last census—that of 1881—amounted to 423,384[2].

Comparing the three Settlements,

Singapore had a total population of .	139,208
Penang	90,951
Province Wellesley	97,324
Malacca	93,579
The Dindings	2,322

Throughout the Colony the Europeans numbered in all 3483, and the Eurasians (mainly of Portuguese extraction) 6904, while the Malays and Chinese were equal in numbers, the former numbering 174,326, the latter 174,327.

In Singapore the Chinese outnumbered the Malays, in

[1] Under the Pangkor treaty (1874).

[2] The population is now estimated at considerably over 500,000. The increase is due to immigration. The birth-rate is lower than the death-rate, in great measure owing to the enormous excess of males over females among the immigrants.

SECTION II.

Penang and Malacca the reverse was the case. Of the other elements of the population the Tamils, or Klings as they are locally called, numbered 37,305 (in great measure in Province Wellesley), and there were 3519 Bengalis and natives of other parts of India.

Chinese and Indians.

More energetic, more industrious, and more difficult to govern than the Malays, the Chinese are constantly increasing in numbers in the Colony and the neighbouring Native States. The Malay peninsula, as has already been suggested, is the dividing line between the Indian and Chinese Seas, and the Indian and Chinese races; consequently in the Straits Settlements Indians and Chinese are found meeting on Malayan ground. The Chinese, however, have immigrated in far greater numbers than the Indians, and are a stronger and more determined element in the population. They make money and pay taxes, as traders and workmen they are every where to the fore, but at the same time they cause a large amount of public expenditure in the matter of police, Protectors of Chinese, and other officials who are required to keep order among them, to counteract the efforts of their secret Societies[1], and to safeguard the freedom of women and children.

Religion.

There is as strange a medley of religions in the Straits Settlements as of races. Mohammedanism, Buddhism, Brahminism are professed respectively by the Malays, the Chinese, and certain classes of the Indians. It is left to the Sakei and Semang tribes of the interior to have no religious creed—only the vague belief in good and bad spirits which is the substitute for religion among the most savage and uncivilized races. Of the Christian creeds Roman Catholicism has the largest number of adherents, especially among the residents

[1] These societies have occasionally been the source of much trouble in colonies where there is a Chinese population. They were, in their origin, purely political, representing national discontent against the Tartar government of China. The members of each society are bound together by a kind of freemasonry; and some of the societies possess a strong organisation and considerable funds.

of Portuguese descent. In the Malay peninsula, as elsewhere, the Roman Catholic Missionaries in past days stood in front of their Protestant rivals in power of and possibly in zeal for conversion; and the religious work done by Xavier and his followers lasted, while the political and administrative system of Portugal crumbled away. The Church of England is the only religious body which is subsidised by the Government, and a moderate sum is voted on the annual estimates for its support at each of the three Settlements of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca.

CHAPTER III.

Education.

Education is being pushed on in the colony, a considerable sum being voted year by year for the purpose. Of the purely Government schools the majority are vernacular schools for Malays, but there are also a certain number for all races in which English is taught. The higher class institutions are for the most part subsidised though not wholly maintained by the State. The most important of them is the Raffles Institution, called after the founder of Singapore[1].

Products.

In a colony composed of small detached settlements there are few or no features of geographical interest to be noticed; and, as regards products, the Straits Settlements have become prosperous rather by importing, selling, and exporting what has been produced elsewhere, than through any agricultural or mineral treasures at home. Gambier, pepper and other spices, sago, tapioca, rice, sugar, gutta-percha, indigo, coconuts, fruits, and timber trees of various kinds, are raised within the limits of the colony; but the produce of Malayan soil, tin, canes, gutta-percha, coffee, gums, etc., which is shipped from the ports of Singapore and Penang, comes mainly from the Native States of the peninsula.

Climate and rainfall.

Situated as the Straits Settlements are in the very heart of the tropics (for Singapore is between 1 and 2 degrees, and

[1] A short succinct account of the present state of education in the colony is given in the 'Indian Magazine,' April 1888, by the present Inspector of Schools, Mr. E. C. Hill.

Section II.

Penang between 5 and 6 degrees, to the North of the Equator), their climate is yet not as hot as that of many other tropical countries; and it is only oppressive or injurious to European constitutions on account of the dampness of the atmosphere and the want of change in temperature throughout the year. The thermometer hardly varies from one day to another during the twelve months; and the sole changes are those caused by the monsoon winds, the South-West monsoon prevailing from May to September, the North-East from October to April. The latter months are also marked by occasional squalls of wind and rain called Sumatras because of the direction from which they come, but cyclones and other similar atmospheric disturbances are unknown within the limits of the colony. The rainfall varies very much in the different Settlements, and from year to year. At Singapore the record of the mean annual fall for the years 1870–1886 shows a range from over 120 to under 60 inches.

The most prevalent and sometimes most fatal disease among the natives[1], both in the Colony and in the Native States, is the wasting sickness known as 'beri beri.' It has been traced to want of nitrogen in the food, and is found to disappear when resort is had to change of air and to a more generous diet than rice and salt fish.

Currency, Finances, etc.

The currency of the Straits Settlements, as of the other Eastern dependencies, is silver, and here, as well as in the Native States, Labuan, and North Borneo, the accounts are kept in dollars and cents. The revenue of the colony in 1875 amounted to 1½ million of dollars: in 1885 it reached the sum of 3½ millions, and the figures for 1886[2] show a further increase of nearly a quarter of a million. There are no import or export duties, and every port in the colony is free. About two-thirds of the revenue is derived

[1] It is said to attack Chinese more than Malays.

[2] The figures for 1887, received while this book is passing through the press, show a still further increase.

from licences, mainly opium monopolies, so that the Chinese can be credited with being the largest tax-payers. Of the other items the most important is Land Revenue, which is steadily growing. On the other hand, the insular position of Singapore and Penang has hitherto precluded one item of expenditure, viz. the construction of railways, which has occasionally, for the time being, strained the resources of other colonies. Money is consequently plentiful for all kinds of public buildings, for the care of the sick, the education of the young, and other good and useful purposes.

The financial success of the Straits Settlements has been great and striking. It proves what solid results in colonization may follow a wise choice of position, a liberal commercial policy, and a system of government which enforces order within certain limits, without perpetually overstepping those limits, exciting the suspicions of native races, and overburdening the resources of a trading community.

THE NATIVE STATES[1].

1. PERAK.

History.

OF the three Native States, which are closely connected with the colony of the Straits Settlements, and are controlled by British Residents subject to the authority of the Governor at Singapore, the largest and most important is Perak. The royal family of Perak claim descent from the family which ruled at Malacca at the time when it was taken by the Portuguese in 1511, and fled from thence to Johor. The Dutch, as has been seen, established factories on the Perak river and in the islands of Pangkor, but the state was little visited by Europeans till recent years.

In 1824 its independence of Siam was secured by the East India Company, and it was left to itself till 1874, when a British Resident was appointed under the provisions of the

[1] The changes in these growing states are so rapid that the details now given must be taken as subject to correction.

SECTION II.

treaty of Pangkor. The outbreak which temporarily followed upon British intervention in a lawless country has already been alluded to, as also the fact that, as soon as peace and order were restored, the State, under the guidance of the present Resident, entered on a course of progress and prosperity.

This prosperity has hitherto been singularly rapid and almost unchecked, the revenue in 1884 having been five times as great as in 1874, and the revenue in 1886 showing a large increase on that of 1884 and 1885[1].

Government and Administration.

The government is in the hands of a State Council, consisting of the Sultan who is the head of the State, the Resident, his principal Assistant, four Malay and two Chinese members. The administration is carried on by the Resident, acting under the instructions of the Governor of the Straits Settlements; and the Resident is assisted by a considerable staff of English officials[2], and backed by a strong force of armed Sikh and Malay police.

Geography.

Perak is bounded on the North-West by Province Wellesley and the Native State of Kedah, the Krian river forming the bounda[illegible] line between it and Kedah. On the North-East i[illegible] march[illegible] [illegible] the Siamese dependency of Reman[3], the exact boundary being a point at issue between the Governments of Siam and Perak. On the East, mountains divide it from the native states of Kelantan and Pahang. On the South the Bernam river separates it from the sister state of Selangor. On the West it is bounded by the Straits of Malacca, except where the territory of the Dindings intercepts the sea.

Area.

The length of the state is about 120 miles, its breadth 90, and its coast-line 90. It has an area of slightly under 8000

[1] The revenue of 1885 showed a very small decrease on 1884. For the 1887 figures see note to p. 118.

[2] The chief administrative officers in 1886 were—
The Assistant Resident stationed in Larut.
The Superintendent of Lower Perak.
The Collectors and Magistrates of—Port Weld, Krian, Kinta, Batang Padang, Upper Perak, Selama.

[3] Reman is one of the divisions of the country known as Patnia.

square miles, being about the size of Wales and Monmouthshire.

CHAPTER III.

The central feature of the State is the valley of the Perak river, which for the greater part of its course runs roughly from North to South between two ranges of mountains. Outside the valleys of this river and its tributaries, however, are the important district of Larut, and the districts at the extreme North and the extreme South, watered by the Krian and Bernam rivers respectively.

Mountains.

Of the two ranges of mountains the higher is that on the Eastern side of the Perak river. Some points in it rise, it is said, to 7000 or 8000 feet. This is part of the mountains which form the backbone of the Malay peninsula, as the Apennines form the backbone of Italy, and which separate the States of the Western from those of the Eastern coast.

Rivers.

The length of the Perak river is said to be about 250 miles. It rises in the debateable territory between Perak and the Siamese states: it flows mainly, as has been said, from North to South, but towards the latter end of its course it turns sharply to the West and flows direct into the Straits of Malacca. For purposes of ship navigation it is of no great use: its estuary, like that of most other Malay rivers, is shallow, and the upper part of its channel is impeded by rocks and rapids. It is navigable for about 40 miles from the sea for steamers of some size, and for smaller boats for a much longer distance. Of its tributaries the most important are the Plus, which flows into it some distance above Kwala Kangsa; the Kinta, which joins the main river near where the latter turns to the West, and which drains a valley parallel to that of the Perak; and the Batang Padang, which joins it slightly lower down at Durian Sabatang. The other rivers of the State include the Larut, the Krian, and the Bernam; the two last respectively mark, as has been seen, the Northern and Southern boundaries of Perak. The Bernam empties itself into the sea only a few miles to the South of the mouth of the

SECTION II.

Perak river: it has an estuary 2 miles wide, is said to have a greater volume of water than any other river in the peninsula, and to be navigable for steamers for about 100 miles.

Districts.

The mountains and rivers determine the main divisions of the State[1]. In the North-West of the State between the Western mountains and the sea is the Krian district. Adjoining it to the East and North-East, and connected with it for administrative purposes, is the district of Selama, taking in the more mountainous country between the upper course of the Krian and that of the Perak river. South-East of the Krian district is the rich and important province of Larut, taking in the sea coast as far as the Dindings. The main valley of the state, as has been said, is drained by the Perak river, and it is divided into Upper and Lower Perak, Lower Perak including also Batang Padang. The Kinta district covers the valley watered by the river of that name. The Bernam district fills up the Southern end of Perak. It is the border district between Perak and Selangor, and includes the whole Northern side of the Bernam river, which forms the boundary between the two states.

Krian.

The Krian district adjoins Province Wellesley, and partakes of the same agricultural character, possessing extensive sugar and rice plantations. In Selama, agriculture is supplemented by mining. Larut, with its tin mines, is the most developed district of the State. In 1886, it claimed nearly two-thirds of the tin exported from Perak. It contains Thaipeng, the largest town in Perak and the capital of the State. From Thaipeng 8 miles of metre gauge railway have been laid Westward to the sea, to Port Weld; and in the opposite direction a road leads over the mountains to Kwala Kangsa. Kwala Kangsa is the head-quarters of the English Resident and the capital of Upper Perak, Teluk Anson being the port and principal station of Lower Perak. The country

Larut.

Upper and Lower Perak.

[1] The divisions given are geographical. For administrative purposes there are five districts—Larut, Kwala Kangsa, Lower Perak, Kinta, Krian. Upper Perak is subordinate to Kwala Kangsa, Selama to Krian, Batang Padang to Lower Perak. The part of Perak on the Bernam river is included in Lower Perak.

towards the sources of the Perak river is believed to be rich in minerals, tin being found in most parts of the valley, and Lower Perak is a district of great agricultural promise. *Kinta.* The Kinta district is exceedingly rich in tin, the out-put is steadily on the increase, and, when further developed, this may perhaps prove to be the most valuable part of the State. Near where the Kinta river falls into the Perak is Bandar Bharu, where the residency of Perak was originally placed. *Bernam.* The Bernam district in the South, like the Krian district in the North, is well suited for agriculture, and the river flows for a considerable part of its course through tracts of swampy country, requiring only population and capital to plant and develop it. In the upper country this district has also large resources of tin as yet but little worked.

Products, Fauna, etc. In the jungles of Perak, as elsewhere in the Malay peninsula, there is a profusion of rich tropical vegetation, including gutta-percha and other valuable trees and plants, and among the exports of the State are found timber, bark, canes, and firewood. The fauna of this and the neighbouring States include, among other species, the rhinoceros, elephant, wild ox, Malay tapir, bear, and tiger, natives being killed by tigers occasionally even in the island of Singapore. There are also various kinds of monkeys, though the orang-outang is said not to be found in the peninsula, the term being used by the Malays to denote the 'wild men' of the interior. The cattle of the natives find a place in the list of exports from Perak; and the sea and river fisheries employ a good many of the population, as shown by the trade in salt fish, dried prawns, etc.

Agriculture. The agricultural resources of Perak have hitherto hardly been opened up, but there is rich promise for the future. Rice is grown in the double form of wet and dry padi, the cultivation of the latter being discouraged, as in Ceylon[1], because it leads to the destruction of the timber and exhaustion of the soil. The supply of home-grown rice, however, is still far under the demand, and large quantities are imported to

[1] See what was said as to 'Chena' cultivation, in Ceylon, p. 78.

feed the Chinese and Indian labourers. Sugar is an established product, grown mainly by Chinese in the Krian district. Successful experiments in coffee and tea-planting have also been made, and very lately Perak coffee obtained the highest prices in the London markets. Indigo, tobacco, pepper, spices, and other tropical products are also beginning to be grown. Perhaps more may be expected in the future from industries which thrive on the higher ground, such as tea, coffee, and cinchona, than from rice, sugar, and tobacco, the products of the low country.

Minerals.

Among mineral resources tin stands far ahead, the amount exported in 1886 representing nearly three-fourths of the total exports of the State. Gold has been found in Upper Perak and in Batang Padang. Iron is found in various districts, but coal is unfortunately conspicuous by its absence. There are also rich stores of marble and granite. Perak possesses, in short, great natural resources, and, making allowance for the fluctuations which occur in all lands from time to time, every year may be reasonably expected to add to its prosperity as the amount of available capital and labour is increased and the means of communication are improved.

Finances.

The extraordinary rise of revenue since the administration of the State came under British control has been already alluded to. In 1886[1] the amount collected was nearly 1,700,000 dollars. Licences and Customs account for five-sixths of the total, the former including the opium and spirit monopolies and representing mainly the contribution to Government paid by the Chinese, the latter including an export duty on tin. An import duty is levied on opium, but otherwise the ports of Perak, like those of the Straits Settlements, are free.

[1] Since the above was written, the figures for 1887 have been received. They show for the year—

1. Revenue, over 1,800,000 dollars.

2. Total value of exports, 12¼ million dollars, being an increase on 1886 of 3½ million; mainly due to the high price and large export of tin.

3. Increase of numbers by immigration, nearly 25,000; on the other hand, the registered deaths exceeded the registered births by over 4000.

Chapter III.

Excluding the cost of civil and police establishments, the bulk of the expenditure is absorbed by public works. All the appliances of civilised countries are fast being introduced into Perak. The little railway has been noticed. Telegraph lines now run in various directions through the State, passing out into Province Wellesley and so to Penang and the outside world. Its postal system includes money orders and parcels post: and steamers ply constantly between its ports and those of the Straits Settlements.

Climate.

The climate of Perak is average for the tropics and the heat is not extreme; but here, as in the other native States and in the Straits Settlements, there are no well-defined changes of season, the only variations being caused by the greater amount of rain which falls in some months than others[1]. The total annual rainfall is very heavy in Larut. In 1886 it amounted to 166 inches. In other districts the fall is very much less.

Population.

In the case of a State with ill-defined boundaries and half-opened districts, the face of which is changing from year to year, it is waste of time to attempt any accurate estimate of population. But writing in 1885 the Acting Resident gave the total for the previous year at 118,150; and, writing in 1887, the Resident estimated the increase in numbers in 1886 over 1885 caused by immigration at 16,000. The elements of the population are much the same as in the Straits Settlements[2].

Excluding the aboriginal tribes of Sakei and Semang, the Tamil Coolies, and the small sprinkling of Europeans and Eurasians, the main bulk of the population consists of Malays and Chinese. As in the colony, these two races are almost equal in numbers, but the stronger Chinese breed bids fair to outnumber the Malays, if it has not already done so. Among the Malays the death-rate is high[3], and, though

[1] The wettest months are September to December.

[2] The figures given were—Malays, 60,000; Chinese, 55,000; Tamils and other Natives, 3000; Europeans and Eurasians, 150.

[3] The Malays, however, are said to have largely increased in numbers during the present century both in the Native States and in the Straits Settlements.

SECTION II.

in 1884 and 1885 the rate of Chinese immigration showed a falling off, there is now a large settled population in the state of Chinese origin and the tide of immigrants from China is again advancing. The Chinese do the main work of the state; they are at present most numerous in Larut, where they have proved to be very successful tin miners; and if they require more governing than the indolent Malays, the future progress and development of Perak will be in very large measure due to their industry and enterprise.

2. SELANGOR.

Most of what has been said of Perak applies to its sister state and Southern neighbour Selangor.

History.

Little is known of the early history of this part of the peninsula, and Selangor as at present constituted is a new state. Its Malay inhabitants, excluding the immigrants[1] of late years, are supposed to be colonists from the Celebes, who arrived towards the beginning of the 18th century; but till lately, when the English intervened, the country was in great measure unoccupied and given up to piracy and intestine warfare. Traces of European intrusion in past time are found in the old Dutch fort at the mouth of the Selangor river; and more recently white men are known to have penetrated into the interior, and to have attempted to work the rich deposits of tin.

Government.

In 1874 a British Resident was placed in this state as in Perak, and the Sultan now governs through this officer and a mixed council of the same type as that which has been described in the case of Perak.

Area and Geography.

Selangor has an area estimated at some 3000 square miles, in other words it is about one-sixth larger than Devonshire. On the North the Bernam river divides it from

[1] Of the present Malay population two-thirds are said to be natives of the Netherlands Indies.

Perak; on the East the main mountain chain of the peninsula separates it from Pahang; on the South it is bounded by Sungei Ujong; and on the West by the Straits of Malacca.

Selangor is for the most part a plain lying between the mountain range referred to above and the sea. In the North the mountains are some 50 miles distant from the coast, in the South they approach within 30 miles and throw out some high spurs into the level country. The rivers flow due West, the principal streams, taken from North to South, being the Bernam, the Selangor, the Klang, and the Langat. The country is divided into six districts[1], each in charge of a Collector and Magistrate. In the North, inland, is the district of Ulu Selangor, including Ulu Bernam, as yet less opened up than any other part of the state. Next to it comes the district of Kwala Selangor, along the Selangor river and the coast as far as the Bernam river. The central district is that of Kwala Lumpor[2], the town of that name being the capital of the state and the head-quarters of the English Resident. It has now excellent communication with the sea, a railway[3] about 20 miles long being open from it to a point on the Klang River about 2 miles above the central station of the Klang district, whence it is proposed to throw a bridge across the river and take the railway into Klang town. Klang is peculiarly fortunate in possessing a good navigable river without a bar. Steamers from Singapore, Malacca, and Penang call almost daily at the port, which is situated about 10 miles from the mouth of the river; and the construction of a railway between the port and the inland town of Kwala

Districts.

[1] Or more correctly into four, the two districts, Selangor and Langat, being each subdivided into a coast and inland district, distinguished by 'Kwala' and 'Ulu.'

[2] Writing in October 1886 Governor Weld says of Kwala Lumpor, 'It is fast becoming the neatest and prettiest Chinese and Malay town in the Colony or the States, as within my remembrance it was the dirtiest and most disreputable looking.'

[3] The railway was opened in September 1886, and is a rich source of revenue to the government.

SECTION II.

Lumpor places the latter in a position of great importance. not only as the centre of its own rich mining district, but also as being, on the Eastern side, within easy reach of the wealthy and extensive territory of Pahang.

To the South of the Klang River are the other two districts of the state, viz. Kwala Langat, a coast district, the home of the Sultan of Selangor, and Ulu Langat inland, on the frontier of Sungei Ujong.

Products, etc.

Kwala Lumpor is the chief tin-mining district, containing very rich supplies of this metal, but tin is found and worked also in Ulu Bernam and Ulu Selangor in the North, and in Ulu Langat in the South. Of the total exports[1] of the state in 1887, tin accounted for about nine-tenths of the whole in value; and about seven-eighths of this amount was exported from Kwala Lumpor by the port of Klang. There is a small export trade in fish, from the district of Kwala Selangor. Agriculture is still in its infancy in the state, but the cultivation of rice is extending in the swampy Southern districts, and Liberian coffee, pepper, gambier, tobacco, and other tropical products are gradually being taken in hand by both European and native planters.

Finances.

The revenue of the state has been derived almost entirely from licences and from customs duties: the latter are levied only in the form of an import duty on opium and an export duty on tin. The revenue from the sale of lands, though not large, has shown an extraordinary increase of late years. In 1886 the total revenue from all sources was nearly 700,000 dollars. The total receipts for 1887 reached over 1,150,000 dollars, being five times the amount realised in 1877.

Climate.

The climate of Selangor is very similar to that of Perak, the range of temperature being slightly wider and the rainfall[2] less than in Larut. In both these states, as well as in Sungei

[1] The total value of the exports in 1887 was nearly 6 million dollars, being an increase on 1886 of over 2 million.

[2] Except in Ulu Selangor, where the rainfall is very high.

Ujong, the building of hospitals, the presence of European medical men, and the progress of sanitation are producing beneficial effects upon the scanty population of countries which, though tropical, are by nature not unhealthy.

Population.

A census of Selangor was taken at the end of 1884 and showed a total population of 46,568. Of this number over 28,000 were Chinese, over 17,000 were Malays, the proportion of Chinese being greater than in Perak. The few remaining inhabitants were Europeans, Indian Coolies, and Sakei aborigines, the latter numbering 759. The population is now estimated at nearly 100,000, three-fourths being Chinese.

Roads and public buildings, postal and telegraphic[1] communication, are all making steady and rapid progress in Selangor. Justice is administered, crime is punished, schools are springing up, and everything is well calculated to attract capital and population, which alone are wanted to develop the natural resources of an orderly and well-administered state.

3. Sungei Ujong.

History.

Sunjei Ujong is the smallest and Southernmost of the three Protected States. It was originally a member of the confederacy of nine little states, known as the Negri Sembilan, the other members of which have gradually and voluntarily become amenable to the influence of the Colonial Government, and are entrusting the collection and administration of their revenues to English hands. The Residential system was introduced into Sungei Ujong in the same year as into Perak and Selangor, viz. 1874. At the end of 1875 the country suffered from disturbances similar to and coincident with those which broke out in Perak. Since that date it has progressed, though more slowly than the other two Protected States, and is now, under the administration of a Resident and a mixed State Council, well on the way to prosperity.

Area and Geography.

It lies between Selangor and Malacca, has a seaboard of

[1] It has telegraphic communication with Malacca viâ Sungei Ujong.

SECTION II.

36 miles, and an estimated area of some 660 square miles, i.e. it is one-eighth smaller than Oxfordshire; and it consists, like Selangor, mainly of level swampy land between the mountains and the sea. It includes the Lukut district which formerly belonged to Selangor. Its chief stream is the Linggi, near the mouth of which is the little port of Pengkalan Kompas. The mouth of the Linggi, however, is silting up, and a new port has been determined upon on the open sea, from which a railway of some 21 miles long is being made to Seremban, the capital of the state and the centre of a tin-mining district. A road connects the present port with Seremban, and other roads have been constructed, or are in course of construction, connecting the state with Malacca, Selangor, and the neighbouring states on the East and South. The result of road-making in the Native States is that there is now practically road communication along the Western side of the Peninsula from the North of Province Wellesley to the South of Malacca.

Products.

As in the other states, tin-mining is the chief industry, but land is gradually being taken up and planted, more especially with coffee and pepper; and the revenue and exports[1] reproduce on a smaller scale the features which have been already noticed in conection with Perak and Selangor.

Population.

The population has been estimated at about 14,000, some 10,000 of whom are Chinese, principally tin-miners, and the rest are mainly Malays, engaged to a great extent in growing rice. The latest reports, however, show a large increase of immigrants, as the state is opened up and Chinese flock in to work the mines of the country.

GENERAL RÉSUMÉ.

The Straits Settlements hold in the British Empire a position half-way between those Colonies which are directly

[1] 1. Revenue for 1887, over 140,000 dollars, being an increase of more than 16 per cent. on the revenue for 1886.

2. Total value of exports in 1887, over one million dollars, being an increase on 1886 of 34 per cent.

valuable on account of their territory and resources, and those which are valuable more indirectly as stepping-stones from one part of the world to another, as military stations, as ports of call, or as emporia of trade. Considered from the inside, Singapore and Penang have but small area and resources, and the wealth of Malacca is slight; but the Native States, which have been described above, are so completely under British influence, and the outlet of their trade is so entirely through the ports of Singapore and Penang, that it is impossible to leave them out of sight in taking a general view of the Colony. As the Straits Settlements were originally an appendage of India, so the combination of a Crown Colony with native principalities, nominally independent but really under the protection and control of the English Government, reproduces on a small scale the system which is carried out in India; and this combination places the Straits Settlements, as compared with most of the other Colonies, on a somewhat special footing.

Distances.

Considered from the outside, as points of call and as emporia of trade, Singapore, and in a lesser degree Penang, stand very high among the ports of the world. Singapore is about 1600 miles from Colombo, over 1600 miles from Calcutta, over 1400 from Hong Kong, about 700 from Labuan, about 500 from Batavia, and about 1000 from Port Darwin in the North of Australia. The Straits Settlements have steam and telegraphic communication with all parts of the world. Trade routes converge upon the Colony from North, South, East and West; from India and Burmah; from Australia, North and West; from the Netherlands Indies; from Siam, Cochin China, Tonquin and China; and from Ceylon and Europe. Placed in the very centre of traffic, with free ports, which have from the first invited all sorts and conditions of men and merchandise, the dependency has steadily grown from year to year; and the combination of internal progress in the peninsula with constantly increasing

SECTION II.

outside trade has given to it a degree of prosperity which is almost unique in the history of colonisation.

Nor is it only as a rich trading centre that this colony is interesting. Only here and in Borneo are the English people brought directly into contact with the Malayan race, and are proving themselves singularly successful in ruling it. Here too, as in few other British Colonies, the Chinese element is constantly growing stronger; and the process may be watched by which this strange people, not asking to govern, but profiting by the good government of others, are gradually taking up the country and outnumbering the children of the soil. And here, lastly, is the chief point of contact between the English and Dutch Colonial Empires: the Straits Settlements lie alongside of Sumatra, and Singapore is the nearest British port to the Island of Java and Batavia the capital of the Netherlands Indies.

BOOKS AND PUBLICATIONS BEARING ON THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS AND THE ENGLISH IN THE MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.

In addition to official publications, including the excellent handbook on the Straits Settlements and Native States printed for the Colonial and Indian Exhibition may be mentioned—

WALLACE'S *Malay Archipelago.*

Our Tropical Possessions in Malayan India (CAMERON). London, 1865.

Perak and the Malays (McNAIR). London, 1878.

Report to the Secretary of State for India in Council on the Records of the India Office (DANVERS, Vol. I, Part I).

The Eastern Geography, a Geography of the Malay Peninsula and surrounding countries. Part I (SKINNER). Singapore, 1884.

The Journals of the Straits branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.

LABUAN.

If the Straits Settlements are a typically prosperous colony, Labuan is very distinctly the reverse.

Area and Geography.

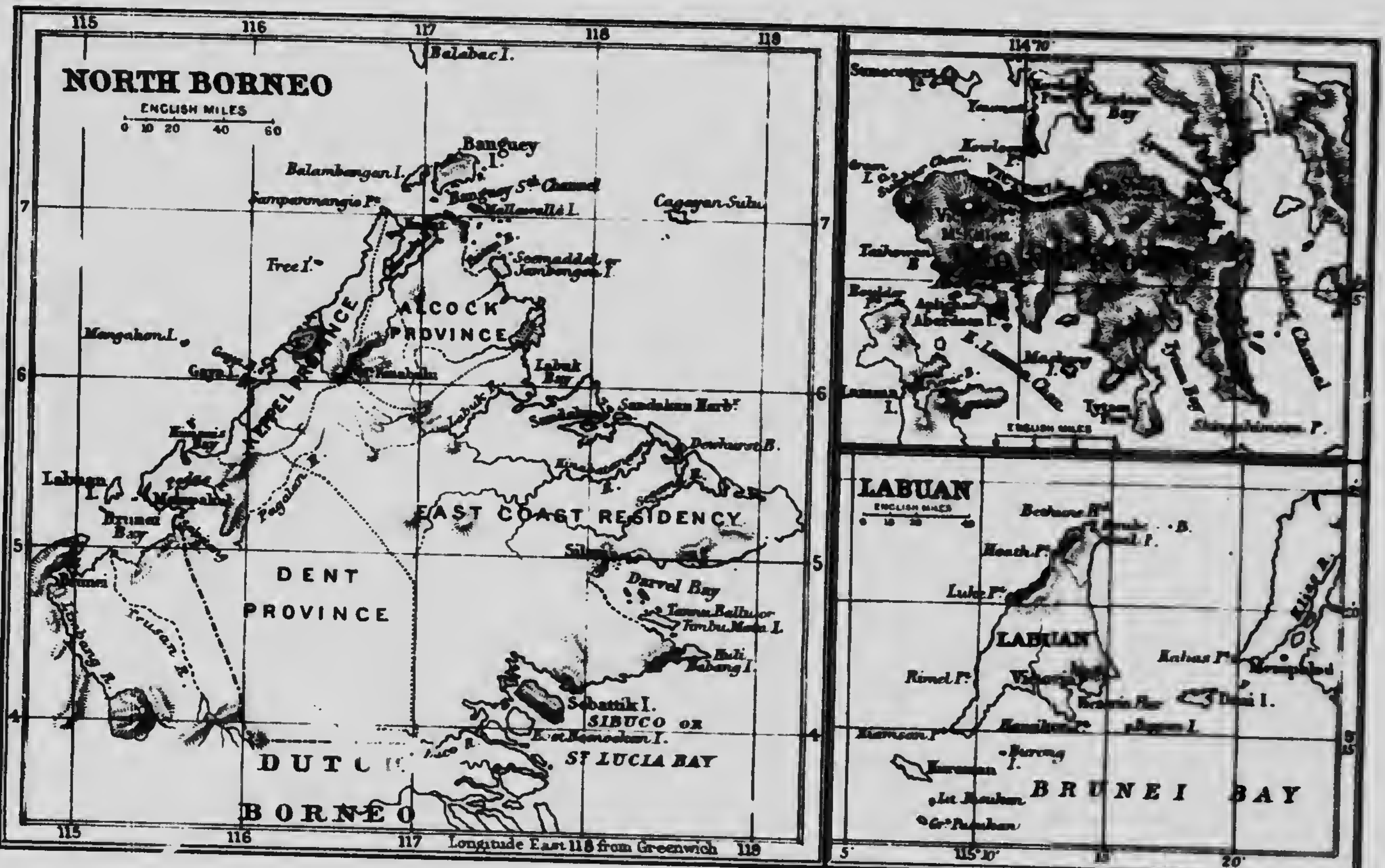
It is a triangular island, with an area, including islets, of

ch

is
le
re
o,
n-
ed
ut
ly
ne
n
e-
st
of

s

t
l
-



NORTH BORNEO
ENGLISH MILES
0 10 20 40 60
Balabac I.
Banguey I.
Balambangan I.
Banguey S.th Channel
Mallawallé I.
Cagayan Sulu
Tree I.
Somaddah or Jambongan I.
ALCOCK PROVINCE
Mangahon I.
Gaya I.
Labuk Bay
Sandakan Harb.r
Dewhurst B.
Labuan I.
Brunei Bay
Brunei
Padas R.
Trusan R.
EAST COAST RESIDENCY
DENT PROVINCE
Darvel Bay
Tambu Mata I.
Bali Babang I.
Sebattik I.
SIBUCO OR
ST LUCIA BAY
DUTCH
BORNEO
Longitude East 118 from Greenwich
LABUAN
ENGLISH MILES
Heath P.t
Luke P.t
LABUAN
Rimel P.t
Victoria
Kalias P.t
Daat I.
Burong I.
BRUNEI BAY
Tytam Bay
Channel
Oxford University Press

30 square miles; i.e. it is somewhat larger than Guernsey, and is less than one-fourth of the size of the Isle of Wight.

It lies off the mouth of the Brunei Bay, about 6 miles from the nearest point of Borneo and 30 miles from the town of Brunei.

The island has no rising ground higher than 300 feet: such hills as there are being mainly towards the North and West. It has only two streams of any size, and most of the island is covered with wood and jungle. On the Southern coast—the base of the triangle—is Victoria harbour, nearly 2 miles long and over a mile wide at its mouth. It is a fine and well-protected harbour, and constitutes the chief feature of the island. The little town of Victoria, with the usual government offices, stands upon its Eastern shore. At the extreme North—the apex of the triangle—is Coal-point, connected by about 8½ miles of road with Victoria.

Products.

Coalpoint is the scene of coal mines, which were some years ago worked to a considerable extent. In 1876 there was an output of nearly 6000 tons of coal, and there appeared to be a prospect of some commercial prosperity for the little Colony from this source; but since 1882 the working has been suspended. At the same time the growth of Sarawak and the organization of the British North Borneo Company have tended to divert trade from the island. The only other industry worthy the name, which has been carried on in Labuan, is the manufacture of sago. There are, or were, three sago factories, in which the raw sago, imported from the coast of Borneo, is prepared for the Singapore market. The rice which is grown is not enough to feed the resident population, and what is required is mainly imported from the port of Singapore. Nor are any other agricultural products raised to any appreciable extent.

Finances.

The revenue, which in 1876 was over £9000, in 1886 was under £4000, and the imports and exports have largely

SECTION II.

decreased in amount. Licences, including the opium farm, are the largest item of revenue[1].

Climate.

The climate of the island is far from extreme, but the want of sufficient change of season and the heavy rainfall make it very depressing both to natives and to Europeans, who are constantly subject to fever.

Population.

According to the census of 1881, the population of Labuan amounted to nearly 6000. Over 4700 were Malays, and about 1030 were Chinese. There are only two or three English officials now on the island who carry on the forms of Crown Colony government, the Acting Governor being also the Consul-General for Borneo.

Distances.

Labuan is 300 miles distant from Sandakan the chief station of the British North Borneo Company, and about 350 from Kuching the capital of the state of Sarawak. Its distance from Singapore is about 700 miles, from Hong Kong 1200, and from Manila, the capital of the Spanish dependency of the Philippines, 800. It has steam communication about once a week with Singapore.

General Résumé.

Its position in relation to Borneo is parallel to that of Hong Kong in relation to China, and it lies off the opening of the Brunei Bay just as Hong Kong lies off the mouth of the Canton River. Had Borneo been as China, richly cultivated, teeming with population, and therefore inviting to European traders, Labuan might now be enjoying as great a measure of prosperity as Hong Kong, and its harbour and coal mines would have given it importance as a naval station. But its vicinity to the decaying native kingdom of Brunei proved no great attraction to English merchants, and the new development of European enterprise in the North and West of Borneo seems to bid fair to reduce the little island to its original insignificance.

[1] The revenue returns for 1887 are rather more favourable than those for 1886.

NORTH BORNEO.

CHAPTER III.

Area and Geography.

The territory in Borneo held by the British North Borneo Company includes the whole of the Northern end of the island, with the islands lying within three leagues of the coast. One of these islands is Balambangan, where, as already stated[1], a British station was for a while established in the last and at the beginning of the present century. The Company's territory is bounded by the sea on all sides but the South. On the South side it is coterminous with Dutch Borneo, on the South-West with the rapidly diminished Sultanate of Brunei, which divides it from Sarawak. Its borders have on the Western side been lately extended, so as to take in the district of the Padas river; and its boundaries are now the Sa' pětang river on the West, the Sibuko river on the East coast. The area of the territory is estimated at 31,000 square miles[2], it is therefore slightly larger than Scotland, slightly smaller than Ireland.

The long coast line (estimated at from 700 to 1000 miles) is broken and indented, suitable for trading purposes[3]. The principal settlements at present are, on the West coast at Mempakol in the Padas district on the Brunei Bay, and on Gaya island in the bay of that name; on the North coast on Bangney island, and at Kudat on Marudu Bay; on the East coast at Sandakan on Sandakan Bay, and at Silam on Darvel Bay. Sandakan is the seat of government and the principal trading station of the company. Sandakan Bay [illegible] nearly landlocked, and forms a magnificient harbour [illegible] som[illegible]

[1] See p. 104.

[2] The report of the Acting British Consular Agent at Sandakan, May 21, 1886, printed for Parliament with other Consular Reports, gives the area at 31,100 square miles, the coast line at [illegible]. In [illegible] notes to the paper read before the Royal Geographical Society [illegible] 12, 1887, by Mr. Daly, Assistant Resident, the coast line is given at [illegible]00 miles.

[3] The territory has, up to the beginning of the present year (1888), been divided into four provinces, the [illegible] coast Residency, Alcock province in the North, Keppel province [illegible] North-West, and Dent province in the South-West.

SECTION II.

15 miles long by 5 broad. Its drawback is that it lies on the side of the island which looks away from China and the main trade routes between Europe and the East. On the other hand, it is well placed with a view to the future development of trade between China and Australia. It is about 1000 miles from Singapore, 1200 from Hong Kong, 600 from Manila, and 1600 from Port Darwin in the Northern territory of Australia. Gaya Bay on the opposite coast is also a very fine natural harbour, deeper than that of Sandakan, and is said to contain some 10 square miles of good anchorage.

Away from the coast the country is mountainous, the highest point hitherto known being Kinabalu, between 13,000 and 14,000 feet high. The interior is as yet for the most part unopened and covered with jungle. Rivers are numerous, and finer on the Eastern than on the Western side. The largest, according to present knowledge, is the Kinabatangan, which flows into the sea on the Eastern side of Sandakan Bay. As in the case of most rivers which form a delta, its mouth is shallow, but beyond the bars its winding course is navigable for a long distance inland.

Climate.

The climate of North Borneo is said to be moderate for the tropics, and typhoons are unknown. The year is divided by the monsoons, the North-East monsoon prevailing from November to April, the South-West from May to October. The average rainfall in the year is about 124 inches.

Products.

The exports of the country, which are sent to China through Hong Kong, to Europe through Singapore, and which are beginning to be shipped to Australia also, have hitherto consisted mainly of sago and of the produce of jungle or sea, such as rattans, gutta-percha, edible birds' nests, timber, beeswax, camphor, bêche de mer, tortoise shells, etc. But most tropical or sub-tropical products are now being tried, and tobacco especially promises well. Tobacco planting is carried on, mainly by Dutch and

Germans, on the North coast on the island of Banguey and on Marudu Bay, and on the East coast on Darvel Bay. Some 200,000 acres are stated to have been taken up for this industry. Gold, coal, and iron have all been found in the country, but have not yet been worked on any scale, and some years must pass before the resources of the territory can be fully gauged.

Finances.

Taking the years 1882 to 1886[1], the revenue, including land sales, has risen from 36,000 to 140,000 dollars, i.e. it has nearly quadrupled itself. Among the sources of revenue are licences, which are mostly farmed, import duties, royalties or export duties mainly on jungle produce and birds' nests, profit on notes and coins, land sales, and a poll tax on adult males, levied on natives of the interior and collected through the native chiefs. In spite of the progress made, however, the expenditure, as might be expected, during these first years la.gely exceeded the revenue; and in addition to the ordinary expenses of each year a considerable sum has been laid out by the Company in importing Chinese labourers.

Population.

The number of inhabitants in the territory is estimated at from 150,000 to 200,000. They are mainly Dyaks[2], a branch of the Malayan race; while among the immigrants here, as in Sarawak and Dutch Borneo, the Chinese are a most important element.

Administration.

The Company administers its territories through a Court of Directors in London, and a Governor, Colonial Secretary, Residents, and other officers in Borneo. Its laws are adapted from the Indian and Colonial codes. It has its own copper coinage, note issue, and stamps, and it is, unlike the old East India Company, a governing rather than a trading association.

[1] The 1887 figures show an improvemen on those for 1886; a higher revenue and a lower expenditure.

[2] This seems to be correct as a general statement, but for the various elements of the native population see the handbook referred to overleaf.

SECTION II.

General Résumé.

British North Borneo, as it is commonly called, has a historical interest in that it is a modern illustration of the process, by which in times past private companies built up an English empire; and the existence of the state bears witness to the modern deviation from the policy which at the beginning of the century tended to leave the Malay islands outside the sphere of British influence.

Its geographical interest consists in its situation mid-way between China and the Northern districts of Australia, and in the fact that it forms a connecting link between the British possessions in the Eastern and those in the Southern seas.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO NORTH BORNEO.

An account of British North Borneo, with map, is given in the Colonial Office List.

Periodical Reports are furnished by the British Consular Agent at Sandakan, and are printed among the Foreign Office Consular Reports.

A Handbook of British North Borneo, with very full particulars, was compiled for the Colonial and Indian Exhibition, with an Introduction by Sir Rutherford Alcock, K.C.B., Chairman of the British North Borneo Company.

CHAPTER IV.

HONG KONG.

CHAPTER IV.

History.

Hong Kong[1] and the neighbouring Portuguese settlement at Macao are the only parts of China proper which have ever been definitely ceded to European powers; and it was not until 1887 that the Portuguese occupation of Macao was formally confirmed by the Chinese government.

Early European relations with China.

The Portuguese.

China or Cathay was visited overland in the Middle Ages by Marco Polo and other travellers from the West of Europe; but it was not till 1508-9[2] that European ships first reached its shores. They were Portuguese vessels, and in the Chinese, as in other Eastern seas, the Portuguese were the first and for many years the only European traders. They did not, however, establish themselves at Macao till 1557, and the settlement was not definitely recognised by the government of Portugal till 1585.

Besides Macao, the island of Formosa, lying off the coast of China, was also included in the long list of Portuguese dependencies; but no factory or settlement was formed in it, and Macao was the only permanent foothold of Portugal in China.

The Spaniards.

From 1543, the date of the taking of the Philippines, the Spaniards carried on a trade between Manila and the Chinese coasts, and in 1626 and 1629 two Spanish forts were planted in the island of Formosa (Spain and Portugal being at this time under one Crown).

[1] Hong Kong in its Chinese form means 'fragrant streams.'

[2] This is the date given in Birdwood's report on the India Office Records; 1516 is the date given in the 'Treaty Ports of China and Japan.'

SECTION II.

The Dutch.

In 1624 the Dutch forced the Chinese to give them liberty to trade with China, and to settle at Taiwan off the coast of Formosa. In 1642 they drove the Spaniards out of that island; but in 1662 they were themselves driven out by the Chinese pirate Koxinga, and thenceforward they held no possession in the Chinese seas.

The English.

In 1634 an attempt was made by the association of English merchants, known as Courten's Association, to place a factory at Canton. The attempt came to nothing, and the first English factory in China appears to have been one established for a few years at Amoy by the East India Company about 1670. From about 1684, however, down to the beginning of the present reign, Canton was the port at which the trade between Great Britain and China was carried on. The trade was on both sides strictly limited and confined. On the British side it was monopolised by the East India Company. On the Chinese side it was placed exclusively in the hands of certain Canton merchants [1], called Hong merchants.

Down to 1834 there is little to note about the dealings between the two countries. The trade was carried on with constant and not unnatural friction between Europeans and Chinese, which was not allayed by the abortive embassies of Lord Macartney in 1792 and Lord Amherst in 1816. In 1834, the monopoly of the East India Company having expired, the British Government, at the request of the Chinese authorities, appointed a superintendent of British trade at Canton; and Lord Napier was accordingly sent out in that capacity. The relations between English and Chinese, however, became more and more strained, the importation of opium being one of the grounds of dispute, and open hostilities broke out in 1839. In January, 1841, the island of Hong

[1] Exclusive privileges were given to these merchants by the Chinese Government about 1755, or rather earlier. See Col. Yule's Glossary under 'Hong.' The word has nothing to do with the name Hong Kong.

Kong was ceded to the English by the special Chinese Commissioner Keshen, and, though the cession was at the time repudiated by the Chinese Government, it was confirmed and made absolute by the treaty of Nankin in August, 1842. By the same treaty the ports of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai were opened to British trade.

CHAPTER IV.

Cession of Hong Kong.

Possession of Hong Kong was taken in 1841. In 1842 it was proclaimed a free port, and a free port it has since remained. In 1843 it was constituted a Crown Colony.

In 1856 war again broke out between Great Britain and China, in consequence of the capture by the Chinese of a trading vessel, the 'Arrow,' sailing under British colours. Lord Elgin was sent out to China as Minister Extraordinary, and after a series of warlike operations, including the taking of Canton, the treaty of Tientsin was signed in June, 1858. This however was not the end. In 1860 the British Ambassador was obstructed, when on his way to Pekin to obtain a ratification of the treaty, and it was not until a joint English and French expedition had forced the passage of the river Peiho, taken the Taku forts, and marched on Pekin, that the Convention of Pekin was signed in October 1860, ratifying the Tientsin treaty. The treaty and the Convention formed the basis of the present relations between Great Britain and China, additional ports in China were opened to British trade, provision was made for the permanent residence at Pekin of a British representative, and, by the Convention of Pekin, the promontory of Kowloon, opposite the island of Hong Kong on the Northern side of the harbour, was definitely ceded to Her Majesty's Government, having been already leased to them by the authorities at Canton. Since the date of these treaties, though difficulties have constantly arisen, mainly with regard to opium smuggling and the extradition of criminals, there has been no further recourse to arms, and the history of the English in China has been a history of ever-

SECTION II.

growing trade at the Treaty Ports, and of constant development of the colony of Hong Kong.

Government and Administration.

Hong Kong is a Crown Colony of the ordinary type, the local administration being in the hands of a Governor, an Executive Council, and a Legislative Council. The Executive Council consists of six officials in addition to the Governor. The same officers and the Chief Justice of the Colony constitute the official element in the Legislative Council, while the unofficial element consists of five nominated members. Of these, two are representatives of the Justices of the Peace and the Chamber of Commerce respectively, and one is usually a Chinese.

Law and justice.

The law in force at Hong Kong is the statute law of England, supplemented by local ordinances; and justice is administered by a Supreme Court of Justice, consisting of a Chief Justice and a Puisne Judge, and by police magistrates.

The nearness of the island of Hong Kong to the mainland, and the fact that the colony comprises a promontory of the mainland, has from the first placed special difficulties in the way of the colonial government with regard to the maintenance of law and order. The colony has at once been a receptacle for the criminal classes of the Canton province, who are attracted by the mildness of the English law as compared with the barbarous system of punishments in force in China, and also the main outlet for emigrants from China to other lands. Consequently, from time to time, special ordinances have been passed to check the influx of criminals by deporting them to their own country, to counteract the undue influence of the Chinese Secret Societies, and to prevent coolie emigration from reproducing under another name and in a modified form the evils of the slave trade.

Area and Geography.

The Island of Hong Kong is one of a scattered group of islands, known as the Ladrones, lying at the mouth of the Canton river. It is situated on the Eastern side of the

estuary, and is, at its nearest point, not more than half-a-mile distant from the mainland, the narrow strait being known as the Lyeemoon Pass.

CHAPTER IV.

The area of the colony is given at 30½ square miles. Its size is therefore much the same as that of Labuan. The island contains 27 square miles, the promontory of Kowloon 2⅔, and the two little islets, Stonecutter's Island and Aplichao Island, ⅓ and ½ of a square mile respectively.

The island is very irregular in shape. It is a rough and broken ellipse with two long promontories running out to the South and South-East. It consists mainly of mountainous ridges running from East to West, the highest of which is the Victoria Peak, which rises to nearly 1800 feet and is the favourite place of residence in the hot season for the European members of the community. The coast line is very deeply indented, especially on the Southern—the ocean side. Along the Northern shore the city of Victoria stretches for some 4 miles, and between the town and the mainland is one of the finest and most picturesque harbours in the world, with a water area of about 10 miles. As the promontory of Kowloon lies directly opposite, both sides of the harbour are in British hands.

Population.

The population of the colony is mainly concentrated in Victoria, but there are also various villages scattered here and there, such as Shau-Ki-Wan and Aberdeen on the island, Yau-ma-ti in British Kowloon.

In 1881, when the last census was taken, the population of the colony, including soldiers and sailors, amounted to 160,402. The Chinese numbered over 150,000—more than 100,000 living in the city and district of Victoria, and many on board the boats in the harbour. The whites numbered about 8000; only about 3000, however, were permanent residents, and of them the Portuguese were numerically the strongest element. The total population of the colony is now estimated at some 190,000.

SECTION II.

When the English Government took possession of Hong Kong, the island was inhabited by some 7500 Chinese squatters and fishermen. The enormous growth of the Chinese population since that date may therefore be taken as a proof of the confidence felt in British administration by one of the most conservative and suspicious of Eastern races.

Climate. On its first occupation Hong Kong was a very unhealthy place of residence for Europeans, fever being rife among them. It has, however, of later years redeemed its character and is now not unhealthy. The average death-rate is between 25 and 26 per 1000 as against 19–20 for England and Wales. The excavation and moving of the soil, which accompanied the first establishment of the colony, is supposed to have given rise to fever; and here as elsewhere, in early days, though the element of over-crowding was absent, less attention was paid than at present to matters of drainage and sanitation. A new-water supply is now being provided at great cost, water being brought to Victoria, from Tytam on the South of the island; tree-planting is being vigorously carried on; and much money is being expended in improving the drainage of the town and removing the sanitary defects of the Chinese dwelling-houses.

Hong Kong lies just within the tropics. It is farther removed from the equator than the other Eastern colonies, and therefore enjoys more clearly defined changes of season. At the same time, as has been shown, the island contains considerable changes of elevation within a very small area; and further, the Europeans stationed there can, in a comparatively short time and at a comparatively slight expense, pay flying visits to the more temperate regions of North China and Japan[1]. But, notwithstanding these advantages,

[1] The full pay vacation leave which may be allowed to officials in Crown colonies is usually three months in two years. In Hong Kong it is four months.

the climate of Hong Kong during part of the year tells on European constitutions. The summer months, from March to September inclusive, are months of great heat and rain: the South-West monsoon prevails during this time, and the city of Victoria, lying on the North of the island at the foot of a high range of hills, loses the benefit of the wind. From October to February the North-East monsoon prevails, little rain falls, and the air is comparatively cool and bracing. The temperature at Victoria varies from about 40° to 90°, the coolest month being January, the hottest August. The average annual rainfall is about 80 inches, mainly contributed by the summer months. From time to time Hong Kong is visited by typhoons, usually about the date of the autumn equinox, which work havoc among the shipping in the harbour and occasionally among the buildings on the land.

Finances.

In 1886 the colonial revenue from all sources amounted to about 1,400,000 dollars [1], being about half as large again as the revenue of 1876, and nearly thirty times as large as the revenue of 1844 (the first year for which a Colonial Blue Book was issued), if the indemnity money paid in that year by the Chinese be excluded from the calculation.

The main sources of revenue are Crown lands, licences, stamps, rates, and light dues. Licences, including opium, produce a large sum, but are not so important a factor in the revenue as they are in the Straits Settlements.

Excluding the civil establishments and the costly police force, the main items of expenditure are Public Works, on which at the present time a large sum is being laid out. Water-works, sanitary improvements, reclamations of the shore, defence-works, new schools, and hospitals have all engaged the attention of the Government, and have necessitated borrowing a large sum of money.

Education.

The annual vote for Education is also considerable, and

[1] Including the premia on land sales, of which a separate account is kept. The currency of the colony is a silver currency.

SECTION II.

the Government Central School, now known as the Victoria College, which will shortly be housed in new premises, is an institution of which the community of Hong Kong, Europeans and Chinese alike, are justly proud.

Trade.

The trade of the colony has grown in much the same ratio as the revenue, the tonnage of the ships entering the port in 1886 being more than half as large again as it was in 1876. It was temporarily checked by the hostilities between France and China, but is now as thriving as ever.

A British commercial station off the coast of China was in the nature of things likely to attain a considerable degree of importance; but there have been several distinct factors in the progress of Hong Kong. Among them are the gradual habituation of the Chinese to British administration and British dealings, and in consequence the growing readiness of Chinese traders to settle in the colony; the emigration of Chinese through the port of Hong Kong to America and Australia in past years and now to the Malay Peninsula; the opening of the Suez Canal, which gave a fresh impulse to the trade with the far East; and the opening of the Central Pacific Railway, which practically gave a new direct route from Europe to China through San Francisco, and which is now supplemented by the railway across the Canadian Dominion to British Columbia.

General Résumé.

In the British empire Hong Kong holds the position not of a colony or settlement with resources of its own, but of a station half-military, half-commercial, which derives its importance entirely from the vast outside trade passing through its port. But though it is in one sense merely a British station in a foreign land, it must not be forgotten that the population has come to the island in consequence of the island being in British hands. It is a spot which has been colonised under the auspices of the British Government, though the colonists are not Englishmen but Chinese.

In the Straits Settlements there is a large and growing Chinese community, in Labuan and North Borneo the Chinese element is strong, and there are Chinese in Australia, in British Columbia, and in other British colonies; but in Hong Kong alone Great Britain is brought into direct relations with China, and the British Government rules an almost exclusively Chinese population.

CHAPTER IV.

In modern days the two main European competitors in Asia have been Russia and Great Britain, Russia representing continental conquest, Great Britain maritime trade. Russia has gradually moved down from the North, Great Britain has taken her way round the Southern coasts and peninsulas. The Russian Empire now lines the Northern boundary of China, and her port of Vladivostock watches over the Northern waters of the Chinese seas. Great Britain has planted herself in the South of China, at the doors of the great trading city of Canton, which is 95 miles distant from Hong Kong; and, but for the few months when an English naval station was lately placed at Port Hamilton off the end of the Corean peninsula, she has made no attempt to extend her empire towards the North.

Distances.

The great trading port of Shanghai is 800 miles to the North of Hong Kong. Yokohama in Japan is nearly 1600 miles distant. The Portuguese settlement of Macao is close at hand, being only 40 miles from Hong Kong. The Spanish colony of Manila lies at a distance of 650 miles, a little to the East of South. Saigon, the capital of French Cochin China, is about 900 miles to the South-West.

As regards other British colonies, Hong Kong is rather over 1400 miles from Singapore. The connection between the two ports is close and constant, and Hong Kong is the end of the chain of British dependencies round the South coast of Asia in which Singapore is so strong a link: on this side it looks towards Europe and the West. It is still nearer to Borneo, being some 1200 miles distant from both Labuan

SECTION II.

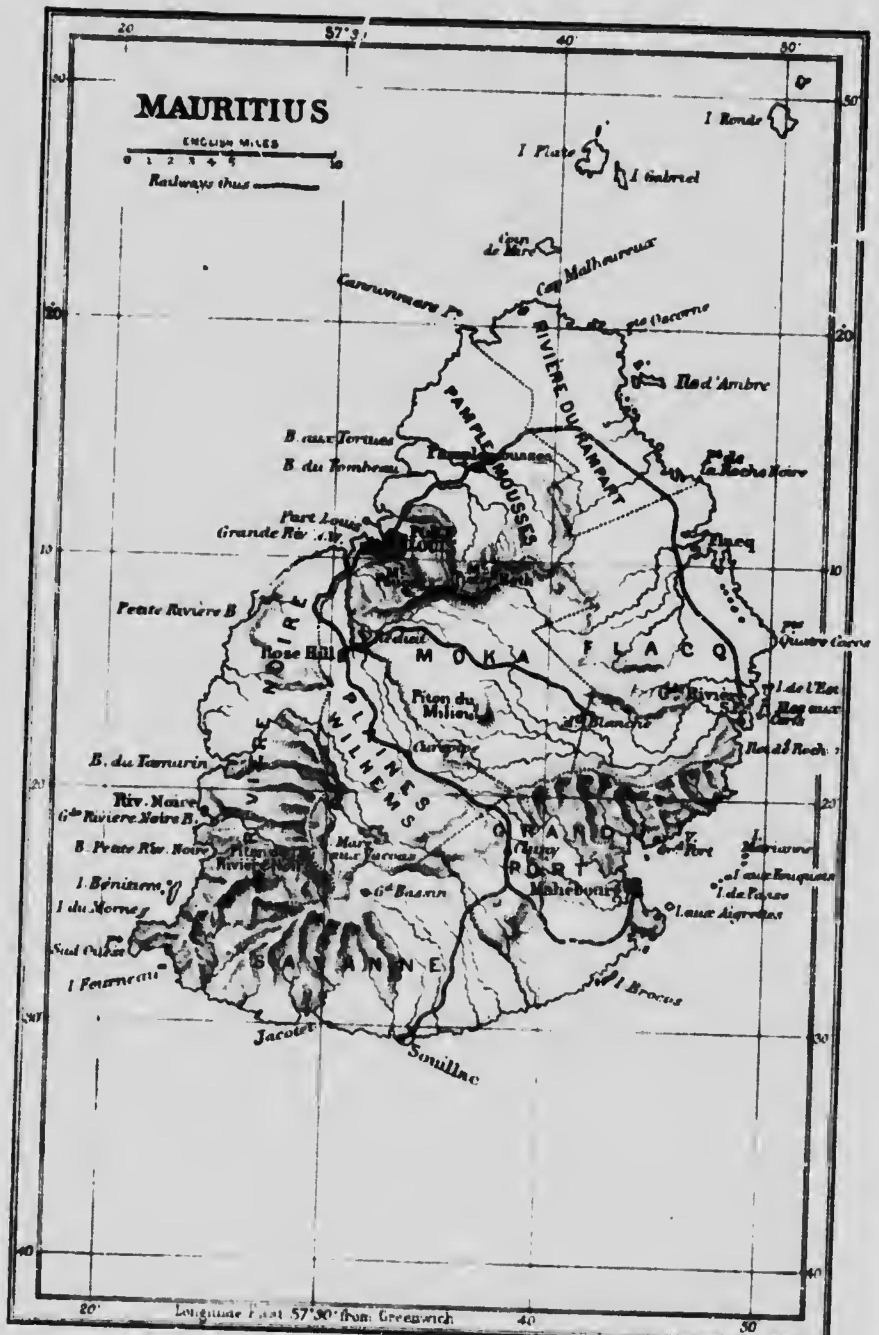
and Sandakan: on this side it looks towards the South and Australia.

It has yet one other aspect. It is the Easternmost point in the circle of British possessions, and is divided by some 6000 miles of Pacific ocean from the Westernmost point of the Empire, Vancouver's Island; but now that the Canadian Pacific Railway has been finished and regular steam communication is projected between Hong Kong and British Columbia, the extreme East and the extreme West of the Empire seem to be joining hands.

BOOKS RELATING TO HONG K[illegible]

In addition to official or semi-official publications, including the very able notice of the colony in *Her Majesty's Colonies*, and to books dealing with the Chinese Wars, perhaps the most valuable book on the subject is *The Treaty Ports of China and Japan*, by Messrs. Mayers, Dennys and King, published in 1867, Hong Kong and London (Trübner & Co.)

China, by R. M. MARTIN, published in 1847, contains a large amount of information. Hong Kong has falsified the expectations of the writer, one of whose chapters is headed, 'Hong Kong, its position, prospects, character, and utter worthlessness in every point of view to England!'


MAURITIUS
ENGLISH MILES
Railways thus
I. Ronde
I. Plate
I. Gabriel
Cap Malheureux
Ile d'Ambre
PAMPLEMOUSSES
RIVIÈRE DU REMPART
B. aux Tortues
B. du Tombeau
Port Louis
Petite Rivière B.
Rose Hill
MOKA
FLACQ
Piton du Milieu
PLAINES WILHEMS
B. du Tamarin
Riv. Noire
B. Petite Riv. Noire
I. Bénitiers
I. du Morne
I. Fourneau
SAVANNE
GRAND PORT
Mahebourg
Jacotet
Souillac
I. Brocus
Longitude East 57°30' from Greenwich

SECTION III.

THE BRITISH DEPENDENCIES IN THE INDIAN OCEAN.

CHAPTER I.

MAURITIUS AND ITS DEPENDENCIES[1].

CHAPTER I.

General.

IN the vast extent of Indian Ocean which lies between the Eastern and the African divisions of her Empire, Great Britain owns a number of scattered groups of islands, most of them insignificant in size and importance. Mauritius alone has great historical interest in addition to great present value. The rest, with the exception of the Cocos islands, now under the government of the Straits Settlements, are dependencies of Mauritius, including the Seychelles Archipelago, Rodrigues, the Chagos group, and various other islets, a list of which is given in the appendix to this section.

History.

Lying on the Ocean route from the Cape to the East, Mauritius was likely to be visited by the ships of the European nations which followed each other in the race for the trade of the Indies. But in their eagerness to reach India and the Malay Archipelago the earlier voyagers paid little attention to the islands which lay on their path. The Portuguese never settled in Mauritius. The Dutch occupied it only for a while. It was left to the French to make it a great and

[1] As Mauritius is usually considered to belong to Africa, its area and that of its dependencies will be credited to the African possessions of Great Britain.

SECTION III.

important dependency, and in turn, when its value had become fully recognized, to see the fruits of their foresight and energy reaped by another nation, and the Isle of France annexed to the British empire.

The Portuguese.

In 1505 the Portuguese sailor Mascarenhas discovered the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius. To the former he gave his own name, to the latter the name of Cerne, by which name Madagascar was known, or is supposed to have been known, to the ancients.

Shortly afterwards another Portuguese commander, Don Diego Rodrigues, sighted the island, which still bears his name[1]. The Seychelles islands[2] were probably also discovered by the Portuguese: and Diego Garcia, the chief island of the Chagos archipelago, seems to testify by its name to Portuguese discovery.

As has been said, the Portuguese formed no settlement, temporary or lasting, in Mauritius. They used it only as a point of call, and throughout the 16th century it was practically left to itself.

The Dutch.

In 1598 a Dutch fleet, bound for the East, sighted Mauritius. They discovered the harbour on the South-East coast, now known as Grand Port: and the commander gave the island its present name, calling it after the Stadtholder of Holland, Count Maurice of Nassau. For over 40 years the Dutch took no more notice of Mauritius than the Portuguese had taken before them. About the year 1644[3], however, a regular settlement was formed in the island. A fort was built at the South-East port, where the first Dutch discoverers

[1] Leguat at the beginning of his account of the island speaks of it as Diego Ruys or Rodrignez.

[2] See Col. Yule's Glossary of Anglo-Indian Words, under 'Seychelle Islands.' The writer says these islands 'were known vaguely to the Portuguese navigators of the sixteenth century as the Seven Brothers, sometimes Seven Sisters.' According to other books the Portuguese knew the islands under the name of 'Mascarenhas.'

[3] This is the date given in D'Unienville's 'Statistique de l'Ile Maurice' and other books, but the list of Dutch governors begins in 1638; see the 'Mauritius Almanack.'

had landed, and this point remained the seat of government during the whole period of Dutch occupation. Settlers, however, also established themselves at the North-West port, now known as Port Louis, at Flacq in the North-East, where a garden was formed for supplying the garrison with fruit and vegetables, on the Rivière noire in the South-West, and at Plaines Wilhems in the West.

CHAPTER I.

The Dutch did something towards peopling the island, but the kind of population which they introduced was of doubtful value. They took advantage of the French settlement in Madagascar to procure a number of Malagasies as slaves, with the result that a great many, after being imported into Mauritius, escaped into the forests in the interior of the island, and there, under the name of Marons[1], became a strong body of banditti, constantly harassing the European settlers. When, owing to this and other causes, the first attempt of the Dutch East India Company to colonise Mauritius proved a failure, convicts were brought into the island from Batavia and other Dutch possessions.

Rodrigues.

In 1690–91, while Mauritius was still in the hands of the Dutch, an attempt was made to colonise the island of Rodrigues.

The Netherlands government were induced to send out to Bourbon some French Huguenot refugees, under the impression that that island had been abandoned by the French. On the arrival of the ship it was found that this impression was a mistaken one, and the emigrants were carried on to Rodrigues. There they remained for about two years[2], when the survivors became tired of their solitary life and found their way over to Mauritius.

[1] The Maroons or runaway slaves in Jamaica played an important part in the history of that island. The old books (see Long's History of Jamaica, and Bryan Edwards' History of the West Indies) give the word, from Spanish derivations, the meaning of either 'hoghunters' or 'apes.' See, however, what is said of the word in the Encyclopædia Britannica.

[2] One of them, Leguat, published in 1708 an account of his adventures in Rodrigues and Mauritius.

SECTION III.

Soon afterwards the Dutch occupation of Mauritius came to an end[1]. From a commercial point of view the island compared unfavourably with the spice islands of the East, being valued in great measure for its ebony trees; the runaway slaves must have been an obstacle to opening up and planting the country; and the Dutch East India Company were anxious to concentrate their energies on their more promising settlement at the Cape.

Consequently, in 1712, the Dutch abandoned the island, and from that day to this have had no further connection with it.

The French.

The French planted a colony in Madagascar which proved unsuccessful, and another in Mascarenhas, about the middle of the 17th century[2], giving to the latter island the name of Bourbon. They had already contemplated a settlement at Mauritius before it was finally abandoned by the Dutch; and in 1715, three years after the Dutch had left, a ship was sent under the command of William Dufresne to take possession of the island on behalf of the King of France. The captain of the ship changed the name of Mauritius to that of 'Ile de France,' and the old name was not resumed until the island passed into English hands.

Mauritius under the French East India Company.

In 1721–22 the island was reoccupied on behalf of the French East India Company, settlers were sent there from Bourbon, a governor was appointed, and in 1723 a provincial council was instituted.

The French settled in the first instance at the South-East port, where the Dutch had made their principal settlement,

[1] One reason given for the Dutch leaving Mauritius was the number of rats there.

[2] The most various dates are given in different books. The first French expedition to Madagascar seems to have been determined on in 1635; the first settlement to have been formed there in 1642. Bourbon seems to have been occupied from Madagascar in 1643, and again in 1649, when the name of Bourbon was given to it. But the following dates are also assigned to the occupation or colonisation of the island —1638, 1657, 1664.

and which was now christened Port Bourbon. The colony flourished from the first, but the real history of Mauritius dates from the year 1735, when Labourdonnais arrived, having been appointed Governor-General of the two islands of Bourbon and the Ile de France.

Labourdonnais.

Mahé de Labourdonnais was a native of St. Malo, the Breton port which was par excellence the home of French seamen and explorers. His career illustrates in the most striking manner, what able and highminded men France sent out to make a colonial empire, and how hopelessly the fruits of their honour and ability were lost owing to the jealousy of their colleagues and the faults of the home government.

Labourdonnais practically created Mauritius; indeed he well nigh made the French power paramount in the East. He was the soul of honour and patriotism; yet the only reward which he received was to be made the object of constant calumny, to see his efforts for the public good perpetually thwarted, to be superseded in his government, to be thrown into the Bastille, and, after three years' imprisonment, to be released only to die shortly afterwards in poverty and distress.

On his arrival in Mauritius, Labourdonnais moved the capital from the South-East port to the North-West. The town, now Port Louis, was then known as the Camp. He left his own name to be afterwards given to Mahébourg on the South-East harbour. He set himself to fit out the port, to construct hospitals and public buildings, and to supply the town and shipping with fresh water by an aqueduct nearly 6000 yards in length. He practically called into existence the agricultural resources of the island; he established sugar works[1], and made sugar planting the main industry of Mauritius; he set on foot cotton and indigo manufactories, and he imported the

[1] In Grant's History of Mauritius it is stated that the sugar works which Labourdonnais established at Villebague, in the Pamplemousses district, produced in 1750 a revenue of 60,000 livres to the East India Company. Labourdonnais is wrongly credited in that and other books with the introduction of the sugar-cane, for Leguat mentions it as being successfully cultivated in the time of the Dutch.

SECTION III.

manioc plant of Brazil. While encouraging trade and agriculture, he gave security to life and property by putting down the Marons, who had so long been the pest of Mauritius. This he did by arming Madagascar blacks, and employing against the runaway slaves men of their own race and colour.

Before his arrival, Mauritius had been subject to Bourbon; but he soon brought about a new system, under which the criminal jurisdiction of Mauritius was made independent of that of Bourbon, while, for administrative purposes, the council of the island, in which the Governor-General was for the time residing, was made supreme.

The great Governor returned to France in 1740, and there found himself assailed by prejudice and intrigue. He went out again, however, in 1741, and turned his attention to making the colony, whose resources he had developed, an important factor in the foreign policy of France. Mauritius became under him a station, from which foreign trade could be crippled and powerful assistance given to the growing French empire in the East. His efforts, however, were neutralised by the folly and worthlessness of the French East India Company and the French Government, and by the jealousy of the French leader in India, Dupleix.

At the end of 1746 he was superseded: when he reached France in 1748 he was imprisoned, and died in 1753 not very long after his release [1].

The Seychelles.

During the latter part of his administration, in 1742, he sent an expedition to explore the Seychelles islands. They were at first called after him Iles de Labourdonnais, but subsequently their present name was given to them in honour of Moreau de Séchelles [2], Controller of Finance in France in

[1] It was during the administration of Labourdonnais in 1744 that the wreck of the Saint Géran took place at Mauritius, which is a principal incident in 'Paul and Virginia.'

[2] This is taken from Col. Yule's Glossary, and seems to be the more correct account. The account usually received is that the islands were explored in 1742, and taken possession of in 1743 by order of Labourdonnais.

the years 1754–1756, the time when they were definitely annexed. The chief island of the group, however, still recalls by its name, Mahé, the memory of the celebrated Governor of Mauritius.

Mauritius under the French Crown.

Mauritius belonged to the French East India Company down to the year 1767, when it was transferred to the Crown. The administration of the two islands, like that of other French colonies[1], was now entrusted to a Governor, who was primarily concerned with military matters, and an Intendant, who was mainly charged with the control of the finances. The 'superior council' of Mauritius, composed of leading colonists with some knowledge of the laws, under the presidency of the Intendant, was entrusted with the administration of justice. Moreover, though forbidden to interfere directly or indirectly with the general government of the island, it was required to register the regulations made by the Governor and Intendant, and was permitted to make representations with regard to them to the Home Government[2].

The dual control of the Governor and Intendant was well calculated to breed friction between the officers who happened to be holding the appointments. That such a system should have been carried out is evidence of the suspicious nature of the government of the Bourbons, and shows how the kings and their ministers hampered the men who were entrusted with the administration of the French dependencies. Disputes at once broke out between the first Governor and Intendant of Mauritius, and ended in the recall of the former. The Intendant, M. Poivre, perhaps did more for Mauritius than any other Frenchman except Labourdonnais. He

[1] E.g. Canada. See 'The old régime in Canada' (Parkman).

[2] The edict transferring the island to the Crown was issued in 1764. The new system began in 1767. The Royal ordinance regulating the constitution and dated Sept. 25, 1766, is given in the 'Collection of the Laws of Mauritius and its Dependencies'; and an abstract of it is given in Appendix B of 'England's Colonial Empire, vol. i, the Mauritius and its Dependencies' (Pridham). Pridham states that the 'superior council' soon became both a legislative and judicial body.

SECTION III.

devoted himself especially to developing agriculture, introduced, with great trouble, clove and nutmeg trees from the Dutch and Portuguese Indies, and laid out the botanical gardens at Pamplemousses, which are still kept up by the government. He held the office of Intendant till 1772.

Down to the outbreak of the French Revolution Mauritius continued to flourish. The war between France and England brought shipping to its ports and wealth to the colonists. In 1784 the French East India Company was re-organised, and an exception to its monopoly of the Eastern trade was made in favour of the merchants of Mauritius and Bourbon, who were given equal privileges with the company. Consequently, unprivileged French ships brought European wares to the island, Mauritian vessels carried them on to all parts of the East with the exception of China, and Port Louis became more than ever a great centre of trade between Europe and Asia. Finally in 1789, the year in which the French Revolution broke out, the seat of government of the French possessions in the East was removed from Pondicherry to Mauritius.

Effects of the French Revolution on the island.

The French Revolution brought about a wholly new phase in the life of the island. Between 1789 and 1810 (the year in which the capitulation to the British forces took place), Mauritius developed a kind of independent existence, rare in the history of all small colonies, and perhaps especially rare in that of French dependencies.

The course of events showed how far the island had grown beyond the stage of a mere military outpost or a trading centre, and how completely the French settlers had made it their home. Though the wave of revolution which swept over the mother country reached as far as her dependencies in the Indian Ocean, the causes which led to the subversion of the social and political system in France were wanting in Mauritius. As far as the white inhabitants of the island were concerned, there was no great gulf between different classes.

The island was not burdened with a privileged feudal aristocracy, nor with a rich and powerful priesthood. No fault was found with the administration of justice, and no deeply-rooted popular discontent assailed the existing form of government.

It was not, however, in the nature of things that the Revolution at home, the full news of which reached the colony at the beginning of 1790, should not there produce at least a temporary effect. As revolutionary opinions always centre in the towns, the inhabitants of Port Louis took the lead in establishing a representative popular assembly. It consisted of fifty-one members for the whole of the island, modelled upon the new order of things in France. One outrage only disgraced the new régime, the murder of Comte de Macnamara, the commander of the French fleet in the Indian Ocean, who was at Port Louis at the time.

In 1793, the news of the accession of the Jacobins to power in France led to the formation of a Jacobin Club in Port Louis, which for a short time bid fair to monopolise the management of the colony. But in the following year, 1794, the revolutionary spirit received a check from which it never recovered. The news that slavery and the slave-trade had been abolished in all the French colonies, by a decree of the National Convention at home, had a wonderful effect in changing the views of the Mauritians on the subject of the Revolution. It was one thing to proclaim liberty and equality among whites, but quite another to recognise black slaves as equals, and to be utterly ruined for the sake of principle. The Jacobin leaders were deported to France: the power of the club was broken up: and two agents of the French Directory, who arrived at Port Louis in 1796 to proclaim and carry out emancipation, were within four days obliged to leave the island. In 1798 revolution was threatened by the French troops who formed the garrison of the colony, and 800 were re-embarked for France. Not long afterwards a dangerous outbreak took place in Port Louis. It was

SECTION III.

caused by the depreciation of the paper money issued by the Government of the French Republic, and the consequent doubt as to the rate at which the holders of the 'assignats' should be repaid. The Governor and the Colonial Assembly, however, were supported by the country people, the disturbance was put down, and the leading insurgents were shipped to France. The Colonial Assembly was then reconstituted and limited to twenty-one members, fourteen of whom were representatives of the country districts, and seven of the town; and when in 1800 General Malartic, who since 1792 had held the post of Governor with conspicuous judgment and ability, died amid universal regret, he left behind him some measure of peace and tranquillity.

While, however, the Mauritians had been quarrelling among themselves, and rejecting the decrees of the Republican Government of France, they had shown little disposition to attach themselves to Great Britain or to any other foreign power, or to relinquish the important position in regard to European politics which they had held in past years. The free colonists were enlisted and trained to arms, privateers were fitted out, and the inhabitants of the island showed themselves able not only to defend their homes without the help of regular troops, but even to take part in hostilities beyond their own shores. They received applications for help against the English from the Dutch at the Cape, from the King of Pegu, and from Tippoo Sahib; and to the last-named they appear to have actually sent a small force of volunteers[1].

Concluding years of the French occupation.

The year 1802, which saw the election of Buonaparte as First Consul for life of the French Republic, gave back a strong Government to France and her colonies. To the Mauritians the news was tidings of great joy, for it put an end to their fears of slave emancipation. But while slavery was duly

[1] An account of the negotiations with the ambassadors of Tippoo Sahib will be found in Grant's History of Mauritius.

recognised, every vestige of even local independence was summarily obliterated; the assembly was dissolved, French troops were brought back into the island, and it was held, roughly speaking, as a military post under the rule of General Decaen[1]. He arrived in 1803, holding the appointment of Captain-General of the French possessions East of the Cape.

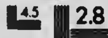
During the last seven years of its existence as a French colony, Mauritius was wholly absorbed in the war between France and England. It was, as it had been in past years, a perpetual thorn in the side of the English; it was a starting-point for privateering expeditions which did the utmost damage to British trade. At length, in 1809, the Indian Government, under Lord Minto, determined to make a continued effort for the blockade and reduction of the island, and, as a first step in the operations, a force was sent from Bombay to take possession of Rodrigues. In July 1810 the island of Bourbon surrendered. In the following month the Ile de la Passe, at the mouth of the harbour of Grand Port, was taken by the English, but after a series of brilliant naval engagements, was recovered by the French.

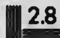
The French successes, however, only postponed for a few weeks the conquest of the island. Towards the end of November an overwhelming force was assembled at Rodrigues. Before the month closed, the troops under General Abercrombie landed at the extreme North of Mauritius, near Cape Malheureux. On the third of December, after three days' fighting of a not very serious character, articles of capitulation were signed, securing to the inhabitants their property, religion, laws, and customs; and the Isle of France became, under the name of Mauritius, part and parcel of the British Empire. The subsequent Peace of Paris, in 1814, finally confirmed the cession, while it restored the sister island of Bourbon to France: and the dependencies of Mauritius

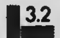
[1] Under the new constitution the power was mainly in the hands of three officials—the Captain General, the Colonial Prefect, and the Commissary of Justice. See Appendix B to Pridham's book on Mauritius.

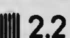
MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

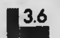
(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)

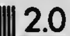


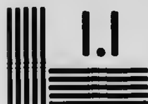


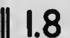












1653 East Main Street
Rochester, New York 14609 USA
(716) 482 - 0300 - Phone
(716) 288 - 5989 - Fax

SECTION III.

followed the fortunes of the main island, the Seychelles having already capitulated to an English ship as early as 1794.

Mauritius since the British occupation.

Since Mauritius passed into British hands its history has been less eventful than during the stormy years of which a sketch has been given above. The present century has brought political and social changes to this as to other colonies; while the commercial progress of the island has been great and marked, in spite of temporary checks, due to hurricanes, to epidemics of cholera and fever, and to the fluctuations of the sugar industry.

Constitutional changes.

During the first years of British rule the whole administration was in the hands of the Governor, and the inhabitants were given no voice in the matter. As time went on the system was gradually relaxed. In 1825 a small council of four officials was constituted to give the Governor the benefit of their advice and assistance. In January 1832, in great measure in consequence of representations made to the Colonial Office in London by a delegate of the colonists, a Legislative Council was established for the colony, consisting of seven official and seven unofficial members, the latter being nominated by the Governor.

The constitution was subsequently slightly modified. January 1850 saw a municipal constitution given to Port Louis. And finally, the years 1884–5 have brought large constitutional changes: an elective element has been introduced into the legislative council, and Mauritius now enjoys a more representative form of government than that of ordinary Crown Colonies.

Slavery.

It has already been seen that the slave, that is to say the labour, question was a matter of vital interest to the Mauritians. The internal history of the island since the close of the French war is in great measure the chronicle of the way in which slavery was abolished, and an alternative supply of Indian coolies for the sugar plantations instituted and regulated.

An Act for the abolition of the slave trade was published in the island in 1813. In 1829 the slave laws of the colony

were revised, and an officer was appointed for the protection of the slaves. By 1832 the colonists, accepting the inevitable, themselves drew up a scheme of emancipation for submission to the Home Government. On the 1st of Feb. 1835 all slaves were freed, subject to restrictions of apprenticeship (restrictions which were entirely removed in 1839), and the planters of Mauritius received over two million sterling by way of compensation.

CHAPTER I.

Coolie Immigration.

Concurrently with emancipation in 1835, the immigration of Indian coolies began[1]; few probably foreseeing at the time that, after fifty years of the system, two-thirds of the inhabitants of the island would be Indian. After being suspended for a short time, the introduction of immigrants was definitely sanctioned by the Indian government in 1842; and with various checks and difficulties, necessitating various ordinances and commissions of enquiry, the system has continued down to the present day.

Coolie labour was required for the sugar plantations, upon which the prosperity of Mauritius depended and depends. In 1825 the industry was promoted by the admission of Mauritian sugar into the English market on the same terms as the West Indian; steam communication helped on the trade with the outside world; railways (the first opened in 1864) facilitated transport in the interior of the island. On the other hand, the colony continued subject to the ravages of hurricanes; the fever epidemic of 1867 was unparalleled in severity; Mauritian sugar has not escaped the causes which have depressed the industry in all parts of the world; and the planters and traders share with the general community the disadvantage of being not yet connected with Europe by submarine telegraph.

Government and Administration.

The new constitution of Mauritius has left the island still a kind of Crown Colony. The Executive power is in the

[1] i. e. Systematic immigration on a large scale. Indians had been brought or come into the colony before.

SECTION III.

hands of the Governor, acting as the representative of the Home Government; and all appointments are made either by him or by the Secretary of State. He is assisted by an Executive Council of five officials.

The Legislative Council, which is presided over by the Governor, consists of twenty-seven members. Eight are ex-officio; nine are nominated by the Governor; and ten are elected, two for Port Louis, and one for each of the country districts.

The franchise is limited by a property qualification, and among other details of the constitution it is provided that at least one-third of the nominated members must be persons not holding office in the public service of the colony.

Administration of Justice.

Justice is administered by a Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief-Justice and three Puisne Judges, and by District Courts. The penal code was passed in 1838, based upon the penal code of France. The civil law is the civil code of France as it stood at the time when the island capitulated to England, supplemented by subsequent local ordinances.

Area and Geography.

The extreme length of Mauritius from North to South is 36 miles, its extreme breadth from East to West 28 miles. Its total area is about 708 square miles: it is therefore nearly as large as Berkshire.

Coasts.

The island is of volcanic formation and of elliptic form, tapering towards the North. Its coast is broken and indented, but is lined with coral reefs; and its bays and estuaries are for the most part not navigable for ships of any size. There are two exceptions, viz. Grand Port on the South-East, Port Louis harbour on the North-West: the former on the Windward side of the island, as regards the South-East trade wind, the latter on the Leeward.

Interior.

The configuration of the island is not unlike that of Ceylon. The interior may be roughly described as consisting of a strip of plain land round the coast[1] and a central

[1] See the Report on the Forests of Mauritius by Mr. R. Thompson, printed for the Government and dated August 23, 1880. It quotes a

CHAPTER I.

plateau supported by mountains, the outer face of which in some parts is precipitous, in others slopes away more gradually towards the coast. The plain is most extensive in the north; the mountains come nearest to the sea in the South-West. The mountains are not continuous, but give the general outline of a very rough circle more broken on the Eastern than on the Western side. There are three main groups, the Port Louis group in the North-West, the Black River and Savanne group in the South-West, and the Grand Port and Flacq group in the East and South-East. The chief peaks are in the first and second of these ranges. In the latter is the highest point in the island, the Piton de la Rivière Noire, which is over 2700 feet high: in the former, rising over the harbour of Port Louis, are the two curiously formed peaks known as Pieter Both and the Pouce, which are only a few feet lower than the Piton de la Rivière Noire. Pieter Both, called after the Dutch Governor of Batavia, who was lost off the island in 1616, is topped by a rock larger at its summit than at its base: consequently it is hardly surprising that no ascent of the peak is recorded to have been made till 1790[1], and even that record seems to be doubtful. The thumb-like shape of the peak of the Pouce is indicated by its name.

Mountains.

The high ground crossing the central plateau in a North-Easterly direction, from the Savanne mountains to the Northern boundary of Moka, forms the main waterparting of the island; but though the streams of Mauritius are many, there are none of any size or of any use for navigation. They flow to a great extent in deep ravines, are rushing torrents in the rainy season and nearly dry at other times; and the more the ground has been cleared, the less constant their volume has become.

Rivers.

description of the island by Dr. Meldrum, Director of the Royal Observatory.

[1] The name of the climber was Claude Peuthé.

SECTION III.

There are several small lakes in the island, the largest being the Mare aux Vacoas and the Grand Bassin, both in the South-West.

The mountain peaks, the valleys, the waterfalls, and the forests, the last more extensive in past than in present years, have given to Mauritius scenery almost unique in its beauty: and this singular loveliness of landscape may well be held to have intensified the love of the French settlers for the island where they had made their home.

Districts.

Port Louis.

Mauritius is divided into nine districts. The district of Port Louis consists of the capital of the island and its suburbs. From the Pouce in the main range of mountains three transverse ranges branch out and reach nearly to the sea. The two outside spurs shut in the town and the harbour, the central one bisects the town and ends in what is known as the citadel. On the ground rising from the sea to these mountains the city is built, and so steep are the heights behind, that the roads and railways connecting it with the interior are carried round their base and run out to the North-East and South-West. Port Louis is the seat of government and contains the usual public buildings; it is also the commercial centre, and indeed the only town of any great size in the island. It has a population of some 60,000[1]. Its harbour, to which Mauritius owes most of its past greatness and much of its present value, is reputed one of the best in the East. The port proper is rather over three quarters of a mile in length, somewhat less in breadth, with a narrow entrance between coral reefs. There is room within for many vessels, though there is no great depth of water. It is on the near side of the island for vessels hailing from the Suez Canal, and lying close under the mountains is sheltered from the South-East wind.

The harbour.

[1] At the end of 1887 the estimated population of the Port Louis district was 61,978; the population has declined since the last census, when it contained a resident population of over 66,000.

The North end of the island outside the circle of mountains is filled by the two districts of Pamplemousses and Rivière du Rampart, the latter taking in the Northern promontory. They are both in their main aspect low-lying districts, with a considerable extent of jungle. On the east coast of the island is the district of Flacq, the largest of all the districts: a great part of it, especially towards the sea, is plain land, from which fact it derives its Dutch name.

Chapter I. *Pamplemousses.* *Rivière du Rampart.* *Flacq.*

The South-East corner of Mauritius is comprised in the district of Grand Port. The Southern part of the district consists of fairly level ground, but the North is filled up by a group of mountains, running from West to East and North-East, and throwing out ridges to the sea. It is an important district, containing a large number of sugar plantations and taking its name from the harbour on which was placed the first home of European colonists in Mauritius.

Grand Port.

The harbour is a spacious one, larger than that of Port Louis, but its approach is rendered difficult by the coral reefs which line the shores. It has two entrances, a longer one from the North, another, the main entrance, from the South. Both are narrow and somewhat difficult for navigation. As the harbour lies on the Windward side of the island, it is not easy for sailing ships to leave it without the aid of a steam-tug.

The harbour.

Port Louis is now so entirely the shipping centre of the island, that its rival is almost deserted; and the interest which attaches to it is mainly historical, as being the scene of early Dutch and French occupation, and of the later sea-fights which give a brightness and romance to the story of the final struggle between French and English for the possession of the island. The old settlement 'Old Grand Port' was placed on the Northern side of the harbour. The small modern town of Mahébourg, whose existence dates from the year 1805 and the governorship of General Decaen, stands immediately opposite on the Southern side.

The Southernmost district is that of Savanne, in which is

Savanne.

SECTION III.

the little port of Souillac, called presumably after the Vicomte de Souillac who ruled the island from 1779 to 1787. The Eartern part is a fertile plain, giving its name to the district: the Western portion consists partly of mountains, partly of a strip of coast land.

Rivière Noire.

The district of Rivière Noire takes in the South-West and West of the island between Savanne and Port Louis. It is the most mountainous part of Mauritius, but even here there is a level strip along the coast which is widest towards the North. The heat on this western coast is greater than in any other part of the island, and in consequence tropical fruits grow here in abundance.

The high central plateau is mainly divided between the two remaining districts, Plaines Wilhems comprising the South-Western half, Moka the North-Eastern. It is here that the Europeans and their descendants chiefly live, escaping the heat and fever of the low-lying country.

Plaines Wilhems.

Plaines Wilhems is named after two brothers, who were the first settlers in this part of the island during the time of the Dutch occupation. The principal place in the district is Curepipe, fast growing from a village into a considerable town: it is the recognised sanatorium of the island, and the main station for the English garrison.

Moka.

Moka[1], it is suggested, [illegible] led as being the part of Mauritius into which the cul[illegible] Mocha coffee was first introduced. Within its lim[illegible] side nearest Port Louis is Reduit, formerly the coun[illegible] nd now the only residence of the governor: it is within easy reach of the capital by rail.

Railways.

All the districts of the island are tapped by the 93 miles of government railways now open, with the exception of the Rivière Noire district, which is skirted by the rail only at its Northern extremity. There are two main lines, the

[1] The name may possibly have originated in the fact that Capt. Dufresne, who took possession of Mauritius for the King of France in 1715 [p. 146], set sail from Mocha for that purpose.

CHAPTER I.

North and the Midland, both running out from Port Louis. The former makes a semicircle through the Northern half of the island, traversing Pamplemousses, Rivière du Rampart, and Flacq, and having its terminus at Grande Rivière South-East on the Eastern coast. The main Midland line runs across the island in a South-Easterly direction from Port Louis to Mahébourg, but it has two branches, one of which runs due East through Moka, the other due South through Savanne, terminating at Souillac, the Southernmost point of the island.

Climate and rainfall.

Mauritius lies just within the tropic of Capricorn, and therefore, it need not be said, has a hot climate. The heat is greatest and the rainfall heaviest during the months from December to April. The thermometer has at times registered over 90° in the shade, but the mean annual temperature in the lower parts of the island is about 74°, while on the upper levels not only is the maximum of heat less but the variations of temperature are also much greater.

Though less rain falls in the cooler months, there is no absolutely dry season, and a month rarely passes without some rain. The average annual fall at the Observatory at Pamplemousses is said to be about 48 inches, but the amount varies very greatly not only in different years but also in different parts of the island.

On the East coast, the side exposed to the trade winds, the amount of rain is from two to three times as great as on the Western side of the island; and as a rule the greater the elevation the greater is the amount of the rainfall. Thus a very rough comparison of years showed a wide difference in the mean annual rainfall at different stations, the fall at Cluny, 1000 feet above the sea on the South-Eastern ridge, having been 151 inches, whereas at Gros Cailloux 60 feet above the sea on the Western side of the island in the Black river district, the record was 33 inches. The greater prevalence of droughts in present than in past times is attributed in large measure to the clearing of the forests, which

SECTION III.

has resulted from the spread of sugar-planting. Though the actual amount of the rainfall has rather increased than diminished, it seems certain that, through laying bare the ground, the climate has become less equable, the water-supply has been rendered less constant, the rich but shallow soil has deteriorated, and the productiveness of the island and the health of its inhabitants have suffered in no small deg ee.

Mauritius lies directly in the track of the South-East trade winds, which blow most steadily during the cooler months. During the hot months the island is from time to time visited by hurricanes, which lay low houses and plantations, and cause an immense amount of misery and loss.

Products. The riches of Mauritius are purely agricultural[1], it has practically no mineral resources. The different levels to be found in the island have given it variations of soil and climate, favourable to the development of agriculture, but both soil and climate have suffered from indiscriminate clearing, and the prevalence of hurricanes has been an obstacle to steady agricultural progress.

Forests. The forests, the ebony trees of which in old days attracted the Dutch, and which little more than 50 years ago are said to have covered nearly two-thirds of the island, have, owing to the extension of sugar cultivation, to a great extent disappeared. What rem ins of them is to be four the strip of coast round the island known as the Pas ométriques[2], in the Reserves along the crests of the mountains and the sides of the streams, and in three or four blocks of wood, the largest of which are in the South-West of the island, the Black River district and the neighbourhood of the Grand Bassin.

Animals. It is naturally in the more wooded districts that the few

[1] Some iron was worked in the island in early French days; and under the Dutch ambergris was one of the specialities of Mauritius. A little island off the North-East corner of Mauritius is called the Ile d'Ambre.

[2] The Pas Géométriques and the mountain and river rese es date from the French occupation of the island. The Pas Géométriques is a strip of land, reserved for trees, 250 French feet broad, along the extreme edge of the coast all round the island.

wild animals of which Mauritius can boast are mainly to be found. Among them are monkeys, wild boars, and wild deer, the ancestors of all of them having, it is said, been introduced by the Portuguese[1]. Nearly all the animals at present to be found in Mauritius are importations; but the fruit-eating bat is indigenous both to this island and to Rodrigues. Fossil specimens have been found of the large land tortoise, though not of the same kind as still exists in the island of Aldabra, and of the dodo, the giant bird of Leguat's narrative.

Of late years the Colonial Government has realised the injury done to the island by indiscriminate clearing, and steps have been taken to protect existing timber and to promote reafforestation. At the same time, in many parts, a secondary growth is beginning to spring up of itself, and to replace to some extent the more valuable primeval forest.

Sugar.

Among cultivated products sugar stands quite alone, the whole island being practically given up to it. A certain amount was grown by the Dutch, but it was Labourdonnais who made Mauritius a sugar-planting colony. At the present day the largest production is in the East and South-East, especially in the districts of Flacq and Grand Port: in some other parts, such as Pamplemousses in the North and the rugged district of Black River in the West, the amount grown is comparatively small. The low prices prevailing everywhere have of late years combined with special local circumstances to depress the industry, and the record of the three years 1884–1886 has shown some falling off in the value of the amount exported[2]. The only other products of Mauritius at the present day, besides sugar

[1] As to the rats in Mauritius, see p. 146, note 1. The cats [illegible] island, according to Grant, were 'thin and emaciated, nor do the discover any very great apprehension of them.'

[2]

1884	Rs.	35	544	931
1885	,,	31	207	255
1886	,,	29	126	169

The full Blue Book returns for 1887 have not been received at the time of going to press.

SECTION III.

which deserve notice, are rum, vanilla, and aloe fibre. Manioc, which was introduced by Labourdonnais, is still grown, but the cotton and indigo industries, which he also created, are now practically extinct.

Tobacco planting finds a place in the records of the Dutch occupation, but the amount now grown is very small.

Various kinds of fruits and vegetables, European[1] and tropical alike, are raised in different parts of Mauritius. When Leguat visited the island at the end of the 17th century he found, according to his own statement, that potatoes were as much the staple food of the Dutch colonists of Mauritius as of the peasantry of Ireland. At the present day the Indians are the chief gardeners, and they grow their vegetable produce in the district of Pamplemousses, not far from the market at Port Louis, and also in the centre of the island. The necessaries of life, however, are for the most part imported from abroad. Rice and other grain comes from India, flour from the Australasian colonies and from India also, cattle from Madagascar, dried fish from South Africa, wine from France, coal and cotton goods from the United Kingdom. It was Labourdonnais' aim to make the island self-supporting, but, on the contrary, it has become perhaps more dependent on supplies from the outside than almost any other part of the globe.

Health.

Mauritius has of late years acquired a reputation for unhealthiness which, except as regards Port Louis, has been unduly exaggerated. The average death rate for the last few years has been 32 and 33 per 1000 as against 19–20 in England and Wales. The island has at times suffered from epidemics of cholera and small pox, the recurrence of which is guarded against by very strict quarantine laws. The most prevalent and deadly disease in the island is malarial fever. In 1867 it brought death to over 18,000 in Port Louis alone, being more than one-fourth of the population of the town;

[1] European plants were grown by the Dutch in the garden mentioned on p. 145.

CHAPTER I.

and it has recurred with less violence in subsequent years. The great increase of population, the absence, till lately, of systematic sanitation, the cutting down of the forests, and the pollution of the rivers have also no doubt affected the general health of the island; while Port Louis in particular has suffered from its position, being cut off by the mountains from the South-Easterly breezes. Among other diseases leprosy accounts for an appreciable number of deaths every year.

Population.

The most noticeable points in the population statistics of the island are the great density of the population at the present time, the rapidity with which the numbers have grown during the present century, and the extraordinary increase of the Indian element in the community. According to the last census, that of 1881, the resident population numbered 359,874. It is now estimated at nearly 370,000, the numbers having remained almost stationary for the last 4 years. These figures give a density of 522 inhabitants to the square mile, whereas in England and Wales there were, according to the census, 446 to the square mile. At the end of the last century the population was estimated at 65,000[1]. In 1830, when the days of slavery were rapidly being numbered, the whole population was estimated at under 100,000, over two-thirds of the whole number being slaves. The census of 1851 gave a total population in round numbers of 180,000, and that of 1861 a total of 310,000, the enormous increase in the 10 years being due to Indian immigration. At the last census the Indians formed 69 per cent. of the total population, including both Immigrants and Indians born in the island. The general population includes among its main elements the French creoles, i.e. the descendants of the old French settlers, blacks of African descent, and residents whose descent is half European, half African or Asiatic;

[1] In 1799. These figures are given in Grant's History. 55,000 were slaves, 10,000 whites and mulattos. The population of Port Louis was estimated at three-fifths of the whole.

SECTION III.

there are also some 4000 Chinese in the island, but at present the number does not tend to increase.

In most other countries, where slavery has prevailed, the result of emancipation has been that the bulk of the population consists of the freed slaves and their descendants. Mauritius is a notable exception. The slaves formed an overwhelming majority of the population, and were mainly of Malagasy and Mozambique descent, yet half a century has so entirely changed the face of the island that this element is now comparatively insignificant, and the African breed has fast given place to the Indian.

Religion and Education.

As the majority of the inhabitants of Mauritius are Indians, the Hindu creed has more adherents in the island than any other religious belief. Among Christian sects the Roman Catholics are far the most numerous, but State aid is given alike to the Roman Catholic Church, the Church of England, and the Presbyterians.

The annual estimates include a large educational vote, but, owing to the predominance of the Indian element, the number of children receiving primary instruction is not very large. Higher education is provided for by the Royal College in Port Louis, supported by the government and provided with two scholarships per annum, entitling the holders to some four years' education in England.

Finances.

The currency of Mauritius and its dependencies is the silver rupee currency. The Colonial Government derives its revenue mainly from import duties, licences, and railway receipts: there is also a small export duty on sugar. Of late years the revenue has fallen off, and recent returns show a considerable excess on the expenditure side of the account. The island it is true is not weighted by a heavy debt[1], the amount being not more than three-quarters of a million, about equal to the income of one average year; but, on the other hand, Mauritius does not possess like some other colonies large

[1] The debt was mainly incurred for the construction of railways.

undeveloped resources, which would assure renewed prosperity in future years. It is a small island with a teeming population, depending on the results of a single industry.

Imports and Exports.

The returns of imports and exports tell the same tale of present depression or absence of progress. Of the countries from which it derives its imports, India[1] comes first, being followed by the United Kingdom, France, Madagascar, Australasia, and South Africa in the order given.

Distances.

Mauritius is about 115 miles distant from the sister island of Réunion or Bourbon, and about 500 miles from Madagascar: it is about 1550 miles from Natal, about 2250 from the Cape of Good Hope, and about 2400 from Aden, on the way to which lies its dependency of the Seychelles at a distance of over 900 miles: it is over 2000 miles distant from Ceylon, rather more than half-way to which is Diego Garcia, and it is over 3100 miles distant from the South-West point of Australia. Thus it is nearest to a French colony and to Madagascar, where the French have long aimed at extending their power, while of British possessions it is nearest to Natal. It has no telegraphic communication with the outside world, and for its mails it subsidises and depends mainly on the Messageries Maritimes steamers running monthly between Marseilles and New Caledonia by the Red Sea, Seychelles, and Australia. Steamers belonging to the English Castle Packet Company occasionally run between Port Louis and Natal.

General Résumé.

Mauritius is an instance of a country in which geography and history have to a certain extent run counter to each other. Geographically it belongs to Africa, but the course of its history, as has been shown, has closely connected it with Asia. In the earlier days of European colonisation Africa itself was no more than a stepping-stone to the East; hence the future of an island which lay some hundreds of miles

[1] In addition to the imports from British India those from the French port of Pondicherry are very considerable.

SECTION III.

nearer to Southern Asia, would naturally follow the course of events in the East, although it drew the bulk of its population from the nearer shores of Madagascar[1] and Mozambique.

But while the African continent has gradually developed a history of its own independent of the East, the connection between Mauritius and India has become still closer than in former days. Its imports from India[2], as has been seen, exceed those from any other country, and the bulk of the population of the island is of Indian descent.

Yet the history of Mauritius has been clearly modified by its geographical position. Had it lain in the East Indies, instead of merely being a point on the road thither, the Portuguese, we may suppose, would have colonised it, and the Dutch would have made greater efforts to retain it; as it was, its importance began with the age of conquest, as opposed to the age of trading and colonising, and it became great in the hands of the French, a nation which meant to build up a military empire in the East.

Consequently it is as a French island that Mauritius is known to history; but it was more than merely a military outpost of France. In Mauritius, as in Canada, the French showed themselves capable of colonising in its truest sense, and of forming a permanent French community.

It seems a strange fatality that it should have fallen to the lot of Great Britain to take away from other nations the very parts of the world in which they had done and were doing solid work. In Canada and Mauritius the French showed themselves to be something more than conquerors. In New York and the Cape the Dutch settled and did not merely

[1] It must be remembered that the Malagasies themselves are not a Negro but a Malay race.

[2] The increase in the export trade from Mauritius to India of late years is most remarkable. In 1886 the value of the exports to India was more than half of the total value to all countries, whereas in 1876 it was less than one-thirteenth of the total. India is therefore now the principal market for Mauritian sugar.

hold trading dependencies. In each case the colonies fell into the hands of the English race.

In estimating then the position which Mauritius holds in the British colonial empire, the first point to remember is that it has been a French colony, that the English have here to rule a considerable number of settlers of French descent, that French traditions, laws, customs, and religion have a strong and lasting hold on the community, and that its nearest neighbour is the French island of Réunion. It seems a somewhat unsatisfactory compromise, which, at the end of the long duel between France and Great Britain, separated the fortunes of the two twin islands, instead of assigning both to England or restoring both to France.

Mauritius is further interesting as being a tropical colony, in which nevertheless a European race, not being one of the Mediterranean peoples, has made a permanent home. A parallel can be found in the history of some of the West Indian islands.

Like those islands too, Mauritius derived a great deal of its prosperity in past times from being a centre for freebooting and privateering. As the buccaneers of the Spanish main brought inhabitants and riches to the West Indian islands, so pirates and slaveholders and subsequently commanders of privateers in the service of France contributed to the history of Mauritius. Like the West Indies again, Mauritius is a sugar-growing colony which once had a large slave population; but emancipation has worked different results in the two cases: in the West Indies the bulk of the inhabitants are still the descendants of the African slaves; in Mauritius, on the other hand, as has been seen, the introduction of free labour has led to the vast predominance of the Indian over the African element.

To political economists Mauritius has a special interest, as being a striking example of the results of Free Trade. The ideal of Free Trade is that the world should be regarded as

SECTION III.

one market and that each community should devote itself exclusively to producing the commodities for which its country is specially suited, instead of wasting its energies in attempting to produce a large number of articles which can be procured more cheaply from the outside. Mauritius is almost entirely devoted to one product—sugar, and the necessaries of life are imported to an extent and from a variety of quarters to which it is difficult to find a parallel. It cannot reasonably be doubted that such a policy, following as it does the lines laid down by nature, has effectually contributed at once to the wealth of the world and to the prosperity of the island which has adopted it[1]; but at the same time the record of recent years which have brought depression in the sugar trade, has shown that this state of things is not without a corresponding drawback, and that a community may suffer grievously for a while which has all its eggs in one basket and depends almost entirely on a single industry.

To sum up the position of Mauritius in the British empire. The island is a heritage of conquest, with great historical interest; it has a present value as contributing largely from its resources to the trade of Great Britain, and as possessing a harbour which is still, as of old, a leading port in the Indian Ocean, a coaling station for the Imperial fleet, and a place of call for vessels plying between South Africa and the East.

THE SEYCHELLES.

THE most important of the dependencies of Mauritius is the Seychelles Archipelago, a cluster of islands of singular

[1] In spite of bad years, the trade of Mauritius as compared with other producing colonies is enormous. In 1886 the value of its exports, ten-elevenths of which according to value were products of the colony, was more than three times as great as that of its neighbour Natal (which has an area more than twenty-six times as large); and between two and three times as great as that of Jamaica (another sugar-producing colony about six times as large).

CHAPTER I.

History.

beauty, lying over 900 miles due north of Mauritius, about half-way between that island and Cape Guardafui, and about 1100 miles East of Zanzibar. It has already been noticed that the Seychelles were explored by the direction of Labourdonnais [1]. In 1756 a ship was sent by the then Governor of Mauritius to take possession of Mahé, and the first settlement in the group probably took place between 1769 and 1772. As has been seen [2], the islands capitulated to an English man-of-war some years before Mauritius passed into the power of Great Britain, and by the peace of 1814 they were definitely recognised as part of the British Empire. They have from first to last remained a dependency of Mauritius, but their present form of government is of recent date, having been established in 1872. The administration is in the hands of a Chief Civil Commissioner, who takes his instructions from the Governor of Mauritius, and is assisted by a Board of Commissioners. The latter answers to the Legislative Council of ordinary Crown Colonies, and contains a certain proportion of unofficial members. The regulations passed by the Board have, when approved by the Governor, the force of law, and, in addition, a large number of the Mauritius Ordinances are also applied to the Seychelles.

Administration.

The area of the islands has been variously computed at from 78 to over 160 square miles: the former figure is probably more near the truth. They are of granitic formation, surrounded by coral reefs, and are about 30 in number, some of them being little more than mere rocks. The principal island is Mahé, being called after Labourdonnais, whose name was, at one time, borne by the whole group [3]. It is said to be about 15 miles long and 3 miles broad. Rugged and precipitous, with mountains running up to between 2000 and 3000 feet, it is yet fertile and well-watered; and was at one time more thickly timbered than it is at present. In the

Geography.

Mahé.

[1] P. 148. See Col. Yule's Glossary under 'Seychelle Islands.'
[2] P. 154.
[3] Iles de Labourdonnais, see p. 148.

SECTION III.

North-East of the island is the harbour and Port Victoria, the one small town of the Archipelago. The Port is a fine one. It is formed by a bay, running into the main island, and shut in on the East, the ocean side, by a group of small islets; its entrance being on the North. It contains a roadstead, and an inner basin, bounded by coral reefs. Among the other islands are the two, on which alone is found the Coco de Mer; they are Praslin and Curieuse, the former taking its name from the French Minister of Marine, the duc de Praslin. One other island, called after the French finance minister Silhouette, though insignificant in area, deserves special mention, being, next to Mahé, at once the highest and the most fertile of the group.

Climate.

Although they lie not far from the Equator, the Seychelles enjoy an equable and healthy climate, and the death-rate of the population is lower by half than that of Mauritius. The heat is tempered by the sea-breeze, and the hurricanes which have so often devastated Mauritius are here unknown. The rainier half of the year is from November to April, when Northerly winds prevail[1].

Products.

The first settlers in the group, men of French descent, were mainly engaged on turtle fishing, and turtle shells are still an important article of export. Subsequently spice trees were planted at Mahé under the direction of the French government of Mauritius. The utmost care was taken to conceal the existence of the spices from the knowledge of foreigners, and about 1778 instructions were given by the Governor of Mauritius, that, in the event of the English trying to land on the island, all the trees should be destroyed. The result was most fatal. A ship flying English colours, but which subsequently proved to be French, appeared off Mahé, and the whole plantation was instantly burnt.

For a few years during the early part of the present century

[1] This is called in some books the season of the North-East, in others of the North-West monsoon.

a large amount of cotton was grown in and exported from the Seychelles, until the competition of the United States led to the discontinuance of the industry. At the present time the islands depend mainly on the coco-nut plantations which are cultivated for the sake of the oil; and the next most important product is vanilla. In addition to the coco-nut palms, the Seychelles contain several varieties of fine timber, and soil and climate alike are favourable to the growth of all kinds of tropical plants. The one unique product, however, of the archipelago, or rather of two of its islands alone, is the Coco de Mer, which grows nowhere else in the world. It is a large double coco-nut, called Coco de Mer since the days of the Portuguese, who found the fruit on the shores of Malabar and the Maldives, but never could find the tree which bore it. For a long time it was supposed that there must have been such a palm[1] in the Maldive archipelago, and the nut was in consequence given a second name after those islands; but it is now ascertained that the tree grows only in the Seychelles, and that the fruit was carried by the ocean to the distant shores of Asia.

Coco de Mer.

The population of the Seychelles at the 1881 census numbered slightly over 14,000, having doubled in 20 years. It is now between 15 and 16 thousand. The inhabitants are mainly of African origin, the descendants of the old slave population of the islands, recruited by Africans who have been landed from captured slave vessels from time to time. There is also a small number of white residents, mainly of French extraction. Both the Roman Catholic and the Protestant faiths are supported by the State, the former having far the larger number of adherents; and the mission schools receive grants-in-aid from government. The revenue, mainly derived from customs, licences, and rates, has in the last two or three years been steadily though slowly increasing: and if the islands have no great resources, their natural

Population.

Finance.

[1] See under Maldives, p. 93.

SECTION III.

fertility, combined with the advantage of possessing a good harbour on an established trade route, seems to promise them a fair degree of prosperity in future.

RODRIGUES.

THE beautiful island of Rodrigues is about 350 miles distant from Mauritius a little to the North of East.

History.

Its shape is that of an irregular oval; its length from West to East is said to be about 12 miles[1], its breadth from 4 to 5, and its area between 40 and 50 square miles. It was discovered by the Portuguese[2]; and, during the Dutch occupation of Mauritius, a small party of eight Huguenots[3], among whom was Leguat, settled on the island, leaving it after two years' sojourn. Leguat records that he found the names of some Dutchmen inscribed on a tree, showing that the Dutch as well as the Portuguese had visited Rodrigues; and it is interesting to notice that the chief village of the island now bears the Huguenot name of Mathurin, although that name is not to be found in the list of Leguat's companions. During the latter part of the 18th century the French placed a Superintendent in the Island, mainly to protect the land tortoises, which are now no longer to be found. In 1809–10 it was occupied by a British force destined for the capture of Mauritius[4], and has since remained a British possession. In 1761, and again in 1874, it was chosen as a place from whence to observe the Transit of Venus.

Administration.

In 1843 a judicial and police establishment was formed in the island under the authority of a special ordinance passed for the purpose by the Mauritius Government; the small staff of officials is now headed by a Civil Commissioner and police magistrate, who acts directly under the instructions of the Governor of Mauritius; and the scanty revenue of the

[1] These are the dimensions given in Mr. Ackroyd's report on the dependencies of Mauritius dated 1880. The Colonial Office List gives a length of 18 miles and a breadth of 7.

[2] P. 144. [3] P. 145. [4] P. 153.

dependency is year by year supplemented by a grant from the Treasury of the main island.

CHAPTER I.

Geography.

Rodrigues is surrounded by a ring of coral reefs. A narrow opening in them, on the Northern coast and towards the Eastern end of the island, leads into the roadstead of Port Mathurin. The little village of Port Mathurin is the capital of the island, there being one other hamlet on the high ground of the interior, called Gabriel.

Port Mathurin.

The island is very mountainous, the highest point being said to be over 1700 feet. In the South-West are the caves which form the great natural curiosity of the island, remarkable for the size and beauty of the stalactites which they contain.

Climate.

The soil in the valleys is extremely rich, and the water supply is as a rule plentiful, though severe droughts occur from time to time. The climate is singularly healthy for the tropics, the death rate being little more than half that of Mauritius; but the gales are more violent and the hurricanes more frequent than in Mauritius, and, as there are no private steamers regularly plying to the island, it would be entirely cut off from the outer world during the bad season from December to April but for the occasional visits of Government vessels. In old days Rodrigues was covered with timber; at present the principal trees are the latania and vacoa palms and the palmiste.

Products.

More of the land too was under cultivation in the days of the French régime than is now the case, and in bad seasons the amount of grain grown is not sufficient to provide for the wants of the inhabitants[1]. The chief vegetable products are sweet potatoes, beans, and maize, and fruits of various kinds, especially oranges, citrons, and limes. Beans are one of the articles of export to Mauritius. Among animals

[1] In times of drought, when the crops of maize, etc. fail, the food supply is imported from Mauritius in the shape of rice. It was on the occasion of one of these famines in 1881 that the Lieutenant-Governor of Mauritius paid a visit to the island, an account of which by his wife, Lady Barker, appeared in Macmillan's Magazine, May, 1882.

SECTION III.

the fruit-eating bat is native to the island; most of the other animals have been imported, among them rats, which are a great nuisance to the community. The pasturage is excellent; cattle, pigs, and goats are reared not only for home consumption but also for export to Mauritius. Poultry is abundant, and fishing employs a considerable number of the population, a large amount of fish being exported.

Rodrigues has changed much since the days of Leguat: the woods have in great measure been destroyed, nothing is now heard of amber or ambergris[1], the land tortoises have disappeared, and only fossil specimens are now found of the 'solitaire'—the dodo-like bird with small wings, of which so full an account is given in his narrative.

Population.

The population of the island is on the increase. It now numbers between 1700 and 1800. Its members are mainly of African origin, the descendants of the slaves introduced from Mauritius by the French and supplemented directly from Africa. They are almost entirely agriculturists, herdsmen, or fishermen. They have their schools, post-office, and hospital; a doctor and a Roman Catholic priest are provided for them by the Government; and on the whole their life is that of a healthy and contented, if poor and isolated, community.

THE MINOR DEPENDENCIES OF MAURITIUS.

THE various islands, other than the Seychelles and Rodrigues, which are classed as dependencies of Mauritius, are as numerous as they are for the most part insignificant in size and importance. They are, roughly speaking, groups of islets of coral formation with connecting reefs. The majority of them are known as oil islands: they are leased in most cases to Mauritian proprietors, and their population consists

[1] Leguat says of Rodrigues, 'La mer apporte de l'ambre jaune et de l'ambre gris.' Possibly amber and ambergris were confused with each other as regards both Rodrigues and Mauritius. See p. 162, note 1.

mainly of coloured labourers engaged in collecting the coco-nuts and in extracting and exporting the oil which they yield. The managers of the estates keep stores from which rice and other imported necessaries are supplied, and on most of the islands fish and fruit are procurable in more or less abundance. Periodical visits are paid by an officer of the Mauritius Government, known as the Police and Stipendiary Magistrate for the smaller dependencies, who enquires into the condition of the labourers, hears complaints of masters against servants, or vice versâ, sees that the terms of engagement are duly fulfilled, and adjudicates on any cases which may have been reserved for his hearing. A report of each visit is duly printed and laid before the Mauritius Government.

In 1881 the total population of these dependencies was estimated at 1450; the island of Diego Garcia had the largest number of inhabitants, and Agalega came next. The inhabitants, as might be expected, are mainly of African or Malagasy descent, with a sprinkling of Indians.

St. Brandon.

Nearest to Mauritius, to the North-East, is the St. Brandon or Cargados Carayos group, a collection of islets which are little more than sandbanks, almost uninhabited except for the few fishermen who come there during the fishing season. The name St. Brandon recalls the mediæval legend of the saint of that name, but the discoverer of the happy[1] isles and an earthly paradise must have found it elsewhere than in the Cargados group.

Agalega.

Further to the North are the two islands known as Agalega, from which more oil is exported to Mauritius than from any other of these small islands. The coco-nuts and the establishment engaged in collecting them are found mainly on the Southern island, which however is only separated from the other by a very narrow strait, fordable at low water.

[1] The saint's name was Brandanus. For the legend, see Irving's Life of Columbus, App. No. 25.

SECTION III.

Coetivy. Diego Garcia.

Still more to the North lies the island of Coetivy, bearing the name of the Chevalier de Coetivy, the commander of a French vessel who first discovered it in 1771.

Right in the middle of the Indian Ocean lies the Chagos Archipelago, the most important island of which is Diego Garcia. It was visited in the 18th century by both English and French ships, and in 1784 the English made an abortive attempt to settle it from Bombay. Shortly afterwards it was annexed by the French at Mauritius, who made the island a refuge for lepers. It was subsequently taken up by Mauritians for the sake of the coco-nut industry, and divided into three estates, which have been latterly combined under one company.

Diego Garcia has the shape peculiar to islands of coral formation. It is about 30 miles long, very narrow—in no part more than 1½ miles wide—and it forms a rough horse-shoe, enclosing a fine bay, the mouth of which is guarded by three little islets. The bay is spacious and deep enough to give good anchorage to the largest vessels; and, lying as it does on the direct route from the Red Sea to Australia, the island has of late years risen to importance as a coaling station for steamers on their way across the Indian Ocean. A coal depôt has been established there by a London Company, and two of the three islets mentioned above were a few years ago leased to the Orient Company for the same purpose [1].

The fact of the island becoming a coaling station has brought to it a certain amount of trade and an increase of population; and the Mauritius Government have found it necessary to place a small police establishment there for the maintenance of law and order.

The island is important not only as regards the straight route from the Red Sea to Australia, but also as being, roughly speaking, half-way between Mauritius and Ceylon,

[1] The depôt of the Orient Company has now been discontinued.

although it is nearer to the latter. It may well be conjectured that at some future date direct and regular steam communication will be established between South Africa, Mauritius, and the East, advantage being taken of this convenient stopping-place in the very centre of the Indian Ocean.

Amirantes, etc.

Among other dependencies of Mauritius are various groups of islands lying to the South-West of the Seychelles and to the North of Madagascar. Such are the Amirantes[1], of which the Mauritian Government took possession in 1802, the Glorioso islands taking their name from a French ship, the Glorieux; the island of Aldabra, on which the giant land-tortoise is still to be found, and others.

Amsterdam and St. Paul's.

Lastly, far away in the Southern Ocean, are the two islands of Amsterdam and St. Paul's island, which are usually classed among the possessions of Great Britain. Amsterdam, the more Northerly of the two, is named after a Dutch vessel[2] which visited it in 1633; and St. Paul's island is said to have contained a handful of settlers 30 to 40 years ago, engaged in fishing, and under the superintendence of a Frenchman. The attractions of the two islands, however, even the curious extinct crater on St. Paul's island, to which there is an inlet from the sea, seem hardly sufficiently great to make it probable that they will ever be a prize much coveted by the colonising nations of Europe[3].

[1] Appearing on old maps as Almirantes, i. e. The Admirals.

[2] The 'Nieuw Amsterdam,' on which was Anthonio Van Diemen, the Dutch governor-general of Java, whose name was given to Van Diemen's land. The island however was probably discovered more than a century earlier, in 1522, by Magellan's ship the 'Vittoria' on the first voyage round the world. See 'The First Voyage Round the World by Magellan' (Hakluyt Series).

[3] For an account of these islands, see Findlay's 'Sailing Directory of the Indian Ocean.'

APPENDIX.

LIST OF DEPENDENCIES OF MAURITIUS.

SECTION III.

THIS list, not an exhaustive one, is taken from the Report on the Dependencies of Mauritius presented to the Colonial Government on the 22nd of March, 1880, by the police and stipendiary magistrate of the smaller dependencies (Mr. Ackroyd).

1. The Seychelles Archipelago.
2. Islands to the North of Madagascar and not included in the Oil Islands—
   - *a.* The Amirantes Group.
   - *b.* Alphonsine, Bijoutier, and St. François.
   - *c.* Cosmoledo Group.
   - *d.* Astove.
   - *e.* Assumption.
   - *f.* Aldabra.
   - *g.* Glorioso Islands.
3. Oil Islands, including—
   - *a.* St. Brandon.
   - *b.* Agalega.
   - *c.* Coetivy.
   - *d.* Juan de Nova or Farquahar Island.
   - *e.* Providence.
   - *f.* Chagos Archipelago—
     1. Egmont or Six Isles.
     2. Trois frères or Eagle Island group.
     3. Solomon Islands.
     4. Peros Banhos.
     5. Nelson Island.
     6. Diego Garcia.
4. Tromelin or Sandy Island.
5. Rodrigues.
6. Amsterdam.
7. St. Paul's Island.

THE FOLLOWING BOOKS RELATE TO MAURITIUS AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

Among the purely official publications may be specially noticed:—

CHAPTER I.

The Report on the Forests of Mauritius, by Mr. R. THOMPSON, Deputy Conservator of Forests, India. Dated Aug. 23, 1880; printed for the Colonial Government.

Mr. ACKROYD'S *Report on the Dependencies of Mauritius*. Dated March 22, 1880; printed for the Colonial Government.

The following are, among others, standard works on Mauritius:—

The Annual Mauritius Almanac and Colonial Register.

LEGUAT'S *Voyages et aventures en deux Isles désertes des Indes Orientales*, 1708, with English Translation.

GRANT'S *History of Mauritius*, 1801.

D'UNIENVILLE'S *Statistique de l'île Maurice et ses dépendances*, 1838.

PRIDHAM'S *England's Colonial Empire.* Vol. I. *The Mauritius and its Dependencies*, 1846.

PIKE'S *Subtropical Rambles*, 1873.

And for the Islands of the Indian Ocean generally reference should be made to—

FINDLAY'S *Sailing Directory for the Indian Ocean*, and the *Sailing Directions* published by order of the Admiralty.

CHAPTER II.

THE COCOS ISLANDS.

SECTION III.

THE Cocos or Keeling islands, called after Captain Keeling[1], who is said to have discovered them on his way from the Moluccas in 1609, are a coral group lying far out in the Indian Ocean, and are a dependency of the Straits Settlements. They are more than 700 miles to the South-West of Java, and on the direct route from Ceylon to Australia.

A Scotchman, Captain J. C. Ross, landed on their shores in 1825, and returned with his family and a few other companions in 1827. He found that an Englishman, Hare by name, had in the meantime come over from Bencoolen in Sumatra with a Malay following and settled in the islands. Most of Hare's party, however, joined the later colony, and after a while Hare withdrew to Singapore, leaving Ross in undisputed possession of the group. The Ross family has remained there ever since, the present proprietor, Mr. George Clunies Ross, being the grandson of the first colonist. Darwin visited the islands in 1836, and has left an account of them in the 'Voyage of the Beagle' and in 'Coral Reefs,' and latterly Mr. Forbes has recorded his experience of them in 'A Naturalist's Wanderings in the Eastern Archipelago.'

In 1857 Captain Fremantle, in the 'Juno,' took possession of the islands on behalf of the British Government, recognising the father of the present owner as Superintendent. In 1878 they were annexed to Ceylon, and in 1886 were

[1] Captain William Keeling was in command on the third voyage organised by the then newly established English East India Company, in the years 1606-1609. There is an inscription to him in Carisbrooke Church, Isle of Wight.

transferred from Ceylon to the Straits Settlements. They are now periodically visited by one of Her Majesty's ships and by an officer of the Straits Settlements Government.

The islands, over 20 in number, lie close together in a ring, or atoll, with the exception of the North Keeling island, which is some 15 miles to the Northward of the rest. The climate is healthy, and combined with a good supply of drinking-water makes the inhabitants little liable to disease, the sickness most dreaded here, as in the Malay Peninsula, being beri beri. The islands, however, are within the region of cyclones, which have more than once laid waste the settlement.

The inhabitants are partly Cocos born, partly Bantamese, engaged at Batavia by Mr. Ross's agent. In August 1886 the former numbered 386, the latter 170. In former years the labour market of the Cocos Islands, like that of much greater lands, was supplied from criminal sources, convicts from Batavia being sent over to work[1], but this element of the population is happily now extinct.

Fishing, gathering coco-nuts, and manufacturing coco-nut oil, etc., are the chief occupations of the islanders, and the exports to Europe or Java consist almost entirely of the produce of the coco-nut tree in one form or another.

Without any great natural wealth the islands seem to maintain a contented community under the patriarchal despotism of the Ross family; they might be useful as a place of call, and as such are better in British than in foreign hands; and they cause no expense to the Government beyond that which is incurred by an occasional visit of inspection[2].

[1] Compare the case of Mauritius, p. 145.

[2] See the Report of Mr. E. W. Birch, who visited the Islands in 1885, printed for the Straits Settlements Government.

INDEX TO PROPER NAMES.

Abercrombie, General, 153.
Aberdeen, 137.
Abyssinians, 55, 56.
Adam's Bridge, 74.
Adam's Peak, 69, 75, 84.
Aden, 50, 51, 52 and *n.*, 53–62.
Aden Back Bay, 59.
Adria, 15.
Affghans, 83.
Agalega, 177, 180.
Alameda Gardens, 10.
Albuquerque, 56, 64, 98.
Aleock province, 129 *n.*
Aldabra, 179, 180.
Alexander the Great, 35, 55, 65.
Algeçiras, 8.
Alphonsine, 180.
Amasis, 33.
Amathus, 34, 45.
Amboyna, 99, 100, 101.
Amherst, Lord, 134.
Amiens, Peace of, 71.
Amirantes, the, 179, 180.
Ammianus Marcellinus, 65, 66.
Amoy, 134, 135.
Amsterdam, Island of, 179, 180.
Andaman Islands, 52 *n.*
Angevins, 13, 17.
Anglo-Turkish Convention, 38, 39.
Antigonus, 35.
Anuradhapura, 67, 68, 78, 86.
Aplichao, 137.
Arabia Felix, 54.
Arabs, 12, 13, 16, 17, 36, 44, 61, 69, 89.
Arrow, the, 135.
Assumption, 180.
Assyria, 33.
Astove, 180.
Atchin, 101.
Austin, Mr. John, 22.
Badulla district, 85.
Balambangan, 104, 129.
Ball, Capt., 21.
Banda, 99, 100.
Bandar Bharu, 117.
Bangkok, 96.
Banguey island, 129, 131.
Banjarmasin, 100 and *n.*, 103.
Bantam, 99, 100, 101.
Bantamese, 183.
Barnes, Sir E., 72, 84.
Batang Padang district, 116 and *n.*, 118.
Batang Padang river, 115.
Batavia, 99, 126, 183.
Batticaloa, 70, 71, 86.
Belisarius, 16.
Bencoolen, 101.
Bengalis, 110.
Bentota, 84.
Berengaria, 36, 37.
Bernam district, 116, 117.
Bernam river, 114, 115, 116 and *n.*, 117, 120, 121.
Bijoutier, 180.
Borneo, 51, 52 *n.*, 98, 99 and *n.*, 100, 103, 104, 105, 126, 127, 128, 129–132.
Bo-Tree, the sacred, 67, 86.
Bourbon, 144, 145, 146, 148, 153, 167, 169.
Bremen, 5.
Bremerhaven, 5.
British North Borneo Company, 51 *n.*, 52 *n.*, 95, 105 and *n.*, 127, 129, 131, 132.
Brooke, Raja, 95, 104 and *n.*
Brunei, 104, 105, 127, 128, 129.
Buddha, 76.
Buddhism, 67.
Buonaparte, 20, 152.

Burmah, 52 *n*.
Byzantine Emperors, the, 12. 36.
Byzantines, 13, 16.

Cadiz, 14.
Calpe, 8.
Cameron, Sir C., 21.
Canton, 134, 135, 141.
Cape Andreas, 41.
Cape Kormakiti, 41.
Cape Malheureux, 153.
Capitano di Verga, 18, 20.
Cardwell, Visc., 23.
Cargados Carayos, 177.
Carpas, 41.
Carthage and Carthaginians, 13, 14, 16, 26.
Castille, 8.
Cathay, 133.
Cathcart, Lord, 3.
Catherine Cornaro, 37.
Cato, 35.
Celebes, 98, 99, 120.
Cerne, 144.
Ceylon, 51, 52, 65–93, 106, 156, 182.
Chagos Archipelago, 143, 178, 180.
Channel Islands, 2 *n*.
Charles V, 9, 19, 20.
Chilaw, 86.
China, 55, 68 and *n*., 128, 133-142.
Chinese, 68, 109, 110, 113, 118, 119 and *n*., 120, 123, 124, 126, 128, 131, 134, 135, 137, 138, 140, 141, 166.
Chrysochou, 43.
Cicero, 15, 35.
Cilicia, 35.
Cimon, 34.
Citium, 34, 45.
Citta Vecchia, 28.
Civitas Melita, 28.
Clarke, Sir A., 103.
Claudius, 65.
Cluny, 161.
Coal Point, 127.
Coco de Mer, 93 and *n*., 172, 173.
Cocos Islands, the, 52 *n*., 182, 183.
Coetivy, 178, 180.
Colombo, 69, 70, 71, 72, 75, 79, 80, 83, 84, 91.
Consiglio Popolare, 17, 18, 20, 21.
Constance, heiress of Sicily, 17.
Constantine the Great, 36.
Constantinople, 31.
Constantius, 55.
Conti, 56, 69.
Copenhagen, 3.
Corner, 17.
Cosmoledo Group, 180.
Cospicua, 29.
Cotta, 68 and *n*.
Cottiar, 70.
Crusades, the, 31, 36.
Curepipe, 160.
Curieuse, 172.
Cuxhaven, 5.
Cyprus, 1 and *n*., 7, 19, 30-48, 50.

Dambulla, 85.
Darvel Bay, 129, 131.
Darwin, Professor, 182.
Decaen, General, 153, 159.
Denmark, 3.
Dent, Mr. Alfred, 104.
Dent province, 129 *n*.
de Rohan, 20.
Diego Garcia, 144, 177, 178, 180.
Dindings, the, 96, 99, 106, 108 and *n*., 109.
Diodorus, Island of, 54.
Diodorus Siculus, 15.
Dioscorides, Island of, 54.
Diu, 56.
Dondra Head, 74.
Drake, Sir Francis, 100.
Dufresne, William, 146, 160 *n*.
Dupleix, 91, 148.
Durian Sabatang, 115.
Dutch, 57, 70, 71, 75, 79, 87, 90, 99, 100, 101, 102, 108, 113, 130, 134, 143, 144, 145, 146, 152, 164 and *n*., 168, 174.
Dutch East India Company, 99, 146.
Dyaks, 131.

East Coast Residency, 129 *n*.
East India Company, 57, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105 *n*., 113, 134.
Egmont, 180.
Egypt, 33, 35, 38.
Eibat, 58.
Elala, 68.
Elbe, the, 5.

Elgin, Lord, 135.
Eliott, General. See Heathfield.
English, 13, 51, 71, 72, 75, 79, 90, 91, 100, 101, 102, 120, 134, 153, 178.
Eurasians, 71, 83 and *n.*, 109, 119 and *n.*
Euroclydon, the, 26.
Europa flats, 10.
Europa Point, 10.
Evagoras, 34.

Famagusta, 37, 38, 40, 42, 46.
Ferdinand, 8.
Flacq, 145, 159, 163.
Floriana, 29.
Foochow, 135.
Forbes, Mr., 182.
Formosa, 96, 133.
Fort Marlborough, 101.
Frederick Barbarossa, 17.
Fremantle, Capt., 182.
French, 13, 27, 75, 101, 143, 146, 153, 168, 174, 178.
French East India Company, 146, 148, 149, 150.
French Revolution, the, 150.

Gabriel, 175.
Gades. See Cadiz.
Galle, 69, 70, 71, 75, 84, 85.
Gampola, 68, 85.
Gaya Bay, 130.
Gaya Island, 129.
Gebal Tarik, 8.
Genoa, 31, 37 and *n.*
Georgetown, 108.
Germans, 13, 131.
Giants' Tank, the, 78.
Gibraltar, 1, 2, 7, 8–12, 48, 50, 53, 62.
Gindurah, the, 76.
Glorioso Islands, 179, 180.
Goa, 56.
Goths, 16.
Gozo, 13, 14, 16, 10, 25, 26.
Grand Bassin, the, 158.
Grand Harbour, the, 29.
Grand Port, 159, 163.
Greeks, 13, 14, 31, 32, 33, 34, 46.
Gregale, the, 26.
Grey, Lord, 22.

Gros Cailloux, 161.
Hadrian, 36.
Hambantota, 81, 85, 86.
Hamburg, 5.
Hare, 182.
Heathfield, Lord, 9.
Heligoland, 1, 3–6.
Henry VI, Emperor of Germany, 17.
Hieronymo di Santo Stefano, 69.
Hippon, Capt., 100.
Hobart, Lord, 71.
Hong Kong, 51, 52, 102 *n.*, 128, 130, 133–142.
Hong merchants, 134.
Horton plains, 76.
Houtman, 99.
Hudson's Bay Company, 105 *n.*

Iberis, 11.
Ibn Batuta, 55, 69.
Ile de France, 144, 146, 153.
Ile de la Passe, 153.
India, 50, 51, 52 *n.*, 54 *n.*, 55, 56, 57, 59, 62, 66, 67, 68, 71, 88, 95, 102, 125, 148, 164, 167, 168.
Indians, 64 *n.*, 82, 95, 109, 110, 123, 154, 155, 164, 165, 166, 168, 177.
Ionic Revolt, 33.
Isaac Comnenus, 36.
Isabella, 8.
Issus, Battle of, 35.

Jacobins, the, 151.
Jacoons, 97
Jaffna, 70, 71, 87.
Jaffna Peninsula, 68, 80, 87.
Java, 98, 99, 101, 126.
Jews, 31, 36, 61,
John de Marignolli, 69.
Johor, 96, 97, 98, 102, 103.
Johor Archipelago, 98.
Juan de Nova, 180.
Julian, 66.
Junk Ceylon, 99.

Kalâ Oya, the, 77.
Kalâwewa tank, the, 77.
Kalu Ganga, the, 76.
Kalutara, 70, 76, 84.
Kandy, 68, 72, 76, 80, 81, 84, 85.
Kandyans, 70, 72, 82.

Kanthalai tank, the, 77.
Kedah, 96, 102, 114.
Keeling, Capt., 182 and *n*.
Kegalle, 84.
Kelani Ganga, the, 76.
Kelantan, 96 and *n*., 114.
Keppel Province, 129 *n*.
Keshen, Commissioner, 135.
Khor Maksar, 60, 61.
Kiel, Treaty of, 3.
Kinabalu, 130.
Kinabatangan, the, 130.
Kinta district, 116 and *n*., 117.
Kinta river, 115, 117.
Kittim, 32.
Klang, 121, 122.
Klings, 110.
Kowloon, 102 *n*., 135, 137.
Koxinga, 134.
Kra, Isthmus of, 96.
Krian district, 115, 116 and *n*., 117, 118.
Krian river, 109, 114, 115, 116.
Kudat, 129.
Kuriah Muriah islands, 53, 58, 64.
Kurunegala, 68, 86.
Kwala Kangsa, 116 and *n*.
Kwala Langat, 121 *n*., 122.
Kwala Lumpor, 121 and *n*., 122.
Kwala Selangor, 121, 122.
Kyrenia, 40.

Labourdonnais, 147, 148, 163, 164, 171.
Labuan, 51, 95, 104 and *n*., 112, 126-128.
Laccadives, the, 52 *n*.
Ladrones, the, 136.
Lally, 91.
Lancaster, 100.
Langat, the, 121.
Lanka, 65 and *n*.
Larnaca, 40, 45.
Larut district, 115, 116 and *n*., 119.
Larut river, 115.
La Vallette, 19, 28.
Lazaretto island, 29.
Leguat, 145 *n*., 164, 174.
Le Marchant, Sir G., 23.
Lewis, Sir G. C., 22.
Levanter, the, 11.
Limassol, 36, 37, 38, 40, 45.
Linggi, the, 124.
Linschoten, 57.
Little Aden, 58, 59.
Lorenzo de Almeyda, 70.
Low, Sir Hugh, 103.
Lower Perak, 116 and *n*., 117.
Lukut district, 124.
Lusignans, the, 37.
Lyeemoon Pass, 137.

Macao, 133.
Macartney, Lord, 134.
Macnamara, Comte de, 151.
Madagascar, 96, 144, 146 and *n*.
Magellan, 99, 179 *n*.
Mahavilla Ganga, the, 76, 87.
Mahé, 149, 171, 172.
Mahébourg, 147, 159.
Mahomet, 16.
Malabars, 67 and *n*., 68 and *n*.
Malacca, 56, 96, 97, 98, 99, 101, 102, 103, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 121, 123, 124, 125.
Malacca, Straits of, 95, 106, 114, 115, 121.
Malartic, General, 152.
Malay Peninsula, 95-124.
Malays, 83, 96, 97, 98, 103, 109, 110, 117, 119 and *n*., 123, 124, 126, 128, 131.
Maldive Islands, 51, 89-94.
Malé, 89, 91, 92.
Malta, 1, 7, 12-30, 44, 48, 50.
Maltese, 11, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 22, 24, 27, 28.
Manaar, 70, 74, 81, 87.
Manila, 104, 133.
Maoris, 97.
Marco Polo, 55, 69, 133.
Mare aux Vacoas, 158.
Marons, 145 and *n*., 148.
Marsamuscetto, the, 29.
Martin, King of Aragon, 18.
Marudu Bay, 129, 131.
Mascarenhas, 144 and *n*., 146.
Massah Islands, 58.
Matalé, 85.
Matara, 85.
Maurice of Nassau, 144.
Mauritius, 143-181.
Mayun, 62.
Medina, 28.

Medina Sidonia, dukes of, 8.
Meleda, 15.
Melita, 16, 25.
Mempakol, 129.
Mesaorea, 38, 42, 45.
Middleton, Capt., 100.
Mihintale, 86.
Minto, Lord, 153.
Mocha, 57, 160 *n.*
Mohammedans, 40, 45, 61, 64, 69, 76, 89, 91, 97, 110.
Moka, 160, 161.
Moluccas, 99, 100.
Mongols, 96.
Monro, Sir H., 71.
Moors, 8, 18, 20, 69, 70, 81 *n.*, 83, 86, 89.
Moreau de Séchelles, 148.
Morphou, 42.
Mullaitivu, 87.
Muscat, Sultan of, 58.

Nankin, Treaty of, 135.
Nanu Oya, 85.
Napier, Lord, 134.
Naples, 14.
Native states of Malay peninsula, the, 111, 112, 113-126.
Nawalapitiya, 85.
Naxos, 14 *n.*
Negombo, 70, 71, 84.
Negri Sembilan, the, 123.
Negrito Tribes, 97.
Nelson Island, 180.
Neutral ground, the, 10.
New Guinea, 98, 99.
Nicobars, the, 52 *n.*
Nicosia, 38, 40, 45.
Ningpo, 135.
Normans, 13, 17.
North Borneo, 51, 52 *n.*, 112, 129-132.
North Front, the, 10.
North Keeling Island, 183.
Nuwara Eliya, 76, 80, 85.
Nuwarakalawiya, 87.

Odoric, Friar, 99 *n.*
O'Ferrall, R. More, 22.
Onesicritus, 65.
Ophir, 54 and *n.*
Orang bukit, 97.
Orang Utan, 97.
Ormuz, 56, 57.

Padas, the, 129.
Padawiya tank, 78.
Pahang, 96, 97, 103, 114, 121, 122.
Pamplemousses, 150, 159, 163, 164.
Pangkor, 99, 103, 108, 113, 114.
Palmyra, 74.
Papho, 40.
Paphos, 45.
Papuans, 96.
Paris, Peace of, 21, 153.
Parsees, 83.
Pas Géometriques, 162 and *n.*
Patani, 96, 100.
Pedias, the, 42.
Pedrotallagalla, 76.
Pegu, King of, 152.
Peiho, the, 135.
Pekin, 135.
Penang, 95, 100, 102, 105, 106, 108 and *n.*, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 121, 125.
Pengkalan Kompas, 124.
Perak, 96, 97, 99, 103, 108, 113-120, 121, 123.
Perak river, 97, 113, 115, 116, 117.
Perim, 51, 53, 54, 57, 58, 62, 63.
Peros Banhos, 180.
Persians, 34, 55.
Peter, King of Aragon, 17.
Philip II, 70.
Philippines, 97, 133.
Phœnicians, 13, 14, 26, 31, 32, 34.
Pieter Both, 157.
Pillars of Hercules, 14, 16.
Piton de la Rivière Noire, 157.
Plaines Wilhems, 145, 160.
Pliny, 66.
Plus, the, 115.
Point Pedro, 74.
Poivre, M., 149.
Pollanarrua, 68, 86.
Polymedia, 45.
Pondicherry, 150, 167 *n.*
Port Bourbon, 147.
Port Louis, 145, 147, 150, 15[illegible] 154, 156, 158, 159, 161, 165.

Port Mathurin, 175.
Port Victoria, 172.
Port Weld, 116.
Portuguese, 56, 57, 68, 70, 71, 90, 98, 99, 133, 143, 144, 174.
Pouce, the, 157, 158.
Prakrama Bahu, 68.
Praslin, 172.
Prester John, 56.
Prince of Wales' Island. See Penang.
Providence, 180.
Province Wellesley, 95, 102, 106, 109, 114, 116, 119, 124.
Prye dock, 109.
Ptolemy, 35.
Ptolemy of Alexandria, 66.
Punic Wars, 14, 15.
Puttalam, 86.
Pyrard, Francois, 90.

Raffles, Sir S., 101, 102.
Raffles Institution, the, 111.
Ramiseram, 74.
Ratnapura, 80, 81, 84.
Rebellion of the Priests, 20.
Reduit, 160.
Reid, Sir W., 23.
Reman, 114.
Réunion. See Bourbon
Rhodes, 19.
Ricasoli, fort, 29.
Richard Cœur de Lion, 36, 37.
Rivière du Rampart, 159.
Rivière Noire, the, 145, 160.
Rodrigues, 145, 153, 174–176, 180.
Rodrigues, Don Diego, 144.
Roger Guiscard, Count, 17, 27.
Romans, 13, 14, 15, 35, 44, 55 and *n.*
Rooke, Sir George, 9.
Ross, Capt. J. C., 182.

St. Barnabas, 36.
St. Brandon, 177, 180.
St. Elmo, 20, 29.
St. François, 180.
St. John, Knights of, 12, 14, 18, 37 and *n.*
St. Paul, 15, 35.
St. Paul's Bay, 15.
St. Paul's Island, 179, 180.
Sakei, 97, 98 *n.*, 110, 119, 123.
Salamis, battle of, 34.
Salamis, city of, 33, 34, 45.
Sandakan, 129, 130.
Sandy Island, 3, 4.
San Stefano, treaty of, 39.
Sanuto, 55.
Sa-pe-tang, the, 129.
[illegible]ak, 52 *n.*, 95, 104, 105, 127.
[illegible]ne, 159.
Selama, 116 *n.*
Selangor, 96, 97, 98 *n.*, 99, 103, 114, 116, 120–123, 124.
Selangor river, 120, 121.
Semang, 97, 110, 119.
Senglea, 29.
Sereriban, 124.
Sergius Paulus, 36.
Seychelles Islands, 93, 103, 144 and *n.*, 148, 154, 170–174, 180.
Shaikh Othman, 58, 59, 60.
Shanghai, 135.
Shau-Ki-Wan, 137.
Siam, 96, 98, 113, 114.
Sibuko, the, 129.
Sicilian Vespers, 17.
Sicily, 14, 16, 17.
Sidon, 14.
Silam, 129.
Silhouette, 172.
Singapore, 96, 98, 101, 102, 105, 106, 107, 108 *n.*, 109, 111, 112, 113, 121, 125, 126, 127.
Sinhala, 65.
Sinhalese, 66, 67, 68, 71, 76, 77, 81 *n.*, 82, 84, 89.
Sinhapura. See Singapore.
Sirah, 58, 60.
Soarez, 70.
Socotra, 51, 52 *n.*, 53, 54, 55, 56, 58, 63, 64.
Soli, 33.
Solomon Islands, 180.
Solyman the Magnificent, 19.
Somalis, 58, 61.
Souillac, 160.
Spain, 8.
Spaniards, 8, 13, 17, 133, 134.
Spice Islands, 98.
Steamer Point, 59, 61.
Stonecutter's Island, 137.
Straits Settlements, 51, 95, 105–113, 119, 124, 125, 126, 183.

Suez Canal, 48, 61, 62.
Sukadana, 100, 103.
Sulu, Sultan of, 104.
Sumatra, 95, 98, 99, 100, 101, 126.
Sungei Ujong, 96, 103, 121, 122, 123, 124.
Syracuse, 14 *n*.

Taiwan, 134.
Tamankaduwa, 87.
Tamarida, 63.
Tamil Coolies, 119.
Tamils, 67, 81 *n*., 82, 86, 87, 110, 119 *n*
Taprobane, 65 and *n*., 66.
Tarifa, 8.
Tarik, 8.
Tarik's Hill, 8.
Telamon, 33.
Teluk Anson, 116.
Templars, Knights, 37.
Teucer, 33.
Thaipeng, 116.
Thothmes III, 33.
Tientsin, Treaty of, 135.
Tiku, 101.
Tippoo Sahib, 152.
Titolati, the, 27.
Tönning, 5.
Torrington, Lord, 72.
Trajan, 36.
Trincomalee, 71, 75, 86.
Trincomalee, Bay of, 74, 88.
Tringanu, 96.
Tripoli, 19.
Tristan d'Acunha, 56.
Trois Frères, 180.
Tromelin, 180.
Troodos, Mount, 42, 43.
Turks, 19, 20, 28, 31, 38, 39, 40, 44, 47.
Tyre, 14, 34, 35.
Tytam, 138.

Ujong Salang, 99 *n*.
Ulu Bernam, 121, 122.
Ulu Langat, 122.
Ulu Selangor, 121, 122.
Upper Perak, 116 and *n*., 118.
Utica, 14.
Utrecht, treaty of, 9.
Uvah, 85, 86.

Valletta, 19, 20, 21, 25, 26, 28, 29.
Vandals, 16.
Van Diemen, 179 *n*.
Varthema of Bologna, 56, 69, 99 *n*.
Varoshia, 46.
Vavoniya Valankulam, 87.
Veddahs, 66, 83, 86.
Venice, 31, 37.
Victoria (Hong Kong), 137, 138, 139.
Victoria (Labuan), 127.
Victoria Peak, the, 137.
Vignacourt, 19.
Vilayet system, the, 38.
Vittoriosa, 29.

Weser, the, 5.
Wijayo, 66.
Wilhelmshaven, 5.
Windmill Hill Plateau, 10.

Xavier, 111.
Xerxes, 34.

Yau-ma-ti, 137.
Yemen, 54, 55, 57.
Yoda Ela Canal, the 78.

THE END.

Clarendon Press, Oxford.

A SELECTION OF

BOOKS

PUBLISHED FOR THE UNIVERSITY BY

HENRY FROWDE,

AT THE OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS WAREHOUSE,
AMEN CORNER, LONDON.

ALSO TO BE HAD AT THE
CLARENDON PRESS DEPOSITORY, OXFORD.

[*Every book is bound in cloth, unless otherwise described.*]

LEXICONS, GRAMMARS, ORIENTAL WORKS, &c.

ANGLO-SAXON.—*An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary*, based on the MS. Collections of the late Joseph Bosworth, D.D., Professor of Anglo-Saxon, Oxford. Edited and enlarged by Prof. T. N. Toller, M.A. (To be completed in four parts.) Parts I-III. A—SAR. 4to. 15*s*. each.

ARABIC.—*A Practical Arabic Grammar*. Part I. Compiled by A. O. Green, Brigade Major, Royal Engineers, Author of 'Modern Arabic Stories.' Second Edition, Enlarged and Revised. Crown 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

CHINESE.—*A Handbook of the Chinese Language*. By James Summers. 1863. 8vo. half bound, 1*l*. 8*s*.

—— *A Record of Buddhistic Kingdoms*, by the Chinese Monk FÂ-HIEN. Translated and annotated by James Legge, M.A., LL.D. Crown 4to. cloth back, 10*s*. 6*d*.

ENGLISH.—*A NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY, ON HISTORICAL PRINCIPLES:* founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, LL.D., with the assistance of many Scholars and men of Science. Vol. I. A and B. Imperial 4to. half Morocco, 2*l*. 12*s*. 6*d*.

Part IV, Section II, C—CASS. Beginning of Vol. II, 5*s*.
Part V, CASS—COL. *In the Press.*

Vol. III. (E, F, and G.) *in Preparation*, under the direction of Mr. HENRY BRADLEY.

ENGLISH.—*An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language.* By W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. *Second Edition.* 1884. 4to. 2*l.* 4*s.*

——Supplement to the First Edition of the above. 4to. 2*s.* 6*d.*

—— *A Concise Etymological Dictionary of the English Language.* By W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. *Third Edition.* 1887. Crown 8vo. 5*s.* 6*d.*

GREEK.—*A Greek-English Lexicon*, by Henry George Liddell, D.D., and Robert Scott, D.D. Seventh Edition, Revised and Augmented throughout. 1883. 4to. 1*l.* 16*s.*

—— *A Greek-English Lexicon*, abridged from Liddell and Scott's 4to. edition, chiefly for the use of Schools. Twenty-first Edition. 1884. Square 12mo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

—— *A copious Greek-English Vocabulary*, compiled from the best authorities. 1850. 24mo. 3*s.*

—— *A Practical Introduction to Greek Accentuation*, by H. W. Chandler, M.A. Second Edition. 1881. 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

HEBREW.—*The Book of Hebrew Roots*, by Abu 'l-Walîd Marwân ibn Janâh, otherwise called Rabbî Yônâh. Now first edited, with an Appendix, by Ad. Neubauer. 1875. 4to. 2*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*

—— *A Treatise on the use of the Tenses in Hebrew.* By S. R. Driver, D.D. Second Edition. 1881. Extra fcap. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Hebrew Accentuation of Psalms, Proverbs, and Job.* By William Wickes, D.D. 1881. Demy 8vo. 5*s.*

—— *A Treatise on the Accentuation of the twenty-one so-called Prose Books of the Old Testament.* By William Wickes, D.D. 1887. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

ICELANDIC.—*An Icelandic-English Dictionary*, based on the MS. collections of the late Richard Cleasby. Enlarged and completed by G. Vigfússon, M.A. With an Introduction, and Life of Richard Cleasby, by G. Webbe Dasent, D.C.L. 1874. 4to. 3*l.* 7*s.*

—— *A List of English Words the Etymology of which is illustrated by comparison with Icelandic.* Prepared in the form of an APPENDIX to the above. By W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. 1876. stitched, 2*s.*

—— *An Icelandic Primer*, with Grammar, Notes, and Glossary. By Henry Sweet, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

—— *An Icelandic Prose Reader*, with Notes, Grammar and Glossary, by Dr. Gudbrand Vigfússon and F. York Powell, M.A. 1879. Extra fcap. 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

LATIN.—*A Latin Dictionary*, founded on Andrews' edition of Freund's Latin Dictionary, revised, enlarged, and in great part rewritten by Charlton T. Lewis, Ph.D., and Charles Short, LL.D. 1879. 4to. 1*l.* 5*s.*

MELANESIAN.—*The Melanesian Languages.* By R. H. Codrington, D.D., of the Melanesian Mission. 8vo. 18*s.*

SANSKRIT.—*A Practical Grammar of the Sanskrit Language,* arranged with reference to the Classical Languages of Europe, for the use of English Students, by Sir M. Monier-Williams, M.A. Fourth Edition. 8vo. 15*s.*

—— *A Sanskrit-English Dictionary,* Etymologically and Philologically arranged, with special reference to Greek, Latin, German, Anglo-Saxon, English, and other cognate Indo-European Languages. By Sir M. Monier-Williams, M.A. 1888. 4to. 4*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Nalopákhyánam.* Story of Nala, an Episode of the Mahá-Bhárata: the Sanskrit text, with a copious Vocabulary, and an improved version of Dean Milman's Translation, by Sir M. Monier-Williams, M.A. Second Edition, Revised and Improved. 1879. 8vo. 15*s.*

—— *Sakuntalā.* A Sanskrit Drama, in Seven Acts. Edited by Sir M. Monier-Williams, M.A. Second Edition, 1876. 8vo. 21*s.*

SYRIAC.—*Thesaurus Syriacus:* collegerunt Quatremère, Bernstein, Lorsbach, Arnoldi, Agrell, Field, Roediger: edidit R. Payne Smith, S.T.P. Fasc. I–VI. 1868–83. sm. fol. each, 1*l.* 1*s.* Fasc. VII. 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. I, containing Fasc. I–V, sm. fol. 5*l.* 5*s.*

—— *The Book of Kalīlah and Dimnah.* Translated from Arabic into Syriac. Edited by W. Wright, LL.D. 1884. 8vo. 21*s.*

GREEK CLASSICS, &c.

Aristophanes: A Complete Concordance to the Comedies and Fragments. By Henry Dunbar, M.D. 4to. 1*l.* 1*s.*

Aristotle: The Politics, with Introductions, Notes, etc., by W. L. Newman, M.A., Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. Vols. I. and II. Medium 8vo. 28*s.*

Aristotle: The Politics, translated into English, with Introduction, Marginal Analysis, Notes, and Indices, by B. Jowett, M.A. Medium 8vo. 2 vols. 21*s.*

Catalogus Codicum Graecorum Sinaiticorum. Scripsit V. Gardthausen Lipsiensis. With six pages of Facsimiles. 8vo. *linen,* 25*s.*

Heracliti Ephesii Reliquiae. Recensuit I. Bywater, M.A. Appendicis loco additae sunt Diogenis Laertii Vita Heracliti, Particulae Hippocratei De Diaeta Libri Primi, Epistolae Heracliteae. 1877. 8vo. 6*s.*

Herculanensium Voluminum Partes II. 1824. 8vo. 10*s.*

Fragmenta Herculanensia. A Descriptive Catalogue of the Oxford copies of the Herculanean Rolls, together with the texts of several papyri, accompanied by facsimiles. Edited by Walter Scott, M.A., Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. Royal 8vo. *cloth*, 21*s*.

Homer: A Complete Concordance to the Odyssey and Hymns of Homer; to which is added a Concordance to the Parallel Passages in the Iliad, Odyssey, and Hymns. By Henry Dunbar, M.D. 1880. 4to. 1*l*. 1*s*.

—— *Scholia Graeca in Iliadem.* Edited by Professor W. Dindorf, after a new collation of the Venetian MSS. by D. B. Monro, M.A., Provost of Oriel College. 4 vols. 8vo. 2*l*. 10*s*. Vols. V and VI. *Just ready.*

—— *Scholia Graeca in Odysseam.* Edidit Guil. Dindorfius. Tomi II. 1855. 8vo. 15*s*. 6*d*.

Plato: Apology, with a revised Text and English Notes, and a Digest of Platonic Idioms, by James Riddell, M.A. 1878. 8vo. 8*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Philebus,* with a revised Text and English Notes, by Edward Poste, M.A. 1860. 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Sophistes and Politicus,* with a revised Text and English Notes, by L. Campbell, M.A. 1867. 8vo. 18*s*.

—— *Theaetetus,* with a revised Text and English Notes, by L. Campbell, M.A. Second Edition. 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

—— *The Dialogues,* translated into English, with Analyses and Introductions, by B. Jowett, M.A. A new Edition in 5 volumes, medium 8vo. 1875. 3*l*. 10*s*.

—— *The Republic,* translated into English, with Introduction, Analysis, Marginal Analysis, and Index, by B. Jowett, M.A. Third Edition. Medium 8vo. cloth, 12*s*. 6*d*. Half roan, 14*s*.

Thucydides: Translated into English, with Introduction, Marginal Analysis, Notes, and Indices. By B. Jowett, M.A. 2 vols. 1881. Medium 8vo. 1*l*. 12*s*.

THE HOLY SCRIPTURES, &c.

STUDIA BIBLICA.—Essays in Biblical Archæology and Criticism, and kindred subjects. By Members of the University of Oxford. 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

ENGLISH.—*The Holy Bible in the earliest English Versions,* made from the Latin Vulgate by John Wycliffe and his followers: edited by the Rev. J. Forshall and Sir F. Madden. 4 vols. 1850. Royal 4to. 3*l*. 3*s*.

[Also reprinted from the above, with Introduction and Glossary by W. W. Skeat, Litt. D.

ENGLISH.—*The Books of Job, Psalms, Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and the Song of Solomon:* according to the Wycliffite Version made by Nicholas de Hereford, about A.D. 1381, and Revised by John Purvey, about A.D. 1388. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

—— *The New Testament in English*, according to the Version by John Wycliffe, about A.D. 1380, and Revised by John Purvey, about A.D. 1388. Extra fcap. 8vo. 6*s*.]

—— *The Holy Bible:* an exact reprint, page for page, of the Authorised Version published in the year 1611. Demy 4to. half bound, 1*l*. 1*s*.

—— *The Psalter, or Psalms of David, and certain Canticles*, with a Translation and Exposition in English, by Richard Rolle of Hampole. Edited by H. R. Bramley, M.A., Fellow of S. M. Magdalen College, Oxford. With an Introduction and Glossary. Demy 8vo. 1*l*. 1*s*.

—— *Lectures on the Book of Job.* Delivered in Westminster Abbey by the Very Rev. George Granville Bradley, D.D., Dean of Westminster. Crown 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Lectures on Ecclesiastes.* By the same Author. Crown 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

GOTHIC.—*The Gospel of St. Mark in Gothic*, according to the translation made by Wulfila in the Fourth Century. Edited with a Grammatical Introduction and Glossarial Index by W. W. Skeat, Litt. D. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*.

GREEK.—*Vetus Testamentum* ex Versione Septuaginta Interpretum secundum exemplar Vaticanum Romae editum. Accedit potior varietas Codicis Alexandrini. Tomi III. Editio Altera. 18mo. 18*s*. The volumes may be had separately, price 6*s*. each.

—— *Origenis Hexaplorum* quae supersunt; sive, Veterum Interpretum Graecorum in totum Vetus Testamentum Fragmenta. Edidit Fridericus Field, A.M. 2 vols. 1875. 4to. 5*l*. 5*s*.

—— *The Book of Wisdom:* the Greek Text, the Latin Vulgate, and the Authorised English Version; with an Introduction, Critical Apparatus, and a Commentary. By William J. Deane, M.A. Small 4to. 12*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Novum Testamentum Graece.* Antiquissimorum Codicum Textus in ordine parallelo dispositi. Accedit collatio Codicis Sinaitici. Edidit E. H. Hansell, S.T.B. Tomi III. 1864. 8vo. 24*s*.

—— *Novum Testamentum Graece.* Accedunt parallela S. Scripturae loca, etc. Edidit Carolus Lloyd, S.T.P.R. 18mo. 3*s*.

On writing paper, with wide margin, 10*s*.

GREEK.—*Novum Testamentum Graece* juxta Exemplar Millianum. 18mo. 2*s*. 6*d*. **On writing paper,** with wide margin, 9*s*.

—— *Evangelia Sacra Graece.* Fcap. 8vo. limp, 1*s*. 6*d*.

—— *The Greek Testament*, with the Readings adopted by the Revisers of the Authorised Version:—

(1) Pica type, with Marginal References. Demy 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.
(2) Long Primer type. Fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.
(3) The same, on writing paper, with wide margin, 15*s*.

—— *The Parallel New Testament*, Greek and English; being the Authorised Version, 1611; the Revised Version, 1881; and the Greek Text followed in the Revised Version. 8vo. 12*s*. 6*d*.

The Revised Version is the joint property of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

—— *Canon Muratorianus:* the earliest Catalogue of the Books of the New Testament. Edited with Notes and a Facsimile of the MS. in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, by S. P. Tregelles, LL.D. 1867. 4to. 10*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Outlines of Textual Criticism applied to the New Testament.* By C. E. Hammond, M.A. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

HEBREW, etc.—*Notes on the Hebrew Text of the Book of Genesis.* With Two Appendices. By G. J. Spurrell, M.A. Crown 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

—— *The Psalms in Hebrew without points.* 1879. Crown 8vo. Price reduced to 2*s*., in stiff cover.

—— *A Commentary on the Book of Proverbs.* Attributed to Abraham Ibn Ezra. Edited from a MS. in the Bodleian Library by S. R. Driver, M.A. Crown 8vo. paper covers, 3*s*. 6*d*.

—— *The Book of Tobit.* A Chaldee Text, from a unique MS. in the Bodleian Library; with other Rabbinical Texts, English Translations, and the Itala. Edited by Ad. Neubauer, M.A. 1878. Crown 8vo. 6*s*.

—— *Horae Hebraicae et Talmudicae*, a J. Lightfoot. A new Edition, by R. Gandell, M.A. 4 vols. 1859. 8vo. 1*l*. 1*s*.

LATIN.—*Libri Psalmorum* Versio antiqua Latina, cum Paraphrasi Anglo-Saxonica. Edidit B. Thorpe, F.A.S. 1835. 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Old-Latin Biblical Texts: No. I.* The Gospel according to St. Matthew from the St. Germain MS. (g_1). Edited with Introduction and Appendices by John Wordsworth, D.D. Small 4to., stiff covers, 6*s*.

—— *Old-Latin Biblical Texts: No. II.* Portions of the Gospels according to St. Mark and St. Matthew, from the Bobbio MS. (k), &c. Edited by John Wordsworth, D.D., W. Sanday, M.A., D.D., and H. J. White, M.A. Small 4to., stiff covers, 21*s*.

LATIN.—*Old-Latin Biblical Texts: No. III.* The Four Gospels, from the Munich MS. (q), now numbered Lat. 6224 in the Royal Library at Munich. With a Fragment from St. John in the Hof-Bibliothek at Vienna (Cod. Lat. 502). Edited, with the aid of Tischendorf's transcript (under the direction of the Bishop of Salisbury), by H. J. White, M.A. Small 4to. stiff covers, 12*s.* 6*d.*

OLD-FRENCH.—*Libri Psalmorum* Versio antiqua Gallica e Cod. MS. in Bibl. Bodleiana adservato, una cum Versione Metrica aliisque Monumentis pervetustis. Nunc primum descripsit et edidit Franciscus Michel, Phil. Doc. 1860. 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

FATHERS OF THE CHURCH, &c.

St. Athanasius: Historical Writings, according to the Benedictine Text. With an Introduction by William Bright, D.D. 1881. Crown 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Orations against the Arians.* With an Account of his Life by William Bright, D.D. 1873. Crown 8vo. 9*s.*

St. Augustine: Select Anti-Pelagian Treatises, and the Acts of the Second Council of Orange. With an Introduction by William Bright, D.D. Crown 8vo. 9*s.*

Canons of the First Four General Councils of Nicaea, Constantinople, Ephesus, and Chalcedon. 1877. Crown 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Notes on the Canons of the First Four General Councils.* By William Bright, D.D. 1882. Crown 8vo. 5*s.* 6*d.*

Cyrilli Archiepiscopi Alexandrini in XII Prophetas. Edidit P. E. Pusey, A.M. Tomi II. 1868. 8vo. cloth, 2*l.* 2*s.*

—— *in D. Joannis Evangelium.* Accedunt Fragmenta varia necnon Tractatus ad Tiberium Diaconum duo. Edidit post Aubertum P. E. Pusey, A.M. Tomi III. 1872. 8vo. 2*l.* 5*s.*

—— *Commentarii in Lucae Evangelium* quae supersunt Syriace. E MSS. apud Mus. Britan. edidit R. Payne Smith, A.M. 1858. 4to. 1*l.* 2*s.*

—— Translated by R. Payne Smith, M.A. 2 vols. 1859. 8vo. 14*s.*

Ephraemi Syri, Rabulae Episcopi Edesseni, Balaei, aliorumque Opera Selecta. E Codd. Syriacis MSS. in Museo Britannico et Bibliotheca Bodleiana asservatis primus edidit J. J. Overbeck. 1865. 8vo. 1*l.* 1*s.*

Eusebius' Ecclesiastical History, according to the text of Burton, with an Introduction by William Bright, D.D. 1881. Crown 8vo. 8*s*. 6*d*.

Irenaeus: The Third Book of St. Irenaeus, Bishop of Lyons, against Heresies. With short Notes and a Glossary by H. Deane, B.D. 1874. Crown 8vo. 5*s*. 6*d*.

Patrum Apostolicorum, S. Clementis Romani, S. Ignatii, S. Polycarpi, quae supersunt. Edidit Guil. Jacobson, S.T.P.R. Tomi II. Fourth Edition, 1863. 8vo. 1*l*. 1*s*.

Socrates' Ecclesiastical History, according to the Text of Hussey, with an Introduction by William Bright, D.D. 1878. Crown 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, &c.

Ancient Liturgy of the Church of England, according to the uses of Sarum, York, Hereford, and Bangor, and the Roman Liturgy arranged in parallel columns, with preface and notes. By William Maskell, M.A. Third Edition. 1882. 8vo. 15*s*.

Baedae Historia Ecclesiastica. Edited, with English Notes, by G. H. Moberly, M.A. 1881. Crown 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Bright (W.). Chapters of Early English Church History. Second Edition. 8vo. 12*s*.

Burnet's History of the Reformation of the Church of England. A new Edition. Carefully revised, and the Records collated with the originals, by N. Pocock, M.A. 7 vols. 1865. 8vo. *Price reduced to* 1*l*. 10*s*.

Councils and Ecclesiastical Documents relating to Great Britain and Ireland. Edited, after Spelman and Wilkins, by A. W. Haddan, B.D., and W. Stubbs, M.A. Vols. I. and III. 1869–71. Medium 8vo. each 1*l*. 1*s*.

Vol. II. Part I. 1873. Medium 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. II. Part II. 1878. Church of Ireland; Memorials of St. Patrick. Stiff covers, 3*s*. 6*d*.

Hamilton (John, Archbishop of St. Andrews), The Catechism of. Edited, with Introduction and Glossary, by Thomas Graves Law. With a Preface by the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone. 8vo. 12*s*. 6*d*.

Hammond (C. E.). Liturgies, Eastern and Western. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Liturgical Glossary. 1878. Crown 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

An Appendix to the above. 1879. Crown 8vo. paper covers, 1*s*. 6*d*.

John, Bishop of Ephesus. The Third Part of his Ecclesiastical History. [In Syriac.] Now first edited by William Cureton, M.A. 1853. 4to. 1*l*. 12*s*.

—— Translated by R. Payne Smith, M.A. 1860. 8vo. 10*s*.

Leofric Missal, The, as used in the Cathedral of Exeter during the Episcopate of its first Bishop, A.D. 1050-1072; together with some Account of the Red Book of Derby, the Missal of Robert of Jumièges, and a few other early MS. Service Books of the English Church. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by F. E. Warren, B.D. 4to. half morocco, 35*s.*

Monumenta Ritualia Ecclesiae Anglicanae. The occasional Offices of the Church of England according to the old use of Salisbury, the Prymer in English, and other prayers and forms, with dissertations and notes. By William Maskell, M.A. Second Edition. 1882. 3 vols. 8vo. 2*l.* 10*s.*

Records of the Reformation. The Divorce, 1527–1533. Mostly now for the first time printed from MSS. in the British Museum and other libraries. Collected and arranged by N. Pocock, M.A. 1870. 2 vols. 8vo 1*l.* 16*s.*

Shirley (*W. W.*). *Some Account of the Church in the Apostolic Age.* Second Edition, 1874. Fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

Stubbs (*W.*). *Registrum Sacrum Anglicanum.* An attempt to exhibit the course of Episcopal Succession in England. 1858. Small 4to. 8*s.* 6*d.*

Warren (*F. E.*). *Liturgy and Ritual of the Celtic Church.* 1881. 8vo. 14*s.*

ENGLISH THEOLOGY.

Bampton Lectures, 1886. *The Christian Platonists of Alexandria.* By Charles Bigg, D.D. 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Butler's Works, with an Index to the Analogy. 2 vols. 1874. 8vo. 11*s.*

Also separately,

Sermons, 5*s.* 6*d.* *Analogy of Religion*, 5*s.* 6*d.*

Greswell's Harmonia Evangelica. Fifth Edition. 8vo. 9*s.* 6*d.*

Heurtley's Harmonia Symbolica: Creeds of the Western Church. 1858. 8vo. 6*s.* 6*d.*

Homilies appointed to be read in Churches. Edited by J. Griffiths, M.A. 1859. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Hooker's Works, with his life by Walton, arranged by John Keble, M.A. Seventh Edition. *Revised by R. W. Church, M.A., D.C.L., Dean of St. Paul's, and F. Paget, D.D.* 3 vols. medium 8vo. 36*s.*

Jewel's Works. Edited by R. W. Jelf, D.D. 8 vols. 1848. 8vo. 1*l.* 10*s.*

Pearson's Exposition of the Creed. Revised and corrected by E. Burton, D.D. Sixth Edition, 1877. 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Waterland's Review of the Doctrine of the Eucharist, with a Preface by the late Bishop of London. Crown 8vo. 6*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Works*, with Life, by Bp. Van Mildert. A new Edition, with copious Indexes. 6 vols. 1856. 8vo. 2*l*. 11*s*.

Wheatly's Illustration of the Book of Common Prayer. A new Edition, 1846. 8vo. 5*s*.

Wyclif. A Catalogue of the Original Works of John Wyclif, by W. W. Shirley, D.D. 1865. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Select English Works.* By T. Arnold, M.A. 3 vols. 1869-1871. 8vo. 1*l*. 1*s*.

—— *Trialogus.* With the Supplement now first edited. By Gotthard Lechler. 1869. 8vo. 7*s*.

HISTORICAL AND DOCUMENTARY WORKS.

British Barrows, a Record of the Examination of Sepulchral Mounds in various parts of England. By William Greenwell, M.A., F.S.A. Together with Description of Figures of Skulls, General Remarks on Prehistoric Crania, and an Appendix by George Rolleston, M.D., F.R.S. 1877. Medium 8vo. 25*s*.

Clarendon's History of the Rebellion and Civil Wars in England. Re-edited from a fresh Collation of the Original MS. in the Bodleian Library, with Marginal Dates, and Occasional Notes, by W. Dunn Macray, M.A., F.S.A. In six volumes, crown 8vo. *cloth*, 2*l*. 5*s*.

Clarendon's History of the Rebellion and Civil Wars in England. Also his Life, written by himself, in which is included a Continuation of his History of the Grand Rebellion. With copious Indexes. In one volume, royal 8vo. 1842. 1*l*. 2*s*. [See p. 20.]

Clinton's Epitome of the Fasti Hellenici. 1851. 8vo. 6*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Epitome of the Fasti Romani.* 1854. 8vo. 7*s*.

Corpvs Poeticvm Boreale. The Poetry of the Old Northern Tongue, from the Earliest Times to the Thirteenth Century. Edited, classified, and translated, with Introduction, Excursus, and Notes, by Gudbrand Vigfússon, M.A., and F. York Powell, M.A. 2 vols. 1883. 8vo. 42*s*.

Earle (J., M.A.). A Handbook to the Land-Charters, and other Saxonic Documents. Crown 8vo. *cloth*, 16*s*.

Freeman (E. A.). History of the Norman Conquest of England; its Causes and Results. In Six Volumes. 8vo. 5*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.*

—— *The Reign of William Rufus and the Accession of* Henry the First. 2 vols. 8vo. 1*l.* 16*s.*

Gascoigne's Theological Dictionary ("Liber Veritatum"): Selected Passages, illustrating the condition of Church and State, 1403–1458. With an Introduction by James E. Thorold Rogers, M.A. Small 4to. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Johnson (Samuel, LL.D.), Boswell's Life of; including Boswell's Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides, and Johnson's Diary of a Journey into North Wales. Edited by G. Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L. In six volumes, medium 8vo. With Portraits and Facsimiles of Handwriting. Half bound, 3*l.* 3*s.* (See p. 21.)

Magna Carta, a careful Reprint. Edited by W. Stubbs, D.D. 1879. 4to. stitched, 1*s.*

Passio et Miracula Beati Olaui. Edited from a Twelfth-Century MS. in the Library of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, by Frederick Metcalfe, M.A. Small 4to. stiff covers, 6*s.*

Protests of the Lords, including those which have been expunged, from 1624 to 1874; with Historical Introductions. Edited by James E. Thorold Rogers, M.A. 1875. 3 vols. 8vo. 2*l.* 2*s.*

Rogers (J. E. T.). History of Agriculture and Prices in England, A.D. 1259–1793.

Vols. I—VI (1259–1702). 8vo. 7*l.* 2*s.*

—— *The First Nine Years of the Bank of England.* 8vo. 8*s.* 6*d.*

Stubbs (W., D.D.). Seventeen Lectures on the Study of Medieval and Modern History, &c., delivered at Oxford 1867–1884. Crown 8vo. 8*s.* 6*d.*

Sturlunga Saga, including the Islendinga Saga of Lawman Sturla Thordsson and other works. Edited by Dr. Gudbrand Vigfússon. In 2 vols. 1878. 8vo. 2*l.* 2*s.*

York Plays. The Plays performed by the Crafts or Mysteries of York on the day of Corpus Christi in the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries. Now first printed from the unique MS. in the Library of Lord Ashburnham. Edited with Introduction and Glossary by Lucy Toulmin Smith. 8vo. 21*s.*

Manuscript Materials relating to the History of Oxford. Arranged by F. Madan, M.A. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Statutes of the University of Oxford, codified in the year 1636 under the authority of Archbishop Laud. Edited by the late J. Griffiths, D.D., with an Introduction on the History of the Laudian Code, by C. L. Shadwell, M.A., B.C.L. 4to. 1*l.* 1*s.*

Statutes made for the University of Oxford, and for the Colleges and Halls therein, by the University of Oxford Commissioners. 1882. 8vo. 12*s.* 6*d.*

Statutes supplementary to the above, approved by the Queen in Council, 1882–1888. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Statuta Universitatis Oxoniensis. 1888. 8vo. 5*s.*

Oxford University Calendar for the Year 1889. Crown. 8vo. 6*s.*

Supplement to the University Calendar.

The Historical Register of the University of Oxford. Being a Supplement to the Oxford University Calendar, with an Alphabetical Record of University Honours and Distinctions, completed to the end of Trinity Term, 1888. Crown 8vo. 5*s.* *Just published.*

The Examination Statutes; together with the present Regulations of the Boards of Studies and Boards of Faculties relating thereto; and the subjects proposed for University Prizes for the year 1889. Revised to the end of Trinity Term, 1888. 8vo. sewed, 1*s.*

The Student's Handbook to the University and Colleges of Oxford. Crown 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

MATHEMATICS, PHYSICAL SCIENCE, &c.

Acland (H. W., M.D., F.R.S.). Synopsis of the Pathological Series in the Oxford Museum. 1867. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Annals of Botany. Edited by Isaac Bayley Balfour, M.A., M.D., F.R.S., Sydney H. Vines, D.Sc., F.R.S., and William Gilson Farlow, M.D., Professor of Cryptogamic Botany in Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., U.S.A., and other Botanists. Royal 8vo. Vol. I.—Parts I–IV, half morocco, 1*l.* 16*s.*

Vol. II.—Part V, 10*s.* 6*d.*; Part VI, 7*s.* 6*d.*

Burdon-Sanderson (J., M.D., F.R.SS. L. and E.). Translations of Foreign Biological Memoirs. I. Memoirs on the Physiology of Nerve, of Muscle, and of the Electrical Organ. Medium 8vo. 21*s.*

De Bary (Dr. A.). Comparative Anatomy of the Vegetative Organs of the Phanerogams and Ferns. Translated and Annotated by F. O. Bower, M.A., F.L.S., and D. H. Scott, M.A., Ph.D., F.L.S. With 241 woodcuts and an Index. Royal 8vo., half morocco, 1*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*

De Bary (*Dr. A.*) *Comparative Morphology and Biology of the Fungi Mycetozoa and Bacteria.* Authorised English Translation by Henry E. F. Garnsey, M.A. Revised by Isaac Bayley Balfour, M.A., M.D., F.R.S. With 198 Woodcuts. Royal 8vo., half morocco, 1*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Lectures on Bacteria.* Second improved edition. Authorised translation by H. E. F. Garnsey, M.A. Revised by Isaac Bayley Balfour, M.A., M.D., F.R.S. With 20 Woodcuts. Crown 8vo. 6*s*.

Goebel (*Dr. K.*). *Outlines of Classification and Special Morphology of Plants.* A New Edition of Sachs' Text Book of Botany, Book II. English Translation by H. E. F. Garnsey, M.A. Revised by I. Bayley Balfour, M.A., M.D., F.R.S. With 407 Woodcuts. Royal 8vo. half morocco, 21*s*.

Müller (*J.*). *On certain Variations in the Vocal Organs of the Passeres that have hitherto escaped notice.* Translated by F. J. Bell, B.A., and edited, with an Appendix, by A. H. Garrod, M.A., F.R.S. With Plates. 1878. 4to. paper covers, 7*s*. 6*d*.

Price (*Bartholomew, M.A., F.R.S.*). *Treatise on Infinitesimal Calculus.*

Vol. I. Differential Calculus. Second Edition. 8vo. 14*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. II. Integral Calculus, Calculus of Variations, and Differential Equations. Second Edition, 1865. 8vo. 18*s*.

Vol. III. Statics, including Attractions; Dynamics of a Material Particle. Second Edition, 1868. 8vo. 16*s*.

Vol. IV. Dynamics of Material Systems; together with a chapter on Theoretical Dynamics, by W. F. Donkin, M.A., F.R.S. 1862. 8vo. 16*s*.

Pritchard (*C., D.D., F.R.S.*). *Uranometria Nova Oxoniensis.* A Photometric determination of the magnitudes of all Stars visible to the naked eye, from the Pole to ten degrees south of the Equator. 1885. Royal 8vo. 8*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Astronomical Observations* made at the University Observatory, Oxford, under the direction of C. Pritchard, D.D. No. 1. 1878. Royal 8vo. paper covers, 3*s*. 6*d*.

Rigaud's Correspondence of Scientific Men of the 17th Century, with Table of Contents by A. de Morgan, and Index by the Rev. J. Rigaud, M.A. 2 vols. 1841–1862. 8vo. 18*s*. 6*d*.

Rolleston (*George, M.D., F.R.S.*). *Forms of Animal Life.* A Manual of Comparative Anatomy, with descriptions of selected types. Second Edition. Revised and enlarged by W. Hatchett Jackson, M.A. Medium, 8vo. cloth extra, 1*l*. 16*s*.

—— *Scientific Papers and Addresses.* Arranged and Edited by William Turner, M.B., F.R.S. With a Biographical Sketch by Edward Tylor, F.R.S. With Portrait, Plates, and Woodcuts. 2 vols. 8vo. 1*l*. 4*s*.

Sachs (*Julius von*). *Lectures on the Physiology of Plants.* Translated by H. Marshall Ward, M.A. With 445 Woodcuts. Royal 8vo. half morocco, 1*l*. 11*s*. 6*d*.

Westwood (J. O., M.A., F.R.S.). Thesaurus Entomologicus Hopeianus, or a Description of the rarest Insects in the Collection given to the University by the Rev. William Hope. With 40 Plates. 1874. Small folio, half morocco, 7*l.* 10*s.*

The Sacred Books of the East.

TRANSLATED BY VARIOUS ORIENTAL SCHOLARS, AND EDITED BY F. MAX MÜLLER.

[Demy 8vo. cloth.]

Vol. I. The Upanishads. Translated by F. Max Müller. Part I. The *Kh*ândogya-upanishad, The [illegible]ara-upanishad, The Aitareya-âra*n*[illegible]ka, The Kaushîtaki-brâhma*n*a-upa[illegible] and The Vâgasaneyi-sa*m*hitâ-upanishad. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. II. The Sacred Laws of the Âryas, as taught in the Schools of Âpastamba, Gautama, Vâsish*th*a, and Baudhâyana. Translated by Prof. Georg Bühler. Part I. Âpastamba and Gautama. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. III. The Sacred Books of China. The Texts of Confucianism. Translated by James Legge. Part I. The Shû King, The Religious portions of the Shih King, and The Hsiâo King. 12*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. IV. The Zend-Avesta. Translated by James Darmesteter. Part I. The Vendîdâd. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. V. The Pahlavi Texts. Translated by E. W. West. Part I. The Bundahi*s*, Bahman Ya*s*t, and Shâyast lâ-shâyast. 12*s.* 6*d.*

Vols. VI and IX. The Qur'ân. Parts I and II. Translated by E. H. Palmer. 21*s.*

Vol. VII. The Institutes of Vish*n*u. Translated by Julius Jolly. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. VIII. The Bhagavadgîtâ, with The Sanatsu*g*âtîya, and The Anugîtâ. Translated by Kâshinâth Trimbak Telang. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. X. The Dhammapada, translated from Pâli by F. Max Müller; and The Sutta-Nipâta, translated from Pâli by V. Fausböll; being Canonical Books of the Buddhists. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. XI. Buddhist Suttas. Translated from Pâli by T. W. Rhys Davids. 1. The Mahâparinibbâna Suttanta; 2. The Dhamma-*k*akka-ppavattana Sutta; 3. The Tevigga Suttanta; 4. The Akañkheyya Sutta; 5. The *K*etokhila Sutta; 6. The Mahâ-sudassana Suttanta; 7. The Sabbâsava Sutta. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XII. The *S*atapatha-Brâhma*n*a, according to the Text of the Mâdhyandina School. Translated by Julius Eggeling. Part I. Books I and II. 12*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XIII. Vinaya Texts. Translated from the Pâli by T. W. Rhys Davids and Hermann Oldenberg. Part I. The Pâtimokkha. The Mahâvagga, I-IV. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XIV. The Sacred Laws of the Âryas, as taught in the Schools of Âpastamba, Gautama, Vâsish*th*a and Baudhâyana. Translated by Georg Bühler. Part II. Vâsish*th*a and Baudhâyana. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XV. The Upanishads. Translated by F. Max Müller. Part II. The Ka*th*a-upanishad, The Mu*nd*aka-upanishad, The Taittirîyaka-upanishad, The B*ri*hadâra*n*yaka-upanishad, The *S*vetasvatara-upanishad, The Pras*n*a-upanishad, and The Maitrâya*n*a-Brâhma*n*a-upanishad. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XVI. The Sacred Books of China. The Texts of Confucianism. Translated by James Legge. Part II. The Yî King. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XVII. Vinaya Texts. Translated from the Pâli by T. W. Rhys Davids and Hermann Oldenberg. Part II. The Mahâvagga, V-X. The *K*ullavagga, I-III. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XVIII. Pahlavi Texts. Translated by E. W. West. Part II. The Dâ*d*istân-î Dînîk and The Epistles of Mânû*sk*îhar. 12*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XIX. The Fo-sho-hing-tsan-king. A Life of Buddha by Asvaghosha Bodhisattva, translated from Sanskrit into Chinese by Dharmaraksha, A.D. 420, and from Chinese into English by Samuel Beal. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XX. Vinaya Texts. Translated from the Pâli by T. W. Rhys Davids and Hermann Oldenberg. Part III. The *K*ullavagga, IV-XII. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XXI. The Saddharma-pu*nd*arîka; or, the Lotus of the True Law. Translated by H. Kern. 12*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XXII. *G*aina-Sûtras. Translated from Prâkrit by Hermann Jacobi. Part I. The Â*k*ârâñga-Sûtra. The Kalpa-Sûtra. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Vol. XXIII. The Zend-Avesta. Translated by James Darmesteter. Part II. The Sîrôzahs, Yasts, and Nyâyis. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. XXIV. Pahlavi Texts. Translated by E. W. West. Part III. Dînâ-î Maînôg-î Khirad, *S*ikand-gûmânîk, and Sad-Dar. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Second Series.

Vol. XXV. Manu. Translated by Georg Bühler. 21*s.*

Vol. XXVI. The *S*atapatha-Brâhma*n*a. Translated by Julius Eggeling. Part II. 12*s.* 6*d.*

Vols. XXVII and XXVIII. The Sacred Books of China. The Texts of Confucianism. Translated by James Legge. Parts III and IV. The Lî *K*î, or Collection of Treatises on the Rules of Propriety, or Ceremonial Usages. 25*s.*

Vols. XXIX and XXX. The G*ri*hya-Sûtras, Rules of Vedic Domestic Ceremonies. Translated by Hermann Oldenberg.

Part I (Vol. XXIX), 12*s.* 6*d.*
Part II (Vol. XXX). *In the Press.*

Vol. XXXI. The Zend-Avesta. Part III. The Yasna, Visparad, Âfrînagân, and Gâhs. Translated by L. H. Mills. 12*s.* 6*d.*

The following Volumes are in the Press:—

Vol. XXXII. Vedic Hymns. Translated by F. Max Müller. Part I.

Vol. XXXIII. Nârada, and some Minor Law-books. Translated by Julius Jolly. [*Preparing.*]

Vol. XXXIV. The Vedânta-Sûtras, with *S*aṅkara's Commentary. Translated by G. Thibaut. [*Preparing.*]

*** *The Second Series will consist of Twenty-Four Volumes.*

Clarendon Press Series.

I. ENGLISH, &c.

An Elementary English Grammar and Exercise Book. By O. W. Tancock, M.A. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 1*s.* 6*d.*

An English Grammar and Reading Book, for Lower Forms in Classical Schools. By O. W. Tancock, M.A. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

Typical Selections from the best English Writers, with Introductory Notices. Second Edition. In 2 vols. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.* each.
Vol. I. Latimer to Berkeley. Vol. II. Pope to Macaulay.

Shairp (J. C., LL.D.). Aspects of Poetry; being Lectures delivered at Oxford. Crown 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

A Book for the Beginner in Anglo-Saxon. By John Earle, M.A. Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

An Anglo-Saxon Reader. In Prose and Verse. With Grammatical Introduction, Notes, and Glossary. By Henry Sweet, M.A. Fourth Edition, Revised and Enlarged. Extra fcap. 8vo. 8*s.* 6*d.*

A Second Anglo-Saxon Reader. By the same Author. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

An Anglo-Saxon Primer, with Grammar, Notes, and Glossary. By the same Author. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Old English Reading Primers; edited by Henry Sweet, M.A.
I. Selected Homilies of Ælfric. Extra fcap. 8vo., stiff covers, 1*s.* 6*d.*
II. Extracts from Alfred's Orosius. Extra fcap. 8vo., stiff covers, 1*s.* 6*d.*

First Middle English Primer, with Grammar and Glossary. By the same Author. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

Second Middle English Primer. Extracts from Chaucer, with Grammar and Glossary. By the same Author. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

A Concise Dictionary of Middle English, from A.D. 1150 to 1580. By A. L. Mayhew, M.A., and W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. Crown 8vo. half roan, 7*s.* 6*d.*

A Handbook of Phonetics, including a Popular Exposition of the Principles of Spelling Reform. By H. Sweet, M.A. Ext. fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

Elementarbuch des Gesprochenen Englisch. Grammatik, Texte und Glossar. Von Henry Sweet. *Second Edition.* Extra fcap. 8vo., stiff covers, 2*s*. 6*d*.

History of English Sounds from the earliest Period. With full Word-Lists. By Henry Sweet, M.A. Demy 8vo. 14*s*.

Principles of English Etymology. First Series. *The Native Element.* By W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. Crown 8vo. 9*s*.

The Philology of the English Tongue. By J. Earle, M.A. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

An Icelandic Primer, with Grammar, Notes, and Glossary. By Henry Sweet, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

An Icelandic Prose Reader, with Notes, Grammar, and Glossary. By G. Vigfússon, M.A., and F. York Powell, M.A. Ext. fcap. 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

The Ormulum; with the Notes and Glossary of Dr. R. M. White. Edited by R. Holt, M.A. 1878. 2 vols. Extra fcap. 8vo. 21*s*.

Specimens of Early English. A New and Revised Edition. With Introduction, Notes, and Glossarial Index.

Part I. By R. Morris, LL.D. From Old English Homilies to King Horn (A.D. 1150 to A.D. 1300). Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 9*s*.

Part II. By R. Morris, LL.D., and W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. From Robert of Gloucester to Gower (A.D. 1298 to A.D. 1393). Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

Specimens of English Literature, from the 'Ploughmans Crede' to the 'Shepheardes Calender' (A.D. 1394 to A.D. 1579). With Introduction, Notes, and Glossarial Index. By W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

The Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman, in three Parallel Texts; together with *Richard the Redeless.* By William Langland (about 1362–1399 A.D.). Edited from numerous Manuscripts, with Preface, Notes, and a Glossary, by W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. 2 vols. 8vo. 31*s*. 6*d*.

The Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman. by William Langland. Edited, with Notes, by W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

Chaucer. I. *The Prologue to the Canterbury Tales;* the Knightes Tale; The Nonne Prestes Tale. Edited by R. Morris, LL.D. Sixty-sixth thousand. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

—— II. *The Prioresses Tale; Sir Thopas; The Monkes Tale; The Clerkes Tale; The Squieres Tale,* &c. Edited by W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

Chaucer. III. *The Tale of the Man of Lawe;* The Pardoneres Tale; The Second Nonnes Tale; The Chanouns Yemannes Tale. By the same Editor. *New Edition, Revised.* Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

—— IV. *Minor Poems.* By the same Editor. Crown 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.* *Just published.*

Gamelyn, The Tale of. Edited with Notes, Glossary, &c., by W. W. Skeat, Litt.D. Extra fcap. 8vo. Stiff covers, 1*s.* 6*d.*

Minot (Laurence). Poems. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Joseph Hall, M.A., Head Master of the Hulme Grammar School, Manchester. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

Spenser's Faery Queene. Books I and II. Designed chiefly for the use of Schools. With Introduction and Notes by G. W. Kitchin, D.D., and Glossary by A. L. Mayhew, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.* each.

Hooker. Ecclesiastical Polity, Book I. Edited by R. W. Church, M.A. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

OLD ENGLISH DRAMA.

The Pilgrimage to Parnassus with *The Two Parts of the Return from Parnassus.* Three Comedies performed in St. John's College, Cambridge, A.D. MDXCVII–MDCI. Edited from MSS. by the Rev. W. D. Macray, M.A., F.S.A. Medium 8vo. Bevelled Boards, Gilt top, 8*s.* 6*d.*

Marlowe and Greene. Marlowe's Tragical History of Dr. Faustus. and *Greene's Honourable History of Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay.* Edited by A. W. Ward, M.A. *New and Enlarged Edition.* Extra fcap. 8vo. 6*s.* 6*d.*

Marlowe. Edward II. With Introduction, Notes, &c. By O. W. Tancock, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. Paper covers, 2*s.* Cloth 3*s.*

SHAKESPEARE.

Shakespeare. Select Plays. Edited by W. G. Clark, M.A., and W. Aldis Wright, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. stiff covers.

The Merchant of Venice. 1*s.*
Richard the Second. 1*s.* 6*d.*
Macbeth. 1*s.* 6*d.*
Hamlet. 2*s.*

Edited by W. Aldis Wright, M.A.

The Tempest. 1*s.* 6*d.*
As You Like It. 1*s.* 6*d.*
Julius Cæsar. 2*s.*
Richard the Third. 2*s.* 6*d.*
King Lear. 1*s.* 6*d.*
Midsummer Night's Dream. 1*s.* 6*d.*
Coriolanus. 2*s.* 6*d.*
Henry the Fifth. 2*s.*
Twelfth Night. 1*s.* 6*d.*
King John. 1*s.* 6*d.*

Shakespeare as a Dramatic Artist; a popular Illustration of the Principles of Scientific Criticism. By R. G. Moulton, M.A. Second Edition. Crown 8vo. 6*s.*

Bacon. I. *Advancement of Learning.* Edited by W. Aldis Wright, M.A. Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

—— II. *The Essays.* With Introduction and Notes. By S. H. Reynolds, M.A., late Fellow of Brasenose College. *In Preparation.*

Milton. I. *Areopagitica.* With Introduction and Notes. By John W. Hales, M.A. Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.*

—— II. *Poems.* Edited by R. C. Browne, M.A. 2 vols. Fifth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 6*s.* 6*d.* Sold separately, Vol. I. 4*s.*; Vol. II. 3*s.*

In paper covers:—

Lycidas, 3*d.* L'Allegro, 3*d.* Il Penseroso, 4*d.* Comus, 6*d.*

—— III. *Paradise Lost.* Book I. Edited by H. C. Beeching. Extra fcap. 8vo. stiff cover, 1*s.* 6*d.*; in white Parchment, 3*s.* 6*d.*

—— IV. *Samson Agonistes.* Edited with Introduction and Notes by John Churton Collins. Extra fcap. 8vo. stiff covers, 1*s.*

Bunyan. I. *The Pilgrim's Progress, Grace Abounding, Relation of the Imprisonment of Mr. John Bunyan.* Edited, with Biographical Introduction and Notes, by E. Venables, M.A. 1879. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s.* In ornamental Parchment, 6*s.*

—— II. *Holy War, &c.* Edited by E. Venables, M.A. In the Press.

Clarendon. *History of the Rebellion.* *Book VI.* Edited by T. Arnold, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.* [See p. 10.]

Dryden. *Select Poems.* Stanzas on the Death of Oliver Cromwell; Astræa Redux; Annus Mirabilis; Absalom and Achitophel; Religio Laici; The Hind and the Panther. Edited by W. D. Christie, M.A. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

Locke's Conduct of the Understanding. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, &c., by T. Fowler, D.D. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

Addison. *Selections from Papers in the Spectator.* With Notes. By T. Arnold, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.* In ornamental Parchment, 6*s.*

Steele. *Selections from the Tatler, Spectator, and Guardian.* Edited by Austin Dobson. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s.* In white Parchment, 7*s.* 6*d.*

Pope. With Introduction and Notes. By Mark Pattison, B.D.

—— I. *Essay on Man.* Extra fcap. 8vo. 1*s.* 6*d.*

—— II. *Satires and Epistles.* Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

Parnell. *The Hermit.* Paper covers, 2*d.*

Gray. *Selected Poems.* Edited by Edmund Gosse. Extra fcap. 8vo. Stiff covers, 1*s.* 6*d.* In white Parchment, 3*s.*

—— *Elegy, and Ode on Eton College.* Paper covers, 2*d.*

Goldsmith. Selected Poems. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Austin Dobson. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.* In white Parchment, 4*s.* 6*d.*

—— *The Traveller.* With Notes by G. Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L. Extra fcap. 8vo. Paper covers, 1*s.*

—— *The Deserted Village.* Paper covers, 2*d.*

Johnson. I. *Rasselas.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by G. Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L. Extra fcap. 8vo. Bevelled boards, 3*s.* 6*d.* In white Parchment, 4*s.* 6*d.*

—— II. *Rasselas; Lives of Dryden and Pope.* Edited by Alfred Milnes, M.A. (London). Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

Lives of Dryden and Pope. Stiff covers, 2*s.* 6*d.*

—— III. *Life of Milton.* Edited, with Notes, etc., by C. H. Firth, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. *cloth,* 2*s.* 6*d.* *Stiff cover,* 1*s.* 6*d.*

—— IV. *Vanity of Human Wishes.* With Notes, by E. J. Payne, M.A. Paper covers, 4*d.*

—— V. *Wit and Wisdom of Samuel Johnson.* Edited by G. Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L. Crown 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

—— VI. *Boswell's Life of Johnson. With the Journal of a Tour to the Hebrides.* Edited, with copious Notes, Appendices, and Index, by G. Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L., Pembroke College. With Portraits and Facsimiles. 6 vols. Medium 8vo. *Half bound,* 3*l.* 3*s.*

Cowper. Edited, with Life, Introductions, and Notes, by H. T. Griffith, B.A.

—— I. *The Didactic Poems of* 1782, with Selections from the Minor Pieces, A.D. 1779–1783. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.*

—— II. *The Task, with Tirocinium,* and Selections from the Minor Poems, A.D. 1784–1799. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.*

Burke. Select Works. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by E. J. Payne, M.A.

—— I. *Thoughts on the Present Discontents; the two Speeches on America.* Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

—— II. *Reflections on the French Revolution.* Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s.*

—— III. *Four Letters on the Proposals for Peace with the* Regicide Directory of France. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s.*

Keats. Hyperion, Book I. With Notes by W. T. Arnold, B.A. Paper covers, 4*d.*

Byron. Childe Harold. Edited, with Introduction and Notes by H. F. Tozer, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.* In white Parchment, 5*s.*

Scott. Lay of the Last Minstrel. Edited with Preface and Notes by W. Minto, M.A. With Map. Extra fcap. 8vo. Stiff covers, 2*s.* Ornamental Parchment, 3*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Lay of the Last Minstrel.* Introduction and Canto I, with Preface and Notes, by the same Editor. 6*d.*

II. LATIN.

Rudimenta Latina. Comprising Accidence, and Exercises of a very Elementary Character, for the use of Beginners. By John Barrow Allen, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

An Elementary Latin Grammar. By the same Author. Fifty-Seventh Thousand. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

A First Latin Exercise Book. By the same Author. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

A Second Latin Exercise Book. By the same Author. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

*** A Key to First and Second Latin Exercise Books, in one volume, price 5*s.* Supplied to *Teachers only* on application to the Secretary of the Clarendon Press.

An Introduction to Latin Syntax. By W. S. Gibson, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

Reddenda Minora, or Easy Passages, Latin and Greek, for Unseen Translation. For the use of Lower Forms. Composed and selected by C. S. Jerram, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 1*s.* 6*d.*

Anglice Reddenda, or Extracts, Latin and Greek, for Unseen Translation. By C. S. Jerram, M.A. Third Edition, Revised and Enlarged. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Anglice Reddenda. Second Series. By the same Author. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.*

A Latin Prose Primer. By J. Y. Sargent, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Passages for Translation into Latin. For the use of Passmen and others. Selected by J. Y. Sargent, M.A. Seventh Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

*** A Key to the above, price 5*s.* Supplied to *Teachers only* on application to the Secretary of the Clarendon Press.

Exercises in Latin Prose Composition; with Introduction, Notes, and Passages of Graduated Difficulty for Translation into Latin. By G. G. Ramsay, M.A., LL.D. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

Hints and Helps for Latin Elegiacs. By H. Lee-Warner, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

*** A Key to the above, price 4*s.* 6*d.* Supplied to *Teachers only* on application to the Secretary of the Clarendon Press.

First Latin Reader. By T. J. Nunns, M.A. Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

Caesar. The Commentaries (for Schools). With Notes and Maps. By Charles E. Moberly, M.A.

The Gallic War. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*
The Gallic War. Books I, II. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*
The Civil War. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*
The Civil War. Book I. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

Cicero. Speeches against Catilina. By E. A. Upcott, M.A., Assistant Master in Wellington College. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Selection of interesting and descriptive passages.* With Notes. By Henry Walford, M.A. In three Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

Each Part separately, limp, 1*s.* 6*d.*

Part I. Anecdotes from Grecian and Roman History. Third Edition.
Part II. Omens and Dreams: Beauties of Nature. Third Edition.
Part III. Rome's Rule of her Provinces. Third Edition.

—— *De Senectute.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by L. Huxley, M.A. In one or two Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

—— *Selected Letters* (for Schools). With Notes. By the late C. E. Prichard, M.A., and E. R. Bernard, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.*

—— *Select Orations* (for Schools). In Verrem I. De Imperio Gn. Pompeii. Pro Archia. Philippica IX. With Introduction and Notes by J. R. King, M.A. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

—— *In Q. Caecilium Divinatio*, and *In C. Verrem Actio Prima.* With Introduction and Notes, by J. R. King, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. limp, 1*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Speeches against Catilina.* With Introduction and Notes, by E. A. Upcott, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Cornelius Nepos. With English Notes. By Oscar Browning, M.A. Third Edition. Revised by W. R. Inge, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.*

Horace. Selected Odes. With Notes for the use of a Fifth Form. By E. C. Wickham, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. *cloth*, 2*s.*

Livy. Selections (for Schools). With Notes and Maps. By H. Lee-Warner, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. In Parts, limp, each 1*s.* 6*d.*

Part I. The Caudine Disaster. Part II. Hannibal's Campaign in Italy. Part III. The Macedonian War.

—— Books V–VII. With Introduction and Notes. By A. R. Cluer, B.A. Revised by P. E. Matheson, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s.*

—— Books XXI, XXII, and XXIII. With Introduction and Notes. By M. T. Tatham, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

—— Book XXII. By the same Editor. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Ovid. Selections for the use of Schools. With Introductions and Notes, and an Appendix on the Roman Calendar. By W. Ramsay, M.A. Edited by G. G. Ramsay, M.A. Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s.* 6*d.*

Ovid. Tristia. Book I. The Text revised, with an Introduction and Notes. By S. G. Owen, B.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

Plautus. Captivi. Edited by W. M. Lindsay, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. (In one or two Parts.) 2*s*. 6*d*.

—— *The Trinummus.* With Notes and Introductions. (Intended for the Higher Forms of Public Schools.) By C. E. Freeman, M.A., and A. Sloman, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

Pliny. Selected Letters (for Schools). With Notes. By the late C. E. Prichard, M.A., and E. R. Bernard, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

Sallust. With Introduction and Notes. By W. W. Capes, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

Tacitus. The Annals. Books I–IV. Edited, with Introduction and Notes (for the use of Schools and Junior Students), by H. Furneaux, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s*.

—— *The Annals.* Book I. With Introduction and Notes, by the same Editor. Extra fcap. 8vo. limp, 2*s*.

Terence. Andria. With Notes and Introductions. By C. E. Freeman, M.A., and A. Sloman, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

—— *Adelphi.* With Notes and Introductions. (Intended for the Higher Forms of Public Schools.) By A. Sloman, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

—— *Phormio.* With Notes and Introductions. By A. Sloman, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

Tibullus and Propertius. Selections. Edited by G. G. Ramsay, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. (In one or two vols.) 6*s*.

Virgil. With Introduction and Notes. By T. L. Papillon, M.A. Two vols. Crown 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*. The Text separately, 4*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Bucolics.* Edited by C. S. Jerram, M.A. In one or two Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Aeneid* I. With Introduction and Notes, by C. S. Jerram, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. limp, 1*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Aeneid* IX. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by A. E. Haigh, M.A., late Fellow of Hertford College, Oxford. Extra fcap. 8vo. limp, 1*s*. 6*d*. In two Parts, 2*s*.

Avianus, The Fables of. Edited, with Prolegomena, Critical Apparatus, Commentary, etc. By Robinson Ellis, M.A., LL.D. Demy 8vo. 8*s*. 6*d*.

Catulli Veronensis Liber. Iterum recognovit, apparatum criticum prolegomena appendices addidit, Robinson Ellis, A.M. 1878. Demy 8vo. 16*s*.

—— *A Commentary on Catullus.* By Robinson Ellis, M.A. 1876. Demy 8vo. 16*s*.

Catulli Veronensis Carmina Selecta, secundum recognitionem Robinson Ellis, A.M. Extra fcap. 8vo. *3s. 6d.*

Cicero de Oratore. With Introduction and Notes. By A. S. Wilkins, Litt. D.
Book I. Second Edition. 1888. 8vo. *7s. 6d.* Book II. 1881. 8vo. *5s.*

—— *Philippic Orations.* With Notes. By J. R. King, M.A. Second Edition. 1879. 8vo. *10s. 6d.*

—— *Select Letters.* With English Introductions, Notes, and Appendices. By Albert Watson, M.A. Third Edition. Demy 8vo. *18s.*

—— *Select Letters.* Text. By the same Editor. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. *4s.*

—— *pro Cluentio.* With Introduction and Notes. By W. Ramsay, M.A. Edited by G. G. Ramsay, M.A. 2nd Ed. Ext. fcap. 8vo. *3s. 6d.*

Horace. With a Commentary. Volume I. The Odes, Carmen Seculare, and Epodes. By Edward C. Wickham, M.A. Second Edition. 1877. Demy 8vo. *12s.*

—— A reprint of the above, in a size suitable for the use of Schools. In one or two Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. *6s.*

Livy, Book I. With Introduction, Historical Examination, and Notes. By J. R. Seeley, M.A. Second Edition. 1881. 8vo. *6s.*

Ovid. P. Ovidii Nasonis Ibis. Ex Novis Codicibus edidit, Scholia Vetera Commentarium cum Prolegomenis Appendice Indice addidit, R. Ellis, A.M. 8vo. *10s. 6d.*

Persius. The Satires. With a Translation and Commentary. By John Conington, M.A. Edited by Henry Nettleship, M.A. Second Edition. 1874. 8vo. *7s. 6d.*

Juvenal. XIII Satires. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by C. H. Pearson, M.A., and Herbert A. Strong, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Latin in Liverpool University College, Victoria University. In two Parts. Crown 8vo. Complete, *6s.*

Also separately, Part I. Introduction, Text, etc., *3s.* Part II. Notes, *3s. 6d.*

Tacitus. The Annals. Books I–VI. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by H. Furneaux, M.A. 8vo. *18s.*

King (J. E., M.A.) and C. Cookson, M.A. The Principles of Sound and Inflexion, as illustrated in the Greek and Latin Languages. 1888. 8vo. *18s.*

Nettleship (H., M.A.). Lectures and Essays on Subjects connected with Latin Scholarship and Literature. Crown 8vo. *7s. 6d.*

—— *The Roman Satura.* 8vo. sewed, *1s.*

—— *Ancient Lives of Vergil.* 8vo. sewed, *2s.*

Papillon (T. L., M.A.). A Manual of Comparative Philology. Third Edition, Revised and Corrected. 1882. Crown 8vo. 6*s*.

Pinder (North, M.A.). Selections from the less known Latin Poets. 1869. 8vo. 15*s*.

Sellar (W. Y., M.A.). Roman Poets of the Augustan Age. VIRGIL. New Edition. 1883. Crown 8vo. 9*s*.

—— *Roman Poets of the Republic.* New Edition, Revised and Enlarged. 1881. 8vo. 14*s*.

Wordsworth (J., M.A.). Fragments and Specimens of Early Latin. With Introductions and Notes. 1874. 8vo. 18*s*.

III. GREEK.

A Greek Primer, for the use of beginners in that Language. By Charles Wordsworth, D.C.L. Seventh Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 1*s*. 6*d*.

A Greek Testament Primer. An Easy Grammar and Reading Book for the use of Students beginning Greek. By the Rev. E. Miller, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

Easy Greek Reader. By Evelyn Abbott, M.A. In one or two Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

Graecae Grammaticae Rudimenta in usum Scholarum. Auctore Carolo Wordsworth, D.C.L. Nineteenth Edition, 1882. 12mo. 4*s*.

A Greek-English Lexicon, abridged from Liddell and Scott's 4to. edition, chiefly for the use of Schools. Square 12mo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

Greek Verbs, Irregular and Defective. By W. Veitch. Fourth Edition. Crown 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

The Elements of Greek Accentuation (for Schools): abridged from his larger work by H. W. Chandler, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

A SERIES OF GRADUATED GREEK READERS:—

First Greek Reader. By W. G. Rushbrooke, M.L. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Second Greek Reader. By A. M. Bell, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

Specimens of Greek Dialects; being a 'Fourth Greek Reader.' With Introductions, etc. By W. W. Merry, D.D. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

Selections from Homer and the Greek Dramatists. For Higher Forms. 'Fifth Greek Reader.' With Explanatory Notes and Introductions to the Study of Greek Epic and Dramatic Poetry. By Evelyn Abbott, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

The Golden Treasury of Ancient Greek Poetry: being a Collection of the finest passages in the Greek Classic Poets, with Introductory Notices and Notes. By R. S. Wright, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 8*s*. 6*d*.

A Golden Treasury of Greek Prose, being a Collection of the finest passages in the principal Greek Prose Writers, with Introductory Notices and Notes. By R. S. Wright, M.A., and J. E. L. Shadwell, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

Aeschylus. Prometheus Bound (for Schools). With Introduction and Notes, by A. O. Prickard, M.A. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

—— *Agamemnon*. With Introduction and Notes, by Arthur Sidgwick, M.A. Third Edition. In one or two parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

—— *Choephoroi*. With Introduction and Notes by the same Editor. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

—— *Eumenides*. With Introduction and Notes, by the same Editor. In one or two Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

Aristophanes. In Single Plays. Edited, with English Notes, Introductions, &c., by W. W. Merry, D.D. Extra fcap. 8vo.

I. The Clouds, Second Edition, 2*s*.
II. The Acharnians, Third Edition. In one or two parts, 3*s*.
III. The Frogs, Second Edition. In one or two parts, 3*s*.
IV. The Knights. In one or two parts, 3*s*.

Cebes. Tabula. With Introduction and Notes. By C. S. Jerram, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Demosthenes. Orations against Philip. With Introduction and Notes, by Evelyn Abbott, M.A., and P. E. Matheson, M.A. Vol. I. Philippic I. Olynthiacs I–III. In one or two Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

Euripides. Alcestis (for Schools). By C. S. Jerram, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Hecuba*. With Notes by C. H. Russell. *In the Press.*

—— *Helena*. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, etc., for Upper and Middle Forms. By C. S. Jerram, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

—— *Heracleidae*. Edited with Introduction and Notes by C. S. Jerram, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

—— *Iphigenia in Tauris*. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, etc., for Upper and Middle Forms. By C. S. Jerram, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. cloth, 3*s*.

—— *Medea*. By C. B. Heberden, M.A. In one or two Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

Herodotus, Book IX. Edited, with Notes, by Evelyn Abbott, M.A. In one or two Parts. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*.

Herodotus, Selections from. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and a Map, by W. W. Merry, D.D. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Homer. *Odyssey*, Books I–XII (for Schools). By W. W. Merry, D.D. Fortieth Thousand. (In one or two Parts.) Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s*. Books I, and II, *separately*, each 1*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Odyssey*, Books XIII–XXIV (for Schools). By the same Editor. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s*.

—— *Iliad*, Book I (for Schools). By D. B. Monro, M.A. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

—— *Iliad*, Books I–XII (for Schools). With an Introduction, a brief Homeric Grammar, and Notes. By D. B. Monro, M.A. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 6*s*.

—— *Iliad*, Books XIII–XXIV. By the same Editor. Extra fcap. 6*s*. *Just Published.*

—— *Iliad*, Books VI and XXI. With Introduction and Notes. By Herbert Hailstone, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 1*s*. 6*d*. each.

Lucian. *Vera Historia* (for Schools). By C. S. Jerram. M.A. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 1*s*. 6*d*.

Lysias. *Epitaphios.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by F. J. Snell, B.A. (In one or two Parts.) Extra fcap. 8vo. [illegible]*s*.

Plato. *Meno.* With Introduction and Notes. By St. George Stock, M.A., Pembroke College. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Plato. *The Apology.* With Introduction and Notes. By St. George Stock, M.A. (In one or two Parts.) Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Sophocles. For the use of Schools. Edited with Introductions and English Notes. By Lewis Campbell, M.A., and Evelyn Abbott, M.A. *New and Revised Edition.* 2 Vols. Extra fcap. 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Sold separately, Vol. I, Text, 4*s*. 6*d*.; Vol. II, Explanatory Notes, 6*s*.

Sophocles. In Single Plays, with English Notes, &c. By Lewis Campbell, M.A., and Evelyn Abbott, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. limp.

Oedipus Tyrannus, Philoctetes. New and Revised Edition, 2*s*. each.
Oedipus Coloneus, Antigone, 1*s*. 9*d*. each.
Ajax, Electra, Trachiniae, 2*s*. each.

—— *Oedipus Rex:* Dindorf's Text, with Notes by the present Bishop of St. David's. Extra fcap. 8vo. limp, 1*s*. 6*d*.

Theocritus (for Schools). With Notes. By H. Kynaston, D.D. (late Snow). Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

Xenophon. *Easy Selections* (for Junior Classes). With a Vocabulary, Notes, and Map. By J. S. Phillpotts, B.C.L., and C. S. Jerram, M.A. Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Selections* (for Schools). With Notes and Maps. By J. S. Phillpotts, B.C.L. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Anabasis*, Book I. Edited for the use of Junior Classes and Private Students. With Introduction, Notes, etc. By J. Marshall, M.A., Rector of the Royal High School, Edinburgh. Extra fcap. 8vo. [illegible] 6*d*.

Xenophon. Anabasis, Book II. With Notes and Map. By C. S. Jerram, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

—— *Anabasis*, Book III. Edited with Introduction, Analysis, Notes, etc., by J. Marshall, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Vocabulary to the Anabasis.* By J. Marshall, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 1*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Cyropaedia*, Book I. With Introduction and Notes by C. Bigg, D.D. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.*

—— *Cyropaedia*, Books IV and V. With Introduction and Notes by C. Bigg, D.D. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Hellenica.* Books I, II. With Introductions and Notes by G. E. Underhill, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Magdalen College. Extra fcap. 8vo. *cloth*, 3*s.*

Aristotle's Politics. With an Introduction, Essays, and Notes. By W. L. Newman, M.A., Fellow of Balliol College. Vols. I and II. Medium 8vo. 28*s.*

Aristotle. On the History of the Process by which the Aristotelian Writings arrived at their p nt form. An Essay by Richard Shute, M.A., late Student of Christ Church; with a Brief Memoir of the Author. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Aristotelian Studies. I. On the Structure of the Seventh Book of the Nicomachean Ethics. By J. C. Wilson, M.A. 8vo. stiff, 5*s.*

Aristotelis Ethica Nicomachea, ex recensione Immanuelis Bekkeri. Crown 8vo. 5*s.*

Demosthenes and Aeschines. The Orations of Demosthenes and Æschine on the Crown. With Introductor Essays and Notes. By G. A. Simcox, M.A., and W. H. Simcox, M.A. 1872. 8vo. 12*s.*

Head (Barclay V.). Historia Numorum: A Manual of Greek Numismatics. Royal 8vo. half-bound. *l.* 2*s.*

Hic (E. L., M.A.). A Manual of Gr ek Historical Inscrip- s. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Ho r. Odyssey, Books I–XII. Edited with English Notes, pendices, etc. By W. W Merry, D.D., and the late James Riddell, M.A. 1886. Second Edition. Demy 8vo. 16*s.*

Homer. A Grammar of the Homeric Dialect. By D. B. Monro, M.A. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Polybius. Selections from Polybius. Edited by J. L. Strachan-Davidson, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Balliol College. With thre Maps. Medium 8vo. buckram, 21*s.*

Sophocles. The Plays and Fragments. With English Not and Introductions, by Lewis Campbell, M.A. 2 v

Vol. I. Oedipus Tyrannus. Oedipus Colone

Vol. II. Ajax. Electra. Trachiniae. Philo

IV. FRENCH AND ITALIAN.

Brachet's Etymological Dictionary of the French Language. Translated by G. W. Kitchin, D.D. Third Edition. Crown 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

—— *Historical Grammar of the French Language.* Translated by G. W. Kitchin, D.D. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

Works by GEORGE SAINTSBURY, M.A.

Primer of French Literature. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

Short History of French Literature. Crown 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Specimens of French Literature, from Villon to Hugo. Crown 8vo. 9*s*.

MASTERPIECES OF THE FRENCH DRAMA.

Corneille's Horace. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by George Saintsbury, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Molière's Les Précieuses Ridicules. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Andrew Lang, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 1*s*. 6*d*.

Racine's Esther. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by George Saintsbury, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

Beaumarchais' Le Barbier de Séville. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Austin Dobson. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Voltaire's Mérope. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by George Saintsbury. Extra fcap. 8vo. cloth, 2*s*.

Musset's On ne badine pas avec l'Amour, and *Fantasio.* Edited, with Prolegomena, Notes, etc., by Walter Herries Pollock. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

The above six Plays may be had in ornamental case, and bound in Imitation Parchment, price 12*s*. 6*d*.

Perrault's Popular Tales. Edited from the Original Editions, with Introduction, etc., by Andrew Lang, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo., paper boards, 5*s*. 6*d*.

Sainte-Beuve. Selections from the Causeries du Lundi. Edited by George Saintsbury, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

Quinet's Lettres à sa Mère. Selected and edited by George Saintsbury, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

Gautier, Théophile. Scenes of Travel. Selected and Edited by George Saintsbury, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

L'Éloquence de la Chaire et de la Tribune Françaises. Edited by Paul Blouët, B.A. Vol. I. Sacred Oratory. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Edited by GUSTAVE MASSON, B.A.

Corneille's Cinna. With Notes, Glossary, etc. Extra fcap. 8vo. *cloth*, 2*s.* Stiff covers, 1*s.* 6*d.*

Louis XIV and his Contemporaries; as described in Extracts from the best Memoirs of the Seventeenth Century. With English Notes, Genealogical Tables, &c. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Maistre, Xavier de. Voyage autour de ma Chambre. Ourika, by *Madame de Duras*: Le Vieux Tailleur, by *MM. Erckmann-Chatrian*: La Veillée de Vincennes, by *Alfred de Vigny*: Les Jumeaux de l'Hôtel Corneille, by *Edmond About*: Mésaventures d'un Écolier, by *Rodolphe Töpffer*. Third Edition, Revised and Corrected. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Voyage autour de ma Chambre.* Limp, 1*s.* 6*d.*

Molière's Les Fourberies de Scapin, and *Racine's Athalie.* With Voltaire's Life of Molière. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Molière's Les Fourberies de Scapin. With Voltaire's Life of Molière. Extra fcap. 8vo. stiff covers, 1*s.* 6*d.*

Molière's Les Femmes Savantes. With Notes, Glossary, etc. Extra fcap. 8vo. *cloth*, 2*s.* Stiff covers, 1*s.* 6*d.*

Racine's Andromaque, and *Corneille's Le Menteur.* With Louis Racine's Life of his Father. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Regnard's Le Joueur, and *Brueys and Palaprat's Le Grondeur.* Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Sévigné, Madame de, and her chief Contemporaries, Selections from the Correspondence of. Intended more especially for Girls' Schools. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.*

Dante. Selections from the Inferno. With Introduction and Notes. By H. B. Cotterill, B.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

Tasso. La Gerusalemme Liberata. Cantos i, ii. With Introduction and Notes. By the same Editor. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

V. GERMAN.

Scherer (W.). A History of German Literature. Translated from the Third German Edition by Mrs. F. Conybeare. Edited by F. Max Müller. 2 vols. 8vo. 21*s.*

Max Müller. The German Classics, from the Fourth to the Nineteenth Century. With Biographical Notices, Translations into Modern German, and Notes. By F. Max Müller, M.A. A New Edition, Revised, Enlarged, and Adapted to Wilhelm Scherer's 'History of German Literature,' by F. Lichtenstein. 2 vols. crown 8vo. 21*s.*

GERMAN COURSE. **By HERMANN LANGE.**

The Germans at Home; a Practical Introduction to German Conversation, with an Appendix containing the Essentials of German Grammar. Third Edition. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

The German Manual; a German Grammar, Reading Book, and a Handbook of German Conversation. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Grammar of the German Language. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

German Composition; A Theoretical and Practical Guide to the Art of Translating English Prose into German. Ed. 2. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

German Spelling; A Synopsis of the Changes which it has undergone through the Government Regulations of 1880. Paper covers, 6*d.*

Lessing's Laokoon. With Introduction, English Notes, etc. By A. Hamann, Phil. Doc., M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Translated into English Verse by E. Massie, M.A. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s.*

GERMAN CLASSICS.

With Biographical, Historical, and Critical Introductions, Arguments (to the Dramas), and Complete Commentaries.

Edited by C. A. BUCHHEIM, Phil. Doc. Professor in King's College, London.

Lessing:

(*a*) *Nathan der Weise.* A Dramatic Poem. 4*s.* 6*d.*
(*b*) *Minna von Barnhelm.* A Comedy. 3*s.* 6*d.*

Goethe:

(*a*) *Egmont.* A Tragedy. 3*s.*
(*b*) *Iphigenie auf Tauris.* A Drama. 3*s.*

Schiller:

(*a*) *Wilhelm Tell.* A Drama. Large Edition. With a Map. 3*s.* 6*d.*
(*b*) *Wilhelm Tell.* School Edition. With a Map. 2*s.*
(*c*) *Historische Skizzen.* With a Map. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Heine:

(*a*) *Prosa:* being Selections from his Prose Writings. 4*s.* 6*d.*
(*b*) *Harzreise.* Cloth, 2*s.* 6*d.*; paper covers, 1*s.* 6*d.*

Modern German Reader. A Graduated Collection of Extracts from Modern German Authors:—

Part I. Prose Extracts. With English Notes, a Grammatical Appendix, and a Complete Vocabulary. Fourth Edition. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Part II. Extracts in Prose and Poetry. With English Notes and an Index. Second Edition. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Becker (the Historian):

Friedrich der Grosse. Edited, with Notes, an Historical Introduction, and a Map. 3*s.* 6*d.*

Niebuhr:

Griechische Heroen-Geschichten (Tales of Greek Heroes). Edited, with English Notes and a Vocabulary, by Emma S. Buchheim. Second, Revised Edition. *cloth*, 2*s.*

An Old High German Primer. With Grammar, Notes, and Glossary. By Joseph Wright, Ph.D. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

A Middle High German Primer. With Grammar, Notes, and Glossary. By Joseph Wright, Ph.D. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

VI. MATHEMATICS, PHYSICAL SCIENCE, &c.

By LEWIS HENSLEY, M.A.

Figures made Easy: a first Arithmetic Book. Crown 8vo. 6*d.*

Answers to the Examples in Figures made Easy, together with two thousand additional Examples, with Answers. Crown 8vo. 1*s.*

The Scholar's Arithmetic. Crown 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Answers to the Examples in the Scholar's Arithmetic. 1*s.* 6*d.*

The Scholar's Algebra. Crown 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Aldis (*W. S., M.A.*). *A Text-Book of Algebra: with Answers to the Examples.* Crown 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Baynes (*R. E., M.A.*). *Lessons on Thermodynamics.* 1878. Crown 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Chambers (*G. F., F.R.A.S.*). *A Handbook of Descriptive Astronomy.* Third Edition. 1877. Demy 8vo. 28*s.*

Clarke (*Col. A. R., C.B., R.E.*). *Geodesy.* 1880. 8vo. 12*s.* 6*d.*

Cremona (*Luigi*). *Elements of Projective Geometry.* Translated by C. Leudesdorf, M.A. 8vo. 12*s.* 6*d.*

Donkin. Acoustics. Second Edition. Crown 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Etheridge (*R.*). *Fossils of the British Islands, Stratigraphically arranged.* Part I. PALAEOZOIC. 4to. 1*l.* 10*s.*

Euclid Revised. Containing the Essentials of the Elements of Plane Geometry as given by Euclid in his first Six Books. Edited by R. C. J. Nixon, M.A. *Second Edition.* Crown 8vo. 6*s.*

Sold separately as follows,

Book I. 1*s.*	Books I, II. 1*s.* 6*d.*
Books I–IV. 3*s.*	Books V, VI. 3*s.*

Euclid.—Geometry in Space. Containing parts of Euclid's Eleventh and Twelfth Books. By the same Editor. Crown 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

Galton (*Douglas, C.B., F.R.S.*). *The Construction of Healthy Dwellings.* Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Hamilton (*Sir R. G. C.*), *and J. Ball. Book-keeping.* New and enlarged Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. limp cloth, 2*s.*

Ruled Exercise books adapted to the above may be had, pr[illegible] 2*s.*

Harcourt (*A. G. Vernon, M.A.*), and *H. G. Madan, M.A. Exercises in Practical Chemistry.* Vol. I. Elementary Exercises. Fourth Edition. Crown 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Maclaren (*Archibald*). *A System of Physical Education:* Theoretical and Practical. Extra fcap. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Madan (*H. G., M.A.*). *Tables of Qualitative Analysis.* Large 4to. paper, 4*s.* 6*d.*

Maxwell (*J. Clerk, M.A., F.R.S.*). *A Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism.* Second Edition. 2 vols. Demy 8vo. 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*

—— *An Elementary Treatise on Electricity.* Edited by William Garnett, M.A. Demy 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Minchin (*G. M., M.A.*). *A Treatise on Statics* with Applications to Physics. Third Edition, Corrected and Enlarged. Vol. I. *Equilibrium of Coplanar Forces.* 8vo. 9*s.* Vol. II. *Statics.* 8vo. 16*s.*

—— *Uniplanar Kinematics of Solids and Fluids.* Crown 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Phillips (*John, M.A., F.R.S.*). *Geology of Oxford and the Valley of the Thames.* 1871. 8vo. 21*s.*

—— *Vesuvius.* 1869. Crown 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Prestwich (*Joseph, M.A., F.R.S.*). *Geology, Chemical, Physical, and Stratigraphical.* In two Volumes.

Vol. I. Chemical and Physical. Royal 8vo. 25*s.*
Vol. II. Stratigraphical and Physical. With a new Geographical Map of Europe. Royal 8vo. 36*s.*

Rolleston (*George, M.D., F.R.S.*). *Forms of Animal Life.* A Manual of Comparative Anatomy, with descriptions of selected types. Second Edition. Revised and enlarged by W. Hatchett Jackson, M.A. Medium, 8vo. cloth extra, 1*l.* 16*s.*

Smyth. A Cycle of Celestial Objects. Observed, Reduced, and Discussed by Admiral W. H. Smyth, R.N. Revised, condensed, and greatly enlarged by G. F. Chambers, F.R.A.S. 1881. 8vo. 12*s.*

Stewart (*Balfour, LL.D., F.R.S.*). *An Elementary Treatise on Heat,* with numerous Woodcuts and Diagrams. Fifth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Vernon-Harcourt (*L. F., M.A.*). *A Treatise on Rivers and Canals*, relating to the Control and Improvement of Rivers, and the Design, Construction, and Development of Canals. 2 vols. (Vol. I, Text. Vol. II, Plates.) 8vo. 21*s.*

—— *Harbours and Docks*; their Physical Features, History, Construction, Equipment, and Maintenance; with Statistics as to their Commercial Development. 2 vols. 8vo. 25*s.*

Walker (*James, M.A.*). *The Theory of a Physical Balance.* 8vo. stiff cover, 3*s.* 6*d.*

Watson (*H. W., M.A.*). *A Treatise on the Kinetic Theory of Gases.* 1876. 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.*

Watson (*H. W., D. Sc., F.R.S.*), *and S. H. Burbury, M.A.*

I. *A Treatise on the Application of Generalised Coordinates to the Kinetics of a Material System.* 1879. 8vo. 6*s.*

II. *The Mathematical Theory of Electricity and Magnetism.* Vol. I. Electrostatics. 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Williamson (*A. W., Phil. Doc., F.R.S.*). *Chemistry for Students.* A new Edition, with Solutions. 1873. Extra fcap. 8vo. 8*s.* 6*d.*

VII. HISTORY.

Bluntschli (*J. K.*). *The Theory of the State.* By J. K. Bluntschli, late Professor of Political Sciences in the University of Heidelberg. Authorised English Translation from the Sixth German Edition. Demy 8vo. half bound, 12*s.* 6*d.*

Finlay (*George, LL.D.*). *A History of Greece* from its Conquest by the Romans to the present time, B.C. 146 to A.D. 1864. A new Edition, revised throughout, and in part re-written, with considerable additions, by the Author, and edited by H. F. Tozer, M.A. 7 vols. 8vo. 3*l.* 10*s.*

Fortescue (*Sir John, Kt.*). *The Governance of England:* otherwise called The Difference between an Absolute and a Limited Monarchy. A Revised Text. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Appendices, by Charles Plummer, M.A. 8vo. half bound, 12*s.* 6*d.*

Freeman (*E.A., D.C.L.*). *A Short History of the Norman Conquest of England.* Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

George (*H.B., M.A.*). *Genealogical Tables illustrative of Modern History.* Third Edition, Revised and Enlarged. Small 4to. 12*s.*

Hodgkin (*T.*). *Italy and her Invaders.* Illustrated with Plates and Maps. Vols. I–IV, A.D. 376–553. 8vo. 3*l.* 8*s.*

Hughes (Alfred). Geography for Schools. With Diagrams.
Part I. Practical Geography. Crown 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Part II. General Geography. *In preparation.*

Kitchin (G. W., D.D.). A History of France. With numerous Maps, Plans, and Tables. In Three Volumes. *Second Edition.* Crown 8vo. each 10*s.* 6*d.*

Vol. I. Down to the Year 1453.
Vol. II. From 1453-1624. Vol. III. From 1624-1793.

Lucas (C. P.). Introduction to a Historical Geography of the British Colonies. With Eight Maps. Crown 8vo. 4*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Historical Geography of the British Colonies.* Vol. I. With Eleven Maps. Crown 8vo. 5*s.*

Payne (E. J., M.A.). A History of the United States of America. In the Press.

Ranke (L. von). A History of England, principally in the Seventeenth Century. Translated by Resident Members of the University of Oxford, under the superintendence of G. W. Kitchin, D.D., and C. W. Boase, M.A. 1875. 6 vols. 8vo. 3*l.* 3*s.*

Rawlinson (George, M.A.). A Manual of Ancient History. Second Edition. Demy 8vo. 14*s.*

Ricardo. Letters of David Ricardo to Thomas Robert Malthus (1810-1823). Edited by James Bonar, M.A. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Rogers (J. E. Thorold, M.A.). The First Nine Years of the Bank of England. 8vo. 8*s.* 6*d.*

Select Charters and other Illustrations of English Constitutional History, from the Earliest Times to the Reign of Edward I. Arranged and edited by W. Stubbs, D.D. Fifth Edition. 1883. Crown 8vo. 8*s.* 6*d.*

Stubbs (W., D.D.). The Constitutional History of England, in its Origin and Development. Library Edition. 3 vols. demy 8vo. 2*l.* 8*s.*

Also in 3 vols. crown 8vo. price 12*s.* each.

—— *Seventeen Lectures on the Study of Medieval and Modern History,* &c., delivered at Oxford 1867-1884. Crown 8vo. 8*s.* 6*d.*

Wellesley. A Selection from the Despatches, Treaties, and other Papers of the Marquess Wellesley, K.G., during his Government of India. Edited by S. J. Owen, M.A. 1877. 8vo. 1*l.* 4*s.*

Wellington. A Selection from the Despatches, Treaties, and other Papers relating to India of Field-Marshal the Duke of Wellington, K.G. Edited by S. J. Owen, M.A. 1880. 8vo. 24*s.*

VIII. LAW.

Alberici Gentilis, I.C.D., I.C., De Iure Belli Libri Tres. Edidit T. E. Holland, I.C.D. 1877. Small 4to. half morocco, 21*s.*

Anson (Sir William R., Bart., D.C.L.). Principles of the English Law of Contract, and of Agency in its Relation to Contract. Fifth Edition. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

—— *Law and Custom of the Constitution.* Part I. Parliament. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Bentham (Jeremy). An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation. Crown 8vo. 6*s.* 6*d.*

Digby (Kenelm E., M.A.). An Introduction to the History of the Law of Real Property. Third Edition. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Gaii Institutionum Juris Civilis Commentarii Quattuor; or, Elements of Roman Law by Gaius. With a Translation and Commentary by Edward Poste, M.A. Second Edition. 1875. 8vo. 18*s.*

Hall (W. E., M.A.). International Law. Second Ed. 8vo. 21*s*

Holland (T. E., D.C.L.). The Elements of Jurisprudence. Fourth Edition. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

—— *The European Concert in the Eastern Question*, a Collection of Treaties and other Public Acts. Edited, with Introductions and Notes, by Thomas Erskine Holland, D.C.L. 8vo. 12*s.* 6*d.*

Imperatoris Iustiniani Institutionum Libri Quattuor; with Introductions, Commentary, Excursus and Translation. By J. B. Moyle, B.C.L., M.A. 2 vols. Demy 8vo. 21*s.*

Justinian, The Institutes of, edited as a recension of the Institutes of Gaius, by Thomas Erskine Holland, D.C.L. Second Edition, 1881. Extra fcap. 8vo. 5*s.*

Justinian, Select Titles from the Digest of. By T. E. Holland, D.C.L., and C. L. Shadwell, B.C.L. 8vo. 14*s.*

Also sold in Parts, in paper covers, as follows:—

Part I. Introductory Titles. 2*s.* 6*d.* Part II. Family Law. 1*s.*
Part III. Property Law. 2*s.* 6*d.* Part IV. Law of Obligations (No. 1). 3*s.* 6*d.*
Part IV. Law of Obligations (No. 2). 4*s.* 6*d.*

Lex Aquilia. The Roman Law of Damage to Property: being a Commentary on the Title of the Digest 'Ad Legem Aquiliam' (ix. 2). With an Introduction to the Study of the Corpus Iuris Civilis. By Erwin Grueber, Dr. Jur., M.A. Demy 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Markby (W., D.C.L.). Elements of Law considered with reference to Principles of General Jurisprudence. Third Edition. Demy 8vo. 12*s*. 6*d*.

Pollock and Wright. An Essay on Possession in the Common Law. Parts I. and II. by F. Pollock, M.A.; Part III. by R. S. Wright, B.C.L. 8vo. 8*s*. 6*d*.

Stokes (Whitley, D.C.L.). The Anglo-Indian Codes.
Vol. I. *Substantive Law.* 8vo. 30*s*.
Vol. II. *Adjective Law.* 8vo. 35*s*.

Twiss (Sir Travers, D.C.L.). The Law of Nations considered as Independent Political Communities.

Part I. On the Rights and Duties of Nations in time of Peace. A new Edition, Revised and Enlarged. 1884. Demy 8vo. 15*s*.

Part II. On the Rights and Duties of Nations in Time of War. Second Edition, Revised. 1875. Demy 8vo. 21*s*.

IX. MENTAL AND MORAL PHILOSOPHY, &c.

Berkeley. The Works of George Berkeley, D.D., formerly Bishop of Cloyne; including many of his writings hitherto unpublished. With Prefaces, Annotations, and an Account of his Life and Philosophy, by Alexander Campbell Fraser, M.A. 4 vols. 1871. 8vo. 2*l*. 18*s*.

The Life, Letters, &c. 1 vol. 16*s*.

—— *Selections from.* With an Introduction and Notes. For the use of Students in the Universities. By Alexander Campbell Fraser, LL.D. Third Edition. Crown 8vo. 7*s*. 6*d*.

Bosanquet. Logic; or, the Morphology of Knowledge. By B. Bosanquet, M.A. 8vo. 21*s*.

Fowler (T., D.D.). The Elements of Deductive Logic, designed mainly for the use of Junior Students in the Universities. Ninth Edition, with a Collection of Examples. Extra fcap. 8vo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

—— *The Elements of Inductive Logic*, designed mainly for the use of Students in the Universities. Fourth Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 6*s*.

—— *and Wilson (J. M., B.D.). The Principles of Morals* (Introductory Chapters). 8vo. *boards*, 3*s*. 6*d*.

—— *The Principles of Morals.* Part II. (Being the Body of the Work.) 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

Edited by T. FOWLER, D.D.

Bacon. Novum Organum. With Introduction, Notes, &c. 1878. 8vo. 14*s*.

Locke's Conduct of the Understanding. Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*.

Danson (*J. T.*). *The Wealth of Households.* Crown 8vo. 5*s*.

Green (*T. H., M.A.*). *Prolegomena to Ethics.* Edited by A. C. Bradley, M.A. Demy 8vo. 12*s*. 6*d*.

Hegel. The Logic of Hegel; translated from the Encyclopaedia of the Philosophical Sciences. With Prolegomena by William Wallace, M.A. 1874. 8vo. 14*s*.

Hume's Treatise of Human Nature; reprinted from the Original Edition, and edited by L. A. Selby-Bigge, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of University College. Crown 8vo. 9*s*.

Lotze's Logic, in Three Books; of Thought, of Investigation, and of Knowledge. English Translation; Edited by B. Bosanquet, M.A., Fellow of University College, Oxford. Second Edition. 2 vols. Crown 8vo. 12*s*.

—— *Metaphysic*, in Three Books; Ontology, Cosmology, and Psychology. English Translation; Edited by B. Bosanquet, M.A. Second Edition. 2 vols. Crown 8vo. 12*s*.

Martineau (*James, D.D.*). *Types of Ethical Theory.* Second Edition. 2 vols. Crown 8vo. 15*s*.

—— *A Study of Religion: its Sources and Contents.* 2 vols. 8vo. 24*s*.

Rogers (*J. E. Thorold, M.A.*). *A Manual of Political Economy*, for the use of Schools. Third Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

Smith's Wealth of Nations. A new Edition, with Notes, by J. E. Thorold Rogers, M.A. 2 vols. 8vo. 1880. 21*s*.

X. FINE ART.

Butler (*A. J., M.A., F.S.A.*) *The Ancient Coptic Churches of Egypt.* 2 vols. 8vo. 30*s*.

Head (*Barclay V.*). *Historia Numorum. A Manual of Greek* Numismatics. Royal 8vo. *half morocco*, 42*s*.

Hullah (*John*). *The Cultivation of the Speaking Voice.* Second Edition. Extra fcap. 8vo. 2*s*. 6*d*.

Jackson (*T. G., M.A.*). *Dalmatia, the Quarnero and Istria;* with Cettigne in Montenegro and the Island of Grado. By T. G. Jackson, M.A., Author of 'Modern Gothic Architecture.' In 3 vols. 8vo. With many Plates and Illustrations. *Half bound*, 42*s*.

Ouseley (Sir F. A. Gore, Bart.). A Treatise on Harmony. Third Edition. 4to. 10*s*.

—— *A Treatise on Counterpoint, Canon, and Fugue,* based upon that of Cherubini. Second Edition. 4to. 16*s*.

—— *A Treatise on Musical Form and General Composition.* Second Edition. 4to. 10*s*.

Robinson (J. C., F.S.A.). A Critical Account of the Drawings by Michel Angelo and Raffaello in the University Galleries, Oxford. 1870. Crown 8vo. 4*s*.

Troutbeck (J., M.A.) and R. F. Dale, M.A. A Music Primer (for Schools). Second Edition. Crown 8vo. 1*s*. 6*d*.

Tyrwhitt (R. St. J., M.A.). A Handbook of Pictorial Art. With coloured Illustrations, Photographs, and a chapter on Perspective by A. Macdonald. Second Edition. 1875. 8vo. half morocco, 18*s*.

Upcott (L. E., M.A.). An Introduction to Greek Sculpture. Crown 8vo. 4*s*. 6*d*.

Vaux (W. S. W., M.A.). Catalogue of the Castellani Collection of Antiquities in the University Galleries, Oxford. Crown 8vo. 1*s*.

The Oxford Bible for Teachers, containing Supplementary HELPS TO THE STUDY OF THE BIBLE, including Summaries of the several Books, with copious Explanatory Notes and Tables illustrative of Scripture History and the characteristics of Bible Lands; with a complete Index of Subjects, a Concordance, a Dictionary of Proper Names, and a series of Maps. Prices in various sizes and bindings from 3*s*. to 2*l*. 5*s*.

Helps to the Study of the Bible, taken from the OXFORD BIBLE FOR TEACHERS, comprising Summaries of the several Books, with copious Explanatory Notes and Tables illustrative of Scripture History and the Characteristics of Bible Lands; with a complete Index of Subjects, a Concordance, a Dictionary of Proper Names, and a series of Maps. Crown 8vo. *cloth*, 3*s*. 6*d*.; 16mo. *cloth*, 1*s*.

LONDON: HENRY FROWDE,
OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS WAREHOUSE, AMEN CORNER,

OXFORD: CLARENDON PRESS DEPOSITORY,
116 HIGH STREET.

☞ *The* DELEGATES OF THE PRESS *invite suggestions and advice from all persons interested in education; and will be thankful for hints, &c. addressed to the* SECRETARY TO THE DELEGATES, *Clarendon Press, Oxford.*

armony.

, based

position.

rawings
d. 1870.

Primer

al Art.
ective by

lpture.

Collec-
1s.

entary
e several
Scripture
Index of
of Maps.

XFORD
ks, with
ory and
, a Con-
wn 8vo.

persons
to the