

Kapáptivav, "Do not stir Kamarina," a proverb somewhat equivalent to our advice to "let well alone," is said to have been originally the answer of the Delphic oracle to the citizens when they consulted as to the draining of a neighbouring lake.

CAMBACÈRES, JEAN JACQUES REGIS DE (1753-1824), an eminent French statesman under the first republic and the first empire, was born at Montpellier the 18th October 1753, of an old and distinguished family. Being destined for the profession of law, he began his studies in that department at an early age, and was soon recognized as one of the ablest jurists in France. And as his legal learning was one of the main sources of his fame, so it was his chief means of rendering service to his country. Cambacères was a decided though moderate disciple of the new principles now everywhere diffused in France, and on the assembling of the States-general in 1789 was chosen as a second representative for the nobility of the district of Montpellier. The right of Montpellier to send a second noble deputy was disputed, and Cambacères did not sit. But he was a member of the National Convention in 1792. Foreseeing the violent courses into which the Convention should be impelled, Cambacères, from principle as well as necessity, held aloof, and sought to avoid the perils and excesses of the time by confining himself to the neutral province of jurist and legislator. The trial of the king, however, compelled him to declare himself. In the first place, he maintained that the Convention was not competent to try the king; and when the trial had been decided on, he insisted that all latitude of defence ought to be accorded to the royal counsel. As to the sentence, he found the king guilty, and worthy of the punishment due to one who had conspired against his country; but moved for delay in the execution of it, till peace should be restored, or the French soil invaded. This moderation made Cambacères "suspect" in the eyes of the Mountain, and he confined himself more circumspectly than ever to his proper work of revising and codifying the new laws. On the downfall of Robespierre in 1794, he was a leading man in the restoration of a milder régime. He was sometime president of the Convention, and, subsequently, president of the Committee of Public Safety, in which capacity he helped to the conclusion of peace with Prussia and Spain. Under the Directory he again fell under the suspicion of the extreme party, and was obliged to retire from the presidency of the Five Hundred, to which he had been called. He took no part in the revolution of the 18th Brumaire (9th November 1799), which overturned the Directory and set up the consulate; but Napoleon had such confidence in him that he made him second consul. This confidence Cambacères continued to enjoy all through the consulate and the empire. On the establishment of the empire he became arch-chancellor, being life-president of the Senate, and the right-hand man of Napoleon in the civil administration generally. While loyal to his master, his influence was on the whole beneficial to France. He took an important part in the redaction of the Code Napoléon, tried to dissuade Napoleon from the murder of the Duc d'Enghien and from the disastrous campaigns of 1812 and 1813, and only gave in his adhesion to the act of abdication of 1814 when resistance was manifestly hopeless, while he resumed office with reluctance during the Hundred Days.

After the final restoration of Louis XVIII. in 1815, Cambacères again became an object of persecution, this time as a regicide, and was obliged to retire into Belgium. A royal decree of 1818 restored him to all his civil and political rights, but he did not again emerge from private life. He died in 1824. Cambacères was a great contrast to most of the leading men in the stormy days of the Revolution. He was moderate in his opinions and in

his advocacy of them; he had a clear, penetrating and luminous understanding; and was a great master of senatorial eloquence. He had been created duke of Parma in 1808, and by this name is sometimes known in history.

CAMBALUC is the name by which, under sundry modifications, the royal city of the Great Khan became known to Europe during the Middle Ages, that city being in fact the same that we now know as Peking. The word itself represents the Mongol *Kaan-Baligh*, "the city of the khan," or emperor, the title by which Peking continues, more or less, to be known to the Mongols and other northern Asiatics.

A city occupying approximately the same site had been the capital of one of the principalities into which China was divided some centuries before the Christian era; and during the reigns of the two Tartar dynasties that immediately preceded the Mongols in Northern China, viz., that of the Khitans, and of the *Kin* or "Golden" khans, it had been one of their royal residences. Under the names of Yenking, which it received from the Khitan, and of Chungtu, which it had from the *Kin*, it holds a conspicuous place in the wars of Chirghiz Khan against the latter dynasty. He captured it in 1215, but it was not till 1264 that it was adopted as the imperial residence in lieu of Kara Korum in the Mongol steppes, by his grandson Kublai. The latter selected a position a few hundred yards to the N.E. of the old city of Chungtu or Yenking, where he founded the new city of *Ta-tu* ("great capital"), called by the Mongols *Taidu* or *Daitu*, but also *Kaan-baligh* and from this time dates the use of the latter name as applied to this site.

The new city formed a rectangle, enclosed by a colossal mud-rampart, the longer sides of which ran north and south. These were each about $5\frac{1}{2}$ English miles in length, the shorter sides $3\frac{3}{4}$, so that the circuit was upwards of 18 miles. The palace of the khan, with its gardens and lake, itself formed an inner inclosure fronting the south. There were eleven city gates, viz., three on the south side, always the formal front with the Tartars, and two on each of the other sides; and the streets ran wide and straight from gate to gate (except, of course, where interrupted by the palace-walls), forming an oblong chess-board plan.

Tatu continued to be the residence of the emperors till the fall of the Mongol power (1368). The native dynasty (Ming) which supplanted them established their residence at *Nan-king* ("South-Court"), but this proved so inconvenient that the second sovereign of the dynasty reoccupied Tatu, giving it then, for the first time, the name of *Pe-king* ("North-Court"). This was the name in common use when the Jesuits entered China towards the end of the 16th century, and began to send home accurate information about China. But it is not so now; the names in ordinary use being *King-cheng* or *King-tu*, both signifying "capital." The restoration of Cambaluc was commenced in 1409. The size of the city was diminished by the retrenchment of nearly one-third at the northern end, which brought the enceinte more nearly to a square form. And this constitutes the modern (so-called) "Tartar city" of Peking, the south front of which is identical with the south front of the city of Kublai. The walls were completed in 1437. Population gathered about the southern front, probably using the material of the old city of Yenking, and the excrescence so formed was, in 1544, enclosed by a wall, and called the "outer city." It is the same that is usually called by Europeans "the Chinese city." The ruins of the retrenched northern portion of Kublai's great rampart are still prominent along their whole extent, so that there is no room for question as to the position or true dimensions of the Cambaluc of the Middle Ages; and it is most probable, indeed it is almost a necessity, that the present palace stands on the lines of Kublai's palace.

The city, under the name of Cambaluc, was constituted into an archiepiscopal see by Pope Clement V. in 1307, in favour of the missionary Franciscan John of Montecorvino; but though some successors were nominated it seems probable that no second metropolitan ever actually occupied the seat.

Maps of the 16th and 17th centuries often show Cambaluc in an imaginary region to the north of China, a part of the misconception that has prevailed regarding Cathay (see CHINA). The name is often in popular literature written Cambalu, and is by Longfellow accented in verse *Cámblá*. But this spelling originates in an accidental error in Ramusio's Italian version, which, till lately, was the chief channel through which Marco Polo's book was popularly known. The original (French) MSS. all agree with the etymology in calling it Cambaluc, which should be accented *Cámbluc*. (H. Y.)

CAMBAY, or KAMBAY, a town of Western India, in Guzerat, or the northern division of the province of Bombay, and forming the capital of the native state of the same name, which has an area of about 350 square miles, and a population of about 175,000. It is situated on the River Mahi, at the upper part of the Gulf of Cambay, 230 miles N. of Bombay, in $22^{\circ} 18' N.$ lat. and $72^{\circ} 39' E.$ long. It is supposed to be the *Camanes* of Ptolemy, and was formerly a very flourishing city, the seat of an extensive trade, and celebrated for its manufactures of silk, chintz, and gold stuffs; but owing principally to the gradually increasing difficulty of access by water, its commerce has long since fallen away, and the town has become poor and dilapidated. The tides rise upwards of 30 feet, and at high water ships anchor near the town. The trade is chiefly confined to the export of cotton. The town is celebrated for its agates and carnelians, which are wrought into a variety of trinkets of reputation principally in China. The houses in many instances are built of stone (a circumstance which indicates the former wealth of the city, as the material had to be brought from a very considerable distance); and a brick wall, three miles in circumference, surrounds the town, enclosing four large reservoirs of good water and three bazaars. To the south-east there are very extensive ruins of subterranean temples and other buildings half-buried in the sand by which the ancient town was overwhelmed. These temples belong to the Jains, and contain two massive statues of their deities, the one black, the other white. The principal one, as the inscription intimates, is Pariswanath, or Parswanatha, carved in the reign of the Emperor Akbar; the black one has the date of 1651 inscribed. It is supposed that Cambay about the 5th century was the capital of the Hindu emperors of Western India. In 1780 it was taken possession of by the army of General Goddard, was restored to the Mahrattas in 1783, and was afterwards ceded to the British by the Peishwa under the treaty of 1803. The nawab, who is one of the 153 feudatory princes of British India by *Sunnud* or patent, pays £5876 of annual tribute to the viceroy of India from his revenue of £35,000. His military establishment consists of 800 horse and foot, who are employed indiscriminately in revenue, police, and miscellaneous duties; and a few pieces of ordnance complete his resources.

The GULF OF CAMBAY, which is shallow and abounds in shoals and sand-banks, penetrates the coast of India for about 80 miles. It is supposed that the depth of water in this gulf has been decreasing for more than two centuries past. The tides, which are very high, run into it with amazing velocity, but at low water the bottom is left nearly dry for some distance below the latitude of the town of Cambay. It is, however, an important inlet, being the channel by which the valuable produce of central Guzerat and the British districts of Ahmedabad and Broach is

exported; but the railway from Bombay to Baroda and Ahmedabad, near Cambay, is gradually attracting the trade to itself. The gulf extends between 21° and $22^{\circ} 10' N.$ lat., and $71^{\circ} 50'$ and $72^{\circ} 40' E.$ long.

CAMBERT, ROBERT (1628-1677), the earliest composer of French operas, was born at Paris in 1628. His master for the clavecin, and probably also for composition, was Chambonnières. He was organist of the church of St Honoré, and also held the office of musical superintendent to Queen Anne of Austria, mother of Louis XIV. His earlier works, the words of which were furnished by the Abbé Perrin, continued to be performed before the court at Vincennes, till the death of his patron Cardinal Mazarin. Displeased at his subsequent neglect, and jealous of the favour shown to Lulli, who was musical superintendent to the king, he went, in 1673, to London, where he was appointed soon after his arrival master of the band to Charles II. One at least of his operas, *Pomone*, was performed in London under his direction, but it did not suit the popular taste. His principal operatic pieces were entitled *Ariadne ou les Amours de Bacchus*, *Pomone*, and *Les Peines et les Plaisirs de l'Amour*. Cambert died in London about 1677.

CAMBODIA, more properly CAMBOJA, or KAMBOJA, a very ancient kingdom of South-eastern Asia, still subsisting in decay. As now limited the territory of Camboja forms a rough parallelogram, consisting in large part of alluvial plain, lying athwart the lower course of the Mekong or Great Camboja River, just above the Delta. The greatest length of the territory runs from W. to E., covering a little more than $3\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ of longitude, viz., from about $103^{\circ} E.$ long. to $106^{\circ} 40'$. The mean breadth from S. to N. is a little over 2° of latitude, extending on the western coast from $10^{\circ} 30' N.$ lat. to $11^{\circ} 45'$, and on the little known eastern frontier from about $11^{\circ} 35'$ to $13^{\circ} 40'$. On the N. it is bounded by provinces which the Siamese have wrested from Camboja; on the E. by Cochinchina territory; on the S. by the Delta Provinces first taken by Cochinchina from Camboja, and then by the French from Cochinchina; on the W. by the Gulf of Siam, along which it extends for 200 miles, now its only seaboard.

Both the ethnology and the early history of Camboja partake of the obscurity that hangs over Indo-China generally. But traditions of the ancient grandeur of the kingdom are borne out by the recent exploration of numerous architectural remains of extraordinary extent and magnificence within its former limits. Some important notices are found in Chinese annals, and more information is to be expected when numerous existing inscriptions shall have been successfully interpreted.

The name given by the people of Camboja to their own race is *Khmér*, a name which was known and used by early Arab voyagers and geographers under the form *Kómár*, and noted by them as a country famous for aloes-wood; it has, however, been imbroiled in much confusion both by them and by their commentators. There is a persistent and apparently well-founded tradition among the Khmér, that before their own immigration, as they say from the north, the *Tsiam* or *Champa* race were in possession of the soil, whilst the Khmér themselves seem to have preceded the descent of the *Thai* race, to which the people of Siam and Laos belong.

Local written legends again appear to speak of two early immigrations from Gangetic India. We know that the Pali-Buddhistical annals of Ceylon record that at the conclusion of the third great synod of the Buddhist church, held at Palibothra, in the year 302 after Buddha (corresponding, according to ordinary Ceylonese reckoning, to 241 B.C., but as corrected by Professor Max Müller to 175 B.C.), a mission was despatched to the region of

Sāvāna-Bhūmi—i.e., *Aurca-Regio* or *Chryse*; and this record may have been the real basis of the earlier Cambodian tradition. But it must not be forgotten that in Ptolemy's map of the Indo-Chinese coast are found many Sanskrit names, indicating the existence of Hindu settlements at least as early as the 1st century of our era. The name of *Kamboja*, though in later days we find it subjected to fantastic charade-making after the Chinese fashion of etymology,¹ appears to be simply the transfer of a name famous in old Indian literature as that of a race and region on the N.W. of the Panjāb, in or near the present Chitrāl. Such transfers were common, and many survive in Indo-Chinese use or memory to this day.²

It is a singular circumstance that some of the Cambodian legends collected by Bastian—indications of which were also recorded by missionaries two centuries ago—bring the second Indian immigration from a western region called *Rom* or *Roma-vīsei*. This will be noticed again.

Like other Indo-Chinese states *Kamboja* possesses written annals; but these do not commence till 1346 A.D. Hence they only take up the history of the kingdom when its power, and perhaps its civilization, were already past their climax.

From the Chinese annals older information is obtained. These mention, under the name of *Fu-nan*, and as early as the 12th century B.C., a kingdom embracing what afterwards became *Kamboja*; and the Emperor Hiao-wuti of the Han dynasty is alleged to have made *Funan* tributary, along with adjoining countries, circa 125 B.C. Some two centuries later the same annals place an immigration under a foreign prince, who became the founder of a dynasty, and is perhaps to be identified with the Indian leader of the native legends. The fourth king of this dynasty—say in the latter part of the 2d century—makes extensive conquests over the adjoining kingdoms and coasts, and takes the name of *Ta-wang* ("great king"), probably a translation of the Indian title *Mahā-rāja*, which reappears some centuries later in Arab narratives as that of the King of the Isles. It is alleged, too, at this time, that the people of *Ta-tsin*, i.e., of the Roman empire, including Western Asia, frequented the ports of *Funan* for trade. This circumstance is highly probable when we consider that Ptolemy attests such voyages as having been made at least occasionally, in the 1st or 2d century, whilst the Arab narratives show that they were habitual in the 9th.

Cambodian legend, like that of nearly all the Indo-Chinese countries, couples the introduction of Buddhism (perhaps rather its re-introduction) with the name of Buddhaghosha. However that may be, it is about the 1000th year of Buddha (i.e., according to the ordinary calculation 457 A.D.), and near the date usually assigned to Buddhaghosha, that the traditions place a great king, *Phutamma Surivong*, i.e., *Padma Suryavansi*; and it is at this epoch of the 5th and 6th centuries that Garnier is inclined to place the great kings, who were the founders of the older architectural monuments. Fergusson would place these several centuries later, but the whole subject of their chronology is as yet too obscure. From about this time the kingdom is known in Chinese records as *Chinla*, and to those days of splendour may be referred an old Chinese proverbial saying, "Rich as *Chinla*." It appears long to have ruled over the valley of the *Menam* (since the 14th century the seat of Siamese

¹ The syllables of *Kamboja* have been tortured by the later natives to mean "born of the waters," "race of *Kam* (*Khmér*)," and what not. The modern Chinese have corrupted *Kamboja* through *Kan-phu-ché* into *Tung-po-chai*, probably to meet some fancy of a similar kind.

² The occurrence of the name *Kamboja* on one of the *reptiche* of the inscriptions of *Asoka*, in connection with the names of regions in the extreme south of India, has lately raised a question whether the Indo-Chinese *Kamboja* did not even then exist.

monarchy), and perhaps at one time to the shores of the Bay of Bengal. In the reign of *Prakrama Bahu* of Ceylon (1155 A.D.) we hear, in the annals of that island, of his intercourse with *Kamboja* (*Jour. As. Soc. Bengal*, vol. xli. p. 198).

A very remarkable account of *Chinla* or *Kamboja*, by an envoy sent from Peking shortly after the death of *Kublai Khan* (viz., in 1295–1297), has been translated by *Abel-Rémusat*, and affords us a strange peep into the midst of a civilization now in the profoundest decay. The accuracy of his details regarding topography and surviving monuments of architecture attests the writer's truthfulness. The court and capital are described as very splendid, whilst (as in all Indo-Chinese countries) some traits of the deepest barbarism in manners show themselves. The kingdom possessed many fortified cities; but its power was already in decline, for it had not long before suffered from one of those invasions of the Thai which have ever since been wearing it away. Again and again such invasions and temporary occupation were repeated, especially after the foundation of the Siamese monarchy by another branch of the Thai in 1350.

The Portuguese found their way to *Kamboja* not long after the conquest of *Malacca*, and the kingdom still retained a good deal of the shell of its old splendour. Yet its native force appears by this time to have been in reality almost burnt out; and towards the end of the 16th century the land swarmed with foreign adventurers, both European and Asiatic, among the latter of whom Japanese were prominent. At the instigation of some of these adventurers we find the Spanish authorities at *Manilla* (1594–1598) engaging in "fillibustering" expeditions to *Kamboja*, with little result. Somewhat later the Portuguese had factories in the country, and then the Dutch (1635). Notices of English trade with *Kamboja* appear as early as 1616. In 1641 *Gerard van Wusthoff* of the Dutch factory conducted a remarkable expedition up the *Great River* to *Vienchang*, the capital of one of the Laos states, about 1000 miles from the sea,—a feat never repeated till the French mission of 1866–68. In 1643 *Mynheer Regemortis*, envoy from *Batavia*, with all the Europeans of the factory, on his way to court, were assassinated under Portuguese instigation, and this put a discreditable and too characteristic end to the official relations of Europeans with *Kamboja*. The English established a factory at *Pulo Condore*, a group of islands off the coast of the Cambodian delta in 1702, but this also came to a speedy end in the massacre of its members by the *Macassar* sepoys of the garrison. The first missionary who entered *Kamboja* was *Gaspar da Cruz*, a Dominican, in 1555. He has left some curious particulars which are given by *Purchas*.

Kamboja continued to be ground between the two millstones of *Siam* and the now rising kingdom of *Cochin-China*. The former about 1690 annexed large tracts on the N.W., augmented a century later, and again in 1810–12, by seizures which embraced the districts adjoining the *Great Lake*, at the very heart of the old monarchy; the latter in the middle of the last century absorbed the whole of the *Delta*; and *Kamboja* was thus reduced to its present narrow limits. In 1846 a king was enthroned under the joint investiture of *Siam* and *Cochin-China*. The French invasion of the *Anamite* provinces in the *Delta* took place in 1859, and these were formally ceded in 1862. Meantime *Kamboja* seemed about to be finally swallowed up by *Siam*. It was manifest, however, that the prospects of the new French possession would be materially restricted if all above the *Delta* were Siamese; and France began to claim the character of protector of *Kamboja*. In 1864 the king, *Morodam*, was solemnly crowned in the presence of a French and of a Siamese representative; and a treaty was

concluded, placing the kingdom formally under joint protection of those two powers, but practically of France. The presence of a Siamese resident at the court ceased; and thus a reprieve at least was given to this ancient monarchy.

Capitals and Seaports.—The ancient capital of *Kamboja* in its splendour was *Angkor*, of which we shall speak below, abandoned in consequence of its exposure to Siamese aggression in 1388, but briefly reoccupied in 1437. In 1388 the court moved to *Basan* or *Boribun*, on the S.W. shore of the lake, and a few years later to *Pnompenh*, corruptly in some books called *Calompé*, at the confluence of the outlet of the *Great Lake* with the *Mekong*. This appears to be the place named by some of the old writers *Chordamuco*. About 1528 it was established at *Lovék* (called by *Valentijn Lauwek*), near the west side of the issue from the lake; then at *Puntenang* or *Pontaipret* opposite *Lovék*. *Udong*, a few miles north of the confluence, became the capital in 1739, and so continued down to 1866, when it was again transferred to *Pnompenh*. The chief port of foreign trade in the 17th century was *Potaimut*, called by foreigners *Pontemas*, replaced afterwards by *Kangkao* or *Atien* on the same bay. But both were in the territory taken by the *Cochin-Chinese*, and now French. Since the annexations by *Siam* and *Anam* *Kamboja* has only one port, *Kampot*. The trade is chiefly in Chinese hands. Between this and the rich alluvial tract round the capitals a high range of hills has to be passed, but there is a cart road the whole way to *Pnompenh*.

Chief Geographical Features.—The great river *Mekong*, known also as the *Kamboja River*, a name bestowed when its delta yet belonged to *Kamboja*, flows through the existing territory for about 250 miles, from N.E. to S.W. This river as a whole will be better dealt with elsewhere (see *Mekong*). The next main feature of the present limited territory is the "Great Lake," as it is called by the *Cochin-Chinese* (*Bienhoa*), or "Freshwater Lake" of the *Cambodians* (*Talé-Sab*),—by the Malays styled the *Lake of Sri Rama*. This lake is of the nature of those sheets of water which in *Bengal* are called *jhils*, viz., a shallow depression in an alluvial plain, retaining a part of the annual overflow of the rivers throughout the year, and hence subject to great variations in depth and extent. In the rains it is said to have a length of about 100 miles (N.W. to S.E.) with a breadth of one-third as much. Its average depth in the dry season is only 4 feet. The *Udong River*, communicating between the lake and the *Mekong*, fills a channel of great breadth. Its waters change their direction half-yearly, from June to December filling the lake from the *Mekong*, and from December to June draining the lake into the *Mekong*. The lake is an object of superstitious regard to the people, and the fishery therein is the most important event in their annual life. It is carried on in the dry season, during which time extensive pile-villages are erected in the lake, where the drying and salting of the fish is carried on. The dried fish is exported largely to *Cochin-China*, as well as live fish in cages. Much also is converted into oil.

Natural Productions and Exports.—The elephant may be regarded as the characteristic animal of *Kamboja*. Wild herds are numerous, and frequent the shores of the lake in the dry season. The tamed animals are by no means so well trained as in *India*, but they are the chief beasts of burden, and a few years ago did not cost more than £10 or £12. The rhinoceros also abounds (the species we do not find stated) about the foot of the mountains north of the lake. Strong and handsome ponies are bred, much in demand at *Bangkok*. Among wild animals there are said to be three species of wild cattle.

The Chinese envoy of 1295–97 mentions among *Cambodian* exports rhinoceros' horns, gamboge, cardamoms, and

eagle-wood; and these are still among the most characteristic. Though the gum called *gamboge* derives its name from *Kamboja*, and is chiefly supplied by that country, the tree (*Garcinia Morella*) does not appear to have been seen in its native localities by any botanist. Dr *Thorel*, of the French expedition, indicates its habitat as in the N.W. of the old *Cambodian* territory, about *Korat*, now subject to *Siam*. The cardamoms (*Anomum villosum*, *Louveiro*) are produced in the mountains not far from the lake. Eagle-wood (or *Aloe-wood*) appears to be the result of disease, forming internal cavities in the soft white wood of *Aquilaria agallocha*, and is obtained by splitting the tree,—its probable existence in any tree being recognized by indications known to the collectors. It is now found chiefly near the coast of the Gulf of *Siam*, about *Chantibun* (now Siamese), and is said to be common in the island of *Kotran*, or *Phukok*, off *Kampot*. The names eagle-wood, *agila*, &c., are corruptions from the Sanskrit *Aguru*, and have nothing to do with eagles.

Other vegetable products are nutmeg, liquorice, caoutchouc and gutta-percha, tobacco, sapan-wood, pepper, rice, cotton, &c., with benzoin from the Upper *Mekong*. Additional exports of sorts are hides and horns, tortoise-shell, lac, ivory, and dried elephant flesh. Iron of excellent quality is smelted and wrought by some of the hill tribes.

People, Government, and Language.—Of the numerous wild, or we should rather say illiterate, tribes on the borders of the *Cambodian* plain, and still imperfectly known, we cannot speak in our limited space. The *Cambodians* proper, or *Khmér*, differ much from both Siamese and *Cochin-Chinese*. They are described as tall, well and strongly made, showing less of Mongoloid feature than any of the better known nations of *Iudo-China*; good-natured but apathetic, and leaving all the trouble and gains of trade to Chinese, *Anamites*, and Malays. Their religion is Buddhism of the usual Indo-Chinese type. But like the other races of that region they call in the devil-dancing medicine-man in illness. They cut the hair short, leaving a top-tuft, and wear the *langliti*, or loin-cloth, tucked between the legs, using that Hindu name for it.

There are some 2000 Roman Catholic Christians in the country, and some considerable number of Malay and *Tsiam* Mahometans. The Malays are chiefly on the coast, and claim to be very ancient settlers.

The government is an absolute monarchy, after the usual Indo-Chinese kind, with a second king or caesar, the *Yuva-rāja* of ancient *India*, known by a corruption of that title.

The language is placed by the late Mr *Logan* in his "*Mon Anam*" class. But it appears to differ materially from the *Anamite*, as well as from other purely monosyllabic languages of *Iudo-China*. These, like the Chinese, employ a variety of so-called tones, or inflexions of voice, by which different meanings of the same monosyllable are discriminated,—the *Anamite* having six such tones. The *Cambodian* is without these, being spoken, as a missionary expresses it, *recto tono*. The numeration is stated by *Garnier* to present traces of a quinary system, but the vocabulary which he gives hardly confirms this. The letters are an ornamental form of the *Pali*, which has been the foundation of all the Indo-Chinese alphabets. An older form, illegible to the modern priests, is used in the inscriptions.

Architectural Antiquities.—As already indicated, these are of the highest importance and interest. They are found in some forty or more known localities, and some as far north as *Suren* in the *Korat* district, now Siamese (14° 47' N. lat.). Indeed the most important remains are all in what is now Siamese territory, north of the *Great Lake*. The remains embrace walled cities of large extent; palaces and temples, stupendous in scale and rich in design, and often most elaborately decorated with long galleries of

storied bas-reliefs; artificial lakes enclosed by walls of cut stone; stone bridges of extraordinary design and excellent execution; elaborate embanked highways across the alluvial flats, &c. Were it possible to reconcile the geography, they would almost justify the extravagant fictions of Mendez Pinto regarding the palaces and temples of Timplan and Timagogo.

About fifteen miles north of the lake, buried in forest, is the ancient capital, commonly called *Angkor* or *Nakhon* (both corruptions of the Indian *Nagara*) *Thom*, or "the Great City," the proper old name of which was *Inthapataburi*, i.e., Indraprasthapuri, after the capital of the Pandus in the ancient India of the Mahābhārat. Mouhot and Thomson have by some misapprehension greatly exaggerated its size; but its walls do in fact form a quadrangle of nearly $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles in circuit and 30 feet in height, surrounded by a very wide ditch. There are five gates (two on the east), of very grandiose though fantastic architecture. About five miles south of the city is the great temple called *Nakhon Wat*, i.e., "the city monastery," one of the most extraordinary architectural relics in the world.

This also is enclosed by a quadrangular wall of 3860 yards in compass, outside of which is a wide ditch. We cannot attempt to describe this edifice with its corridors, sculptures, and towers rising to 180 feet and upwards. Much in the detail is Indian; much that is but obscurely traced as yet in India connects itself with other remains in Indo-China and in Java; much again is unique. One remarkable point is the *Roman-Doric* character of the enriched pilasters which form a feature frequently recurring; this, too, has parallels, though not quite so striking, in Ceylon and in mediæval Burmese remains.

Some remarkable features of the Camboja monuments are distinctly mentioned in the Chinese mediæval narrative, but there is apparently no notice of the *Nakhon Wat*. If force is to be attached to this omission, it will indicate the date of that building as between 1296 and 1352, the date of the first great Siamese invasion. We are not yet in a position to say with certainty to what worship they were dedicated, though inclining to the view of Garnier, who regards them as belonging to Buddhism, the still existing worship of the nation; and some of the temples are certainly Buddhist. Mr Fergusson dissents, and regards the great temples as monuments of serpent-worship,—though admitting doubt.

Though the existence of these remarkable ruins had been quite forgotten till what may be called their rediscovery, of which the first distinct account was given by M. Mouhot in 1859, they had been known to some of the early Jesuit missionaries, who speak of their "discovery in 1570;" and a notice of them from such a source will be found in Zedler's *Universal Lexicon* under "Cambodscha" (1733). Father Ribadeneyra (1601) says a legend ascribed the erection to Alexander the Great. This must have originated with the Malays, among whom Iskandar and the "Alexander Saga" were familiar and popular. And to the same communication may perhaps be due that strange introduction of *Rome* into the legendary history. This would then be Rome in its Mussulman sense,—*Ram*—i.e., Greece or Turkey.

See Garnier, *Voyage d'Exploration en Indo-Chine*, Paris; Cortambert et de Rosny, *Tableau de la Cochinchine*, Paris 1862; Bastian, *Reise*, ii. and iv.; Mouhot's *Travels*, 1864; *The Philippine Islands*, &c., by Antonia de Morga, Hakluyt Soc. 1868; *Cambodia and its Races*, by G. Thomson; *Antiquities of Cambodia*, by J. Thomson; Fergusson's *Hist. of Architecture*, vol. ii., and *Tree and Serpent Worship*; Crawford's *Mission to Siam and Cochinchina*; Abel-Rémusat, *Nouv. Mélanges Asiat.* vol. i. 100; *Calendar of State-Papers, East Indies*, 1862; Purchas, vol. iii., &c. (H. Y.)

CAMBORNE, a small town in the county of Cornwall, about 13 miles by rail S.W. of Truro. It is a neatly-built

place, and stands in the immediate neighbourhood of some of the most productive tin and copper mines in the county which afford employment to most of the inhabitants. It has a handsome parish church, in the later Gothic style, restored in 1862. Population in 1871, 7757.

CAMBRAY, in German Kamerik, or Kambryk, a fortified town of France, in the department of Nord, situated on the right bank of the Scheldt, 32 miles S. of Lille, in $50^{\circ} 10' N.$ lat. and $3^{\circ} 14' E.$ long. It is well built, contains a large number of ancient gabled houses, and is surrounded by strong walls flanked with round towers. The principal building is the Cathedral of St Sepulchre, occupying the site of an earlier structure, which was greatly damaged during the French Revolution, and suffered still more severely from a conflagration in 1859. It still contains a monument by David to the memory of Fénelon, but the tomb in which the archbishop was buried was broken open in 1793, and his coffin melted into bullets. Of the old archiepiscopal palace the only thing left is a Renaissance portal; and the archbishop now has his residence in what was formerly the convent of the Benedictines. Besides these may be mentioned the church of St Gery, and the belfry of St Martin; the town-house, dating from 1873; the citadel; and the public library, containing upwards of 35,000 volumes, in what was formerly the church of the hospital of St John. Cambray is the chief town of an arrondissement, and has judicial and commercial tribunals of the first instance. A college, two theological seminaries, a medical school, and a school of design are its chief educational establishments; it has also various learned societies. The town has long been famous for its manufacture of fine muslin, to which it gave the name 'Cambric'; and it also contains manufactories of cotton cloth, lace, and thread, as well as sugar-factories, oil refineries, distilleries, breweries, and other industrial establishments. Its trade consists of grain, wine, hemp, hops, cattle, butter, and coal. The Scheldt begins to be navigable at the town, and communicates with St Quentin by means of a canal. Population in 1872, 22,897.

Cambray is the ancient Nervian town of *Cambracum*, which is first mentioned in the Antonine Itinerary. In the 5th century it was the capital of the Frankish king Ragnachar. Fortified by Charlemagne, it was captured and pillaged by the Normans in 870, and unsuccessfully besieged by the Hungarians in 953. During the 10th, 11th, and 12th centuries it was the scene of frequent hostilities between the bishop and his supporters on the one hand and the citizens on the other; but the latter ultimately effected their independence. In 1478 Louis XI., who had obtained possession of the town on the death of the last duke of Burgundy, handed it over to the emperor, and in the 16th century Charles the Fifth caused it to be fortified with a strong citadel, for the erection of which the castles of Cavillers, Escaudouvres, and many others were demolished. From that date to the peace of Nimègue, which assigned it to France, it frequently passed from hand to hand by capture or treaty. In 1793 it was besieged in vain by the Austrians. The League of Cambray is the name given to the alliance of Pope Julius II., Louis XII., Maximilian I., and Ferdinand the Catholic against the Venetians in 1508; and the Peace of Cambray, or as it is also called, the Ladies' Peace, was concluded in the town by Louise of Savoy, mother of Francis I., and Margaret of Austria, aunt of Charles V., in name of these monarchs. The bishopric of Cambray dates from the 8th century, and it was erected in 1559 into an archbishopric, which continued till the Revolution, and has since been restored. The bishops received the title of count from the Emperor Henry I., and in 1510 were raised to the dignity of dukes, their territory including, besides the town itself, the district called Cambresis.

CAMBRIDGE, COUNTY OF, one of the smaller English counties, belonging to the South Midland division of England, is about 45 miles in length and 30 in breadth. It comprises 17 hundreds, and the boroughs of Cambridge and Wisbeach. There are in the county, which is embraced within the diocese of Ely, 172 parishes and townships, besides parts of parishes. It contains, according to the census of 1871, 524,926 statute acres. It is divided by the old course of the River Ouse into Cambridge proper and the

Isle of Ely. Until the year 1857 the Isle of Ely was practically a county palatine, like the county palatine of Chester and the bishopric of Durham, a distinct enclosure within the county. The liberty of the Isle of Ely has its court of quarter sessions, a separate commission of the peace, and its own county rate. The county, which is purely agricultural, and for the most part arable, presents a vast land expanse, with little that is picturesque and with no claims to fine scenery, but imposing to the summer tourist by the frequent pollarded watercourses, the heavy crops of grain, and the immense dome of sky.

Cambridgeshire evidently once formed part of the country of the Iceni. The Icenhilde, always a British way, and never a via strata, was most probably derived from the same root. The country is rich in Roman roads and other remains, and some of the Roman roads were doubtless formed on old British tracks. (For the ancient roads consult Professor Babington's *Monograph*.) Cambridgeshire became a dependency of the kingdom of East Anglia. It was included in the Danelagh, though how far it was colonized by Northmen is uncertain. According to Henry of Huntingdon, in the war against the Danes, when the English fled the men of Cambridgeshire resisted most manfully. During the period of the Conquest, the siege and capture of the Isle of Ely is the most remarkable event; the sea country was the last that yielded to the Conqueror, and the half-legendary Hereward is the last English hero of the conflict. In the time of Stephen, in the time of John, and in the time of the Barons' War in the reign of Henry III., the Isle of Ely emerges repeatedly into notice. The splendid foundations of Etheldreda and her sister, with the rising colleges of the university of Cambridge, drew pilgrims to the district from all parts of the country. In the Civil War Cambridgeshire belonged to the associated counties, and had no actual share in the conflict. Cromwell possessed a considerable estate in the Isle of Ely, and lived in the rectory house of Ely till elected member for Cambridge. He became governor of Ely, and his son Henry died in the neighbourhood (Carlyle's *Cromwell*). King Charles, after his seizure at Holdenby, was brought to Childerly near Cambridge, and was taken thence, to Newmarket, near which the Parliamentary army was encamped under Fairfax and Cromwell.

The drainage of the Cambridgeshire fens forms one of the most remarkable chapters of the industrial history of the country. All the northern portion of the county, at the junction of the counties of Lincoln, Huntingdon, Cambridge, and Norfolk, is part of the vast district known as the Great Level of the Fens. A large province of 680,000 acres of the richest land in England has been reclaimed from the sea and preserved by continual watchfulness, as completely as is the case in the opposite kingdom of Holland. The great works which have reclaimed the land were mainly due to Cornelius Vermuyden, the Dutchman, knighted by Charles I., and the Dutch and Flemings he employed, and in more recent times to James Rennie, the eminent engineer. The chief promoters were five successive earls of Bedford, who have given their name to the great Bedford Level. From the earliest times, however, there had been conflicts between the encroaching waters and the inhabitants of the invaded shores. The Romans, who left few great works unattempted, reclaimed much of the rich silt and soil deposited on the shores of the Wash, and constructed the immense drainage work known as the Carr (Fen) Dyke. They also carried causeways over the fen country. Much of the Roman work seems to have lapsed into the "great dismal swamp," caused by the silting up of the outfalls of rivers, and the mingling of the tides with the upland waters. The submerged territory seems

originally to have been rich meadow and forest land, and it receives the river deposits of soil from eight counties, the causes of the great and abiding fertility. All this region then formed an immense estuary, the Wash, or rather a large lake, communicating by shifting channels with the sea. The more elevated grounds were called islands, whose isolation sometimes invited the founders of religious edifices, and sometimes those without the pale of the law. The whole country from Cambridge to Lincoln was a morass abounding with fish and fowl, and all the scattered habitations of the fenmen were liable to be swept away by sudden storms.

The monasteries and the bishops of Ely did good work in the reclamation of lands. Morton's Leam was a canal made by Bishop Morton of forty miles from Peterborough to the sea, which drained the North Level. After the dissolution of the monasteries the work fell into abeyance until renewed by Cornelius Vermuyden. The fenmen vehemently opposed his plans, and Oliver Cromwell, the member for Cambridge, put himself at their head and succeeded in stopping all the operations. When he became protector, however, he sanctioned Vermuyden's plans, and Scotch prisoners taken at Dunbar, and Dutch prisoners taken by Blake in his victory over Van Tromp, were employed as the workers. Much valuable land was reclaimed, and the fen country altogether improved. There remained, however, very much to be done. Vermuyden's system was exclusively Dutch; and while perfectly suited to Holland it did not meet all the necessities of East Anglia. He confined his attention almost exclusively to the inland draining and embankments, and did not provide sufficient out-let for the waters themselves into the sea. So late as 1810 there were districts in which people reaped their harvest, and gathered their orchard fruits, and went to church, in boats. Rennie pointed out the true scientific principle that a thorough drainage could only be effected by cutting down the outfalls to low water at spring tides, and so facilitating the escape of the waters. He projected a great system of drainage and provided a more effectual outfall of the Ouse into the Wash. His work was improved and extended by Telford.

Throughout the present century great improvements of all kinds have been carried on. The surplus waters were formerly pumped into the rivers and canals by windmills; but this could not be counted on as an invariable force, and steam-mills are generally substituted. Dykes, causeways, sluices, and drains were now cut in every direction. All the rivers of Cambridgeshire which formerly found their outlet at Wisbeach, before the channel was choked up, now mainly by cuts and straightenings, have forsaken their old beds and are poured into the sea by artificial streams, like the Bedford rivers into the German Ocean.

It will be interesting to enumerate the original courses of the streams; it is not always easy to decipher the natural channels. The chief rivers are the Nene and the Ouse, with its tributary streams. The Nene on arriving at Peterborough turned to the right, and making a circuit of several meres passed by March to Wisbeach. It is now made to flow into three channels. One arm is the Cateswater or Shire Drain, which meets Morton Leam and flows into the Wash; the second arm is Whittlesoy Dyke, or the old Nene river; the third is Morton's Leam. The Great Ouse enters the Fens near Earith, where it formerly forked; one branch ultimately joined the Nene; the other branch was called the West Water, and ultimately joined the main channel of the Nene. Both the channels are now nearly closed to the waters of the Ouse, and are carried by the Bedford rivers in a direct line to Denver, where they meet the channel of the Little Ouse, and so