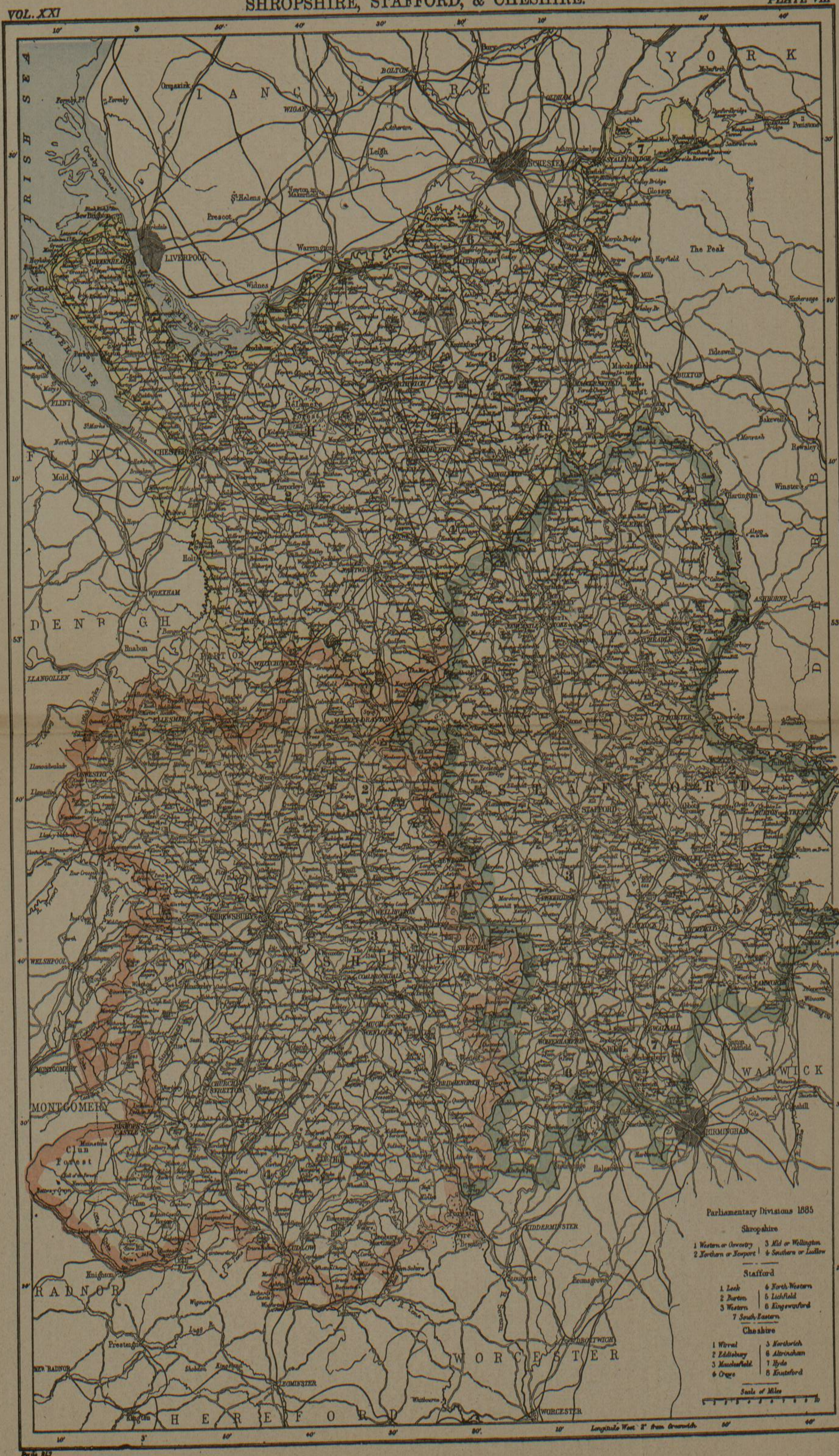
SHROPSHIRE, STAFFORD, & CHESHIRE.


IRISH SEA
LANCASHIRE
YORK
DERBY
FLINT
DENBIGH
MONTGOMERY
RADNOR
HEREFORD
WORCESTER
WARWICK
CHESHIRE
STAFFORD
SHROPSHIRE
LIVERPOOL
CHESTER
WREXHAM
LLANGOLLEN
WELSHPOOL
SHREWSBURY
STAFFORD
BIRMINGHAM
KIDDERMINSTER
LEOMINSTER
WORCESTER
DROITWICH
ASHBORNE
BUXTON
The Peak
River Dee
Longitude West 2° from Greenwich

Parliamentary Divisions 1885

Shropshire

1 Western or Oswestry
2 Northern or Newport
3 Mid or Wellington
4 Southern or Ludlow

Stafford

1 Leek
2 Burton
3 Western
4 North Western
5 Lichfield
6 Kingswinford
7 South Eastern

Cheshire

1 Wirral
2 Eddisbury
3 Macclesfield
4 Crewe
5 Northwich
6 Altrincham
7 Hyde
8 Knutsford

Scale of Miles

Tatars. Instead of flat earthen roofs, as in most other towns of Transcaucasia, the houses have very high steep roofs, covered with shingle. The streets are sinuous, and are intersected by ravines. Shusha was formerly the capital of the khanate of Karabagh. The town is locally renowned for its carpet manufactures, and the district for its excellent breed of Karabagh horses.

The fortress, formed in 1789 by Pana Khan, has a wall on one side, and is defended naturally on the other three sides. In 1795 Shusha successfully withstood a siege by Agha Mohammed of Persia, but was constrained to surrender two years afterwards. In 1805 Ibrahim Khan of Karabagh invoked the protection of Russia, but the annexation was completed only in 1822. The present district of Shusha (2934 square miles) forms only a part of the former khanate of Karabagh. In 1873 it had (exclusive of Shusha) a population of 80,913 (males 45,163, females 35,750), Armenians numbering 43,562 and Tatars 37,351. Agriculture and cattle-breeding are almost the sole occupations of the inhabitants. General culture is very low; there is no enterprise, and but inadequate security for life and property.

SHUSTAR, or Shústar, Shúshtar (Arab. *Tostar*), once a flourishing provincial capital of Persia, is now a comparatively unimportant town of 6000 inhabitants,—exclusive, however, of the Bakhtiáris, who during the winter months encamp with their flocks and herds in the immediate vicinity. It is situated (32° 3′ 30″ N. lat. and 48° 52′ E. long.) at the foot of an offshoot of the Bakhtiári Mountains in the north-west of Khuzistán, and just below the point in the Kárún (Dojail or Little Tigris) where—the main stream running westwards—a cutting of 70 feet deep has been made through the natural rock for an easterly branch. Thence the two streams, enclosing a wide alluvial tract, of which Shustar is the crown, follow independent courses until they reunite some 40 miles to the south. According to Lieutenant Selby, I.N., who ascended the Kárún from Muhamrah (Mohammera) in 1842 by the Shutait (or main stream on the west) to within 6 miles, and further tested the navigation of the Ab-i-Gargar (or eastern channel) to within 1 mile, of Shustar, the town is built on a small hill which rises gradually from the south-west and increases in elevation to the citadel, which presents on the north-eastern side an abrupt face of about 150 feet in length, having the river immediately beneath. Mr Loftus, who visited Shustar some eight years after Lieutenant Selby, gives an account of the two great dams thrown across the river,—the "Band-i-Mizán" over the natural course, the "Band-i-Kaisar" over the artificially diverted branch. About a mile below the latter is a similar work of more recent and more solid and substantial construction, called the "Púl," or bridge of Belaiti. Legend ascribes these ancient works to Shápúr I. and his captive the emperor Valerian. In 1875, and again in 1878, Mr Mackenzie visited Shustar; he speaks of the town as being in a wretchedly decayed and filthy condition. The houses are of stone, some few good, with underground rooms (*sardábs* or *zír zamin*) excavated to a depth of two stories below the ground level. In these relief is obtained from the intense summer heat. The traffic of the bazaar, which is a poor one, seemed to depend chiefly on the Iliyáts or wandering tribes. The inhabitants—for the most part Arabs and Sáiyids—have a reputation for hospitality.

Some writers have identified Shúshar with Susa (Shushan of the Bible), the capital of Susiana and a residence of the Achæmenian kings. The true site of the latter, however, as Loftus's explorations showed, is at Shúsh, a widely spread ruin 30 or 40 miles to the north-west. On the other side of Shustar is the locally classic ground of Rám Hormuz. In fact, of the whole neighbourhood Sir H. Rawlinson writes that it "still requires elaborate exploration, and would well repay any traveller who would devote six months to examining the ruins and carefully copying the inscriptions."

The river Karún, which rises in the Bakhtiári Mountains and passes down the broad Shattu 'l-'Arab, joins the Tigris and Euphrates. It has been declared by many and trustworthy authorities to be well adapted for steam navigation—save as regards one obstacle at Ahwaz, removable at little cost—from its mouth to the near neighbourhood of Shustar. Thence to Ispahan the land journey would be shorter than from Bushahr (Bushire) to that city by 200 miles.

SHUYA, one of the chief centres of the cotton industry in middle Russia, is a district town in the government of Vladimir, 68 miles north-east of the town of Vladimir. A branch railway connects it with the Novki station of the railway from Moscow to Nijni-Novgorod. The town is built on the high left bank of the navigable Teza, a tributary of the Klazma, with two suburbs on the right bank. Annalists mention princes of Shuya in 1403. Its first linen manufactures were established in 1755; but in 1800 its population did not exceed 1500. Its growth began only with the development of the cotton industry in central Russia, and since then has been rapid; in 1882 it had 19,560 inhabitants, as against 10,440 in 1870. Of these about 10,000 live by the manufactures, and only a few keep to agriculture and gardening. In 1881 the output of twelve cotton-mills was valued at £442,160 for various cotton stuffs and £48,000 for cotton yarn. Tanneries, especially for the preparation of sheep-skins—widely renowned throughout Russia—still maintain their importance, although this industry has migrated to a great extent to the country districts. The products of its manufactories are chiefly sent to Moscow and Nijni-Novgorod. The town is mainly built of wood. Its cathedral (1799) is a large building, with five gilt cupolas. Shuya has also two gymnasia, for boys and girls, besides a progymnasium for girls, and several secondary and primary schools.

The surrounding district is also important for its manufactures. The village of Ivanovo-Voznesensk, north of Shuya, with a population of more than 19,000 inhabitants, employed 11,329 workmen in its 39 manufactories in 1881, and showed a return of £1,939,950 (£1,700,000 for cottons and the remainder for chemicals and machinery). Teikovo and Kokhma are two other centres of manufacture,—the whole production of the manufactories within the district (exclusive of Shuya and Ivanovo) being estimated at £630,000. These figures, of course, do not include any statistics of the petty trades carried on side by side with agriculture. Nearly every village has a specialty of its own,—bricks, pottery (Menschikovo), wheels, toys packing-boxes, looms and other weaving implements, house furniture, sieves, combs, boots, gloves, felt goods, candles, and so on The manufacture of linen and cotton in villages, as well as the preparation and manufacture of sheepskins and rough gloves, occupies about 40,000 peasants. The Shuya merchants carry on an active trade in these products all over Russia, and in corn, spirits, salt, and other food stuffs, which are imported to a great extent. In 1880 the imported goods reached 1,613,000 cwts. (1,208,000 by rail), and the exports 1,318,000 cwts., chiefly by the Teza.

SHWE-GYENG, a district of British Burmah, in the Tenasserim division, containing an area of 5567 square miles, and lying in the valley of the Tsit-toung (Sitoung) river. It is bounded on the N. by Toung-gnú district, on the E. by the Poung-loung Hills and the Salwín Hill Tracts, on the S. by Amherst district, and on the W. by the Pegu Yoma Hills. The boundaries have more than once been altered, the last change having taken place in 1877. The aspect of the country is mountainous, especially in the north. The Tsit-toung is navigable throughout its entire length in the district by large boats and steam-launches. Shwe-gyeng has never been accurately surveyed from a geological point of view, but it is supposed to be rich in minerals. Gold is found in most of the affluents of the river Shwe-gyeng; copper, lead, tin, and coal also exist, but are not worked. Except in the hills, the climate is generally healthy; the average annual rainfall at Shwe-gyeng station is 144 inches.

In 1881 the population of the district was 171,144 (89,687 males and 81,457 females), of whom Hindus numbered 958, Mohammedans 855, Buddhists 158,149, and Christians 1250. The only town with more than 5000 inhabitants is Shwe-gyeng, the capital and headquarters of the district, which was founded during the 18th century, before the Burmese conquest, by Alompra. It is situated at the junction of the Shwe-gyeng with the Tsit-toung, and had a population of 7519 in 1881. Only 187 square miles of the district were cultivated in 1883-84; the cultivated area is, however, gradually extending, and there are some 3474 square miles capable of cultivation. The principal crop is rice, of which twenty-five different kinds are grown; other products are cotton, betel-nuts, tobacco, and sugar-cane. The only industries are potteries, salt-making, and silk-spinning. In 1883-84 the total revenue amounted to £36,476, of which the land-tax contributed £15,967.

SIÁLKOT, or SEALKOTE, a district of British India, in the Amritsar division of the lieutenant-governorship of the Punjab, with an area of 1959 square miles. It lies between 31° 44′ and 32° 50′ N. lat. and 74° 12′ and 75° 3′ E. long., and is bounded on the N.E. by the Jámu state of Kashmir, on the N.W. by the Chénab, on the E. by Gurdáspur, on the S.E. by the Rávi, and on the W. by Lahore and Gujránwála. Siálkot is an oblong tract of country occupying the submontane portion of the Rechna (Rávi-Chenáb) Doáb, and is fringed on either side by a line of fresh alluvial soil, above which rise the high banks that form the limits of the river-beds. The Degh, which rises in the Jámu Hills, traverses the district parallel to the Rávi, and is likewise fringed by low alluvial soil. The north-eastern boundary of Siálkot is 20 miles distant from the outer line of the Himálayas; but about midway between the Rávi and the Chenáb is a high dorsal tract, extending from beyond the border and stretching far into the district. Siálkot is above the average of the Punjab in fertility: three-fourths of its area have already been brought under the plough, and a third of the remainder is reported to be capable of improvement. The upper portion of the district is very productive; but the southern portion, farther removed from the influence of the rains, shows a marked decrease of fertility. The district is also watered by numerous small torrents; and several swamps or *jhils*, scattered over the face of the country, are of considerable value as reservoirs of surplus water for purposes of irrigation. Siálkot is reputed to be healthy; it is free from excessive heat, judged by the common standard of the Punjab; and its average annual rainfall is about 37 inches.

The district possesses a total length of 790 miles of road; and a branch line of the Punjab Northern State Railway, from Wazirábád in the north-west corner of the district to Siálkot town (28 miles), was opened in January 1884. In 1881 the population was 1,012,148 (males 539,661, females 472,487), of whom Mohammedans numbered 669,712, Hindus 299,311, Sikhs 40,195, and Christians 1535. The only town of any importance is SIÁLKOT (*q.v.*). The principal agricultural products of the district are wheat, barley, rice, maize, millets, pulses, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, cotton, and vegetables. The local commerce centres in the town of Siálkot, which gathers into its bazaars more than half the raw produce of the district. Its surplus stock finds a ready outlet in the markets of Lahore and Amritsar, while the great rivers on either side form natural channels of communication with the lower parts of the Punjab. The native manufactures comprise silk, saddlery, shawl-edging, coarse chintzes, pottery, brass vessels, country cloth, cutlery, and paper. The gross revenue of the district in 1883-84 amounted to £145,531, of which the land-tax contributed £111,713.

The early history of Siálkot is closely interwoven with that of the rest of the Punjab. It was annexed by the British after the Second Sikh War in 1849; since then its area has been considerably reduced, assuming its present proportions in 1867. During the mutiny of 1857 the native troops stationed in the cantonments of Siálkot besieged the European residents in the fort, and remained masters of the whole district; they also plundered the treasury and destroyed all the records.

SIÁLKOT, the capital and administrative headquarters of the above district, is situated in 32° 31′ N. lat. and 74° 36′ E. long., on the northern bank of the Aik torrent. It is an extensive city with handsome and well-built streets, and contains several shrines and buildings of historical interest. In 1881 its population was 39,613.

SIAM.[1] The kingdom of Siam embraces the greater part of the Indo-Chinese and part of the Malay peninsula. On the north-west the river Salwín separates it from Karen-nee, southwards thence the river Toon-gyeen; then, from the Three Pagodas in 18° 15′ N. lat. down to the Pak-chan river in 10° N. lat., the principal watershed separates it from Pegu and Tenasserim. Its seaboard on the Bay of Bengal extends from the Pak-chan river to Wellesley Province in 5° 30′ N. lat.; but the islands along the coast are British. On the other (east) side of the peninsula the territory extends to 4° 35′ N. lat., or, if the vassal state of Pahang is included, to Johore in about 2° 30′ N. lat. On the east side of the Gulf of Siam the frontier line (according to the Siamese authorities; cf. Plate IX.) starts from the Bay of Compong Som in 103° 20′ E. long., and runs north inland to Mount Pang-chak, thence, after crossing Tonle-sap Lake, east across the Me-kong to the crests of the range which separates the Me-kong valley from Anam. It then follows this range north, including the country north-east of Luang Prabang, to the frontiers of Tongking. Thence it runs west-south-west, separating the tributary from the independent or Burmese Shan states, and meets the Salwín in about 20° N. lat.

The great natural and economical centre of Siam is the delta of the Me-nam river, which is annually flooded between June and November, the waters attaining their greatest height in August. The inundation covers several thousand square miles, so that the capacity for production of rice, which furnishes two-thirds of the entire exports, is almost unlimited, but is very partially developed both from scarcity of population and want of means of transport, mills, and better cultivation. Irrigation channels are, however, cut above the point where the creeks naturally cease by some of the small Chinese settlers. The bar formed at the mouth of this and of the other converging rivers—the Tachim, the Me-klong, and the Pechaburi on the west, and the Kharayok on the east—extends right across the upper end of the gulf, and has 12 or 13 feet of water at high water. The yearly encroachment of the land on the sea is considerable, and the entire delta from Chein-nat in 15° 20′ N. lat. downwards has probably been formed in comparatively recent times. At Bangkok sea-shells are found 20 feet below the surface. The Tachim, the first great branch of the Me-nam, joins its right bank above Chein-nat; below this the main stream anastomoses naturally or by canals freely, the banks of the different channels being densely peopled. Above Chein-nat the Me-nam continues deep and navigable up to the junction of the Pak-nam Pho, its east branch being formed by several important affluents from the north-east. The west branch of the Me-nam is formed mainly by two affluents, the Me-wang and the Me-ping, which flow down through the west Laos states, some of whose chief towns are situated on their banks. In this more elevated region the hill ranges, with a general north-south direction, ramify widely, rising in places to from 6000 to 8000 feet, while the valleys between them widen out into great fertile plains, having the appearance of former lake-basins—a view which coincides with ancient local traditions. On the west frontier the rapid and broken stream of the Toon-gyeen, whose tributary valleys on the Siamese side produce valuable teak and cinnamon, flows from a mass of laterite, south of which the central range consists of granite, with syenite and quartzose rocks. Its spurs (6000 feet high) extending in every direction, of sandstones, Carboniferous limestones, and other Secondary formations, are clothed with sappan and other forest trees, and contain probably gold, besides argentiferous lead, tin, coal, and iron, the latter in nodules of clay oxide and brown hæmatite. On the west of the Gulf of Siam, as far south as 11° N. lat., is a dry barren region, enclosed between two ranges which intercept the rainfall on either side, but farther south are luxuriant damp forests containing *Hopea* (wood-oil), iron-wood, &c., with occasional clearings for cultivation, and many rivers with wide mouths, but becoming mere streams higher up.

In about 10° 30′ N. lat. the Malay peninsula is narrowed

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[1] Compare MALAY PENINSULA, also SHANS, LAOS, and CAMBODIA.

by a river at either side to a width of only 27 miles, and there a survey for a canal has been made; the maximum height of the section is 250 feet, the mean 130; the amount of excavation is estimated at 84 million cubic feet, mostly through hard rock, and the cost at £20,000,000. But the approaches by the river-mouths on both sides are intricate and bad. This has latterly been the chief route across the peninsula; but there are other breaks in the range which forms the backbone of the peninsula, and the Buddhist propaganda is said to have crossed by the isthmus of Ligor. Here, however—perhaps, properly speaking, in Junk Ceylon Island—is the real termination of the great range which comes down unbroken from Yun-nan, separating the Salwín and the Me-nam valleys.

Eastern Siam. East from the plain of the Me-nam, and separating it from the Me-kong valley, a plateau rises with very gradual ascent, clothed to a width of from 30 to 50 miles with forest. From its east side several large and partly navigable rivers flow towards the Me-kong through a sandy and for the most part arid plain, with stunted growth of resinous trees and bamboos, brushwood and grass; but on the lower courses of some of these streams are rich irrigated tracts, producing rice, bananas, sugar, maize, and the usual tropical vegetables. The whole region is very unhealthy, especially in the wet season. Travelling would hardly be possible without elephants, of which some are kept in every village. The rocks are mostly calcareous or sandstone, and at the south edge of the plateau corals and recent shells at a slight depth show the former limits of the land. Farther north the mountains of Pechaboun and Lom are rich in magnetic iron ore, argentiferous copper, antimony, and tin. Only the first-named is worked to any extent; and, though by very primitive methods, a large quantity of tools and weapons are manufactured. From the south of the plateau a range sweeps round to the south-east into Cambodia, outliers from which are the two peaks north and east from Chantaboun, the latter noted for its emeralds, topazes, and sapphires. Isolated hills, apparently volcanic, occur, as the sacred Mount Phrabat, to the north-east of Ayuthia, where there are hot springs and a famous footprint of the Buddha, and the conical hills at Pechaburi in the south-west, consisting of lavas, scoriæ, and trachytic rocks, abounding in caverns elaborately fitted as temples.

Minerals. Tin is extensively distributed, especially throughout the Malay peninsula, where it is worked at Bang-ta-phang in the province of Chumphon, at Chaija and Chaliang, also on the Me-klong, at Kanburi, and at Rapri. Gold is found pretty extensively in Tringanu and Pahang; there are mines at Bang-ta-phang; and it is extracted in the Me-kong valley by washing or with mercury. Most of it is consumed in trinkets and presents given by the king,—gold leaf being imported from China for gilding pagodas, &c. Iron abounds in the east, as at Lom and Mulu Prey, antimony at Rapri, lead at Pak-phrek and Suphan, silver in the Me-pik valley. Both the lead and copper ores are often argentiferous.

Climate. Much of the natural rainfall in Siam is intercepted by the high lands of the Malacca peninsula and by the mountains on the north-west and north, while the proximity of the Gulf of Siam tempers the heat. The rainfall at Bangkok on an average of ten years is 67·04 inches, of which 50·59 inches fall from May to October inclusive.[1] The mean annual temperature is 80°·1, varying from 74°·8 in December to 83°·4 in April; the lowest recorded absolute minimum was 57° in December 1866, the highest recorded absolute maximum 97°·5 in May 1867. The north-east monsoon begins to blow early in November, preceded by a month of variable weather. It has lost half its force in January, and by March strong south and south-south-west winds have set in, the south-west monsoon blowing then steadily and strongly till September. Thus there are three seasons of four months each,—the hot, rainy, and cold.

As to general features, the fauna of Siam is identical with that of Burmah and of southern China, and is one of the richest in the world. Elephants are very numerous in the south and east, but are not found so far north as in India. They are as intelligent as the Indian, but usually less highly trained. White (albino) monkeys are sacred, as are the elephant, an iguana which lives in the house and kills rats and other vermin, and the crow; white ants' nests are respected as resembling pagodas, so that libraries are often kept in tanks to escape the ants' ravages.

The flora is very similar in character to that of Burmah and has much in common with the Chinese, the transition to which is almost insensible. The coast region is characterized by mangroves, pandanus, rattans, and similar palms with long flexible stems, and the middle region by the great rice-fields, the cocoa-nut and areca palms, and the usual tropical plants of culture. In the temperate uplands of the interior, as about Luang Prabang, Himalayan and Japanese species occur,—oaks, pines, chestnuts, peach and great apple trees, raspberries, honeysuckle, vines, saxifrages, *Cichoraceæ*, anemones, and *Violaceæ*; there are many valuable timber trees,—teak, sappan, eagle-wood, wood-oil (*Hopea*), and other *Dipterocarpaceæ*, *Cedrelaceæ*, *Pterocarpaceæ*, *Xylia*, iron-wood, and other dye-woods and resinous trees, these last forming in many districts a large proportion of the more open forests, with an undergrowth of bamboo.

Trade. Numerous caravans of cattle, horses, mules, and porters pass annually from Yun-nan (south-west China) to the northern (Siamese) Shan states, whence many of them proceed *via* Chieng-mai to Moulmain (Maulmain). They bring from China silk goods, tea, opium, and brass wares, and take back raw cotton, deer and rhinoceros horns, ivory, and saltpetre. The northern states, which are a great breeding-ground for cattle and ponies—elephants too are exported into Burmah—send down teak and other produce. The proposed railway from Moulmain *via* Myawaddi to Raheng, and thence to Kiang-sen, 190 miles from the Chinese frontier, is intended to stimulate not only the traffic with China but the local resources (see address by Mr Holt Hallett, C.E., in *London Chamber of Commerce Journal*, 5th May 1885). The eastern states, comprising nearly half the area and a considerable part of the wealth of the kingdom, send much produce *via* Korat to Bangkok. They produce chiefly China grass (*Bœhmeria nivea*), sugar, indigo, silk, cardamoms, cotton, tobacco, sisiet (a substitute for betel), beeswax, benzoin, lac, iron, lime, sulphur, salt, coarse pottery, mats, hides, tigers, and bones, horns, and tusks of elephants, rhinoceroses, and boars. European cottons and hardware and Chinese goods penetrate everywhere, the chief entrepôts being Nangkoi in the east and Chieng-mai in the west. The eastern plains produce alternate crops of rice and salt. The rains dissolve the salt in the soil and wash it down, making cultivation possible. In the dry season the salt comes up again and is swept up from the surface. Much alcohol is distilled and consumed. Vast quantities (6900 to 7900 tons) of dried fish are prepared at Lake Tonle-sap, and at fisheries on the coast.[2] Although silk has been known from remote antiquity, it is produced exclusively by the Lao communities settled throughout the country,—the chief centres being Korat and Battampong. The export in 1884 was 325 cwts., valued at £19,890; but the best quality hardly reaches the Bangkok market, its natural bright yellow colour making it difficult to dye. There is, however, not much of it, the demand for the better kinds being supplied from Cambodia. But for the apathy and indolence of the people the production might be largely increased; the spinning and reeling apparatus too are very primitive, though some beautiful cloths are woven at Chieng-mai. Much of the trade in teak and cattle is worked by Burmese; otherwise almost all the trade of the country is in Chinese hands. In some of the remoter districts barter is resorted to, beeswax, salt, lac, and bars of iron being mediums of exchange; but generally silver is used, and sometimes Indian rupees. Civilization increases in the eastern districts as the frontier of China is approached. **Exports and imports.** In 1884 419 vessels cleared from Bangkok with cargoes valued at £27,170; of these 240 (tonnage, 151,984) were British. In addition, there were 143 junks (tonnage, 3350). The total value of the exports was £2,262,240, rice being the principal item, £1,444,200. The imports were valued at £1,044,255, the chief items being—grey and white shirtings, £161,997; opium (704 chests), £81,410; chowls, *i.e.*, shawls, a cotton cloth from Bombay, £105,264. In 1885 the exports were valued at £1,907,006 and the imports at £1,380,233. The exports being in excess of the imports, the difference is paid in Mexican dollars, which are melted down and re-coined,—the silver coinage being the standard of weight.

The money and weights seem to be the same as the Old Cambodian. A copper coinage has replaced the cowries, and there is also a silver coinage, viz., the fuang = 7½ cents, the salung = 15 cents, the bat or tikal = 60 cents or half a crown, 5 tikals = 3 Mexican dollars. From the tikal upwards these coins are also used as measures of weight. Thus 1 tikal weighs 15 grammes or 231 grains, 4 tikals = 1 tamlung, 20 tamlungs = 1 chang or catty, or two Chinese catties, = 3·2 ℔. There are a few gold coins, but not in general circulation. Their value is sixteen times their weight in silver.

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[1] But on the neighbouring ranges the fall is, at Moulmain 244 inches, at Tavoy 202, at Mergui 185.

[2] During the floods vast quantities of fish swarm into the rice-grounds and are caught when the water recedes, furnishing a valuable and abundant food-supply.

The land-tax is fixed at ten per cent., the first person who clears land being entitled to hold it. The tax on garden produce and on fruit trees is higher, but is fixed at intervals of some fifteen years, or at the beginning of a reign. There is a *corvée* of four months in the year, to which all classes except the nobles and the priesthood are theoretically liable, but it may be commuted for a poll-tax of from 6 to 18 tikals, payable either directly in money to Government or to the feudal superior, for all except the nobility are thus dependent on a superior ;in the provinces it is payable in kind through the governor. A smaller amount, 1½ tikals, is payable by masters for their slaves. But there are some considerate exceptions, viz., persons over sixty or under eighteen years of age, or who have three sons paying the tax, and cases of incurable illness. If a special demand for labour be made there is exemption from poll-tax for that year. The Chinese only pay 4¼ tikals triennially, and Europeans are exempted. There is a tax on houses, on amusements (theatricals, dancers, &c.), and on fishing-boats, nets, and other tackle. There is a royalty on tin, and the sale of opium and of alcohol is a Government monopoly, farmed to Chinese. Three per cent. is levied by treaty on British and other foreign imports, export duties on a great number of raw articles, and inland or transit dues on certain tropical products. The revenue from all these sources is estimated at 80,000 catties (£800,000).

Administration. The head of the administration is the king, with five ministers,—viz., of war, foreign affairs, northern provinces, agriculture, justice, —and some thirty councillors. The office known to Europeans as "second king" (Siamese *wang-na*, lit., "front palace") is difficult to define, as the share taken in government by him depends very much on his individual character. He has a palace and an official establishment, and a few soldiers at his orders. The country is divided into forty-one provinces, excluding the Laos and Malay states, and the Cambodian provinces. The provinces are of different grades,and their governors have very different degrees of authority. Speaking generally, they have cognizance of all civil cases,—though there is an appeal to the capital (which generally reaches its destination, as the governor's council act as spies), —and of minor criminal cases. The graver crimes, as murder and dacoity, involving a question of life or death committed in Siam proper, are referred to a special department in the capital. Villages are governed by a head-man (*kamnan*, *amp'hon*, or *nakhon*), sometimes with a small salary, chosen usually in accordance with the popular wish, and dependent on the provincial capital. The Siamese mandarins in the Lao provinces do not oppress overmuch, nor do the native chiefs, since their power depends on their popularity. Besides the lower grades there are always four principal officials, the *chao*, lord or king, the *uparat*, *rachavangsa*, and *rachabutr* (the first title of Chinese, the others of Indian origin). These are hereditary in one or two families, any disputed succession being referred to Bangkok. The Siamese law is recognized, but the national "customs" are much regarded, and in ordinary cases followed. Civil and criminal processes alike end usually in a fine. Besides the capitation tax, there is a duty on rice, and each state pays tribute to Bangkok. The tie between Bangkok and the Malay states is slighter, being confined usually to interference in cases of disputed succession, and to a triennial tribute of a gold or silver tree or flower. The rules of procedure in Siam are very strict, but theoretically there is no hereditary rank.

The laws of Siam are ancient, though not very full or complete, a great part having been lost at the sack of Ayuthia in 1753. Generally speaking, they are referable to an Indian origin, especially as regards religious, moral, and ceremonial ordinances; the civil and criminal codes bear the impress of Chinese influence. There are several digests of the law, some centuries old, under systematic headings, *e. g.*, of the civil law, real and personal property, inheritance, ranks, evidence and ordeal, marriage, education, parental authority, slavery, money, weights and measures, contracts, and of the penal code, crimes, punishments, police, prisons. The king is absolute, but claims no absolute rights over the land. Great attention is paid to precedents. Among the peculiarities of the system are the employment of ordeal—by diving or chewing rice, &c.—in the absence of witnesses, and the rejection of the evidence of certain classes, viz., drnukards gamblers, virgins, executioners, beggars, persons who cannot read, and bad characters. When a crime is committed the family and even neighbours of the accused can be held responsible for his appearance. The property of intestates goes to the king, of an intestate priest to his monastery; but the neglect of the heir to perform funeral rites renders his claim to property invalid,—a curious relic of Hindu feeling. Another trace of this may be found in the hereditary professions, though their doctrinal significance as castes has disappeared. The laws have many curious and not inequitable provisions about slavery (see below) *e.g.*,if a temporary (debtor) slave has undergone punishment or suffering for his master, his debt shall be remitted wholly or in part; but, if he is a slave absolutely, his master is not legally liable. And there are well-defined rules as to non-fulfilment of contract with a slave, his maintenance during famine, injury by accidents, employment as a substitute in war, &c. Slaves who are allowed to become priests or nuns are free.

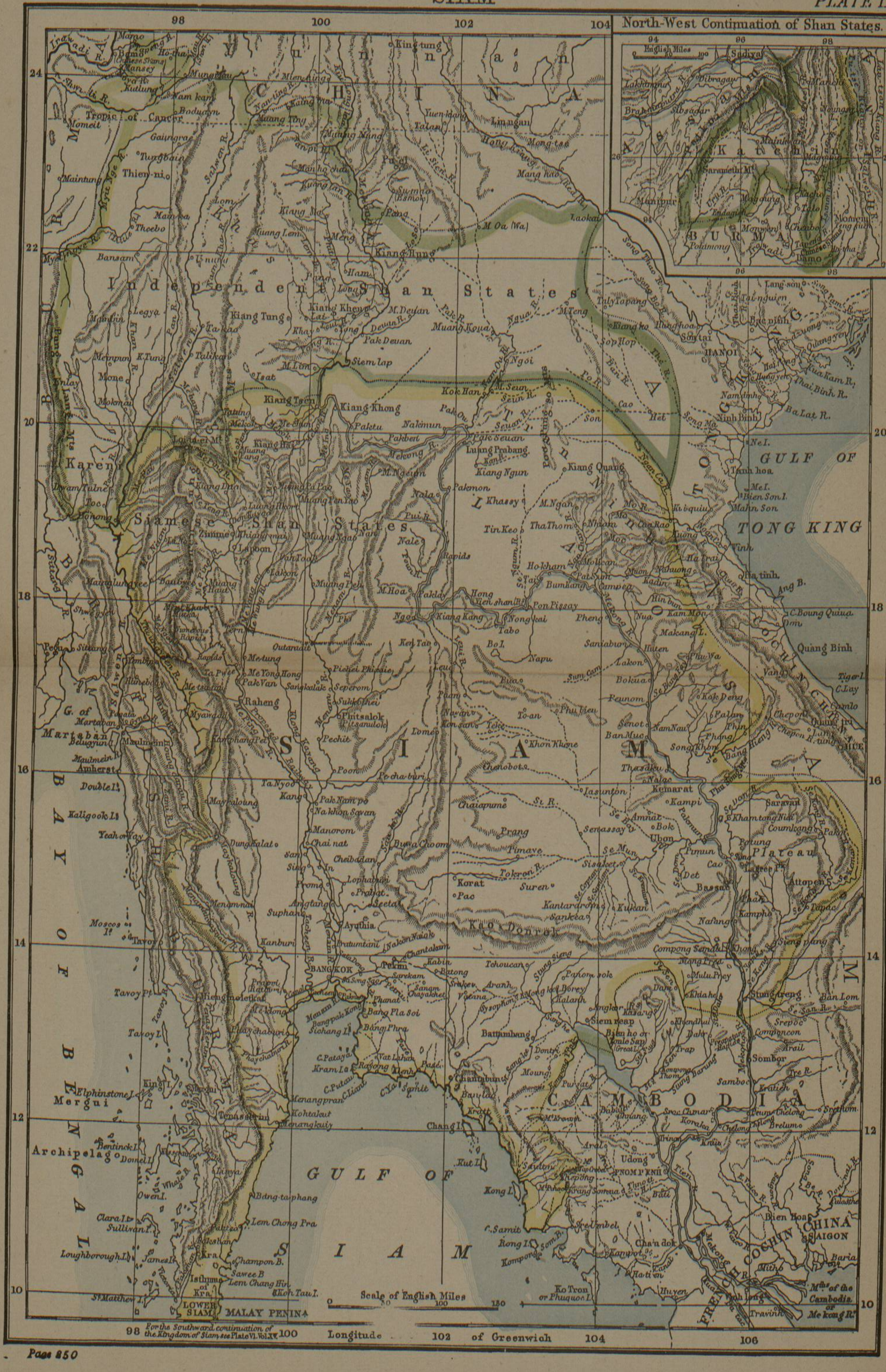
Army and Navy. All men are liable to serve in war; but only from 4,000 to 5,000, taken from classes specially at the disposal of the war department, are regularily trained under European officers. The capital and surrounding forts are garrisoned, and there is a body of palace guards. The fleet consists of some twenty men-of-war and armed steamers and 500 junks.

The population is estimated by the Siamese Government at 6,000,000 for Siam proper, 3,000,000 Siamese Laos, and 1,000,000 Malays; others estimate it variously at from 6,000,000 to 8,000,000. There are besides perhaps from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 Chinese. In lower Siam the population is clustered along the rivers and canals; in the diversified hill and plain country to the north it is distributed more generally. In character the Siamese are mild, patient, and submissive to authority. They are hospitable to strangers and to the poor; quarrels, violent crimes, and suicides are rare. But they are idle and apathetic; much time is devoted to amusements, as festivals and processions, boat races, games, cock and dog fighting, and even combats between fish. The position of women is good, although girls can be sold as wives. The Chinese population are energetic and industrious, but very independent, and sometimes give trouble, so that their increasing numbers and organization through their secret societies are a source of anxiety. The Siamese are of medium height, well formed, with olive complexion, darker than Chinese, but fairer and handsomer than Malays, eyes well shaped, nose slightly flattened, lips a little prominent, the face wide across the cheek bones, top of forehead pointed and chin short, thus giving the face a lozenge shape, beard scanty and with hairs pulled out, hair of head coarse and black. But intermarriage during many ages with Peguans, Laos, and Cambodians (though in many cases they and their descendents keep themselves apart), as well as of slaves from the aboriginal races, has produced much variety of type. Besides the Karens, who are the remnant of a more widely extended people, and who are found on the borders of Siam and Burmah and throughout the mountains of north and west Siam, the Lawas in the same region, and the Khongs, a settled people inland from the north-eastern angle of the Gulf of Siam, many other tribes of the earlier inhabitants are found occupying the whole of the forest region on both sides of the Me-kong, and known to their different neighbours by various names, all probably meaning simply "man," or "savage," as Kha, Moi, Pnom, Lolo. These eastern tribes more or less resemble each other. They are shy and timid, some having no chiefs or social organization, and these are preyed on or hunted down as slaves by their more civilized fellows in combination with the Laos. One division of these tribes, the Kouis (the name recalls the savage "Gueos" of the Portuguese), amalgamates readily with the Laos and in some provinces forms the bulk of the population. They live by cultivating rice, by collecting honey, beeswax, and resin, or by the chase. Their women are absolutely free before marriage, but adultery is punished with death. They worship ancestral and other spirits and can hardly be called Buddhists. Yet with a few exceptions these earlier peoples are by no means inferior in appearance to the Thai or Siamese, but often the contrary; some ethnologists assign them a Caucasian origin, and identify them with the brown Polynesian race.

Slavery is general, but consists mainly of bondage for debt, a debtor being able to sell himself, wife, or children, or nephews or nieces,—their freedom being recoverable on payment of the debt. But the present enlightened ruler has set his face against the practice, and decreed its abolition, except in the Laos provinces and in the eastern states. The market is further recruited, first by the sale of offenders, who have the option between death and slavery, and secondly by slave-hunting raids, made in combination with the Anamites, on the villages of the wilder aborigines. These are disposed of on the spot or else to dealers from Cambodia or Siam proper.

BANGKOK (*q. v.*) was established as the capital in 1782 after the sack of Ayuthia by the Burmese. Its population was estimated at about 300,000 in 1886. Ayuthia, now called Krung-krao, the famous capital founded in 1351 and half destroyed by the Burmese in 1767, was a generation ago the second city of the kingdom. It is still important as the entrepôt of the trade of south Laos. Many junks and fishermen come up from Bangkok. The modern town is chiefly on the water. In its most prosperous days in the 16th century it was three leagues in circumference, and contained distinct quarters for foreigners of different nationalities—Chinese, Peguans, Malays, Malabars, Japanese, and Portuguese. Prominent among its great buildings is the pyramidal structure called the Golden Mount, some 400 feet high, surmounted by a dome and spire; but most of them are now crumbling away into great broken masses of sculptured masonry, statues, and spires, half buried under the vegetation of the tropics. Chantaburi, near the Cambodian frontier, the second port of the kingdom, is noted for its shipbuilding and fisheries,and has an active export trade from the south-eastern provinces. There are considerable Chinese and Burmese elements in the popula-

SIAM


North-West Continuation of Shan States.
English Miles
BURMA
CHINA
Yun-nan
Independent Shan States
Siamese Shan States
Tropic of Cancer
Karen
LAOS
ANNAM
TONG KING
GULF OF TONG KING
SIAM
BANGKOK
CAMBODIA
PNOMPENH
FRENCH COCHIN CHINA
SAIGON
GULF OF SIAM
BAY OF BENGAL
Mergui Archipelago
G. of Martaban
Martaban
Moulmein
Amherst
HANOI
Hué
Korat
Ayuthia
Battambang
Plateau
LOWER SIAM
MALAY PENINA
Scale of English Miles
Longitude of Greenwich
98
100
102
104
106
24
22
20
18
16
14
12
10
For the Southward continuation of the Kingdom of Siam see Plate VI. Vol. XV.