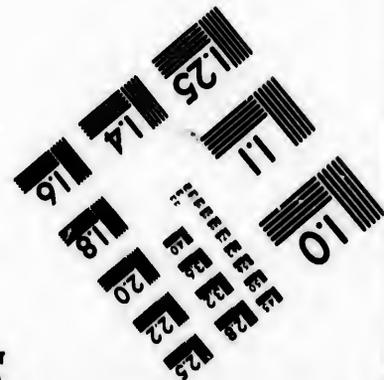
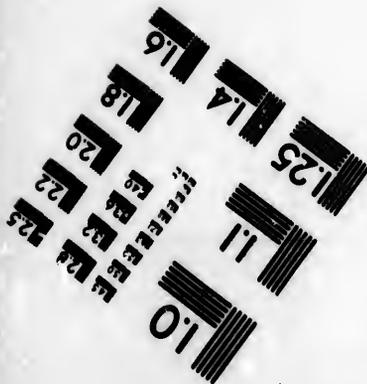
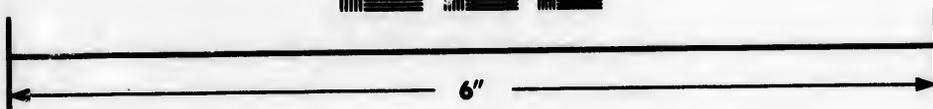
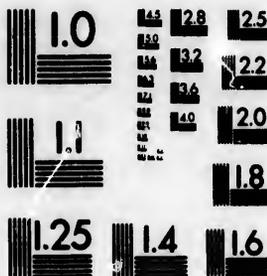


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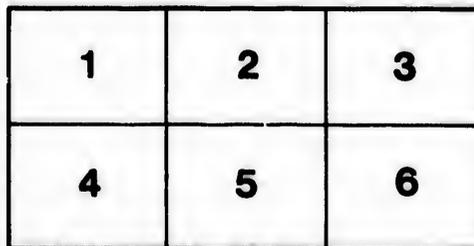
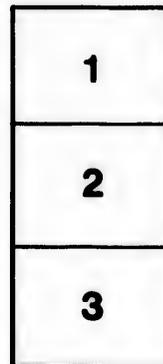
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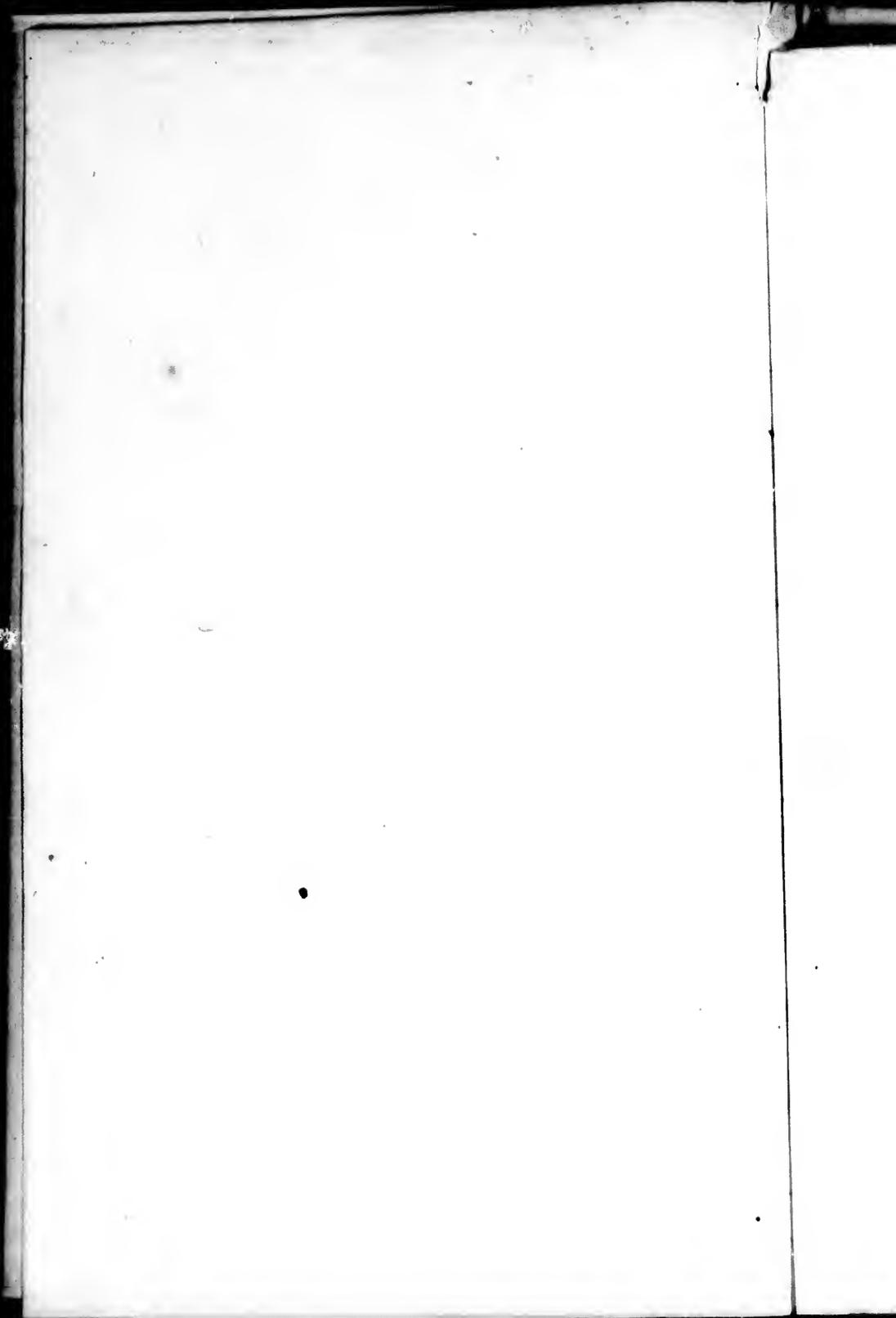
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Native States not under British Protection.

Nepal	36,000 Sq. M.
Lahore. (Subject to Runjeet Sing.)	16,000
Chief of Sind at the Mouth of the Indus.	40,000
Sindia.	42,400
Rajah of Dholpoor, Barw & Rajasthurm.	1,500
Native States with which Subsidiary Treaties exist.	
King of Oude.	23,300 Square Miles.
The Bhootlah or Rajah of Nagpoor	64,270 Sq. Miles.
The Nizam whose Capital is Hyderabad	108,800
Bikaner	27,600
Mysore	29,750
Tirunelveli	6,000
Cochin	2,000
The Gokomur	30,000
Oriss	6,200

Native States under British Protection but without Subsidiary Treaties.

Bhopal.	2360 Sq. Miles.
Sikhon	400
<i>The Sikh & Hill States on the left bank of the Sutlej.</i>	
<i>The Aust & other States on the right bank of the Jamna.</i>	
<i>The Poonnda States 20000 Sq. Miles.</i>	
Remah	10,000 Sq. M.
State of Rajpootana	215,000 Sq. M.
State of Malwah	
State of Gujarat	
State on the Malabar Coast	
State on the Marwar Frontier	

Foreign Independent States.

China.	1,372,450 Sq. Miles	Pop. 360,000,000
Cochin China.	100,000	
Siam	90,000	
Avi	100,000	
Arabul	60,000	
Prussia	160,000	
Muscovet		

Arabian Bank
Persian Bay



Chronological

Date of Treaty.	Event.
1757 Dec. 20 th	Twenty-six
1759 May 23 rd	Marathas
1760 Sep. 07 th	Hydrabad
1763 Aug. 12 th	Regal. B.
1765 Aug. 30 th	Guanying
1768 Nov. 12 th	Northern
1775 May 21 st	Boundary
1776 May 22 nd	Island of
1778 June 17 th	Angore
1778 Sep. 28 th	Gunbar
1786	Tala Pinar
1792 Mar. 17 th	Malabar
1799 July 15 th	Chimbatoo
1799 Oct. 26 th	Tanjore
1800 Oct. 18 th	Districts
1804 July 31 st	Tippoo's
1804 Nov. 30 th	Guadalupe
1808 Dec. 31 st	Districts
1813 Dec. 17 th	Kutch

BRITISH P



Logical Table of the Acquisitions of the British in India

Districts.	Sq: Miles	From whom acquired.
Twenty-four Pergunahs &c.	4882	Sabob of Bengul.
Madrasetnam &c.	5000	The Nizam.
Madras, Madras, and Chittagong	13,240	Sabob of Bengul.
Bengul, Bahar &c.	16,450	The Mogul.
Company's Jaghire in the Vicinity of Madras	3,000	Sabob of Arnd.
Northern Owers	17,750	The Nizam.
Remiandary of Benares	11,000	Vicer of Oude.
Island of Salset		Mahrattas.
Agore		Bojah of Tanjore.
Gimbar Orer	4,900	The Nizam.
Pala Pinang &c.	160	King of Queda.
Malabar, Dindigul, Salem, Ruvimahl, &c.	24,000	Tippoo Sultan of Mysore.
Madras, Canara, Mysore &c.	10,000	(conquered from Tippoo Sultan & ceded to the British by the partition Treaty of Mysore.
Tanjore	4,000	Bojah of Tanjore.
Districts acquired by the Nizam from Tippoo Sultan in 1792 and 1799	15,350	The Nizam.
Madras	17,250	Nabob of the Carnatic.
Madras, Lower Dooab, Barvally &c.	17,000	The Vicer of Oude.
Districts in Bundelund	4,685	Peishwah.
Madras & Bahawal		

British Territory is colour
States under British Pro
Independent States
These places marked thus

50 100

Great Andaman I.

ANDAMAN

Rajahs of Dholpoor, Barre & Rajjahkotrah 800
 Native States with which Subsidiary Treaties exist,
 King of Oude, 23,300 Square Miles.
 The Bhootlah or Rajah of Nagpoor 64,270 Sq. Miles.
 The Nizam whose Capital is Hyderabad 108,800
 Holconr. Indore, 17,600
 Mysore, Mysore, 29,750
 Travancore, Trivandrum, 6,000
 Cochin, Cochin, 2,000
 The Goukour, Bawda, 30,000
 Cutch, Bhoor, 6,200

Native States under British Protection but without
 Subsidiary Treaties.

Rhopal, 2360 Sq. Miles.
 Sikim, 4400
 The Sikh & Hill States on the left bank of the Satly.
 The Jaut & other States on the right bank of the Jamna.
 The Poondeh States 29,000 Sq. Miles.
 Rewah, 20,000 Sq. M.
 States of Rajpootana, 205,000 Sq. M.
 States of Malabar.
 States of Gujarat.
 States on the Malabar Coast, 11
 States on the Burmese Frontier.

Foreign Independent States.

China, 1,372,450 Sq. Miles Pop. 360,000,000
 Cochin China, 100,000
 Siam, 90,000
 Ava, 200,000
 Coubul, 60,000
 Persia, 160,000
 Muscat.

Presid. Area. Population.
 Bengal S.M. 217,712 ... 60,000,000
 Agra, 88,900 ... 20,000,000
 Madras, 141,923 ... 35,508,535
 Bombay, 64,938 ... 6,251,516

Nine Degrees Channel.

Eight Degrees Channel.

I N D I A N O C E A N

Chronological Table of the

Date of Treaty.	District
1757, Dec. 20 th	Twenty-four Perganahs & Maladipatanam &c.
1759, May 24 th	Burhan, Maladipoor, and
1760, Sep. 27 th	Bengal, Bahar &c.
1765, Aug. 22 nd	Company's Jaghire in the V
1765, Aug. 30 th	Northern Circars
1768, Nov. 12 th	Remainder of Benares
1773, May 21 st	Island of Salsett
1776, May 22 nd	Nagore
1778, June 27 th	Goukour Arrur
1778, Sep. 25 th	Pala Pinang &c.
1786	Malabar, Dindigul, Salan, &c.
1792, Mar. 17 th	Coimbatour, Canim, Wynau
1799 July 13 th	Tanjore
1800 Oct. 25 th	(Districts acquired by the Tippon Sultan in 1792 and
1800 Oct. 12 th	Canalic
1801 July 31 st	Goorkypoor, Lower Doob, B
1801 Nov. 30 th	Districts in Bundelcand
1802 Dec. 31 st	Kattack & Balasore
1803 Dec. 17 th	Upper Part of the Doob of D
1803 Dec. 30 th	Districts in Gujarat
1805 Apr. 21 st	Kanun & part of the Terr
1805 Dec. 2 nd	Sauger & Jattah Darwar &
1807 June 23 rd	Amradabul Farn
1807 Nov. 6 th	Kandish &c.
1808 Jan. 6 th	Amere
1808	Poonah Konkan South th Mal
1800 Dec. 17 th	Land in Southern Konkan
1809 Dec. 28 th	Districts in Berjapoor & A
1809 Aug. 2 nd	Singapoor
1805 Apr. 9 th	Malawa
1806 Feb. 25 th	Loam, Arracan, Tavay Ye, J
1808	(Districts on the Nerbnkta, Su
	Patni, &c.

The undemonstrated Native State Government in a part of the Territory
 1799 July 3rd The Rajah of Mysore a desc
 Antiqu Rajahs of the Country
 1809 Sep. 23rd The Rajah of Sattarah the An
 Mahattas 9000 Sq. Miles.

State Rans

The King of Delhi
 Nabob of Bengal &c.
 Nabob of the Carnat
 Rajah of Tanjore,
 The Prishwah,
 The Prince of the
 Rajah of Benares &c.

B E N G A L

Chronological Table of the Acquisitions of the British in India

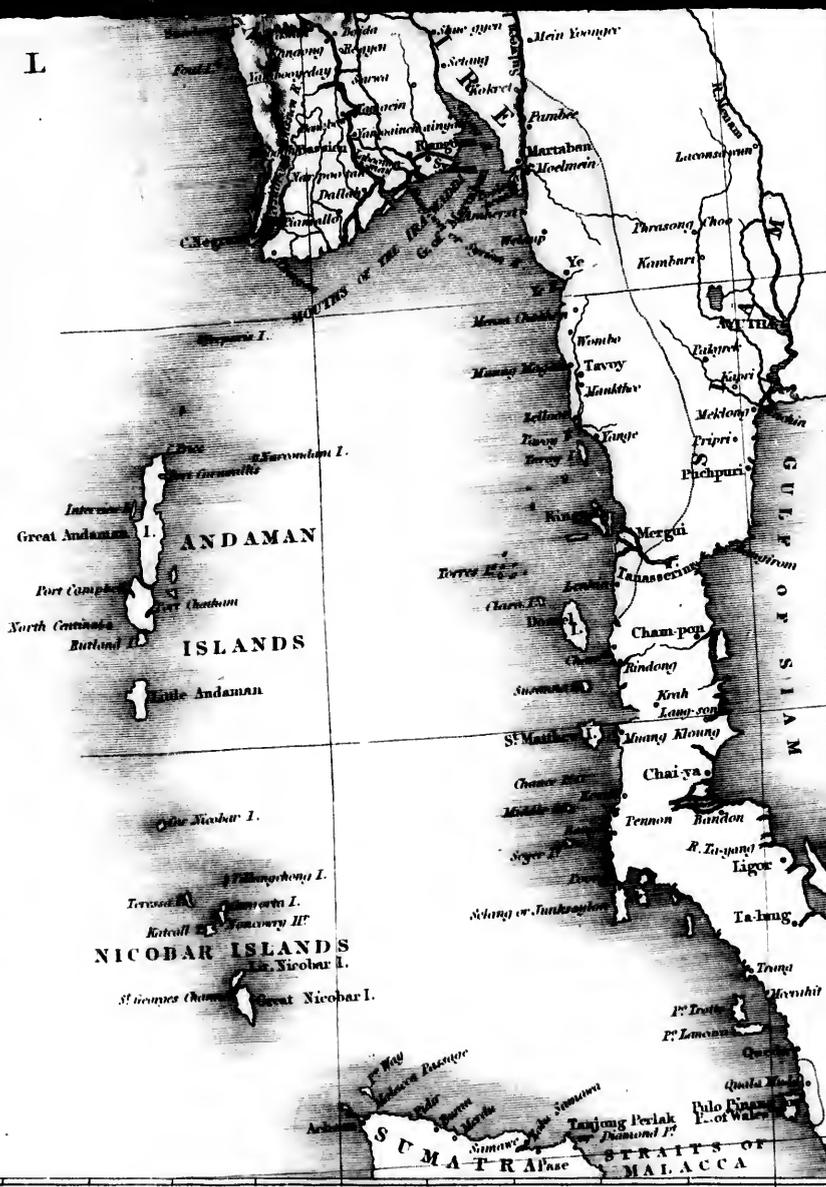
Date of Treaty.	Districts.	Sq. Miles.	From whom acquired.
Dec. 20 th	Twenty-four Pergunahs &c.	487½	Nabob of Bengal.
May 24 th	Masulipatam &c.	5,000	The Nizam.
Sept. 27 th	Burhan, Midnapoor, and Chittagong	23,240	Nabob of Bengal.
Aug. 12 th	Bengal, Bahar &c.	268,850	The Mogul.
Aug. 30 th	Company's Jaghire in the Vicinity of Madras	3,000	Nabob of Arsat.
Nov. 22 nd	Northern Circars	27,250	The Nizam.
May 21 st	Zemindary of Benares	12,000	Vizier of Oude.
May 22 nd	Island of Salset		Mahrattas.
June 27 th	Nagore		Rajah of Tanjore.
Sept. 28 th	Guntour Anur	4,900	The Nizam.
	Pulo Pinang &c.	160	King of Queda.
Mar. 27 th	Malabar, Dindigul, Salem, Barumahl, &c.	24,000	Tippoo Sultan of Mysore.
July 13 th	Coinbatour, Canara, Wynaud &c.	20,000	(Conquered from Tippoo Sultan & ceded to the British by the partition Treaty of Mysore.)
Oct. 26 th	Tanjore	4,000	Rajah of Tanjore.
Oct. 12 th	(Districts acquired by the Nizam from Tippoo Sultan in 1792 and 1799)	25,500	The Nizam.
July 31 st	(Caratic)	37,250	Nabob of the Carnatic.
Nov. 10 th	Gondkpoor, Lower Dooab, Bareilly &c.	52,000	The Vizier of Oude.
Dec. 31 st	Districts in Bundelcund	4,683	Peishwah.
Dec. 17 th	Katlack & Balasore	20,000	Rajah of Berar.
Dec. 30 th	Upper Part of the Dooab, Delhi Territory &c.	62,000	Dowlat Rao Scindia.
Apr. 21 st	Districts in Gujarat	6,000	Gujawar.
Dec. 2 nd	Kanuton & part of the Terriue	20,000	Nepal.
June 23 rd	Singur & Huttah Darwar &c.	20,000	Peishwah.
Nov. 6 th	Ahmedabad Furn	4,600	Gujawar.
Jan. 6 th	Kandeah &c.	22,430	Holcar.
	Ajmere		City Dowlat Rao Scindia.
	Poonah Konkun South Mahratta Country	20,000	Conquered from the Peishwah.
Dec. 17 th	Land in Southern Konkun	6,700	Rajah of Sawuntwarree.
Dec. 22 nd	Districts in Bejapoor & Ahmednuggur	5,000	The Nizam.
Aug. 2 nd	Singapoor	387	Rajah of Johore.
Apr. 9 th	Malacca	800	Dutch.
Feb. 24 th	Assam, Arracan, Tavvy Ye, Tanassaron, &c.	77,000	King of Ava.
	(Districts on the Nerbuckla, Southhulpoor)	8,570	Rajah of Berar.
	Patna, &c.		

The undermentioned Native States have been established by the British Government in a part of the Territory which had been acquired by right of conquest

July 3 rd	The Rajah of Mysore a descendant of the Ancient Rajah's of the country 29,250 Sq. M.	In a part of the Territory acquired from Tippoo Sultan.
Sept. 25 th	The Rajah of Satturah the Ancient head of the Mahrattas 9,000 Sq. Miles.	In a part of the Territory acquired from the late Peishwah.

State Pensioners & Pensions.

The King of Delhi	1,600,000 S.R. per an.
Nabob of Bengal &c.	2,500,000
Nabob of the Carnatic &c.	2,000,000
Rajah of Tanjore.	1,700,000
The Peishwah.	2,100,000
The Princess of the House of Tippoo &c.	600,000
Rajah of Benares & other Chiefs	500,000



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Drawn & Engraved by J. & C. Walker.

Author: J. & C. Walker, Plate VIII, Map 1, 1833.

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HISTORY
OF THE
BRITISH COLONIES.

BY
R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN, F.S.S.

MEMBER OF THE 'ASIATIC' AND OF THE 'MEDICAL AND PHYSICAL' SOCIETIES OF BENGAL;
AUTHOR OF 'TAXATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE'; OF THE 'POLITICAL,
FINANCIAL, AND COMMERCIAL CONDITION OF THE ANGLO-EASTERN
EMPIRE'; 'IRELAND AS IT WAS—IS—AND OUGHT TO BE';
&c. &c.

IN FIVE VOLUMES.

VOLUME I.

Second Edition.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

' FAR as the breeze can bear—the billows foam—
SURVEY OUR EMPIRE!'

LONDON:
JAMES COCHRANE AND CO.
11, WATERLOO PLACE, PALL MALL.

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W. & A. G. & Co. Printers.

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MARTIN, R. M.

DEDICATION.

[FIRST EDITION.]

TO THE

KING'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

SIRE,

IN availing myself of YOUR MAJESTY'S gracious permission to inscribe to the Sovereign of the greatest Colonial Empire in the World its *first* Colonial History, I would desire to place on record, why that History is not more worthy the patronage of the Monarch to whom it is dedicated, or more commensurate with the importance of the subject to which it refers. There is no paucity of materials, Historical, Geographical, Statistic, or Pictorial. One-third of an active life spent in travelling among, and investigating the advantages of our transmarine possessions, either as an officer in YOUR MAJESTY'S Service, or as a private individual, anxious to ascertain the vast resources of Britain, has furnished me with the most abundant supply of data necessary for an *extensive* National Work; but, SIRE, the little encouragement afforded by Government to literature, even when

of the most useful description—added to the peculiar era in which we live, forbids the publication of such a work. Nevertheless, to remedy in some slight degree, an acknowledged blank in the History of our country, and in the earnest hope that a period will ere long arrive when the study of causes which influence the rise and fall of nations, will have its supremacy vindicated over the local and fleeting considerations which too generally sway the present age, I venture to lay before YOUR MAJESTY a brief, but yet lucid and comprehensive detail of facts, sufficient for the exercise of the judgment, on the momentous questions connected with the Possessions now under the Sovereignty of the British Crown.

SIRE,—The transmarine dominions of this *insular* Kingdom offer—to the Agriculturist measureless fields for pasture and tillage;—to the Manufacturer an incalculable extension of the home market for the disposal of his wares;—to the Merchant and Mariner, vast marts for profitable traffic in every product with which Nature has bounteously enriched the Earth;—to the Capitalist an almost interminable site for the profitable investment of his funds;—and to the industrious, skilful, and intelligent Emigrant, an area of upwards two million square miles, where every species of mental ingenuity and manual labour may be developed and nurtured into action, with advantage to the whole family of man: England—SIRE—has no need to manufacture beet-root sugar (as France)—her West and East India possessions yield an inexhaustible profusion of the cane;—grain (whether wheat, barley, oats, maize or rice,) every where abounds;—her

DEDICATION.

Asiatic, American, Australasian and African possessions contain boundless supplies of timber, corn, coal, iron, copper, gold, hemp, wax, tar, tallow, &c.;—the finest wools are grown in her South Asian regions;—cotton, opium, silk, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, saltpetre, spices, spirits, wines and fruits, are procurable of every variety and to any extent in the East and in the West, in the North and in the South of the Empire:—on the icy coast of Labrador as well as at the opposite Pole, her adventurous hunters and fishers pursue their gigantic game almost within sight of their protecting flag; and on every soil and under every habitable clime, Britons desirous of change, or who cannot obtain occupation at home, may be found implanting or extending the language, laws and liberties of their Father land. In fine, SIRE, on this wondrous Empire the solar orb never sets,—while the hardy woodsman and heroic hunter on the St. Lawrence and Ottawa are shivering beneath a wintry solstice, the peaceful, but no less meritorious farmer and shepherd on the Kysna* and Hawkesbury,† are rejoicing over the golden grain and fleeces of the Autumnal Southern clime, and every breeze that blows from the Arctic to the Antarctic circles is wafting over the unfathomable ocean myriads—

‘Whose march is on the mountain wave,
Whose home is on the deep.’

SIRE,—Although adulation characterizes the present period, I would not have sought the distinguished honour of dedicating to YOUR MAJESTY the following volume, did I not feel assured that the friends of freedom all over the globe, are

* In the Cape of Good Hope territories.

† In the New South-Wales territories.

bound to **YOUR MAJESTY** in ties of deep personal attachment for the Regal support uniformly afforded to Civil and Religious Liberty;—that heartfelt feelings of respect and gratitude are due to a Sovereign whose anxiety for the public weal has ever predominated over private considerations; and whose very limited powers in a Constitutional Monarchy have been exercised with even-handed justice. It is the duty—the imperative obligation of every individual, however humble, in a free state, to express conscientiously but calmly his public opinions, for by such means truth is elicited; hence, it may be permitted the writer who has now the honour to address **YOUR MAJESTY**, to observe, that the construction of the British Empire at home and abroad, is now in a momentous state of transition, the fruits of which are yet in the womb of time—Providence in making us the instruments of ulterior events having wisely concealed them from human ken; this much, however, is evident, that to preserve the integrity of the British Empire under a general or federal form of government, the most prompt attention must be paid to its Colonies, the intrinsic worth of which is neither understood nor appreciated by the mass of the people. To **YOUR MAJESTY'S** Ministers, and to Parliament, the most remote Colonists now look with ardent anxiety, that they may be treated as the citizens of a Kingdom undivided by any Ocean,—and, **SIRE**, if Nations will derive lessons from the past, the bulwarks of England's Maritime Power and Oceanic Supremacy, would not be neglected until the danger had arisen of their being irrecoverably lost. In the hope, therefore, of directing public attention to the most remote, as well as to the nearest sections of the British Empire, and in the belief that a fair exposition

of facts, divested of party feeling or local prejudices, will receive from YOUR MAJESTY'S Government, that just consideration, which is all the Colonists require, I have the distinguished honour and gratification,

SIRE,

To subscribe myself,

YOUR MAJESTY'S dutiful subject,

R. MONTGOMERY MARTIN.

LONDON,

1st February, 1834.

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES. [SECOND EDITION.]

(VOL. I.—POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.)*

Possession.	Ceded, Conquered, or Colonized.	Date of Acquisition.		Locality.		Area in Square Miles.	Population.		Colonial Revenue.	Parliamentary Grants, or Expenses for Troops.		Regular Military Strength.		Maritime Commerce.		Shipping.		Property †		Locality.		Population.		On River or Coast.
		Lat. N.	Long. E.	White.	Colored.		Imports.	Exports.		For England.	Total.	Yearly Greated.	Movable and Inmovable.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	White.	Colored.							
Bengal	Ceded	1756	23 28 58.51	120000	20000	4000000	£.	100000000	100000000	21 2 58 23	8000	1200000	Hooghly.											
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Utt. Gang.	Conquered	1825	9 27 30.59	50000	500	1000000	1500000	200000000	200000000	20 30 52 5	100	10000	Bay of Bengal.											
Madras	Do.	1706	8 29 74.55	1000000	1000000	4700000	2000000	200000000	200000000	13 5 59 29	1300	500000	Indian Ocean.											
Bombay	Do. & Ceded	1688	16 52 73.75	64000	10000	8000000	1000000	250000000	250000000	13 56 72.57	3000	200000	Ocean.											
Ceylon	Conquered	1612	5 45 39.55	2664	8000	1000000	1000000	1000000	1000000	6 57 50 0	4000	23000	Ditto.											
Penang	Colonized	1786	5 15 100	160	500	60000	50000	5000000	5000000	George T.	5 25 100 15	300	13000											
Malacca	Ceded	1655	2 14 102	102	800	34000	7000	5000000	5000000	Malacca.	2 14 102 12	200	6000											
Singapore	Colonized	1819	1 15 104	230	200	22000	1700000	5000	127000	Singapore	1 15 104	26	1200											
				521792	66000	57112000	7727225	15000000	1000000	1000000	867765000	1383300000												

* According to the statistics of the various parts, &c. of this table will be found copiously explained in various parts of the Volume, as a guide to which I refer to the Index; the object in giving the table is to show, as far as possible, the extent of the British possessions in Asia, and to enable the most superficial observer to perceive their magnitude and importance as a glance.

† The European military are included in the white population.

‡ The estimate of property is of course only an approximation to correctness; I have reason, however, to think the data under estimated; the Collectors of Revenue in British India ought to be instructed to send in estimates of the property fixed and movable in each Collectorate. We are daily deficient in Indian statistics.

§ It is proposed to make Alibabad the seat of this Lieutenant-Governorship.

¶ This includes the suburbs on either side of the river, embracing entirely and all beyond the Malabar Ditch, towards the Salt Water Lake, and round to Kidderpore, &c.

INTRODUCTION
TO THE SECOND EDITION
OF
THE FIRST VOLUME
OF THE
HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

A SECOND edition of the first volume of the '*History of the British Colonies*' was called for before the fourth volume had issued from the Press ; in cheerfully complying with the demand, I cannot refrain from offering a few observations not entirely irrelevant to the work, but which are far from being prompted either by motives of vanity or of personal considerations. I should be doing injustice to my own feelings—and wanting in duty to the Colonies, were I to refrain from expressing my deep sense of gratitude for the kindness I have received from their Majesties, and from the several branches of the Royal Family,—a kindness to which an enlightened public have added the testimony of their approbation. Though I may not have deserved the high encomiums that have been passed on my undertaking,—and though I feel most sensibly my manifold deficiencies, I will not, under the cloak of an affected humility, deny that in prosecuting towards a completion the present work, I ardently sought to merit in some degree, however slight, the patronage of my

gracious Sovereign, by exerting every effort within my limited power and circumscribed means to advocate the interests of the transmarine Possessions of England, and to make the condition, the wants and the sentiments of upwards of one hundred million of British subjects known at the seat of government. In truth I declare, that I much wish the task had fallen to the lot of some more favoured individual;—not that I shrunk from the difficulty of keeping up the unremitting toil of days—weeks—months, and I may add, years; but because I found how impossible it was to steer clear of party feelings and selfish interests, without expressing in strong language opinions on either adverse side; I fear that on some occasions I may have used too harsh expressions while advocating the rights of the Colonists, but any passages liable to the charge have been carefully expunged in the present edition, and such alterations made as a more matured judgment, and a calmer tone of thought may have suggested.

I may be in error as to the mercantile value and political importance of our transmarine possessions,—if so it is an error unbiassed by private considerations; for I possess no interest territorially or pecuniary in any colony—I am not engaged in commerce—I hold no Government office—I have received no Government aid, nor have I procured the patronage of any individual or association—but looking only to public support and approbation, I have tasked my understanding in vain to find out wherein the alleged error lies,—and the reader will find in my '*Colonial Policy*' the arguments put forth against colonies, fairly met and impartially considered apart from the abuses to which the best institutions are liable.

In reference to the observation of lighter matters being

mixed up with graver details—herein lay one of my chief difficulties; a dry statistical work, or abstract history of bygone events, would have obtained few perusers at the present day, and the main object I had in view—namely to stimulate the curiosity—and attract the minds of the British public towards the Colonies—would have been defeated; I chose, therefore, to incur rather the charge of frivolity than lose the opportunity of doing good—I preferred gilding the pill when I could even thus minister to the welfare of my country.

Ere I close this introduction, let me again entreat public attention to the state of Hindostan, not only for the sake of the Hindoos, but also as regards the prosperity of Britain. It is suicidal for England to persevere in her present commercial policy towards India; by our past measures we have beggared the best customer that our merchants, manufacturers and traders had ever presented to them; for example, estimating the sum of money drawn from British India for the last 30 years at £3,000,000 per annum, it amounts at 12 per cent. (the Indian rate of interest) compound interest, to £723,997,971 Sterling; or if we calculate it at £2,000,000 per annum for 50 years—the abstraction of capital from Hindostan amounts to the almost incredible sum of *eight thousand four hundred million pounds Sterling!* (£8,400,000,000).*

No country, however rich in territory, fertile in resources, or industrious and numerous in population, could withstand the desolating influence of such a constant and accelerating drain on its circulating medium and wealth;—we see its results

* Strictly speaking, the actual withdrawal of capital in the 50 years is £100,000,000; but had that vast sum been left in India, it would have 'fructified' in the pockets of the Hindoos, and produced as great, if not a greater result than that mentioned in the text.

in the mercantile failures which have taken place in Calcutta alone within two or three years, amounting to £15,000,000 Sterling!

Why, the merchant princes of Venice or of the Medici, were pedlars to these Anglo-Indian Houses, who have nevertheless, with the vast property attached to them, been ruthlessly annihilated, amidst the sorrowing tears of parents, widows and orphans, who, by no fault of their own, have been suddenly hurled from comparative affluence into biting poverty—thrust forth on the charity of the world.

Oh! that Englishmen would look more to their immense possessions in Hindostan than they have yet done; there is nothing there repulsive to meet the eye,—the lust of conquest has not desolated provinces,—nor the thirst of wealth plundered kingdoms,—British taxes have not been expended in adding dominion or vain glory to our diadem, but the hallowed blessings of peace have followed the track of our footsteps until in less than half a century an hundred million of brave, intelligent, and comparatively civilized human beings are congregated within the pale of this extraordinary Empire: Is it not impious to spurn the manifold blessings attendant on an event which almost realizes the wildest dream that an ambitious imagination could form? *On the one hand*, we behold a small island in the Atlantic admirably adapted for commerce, and possessing a hardy, industrious and skilful manufacturing population;—*on the other*, a vast territory, situate in a distant hemisphere,—with a soil exuberantly fertile—a varied, and not ungenial clime—abounding in all the tropical products which the wants or luxuries of the Hyperborean can require,—and teeming with myriads upon myriads of industrious, patient and emulative human beings, whose love of

agriculture and trade is unsurpassed by any other nation. It would appear as if nature herself had linked together the Northern Isle and Eastern Continent under the one Crown for the wisest purposes, namely, that by the interchange of commodities indigenous to each, the peaceful influence of commerce might become the handmaid of civilization—and thus contribute towards the extension of the humanizing influence of Christianity through the varied and numerous kingdoms of the Asiatic Hemisphere. Let us hope that a new era is dawning for England and for India; the latter offers to the former an incalculable domestic market for the disposal of her cottons, woollens, hardware, pottery, &c., and presents in return all the raw products which the most varied manufacturing skill can require: but so long as the Island continues to beggar the Continent by draining the latter of her circulating medium,—forcing on her steam-wrought manufactures, and refusing by means of prohibitory duties the simplest productions of her soil, so long as such policy be pursued the union of the Northern Island and Eastern Continent is disastrous for both;—it is somewhat like the vulture preying on the liver of Prometheus, with this exception, that though the appetite of the one may grow by what it feeds upon, the power of the other is becoming yearly less and less capable of furnishing the pabula of life.

Let me be excused for putting these views more familiarly before the public,—there are upwards of ONE HUNDRED MILLION OF BRITISH SUBJECTS IN INDIA—(to say nothing of *another hundred million* of tributary, allied, and protected Hindoos); if we dealt out commercial justice to these people, their condition would be materially elevated—that is, if we took from thence our raw cotton—our tobacco—our sugars—

coffee, &c. &c., they would be enabled in return to do that which their poverty now alone prevents—namely to purchase largely our Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, Staffordshire, and Birmingham wares. For instance, if those 100,000,000 of British subjects only took each a turban or a gown-piece yearly, averaging for the rich and poor at so low as 10 yards, and at 6*d.* per yard, the amount of exports *in cotton goods alone* from England to India would be £25,000,000 sterling! (For what our trade now is, see Chap. VI. on *Commerce*.) On the other hand, let us examine the article sugar, which the continent offers to the island so abundantly, but which the latter has heretofore, and still, virtually prohibits. The consumption of sugar and sweets may be estimated at present, among 26,000,000 inhabitants in the United Kingdom, at 4,000,000 cwt. or 448,000,000 lbs. weight, which would give to each mouth 17 lbs. of sugar per annum, or 5 oz. per week, a quantity which the youngest infant would consume. Now, granting that the West Indies can continue to supply this 4,000,000 cwt. of sugar, which is, however, problematical, there can be no doubt that it is possible to extend that quantity; so that any reduction of duty on the import of sugar into England would go to benefit the West India planter, and not the British consumer, if the former were still to retain a monopoly of the home market: but if the *source of supply* (which heretofore has wilfully or neglectfully been forgotten) be extended, and the British possessions in the *East* placed on a fair footing with those in the *West*, the consumers in this country would derive not merely the advantage of a reduction of import duties, but also (what is of far greater value) the diminution of cost price, which an extended competition is sure to produce. In such case,

there would be a vast augmentation in the consumption of sugar: it is an article of general utility—grateful to the young and the old, adapted to almost every article of nourishment, and well suited for fattening animals as well as men. It is by no means, therefore, hypothetical to assume that, on an equalization and diminution of the duties on East and West India sugars, the consumption consequent on reduced price would be extended from *five* ounces per head per week in the United Kingdom, to at least 15 ounces per week; and admitting that the West Indies continued to supply one-third the quantity (five ounces), and which they could not extend, the possessions in the East Indies would readily furnish the remaining two-thirds, or 896,000,000 lbs., which, at a cost price of *2d.* per lb., would open up a new commerce for Hindostan of *seven and a half million sterling* (£7,466,666. sterling). In a financial point of view, this arrangement would be decidedly beneficial to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who would receive on 12,000,000 cwt. of sugar, at *12s.* per cwt. (which would be a duty high enough), upwards of *seven million sterling* per annum (£7,200,000.), while he does not now receive £5,000,000.; and suppose the duty levied at *15s.* per cwt., he would receive £9,000,000. per annum. With reference to the advantages that commerce would derive from such a change, we would have an extended exportation of British manufactures to India, which would be repaid in sugars, cotton, tobacco, silk, coffee, &c.

Referring the enquiring reader to my Second Volume, Chapter XVI, for fuller details as regards the mode in which the West Indies would be affected, and how this act of justice and expediency should be met;—and in the hope that the Courts of Directors and Proprietors of the Honour-

able East India Company will strenuously and unremittingly pursue their laudable endeavours to obtain an equitable commercial reciprocity for Hindostan, instead of the one-sided system of (so called), free trade, which is still in operation, I conclude with cordially thanking a generous Public and an impartial Press for the encouragement afforded me towards the prosecution of labours, the grand aim of which is, the happiness and perpetuity of the British Empire.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

It will be perceived that, in the present edition (the second), 100 pages of new matter have been added above the number given in the former edition; and, in order to do this, as well as to add several valuable manuscript documents furnished by the E. I. House, Board of Control, Custom House, Colonial Office, &c. a portion of what appeared in the first edition is necessarily omitted, viz. the chapter on China, the incomplete census of India, and other documents given in the Appendix, which were before printed rather to shew our lamentable ignorance of Indian statistics, and to excite attention to the subject, than as being themselves of value. A complete chapter has been given on the Hindoos, their character, institutions, customs, &c.; valuable additions have been made to the commercial, religious, and educational portions of the volume; and the returns of the subsidized, protected, and tributary chiefs of India are now, for the first time, printed. A new general map, together with one of lower Bengal, has been added, and no pains spared to render the work deserving of public approbation.

* * * The Reader will occasionally perceive a discrepancy in the orthography of some Oriental proper names, but that is an evil not to be avoided, as the vowels are supplied arbitrarily by the ear of the European.

† The total British territory under the immediate Government of the East India Company is 514,150 square miles (i. e. four times the size of England) and the extent in square miles of British territory in India and territories protected by Great Britain is 1,128,800.—[Parliamentary Returns, 1831.] For details, see pp. 50 & 51.

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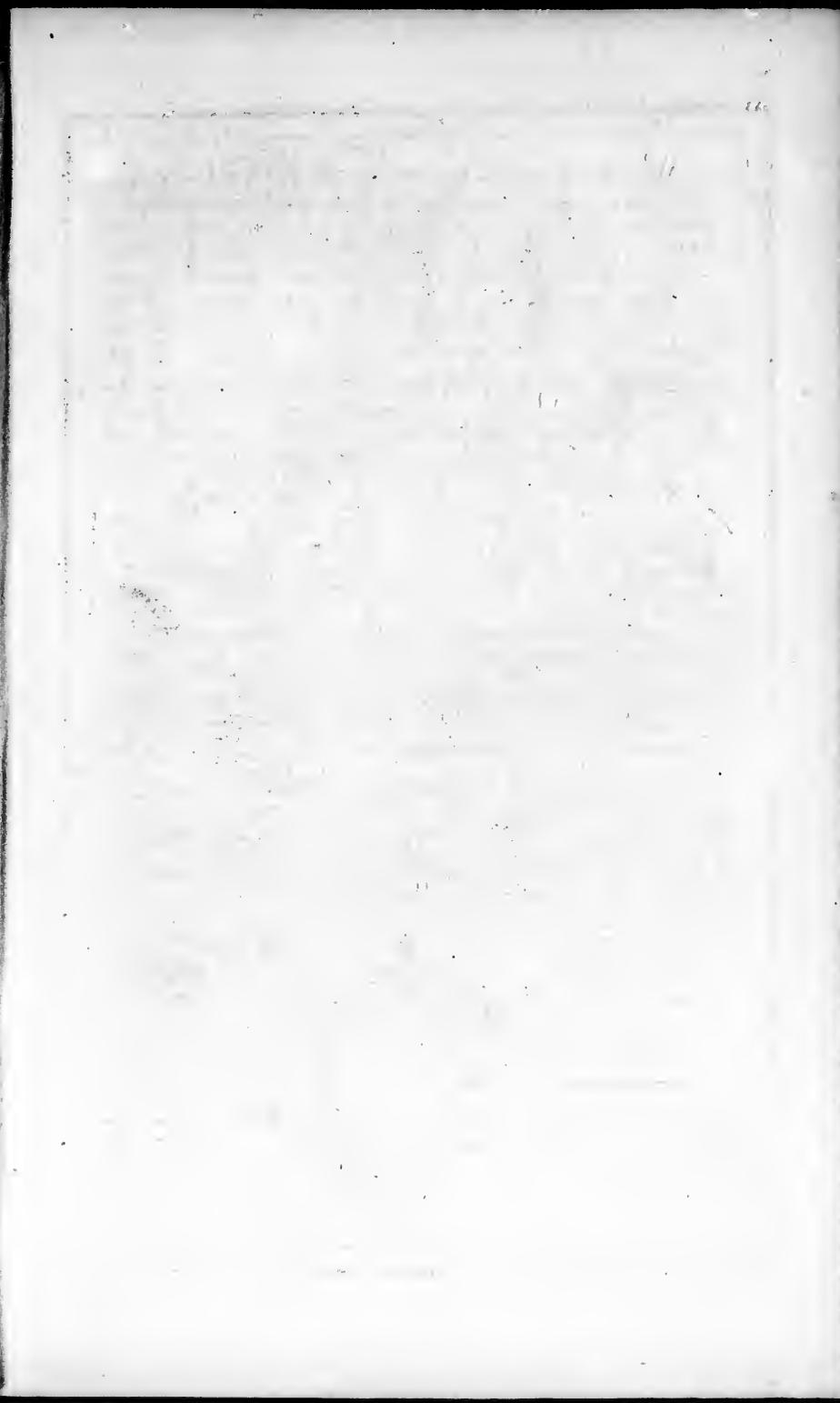
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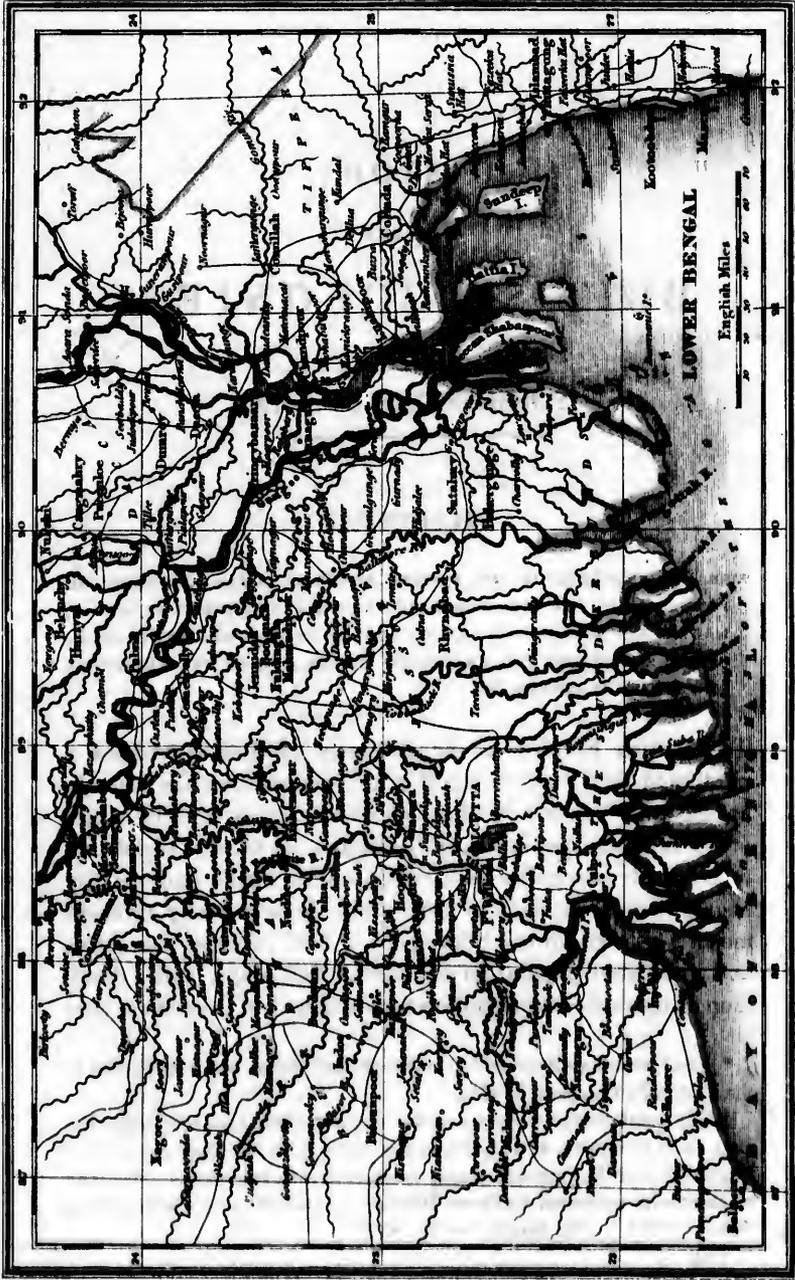
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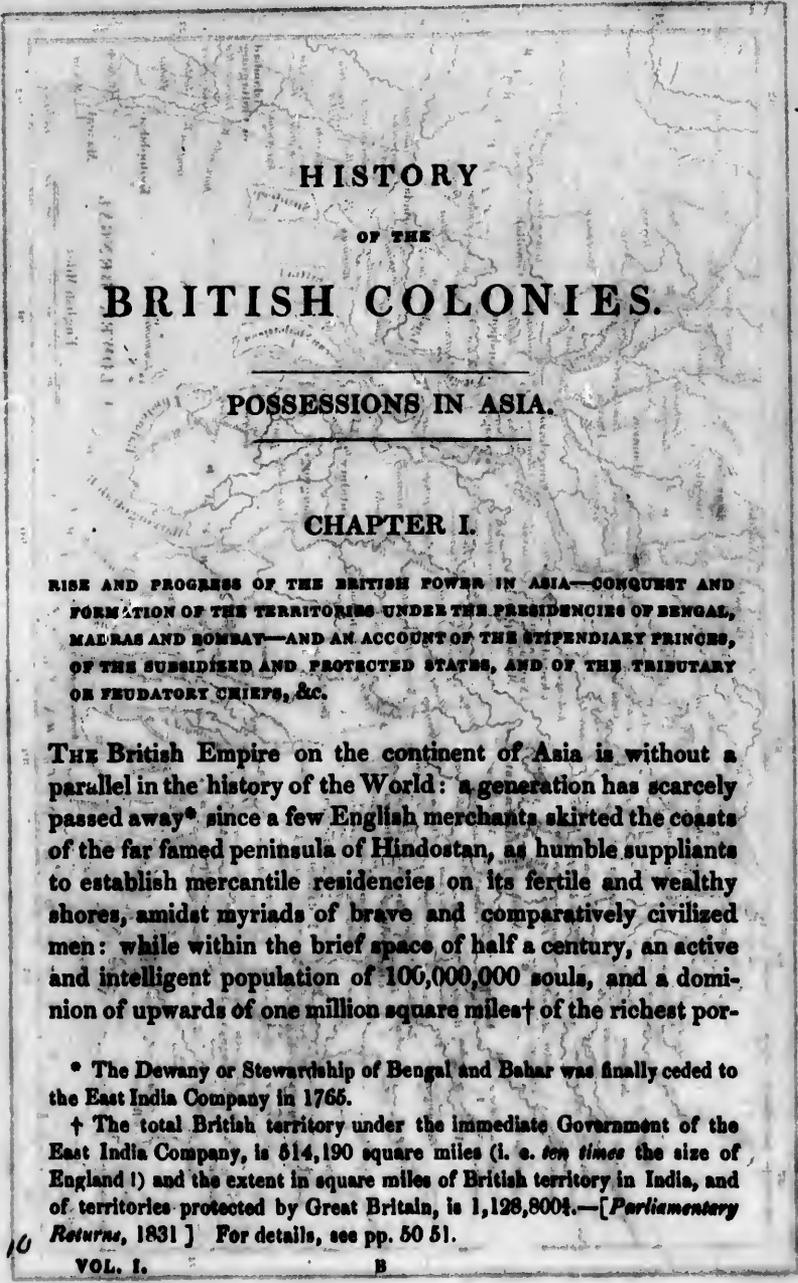
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HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

CHAPTER I.

RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH POWER IN ASIA—CONQUEST AND FORMATION OF THE TERRITORIES UNDER THE PRESIDENCIES OF BENGAL, MAHRAS AND BOMBAY—AND AN ACCOUNT OF THE STIPENDIARY PRINCES, OF THE SUBSIDIZED AND PROTECTED STATES, AND OF THE TRIBUTARY OR FEUDATORY CHIEFS, &c.

THE British Empire on the continent of Asia is without a parallel in the history of the World: a generation has scarcely passed away* since a few English merchants skirted the coasts of the far famed peninsula of Hindostan, as humble suppliants to establish mercantile residencies on its fertile and wealthy shores, amidst myriads of brave and comparatively civilized men: while within the brief space of half a century, an active and intelligent population of 100,000,000 souls, and a dominion of upwards of one million square miles† of the richest por-

* The Dewany or Stewardship of Bengal and Bahar was finally ceded to the East India Company in 1765.

† The total British territory under the immediate Government of the East India Company, is 614,190 square miles (i. e. ten times the size of England) and the extent in square miles of British territory in India, and of territories protected by Great Britain, is 1,128,800.—[*Parliamentary Returns, 1831*] For details, see pp. 50 51.

tion of the earth, has been restored from unheard of anarchy and bloodshed to comparative order, peace and prosperity.

The earliest authentic European account of Hindostan is derived from Alexander's army which the Macedonian Chief pushed across the different rivers of the Punjab without however reaching the Ganges; at this period a considerable portion of India was subject to the Persian monarchy. Subsequently the Hindoos became tributaries to the all-pervading sway of the disciples of Mahomet, and finally subjects of the victorious Moslems, who, headed by Timur or Tamerlane, extended their conquests from the Irish and Volga to the Persian Gulf and from the Ganges to the Archipelago. A century after the death of Tamerlane, the Portuguese appeared on the coasts of India, having effected a passage to the eastward by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, and thus completely changed the European route of commerce with the Eastern Hemisphere, which had previously been carried on by the Red Sea and Egypt, or by the Black Sea and Constantinople. The example of the Portuguese was followed by the Dutch, French, and English. Within less than a century after the death of Timur, or Tamerlane, the Portuguese under Vasco De Gama arrived in India, and found the west coast of Coromandal divided between two great sovereigns—the King of Cambay and the Zamorin; by aiding the petty princes who were dependent on the latter, the Portuguese soon acquired a paramount influence on the Malabar shore, and at the commencement of the 16th century secured themselves in, and fortified Goa, which they made the capital of their settlements and commerce in the Eastern seas, extending over the East coast of Africa, the coasts of Arabia and Persia, the two peninsulas of India, Ceylon, the Moluccas—their trade even stretching to China and Japan. At this period they levied tribute on 150 native Princes, and claimed and exercised a power to sweep from the Indian seas every European vessel that sailed without their permission. Of this mighty dominion scarcely a vestige now exists. The annexation of Portugal to the Crown of Spain, and the war

...waged against the Hollanders, led to the Dutch, who had heretofore been content with the carrying trade between Lisbon and the N. of Europe, proceeding to India, and at the commencement of the 17th century they became formidable rivals of the Portuguese, stripping them first of Malacca and Ceylon, then driving them from various settlements on the Malabar coast, and finally usurping their place on the shores of Coromandel. The enterprising spirit of the English was not long behind in establishing a trade in the Eastern Hemisphere, and they were followed by the French, who became the most powerful rivals of the former after the dominion and trade of the Portuguese and Dutch had declined.

Although it is not within the province of this work to enter into details of the conquests of the Colonial possessions of Britain, it is impossible to avoid bestowing a few pages in explanation of the mode by which our acquisitions on the continent of Asia were obtained, and for the better understanding of the subject, it will be necessary to consider the Presidencies of Bengal, Madras and Bombay separately, (Agra Presidency is only a Lieutenantancy of Bengal) as regards their subjugation to the prowess of England, making brevity as far as it is consistent with perspicuity, the leading feature of a work in which utility may well be deemed of more consequence than ornateness of style or elaborateness of diction. The first Charter for the incorporation of the East India Company, was granted by Queen Elizabeth on the last day of the sixteenth century, and was one of exclusive trade in the Indian seas for fifteen years with promise of renewal. In 1630, Charles I. being in want of money, granted a license to Sir William Courten and others, to trade where the existing East India Company had no settlements, but such collision ensued, that a compromise was effected the year preceding the Commonwealth. In 1653 the East India trade was thrown open by Cromwell for four years, and history informs us it was found expedient to reinstate the Company in their entire privileges in 1657, Cromwell and his Council being

convincing of the national advantages, resulting from the incorporation of the East India Company. The subscribed capital of the Company then amounted to £730,782. Charles II. granted a new Charter with ample privileges in 1661. In 1665 the Company commenced a trade with China, and among the orders to their factor at Bantam in 1667, was "100 lb. weight of the best tea he could get." As the territorial conquests and acquisitions of the East India Company had now commenced, it will be necessary to detail briefly the history of passing events, merely promising that the East India Company's Charter was confirmed by Charles II. in 1677, again in 1683, and subsequently by James II. In 1686 a new Company was formed by dint of shameful bribery and corruption, the Duke of Leeds was impeached, and the project fell to the ground. Government being in want of £2,000,000, the avaricious ministers established a rival joint stock company in 1698; the rivalry was productive of serious injury to both Companies, and to the nation at large, and under Lord Godolphin's arbitration an union took place in 1702, since which period, as will be seen by the following history, the principal conquests in India have been made.

BENGAL PRESIDENCY—ITS CONQUEST AND FORMATION.

The British territories under the Presidency of Bengal are divided into the *Lower*, or permanently settled, and the *Upper* or western provinces. Lower Bengal is situate towards the eastern part of Hindostan between the 21st and 27° N. lat., being three hundred and fifty miles long, with an average breadth of three hundred miles; the distinct language and peculiar written character of its people is the chief test of its boundaries and antiquity. Hamilton says, that at the time of the war of the Mahabarot, Bengal formed part of the Maradha or Bahar, and that it was dismembered before the Mahomedan invasion of Hindostan. In 1203 A.D. Cuttub ud Dheen, then on the Mahomedan throne of Delhi, sent an army and conquered Bengal, and until 1340 this granary of

Hindustan was ruled by viceroys or soubahs, with power delegated from Delhi, but in this year Fakher ud Deen revolted and erected Bengal into an independent kingdom, governed by Mussulman kings. Thus it continued, and in a terrible state of anarchy, until re-conquered by the Emperor Acbar's army in 1576, and re-erected into a soubah or viceroyalty of Delhi. From 1576 to 1632, seventeen viceroys held sway in Bengal, collecting the revenues of the country, administering justice, and remitting to the Imperial Treasury the balance of the taxes left after defraying the expenses of the Government. When the power of the Mahomedan Princes at Delhi was on the wane, the English appeared in Bengal as traders, subsequently as Soubah, or, as it was termed, Dewan (steward) of Bengal for the Mogul Emperor, and finally as rulers not merely of Bengal, but of Delhi itself and the whole peninsula of Hindostan! The mode in which the British acquired territorial supremacy was as follows:—The Moslems had held sway in Lower Bengal for four centuries, when in 1632, A.D. the Mogul Emperor, Shan Jehan, granted permission to the English to trade and establish a factory at Piply, a sea-port in Orissa, the principal resort of European merchants, there being no other port to which they were then admitted.

In 1636, owing to the skill of an English doctor (Boughton) the East India Company received the Mogul's or Emperor of Delhi's sanction to locate themselves on the right bank of the river Hooghly (one of the branches of the Ganges, lat. 22.54. N., long. 88.28. E.), along the banks of which river the Portuguese, Dutch, French, and Danes had previously erected factories within ten miles of each other, viz. at Hooghly, Chinsurah, Chandernagore, and Serampore. The East India Company subsequently formed factories at Calcutta on the same river (lat. 24.10. N., long. 88.15. E.), and at Patna on the Ganges (lat. 25.37. N., long. 85.15. E.). In 1681 the Bengal factories, still merely trading concerns, District of Midnapoor, 28 miles E.N.E. from Balasore, Lat. 21.42 N. long. 87.20. E. Now almost washed away, and scarcely to be discovered.

were formed into separate governments from those of Madras, under the control of which latter named factory they had previously been. (The exactions of the Mahomedan officers) from Delhi continued to be so great and uncontrollable, that in 1686 the English chief at Hooghly came to a rupture with the Moslem commander at the same place; a battle followed between the British factory and the Nabob's troops, in which the latter were defeated with considerable loss, a Moslem battery destroyed, and eleven guns spiked. Although Capt. Nicholson, with an armed fleet of 10 merchant vessels, opportunely arrived, the Company's factors quitted Hooghly on the 20th December, 1686, as they considered it indefensible, and feared meeting the same fate as their European predecessors had done. The factors fixed their residence at Chuttanutty village (now Calcutta) on the left bank of the Hooghly, 26 miles nearer to the sea, from which it is distant 100 miles. Here the East India Company carried on their trade until 1696, when the rebellion of Joubah Sing against the Mogul at Delhi took place; and the Dutch, French, and English at Chinsurah, Chandanagore, and Chuttanutty (Calcutta) requested and received permission to erect defences around their factories, being the first time that the Mahomedans in Bengal had permitted Europeans to fortify their residencies.

In 1700 Azim Ushaun, Viceroy of Bengal, and grandson of Aurungzebe, being in want of treasure to dispute the succession to the Mogul throne, accepted from the East India Company a large sum of money for the township on which their factory at Chuttanutty stood, together with the adjacent lands which were gradually ceded. In 1701 the British mark their retirement in the burial ground at Calcutta, his predecessors had been. The Portuguese and Moguls having quarrelled, the latter invested Hooghly with a large army, besieged it for nearly four months, and then carried the town by assault. Thousands were put to the sword, notwithstanding their previous offer of submission; one vessel containing two thousand Portuguese was blown up by the Commander, lest it should fall into the hands of their foes, and out of 64 large ships, 57 grabs and 200 buloops which were anchored off Hooghly, only one grab and two sloops were saved from the wrath of the Moslems.

of Calcutta and Govindpore. In 1704 the whole stock of the Company in Bengal was removed to Calcutta or Fort William (so called out of compliment to the King), the garrison of which consisted of 129 soldiers (only 66 of whom were Europeans) and a gunner and his crew of about five and twenty men; and in 1707 Fort William was dignified with the title of a Presidency, forming the foundation of that wonderful empire which ere long was destined to spread its authority from the Ganges to the Indus—from Capa Comorin to the Himalya.

For nearly half a century the British at Calcutta pursued a peaceful and profitable commerce, until in 1756 the ferocious molesm Surajee ud Dowlah invested and captured the East India Company's factory of Fort William, placed Mr. Holwel and his 143 companions in a dungeon (the *Black Hole*) only 18 feet square; and in less than 24 hours not more than 24 Englishmen (and prisoners) remained of the British Presidency in Bengal; an inauspicious prelude to the future.

It has before been remarked how the English were indebted in 1656 to the skill of an English doctor for permission to settle at Pipli; in 1713 our country was again indebted to its medical skill for further privileges. Mr. Hamilton, a surgeon in the East India Company's service, having accompanied an embassy to Delhi soliciting certain privileges, a powerful opposition was met in the mogul court, and the embassy were on the point of returning unsuccessful, when it so happened that the Emperor (Ferozshere) was seized with a dangerous illness which baffled the skill of the native physicians: Mr. Hamilton's advice was solicited, given, and successful; on being desired to name his reward, he nobly cast aside private advantages and implored a grant of the objects of the mission, which were gratefully conceded. Hamilton's remains rest without a stone to mark their interment in the burial ground at Calcutta, his patriotism and his services unremembered; and although the natives of India have been indebted to England in ties of personal affection by means of the skill of our surgeons and physicians than by any other class of the East India Company's servants, they are the worst paid and most ill requited officers in the East: their lives are spent in doing good, and old age brings with it little to solace but the remembrance of the past: it is to be hoped that a Profession combining in its exercise science, extensive knowledge and christian charity will soon meet its deserts.

no Barque of those spoils which mark the decline or ruina of a nation had now spread its influence over Britain, to be found it necessary to combat for centuries, as well as ships eminent in Europe and in Asia with her Gallic neighbours, whose efforts has disputed the palm of superiority with her insular competitor; and fortunately for the Justice she regarded the progress of England in the east, that she started in a busy life one of those extraordinary personages who, by overcoming all impediments, seem destined to succeed in whatever undertaking they commence. And here let the author be permitted to observe, that it does not fall within his province in a work like the present to analyse motives of justice or the means by which the British possessions have been acquired in any part of the globe; as unfortunately the annals of man from the earliest ages show that when the desire and the power to seize on the property or rights of others are combined, occasions are soon found for the purpose to which it may afford some consolation to think that Britain more than any other great nation has been less guilty of wars of aggression; her acquisitions in India as well as other places originating principally in the all imperious necessity of self preservation and not in the desire of conquest. It may be said if the English were now forcibly expelled from Bengal by the natives, and they had no right to return, it would in fact have been the argument used from the days of Buthe to the present period; but the assertion is neither just nor founded on the right of nations which is more in a more extended sense the principles by which an individual of the social compact is governed, granting for argument sake that the English had been driven from Bengal by the natives; in the first place, the former were entitled to compensation for the loss of their factory which they had been legally permitted to purchase, and unless restitution were made, the sufferers had a moral right to obtain it by force, as had to punish the murderers of their countrymen, who had committed no offence and offered every possible submission.

In the second place, the British and French nations were

so much in Europe, than from the small and insulted position
 of the former, the power and dominion which France was
 rapidly and zealously obtaining in Hindostan would, if per-
 mitted to progress, have long led to the independence of
 the British India, hence the absolute and unavoidable neces-
 sity of establishing a power in India at least equal to that of
 France, or if possible superior; indeed, the different maritime
 kingdoms of Europe sought a preponderating balance of power
 by the acquisition of dominion in Asia; and if England had
 refused to ply for the extraordinary stake which would re-
 compose her for the loss of her American provinces, and
 place her at the head of the potentates of the earth, the con-
 manding influence of her opinions and councils, whether for
 good or ill, would have expired with the last century; pos-
 sibly, however, was there an imperious necessity to prevent by
 every possible means the dominion of French authority in
 India (or in Egypt), but there arose also the peculiar rights of
 security and safety; the enforcement of which became a
 matter not merely of expediency or prudence, but of absolute
 requirement; this point will be the more readily granted, as
 proved, when it is demonstrated that in the third place it
 was not the natives who expelled in so barbarous a manner
 the British from their peaceful pursuits on the banks of the
 Ganges, but their Moslem conquerors, who, to the number of
 some thousands, kept millions of one of the most timid and
 passive races of men in abject subjection by means of murder,
 torture, and confiscation to an extent never witnessed in the
 western world, and which (being continued for centuries)
 would, under a less genial climate, or with a less enduring
 people, have been terminated by total depopulation. The
 destruction of the Moslem sway in Bengal by Britain, must
 indeed be considered as a blessing rather than an evil by any
 persons who have perused the records of that ill-fated but
 beautiful land, whose historic scroll had for ages been be-
 dewed with human gore, either from internal insurrections, or
 from the attempts of fresh robbers who sought to share in the
 spoils of their more fortunate brethren.

To retreat from this digression. In August, 1756, the alarming state of the East India Company's affairs at Calcutta reached Madras; and Lieutenant Colonel Clive, who had just returned from Europe as Deputy Governor of Fort St. David, threw his prompt and energetic councils into the Madras Government, for the purpose of re-establishing the East India Company's Factory at Calcutta, and avenging the sanguinary deed of Surajee ud Dowlah. After considerable deliberation, the advice of Clive for the assumption of British power in Bengal was followed; and he was nominated in command the force destined for the perilous purpose. The armament consisting of 800 Europeans, and 1500 Sepoy troops, and a small squadron, comprising of the *Kent* of 64 guns, *Cumberland* of 70, *Hibernia* of 60, *Salisbury* of 50, and the *Bridgewater* of 30, under the command of Sir Anson, Admiral Watson and Pocock, sailed from Madras, 16th October, 1756, and with the exception of the *Cumberland* of 70 guns (with the ship of Admiral Pocock) which grounded on the sandheads off Sangu, and subsequently bore up for Vingsapatam, anchored in the river Hooghly, off Fulta, 20 miles S. S. W. from Calcutta, 15th November, where the remnant of the British Factory was found. The fort of Mayapore was taken 28th April; the Governor of Calcutta (Monckton) attempted to make a stand near the fort of Budge Budge, ten miles S. S. W. of Calcutta, with 2000 foot, and 1500 horse, but was defeated; and he being routed, and France having since the 17th of this extraordinary individual, who influenced so powerfully the fate of the British Empire in the East, was the son of a country gentleman of ancient family, but of small estate, at Styche, in Shropshire, and born on the 29th of September, 1725; his father practised the profession of the law at Market Drayton, which young Robert Clive was first destined to follow, but not his daring disposition induced his father to accept for him the offer of a writership in India, from the duties of which he was now roused by the French bombardment of Madras in September, 1746; after serving with wonderful intrepidity as a volunteer in several actions, Clive solicited and obtained the appointment of ensign in 1747, and lieutenant in 1749. How Clive escaped unhurt from all the perilous achievements in which he was engaged, is, indeed, a matter of astonishment. Lord Clive died in his 50th year, in 1794.

after a short contest, he fled utterly routed to Calcutta:—
 Budge Budge fortress was besieged and breached by Admiral
 Watson, 29th December, 1756; and evacuated by the enemy,
 during the night, on the firing and confusion of a drunken
 sailor, who was thought by the Hindoos to be followed by the
 whole English army.

The furious onslaught of the British, had so alarmed the
 Governor of Calcutta, that he fled on the approach of Colonel
 Clive, leaving but 500 of the Nabob's troops for its protec-
 tion, who only stood a few broadsides from our ships (after
 losing about 20 men) when Calcutta Factory became once more
 the property of the East India Company. The Town of
 Hooghly was next taken possession of by assault, after a
 slight resistance, but on the 2nd February, 1757, the Nabob
 Surajah Dowlah arrived before Calcutta, with a large army
 and artillery, rejecting every armistice or negotiation. He was
 immediately attacked by Clive, with a force consisting of 650
 troops of the line, 100 artillery men, with six field pieces, 800
 sepoy, and 600 seamen. A few severe contests in which the
 dogged valour of British troops struck terror into the enemy, &
 the former returned to Calcutta, and a peace was concluded
 with Surajah, and the East India Company were authorized to
 re-assume their possessions in tranquillity, to fortify strongly
 Calcutta and carry on trade as before.

Intelligence of war being declared between Great Britain
 and France having reached India, and it being seen that
 Surajah was only temporising, until he saw a more favourable
 opportunity for the expulsion of the English, Colonel Clive
 formed the project of deposing the Soubah or Nabob, (the
 name of the Nabob was named Surajah, and on being brought on board his
 ship and flogged for going on shore, his characteristic reply, was, that he'd
 bid—did if ever he'd take another fort for them.) The remains of the
 fort choked up with rains still exist, but the greater part of its materials
 were recently employed in the more useful structure of an English Inn.
 The British loss in *Milded*, was, Europeans of the line 27, seamen, 12;
 sepoy 16; in *wounded*, Europeans 70, seamen, 12, sepoy, 36. The
 Nabob lost 22 officers of distinction, 600 men, 500 horses, 4 elephants,
 several camels and a great many bullocks.

supreme power at Delhi was now little more than nominal) and
 placing Meer Jaffer, one of the highest military characters in
 Bengal, on the Musnud, or government seat; it being the
 opinion of Clive that Meer Jaffer, owing his seat to the Com-
 pany, would be less disposed to molest them. Antrabty was
 therefore entered into with Meer Jaffer by Colonel Clive,
 Admiral Watson and the Court and Council of Calcutta;
 that in the event of his being raised to the Nabob or Vice-
 royalty, the French nation were to be entirely excluded from
 Bengal a territory around Calcutta was to be secured to the
 Company, with an indemnity of ten millions of rupees for the
 injuries inflicted by Surjeee 5,000,000 rupees to the British
 inhabitants, 2,700,000 rupees to the natives and Armenians
 who were living at the time, under the protection of the Com-
 pany, 500,000 rupees were to be allotted to the army, and
 a like sum to the navy.

This project was commenced by Colonel Clive, marching to
 attack the French Settlement and Fort of Chandernagore, 16
 leagues above Calcutta, on the Hooghly, of which he began
 the siege 15th March, 1757, instantly raising in the outposts
 and investing the fort. The land forces were commanded by
 Admiral Watson and Rocquet, with two line of battle ships.

The French were unable to withstand the combined attacks
 and after a brave defence in which numbers fell on both sides,
 Chandernagore surrendered on the 22nd March, and a part
 of the garrison escaped to the army of Surjeee Doyah, whilst
 Colonel Clive marched towards Coimbatour to attack on the
 13th of June following, with a force of 2000 sepoys, 400
 Europeans, 100 horses, eight 6 pounders and two switzeren.

On the 16th June Clive reduced Pattee, a fortified post on
 the Coimbatour river, as also the town and castle of Gut-
 wah, 12 miles higher up the river; and on the 22nd of the

* The French have now a Settlement of two or three miles in extent, at
 Chandernagore, and our Government ought to take steps for its cession
 to Great Britain, as also of the contiguous Settlement of the Dand and
 Serampore; their maintenance is of no use to those Powers, and they are
 an eyesore and detriment in the heart of our dominions.

same morning the little British army on the 23rd of June 1757, at Plassey, in the Island of Sumatra, had a victory of 3000 horse and a body of French officers, who were a strong party of artillery, consisting of 50 officers, encamped on the elevated plain of Plassey.

The result of this celebrated battle is well known, and stood on the defensive from day-light till 2 P.M. This small band being covered by a grove and high bank, when taking advantage of the confusion and slaughter which his artillery caused in the dense ranks of the enemy, and the death of their principal general, he became the assailant, Meer Jaffer's corps separated from Suraje's army, and he followed the Nabob fled on his swift elephants, escorted by 2000 horse and cavalry, and was vanishing as day broke. Clive remained master of the battle field and the 1000 artillery camp equipage, provisions, &c., with only a loss in killed of Europeans eight, and Sepoys sixteen, and in wounded of Europeans twelve, and Sepoys thirty.

Meer Jaffer was assisted by Clive Nabob of Bengal, Durrani and Orissa. Suraje in his flight disguised, fell into the hands of a poor peasant who had formerly in his youth been carried to be deprived of his ears, and the soldiers of Clive engaged in this pursuit, made the noblest Nabob prisoner, who soon fell a victim to the dagger of the victor. Meer Jaffer's expenses paid down of his stipulations to the British, 600,000 Rs. or 22,000,000 Rs. or 2,700,000 £ sterling, and engaged to furnish the remainder by installments. From this extraordinary battle may be dated the commencement of the British Empire in Bengal, for the power of investing the Boudahs, or Nabobs, with authority in Bengal, was now assumed by the East India Company's government.

* A town in Nuddea, thirty miles from Moorshedabad, lat. 23.45. N. The French have now a settlement of two or three miles long.

† An interesting Eastern romance has been founded on this incident; the Hindoo delight in pointing to such instances of the restrictive power of Heaven; their insatiable desire is of no use to those Powers, and avarice and detestment in the heart of our dominions.

the way of the Mahomedans at Delhi, being merely nominal when incorporated by the Mahrattas or other States.

A small portion of a considerable fleet, sent by the Dutch against the English in Bengal, with 700 Europeans, 600 Mahomedans, and a squadron of seven ships, was defeated and destroyed by Robert Clive, under the orders of Chivani. At the close of 1758, the abdication of the Mogul Emperor Allauddin, in attempting to recover the government of Bengal by force of arms, provided the attack on him, Meer Jaffer being joined by the Company's forces under Clive, concluded an important but bloody campaign, 24th May, 1759, during which the Mogul was reduced to want of support, and his followers fled to the Company, were speedily dispersed in the battle of Palashi, on the bank of the river Ganges, yielding advantage to the British, and a blood-bath was followed, even the Shah Alim, eldest son of the late Mogul Emperor, who had been put to death by the Mahrattas, having now ascended the nominal Mogul throne, made another effort for the recovery of his native country, of his final overthrow on Bengal on the 21st of February, 1760, aided by the Nizam, or Viceroy of Quera, that he was reduced, at Patna, by the Company's forces, and Meer Jaffer, the Mahr, however, proving independent, tyrannical, and the Company rapidly degenerating under his sway, was deposed, and his son, Meer Obaid, rejected in his stead, Clive's successors had to fight, and the Mogul Emperor was finally reduced by Major Carnac, and the remnant of his French auxiliaries, under Mr. Law, who won his famous battle of the Clouds.

Oude like Bengal was one of the Nizam's Saheb-daris, under the Government of Delhi, and is situated along the banks of the Ganges, (which bound it to the W.) between the 26th and 28th N. lat. being in length 200 miles, and in breadth 100. It was early subdued after the Mahomedan invasion of India, and remained attached to the throne of Delhi until the dissolution of the Mogul Empire on the death of Aurangzeb, the descendants of the Mahomedan Sahebs continue to govern Oude to this day to Great Britain, with the title and style of King, but its disturbed and ill-governed condition render its contemplated final annexation to the British dominions a matter of necessity.

captured Meer Cossim was commended as a soldier for his
 station as his father-in-law, and a series of depositions, in-
 trigues, and contenta took place, in and which the East India
 Company, in 1765, got Sir Calverley (now Lord) Clive, whom
 they considered the founder of their fortunes in the East,
 inasmuch as he had been the means of obtaining a footing
 in the country, of establishing an extensive commercial in-
 tercourse, and of directing the foreign influence of the native
 government, in whose hands still remained the administration
 of civil and criminal justice, the collection of the revenue, and
 the general power of internal superintendance. That the desire of the East India Company, at this period,
 was peace, and not conquest, is evident from the language of
 their numerous despatches, and if the home orders could
 have been followed we should now have possessed little be-
 yond the territories of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. So
 early as 1768, the Court of Directors, in one of their des-
 patches, remark, 'if two separate territories shall be
 led from one acquisition to another, till we shall find no pecu-
 liarity but in the subjection of the whole, which by dividing
 your force would lessen the whole, and end in our participa-
 tion from Hindostan.' We utterly disapprove and condemn
 offensive wars, says the Court, in another despatch, Claver-
 ing, Monson, and Francis, in their discussions with Warren
 Hastings, ably and strenuously advocated the same principles;
 and it was truly remarked, at the time, that it was not ambition
 that first tempted the East India Company to embark in these
 wars,—necessity led the way, and conquest had now brought
 them to the choice of dominion, or expulsion. Self preservation
 first awakened them from commerce; victory gained the
 great advantages enjoyed; and force now could only preserve
 them; the East India company had, therefore, no alternative
 but to be all, or nothing. Lord Clive arrived at Calcutta in May, 1765, when he
 learned the death of the late Nabob Meer Jaffer, the minor-
 ity of his natural son, the war with, and deposition of Jaf-
 fier's son-in-law Meer Cossim, the junction of Sujah Dowlah

(the Nabob Vizier of Oude) with Shah Allum (the reigning Mogul Emperor), the repeated defeat of their united forces by General Carnac, Sir Robert Fletcher, Hector Munro, and other distinguished Bengal officers; the subsequent separation of the Mogul from Sujah Dowlah, Vizier of Oude, and his junction with the English, and the Mahratta troops under his command,—and finally, that Sujah Dowlah had voluntarily surrendered himself to the British at Allahabad.

Thither his Lordship immediately proceeded, his prophetic mind foreseeing the necessity of the East India Company assuming the sovereignty of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, if they would attend to self-preservation; negotiations were instantly commenced, and, after a brief period, the Mogul Emperor resigned all sovereign claims over Bengal, and part of Bahar,* and Orissa† to the East India Company, receiving in return an annual stipend of 325,000*l.* sterling; the fertile districts of Corah and Allahabad were secured to his Majesty (the revenue of which was estimated at 250,000*l.*), and his quiet occupation of the Delhi throne; to Sujah Dowlah, the Nabob, or Vizier of Oude, Lord Clive restored the whole of his territories, with the condition of paying a subsidy to the East India Company for the keeping up of a military force to protect Oude from foreign aggression, while Nujeem Ul Dowlah, a minor and natural son of Meer Jaffier the former Nabob or Soubahdar of the Bengal provinces, was allowed to retain his father's title, with a pension of 600,000*l.* a year; thus by the force of uncontrollable circumstances, the East India Company were in less than ten years elevated from refugees of an insignificant mud fort at Calcutta to sovereigns over one of the richest kingdoms in the world, extending over 150,000 square miles, and with an active, ingenious, and peaceful population of upwards of 30,000,000 souls, and estimated to produce a yearly revenue

* Situate between 22. and 27. N. L. and comprising an area of 26,000 square miles, N. and S. of the Ganges.

† Between 16. and 23. N. L. bounded by the Bay of Bengal, on the E.

of 25,000,000 of rupees! Such was the Dewany of Bengal, now known under the name of the lower, or *permanently settled provinces*.

In 1775, Asoph-ud-Dowlah, Vizier of Oude, ceded the rich province of Benares to the East India Company, in return for their aid during the preceding year, by which the vizier reduced to subjection the tributary Rohilla chiefs, a warlike and gallant tribe in the N.W. The fine territory, thus acquired, contained 12,000 square miles, between 24. and 26. N. lat., of which 10,000 comprised a fertile alluvial flat on either side of the Ganges.

WESTERN INDIA, OR UPPER BENGAL CONQUEST.†

It is as much in the course of nature for mind to prevail over matter, as strength over weakness; the continued progress of a power so civilised as England, over a country so harassed by internal dissensions, and depressed, degraded, and enabled by many centuries of unrelenting Moslem despotism, naturally to be expected, we accordingly find that the East India Company were next necessitated to contend not only for dominion in the W. of India, but for their actual maintenance in Bengal, with the powerful confederacy, headed by the wily chieftain Sindia, whose territories verged on the fragments of the Mogul Emperor's dominion, and who found himself placed (independent of auxiliaries) at the head of an army of 200,000 cavalry, 10 formidable brigades of in-

* It may be useful to give here the dates of the principal Governors General of Bengal, from the time of Colonel Clive to the present period.

Governors.	From	To	Governors.	From	To
Col. R. Clive	June 1758	Jan. 1760.	Marquis Cornwallis	Sept. 1798	Oct. 1798.
J. L. Holwell	Jan. 1760	July 1760.	Sir J. Shore	Oct. 1798	Mar. 1799.
H. Vansittart	July 1760	Nov. 1764.	Marquis Wellesley	May 1799	July 1803.
J. Spencer	Dec. 1764	May 1768.	Marquis Cornwallis	July 1803	Oct. 1805.
Lord Clive	May 1768	Jan. 1769.	Sir G. Barlow	Oct. 1805	July 1807.
Harry Verelst	Jan. 1769	Dec. 1769.	Earl Minto	July 1807	Oct. 1813.
J. Cartier	Dec. 1769	Apr. 1772.	Marquis Hastings	Oct. 1813	Jan. 1823.
Warren Hastings	Apr. 1772	Feb. 1783.	Lord Amherst	Aug. 1823	Apr. 1828.
Sir J. Macpherson	Feb. 1783	Sept. 1785.	Lord W. Bentinck	June 1828	1854.

† A large portion of the territory under this section embraces the new lieutenantancy of Agra, or the fourth Indian Presidency; I am induced, however, to adopt this division in order to simplify the history of our acquisitions, to those persons, who are not very familiar with Indian affairs.

fantry, and 500 guns, disciplined and commanded by the ablest French and German officers.

The avowed object of the fierce and sanguinary Mahrattas was the complete expulsion of the English from India, this they had for some time been endeavouring to accomplish on the western side of Hindostan, and Sindia after conquering Bundelcund, and subduing other provinces in the N.W. to his interests, at length induced the Mogul Emperor Shah Allum, to resign his amity with the English, and to make the Mahratta chiefs and French officers masters of Agra, Delhi, and other strong places in the N.W. provinces, by which step the aged monarch forfeited the treaty concluded with Lord Clive.

The original country of the daring and subtle Mahrattas, comprehended, according to Hamilton, Candeish, Baglana, and part of Berar, extending towards the N.W. as far as Gujerat and the Nerbudda river; to the W. they possessed the narrow but strong tract of country which borders on the Concan, and stretches parallel with the sea from Surat to Canara, the whole territory of great natural strength, interspersed with mountains, defiles, and fortresses, and admirably calculated for defensive warfare. The Mahrattas seem to have been under the government of feudal chieftains until their strength was concentrated under a hold leader named Sevajee, who at his death in 1680, had extended his empire along the Malabar coast from Surat, (lat. 21.11 N.) to near Goa, (lat. 15.30 N.) and as far as the range of hills that terminate the table land forming the eastern boundary of the Concan. The territories which the Mahrattas conquered were considered as predatory acquisitions, to be held only by the sword, for to the subtle and aspiring Brahmin, war and plunder were the two great sources of revenue; hence the quartering of a Mahratta army in a province was more destructive than myriads of locusts or years of drought and pestilence, while of their rulers it has been aptly observed, that their musunds were their horsecloths, their sceptres their swords, and their dominions the wide line of their desolating

marches. At the festival which annually took place on proceeding to collect *chout* (tribute), the chiefs cut each a handful of corn with his sword to denote the predatory object of the undertaking, and the war horses had a sheep sacrificed to each, and were sprinkled with the blood. This extraordinary people, who contested for the supremacy of India with England, on the fall of the Mogul dynasty, are in general diminutive in stature, of unparalleled cunning, brave, vindictive, and possessing more talent and independent principles than any other class of the Hindoos, save the Rajpoots.

Warren Hastings in 1780, endeavoured to check the progress of the Mahrattas on the Bombay side of India, by detaching small bodies of troops from Bengal to make incursions into the enemies' territories, a supreme controlling power being now vested in the Governor General and Council of Bengal; but on the accession of the Marquis of Wellesley to the supreme Government in 1798, that nobleman soon perceived that England must either acquire general dominion, or be engaged in a constant series of hostilities, from which wide spreading ruin would result.

In 1801, his Lordship obtained from the Nabob or Vizier of Oude (in commutation for the military subsidy which he had promised, by treaty with Lord Clive, to pay to the East India Company), the extensive provinces in the N.W. of India,—of Bareilly, (6,900 square miles,) Moradabad, (5,800 sq. miles,) Shahjehanpoor, (1,420 sq. miles,) &c. in Rohilkund; of the lower Doab and the districts of Furruckabad, (1,850 sq. miles,) Allahabad, (2,650 sq. miles,) Cawnpoor, (2,650 sq. miles,) Goruckpoor, (9,250 sq. miles,) Azimghur, (2,240 sq. miles,) &c. embracing territory to the extent of 32,000 sq. miles, and a population of about 15,000,000 souls.

In 1803, that portion of the British army which the Marquis of Wellesley destined for the conquest of the Mahrattas in Upper Bengal, was placed under the command of General (afterwards Lord) Lake, with instructions to free the Mogul Emperor from the thralldom of Sindia, and to offer every reasonable inducement to the French officers to quit the Mahratta

service. The Mahratta and French auxiliaries were defeated by General Lake at Coel in the Doab, (27.54 N. 78. E.) 29th of August, 1803; the strong fort of Alighur (53 miles N. of Agra), of a square form with round bastions, a formidable ditch and glacis, and a single entrance protected by a strong ravelin, which formed the chief depôt of the enemy, was next captured after a desperate slaughter, and Lake marched with 4,500 men to give battle to 20,000 Mahratta and French, encamped in a strong position under the fortifications of the imperial city of Delhi, the ancient capital of the Patan and Mogul Empires (in lat. 28.41 N., long. 77.5 E.) General Lake on nearing the enemy pretended to fly, the Mahrattas quitted their trenches in eager pursuit of the supposed English fugitives, but the latter at a given signal instantly wheeled to the right, and by a single charge completely routed the enemy, who sustained a loss of 3,000 men in killed and wounded, and their whole train of artillery, baggage, &c. The result of the battle was soon made apparent; the aged Mogul once more released from bondage, and in a state of abject destitution, threw himself again on the humanity of the British, by whom he was once more established on the throne of his ancestral capital, with an annual stipend for himself and family of 1,200,000 rupees (together with certain privileges), and Lake entered Delhi amidst the general rejoicings of its wretched inhabitants, who for years had been the prey of war and internal rapine and feuds. This distinguished officer next marched to attack the numerous Mahratta troops posted in and around the strong and ancient fortress of Agra, on the S.W. side of the Jumna; which was reduced after a short but animated resistance, 17th October, 1803; persons and private property were respected, and 280,000^l. public treasure was divided as prize-money among the victorious troops. The power of Sindia in Upper Bengal was now finally annihilated by the defeat of his best disciplined army, consisting of 9,000 foot, 5,000 cavalry, and a numerous train of well organised artillery, by General Lake, with a small British force, on the 1st November, 1803, after

one of the most brilliant and daring contests ever witnessed. The consequences of these extraordinary achievements was a treaty with Sindia, 30th December, 1803, by which there was ceded to the British under the Bengal Presidency, the Upper Doab (a large territory between the rivers Ganges and Jumna) Delhi, Agra, (8,500 square miles,) Hurriana, Saharunpoor, (6,900 sq. m.) Meerut, Alighur, (3,400 sq. m.) Etawah, (3,450 sq. m.) Cuttack, (9,040 sq. m.) Baksore, Juggernath, &c. (8,260 sq. m.); the power of the French and Mahrattas in the N.W. was destroyed and decayed but still represented a representative of a long line of monarchs was secured in peace and comfort on the titular musnud of Ackbar.

The tranquil possession of these fine provinces by the East India Company was for a time interrupted by the celebrated Holkar, who, after the downfall of Sindia, endeavoured to rally the remaining branches of the Mahratta confederacy for the purpose of "overwhelming the British by repeated attacks of his army, like the waves of the sea."* The standing army of Holkar, while professing peace, was 150,000 cavalry, 40,000 well disciplined foot, 200 pieces of artillery, and a numerous corps of auxiliaries, by which latter he was enabled to carry on a devastating and desultory war for some time. After attempting the recapture of Delhi, his army, subsequent to a series of desperate actions with Lord Lake, General Frazer and Colonels Ochterlony, Monson and Burns, was finally routed, 17th November, 1804, by the gallant Lake, who, whether with cavalry or infantry, invariably gained the day by trusting to the nerve of a Briton at the sabre or bayonet point. A furious charge by the English cavalry cut to pieces 3,000 of the Indian horse; the remaining troops of Holkar escaped by a rapid flight to their infantry at the fortress of Deeg,† which Lake invested, breached after ten days cannonading,

* Vide Holkar's letter to General Wellesley.

† The fortress of Deeg is situate in lat. 27.30. N. long. 77.12. E., 57 miles N. W. of Agra city. In 1760 it was strongly fortified by Soora J Mull, the Jant Rajah, but in 1776 captured after twelve months siege by Nudjif Khan. It now belongs to the Rajah of Bhurtore.

and carried by storm with almost incredible intrepidity on the night of the 23rd of November. Holkar took refuge in the fortress of Bhurtpore, a vast mud fort, which, with the town, is nearly eight miles in circumference, flanked with numerous bastions at short intervals, well defended with immense cannon and surrounded by a very wide and deep fosse. The garrison was complete, amply provisioned and confident in the impregnability of their ramparts. Lake and his little band of heroes sat down before this formidable place on the 3rd of January, 1805; the trenches were soon opened, but wherever a breach was made the defenders speedily filled it up or fortified it with stockades, and, in addition to the most galling and destructive artillery and musketry, showered on the besiegers logs of burning wood and hot ashes, lighted bales of cotton steeped in oil, earthen pots filled with fire and combustibles of every kind. Four times did the British troops attempt to storm the breach, and four times were they obliged to retire, staggering under the (to them) terrible loss of upwards of 3,000 men of the flower of the army; and here let it be recorded, that his Majesty's 75th and 76th regiments, (heretofore deemed like Ney the bravest of the brave, and like Murat always foremost in the heady current of battle,) became panic struck at the fury of their enemies, and refused to follow their officers, until, shamed by seeing the East India Company's 12th regiment of Bengal Sepoys once more heroically plant their colours on the enemy's walls, and stung by the merited reproaches of their General, they loudly implored to be permitted to wash the stains from their honour in the fourth attack, which, notwithstanding their desperate valour,

* BHURTPORE. Lat. 27.17 N. long. 77.23 E., 31 miles W. by N. from Agra. When Lord Lake approached the fortress, a large expanse of water at the N.W. side of the town instantly disappeared, and it was subsequently discovered that the whole lake had been admitted into the ditch that surrounds the town and fort. The carnage during the siege was enormous, considering the small force of the besiegers; the first storming party lost 456, the second 591, the third 894, the fourth 987, which together with 172 casualties, made a total of killed and wounded of 3,100 of the flower of the small British army.

was still unsuccessful. The Rajah of Bhurtpore foreseeing by the persevering gallantry of Lake that nothing would induce him to abandon his purpose, dispatched his son to the British camp with the keys of the fortress: a treaty was concluded, 17th April, Holkar, compelled to quit the territories, and the Rajah was obliged to pay two million rupees towards defraying the expenses of the war; his son was given in hostage of his pacific intentions; and Holkar, after several gallant but fruitless efforts against Lord Lake in the field, was so reduced as to flee almost unattended for life.

The comprehensive and unavoidable policy of the Marquis of Wellesley, which has not been sufficiently done justice to by Indian historians or statesmen, was now laid aside by the Marquis of Cornwallis, who resumed the supreme government in July, 1805, but died on proceeding to the seat of war in the month of October in the same year, while his successor Sir George Barlow was unable to understand the ideas of future peace and stability contemplated by the Wellesley administration. Lord Cornwallis tried in vain to introduce the principle of European treaties into Indian diplomacy, the failure of which was exemplified in the triple alliance between the British government, the Nizam and the Peishwa; while the system of defensive subsidiary alliances, from not being until of late carried far enough, was equally unproductive of beneficial results.*

Through the exertions of Lord Lake, whose talents in the cabinet were as useful as his tactics and bravery in the field were remarkable, the fruits of the past were not entirely lost: Sindia and Holkar were admitted to peace on favourable terms, and the flame of the slumbering volcano was for the present suppressed only to burst out however with renewed vigour in other places and at more convenient periods, which was nevertheless effectively and finally suppressed by the military prescience of the chivalrous Marquis of Hastings. The war of 1817 demonstrated the lasting advantages of the comprehensive policy of the Marquis of Wellesley, the key-stones of whose political arch rested on Calcutta, Bombay and Madras.

The Ghoorkhas, a warlike but uncivilized tribe who had possessed themselves of the beautiful valleys of Nepal, began encroachments on the whole north frontier of the British territories, under a brave and skilful Chief (Ameer Sing) in 1814 and without any previous intimation, attacked and massacred the people of two thannahs or stations in Goruckpoor and Sarun, upon which the Marquis of Hastings sent against the invaders a force of thirty thousand men, who met with various successes against the Nepaulese and Ghoorkha hill forts which were valiantly defended: the contest was brought to a successful issue by the activity, skill and sagacity of Sir David Ochterlony and the brave General Gillespie, who fell at the head of a storming party when cheering on his men before the Fort of Kalunga. The Nepaulese were glad to ratify a treaty on the 4th March, 1816, which they had evaded the preceding year;—by which the E. I. Company obtained possession of the entire province of Kumaon, (7,000 square miles) a portion of Garhwal, (3,000 square miles) the valley of the Dheera Dhoon, with the adjacent mountainous districts of Jounsar and Bawar, together with Sabbathoe and other tracts on the skirts of the Himalaya, and in the delta of the rivers Jumna and Sutlej; and the territories of several Hill Chiefs were brought under British protection; the Company also obtained undisputed possession of a long line of forest and pasture land, extending along the base of the Himalaya Mountains, termed *Tarryani* which defined the northern boundary of their dominions, and enabled them to open commercial communications with China and Tartary. But the misfortunes arising from the defensive policy of the amiable Lord Cornwallis were not yet terminated. The Pindaries, a predatory body of mounted

Situated on the verge of a ridge of hills, two miles and a half N.E. of the town of Deegrah, capital of the Valley or *Dowra*, lat. 30.20 N. long. 78.5 E. at an elevation above the sea of 2,326 feet. The British forces under Gillespie and Manly in 1814, lost more officers and men before this small stone fortress than they would have suffered in several pitched battles. The fortress is now razed.

robbers, who could collect under one of their chiefs thirty thousand cavalry, and who were secretly favoured by the yet unannihilated Mahratta confederacy, made several plundering incursions into the British territories, killing and wounding many hundred peaceable British subjects, and carrying off and destroying property to the amount of several hundred thousand pounds. These desperate freebooters originated in the province of Malwa, where they first occupied the country in the vicinity of Nemawur, Kantapoor, Goonas, Beresha, and part of the Bilsah and Bhopaul territories, but gradually extended themselves to the centre of this fine district. The Pindaries were principally composed of Mahomedans, but, their leaders, although true Moslems, admitted into their bands all the discontented and restless spirits which the previous disbanding of the large armies of India left without occupation. They systematically carried on a war of plunder and devastation, and terrified the neighbouring princes into subsidizing them as a guarantee against invasion. As an instance of the Pindarie marauding, it may be mentioned that a body of these bandits entered the British territory of Ganjam in January, 1817, destroyed property to the amount of £250,000, burnt two hundred and sixty-nine houses, and plundered six thousand two hundred and three mansions; and of the sufferers by the robbers one hundred and eighty-three were killed, five hundred and five were wounded, and three thousand six hundred and three subjected to torture. The scene of these depredations was not far distant from Madras or Calcutta, and in the previous year Guntoor in lat. 16.17. N. long. 90.32 E., underwent a more disastrous visitation from these merciless destroyers of peace and civilization. The Marquis of Hastings in 1817, took the field against the Pindaries and their abettors, the Mahratta Confederacy, at the head of an army, which presented a strong contrast to the handful of British troops which Lords Clive and Lake had commanded; it consisted of 81,000 regular infantry, 33,000 cavalry, and a numerous and efficient artillery, altogether forming a force the like of which had never been seen on the plains of Hindostan.

The events which followed afford matter for voluminous history, suffice it to say, that before the grand army under the noble Marquis and his gallant and sagacious conductors, Generals Malcom, Smith, Hialop, Doveton, Keir, &c. broke up in 1819, the Pindaries were utterly annihilated, the Mahratta confederacy destroyed, and the following territories added to the Bengal Presidency, by conquest as well as by subsequent arrangements. Districts on the Nerbudda river to the extent of 29,800 square miles; Sumbalpoore and some pergunnahs on the N. W. frontier of Bengal; Khandah in Bundelound; Ajmere, and part of Mairwarrah; part of Nimah; Baireea, Shoojawulpore, and the fortress of Hatrass in Alighur; while the following states of central India became tributary to the East India Company, receiving protection and guarantee in acknowledgment for British supremacy, viz. Jyepore, Joudpore, Oudeypore, Boondee, Kotah, Pertabghur, Rutlana, Banswarra, and Doongarpore. The peace of the N. W. provinces of India has ever since remained undisturbed, with the exception of a disturbance in Bhurtpoore in March 1825, when Durjunt Sal took forcible possession of the infant Raja, murdered his uncle and followers, and notwithstanding the repeated mild persuasions of Lord Amherst, who appears to have been desirous of following the policy of Lord Cornwallis, treated the British power and authority with the utmost contempt. Those who know any thing of the nature of the English dominion in Hindostan, will admit the necessity of removing instantly an unfavourable impression from a people who are too apt to consider concession or mildness as the result of indecision or fear. To prevent any thing like the resistance which Lord Lake met with in 1805, Lord Combermere was ordered to attack this strong fortress with an army of 25,000 of the most efficient troops, and a powerful train of battering artillery: his Lordship invested Bhurtpoore 23rd December 1825; the works since the former attack had been considerably strengthened, and it was soon found that the largest cannon balls made no impression on mud walls 60 feet thick; a mine was therefore sprung, by which a breach was effected on the 17th January 1826, and the fort stormed

and carried the following morning, after a desperate, but ineffectual resistance, in which the British had 61 Europeans and 42 natives killed, and 283 Europeans and 189 natives wounded; while the loss of the garrison was 4000, almost all killed. The State of Bhurtpore was charged with the extra expenses of this contest, amounting to 2,439,173 rupees, and the young Rajah (who is a promising prince) was installed on the 5th February, 1826. The fortress (as regarded its principal bastions, curtains and other important parts) was razed and with its fall terminated a series of intrigues for the destruction of the British power which had been some time organizing in the N.W. provinces.

BURMESE CONQUEST. It became a matter of self-preservation to humble another Asiatic power, ere Bengal was secure from invasion. During half a century a kingdom had been gradually rising and extending on the south-eastern frontier, named Birmah, whose tone, always haughty to the English, became at last insulting and menacing. The origin of the nation is thus traced. In the middle of the sixteenth century the regions which lie between the south-eastern provinces of British India, Yunnan in China, and the extremity of the Malacca Peninsula, were occupied by four powerful nations, known to Europeans as Birmah (or Ava), Pegu, Siam, and Arracan. Devastating wars were carried on between these States, particularly between the Peguers (or Taliens) and the Burmese. During the seventeenth century the Burmese held the Peguers in complete subjection; but, in 1751, the Peguers, aided by the Portuguese and Dutch, conquered the Burmese, and took final possession of Ava. Headed, however, by the celebrated Alompra, the Burmese again subdued the Peguers, and the Alompra dynasty was established in Ava. In 1767, an army of 50,000 Chinese was destroyed on its entrance into the dominions of Ava, and from that period the Burmese continued extending their conquests, having captured Cassay and Manipoor in 1774; Arracan in 1783; and from the Siamese in 1784 to 1793, the provinces of Tavoy, Tenasserim, Junk-Ceylon, and Mergui Isles. These acquisitions so inflated the vanity of the Burmese, that the most

extravagant schemes were entertained of the conquest of Hindostan, and the utter expulsion of the English from India. Intriguers were sent by the Burmese to excite the N.W. provinces of India to revolt against the British supremacy; and, in 1814, a confederation of all the native princes of India was attempted to be effected by the Burmese; the object of which was the destruction of the English power in the East: the King of Ava gave out that he intended to make a pilgrimage to Gaya and Benares, at the head of 40,000 men; emissaries were dispatched into the Seik country, *viz* Dacca, while the Shabundar of Arracan visited Madras and Trincomalee, to gather information as to the politics of the S. of India. These projects were defeated, but the Burmese went on extending their conquests over the petty States S. of the Brahmaputra, and establishing a strong and permanent military force along the N.E. quarter of the Bengal province, ready at a moment's warning to commence an inroad on the unprotected British possessions. Indeed from 1795, when the Burman monarch marched 5,000 troops across the Bengal frontier, to capture some of his refugee subjects, who had fled from his tyranny, to the year 1822, when His Majesty set up a claim to the petty Isle of Shapuree in the province of Bengal on the Chittagong frontier, recriminations had been going on between the two governments. The intended invasion of the Burmese, in 1795, was foiled by General Erskine; in 1818, the Marquis of Hastings, by his policy,* diverted another attack, but on the retirement of that great statesman,

* While we were engaged in the Mahratta and Pindarie war, the Marquis of Hastings received a rescript from the Burmese Monarch, requiring us to surrender all provinces E. of Bagrutty; Lord Hastings sent back the Envoy, stating, that an answer should be sent through another channel; a special messenger was therefore dispatched to the King of Burmah, to declare that the Gov.-Gen. was too well acquainted with the wisdom of H. M. to be the dupe of the gross forgery attempted to be palmed upon him, and that he therefore transmitted to the King the document fabricated in his august name—hoping also that those who had endeavoured to sow dissensions between the two Powers would be condignly punished; the subsequent defeat of the Mahrattas prevented the repetition of this insolent threat.

the Burmese threatened to march into the Bengal provinces with fire and sword, to the plunder of Calcutta. In 1825 the unprovoked aggressions of this turbulent nation were met by a force at Chittagong, while a large British armament proceeded to Rangoon, the naval capital of Burmah (lat. 16.35. N.; long. 96.25. E.) captured it, and after a series of hard fought actions, and much privation and distress, forced the Burmese to sue for peace in 1826, when the English troops were almost within sight of the capital (Ava). By the treaty of Yandaboo, the Burmese resigned all claim to the conquests which for years they had been making in Assam, Cachar, Gantiah, and Munipoor; the provinces of Arracan, Ye, Tavoy, Tenasserim, and Martaban, S. of the Saluen River, comprising 50,000 square miles, together with the Islands Cheduba and Ramree, were ceded to the East India Company; and 10,000,000 of rupees in cash were paid to the Company by instalments, as part indemnity to defray the expenses of war, which the rash ambition of his Burmese Majesty had provoked.

MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Southern Indian Presidency is called after the name of its capital, on the Coromandel Coast, in lat. 13.5. N., long. 80.21. E., which to the extent of five miles along shore, and one mile inland, was ceded to the East India Company, A. D. 1639, by the reigning Prince of Bijanagur, with permission to erect a fort, which was immediately commenced under the designation of *Fort St. George*. In 1653, Madras was raised to the rank of Presidency, the military force of which was only 26 soldiers, which the Court of Directors, in 1654, ordered to be still further reduced to *ten*. The native population soon assembled round the English fortress; and, in 1687, the census of the inhabitants of the fortress of Fort St. George, the city of Madras, and the adjacent villages within the Company's boundaries, amounted to 300,000 persons. In 1702, Madras was besieged by Daoud Khan, one of Aurung-

zebe's generals; but a more formidable power was soon to contest the footing of Englishmen on the Coromandel Coast. The war which broke out between England and France, in 1744, was carried on as fiercely in the E. as in the W.; and the ambitious, unprincipled, but talented Monsieur Dupleix spared no efforts, either by intriguing with the native princes, or by actual force, to root the English out of all their factories in India. A strong military and naval French force, under the command of the brave and high-minded Labourdonnais, besieged Madras on the 7th September, 1746, when the English garrison amounted to but 200 soldiers: after a severe bombardment of five days capitulations were entered into, that Labourdonnais might enter within the four ill-constructed bastions which defended the town; but that, after taking possession of the Company's goods, &c., Madras should be restored on payment of a ransom. This stipulation was broken by Labourdonnais's superior, Dupleix (then Governor of Pondicherry), and Madras remained in the occupation of the French until the peace of Aix-la-chapelle, when it was restored to the East India Company in 1749.

While Madras was in the occupation of the French, the presidency of the East India Company was carried on at Fort St. David, or Negapatam, a fortress on the sea coast of the Carnatic, 16 miles S. of Pondicherry, and 100 miles S.S.W. from Fort St. George, or Madras; lat. 11.45. N. long. 79.50. E. At this station the E. I. Company had established a factory in 1691, and they subsequently purchased a tract of territory larger than their settlement at Madras. M. Dupleix next attempted to drive the English out of Fort St. David; but his army of 1,700 Europeans was defeated by about 200 British, among whom was *Ensign* (afterwards Lord) Clive, who, after the capture of Madras, escaped in the disguise of a Moor to Fort St. David.

Several severe contests between the French and English took place, until, as before stated, peace in Europe allowed the Company to resume possession of their Presidency at Madras; but, although hostilities had ceased between the

rival nations in Europe, it was far otherwise in India, where the French and English alternately struggled and gained the ascendancy, in the native councils and contests of the Carnatic,*—the French long maintaining the upper hand, until the daring genius of Clive, and the skill of Major Laurence, contributed materially to diminish it; while, in the Deccan, M. De Bussy obtained firm possession of an extensive country, 600 miles in extent, reaching from Medapilly to the Pagoda of Juggernaut, with an annual revenue of nearly 1,000,000^l sterling.

On the breaking out of the war, in 1756, between France and England, the celebrated and unfortunate Lally was sent out as Governor of Pondicherry, with a large armament, for the purpose of utterly extirpating the English in Hindostan; and the very night Lally landed, he directed the march of troops for the attack of Fort St. David, which was taken and razed to the ground on the 1st of June, 1758, after which the conqueror proceeded with 3,500 European, 2,000 sepoy infantry, and 2,000 European and native cavalry to the siege of Madras, which, defended by 1,758 Europeans and 2,424 native troops, withstood the most desperate attacks for two months, until relieved by the arrival of six English ships, with 600 fresh troops.†

The French retreated precipitately from before Madras, and the English in turn became assailants. Colonel Coote

* This vast territory, formerly comprising the dominions and dependencies of the Nabob of Arcot, extends from 8. to 16. N. lat. stretching from the southern frontier of Guntoor Circar to Cape Comorin, a distance of 500 miles, with an unequal but average breadth of 75 miles. Heretofore the Carnatic was held by a number of petty Rajahs, with whom the French alternately intrigued in their efforts for complete supremacy, a point indeed which the wily Dupleix all but gained.

† During the siege the fort fired 26,554 rounds from their cannon, 7,502 shells from their mortars, 1,990 hand grenades were thrown, 200,000 musquetry cartridges expended, and 1,768 barrels of gunpowder, 13 officers were killed, 14 wounded, and 4 taken prisoners; of the European troops, upwards of 200 were killed, and 140 made prisoners; of the Sepoys and Lascars, 145 were killed, and 440 deserted.

pursued and defeated Lally at Wandiwash,* from whence the remnants of the French sought shelter in Pondicherry, which, in September, 1760, was closely blockaded by the East India Company's troops and His Majesty's vessels by land and sea; the trenches were opened under Colonel Coote, 12th January, and, on the 14th, Lally and his garrison were prisoners. From this period the downfall of French influence was progressive, while that of the English became as rapidly ascendant.

In 1763, the East India Company obtained from the Nabob of the Carnatic, in return for services rendered to that prince and his father, a district in the Carnatic of 2,460 square miles, called the '*Jaghire*' (Chingleput), which is bounded on the E. by the bay of Bengal, between Nellore and Arcot. The country was rented to the Nabob, on renewed leases, until 1780, when the entire management was placed under the Madras government.

The next territory acquired by the East India Company in the south of India, was that of Guntoor, comprehending an area of 2,500 square miles (the fifth district in the northern circars) which was acquired from the Mogul, in 1765; but not taken possession of by the British authorities until 1786, and then only on the payment of an annual tribute to the Nizam of 600,000 rupees, which the East India Company finally redeemed in 1823, by the payment of 1,200,000 rupees to the Nizam at Hydrabad.

The widespread and devastating ambition of a fierce adventurer, in his endeavours to expel the English from the Carnatic, became the means of further extending the territorial dominions of the East India Company. Hyder Ali, the founder of the Mysore dynasty and kingdom, was originally a private soldier in a corps raised by his elder brother; and, for his gallantry at the siege of Deonhully (23 miles N.N.E. from Bangalore), he was entrusted with the command of 500 infantry and 50 horse. His character is described to have been a composi-

* In the Carnatic, 73 miles S. W. of Madras, lat. 12.30. N. long. 79.37. E.

tion of courage, cunning, and cruelty; equally prodigal of faith and of blood—equally victorious in the use of intrigues and of arms. He could neither read nor write; but his memory was so tenacious, and his sagacity so great, that no secretary would venture to practice a deception on him. His father died in 1734, in the humble situation of a Naick of revenue Peons, leaving his family destitute and friendless; but Hyder Ali came on the stage when anarchy reigned in Mysore, and when he who was the strongest and the most cunning and daring, might easily usurp the highest station in the kingdom. From the command of a few hundred men, he quickly raised his force to 2,000 horse and 5,000 foot, with a small artillery. By degrees he obtained assignments of more than half the revenues of the kingdom, and ultimately taking advantage of the feeble state of the government, he proclaimed himself ruler in Seringapatam; reduced the Rajah of Mysore to the condition of a pensioner, shut up his enemies in cages, strengthened his fortresses, raised a large army, and vigilantly superintended the administration of the kingdom, whose affairs he had usurped the government of. Like Napoleon, he had an inveterate hostility to the English, because they treated him as an usurper; and he owed the ruin of his family to military co-operation with the French, for the destruction of the British in India.

After conquering every independent Hindoo state in the south, or raising them into hostile confederacy against the British power, Hyder approached close to Madras to attack it in 1767; but, deterred by its strength, the tyrant desolated the Company's Jaghire, or territory (Chingleput), in 1768, when he ravaged it with fire and sword, leaving little indication of its ever having been inhabited, save in the unhappy spectacle of the bones of massacred thousands strewed over their smouldering habitations. In June, 1780, Hyder marched from his capital of Seringapatam, at the head of the finest army ever before seen in the south of India,* with the avowed

* It consisted of 28,000 cavalry, 15,000 regular infantry, 40,000 irregulars, 2,000 French rocket men, 4,000 pioneers, and 400 Europeans.

purpose of annihilating the English, and, before the latter were aware of their situation, columns of smoke, arising from the desolated Carnatic, were seen approaching Madras. The success of Hyder was nearly as complete in the south as that of Surajee Dowlah had been at Cossimbuzar and Calcutta; with a velocity and daring like that of Napoleon Buonaparte, Hyder interposed his whole force between the small armies of Colonel Baillie and Sir Hector Monro, who were endeavouring to join each other; Colonel Baillie was defeated by the Mysorean cavalry, Sir Hector Munro retreated, and Hyder reduced Arcot, 3d Nov. 1781, and laid siege to Wandiwash, Vellore, Chingleput, and other strongholds in the Carnatic.

The Bengal Presidency now afforded to Madras a return for the assistance which the latter had sent, under Clive, for the re-capture of the Fort of Calcutta, and Sir Eyre Coote, with 560 Europeans, and a party of Sepoys, were ordered by Warren Hastings for the relief of the sister Presidency. The war was carried on for some time with little decided advantage on either side, notwithstanding Hyder had received a valuable reinforcement of 3,000 French troops from Europe, with the most skilful officers at their head.

The East India Company struggled not for conquests, but for existence, and, on the death of Hyder in 1782, after reigning 21 years, a peace was concluded with his son Tippoo Saib, whose throne, although the most powerful in the East, began now to be shaken by the Mahratta chieftains. The wily Sultan, after defeating the latter, made a peace, and turned his arms towards the subjugation of Travancore, situate between the 8th and 10th degrees N. lat., which, amidst every shock, had hitherto maintained its independence and neutrality. A treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, having been entered into between this little state and the English, the unprincipled and faithless disposition of Tippoo became so apparent, that Lord Cornwallis resolved on putting a stop to the ambitious designs of a man whose words were as false as his cruelty was odious. After a desperate and hazardous campaign, during which Tippoo shewed the most

daring courage, Lord Cornwallis invested the formidable fortress of Seringapatam, in February, 1792, with 11,000 Europeans, 30,000 regular sepoy, 42 battery guns, and 44 field pieces, and in front of which Tippoo gave battle, with 50,000 chosen infantry, and 5,000 cavalry, strongly intrenched and defended.

The British, as usual, notwithstanding their inferior numbers, carried all before them, from the commencement of a moonlight attack, at eight P.M. and the morning's dawn, beheld the Mysorean tyrant a fugitive, with the loss of 23,000 of his troops, in killed, wounded, and missing. Tippoo was glad to sue for and accept peace, by the surrender of half his dominions, the payment of 4,000,000*l.* and the delivery of his two sons as hostages for the quiet fulfilment of the conditions imposed.

By the treaty signed 18th May, 1792, the Company obtained possession of the frontier territory of Baramahal on the east, in the south Dindigul, on the west a great part of Malabar, including Tellicherry and Calicut, and part of Canara, &c. But the restless spirit of Tippoo was not to be quenched by misfortune; in 1794 he received back his children, and immediately commenced secret negotiations with the French (then at war with England) for the renewal of his purpose of 'utterly destroying the English in India.*

The new Governor General (Marquis of Wellesley) saw immediately on his arrival in India (1798) that although his most positive instructions from the Company were, if possible, not to wage war with any native prince, nor to extend the British Dominions in the E., yet that if existence were to be preserved, particularly in the S. of India, the coalition between Tippoo and the French must be broken, and a blow struck which would prevent the former continuing to stir up all the native powers against the English. Tippoo, under the promised aid of 30,000 men from the French Directory, and with the hope that Napoleon's expedition to Egypt would not be

* Language of Tippoo's secret intercepted circular to the different Courts of India while professing the greatest friendship for England.

fruitless as regarded its ultimate destination, had joyfully hailed the planting of a tree of liberty in his capital surmounted by the 'bonnet rouge,' while his jacobinical friends hailed the Mysorean Despot on his own public parade as 'Citizen Tippoo!'—To have waited the consummation of the anticipations of the crafty son of Hyder would have been political idiocy; the Governor General therefore declared war against Mysore in February, 1799, previously causing the disarming of a French organized army of 14,000 men at Hydrabad. The army under General Harris, consisting of 4,381 European, and 10,695 native infantry—884 European, 1,751 native cavalry; 2,400 Lascars and pioneers, 608 artillery, and 104 pieces of cannon, besides 6,000 foot and 10,000 horse, under the Nizam's British officers, together with 6,000 soldiers which advanced from Malabar under General Stuart, was in a fine state of equipment, and had in its ranks one who ever after carried with him the fortune of the day, and who now in his very first attack on Tippoo's right wing evinced well merited confidence in the British bayonets, which he has always proudly boasted have won him every victory. Colonel Wellesley led the attack on the Sultan's army which lay encamped within 30 miles of Seringapatam; a large column of Tippoo's best disciplined troops advanced to meet him in noble style; the English infantry under Wellesley stood fast, receiving their opponents' fire until they arrived within 60 yards, when the English rushed to the charge with an impetus which it was impossible for the Mysoreans to withstand; they quivered under the dreadful shock for a moment, then broke their ranks and were completely routed by General Floyd with the cavalry. Tippoo made little further resistance in the field, but threw himself into his strong capital with the *elite* of his forces; and on the 5th of April, the British encamped on the western side of the far-famed fortress of Seringapatam, situate at the W. end of a small island (lat. 20.25 N., long. 76.45 E.) four miles long by one and a half broad, surrounded by the river Cauvery, occupying about a mile in extent, and principally remarkable for exhibiting the

long, strait walls, square bastions, and high and steep glacis of the Hindoo engineers. The siege of Seringapatam went forward with determined rapidity, though peace was offered to Tippoo when he solicited terms on the 26th of April, which, however, he subsequently rejected:—On the 4th of May, at 1 p. m., the breach being completed in the curtain, a storming party of 4,000 British, led by the gallant General Baird, moved to the attack; Baird had been four years a prisoner in the fortress under Hyder's tyranny, and was in some measure acquainted with the *locale*:—the parapet was speedily gained,—‘*Come, my brave fellows,*’ said their heroic leader, in the presence of both armies—‘*follow me, and prove yourselves worthy the name of British soldiers!*’ The appeal was nobly answered: after a desperate but useless resistance, the Mysoreans were totally routed; and when the terrible conflict had ceased, the lifeless body of Tippoo Saib was found buried beneath a piled heap of wounded, dead and dying men and horses, and the dynasty of Hyder Ali had ceased to reign. The Marquis of Wellesley took possession of the fortress for the East India Company, also the sea coast of Canara, the district of Coimbatore and the passes of the Ghauts; and of a portion of the recent Mysore kingdom a native state was founded, at whose head was placed the ancient and much respected Rajah of Mysore's family, who had long lingered in obscurity and poverty. The native state then formed has continued to nearly the present period a protected one by the British Government, but of late years, particularly since 1810, its internal administration had become so bad, and the disorders and unhappiness of the people so great, that the Court of Directors, by a despatch dated 6th March, 1833, authorised the Madras government to bring under the *direct* management of the servants of the Company the whole of the territories of Mysore. In 1800, the fruitful districts of Bellary and Cuddapah, which fell to the Nizam on the conquest of Tippoo, were ceded by his Highness to the East India Company by treaty; and in 1801 the Nabob of the Carnatic ceded to the Company the districts of Palnaud, Nellore, (7,930

square miles,) Angole, Arcot provinces, (13,620 square miles,) the Pollams of Chittoor and the divisions of Satiraid Timmelly (5,700 square miles,) and Madura, 10,700 square miles.) These possessions, together with those mentioned in the foregoing pages, the then seaport fortress of Negapatam, captured from the Dutch in 1781, but now delapidated, and some minor places, containing altogether an area of 142,000 square miles, and a population of upwards of fifteen million, form the large dominion under the government of the Madras Presidency.

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY,

This Presidency derives its name from the small island or barren rocks of Bombay,* situate on the Malabar coast in lat. 18.56 N., long. 72.57 E. being about ten miles long and three broad. It was formerly under the Mogul dominion, but ceded to the Portuguese in 1530, by whom a fort was erected on the S.E. extremity of the island, its fine harbour indicating it as a desirable place for establishing a factory. In 1661 the island was ceded by Portugal to Great Britain, as a portion of the Infanta Catharine's fortune on her marriage with Charles II. The mortality of the king's troops was so great, and there being no advantage derived by the Crown from the possession of Bombay, the expenditure being greater than the receipts, his Majesty, in 1668, transferred the island to the Hon. E. I. Company in free and common soccage as the Manor of East Greenwich, for which the E. I. Company became bound to pay the annual rent of 10% in gold on the 30th of September in each year. In 1681, Bombay was a dependency of the E. I. Company's settlement of Surat, but in 1683 it was erected into a presidency, and in 1686 became the head station of the English on the western side of India, the seat of government being transferred thither from Surat, the capital of Gujerat, in lat. 21.11 N., long. 73.7 E., where the E. I. Company had their principal factory since 1612. Until the beginning of the 18th century, the settlement of Bombay

* Called by the Portuguese Bom Bahia (good bay).

languished in consequence of the ravages of the plague, civil dissensions among the authorities and the piracy carried on by Englishmen not in the service of the E. I. Company, which, indeed, caused the Mogul's admiral to invest Bombay in 1688, by whom it was very closely pressed, Mahim, Mazagong and Sion being captured, and the governor and garrison besieged in the fort. Submission, however, being made to Aurengzebe, his forces were withdrawn from the settlement. In 1776 the island of Salsette, (long possessed by the Portuguese, but wrested from them by the Mahrattas A. D. 1750, from whom it was captured by the British in 1773,) 18 miles long and 14 broad, (which has since been joined to Bombay by a causeway,) was obtained by cession from the celebrated intriguer Ragoba or Rugonath Rao, on condition of restoring him to the supreme power as Peishwa or head of the Mahratta confederacy. In order to understand the origin of the Mahratta war, it may be necessary to premise that this wily chieftain was uncle and guardian to Nareen Rao, a minor, who, on the death of his brother Madhooras Ballajee, (styled the Great) succeeded to the office of Peishwa, or head of the Mahratta confederacy of feudal barons or chiefs. The minor was murdered, as was said, at the instigation of his uncle Ragoba, who in turn became Peishwa for a few months, until it was discovered that the widow of the murdered youth was pregnant. A considerable number of the Mahratta chiefs then confederated—expelled Ragoba and formed a regency until the accouchement of the widow should take place, and the son or daughter of Nareen Rao be enabled to assume the government. Ragoba fled to Surat, denied all participation in the death of his nephew, questioned the legitimacy of the widow's offspring, and solicited the aid of the English to recover the Peishwaship. Hence the subsequent contests and wars with the Mahrattas.

On the downfall of the Mysore dynasty in the S. of India, it was deemed necessary by the Marquis of Wellesley to curb the domineering power of the Mahrattas under Dowlut Rao Sindiah, Holkar, and the Rajah of Berar. A few words re-

specting Sindiah and Holkar will, therefore, be necessary. Ranoojee Sindiah, the founder of the Sindiah family, first distinguished himself as a leader of the Mahratta army in 1738, when its successes against the Imperial forces of the Delhi Emperor, led to the foundation of the Mahratta States of Sindiah, Holkar and Puar. Mahadjee Sindiah was his fourth but illegitimate son, and on the death of his four brothers succeeded to his father's jagheer or estates. He died in 1794, and was one of the most powerful native princes of his day; his whole life was passed in the camp devoted to the improvement of his army; his infantry and artillery being formed on the model of the European troops, and his cavalry after the graceful manner of Mahomedans and Rajpoots. He was succeeded by his grand nephew and adopted son Dowlut Rao Sindiah, whose army constituted a disciplined force of 45,000 infantry, divided into 72 battalions, under European officers, with a park of 500 pieces of artillery, and a numerous cavalry. He died 21st March, 1827, after having for 30 years played a prominent military part in Indian affairs:—On his death, his army, at the lowest computation (inclusive of the British contingent and garrisons to forts) consisted of 14,000 infantry, 10,000 cavalry, and 250 pieces of ordnance, and he left territories capable of realizing 14,000,000 rupees per annum, if properly managed. Mulhar Rao Holkar, the originator of his own powerful dynasty, was the son of a shepherd, who, in addition to tending sheep, gained a livelihood as a weaver of cumlies (native blankets.) From the command of 25 horse, under Kantajee Kuddum, he rose until we find him, in 1724, at the head of 100 horse in the Peishwa's service, whose principal leader he became in 1732, when for the support of his troops, Indore, &c. was assigned to him. He died in 1765, one of the most distinguished Mahratta leaders of his day, leaving possessions rated at a gross annual revenue of 7,500,000 rupees. *Jeswunt Rao Holkar*, the formidable chieftain alluded to under Western India, was the illegitimate son of Tokajee Holkar, whom the celebrated Ahlya Baye, widow of Khunda Rao, had raised to the command of her army

although no relative. *Jeswunt Rao Holkar* raised himself to the Imperial power by poisoning his brother and nephew together with the wife of the former; he died mad in 1811. His invasion of the British possessions in Hindostan was at the head of an army of 90,000 men, of whom 19,000 were in brigades of disciplined infantry, and 7,000 in artillery.

It was against these powerful Chieftains that the battle of Assaye was fought on the 23rd September, 1803, (in which General Wellesley with a force of 4,500 men, of whom only 2,000 were Europeans, attacked the confederate disciplined forces of 50,000 men, assisted by a well organized French artillery and 10,000 infantry, disciplined and officered by Frenchmen), which may be said to have given supremacy to the British influence in the west of India.

On the termination of hostilities in December, 1803, with the Mahratta Dowlut Rao Sindiah, the valuable districts of Broach, (sixteen hundred square miles) in the province of Gujerat, having the gulph of Cambay on the west, was ceded to the Bombay Presidency; as was also the strong fortress of Ahmednuggur,* in the province of Aurungabad, which had been previously captured by General Wellesley in August, 1803, together with some other places of minor importance. Cutch Province next claims attention: the Government of this maritime district consists of a Rao, whose power is partly hereditary, and partly elective at the will of the the Jahrejah Blugad or brotherhood of chiefs. In 1801 and 1804 the Cutch State sent deputations to Bombay, but no alliance was then formed; in 1809, a wily adventurer had the control of the Government, and it became the hot-bed of pirates and robbers, who were a serious annoyance to the British, and a treaty was entered into to prevent predatory incursions in our own and our allies' territories. From this period the

* Lat. 19.15. N. long. 74.55. E. distant from Bombay 181 miles, and from Calcutta 1,119 miles. The fort is entirely of stone, of an oval shape, and about one mile in circumference. There are a great many martello towers and a glacis to cover the base of the wall; the ditch is deep and broad, and the whole area within vaulted for stores.

contentions for the Sovereignty and the disorders of the State became intolerable to the neighbouring Powers; the unprovoked hostility to the British Power by Bharmalja (the father of the present Rao) together with his tyrannous and oppressive conduct to the Jahreja Chiefs owing to inebriety and insanity, led to the combined operations of the British and Gaekwar's troops, who reduced the fort of Angar, and subsequently the whole province was restored to order. This led to the treaty of Bhooj in 1816, by which for political motives, Mandavie the chief seaport of the Cutch province, (lat. 22.50. N. long. 69.33. E.) together with Anjar, &c. in the same province, was ceded by the governing power to the E. I. Company, and placed under the sway of the Bombay Presidency; and in 1819, Cutch became a subsidized State, the English engaging to curb the plunderers from Wagur, whose depredations had been carried on with desolating vigour, and to keep the Sindeans and Khosas from their occasional invasions of the province.

The ambitious and treacherous designs of the Peishwa in 1817 against the British, by whom he had been elevated to power and supported in his dominions so long, was the means of extending yet more the territories under the Bombay Presidency. The Mahrattas took advantage of the Pindary war to commence hostilities, but the decisive conduct of the Marquis of Hastings, as previously stated, settled up to the present period the fate of Western India, and in 1818, the Northern and Southern Concan, (12,270 square miles) Kandish (12,430 square miles) Poonah, (20,870 square miles) Dharwar, (9,950 square miles) and various territories, &c. in Gujerat, became the dominions of the British in India; the whole of the Bombay Presidency, now forming an area of 64,938 square miles, and a population of 7,000,000 million souls.

STIPENDIARY PRINCES,—SUBSIDIARY AND PROTECTED STATES,
—AND FEUDATORY AND TRIBUTARY CHIEFTAINS OF BRITISH
INDIA.

STIPENDIARY PRINCES.—It will be seen from the fore-

going details that a large portion of the British dominions in the East is made up of the possessions of Princes who either themselves, or their descendants now enjoy stipends paid to them out of the public revenues. These Princes first became connected with us by subsidiary alliances, and ceded territories in return for military protection,—others lost their dominions by the chances of war, while some territories were taken under our control from the absolute incapacity of the rulers, or their tyranny, which in mercy to the unhappy sufferers we could no longer permit to exist. The Princes of the first and last classes are formally installed on the Musnud, allowed to exercise sovereignty over the tenants on their household lands,—they are exempted from the jurisdiction of the British Courts of law, have their own civil and military functionaries, with all the insignia of state, and a British Envoy usually resident at their Court, whose duties chiefly relate to their pecuniary affairs, or the ceremonials of sovereignty. The following is an abstract in round numbers of their stipends.

When granted	Title of Prince.	Stipend. Rupees.	When granted	Title of Prince.	Stipend. Rupees.
1808	Emperor of Delhi and family	15,00,000	1818	Bajee Row	8,00,000
1801	Soubhadar of the Carnatic	11,65,400	1818	Chimnaje Appah	3,00,000
—	Families of former Soubhadars	9,00,000	1803	Vinaseek Rao	7,50,000
1798	Rajah of Tanjore	11,53,500	1803	Zoolfikur Ali	4,00,000
1770	Soubhadar of Bengal, &c.	16,00,000	1806	Himmat Bahadour's descendants	60,000
—	Families of former Do. &c.	9,00,000	1818	Benaseek Rao and Beta Raee	2,50,000
1798	Rajah of Benares	1,45,000	1818	Gowind Rao of Calpee	1,00,000
1799	Families of Hyder Ali and Tippoo	6,89,840	1771	Nawaub of Masulipatam	50,000
—	Rajahs of Malabar	2,50,000		Total Rupees.	1,08,01,440

* Or at the rate of 2s. per Rupee, in sterling, £1,089,144

SUBSIDIARY ALLIANCES.—Nearly one half of the Hindostan territory is held by Governments in subsidiary alliances with

* A very able document drawn up by Mr. B. S. Jones of the Board of Control, makes the amount of stipends paid in 1827-28, as follows,—Nabob of Bengal, S. R. 22,40,350,—Rajah of Benares 1,34,282,—Emperor of Delhi, 13,40,983,—Benaseek Rao, 5,79,866,—Nabob of Arcot, 17,53,965,—Rajah of Tanjore, 10,47,389,—Nawaub of Masulipatam, 52,671,—Families of Hyder Ali and Tippoo Saib, 6,38,858,—the late Peishwa, Bajee Rao and Chimnaje Appah, 22,42,023,—Nabob of Surat, 1,62,675. Total 1,01,02,557 or at 2s. the S. R. £1,019,265 sterling.

the British Government, the general terms of the treaties with whom are, on the side of the English, protection against external enemies, and on the other, a submitting, in all political relations with foreign states, to the arbitration and final adjudication of the British Government; a specific force is furnished by the E. I. Company, and a territory equivalent to the maintenance of the troops ceded by the former: the subsidizing state is also bound to keep on foot a specific contingent force to act in subordinate co-operation with the subsidiary. The protecting power is not to interfere with the internal administration of the protected state, but in cases of exigency it reserves the right in general to assume the whole of the resources of the protected state. The subsidiary force is liable to be called out to protect the legal succession to power, but not to be employed between the head of the Government and its Zumendars or Chiefs.

The following is given as a list of the Princes, the military protection of whose territories is undertaken by the British Government, together with the amount of subsidy paid by each, or the revenue on the territorial assignment in lieu of subsidy.

Princes and their Capital Cities.	Population.	Area of Territory, sq. miles.	First Treaty.	First Subsidiary Contingent.	Subsidiary Forces.		Gross Revenue.	Charges, Ac.	Net Subsidy.
					Cavalry	Infantry			
King of Oude* (Lucknow)	6000000	25300	1784	1773	at least 10000 m.	—	£. 1812663	£. 608223	£. 1307340
Soubadar of the Deccan (Hydrabad)	10000000	108400	1766	1795	1000	6080	610800	120000	490800
His Highness the Gaekwar (Baroda)	6000000	36800	1779	1818	2000	4800	262738	147170	115568
Sindiah and others (Suwalior)	600000	48400	1781	1803	—	—	228108	80008	148120
Holkar and others (Indore)	3000000	17000	1808	1817	Undefd.	Undefd.	272874	—	420086
Rajah of Nagpoor (Nagpoor)	3000000	64270	1779	1816	Ditto	Ditto	234730	—	—
Raj of Cutch (Bhoj)	—	8100	1818	1818	—	3 Batt.	—	—	21400
Rajah of Mysore (Mysore)	3000000	27681	1789	1790	Undefd.	Undefd.	—	—	200000
Rajah of Travancore (Travancore)	1000000	6781	1784	1785	—	3 Batt.	—	—	50000
Rajah of Cochin (Cochin)	—	860	1791	1800	—	1 Batt.	—	—	22807
Totals	—	270680	—	—	—	—	—	—	4389994

Two of the foregoing (Oude and Mysore) can scarcely be styled stipendiary, the former being almost entirely dependent on the British Government, and the latter recently ordered under the direct management of Madras Presidency, owing to long misgovernment. Sindiah's territories

* Some accounts give the area of Oude at 17,008,000 acres, of which about one tenth is jungle and forest.

should also of right be excluded, as, to a great extent, he is independent of our authority. The charges include revenue collection, political, judicial and police, maintenance of provincial battalions, customs, mint, &c.; the balance remaining after these deductions go to the purpose for which the territories were granted—namely, the military protection of the Government which assigned them.

PROTECTED STATES.—Besides the foregoing Governments, there are several minor principalities with whom engagements or treaties have been entered into agreeably to the peculiar circumstances of each, but with general stipulations applicable to all; namely, that the Protected State maintain no correspondence of a political tendency with foreign powers without the privity or consent of the British Government, to whom the adjustment of its political differences is to be referred; they are perfectly independent in their internal rule, but acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government. When the interests of both powers are concerned, the troops of the protected state, act in the field in subordinate co-operation to the British forces, the latter being empowered to avail themselves of natural or other advantages in the allied country against an enemy when necessary. No asylum for criminals or defaulters is permitted, and every assistance required to be given to effect their apprehension in the state. Europeans not to be employed without British permission. According to the resources of the protected state, a tribute is required, or a military contingent to be kept in readiness, or service to be rendered according to the means of the protected power. The states thus protected,* but without subsidiary alliances, are—

1st. *in the N. W.* Siccim and the Sikh and Hill States, on the left bank of the Sutlej—(the Sirdars are in number 150).

2nd. *Rajpoot States.* Bickaneer, Jesselmere, Jyepore,

* The Protected States, and Jagerdars in Bundelcund, are in number 37;—area in square miles, 12,918; number of villages, 5,755; population, 1,378,400; revenue, rupees 8,381,300; cavalry, 6,087, and infantry 22,430. For details see *Appendix*.

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Joudpore, Oudepore, Kotah, Boondee, Serowey, Kishengurh, Dowleah, and Pertaubgurh, Doorapoore, Banswarra.

3rd. *Jaut and other States on the right bank of the Jumna.* Bhurtpore, Ulwar, or Macherry, Kerowlee.

4th. *Boondelah States.* Sumpthur, Jhansi, Jaloun, Oorcha, or Tehree, Dutteah, Rewah.*

5th. *States in Malwa.* Bhopaul, Dhar, Dewas, Rutlaum, Silana, Nursinghur, Amjherra, &c. &c. &c.

6th. *States in Guzerat.* Pahlunpore, Rahdunpore, Rajpeepia, Loonawara, Soonth, the States in the Myhee Caunta, the Kattywar States.

7th. *States on the Malabar Coast (chiefly Mahratta).* Sattarah, Sawunt Warree, Colapore, Colabba.

8th. *Burmese Frontier.* Cachar, Jyntia.

States not under British Protection. Scindia, the Rajah of Dholapore, Barree and Rajakera (formerly Rana of Gohud), Runjeet Sing of Lahore, the Ameers of Scind, and the Rajah of Nepaul.

The table on the opposite page exhibits the tributaries and territories acquired in India since 1813.

* Statement of protected States and Jageerdars in Saugor, abstracted from the Letter of the Agent in the Saugor and Nerbudda, dated 4th Dec. 1831. See Bengal Political Cons. 13th January, 1832, No. 56.

States.	Extent of Territory.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Revenue.	Military Force.	
					Cavalry.	Infantry.
Rewah . . .	70 Coss, 3 miles N. to S. and 60 E. to W.	4000	1200000	2000000	4000	..
Ocheyrah . . .	10 Coss, E. to W. 7 ditto, N. to S.	404	120000	150000	80 or 60	300
Sohawul . . .	Computed to own about half the quantity of Land that Ocheyrah possessed.	217½	80000	100000
Kothes . . .	5 Coss, E. to W. 5 ditto, N. to S.	82	30000	50000	30 or 20	800
Myhur . . .	16 Coss, E. to W. 10 ditto, N. to S.	700	100000	150000	200	1000
Shahgurh . . .	9 Coss, N. to S. 23 ditto, E. to W.	285	30000	70000	200	1000
Chimdea	} Included in Rewah Stat.		50000		
Simerca			70000		

BRITISH FEUDATORY CHIEFS.—These chiefs so far differ from the former class, that, while the *protected* chiefs had treaties concluded with them as independent princes, the *feudatory* have had their allegiance transferred to Great Britain by their feudal superiors or by the events of war. In most cases the lands which they held as a life tenure, have been converted by our government into a perpetuity, and the chiefs are permitted a supreme control on their own lands. Among the number of these chiefs may be mentioned the Putwurdhun family, of which there are nine chiefs; the Soubahdar of Jansi, chief of Julaon and Calpee; family of Angria, (the Mahratta pirate); numerous tributaries in Kattywar and in Gujerat; the Rajahs of Shorapoor and Gudwal; the Seedee of Jinjeera, and other Abyssinian chiefs.*

BRITISH ALLIES.—Independent of the foregoing States, the East India Company's government have general treaties with other surrounding nations, viz:—with *Persia* the Company are in alliance, and have a resident at the court of the sovereign. With *Cochin-China*, *Siam*, *Caubul*, *Nepaul*, and *Ava*, the intercourse of the Company is principally of a commercial

* Parliamentary Return of the area of Protected and Allied States.—Dominions of the Rajahs of Travancore and Cochin, 9,400 square miles; Nizam, 108,800; Rajah of Mysore, 29,750; King of Oude, 25,300; Dowlat Rao Scindiah, 42,400; the Rajah of Berar, including Nagpore, 64,270; Jeswunt Rao Holkar, 17,600; the Guicowar, including the detached Pergunnahs belonging to the British in Kattywar and Guzerat, 36,900; Rajah of Koorg, 2,230; Nabob of Kurnool, 3,500; Rajah of Sikhim, 4,400; Nabob of Bhopal, 7,360; Rajahs of Sattara, Colspore, Sewuntwarree, and the principal British Jaghiredars, 21,600; Rajah of Cutch, 6,100; Soubedar of Jhansi, Rajah of Duttea and others, commonly known as the Bundicound Chiefs, 19,000. Territories under British protection W. of the river Jumna, comprehending Jhodpore, Bikanier, Jessulmeer, Khotah, the Seikh Country, the Hill Districts of Sirmoor, and other small states, 165,000. Of Assam, Jyntee, Cachar, and Muneepore, the boundaries are so undefined that it is difficult to form even an approximation to their superficial contents, but it is estimated at 51,000. Total, 614,610 square miles.

nature, but they have residents established at Nepaul and Ava. With the *Imaum of Muscat*, and with other *Chiefs on the western shores of the Persian Gulf*, the Company have treaties for commercial purposes, and with a view to the suppression of the slave trade, and of piracy in the Gulf. In order to secure the fulfilment of the provisions of these treaties, the Company have established political agents on the shores of the Persian and Arabian Gulfs.

The area of the kingdoms and principalities of India has been computed by Capt. J. Sutherland after a novel manner; the boundaries of each state having been marked off on a skeleton map, drawn on paper of equable texture, the whole were cut out with the greatest care, and *weighed* individually and collectively, as a check in the most delicate balance of the Calcutta Assay Office: the weights were noted to a *thousandth part of a grain*, the balance being sensible to the tenth part of that minute quantity. Before setting to work on the States, an index, or unit of 100 square degrees, cut from the same paper, was first weighed, to serve as a divisor for the rest. The weighing process commenced in the driest part of the day, taking the whole of the papers together; thus the continent of India weighed 127,667 grains troy: the sum of the *individual* weights of the separate states 127,773 grains troy: the addition was proved to proceed from the hygrometric water, absorbed towards the evening, and corrections were applied to endeavour to neutralise this source of error: the following data must, however, only be considered as an approximation to truth in the absence of better information, owing to the imperfect data of maps of India. By Capt. Sutherland's weighing process, the area of the native States, in alliance with the British government, is 449,845 square miles. That of the territory under British rule, with the remaining small states and Jágérdars, 626,591, giving the superficial area of India 1,076,591 square miles, which nearly agrees with Hamilton's estimate of 1,103,000.

Capt. Sutherland classes the native States of India under the three following heads, viz:—

1st. *Foreign*.—Persia, Kabool, Senna, the Arab tribes, Siam, and Acheen. 2nd. *External on the frontier*.—Ava, Nepal, Lahore, and Sinde. 3rd. *Internal* (to which the following areas refer), which, according to the nature of their relations, or treaties, with the British, he divides into six classes.

FIRST CLASS.

By Weighment. By Hamilton.*

1. Oude, square miles, 23,923	20,000	Treaties offensive and defensive; right on their part to claim protection external and internal from British government and right of the latter to interfere in internal affairs.
2. Mysore, do. 27,999	27,000	
3. Berar, or Nagpur, do. 56,723	70,000	
4. Travancore, do. 4,574	6,000	
5. Cochin, do. 1,988	2,000	

SECOND CLASS.

6. Hyderabad, sq. m. 88,884	96,000	Do. with the exception of the right of Britain to interfere in internal affairs, but empowered to require the aid of British troops for the realization of the sovereign's just claims on his subjects.
7. Baroda, do. 24,950	12,000	

THIRD CLASS.

Rajpoot States.	8. Indore, square miles	4,245	Treaties offensive and defensive, states mostly tributary; acknowledging the supremacy of, and promising subordinate cooperation to, the British government, but supreme rulers in their own dominions.
	9. Oudipore, (H. 7,300)	11,784	
	10. Jeypur,	13,427	
	11. Judpoor,	34,132	
	12. Kotah, (H. 6,500) . . .	4,389	
	13. Bundi, (H. 2,500) . . .	2,291	
	14. Alwar,	3,235	
	15. Bikbanfr,	18,060	
	16. Jesalmir,	9,779	
	17. Kishengurh,	724	
	18. Bauswarra,	1,440	
	19. Pertabgurh,	1,457	
	20. Danganpur,	2,005	
	21. Keroli,	1,878	
	22. Serowí,	3,024	
	23. Bhurtpur, (H. 5,000)	1,946	
	24. Bhopal, (H. 5,000) . . .	6,772	
	25. Cutch (H. 13,300)	1,396	
	26. Dhar and Dewas,	1,466	
	27. Dhólpur,	1,626	
	28. (in Bundlekund) Rewah, .	10,310	
	29. ——— Dhattea, Jhansi and Terhi,	16,173	
30. ——— Sawantwari,	935		

* Extracted from Hamilton's Hindoostan by way of comparison.

			FOURTH CLASS.	
Ameer Khan.	{ 31. Tonk,	1,103	} 1,633	} Guarantee and protection, subordinate co-operation, but supremacy in their own territory.
	{ Seronj,	261		
	{ Nimbahara,	269		
32. Patiala, Keytal, Naba, and Jeend,		16,602		
			FIFTH CLASS.	
33. Gwalior,		32,944		—Amnity and friendship.
			SIXTH CLASS.	
34. Sattara,		7,943	} 3,184	} Protection, with the right of the British Government to control internal affairs.
35. Kolapúr,		3,184		

Of the above States Capt. Sutherland enumerates four as *Mahomedan* (*i. e.* with Mussulman rulers I presume), viz:—Hydrabad, Oude, Bhopal, and Tonk: of the *Hindoo States* eight are Mahratta, viz:—Sattara, Gwalior, Nagpúr, Indore, Banda, Kolapúr, Dhar, and Dewas: 19 are Rajput, viz:—Oudipúr, Jeypúr, Judpúr, Búndi, Kotah, Cutch, Alwar, Bhi-kanír, Jesalmír, Kishenghur, Bánswára, Pertábghúrh, Dungenpúr, Kerolé, Serowé, Rewah, Dhattea, Jhansé, and Terhi: six are of other Hindoo tribes, viz:—Mysore, Bhurtpoor, Travancore, Sawantwari, Cochin, and Dholpúr. Besides these allied States, there are the following inferior Rajships and Jágérdara, viz:—Chota-Nagpúr, Singújer, Sumbhalpúr, Oudipoor, Manipúr, Tanjore, the Baroach family, Ferozpúr, Merich, Tansgaon, Nepani, Akulkote, and those of the Ságar and Nerbudda country, together with Sikhim, and the States of the Northern Hills.

Before closing the subject, it may be desirable to mention an independent chief of great talent, wealth, and power, with whom the British government is on terms of friendly alliance. I allude to Runjeet, or Ranajit Sing, whose country includes not only what is called the Punjaub, and the whole of the lovely and important valley of Cashmere, but also considerable tracts of territory beyond the Indus from Tatta on the S. to Thibet on the N., and from Caubul on the W. to beyond the Sutlej on the E. This formidable Potentate possesses a large army (see *Military chapter*), an immense arsenal at Umritzar, and a vast treasury (his annual revenues are estimated at 1,80,00,000 rupees) at Govind Garrow.

On the important question of the advantages, or disadvantages of subsidiary alliances, I am happily saved the necessity of dilating, by reason of the following statesman-like evidence given before the late East India Parliamentary Committee,* by Richard Jenkins, Esq. M.P., a gentleman who had passed 30 years of his life in the civil service of the East India Company (the last 20 of which were spent as a diplomatist), and whose opinions, here given, bespeak his high range of talent. On being interrogated upon the general nature and character of our subsidiary treaties in India, and their effect upon the good government of the respective territories, to which they relate,—Mr. Jenkins thus replied.

The question regarding our subsidiary alliances seems to require a short reference to the still more general one, viz. are we to maintain our ascendancy as the paramount power in India; and if so, is it to be maintained through the means of subsidiary alliance, or through what other system.

The rise and progress of our power in India have been rapid and marvellous. Unlike other empires ours has been in a great degree forced upon us, built up at almost every step against our own deliberate resolution to avoid it, in the face, I may say, of every opposition which could be given to it by the Legislature, by his Majesty's Government, by the Court of Directors acting upon corresponding dispositions in our governments abroad. Each successive Governor-General for the last half century, sent from this country, with minds fresh and untouched by local prejudices, including Lord Cornwallis during his first administration, who went to India under the Act containing the well known denunciation against conquest and extension of dominion; Lord Wellesley, Lord Minto, Lord Hastings, (the two last strongly impressed against the existing foreign policy in India) and Lord Amherst, have seen reason to enter into the wars and negotiations, defensive in their objects, but generally terminating in that very extension of territory and dominion which was dreaded.

What are we to infer from this, but that our position in India has always been such, that our existence has depended on the very steps proscribed by the Legislature, and which would surely have been most religiously avoided by those noblemen, had not the public safety demanded a contrary course; that at no one time for the last 50 years have our ablest and most enlightened politicians been able to find a resting-place where we might repose in security amidst the wreck of surrounding states, and

* 27th March, 1832.

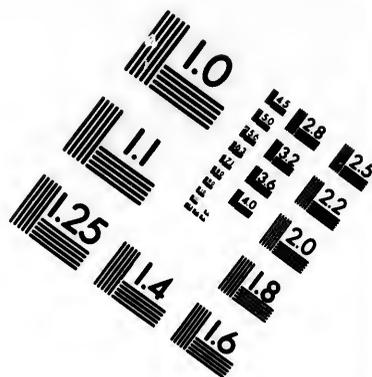
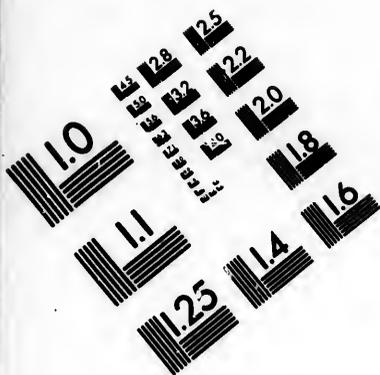
that we are now perhaps in the same uncertain predicament, though all but masters of the whole of India.

With regard to the system on which this ascendancy, if necessary to our existence in India, is to be maintained, I have to observe, that a very great proportion of our power has arisen out of the subsidiary policy. It is indeed the main source of our ascendancy, both military and political, it has grown with our growth, and strengthened with our strength; it is interwoven with our very existence, and therefore the question of abandoning, or materially departing from it, seems to me to be quite irrational, unless we are at the same time prepared to abandon India.

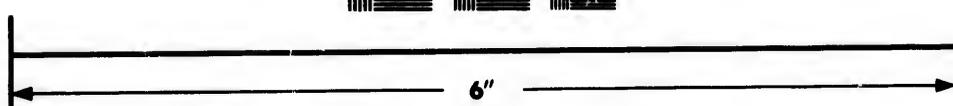
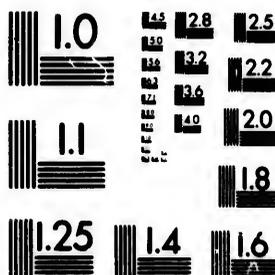
We first appeared in India as traders, but it was as armed traders, and our various contests with our European rivals, the prospect of which rendered a warlike garb necessary to support our peaceful objects, were the origin of our military reputation in that region. It was even by the Great Mogul, and by the Sophi of Persia, as useful instruments to free their coasts from pirates, we acquired, as the price of our aid, many of those commercial advantages which fixed us on the continent of India. Then again the breaking up of the Mogul empire led to arming our factories, to protect our lives and properties. The same skill and gallantry which had at first won our way to commercial settlements, displayed anew, induced the native powers newly arising out of the wrecks of the empire, to court our aid in their contests with one another; and the views of securing and improving our commercial establishments, through the favour of those powers, forbade our refusing to intermeddle with their politics. Here the first step was the decisive one; once committed we could not recede.

The French in the meantime had made still bolder advances to empire in India, and our destruction or their expulsion became the alternatives. Could we hesitate which to choose? We now began to raise armies. These were to be paid; and could only be paid by the princes whose cause we espoused against the French and their allies: pecuniary payments often failing, territorial assignments took their place, and we were obliged to exercise a civil as well as a military power. Our whole dominion on the coast of Coromandel arose in this way, and much of that on the western coast: and through it, and the armies it enabled us to maintain, the power of Hyder was checked, and that of his son Tippoo was annihilated: the French power and influence in the Deccan was destroyed, and the Marhatta empire brought under subjection. In Bengal, though the acquisition of the Dewannee, gave us the great nucleus of our power in that quarter; still it was extended and secured through the same system of subsidiary alliances applied to Oude; and in fact, if we examine the composition of our territorial acquisitions, we shall find that a very considerable portion of them has accrued to us in payment by the native states of specified numbers of our troops, amounting in revenue to the whole military expenses





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of Bengal, as the following rough statement will shew. The civil charges being deducted, the balance is given as applicable to military purposes.

1827-28.	Revenue.	Civil Charges.	Balance.
Carnatic, in lieu of Subsidy.	£1,404,343	£493,379	£911,064
Thanjore	394,673	186,638	208,035
Nizam	484,809	133,911	351,000
Peishwa	estimated at....	386,000
Travancore subsidy	69,428
Cochin ditto	33,837
Mysore ditto	300,000
Gaychwar	383,793	147,170	236,623
Oude	1,013,836	366,238	1,380,074
Benares	778,433	233,350	545,083
Nagpore Cessions	estimated at....	780,000
Do. Tribute	60,000
Total Subsidies, and Cessions in lieu of ditto.....			£24,069,048

If, with these great advantages, and many others, we also experience some inconveniences from our subsidiary alliances, we must not complain; but I really see none of the latter to ourselves at all to be put in competition with the former. I do not believe that we have ever been engaged in a war in defence of our allies, which did not call upon us to interfere in their favour whether they were our allies or not. Whilst having the right to guide their political conduct in the minutest points, we are secure from any involvement in hostilities of an offensive nature through their ambition or want of faith, many other advantages of our alliances will be obvious on consideration of the general position of the several states and our own. Our subjects, I presume, derive benefit from any political situation which strengthens our power, and relieves them from the dangers of invasion; and by preserving peace and order amongst our neighbours, takes from before their eyes the temptation to a life of plunder and irregularity; settles their minds to a determined adherence to peaceable avocations, and opens sources of foreign trade to their industry and enterprise; and such is the result of the subsidiary system.

With regard to the effect of our alliances upon the native princes themselves, and their subjects, I would premise, that our alliances are such as were concluded with the states that were at the time upon some footing of equality with ourselves, though led by some external danger to submit to certain terms implying a diminution of sovereignty, as the Nizam, the Peishwa and the Gaychwar, or such as exist with states owing their very existence to our creation or forbearance, or those with inferior states whose internal independence in civil affairs we acknowledge, with certain exceptions inseparable from their subordination to us in military matters, and in circumstances affecting the public tranquillity.

With respect to the first class, they have all obtained the benefit they sought, of security from external danger, by which they were left at liberty, if so inclined, to cultivate the arts of peace. The natural effect,

however, of such a connection is to lessen the energy and self-dependence of the native state, and to induce it to neglect its natural resources, or only to cultivate them to the degree necessary to swell their personal treasures, with a view to contingencies, either of hostile attempts on their own part or on ours; and the result, speaking broadly, has been a gradual falling of the power of the state into our hands, (even where, by treaty, all interference in internal affairs has been prohibited,) whether from the weakness or the evil disposition of our ally, giving rise to dangers and disorders that would otherwise have dissolved the alliance, and caused the destruction of the state by a contest with us, or its own dissolution from internal or external force. These consequences, too, have occurred, in spite of our efforts to prevent them, at Hyderabad, whilst at Poonah the success of such efforts has not prevented the forcible disruption of the alliance. With the affairs of the Gujchwar we have been involved *ab initio* in a direct interference; and the necessity of reverting to it, after a trial of our opposite system, is the best proof of the evils of the latter, if not of the benefits of the former, only adopted from absolute necessity in the first instance.

With regard to their subjects, our support, has given cover to oppressions and extortions, which probably, under other circumstances, would have driven them to rebellion; and such evils have only been remedied where we have been forced to a direct interference for the special purpose of remedying them.

The freedom from external invasion, unless accompanied with such interference, I should fear would hardly be a boon to the inhabitants; for with all the horrors of such invasions, especially by the Pindarees, they were usually well prepared to mitigate their effects in part, and in part to turn them to their own account in evading the exaction of their princes.

With regard to the second class of states, as Holkar, Mysore, Satarah, Oude and Nagpore, (not to speak of the states of Travancore and Cochin,) we have a formal right of interference with all but that of Holkar; and although with regard to him there may exist some grounds of exception to the conclusion, it appears to me that in all the considerations of the interests (I mean the real welfare, apart from the pride of independence) of the governments and their subjects, the benefits of direct interference and control will be found to predominate. In such cases, if we have the court, the highest classes civil and military, viz. the official classes, the great landowners, and a few leading bankers against us, we have the middle and lower orders, mouled, mercantile, manufacturing, agricultural, and even military for us.

The last class, as the states in central India and Rajpootana, have undoubtedly received benefits from the connection with us, in being saved from destruction, or at least a constant state of depression and misery, under Mahratta, Patan and Pinduree domination, beyond that of any other

state or people, and the increased cultivation and prosperity of those regions is a proof of it; still there are difficulties and hazards attending these connections which I am not prepared to go into.

If there be any class of states which may be supposed to embrace our protection with a certainty of its unmixed advantage both to them and ourselves, such states are the latter. The less we interfere with their internal concerns, I should say the less likely it would be that causes of discontent would arise; and free as they are, or ought to be, from the jealousy of our domination, having been always dependent on one power or other, generally on all who are stronger than themselves, yet the high military spirit of the tribes of which they are composed will hardly submit for a length of time even to the just restraint imposed by us on their hostilities with each other or their domestic feuds. Still we may hope to keep them attached to ourselves in a greater degree than any other class of our allies.

Of the latter I fear we can never be sure, through any course of policy, however liberal, but by the means of our actual military strength; and although it is, of course, just to do our utmost to keep them in their actual condition, as settled by trustees, and perhaps politic with a view to the alternative of bringing their dominions under our direct rule, and to other considerations of keeping up the respectable classes of natives as long as our institutions are at variance with that object, I am rather of opinion that, in all points of view, such an alternative is not the worst, if we regard our own interest, those of our own subjects or those of foreign states, whether governors or governed. Act as we will we cannot divest ourselves of the high station we are placed in without the danger and almost certainty of a complete fall; nor, were we philanthropic enough to view such an event with indifference, if conducive to the real good of India, can we anticipate any such consequence. On the other hand, the ebbs and flows of our policy, sometimes interfering for the people, sometimes withdrawing our protecting arm, are a positive evil both to the native princes and to their subjects, and injurious to our reputation for consistency and good faith, encouraging to our enemies, and mortifying to, or even worse, disgusting to our friends. I am of opinion, then, that we ought not to recede from any step we have gained, but to improve every occasion legitimately presented, to compensate the inhabitants of India for the unavoidable evils of foreign domination, by securing to them the benefit at least of more enlightened, just and humane principles of government.

Placed in the midst of nations foreign to us, and inimical not only to us, but to every other people, by the extraordinary and exclusive nature of their religion, manners, customs and habits, not to mention language, which hardly alludes to foreigners but in terms of contempt, and not taking into account those sources of hatred and jealousy common to all nations under a foreign yoke, and particularly to those native states who have fal-

len, from a high estate, to one of humiliating dependance, it is expecting, I may almost say, impossibilities, to look to, any means of maintaining our footing in India, but by the cultivation and improvement of our intrinsic strength, to exclusion of all reliance on our foreign relations for anything but a gradual preparation for the entire conquest of the Continent.

The rise and progress of the British power in Hindostan, has now, with as much brevity as possible been brought to a close, and it is almost impossible, at this short distance of time, to contemplate coolly and impartially, the important proceedings therein narrated: step by step, from the landing of Clive, in 1757, at Calcutta, for the re-conquest of the few acres of land possessed by the East India Company to the present period, the British power has gone on increasing in strength, and I trust in wisdom. There can be no doubt, that if the happiness of the great mass of the people be considered as paramount, the acquisition of the Indian provinces by the British, must be looked on as a most fortunate circumstance, for *peace*, the indispensable prelude to civilization, had not within record or tradition heretofore been known to continue for the shortest period among the unhappy inhabitants. The *Mahomedan dynasties* were built on usurpation, cemented with the blood of the feeble and innocent and maintained by sequestering the riches of the wealthy; the policy of the Moslems in Asia was complete subjugation, universal dominion, and uncontrolled despotism; their ruling principles avarice, sensuality, an imposing pageantry, and a conversion to the faith of the Koran. The *Mahratta* conquests were considered as predatory acquisitions, to be held only by the sword; and such was the confused condition of the small Principalities existing in different parts of India, that in the Carnatic for example, no less than twenty petty chiefs assumed at one time the title of *Nizam Ul Mulk* (Compcser of the State), exhibiting a scene of boundless exaction and rapacity on the part of those claiming the government; no wonder therefore that the ploughman was armed at his rustic occupation, and the shepherd while peacefully tending his herds, always prepared for the battle field. Property of every kind may well be supposed totally devoid of security; Mr. Orme, writing at the time, says

(Book I. Ch. IV.) 'the mechanic or artificer, under the government of the petty Princes, will only work to the measure of his necessities—he dreads to be distinguished; if he becomes too noted for having acquired a little more money than others of his craft, that will be taken from him; if conspicuous for the excellence of his skill, he is seized upon by some person in authority, and obliged to work for him night and day.' It is indeed on authentic record, that rebellion, massacres, and barbarous conquests, make up the history of India from the remotest annals; we read of thousands—twenty—seventy—a hundred thousand persons being *slaughtered in one day*, without the slightest compunction;—unbounded perfidy and treason;—never ending assassination for personal revenge, or public confiscation,—the noses and ears of thousands cut off one time, justice openly sold, villainy practised in every form,—all law and religion trodden under foot,—the bonds of private friendship, of connexions, of society, broken,—every individual, as if amidst a forest filled with wild beasts, relying upon nothing but the strength of his own arm;—in fine, the work of war and blood was perpetual, living beings hewed or torn to pieces, hillocks of bodies and pyramids of human heads piled up for public show, the inhabitants of whole provinces hunted like wild beasts for royal amusement; the march of a monarch, whether Mussulman or Mahratta, tracked by gore, desolation, burning villages, famine, and pestilence.

It may perhaps be said that I have exaggerated these statements in order to uphold the sway of the E. I. Company, but let the reader peruse the following description of the former state of India, by Mr. Rickards, who did all in his power to destroy the Company, though compelled to admit their fitness for the government of India;—Mr. Rickards, speaking of the *Mahomedan dynasties in India*, says, that 'Throughout the whole period of the Mahomedan ascendancy in the south of India, the same enormities, the never-failing accompaniments of their presence and power, are recorded to have been uniformly and unceasingly perpetrated, as in the northern provinces. To review the occurrences of this

period, would only be to give further examples of the same unprovoked and devastating warfare, the same struggles for power, the same unbridled thirst of conquest, the same *perfidy, treason, and private assassination*; the same disregard of any tie, whether of nature, of honesty, or of honour, and the same persecution, oppression, and massacre of the Hindoos.

'The scenes, indeed, of butchery and blood, are often mentioned as too horrid to relate—~~thousands—twenty—seventy—a hundred thousand souls being sacrificed at one time~~, without the least remorse; it was no uncommon thing for 50,000 and 100,000 souls to be massacred at once, in which neither sex nor age were spared; and of the blood of the most venerable priests, learned men, and citizens, being used for tempering the earth with and plastering the city walls! Mahomed, son of Alla-ud-deen, one of those southern monsters, died, it is true, acknowledging 'all is vanity,' but not until after gratifying during his life every sensual passion, slaughtering 500,000 persons, and ruining and depopulating the Carnatic.'

'The treasures of the southern princes were always filled from the enormous plunder of their defenceless subjects; and the system of Mahomedan exaction, sometimes under the name of contribution, but permanently under that of revenue, being every where the same, with the power of rapacious armies every where to enforce it, the fate of the unhappy people was here, as in the north, stamped with the same wretchedness. There was no security for person or property; the latter more especially was always a fair object of seizure whenever it was known to exist,* and the mass of the people were thus reduced to a state of poverty from which there was

* Even to the present day the Hindoos have not entirely got over the dread of being known to possess money, or of having gold and silver utensils. Vast sums of money remain buried in the earth from generation to generation, and not unfrequently a sudden death deprives the inheritor of treasure of a knowledge where it lies concealed. Those who have conversed with wealthy natives can confirm me in this particular.—R. M. M.

no escape, and of violence and oppression against which there was no redress. **anduzan* to *pointas* but *hillow* add *hand* on
 What a revolting description of despotism is the foregoing delineation of a Mahomedan dynasty! While perusing it the blood curdles in the veins, and the genial current which in general flows around the heart, becomes almost frozen in its course. Yet let me proceed: the same authority asserts that the 'loose principles of banditti were, on a larger scale, those of the Asiatic courts for seven or eight centuries; whoever has a taste for atrocities of this nature; for details of lawless rapine, and wholesale butchery of the species, for flaying and impaling alive, and every species of torture, for *hewing living bodies to pieces*, for massacring prisoners in cold blood, and making hillocks of their bodies, and pyramids of their heads for public show, for hunting down the inhabitants of whole provinces like wild beasts, with other like modes of royal amusement, may be feasted to satiety in the history of the Mussulman conquests and governments of the Decken, which is little more than a continued series of those disgusting barbarities. Timour was justly denominated the 'fire-brand of the universe.' The Westminster Review for July 1832, says he was 'one of the greatest wholesale butchers of humanity ever heard of; he plundered and massacred in India, without distinction of religion or sex, and his track was marked by blood, desolation, famine, and pestilence!' Aurengzebe persecuted the Hindoos in a similar manner to the other Mahomedan tyrants; Tippoo Saib circumcised all the Brahmins he could get hold of, and, as the reviewer says, 'subjected 60,000 christians to the same operation in a single province.'

Of the Mogul proceedings in India, Mr. Rickards observes, that 'the prisoners taken were inhumanly massacred; insurrections in the provinces were also incessant, so that *the work of war and blood was perpetual*; massacres were common to every reign, when the butchery extended, not only to the parties immediately concerned, but to their vassals, dependents, and even acquaintances; not even weeping mothers, nor their smiling infants at their breasts, were pitied or

* Rickards' India, vol. i. page 223.

spared! To prevent the accumulation of property in a few hands, the wealth* and estates of Mussulmans and Hindoos were, without distinction, seized upon and confiscated; no man durst entertain his friends without a written permission from the vizier, and the different public offices were filled with men, whose indigence and dependence rendered them implicitly obedient to the dictates of government! Yet, strange to say, while narrating these horrifying facts, Mr. Rickards loads the English with opprobrium for their conquest of Hindostan, and pines over the downfall of the Great Mogul, and with him of the Mahomedan dynasties in India.

A Mahomedan historian famed for his impartiality, named Golaum Hossein Khan, is however less tender than Mr. Rickards for the fate of the Great Mogul. In his able work, entitled 'A View of Modern Times,' he says, 'when the Emperor Shah Allum was carrying on war against the English nation on the plains of Azimabad, it was made known that the emperor designed to march thither in person. Although the inhabitants had received no benefits from him, they seemed to have but one heart and one voice on the occasion; but when he arrived amongst them, and they experienced from his profligate officers and disorderly troops the most shameless acts of extortion and oppression, whilst on the other hand they *observed the good conduct and strict discipline of the English army, the officers of which did not suffer a blade of grass to be spoiled, and no kind of injury done to the feeblest peasant*, then, indeed, the sentiments of the people changed, and the loyalty which they once bore to the emperor was transferred to the English, so that when Shah Allum made his second and third expeditions they loaded him with imprecations, and prayed for victory to the English.'

* The quantity of plunder, and the value thereof, abstracted at various times from the Hindoos, is detailed with much minuteness by Mr. Rickards; and it must astonish every one, where such immense treasures could be had, and how speedily they were re-collected, did we not know what a brilliant power there is in Hindostan, and how rapidly the most destructive disasters are recovered from by an industrious people, of commercial habits and few wants.

I turn now to the same author's description of the Mahratta governors, whom he states to have been 'quite equal to the Mussulmans in the dreadful atrocities they perpetrated, and the devastating ravages with which they desolated the countries through which they passed; their route being easily traced by ruined villages and destroyed cultivation; plundering as they went along, and seizing, by violence or by treachery, all that was valuable or conducive to their present security or ulterior views; controlled by no fixed laws, and by no better sense of right than the power of the sword. The districts which resisted were overrun with fire and sword, the inhabitants tortured and murdered, and the country left a dreary waste, to forewarn others of their fate if not averted by ready compliance with these lawless exactions.'

The annexed sketch of Mahratta barbarity affords a melancholy illustration of the dreadful state to which the great mass of the people were reduced by the combined barbarities of the Mussulmans and the Mahrattas, from which, in a few years, they were so happily rescued by the East India Company:—'In 1759, Abdallah again turned his attention towards Hindostan; and in 1761, made himself master of its devoted capital Delhi. He laid the city under heavy contributions, and enforced the collection with such rigour and cruelty, that the unfortunate inhabitants, driven to despair, took up arms. The Persian ordered a *general massacre, which, without intermission, lasted seven days*. The relentless guards of Abdallah were not even then glutted with slaughter; but the stench of the dead bodies drove them out of the city. A great part of the buildings were at the same time reduced to ashes; and many thousands, who had escaped the sword, suffered a lingering death by famine, sitting upon the smoking ruins of their own houses. Thus the imperial city of Delhi, which, in the days of its glory, extended 34 miles in length, and was said to contain 2,000,000 of people, became almost a heap of rubbish. But this was not all; for the *Mahrattas* had now marched towards Delhi, to oppose Abdallah, with an army of 200,000 cavalry. On their approach Abdallah

evacuated the city, which the Mahrattas immediately entered, and filled every quarter of it with devastation and death. Not content with robbing the miserable remains of Abdallah's cruelty of everything they possessed, they stripped all the males and females naked, and wantonly whipped them through the streets. Many now prayed for death as the greatest blessing, and thanked the hand which inflicted the wound. Famine began to rage among the unfortunate citizens to such a degree, that men fled from their dearest friends as from beasts of prey, for fear of being devoured. Many women devoured their own children, while some mothers of more humanity were seen dead in the streets, with infants still sucking at their breasts.'

Several formidable bands of Hindoos, who, like the Mahrattas, gloried in the 'inestimable advantage of having a finger in every man's dish,' afford ample scope for details of cruelty and devastation; such, for instance, as the desolating freebooting Pindaries, the bands of terrific robbers named Coolies, and professional murderers called Thugs; but my limits forbid me—I cannot, however, close this chapter without adducing the testimony of the author before me, respecting the governments of the minor princes; and who, according to Mr. Rickards and Colonel Wilks, are accused of privately assassinating 400 priests (the only number they could collect together who would trust them), while passing from the audience-hall into a pretended refreshment chamber, because they opposed themselves to the *moderate* request of a tax upon 'opening a door!'—or of surrounding with large bodies of cavalry any community of their subjects who shewed the least resistance to oppression!

'The kingdom of Mysore, which arose out of the ruins of Vijayanuggur, exhibits also a like origin in military adventure and blood, and in a similar series of intriguing usurpations, murder, and conquest. Each petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laid his claim to districts; the country was torn to pieces with civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic confusion.'

Another set.—'The Polygars, like the northern zemindars,

were originally military adventurers, or leaders of banditti, or revenue or police officers, employed under former governments, and who, availing themselves of times of weakness or distress, or the absence of a controlling force, established themselves in their respective districts. Each Polygar, in proportion to the extent of his jurisdiction and power, had forts and military retainers, and exercised within his own limits all the powers of an Asiatic despot. In the history of the Pollams (the districts governed by the Polygars), anarchy, misrule, lawless power, insurrection, civil and external wars, ravages and famines, are the most prominent features. When the contribution demanded by a Polygar, the amount of which depended on his conscience, was resisted or not quietly submitted to, it was enforced by torture and the whip; the whole village was put in confinement; every occupation interdicted; the cattle pounded; the inhabitants taken captive into the Pollam lands, or *murdered*; in short, every species of outrage continued to be committed, until the object of the Polygar was accomplished.*

Another specimen.—‘ In the northern circars, when they came into the Company’s possession, not only the forms but even the *remembrance of civil authority seemed to be totally lost*; the zemindars had all forts and armed forces for their defence, the more powerful using their force as opportunities favoured to extend their possessions, and swallow up minor zemindaries.’

One more instance.—‘ The jaghire (now called Chingleput, a distance of 2,440 square miles in extent, and in the immediate vicinity of Madras), was twice invaded by Hyder Ali—once in 1768, and again in 1780. In the latter, more especially, fire and sword seemed to contend for pre-eminence in the work of havoc and destruction. At the close of the war in 1784, the country exhibited few signs of having been inhabited, save in the bones of murdered bodies, or the naked walls of villages and temples, the melancholy remains of an almost universal conflagration. To the miseries of a deso-

* This is just the state of Western Africa at present.

letting war, succeeded a famine; death and emigration nearly depopulated the country;

But why continue details at which the heart sickens?—why relate further instances of 100,000 men being put to death, in cold blood, in one day?—why depict streets of cities made impassable by heaps of slain?—why describe the pitiless slaughter of thousands of mothers, with their smiling infants at their breasts?—why picture the fury of respectable citizens, who, beholding the pollution and ravishment of their wives and daughters, their wealth seized by the hand of rapine, and they themselves insulted, beaten, and abused, with one consent shutting the gates of their cities, murdering their consorts and children, setting fire to their houses, and then rushing out like madmen against their enemies?—why, I ask, narrate any more of scenes such as these, which everywhere crimson the page of Indian history, prior to our conquest? A christian and a philanthropist would say, that any power, European or Asiatic, interfering to put a stop to such harrowing scenes would be entitled to the highest approbation which man could bestow. If the East India Company had never added one shilling to the wealth of England, one inch of dominion to her crown, or one leaf of laurel to its glory, the mere circumstance of establishing peace in a country such as India, which for countless ages had been a prey to every species of atrocity which degrade men far below the level of the brutes, and which, under a less genial clime, and fertile territory, would have converted the whole land into a howling wilderness,—they would most assuredly deserve to be ranked among the noblest benefactors of the human race. Let therefore those who condemn the British conquest of Hindostan, reflect whether Providence acted wisely in putting a stop to scenes which harrow up the soul on bare perusal, making England the means of introducing tranquillity, civilization, and christian precepts into a country whence incalculable blessings may flow, to cheer and gladden many hundred million of human beings scattered throughout the vast territories of the Eastern Hemisphere.

AREA, PARALLEL, MERIDIAN, AND PHYSICAL ASPECT OF EACH BRITISH POSSESSION ON THE CONTINENT OF ASIA.

Districts.	Area in square Miles.	Parallel.		Geography and Physical Aspect.
		Lat. N.	Long. E.	
Bengal Provinces.				
Calcutta	4,722	22 25	88 26	Level with the sea, rivers, salt lakes and dense jungles, soil sandy.
Roopty	2,308	22 14	88 37	Low, flat, well watered, rich alluvial soil, along Roopty river.
Nudda	3,106	22 25	89 24	Ditto, ditto, light soil, Jellinghy and Coastabazar Rivers, fertile.
Jessore	4,180	22 7	89 18	Ditto, salt marshy lands, rich soil, embouchure of the Ganges.
Bachergang	3,780	22 43	89 30	Very low, part of the Sunderbunds, alluvial soil, ditto.
Dacca	4,438	22 08	90 17	Connected with lakes, and intersected by the Ganges and Brahmaputra.
Tipperah	6,880	22 30	92 30	Wild hilly regions, fertile tracts on Megna with marshes, dense forests.
Chittagong	2,980	22 01	92 01	120 miles along the bay of Bengal, hilly, productive land, dense sum.
Sylhet	4,000	24 54	91 40	N. E. hilly, S. flat and inundated, W. conical hills, and fine valleys.
Mymensingh	6,628	24 25	90 20	Valley of Brahmaputra, low, flat, and innumerable streams.
Rajshahy	3,350	24 20	89 01	Intersected by the Ganges, and flat with extensive lakes.
Moorsheadabad	1,570	24 11	89 15	Intersected by the Jellinghy, flat and fertile, well irrigated.
Jungle Mohals	6,980	22 30	87 10	Wild, forest, hilly country, beautifully picturesque and dry.
Bishnupur	3,470	24 08	89 20	Hilly, mostly fertile, and level, with hot mineral springs.
Dinagpoor	4,520	23 57	88 43	Hilly, to S. waving ridges, numberless streamlets and lakes.
Rungpoor	7,454	23 43	89 23	Do. to E. forests, watered, Garrow mountains, 500 ft. clusters of lakes.
Barwan	3,900	23 15	87 47	Rising land, rich soil of a thirly nature, jungly, coal and iron.
Rangpur	22,600	24 20	84 20	Hilly, mountainous districts, two-thirds water, very rocky and mineral.
Bangpoor	7,270	23 18	88 50	Clusters of fertile hills and swelling valleys, hot springs, iron.
Bahar	4,236	23 10	88 20	Hilly and rugged to S. flat near the Ganges; dry, fertile, nitrous soil.
Patna	3,967	23 37	85 18	Ganges banks for 8 miles, river 4 miles wide, very picturesque.
Allahabad	4,650	23 30	82 30	Picturesque along the Ganges, hilly to the good, fertile, nitrous soil.
Farrookh	7,180	23 45	83 23	Marly to S. alluvial country, sinking towards the Ganges.
Tirhoot	7,728	27 10	86 01	Elevated, but not hilly, extensive tracts to the N. well watered.
Saran	3,780	24 01	84 50	Ditto irrigated, rich flats along Gunderuck, majestic forests.
Bahadurpoor	3,800	23 55	87 25	Hilly and plain, picturesque, intersected by Mahanuddy.
Midnapore	6,380	23 55	87 25	Cultivated plains, with good roads, and dense jungles.
Hidjlee	61,500	23 10	89 10	Embanked against the tides, and intersected by rivers.
Cuttack	9,000	20 20	86 01	Delta of rivers, elevated, then hilly, and neat mountainous.
Arracutan	11,500	20 20	86 01	Inhabited islands, swamps, sea coast, jungles, hills, mountains.
Assam, &c.	15,830	25 30	92 30	Valley of the Brahmaputra, 20 miles wide by 500 long.
Tavy		19 0	97 0	Dense forests and jungles, sea coast, low islands.
Ye	15,000	16 0	96 0	Numerous rivers, rice plains and forests, rocky coast.
Ultras Gangesitic. Orissa.				
Nasirpur				Margal Archipelago, interior hilly, little known.
Margul Isles				Chain of hills, bordering the river, forest, vegetable, and wide channels.
Bansore	860	20 30	87 01	The holy city situate on the Ganges, highly cultivated.
Ghansepoor	3,460	20 30	87 01	Gently undulating lovely groves, Ganges on the S. Goggra on the E.
Asinghar	3,540	20 30	87 01	Elevated flat, jungly, sandy but fertile, Goggra river.
Gorakhpore	6,350	19 45	87 10	Base of hills low, intersected by rivers, forests, vegetable, ma. to N.
Janspoor	1,380	20 20	84 50	Slightly undulating surface, well cultivated, N. & S. Goggra, E. Ganges.
Allahabad	2,460	20 27	83 50	Ganges and Jumaun Delta, 500 feet above Calcutta, flat sandy loam.
Barda	4,026	20 20	80 20	Elevated table land, high hills in parallel ranges, and five rivers.
Kalpee	1,280	20 15	82 30	Along Jumaun, flat, rising towards Panna, extensive, distant mines.
Fatehpore	1,780	20 58	80 45	Ganges and Jumaun valley, rising from either bank, picturesque.
Cawnpore	2,440	20 20	80 13	Segment of vast plain from bay of Bengal to the mountains, fertile, dry.
Kanwar	3,460	20 47	78 53	Flat, but intersected by rivers, sandy soil, Chumhal river.
Farrukhabad	3,730	27 30	77 37	The Deak is in general flat and directed of lofty trees, dry & clayey soil.
Shahjehanpoor	1,480	27 30	76 49	Flat and intersected by N. mountain streams, well cultivated.
Saidabad	1,008	27 30	76 0	Slightly cultivated, many water courses, extensive brick clay.
Allyghar	2,380	27 54	77 49	Low dark jungle, low level part of the Deek, many water courses.
Balwan	1,830	27 0	78 0	Highly cultivated, many water courses.
Bareilly	2,900	26 38	79 16	Generally level, watered by the Ganges, Koolia, &c. Kumam ma. N.
Ferozshah	2,100	26 48	79 42	Pleasantly situate on the Garrah, very fertile.
Moradabad	4,700	26 61	78 42	A varied moist soil, inundated along the Ganges Garwah ma. N.
Armoor	1,500	27 11	77 58	Table land, Chumhal and Jumaun, 60 feet high, light dry soil.
Dehli	9,400	27 41	77 5	Ditto, 500 ft. above the ocean, thirty miles soil, conical.
Sarahunpoor	1,420	27 67	77 23	Quite flat to base of hills at N. and E. which rise abruptly, fertile.
Kanama, &c.	7,300	26 0	79 0	Succession of high mountainous ridges, elevating to 7,000 feet.
Northern Dist. Goggra.				
Goggra	8,700	26 18	80 0	Deep ravines, fertile valleys, and dense forests Norwath delta.
Vilaspattan	4,400	17 48	84 24	Low sea-coast, large fertile plains, hilly to W.
Rajmundry	4,680	16 59	81 53	Mountainous lofty ridge, parallel with and frequently close to the sea.
Mansipattan	4,210	16 30	81 14	Bounded by the Godavary, extensive delta, high hills delta 800 sq. m.
Guntur	4,800	16 37	81 10	Mountainous, W. N. W. sea-coast, lakes and streams, good harbours.
Bellary	12,708	15 5	78 56	Ditto, ditto, hilly, sterile, by Kistna, to N. and S. extends to the S.
Cuddapah	12,732	14 28	79 54	Stupendous wall of mountains, rising abruptly from low lands, like a terrace, a vast level, and fertile plains.
Nellore	7,478	15 19	80 0	Picturesque even to the sea, groups of small hills, &c.
Arco	19,620	15 19	80 0	Varied surface, mountainous to the North, sterile, with verdure.
Chinglaput	3,480	15 40	80 0	Includes Madras, low, with large masses of granite in a sandy soil.
Bikram	7,488	11 27	79 18	To N. 5000 feet above the sea, 3 divisions of hills, the last table land.
Colimbatore	5,267	11 0	77 50	Undulating table land, 500 feet high; to the N. 6000 feet, Northgeries.
Tinchivilly	3,108	10 53	78 0	More elevated, waving valleys, and abrupt mountainous.
Tanjore	6,373	10 11	77 11	Delta of Cauvery one flat sheet of rice cultivation to the East.
Madura	7,436	9 11	78 20	Flat to S. & E. hilly and mountainous N. & W., forests, fertile valleys.
Tinnivally	6,480	9 10	78 0	Ridge of mountains W. open country to the sea, few hills, rivers.
Malabar	5,000	10 15	78 0	200 miles sea-coast, low hills, cap. by narrow valleys from W. Ghats.
Canara	7,477	12 18	75 0	Ditto, ditto, hilly, sterile, by Kistna, to N. and S. extends to the S.
Cochin, N. & S.	12,270	10 30	74 0	225 miles along sea, congeries of steep mountains 3 to 4000 ft. Ghats.
Dharwar	3,728	12 18	75 0	Elevated to the W. isolated mountains, flat summits.
Promah	10,000	12 18	74 2	Irregular and intersected by many rivers, fertile valleys.
Kandesh	10,000	12 18	74 2	Intersected by white low hills, to S. and mountainous to the East.
Burat	1,440	10 21	73 10	Hilly and jungly to the E. & S. flat to N. and along the coast fertile.
Beroach	3,261	5 12	73 0	Flat, well cultivated, and peopled along the Gulph.
Kaira	4,772	22 23	73 18	Intersected by the Karoo river, level, well watered, good soil.
Amhedshad	4,772	22 30	72 0	Unequal hills, jungles, and reddish rocks, rude coast.
Kattywar	1,728	22 30	72 0	

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL ASPECT—GEOLOGY—CLIMATE—NATURAL PRODUCTIONS, EMBRACING THE ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL KINGDOMS, OF THE BENGAL, MADRAS AND BOMBAY TERRITORIES.

No language would do justice to the varied and magnificent scenery of Hindostan, partaking as it does of the richly luxuriant and wildly beautiful; *here* interminable plains, intersected with deep and mighty rivers; *there* inaccessible mountains, whose unmeasurable summits are wreathed in eternal snow;—on the one hand an almost boundless landscape, verdant with the softness of perpetual spring—on the other alpine *steppes*, ruggedly romantic, and fringed with vast and towering forests: mountainous ranges or ghauts on *this shore*, presenting a stupendous barrier to the Indian ocean,—while on *that*, a low and sandy alluvium seems to invite the further encroachments of the deep and stormy Bengal Bay. Indeed the features of British India are so varied that, although despairing to convey an exact idea of their peculiarities, I must distinguish the country by provinces, as offering the most simple mode of delineating this immense section of the British empire, whose sea-coast line (extending from Cape Negrais to the frontiers of Sinde) is 3,622 English miles, with a territorial breadth (from Surat to Sinde) of 1,260 miles: premising, however, that the leading geographical features are the Himalaya Mountains, along the northern and eastern frontier; a range of ghauts, rising at the southern point of the peninsula, running N. along the coast until receding at the parallels of 20. to 22., when they branch off in ridges of different elevations across the continent of India, until lost in the table land of Malwa and Allahabad; while on the eastward the mighty *Ganges*, and on the westward the nearly equal *Indus*, roll their impetuous and lengthened torrents from the Himalaya snows to the sultry coasts of Bengal and Cutch,

giving off in their progress an infinity of tributaries, which are ramified in every possible direction over the whole peninsula.

PHYSICAL ASPECT OF THE BENGAL PRESIDENCY.—Although it might be naturally supposed that in a territory extending over so great an extent of surface as that of the province of Bengal, a diversity of physical aspect would exist, there is with few exceptions a remarkable monotony of scenery. The province of Bengal proper, containing 100,000 square miles, has scarcely a hill of any elevation, and the few eminences which are to be found are confined to a small area on the eastern boundary.

No country in the world is better irrigated than this flat alluvial province, which has long been considered the granary of India; the Ganges, Brahmaputra, Hooghly, Teesta, Roopnarain, Dummodah, Kooram, Korotoya, Cosi, Manas, Conki and Jhinaya, with their innumerable tributaries everywhere intersect Bengal, and owing to the lowness of the river banks, and those banks being composed of a sandy, *clayey soil*, large streams are frequently changing their beds, and causing stagnant marshes of considerable extent, by which the boundaries of property are annihilated, and the erection of stable edifices materially impeded.

The province of Bahar, containing 54,714 square miles, situate between 22. and 27. N. lat. is, with the exception of the northern division (which is an uninterrupted flat), a beautiful hill and dale country; the former extending in ranges, and in some places, as at the Rajmahal hills in the neighbourhood of Boglipoor, assuming the features of a celtic region. The soil is fertile, unless where saltpetre is in excess, but the province, it may be supposed, is not so well watered as Bengal, it is only, however, in tracts S. of the Ganges, where artificial irrigation is much required. The principal rivers are the Ganges, Sone, Gunduck, Dummodah, Caramassa, and Dewah.

The province of Allahabad (including the rich district of Benares) is, in the neighbourhood of the great rivers Ganges

and Jumna, flat, well watered, and exuberantly fertile; but to the N.W. the country becomes more elevated, and in the Bundelcund district assumes the form of table land diversified with hills. The principal rivers are the two before-mentioned and the Goomty* and Caramnassa, with their numberless branches.

Bundelcund presents, in its physical features, a remarkable configuration; the mountains run in continuous ranges parallel to each other, each successively supporting a table land one above the other. *Bindhyáchal*, the first of these ranges, commence at *Kesóghar*, five miles N. of *Sēunda* on the *Sindhe* River, making a circuitous sweep by *Narawá*, *Chandri*, *Hirapur*, *Rajghar*, *Ajeyghar*, and *Calanjara*; they cease near *Barghar* to belong to *Bundelcund*, and continue their course by *Bindhyavasini* and *Tará*, until they approach the *Ganges* at *Surajghara*, and again at *Rajmahl*. Nothing, says *Capt. Franklin*, can be more striking as a topographical feature than the plains of *Bundelcund*, which resemble a vast bay of the ocean formed by these natural barriers, crowned with the fortresses above-mentioned; and what is somewhat remarkable, the progressive elevation of the soil from the bed of the *Jumna* is towards the apex of this bay: hence the diminished altitude of the range at that point, being scarcely 300 feet above the surface, whilst at *Calyanghar* the same

* A canal 75 miles long, is now being executed between the *Goomty* and *Ganges*. The territory under the sway of the *King of Oude* is here situate, amounting to 21,000 square miles, with a population of 6,000,000, spread over one of the most fertile parts of *India*, but immersed in poverty and wretchedness. The capital is termed *Lucknow*, built on the *Goomty*, (a branch of the *Ganges*) in lat. 26.51., N. long. 80.50. E., and with its numerous gilded cupolas, minarets, turrets, arches, temples, and pinnacles, presenting an extraordinary picture of oriental magnificence. Its population is nearly half a million, whose mean and filthy tenements present a melancholy contrast to the splendid palaces and temples of their rulers and priests. *Constantia*, the residence of the late *General Claude Martin*, by whom it was built, at a cost of £150,000, stands in the neighbourhood. *Lucknow* contains a mixture of enterprising adventurers from various parts of *Europe*, who expect and generally obtain employment from the king; it is distant 650 miles, by the nearest road, from *Calcutta*.

range is 800 feet. The most elevated summit does not exceed 2,000 feet above the ocean level. The picturesque, numerous, and isolated hills which appear to stand alone and unconnected with other mountains, are portions of ranges which alternately appear and disappear, sometimes in the form of isolations and sometimes in continuous ranges; but they all radiate from the apex of the bay as if from a common centre, and diverge from it like the sticks of a fan. *Panna*, the second parallel range, preserves a distance of 10 miles from summit to summit. The *Baudair*, or third parallel range, is the most elevated portion of the province, and its contour describes in miniature the greater curves of the lower ranges, as if it were the nucleus on which they were formed. The range resembles an acute spherical triangle, the apex of which is near *Nagaund*, the area being table land, and the sides of the triangle having their abrupt faces outwards. This range gives rise to the *Ken* and *Patni* rivers. The *Kaimur*, or *Vindhya* mountains do not properly belong to Bundlecund, but they run parallel to the foregoing ranges, and form part of the tropical zone of mountains which run across India, a tract which comprises several ranges nearly parallel. The vast province of Allahabad, as also those of Agra and Delhi are divided into collectorates, the territories under which have an area of 66,510 square miles.

Agra province, situate between 25. and 28. N. lat., extending in length 250 miles, and in breadth 180 miles, is to the N.E. flat, open, and rather bare of trees, but hilly and jungly to the S, and rather more so on approaching the western frontier, with hills of various elevations in the N.W. The soil, dry and sandy, is but imperfectly watered by nature, deep wells and canals affording the chief supply of the indispensable element of cultivation. The principal rivers (which become smaller as they approach their source) are the Ganges, Jumna, Chumbul, Sinda, and Kohary.

Agra, built on the S.W. of the Jumna, lat. 27.11. N., long. 77.53. E., is a large and strongly constructed fort, of a red kind of very hard sandstone, quarried at Futtehpoor (19 miles

distant): the fosse is of great depth with double ramparts, the inner one being 60 feet above the level of the river: well constructed bastions are placed at regular intervals, and the fortress is one of the keys of Western India, particularly from its commanding the navigation of the Jumna, which in the month of June is half a mile broad, and never fordable at any time at this spot. The moslem buildings in the fort are numerous and splendid, in particular the Tauje Mehal, built of marble resembling Carara, the Mootee Musjeed, or pearl mosque, built of small white marble, of singular purity of design: the great Chowk contiguous to the principal gate of the fort, the tomb of Etimaund ud Dowlah, &c., all attest the splendour with which the Mahomedans sought to captivate the weak minds of their Hindoo serfs, well knowing that owing to the infirmity of our nature, regal pomp, and magnificence, often reconciles a feeble race to the despotism of foreign conquerors. The Moslems in Spain, as well as in India, expended the taxes of their subjects in erecting splendid structures, which, after the lapse of centuries, remain as monuments of the daring genius of the conquerors, and of the slavish submission of the conquered.

The census of the city of Agra has been lately estimated as follows: houses, 29,788, viz. Pukha, 25,536, and Kutchra, 4,952; inhabitants, 96,597, viz. Hindoos, 65,011 (males, 35,085, females, 29,983), Moosoolmans, 31,579 (males, 16,059, females, 15,520).*

Delhi, 800 feet above the ocean level (embracing the N. part of the inclined slope which forms the plains of Hindostan, extending from the Himalaya to the Bay of Bengal), between 28. and 31. N. lat., is more hilly and sandy than Agra; it is level in the centre, clear and cultivated in the S.W., hilly in the N.W., and covered with dense jungles and forests; the chief rivers are the Ganges, Jumna, Caggur, and Chitting; but the thirsty soil soon imbibes the greater part of their contents in the dry season; Bareilly excepted, which is level and well watered.

* A similar census ought to be prepared for every town in India.

Delhi, the ancient capital of the Patan and Mogul empires, lat. 28.41. N., long. 77.5. E., according to popular tradition, covered a space of 20 square miles, and the ruins at present occupy nearly as great an extent. The new city of Delhi was founded by the Emperor Shah Jehanabad, in 1631; on the W. bank of the Jumna, it is about seven miles in circumference; the walls are faced, along their whole extent, with substantial masonry constructed of huge blocks of sparkling granite; martello towers stand at intervals, flanking the defences, and the city has seven gates all built of freestone. The principal street, leading from the palace to the city gate, is 1100 yards long and 30 broad; the second, leading from the palace to the Lahore gate, is a mile long by 40 yards broad. Until 1011 A.D. Delhi was governed by Hindoo Rajahs, but in that year Mahmoud the Ghaznivede, captured and plundered it, but subsequently restored it to the Hindoo Rajah, making him a tributary prince. In 1193, Cuttub ud Deen, the slave of Mahomed Ghauri, took final possession of the city from the Hindoos, and commenced the series of Afghan or Patan sovereigns, which reigned until the invasion of Baber, the grandson of Timour. It was pillaged by Timour in 1398, and in 1516, Sultan Baber finally overthrew the Patan, and founded the Mogul dynasty; the descendant of whom, after 14 sovereigns intermediate, now resides in Delhi as a nominal prince, without a shadow of power, but enjoying a yearly income of nearly 150,000*l*. Delhi is distant from Calcutta, by the Birboom road, 976 miles.

The British provinces in Berar are wild, rugged and hilly, with steep water-courses, dense jungles and impassable ravines; their area is 55,900 square miles, and they are but little explored. Hussingabad, the key to the British possessions in this quarter, is situate S. of the Nerbudda river, lat. 22.40. N. long., 77.51. E. 135 miles N.W. of Nagpoor. The romantic valley of the Nerbudda, formed by the Vindhya range of hills on one side, and the Gundwana on the other, extends in length from Gurry Mundelah to Hindia through a space of nearly 300 miles; the distance from one mountain chain to the other being on an average from 15 to 20 miles,

and the river holding its course through the valley more to the N. or Malwa side. The aspect of the valley (with the exception of the middle part) is rude and uncultivated in the extreme; forests of deep jungle extending on both sides, and rising to the summits of the adjoining hills. The soil consists of a dark, coarse earth, denominated regur or cotton soil, the product of decomposed trap and amygdaloids, which must have existed in great abundance in these districts. The source of the Nerbudda river (which performs a known journey of 700 miles) is not yet explored. The natives say it rises in Omerkuntuck in Gundwana, 2,463 feet above the sea, close to the source of the Sone; it has fewer curvations than most India rivers, but its passage is obstructed by rocks and shallows and beautiful cataracts.*

The Malwah territory belonging to Britain occupies upwards of 8,000 square miles, and is situated on an elevated plateau, averaging 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, diversified by conical, but table-crowned hills and low ridges, watered with numerous streams, which flow over a deep, rich black soil of unsurpassed productiveness.

KUMAON PROVINCE.—Mr. Trail, the commissioner for the affairs of Kumaon, says, that Kumaon, with the annexed territory of Gerhwal, forms an almost equilateral parallelogram facing N.E. and S.W. On the N. where separated from Tartary by the Himalaya, the frontier extends from long. 79.51. lat. 31.4. to long. 80.45. lat. 30.10., giving a line of about 100 miles; the E. boundary, which is formed by the river *Kali* or *Sarde*, gives a line of 110 miles, extending from lat. 30.10. long. 80.45. to lat. 26.2. long. 80. On the W. the province is divided from the Raj of Gherwal by the rivers *Kali* and *Alakananda*, with a line of frontier of about 110 miles, stretching from lat. 31.4., long. 78.10., and on the S. the province joins on Rohilcund the line of demarcation being nearly parallel and equal to that on the N. Within the

* At Hussingabad the bed of the Nerbudda is much broken, and about 900 yards broad; but there are 13 fords within 14 miles of the town.

boundaries above detailed the horizontal superficies of the province is about 10,967 square miles, of which there are

Snow $\frac{1}{3}$ —2,924 square miles. Cultivated $\frac{1}{3}$ —2,193 square miles.
Barren $\frac{1}{3}$ —3,655 square miles. Uncultivated $\frac{1}{3}$ —2,193 square miles.

The whole province is numerous ranges of mountains, the general run of which are in a parallel direction to the N. and S. line of position. The peaks and ridges necessarily vary in height; commencing from the plains of Rohilcund (500 feet above the level of the sea), the first mountain range gives an elevation of 4,300 feet, while, the second range, the *Ghagar*, attains 7,700 feet. The intervals between the mountains are extremely small, and the whole country, when viewed from a commanding position, exhibits the appearance of a wide expanse of unconnected ravines rather than a succession of regular chains of mountains. The valleys (if the narrow interstices between the mountains merit such an appellation) are lowest on the banks of the largest rivers, and it is in the same situations that the greatest portion of level land is generally to be met with. These spots, however, in no instance, exceed, and in a few cases equal, half a mile in breadth. The site of the town of *Shrinagar*, lat. 30.14. N., long. 78.37. E., on the banks of the *Alakananda* is of this description, and is only 1,500 feet above the level of the sea. The *tarai* or forest land of saul, sissoo, and bamboos, included in the province, is very unequal in extent. Under the Gherwal pergunnas it averages only from two or three miles from the foot of the hills, while in Kumaon Proper it is no where less than twelve or fifteen miles broad. From Kotedwara, long. 78.20. to near Bhamouri, long. 79.20., the *tarai* is divided from Rohilcund by a low range of hills, which contain numerous passes, some practicable for wheel carriages; the remainder is wholly open to the plains. Where there is sufficient soil the sides of the mountains are cut in terraces (supported in front by slight stone abutments, as in Ceylon and in Italy) rising above each other in regular succession. There are several lakes, but of no great extent; the depth, however, is considerable (some in the higher Himalaya are stated to be

unfathomable) and the base of every mountain has a stream of more or less magnitude flowing silently or rapidly according to the elevation of the country. The country about Almorah (lat. 29.24. N. long. 79.39. E., built on a ridge of mountains 5,400 feet above the level of the sea) is extremely bleak and naked. Mr. Trail has furnished a very interesting paper in the seventh volume of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, on the '*Bhotia Mehale* (districts) of Kumaon, *Bhot* signifying that part of the Himalaya range which once formed about a third part of the Tibet province of Bhot, fifteen parts of which consist of snow or barren rocks: the minimum elevation in the passes of the Himalaya is here 6,000 feet above the sea:—these tracks or paths are along branches of the Ganges and Goggra, and roads of communication through the Himalaya unite the passes from E. to W.; but they are buried in snow, except for a few days in the year. The interior of the Himalaya mountains (of which a full account will be found in a subsequent page), except at these passes and paths, is almost inaccessible, and they are becoming daily more and more so. The Bhotias now point out ridges never free from snow, which, within the memory of man, were clothed with forests, and afforded periodical pastures for sheep.

The kingdom of Nepal is one of the most interesting divisions of Hindostan. To the N. it is separated from Tibet by the Himalaya mountains; on the S. bounded by the British territories in the provinces of Delhi, Oude, Bahar, and Bengal (with the exception of about 60 miles intervening, which belong to Oude); to the E. the Nepaulese territories are separated from those of the British by the river Mitchie; from thence to the Himalaya mountains they are bounded by the principality of Sikhim, which stretches N. to the Chinese frontier; to the W. the limits are accurately defined by the course of the river Cali (the western branch of the Goggra), beyond which is the British district of Kumaon. The lowest part of the ancient Nepal kingdom, stretched into the great plain of Hindostan; the great valley of Nepal whose northern-

most boundary lies about 27.50 N. lat., is 22 miles from E. to W. and 20 miles from N. to S. Let us now turn to view the SEA COAST OF THE BENGAL PRESIDENCY, and the territories to the E. and Southward. The sea coast of Bengal province is, for many miles, scarcely elevated above the level of the sea, and where the sacred Ganges and mighty Burrampooter, with their hundred mouths, rush to join the parent fountain, a vast extent of country (30,000 square miles) called the *Sunderbunds*, extending for 180 miles along the bay of Bengal, is an interminable labyrinth of salt water lakes, rivers, and creeks, interspersed with mangrove islets of shifting mounds of sand and mud.

CALCUTTA, on the banks of the Hooghly, lat. 22.23, long. 88.28, distant from the sea 100 miles, and from the *Sandheads* about 130 miles, has a very intricate navigation through the banks of the sand and mud which occasionally shift their beds in the Hooghly river as well as in the other branches of the Ganges.* It is, however, very favourably situate for internal navigation, as the Ganges and its subsidiary streams permit the transport of foreign produce to the N. W. quarters of Hindostan over a distance of upwards of 1000 miles, and the day may not be far distant when the Indus and the Ganges navigation will be united by a canal. Diamond harbour, about 30 miles below Calcutta on the E. bank of the Hooghly, has a draught of water sufficient for the largest Indiamen, but ships of 600 tons anchor quite close to the

* In 1829, the author, when sailing on the Hooghly off Chandernagore, tried the depth of water at various periods, and did not find sufficient to float a four hundred ton ship. The whole channel of the Hooghly is shoaling fast, and the other embouchures of the Ganges are deepening. There is a native prophecy, that the Ganges (or Hooghly, which is merely a name for a branch of that mighty river) will flow over the spot where Calcutta with its million and a half of inhabitants now dwell; and certainly, to stand at Chandpaul Ghaut, and watch the rising of the river in the rains almost to a level with the houses on the 'Strand,' one would think the prophecy on the eve of fulfilment. If the waters ever pass the strand road banks, the whole city is lost, for they would overwhelm it in joining the salt water lake at the opposite extremity of the metropolis.

grand promenade (entitled the *Strand road* and *Esplanade*) of the 'City of Palaces.'

This metropolis and commercial emporium of the East (now containing *upwards of a million* of inhabitants), was so late as 1717 a small straggling village, with a few clusters of huts, to the number of 10 or 12, the inhabitants of which were husbandmen, endeavouring to reclaim the surrounding forests and swamps, which extended even to where Chandpaul Ghaut now stands. The city is divided into streets at right angles with each other, with large and handsome squares throughout, particularly in the European part of the metropolis, each square having in its centre an extensive tank or reservoir of the Ganges water, with verdant sloping banks planted with evergreen shrubs. The residence of the Governor General is of equal magnitude to any palace in Europe. The architecture is of the Ionic order, with arcades all round on a rustic basement. The palace has four wings connected by circular passages, in order to secure a free admission of air from whatever quarter the wind may blow. The grand entrance is to the north, where there is an immense arch of steps, beneath which carriages drive up to set down; on the south side is a circular colonade with a splendid dome. In the centre of the building are two magnificent state rooms, the lower paved with dark grey marble, supported by numerous Doric columns, resembling Parian marble; the upper or ball-room is floored with exquisitely polished dark grained woods, supported by beautiful Ionic pillars. The Vice-regal canopy and chairs of state are of light and beautiful construction. The apartments are lit by a profusion of cut glass lustres suspended from a painted ceiling with gold mouldings. The entrance gates are of a grand and imposing appearance, and the square around the palace is tastefully laid out, particularly since Lady William Bentinck's arrival in Bengal. Several of the other public buildings, such as the Mint, are on a noble scale, and the private mansions are built in the fascinating style of Grecian architecture.

The stupendous fortification of Fort William was commenced

by Lord Clive after the battle of Plassy, and has cost the E. I. Company £2,000,000. sterling. Situated on the margin of the river Hooghly (about one-fourth of a mile below Calcutta), and on a level with the surrounding country, which is a perfect flat for many miles, it does not make an imposing appearance, indeed its strength is scarcely perceptible; nevertheless it is superior in strength and regularity to any fortress in India, and requires from 10,000 to 15,000 men to man the works. The form is octagon, five sides being regular and three next the river according to circumstances. The river flows up to the glacis, the citadel towards which has a large salient angle, the faces of which enfilade the whole sweep of the water: indeed the guns of the faces bear upon the city until crossed by the fire of the batteries parallel to the river. This salient angle is defended by several adjoining bastions and a counterscarp that covers them. The bastions on the five regular land sides have all many salient orillons, behind which are retired circular flanks extremely spacious, and an immense double flank at the height of the berme; the double flank would enable the besieged to retard the passage of the ditch, as from its form it cannot be enfiladed; the orillon is effective against ricochet shot, and is not to be seen from any parallel: the berme opposite the curtain serves as a road, and contributes to the defence of the ditch like a *fausse-brave*. The ditch is very wide and dry, with a cunette in the middle which receives the water of the ditch by means of two sluices that are commanded by the fort. The counterscarp and covered way are excellent; every curtain is covered by a large half moon without flanks, bonnet, or redoubt, but the faces each mount thirteen pieces of heavy ordnance, thus giving a defence of 26 guns to these ravelins. The demi-bastions which terminate the five regular fronts on each side are covered by a counterguard, of which the faces, like the half moons, are pierced with 13 embrasures. These counterguards are connected with two redoubts constructed in the place of arms of the adjacent re-entering angles, the whole faced, and palisaded with great attention to neatness as well as strength.

The advanced works are executed on an extensive scale, and the angles of the half moons being extremely acute, project a great way so as to be in view of each other beyond the flanked angle of the polygon, and capable of taking the trenches in the rear at an early period of the approach. The interior of this admirable fortress is truly beautiful,—large grass plots surrounded by rows of shady trees, beneath which are well gravelled promenades,—with here and there piles of balls, bombshells, and parks of artillery. The barracks are spacious, and will contain 20,000 men. The wells are numerous, and there is an immense reservoir for rain water. The church is of an elegant Saxon style of architecture with enamelled glass, and the residences of the commandants of corps, and the principal staff officers, on an extensive scale. For a quarter of a mile round the fort no tree or house is permitted, and the ships pass so close to the fort that they may be hailed from the glacis.

Cuttack sea coast is similar to the contiguous Delta of Bengal (which closely resembles the Mississippi Delta) except that the flat shore does not extend more than from five to fifteen miles inland from the Black Pagoda to Piply on the *Subanrekha*, while that of the Sunderbunds extends nearly 200 miles. The town of Cuttack (lat. 20.27. N. long. 88.5. E.,) 251 miles travelling distance from Calcutta, containing 6,512 houses, and a population of 40,000 souls, is advantageously situated, politically and commercially speaking, on a tongue of land or peninsula near the bifurcation of the Mahanuddy river (which is here two miles across) with a pleasing and picturesque prospect from the environs of the hilly country of *Rajwarra*. The town is defended from the encroachments of the river by stone revetments which front two of its sides. Within from two to five leagues of the sea coast of Cuttack the land rises into swelling undulations, extending over a space of from 15. to 50 miles, gradually becoming more elevated, when the surface assumes a hilly shape with a dry and fertile soil and magnificent forests of every description of timber. This hilly region which is termed the Mogulbundy,

has a soil of a whitish appearance, and often for miles the surface is strewed with a thin sprinkling of lime-stone concretions. This description of country extends from N. of the Mahanuddy to Midnapore. The Mogulbundy is finely cultivated, and has a most picturesque aspect. At Balasore, (where the Dutch had a settlement in 1660) lat. 21.32., long. 86.56. E. a group of fine hills of this district project forth to within 15 miles of the shore of the Bay of Bengal. The principal rivers are the Mahanuddy, (which during the rains may be navigated 300 miles from the sea) Brahmini, Biturini, Solandy, Kausbans, Burabalang, Subanrekha, &c.

The Chilka lake, 35 miles long by 18 wide, is separated from the sea for many miles by a narrow strip of land, or rather sand, sometimes not more than 300 yards broad. The native historians say it was formed by an irruption of the ocean at a period corresponding with the third century of the christian era; it is scarcely more than five feet deep, and is filling up from the sand and mud brought into it by various streams. Cuttack however is but little known; the hilly region is said, by Mr. Hamilton, to reach as far W. as Gundwana in Berar, in breadth probably 100 miles, in length 200 miles: the greatest height of the hills seen from the Mogulbundy, or central district, is supposed to be 2000 feet, their general elevation from 300 to 1200, chiefly of granite formation resembling sand-stone, and containing a variety of valuable minerals (rich iron ore is abundant) and curious precious stones. The rivers in the lowlands are embanked with immense bunds or mounds of earth, some 60 feet in breadth, and nearly 20 feet high, the necessity of which will be understood when it is known that in *one* night the Cajori river, of one mile and a half broad and 30 or 40 feet deep, rose in height *eighteen feet!* In the cultivated country the banks of the rivers are extremely picturesque. Mr. Stirling observes that the granite rocks of Cuttack are highly indurated and denuded of vegetation, presenting a bold and varied outline with frequent and sharp peaks and abrupt craggy faces; they are in many parts curiously intersected by trap veins, which seem

to consist chiefly of green stone, approaching often to basalt and hornblende rock. In company with these rocks *talc* slate, *mica* slate, and chlorite schist passing into serpentine and pot stone are found in abundance. A variety of corundum and steatite in the shape of a remarkably pure white powder are plentiful. The British district comprises an area of 9000 square miles.

The maritime province of Arracan, situate between the 18° and 21° of N. latitude, presents for a short distance from the sea an aspect similar to that of Bengal and Cuttack, but the ocean barrier being of a firm argillaceous nature with a limestone formation exhibits, instead of an interminable marsh, a series of islands, peninsulas, and isthmuses, which are peopled and cultivated. About 30 miles inland, conical hills arise to the height of 500 feet, intersected by jeels (small lakes) or rivers, and about 20 miles further to the E. a range of mountains from 2,000 to 5,000 feet high, run N. and S. nearly parallel with the sea shore. The town of Arracan (lat. 20.35 N. long. 93.32 E.) distant, in a direct line from the sea, about 50 miles, has a navigable river running close up to it, and then dividing into several smaller branches which flow through the town in every direction. The average rise of tide is about eight feet, spring tides of course rise higher. Arracan bears N.E. from the mouth of the river, and from the town are visible three distinct and parallel ranges of hills; the former being situate with respect to the general line of the first range nearly as the apex of a triangle to its base, but from the number of insulated hills and slight curvatures in the range, it appears nearly embayed in a recess of the hills. The height of the highest hill in the first range is 550 feet, and of the second and third ranges from 2,000 to 4,000 feet. The hills, generally speaking, are abrupt, and many of them insulated, About a quarter of a mile from the N.W. angle of the fort, is a large lake, extending several miles among the hills, the structure of which latter is principally schistus, no granite having as yet been observed; the soil is luxuriantly rich, and

beyond the hilly range is a magnificent champaign country, with navigable streams and particularly healthy.

The principal rivers of Arracan are the Mayoo, Kaladyne, Arracan, Monjee, and Lemonkrong: the Mayoo is the most northerly, and running in a S.W. direction along the base of an extensive range of hills, empties itself into the bay a little to the N. of the Arracan river. The largest river in the S. division of the province is the Lemonkrong or Lembroo, which after a winding course to the N.W. flows into the bay of Bengal, among the numerous detached rocks which extend along the coast between Ramree and those high insulated hills to the N. of the Arracan river called the Broken Islands. All the rivers to the S. and many to the N. are intimately connected with each other. The islands of Ramree and Cheduba (dependencies of Arracan) lie within the 19° N. latitude. Ramree is mountainous and jungly, and separated from the mainland only by a creek; Cheduba is larger, more completely insulated, rather a low island, but dry and sandy; pretty free from jungle and healthy. The little island of Aykab, at the mouth of the Arracan river is similar to Cheduba on a small scale.

The Assam territory, between 26° and 28° lat., and 90° and 96° long. is formed of the valley of the Brahmaputra, which is about 40 miles wide, by 150 long, bounded to the northward by the mountainous ranges of Bootan,* Anka, Dophla, and Meree, and to the southward by the Garrow Hills. Lower Assam, comprehending 4,100 square miles, is bounded on the N. by the Bootan Mountains, on the S. by the Garrow and Kossya Hills, on the W. by Monass river, and on the E. by Bissanath; it is a rich and valuable country, about 60 rivers flow through it, which have in general a sufficient depth at all seasons to admit of commercial intercourse. The soil is fertile and well watered; the rivers being numbered to the extent of 26, the principle of which are the Brahmaputra,

* At the foot of these mountains there is a plain of 30 miles broad clothed with the most luxuriant vegetation, like the *taria*.

Dihong, Dibong, Dikho and Dikrong. The Brahmaputra river is stated by some European authorities to have been traced to 25.54 N. lat., and long. 25.24 E., when its navigation was impeded by a mass of rocks; its channel was then 150 yards across; the natives described it as running easterly, and stated its sources to be the snowy mountains, from whence the Irrawaddy proceeds.

The country of Cachar is as yet little known. Southern Cachar, which is the most valuable part of it, contains about 2,500 square miles of level land, generally from 200 to 300 feet above the sea, intersected by detached hills and low wooded ranges, and bounded on three sides by mountains, some of which have an altitude of 5,000 or 6,000 feet. The soil is eminently fertile, and has been found by experiment to be perfectly well adapted to the production of wheat, barley, gram, potatoes, tobacco, and sugar cane, as well as that of rice, kulaie, sursoo, &c. which latter alone are commonly raised. The population of Cachar is small, and out of all proportion to its extent, but it is very various, consisting of Cacharees, Bengalees, Munnipoorees, Assamese, Nagas and Kookies.

Cachar enjoys an uninterrupted water communication with Calcutta, besides which it will soon have the advantage of a high road, which is now in progress and more than half finished, by order of Government, throughout the country, from Banskandee to the town of Sylhet, from which place it is to be hoped it will ultimately be prolonged either to Dacca or Commillah, and thus complete an interior line of communication along the whole frontier northwards from Arracan, which cannot fail to be of immense value in a commercial point of view, enabling also the Government at any time easily to occupy in force the important pass which Cachar forms from Burmah, and which renders it in fact the gate of our possessions in the eastern part of Bengal.

The Ultra Gangetic provinces of Tavoy, Ye, and Tenasserim, ceded to the British after the Burmese war, form a strip of land on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, ex-

tending from lat. 10.35 N. to 15.30 N., 340 miles long, by an average breadth of 44 miles, and embracing a surface of 15,000 square miles. The shore is full of creeks, rivers, and rocky islets, but it is not of the swampy nature of Bengal or Cuttack. The country is diversified with hill and dale, rising towards the Siamese Mountains on the eastward, with ranges of hills, clothed with forests of teak shelving towards the sea, the vallies of which form conduits for the mountain streams.

The province of Martaban on the same line of coast as the preceding districts, extends from 15.30 to 16.30 N. comprehending a surface of about 6,000 square miles, and its physical aspect bears a general resemblance to the contiguous provinces of Tavoy, &c. Three large rivers, the Saluen, Gain, and Athran, rising in the eastern mountains of Siam, and navigable for small craft to a considerable distance from the ocean, join their embouchures in forming an expanse of water seven miles broad, opposite to Martaban, the chief town, which stands on the N. or Burmese side of the river Saluen.

PHYSICAL ASPECT OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.—The territories under the government of this Presidency present no vast alluvial plains like the deltas of the Ganges, Jumna, and Burrampooter, nor is the sea coast of that marshy nature which characterises Bengal, Arracan, or Cuttack. The province of the Northern Circars on the W. side of the bay of Bengal extends from 15. to 20. N. lat., comprising an area of 18,800 square miles. The coast, as viewed from sea-ward, appears mountainous to the beach; it has, however, a strip of sandy waste along its whole extent, stretching interiorly about three miles; when the land rises into detached hills, which separate the province from the Hyderabad territories. From Coringa to Nellore the shore is flat and sandy, as indeed it is throughout the lower Carnatic, extending 560 miles along the Bay of Bengal, as far as Cape Comorin, but from this point up the Malabar coast, the aspect is totally different.

The southern part of the Asiatic peninsula is, within a few feet, as high as the extremity of the African peninsula at the Cape of Good Hope. At Cape Comorin the promontory be-

gins to lessen in height a few miles from the sea, and as it approaches the ocean, runs out into a low green headland, something like Green Point at Table Bay. From Cape Comorin, through Dindigul and Tinnivelly, the scenery combines the magnificent and the beautiful: the mountains assume every varied form, and are clothed with stupendous forests, while the smaller hills, which skirt the plain, are here and there graced with temples and choultries, exhibiting exquisite specimens of architecture: winding streams flow from every hill, and the soft and lovely vallies are in striking contrast to the dark and mighty forests which overcap them.

The little State of Travancore,* extending from the Cape 140 miles to the northward, by 40 miles inland, presents along the sea shore vallies clothed with perennial verdure; then a lovely and picturesque scene of hills and dales, the latter richly cultivated, while further inland are seen the gigantic western ghauts, crowned to their very summits with immense forests of teak, bamboo, &c., the *tout ensemble* forming the most splendid picture of tropical scenery to be witnessed in any part of the globe. The British province of Malabar, extending 120 miles along the sea coast, embracing an area of 4,900 square miles, has in general a similiarity of feature to the Travancore coast, but in some parts a sandy plain, of three miles wide, runs along shore, with numerous inlets of the sea, or low downs covered with cocoa-nut trees, and the sea coast hills are separated from the western Cordillera

* Pondicherry, French factory, distant from Madras 100 miles, from Seringapatam 260, from Hydrabad 452, from Poona 707, from Nagpoor 773, from Calcutta 1,130, and from Delhi 1,400 miles, is now an insignificant settlement, on a sandy plain, not far from the sea shore, producing only palm trees, millet, and a few herbs. As a commercial town, it has no natural advantages, and cannot be considered as any benefit to France. So long as we sought or seek to maintain supremacy in India, it should not have been restored to the French; and it is wise for the French now to negotiate for the final cession of Pondicherry and Chandernagore to the British government. In the event of hostilities between the two nations, the latter would immediately seize on the former; it would be better, therefore, for the French to make some compromise in time.

by narrow, steep-sided, but fertile vallies. In the adjoining British province of Canara, extending 230 miles along the sea coast, and comprehending within its territory 7,477 square miles; the ghauts in many places run close to the sea shore, or hills, with naked rocky tops, are laved by the waters of the Indian ocean.

The eastern and western ghauts connected by the *Nelgherries*, a range of mountains, extending from W. to E. 34 miles, and from N. to S. 15 miles, elevate a vast extent of table land, from 2,000 to 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, partaking in its general features the aspect of the table land of Spain on which Madrid is situated, or perhaps bearing a more decided resemblance to the extremity of the South American continent, the Andes and the Ghauts of India offering a striking similar conformation, if the greater height of the former be excepted.

The *Nilghiri*, or Blue Mountains, are of various elevations, and almost insulated from the East and West Ghauts. Jackanairi is 5,659 feet; Jackatally, 5,976; Dimhutti, 6,041; Ootacamund, 6,416; and Moorchoorti Bet, 8,800 feet above the ocean level. These hills, or mountains rather, are remarkable for being free from jungle, and in general in a high state of cultivation. The rivers Myar and Bhavani rise among the highest peaks. Coimbatore, the capital of the province, is in 10.52. N. lat., 77.5. E. long., 120 miles S. by E. from Seringapatam, and 306 from Madras. The country about Coimbatore is not more than 1,000 feet above the sea, but to the N. it shoots up rapidly, the scenery blending the wild and beautiful.

The extensive table land of southern India is, for the greater part, under British dominion, and contains some of the most fruitful districts in the Madras presidency; viz. Bellary, embracing an area of 12,703 square miles;* Cuddapah,

* *Bellary* proper has 8,695 square miles, Harpunhully 666, and Kurnool 3,342; *Caddapah* proper has 11,852 square miles, Punganoor 652, and Banaganpully 248.

of 12,752 sq. miles; and Coimbatore, 8,392 sq. miles, — the three districts possessing a population of 3,000,000 souls. In so elevated a region, there are no large rivers, nor indeed are there any throughout the S. of India,* to compare with those of Bengal; but the small rivers which descend from the plateau are numerous, and fertilize a great portion of country. The Mysore territory, situated between 11° and 15° N. lat., in length from N. to S. 234 miles, breadth E. to W. 264 miles, with an area of 27,561 square miles, consists of an elevated plateau or table land, from 2,000 to 2,500 feet high, enclosed on two sides by the E. and W. Ghauts.† At Bangalore, a plateau of 60 miles by 50, the surface is undulating, and nearly 3,000 feet above the sea; to the N. after passing Nundydroog, the country falls rapidly, and towards Seringapatam the surface has a sudden descent. Siva Gunga, the highest mountain in Mysore, is 4,600 feet above the sea. The rock basis of the country is a kind of syenite, composed for the most part of quartz, felspar, hornblende,

* Nor in the Southern peninsulas of Africa, Europe, or America.

† The kingdom of Coorg, which has lately occupied our attention, is situate to the westward of Mysore, of small extent, being comprised within the twelfth degree of N. lat. and the seventy-fifth and seventy-sixth degrees of E. long. It is 60 miles long by 60 broad, with an area of 2,165 square miles. Surrounded by lofty mountains, for the most part inaccessible, it contains many others, scattered over the interior surface, forming a succession of wild rugged hills and highly cultivated valleys; and, as if this were not sufficient to confirm its title to the appellation of a 'strong country,' the natives have divided the whole interior into squares. Those where no streams or marshes are contained being generally about a mile in width, with an enormous ditch and high mound or back, formed by the original contents of the ditch, and covered inside and out with deep jungle, in which are included many enormous forest trees. Some of these enclosures have four apertures for ingress and egress, one in each face, particularly those through which the principal roads pass, and which consequently present so many strong barriers against an approaching enemy. Every hill and mountain is also covered with jungle; the finest teak, jack, mango, and other large trees, growing spontaneously in a country watered by numerous streams, and continual fogs and misty clouds, which, from its great height, even above Mysore, are attracted by the hills, and cover them during the night.

and mica; the principal rivers are the Cauvery, Toombudra, Vedavatti, Bhadri, Arkanati, Pennar, Palar, and Panaur; there are no lakes of magnitude; several excellent roads exist through the province, and the bridges erected over the Cauvery river, by a native gentleman (at his own expense) named Ramaswamy, deserve the highest commendation. One of these magnificent structures, completed in 1821, is 1,000 feet long, with a road-way of 13 feet, and a height of 23 feet, supported by 400 pillars of stone; the whole fastened with iron pins and mortar.

The Hyderabad territory, embracing an area of nearly 100,000 square miles, consists principally of lofty granite ranges, and in the plains and valleys are found elevations, which are miniature features of the loftier ranges. These are few in number, and remarkably interrupted and irregular; their extension inconsiderable, and their height above the level of the sea 2,500 feet. The mountains are bare and rugged in their outline, and consist of piles of rock heaped on one another in irregular succession. The country is watered by the Godaveri and Kistna, which like all the other Indian rivers are subject to great variations in the quantity of water, and dependent on the periodical rains. Their banks vary from 30 to 50 feet in height, and about 50 miles from their embouchure they both pass through the chain of granite mountains, which extend from Gantur to Gundwana. The inundations of the Godaveri are the most extensive, varying from 6 to 3 miles on either side of the river. The rivers take their rise in the Western Ghauts, and disembrace within 60 miles of each other.

PHYSICAL ASPECT OF THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.—The Northern and Southern Concan, forming the more southern sea coast territories of the Bombay Presidency, extend along shore from Damaun to Malabar, about 220 miles, by 35 miles inland, embracing an area of 12,270 square miles, and presenting a congeries of steep, rocky mountains, rising in some places to the height of from 2,000 to 4,000 feet, as abrupt as a wall, while in most parts the table land to the eastward is of difficult, if not of impracticable access for wheeled car-

riages. The Ghauts in general, gradually decline towards the sea, possessing in some places fertile rice tracts, irrigated by numerous mountain streams. The coast is incised with small bays and shallow harbours or coves, with rocks, ravines and chasms.

Bombay Island (containing eighteen and a half square miles, including Colaba and Old Woman's Island) is little more than a cluster or double bank of once detached whinstone rocks, through which the sea and Goper river flowed, but which the retreating ocean from the western side of India has now permitted the consolidation of into an islet, by means of two sand-belts at the northern and southern extremity of each ledge of rocks, and these natural causeways, now changing into rock, are rendered more secure by the construction of artificial dams, by which at spring tides, the ingress of the sea is prevented. On the cession of Bombay by the Portuguese to England in 1661 its population did not exceed 16,000 souls, the refuse or outcasts of the natives of India; it now contains a population of 229,000 persons, inhabiting 15,474 houses, which are valued at £3,606,424. sterling! The fort is extremely strong towards the sea which surrounds it on three sides, and the view from thence is singularly beautiful, consisting of verdant isles, and on the main land lofty and curiously shaped hills and mountains. Admirable roads have been formed throughout the island, the causeway communicating with Salsette widened, a great military road from Panwell to Poona (70 miles) with several bridges over rapid rivers, and a road cut with great labour over a high range of mountains, have been constructed.*

* Capt. Hughes, under whose superintendence the road has been constructed, thus describes the country:

The Bhore Ghaut is formed of a succession of lofty eminences, towering above each other, the last of which attains a height of 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. Its outline at a distance is bold and imposing; it presents a *plane* or table summit, with ranges of stupendous hills beyond, with the sublimity of which *Europe* possesses little that is analogous. At its foot stands the small and romantic village of Campolee, which has a noble tank appertinent and a Hindoo temple, both built by Nana Furna-

Among the numerous buildings the town hall and mint are conspicuous for the elegance and convenience of their structure. There are no rivers of magnitude on the Concan coast; when ceded to the British in 1818, almost every hill had a fortification, and every rock of an inaccessible nature a fortress, all of which are now rapidly crumbling into decay.

The districts of Surat (1,350 square miles) of Broach (1,600) of Ahmedabad (4,600) and of Kaira (1,850 square miles) all in the province of Guzerat, cover an extensive portion of wild sea coast, as well as hilly, jungly, and mountainous country, with many fertile tracts, cultivated and waste, watered by several noble rivers, such as the Nerbudda, Tuptee, Mahy, Mehindry, and Sabermutty; not available for commerce like the Ganges. With respect to Guzerat itself, Lieutenant Col. Barnewall describes it as 'a flat country, very rich and fruitful; the fields in the eastern districts inclosed, and the prosperity of the peasant marked by his dress, the

vese, the Peishwa's prime minister, at his individual expense. Entering upon the scene, language can very imperfectly describe the beauty of this mountain—the luxuriant and variegated foliage by which it is clothed; or faithfully contrast that feature with its dark and fearful chasms; its high and impending rocks. Plants of great variety, and rich in colour, and all those graceful and stately trees which adorn an Indian forest, particularly the palm and feathery cocoa-nut, are scattered over it in gaudy profusion. The views obtained from commanding points in ascending this Ghaut (particularly from the Durwazu, or Gateway), are of that order which may be termed the *magnificently picturesque*; commencing, in the foreground, with Campolee, its tank and temple, and tranquilly unfolding a *riant* and cultivated plain of very considerable extent, watered by the silvery and sinuous course of a mountain stream, that, during the Monsoon, swells into a broad and rapid river. The road which has been carried over this Ghaut has had the effect of changing the mode of transport between Panwell and Poonah (a distance of 70 miles), from the back of a bullock and shoulders of a man to a four-wheeled waggon; of reducing the hire of conveyance to at least *one-half*; of abridging the time occupied by *one-third*; and, lastly (no trifling consideration), of drawing to the purse of government a revenue of 40,000 rupees per annum. Already there is a surprising increase in the number of carts in Panwell; from 60 or 60 they amount to upwards of 300, within the short interval of two years: One habit of industry begets another.'

comfort of his dwelling, and the high cultivation of his fields.

The Bombay government possesses a political control in the rich mineral province of Cutch, a district abounding in coal and iron, and evidently indebted for its origin to a volcanic eruption at some distant period.

The N. W. quarter of the ancient district of India, termed the 'Deccan,' or Dukhun, is under the administration of Bombay, and affords in its general features, a complete resemblance to the European kingdom of Hungary, and like the latter, though of exceeding fertility in some places, yet in many parts, owing to the mountainous and rocky nature of the country, it is exceedingly barren. The Deccan, (embracing altogether 44,987 square miles,) is by the natives divided into the Mawhuls or hilly tracts, and the Desh or flat country, the former situate along the face of the Ghauts, and the latter extending to the eastward, in very extensive plateaus descending by steep steps. In travelling southward through the Deccan there are chains of flat-topped hills, occasionally assuming a conical form, but scarcely ever exceeding the moderate height of 1,500 feet; their sides are neither abrupt nor sloping, and are covered with numerous blocks of trap rock, which in the interior of the mountains appear to have a tabular arrangement, giving them at a distance a fortification-like aspect, as if one circumvallation contained within another ascended from below. Between these hilly chains narrow valleys are formed, some of which are extremely rich, and romantically situate.

On approaching the banks of the Krishna the country is one extensive plain to the S.E. and N.W., whilst the ridges of hills on the N. and S. side are at a distance barely visible. From the Krishna river at Yervoi to the Ghatpurba at Argul, the country undulates, and presents here and there hilly ranges of broken basalt and extensive plains. On the Ghatpurba banks the hills of Pádashápúr become visible, running from E. to W., surrounded by fine valleys opening to the N. and S., in which direction the Ghatpurba flows to form the

falls of Gokauk,—a cataract formed by the descent of the Ghatpurba (here 180 yards wide) over a perpendicular quartz rock of 176 feet. Near Belgaum the country again becomes undulating—the landscape diversified by low sloping hills. The Collectorates of Poona and Ahmednuggur embrace an area of 20,870 square miles, of an irregular country, elevated 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, intersected by many rivers and streams, flowing through the most lovely valleys the sun ever shone on, overtopped by hills 1000 feet high of the trap formation, with the scarped summits peculiar to that species of mountain, and crowned by native fortresses of a highly picturesque aspect.

Candeish, another British settlement in the Deccan of 12,430 square miles in extent, is an extensive, fertile, well watered plain, interspersed with low barren hills, at the base of which run numerous ever purling limpid rivulets flowing from the table-land into the Tuptee; a large extent of country is still under jungle. The only remaining territories to be noticed of the Bombay Presidency are the Collectorates of Darwar, Sattarah, and the Southern Jagheers, containing 9,950 square miles, situate in the S.W. quarter of the Deccan. The western districts in the vicinity of the Ghauts are in many parts extremely rugged. Lieutenant-Colonel Sykes states that along the Dharwar, the Satarrah, and Poona frontier, and part of Ahmednuggur, there is a depth of from 30 to 50 miles of mountainous valleys, studded with clumps of forest trees; and that there is also a good deal of jungle. The eastern tracts are less alpine, affording more level country where the rocks, which in some places stud the surface, are buried in a rich black mould. The Ghauts along this district are not so much broken into masses, but present to the view continuous lines of mountain forests, and along the course of the principal rivers Krishna, Toombuddra, Beema, and Ghatpurba, the country is exceedingly rich and picturesque.

RIVERS.—The vast territory, of which a brief delineation has now been completed, is distinguished above all other parts of the known world by two of the most striking na-

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tural phenomena,—the loftiest mountains on the surface of the globe and rivers of such magnitude, that compared with them the Thames is but a rivulet.

The Indus is 1700 miles long, and for the distance of 780 miles there is sufficient water to sail a 200 ton vessel, and in some places it is from four to nine miles wide. From the sea to Lahore there is an uninterrupted navigation (for fleets of vessels) of 1,000 miles* British. The waters of the Indus enter the Arabian gulf in two great branches, forming a rich delta of alluvial land 125 miles wide at the base, and 80 in length from thence to the point where they separate about six miles below Tatta. At 75 miles from the sea the tides are scarcely perceptible, and at full moon the rise at the mouth is about nine feet; the tides ebb and flow with great violence, particularly near the sea where they flood, and abandon the banks with incredible violence: there are no rocks or rapids to obstruct the ascent, and the current does not exceed two and a half miles an hour: when joined by the Punjaub it never shallows in the dry season to less than 15 feet, the breadth being half a mile: the Chenab or Azesines has a minima of 12 feet, and the Ravee or Hydrastasis is about half the size of the latter: the usual depth of the three rivers cannot be rated at less than four, three, and two fathoms. Lieut. Burnes found the *Indus* at Tatta (lat. 24.44., long. 68.17,—from the sea 130 miles distant) 670 yards broad, running with a velocity of two and a half miles an hour, and a depth of 15 feet; these data give 110,500 cubic feet per second, but estimated in April so low as 80,000 cubic feet of water per second; it exceeds by four times the size of the Ganges in the dry season, and nearly equals the Mississippi. The much greater length of course in the *Indus*, its tortuous direction and numerous tributaries among towering and snowy mountains (the Sutledj rises in lake *Manosawvara* in Tibet, 17,000 feet above the sea) leads to such a result. The slope on which the Indus descends to the ocean is gentle, the average rate of current being two and a half miles an hour, when the

* The passage down of 1,000 miles was made in 15 days; a steamer might average six knots an hour in opposition to the stream.

Punjaub rivers navigated on the journey to Lahore were one mile in excess of the Indus. While the Ganges and its subsidiaries take their origin from the S. face of the *Himalaya*, the Indus receives the torrents of either side of that massy and snow-girt chain swollen by the showers of Caubul and the rains and ice of Chinese Tartary.

The Ganges is 1,500 miles long, and 500 miles from the sea the channel is 30 feet deep when the river is at its lowest during the dry season, and its width makes it appear an inland sea. At 200 miles from the ocean the Ganges separates into two branches; the S. E. retaining the name of *Ganges*, and the W., which assuming the appellation of the *Hooghly*, the delta between the two being termed the *Sunderbunds*. This magnificent river, like its compeer, rises amidst the perpetual snows of the Himalaya, in the 31. of N. lat. 20,000 *feet above the level of the sea!* The arch from beneath which it issues is 300 feet high, composed of deep frozen layers of snow—probably the accumulation of ages, surrounded by hoary icicles of gigantic magnitude. From Calcutta to Allahabad the distance on the Ganges through the Sunderbunds is 1000 miles, and thither the steam ship Hooghly lately made three trips; the height of the river at Allahabad above the level of the sea is 348 feet, and the maximum and minimum known rise is 45 and 34 feet. There are other rivers, such as the Brahmaputra (which in some parts is from *four to six miles wide!*) Sutledj (which is 900 *miles long* before its junction with the Indus) Jumna, Jhylum, &c. which would be considered vast rivers in Europe.

The length of course of some of the principal rivers to the sea is in English miles—Indus, 1,700; Ganges, 1,500; Sutledj, (to Indus 900) 1,400; Jhylum (ditto 750) 1,250; Jumna (to Ganges 780) 1,500; Gunduck (to Ganges 450) 980. In the Deccan and South of India—Godaveri, to the sea 850 miles; Krishna, 700; Nerbudda, 700; Tuptee, 460; Cavery, 400. Taking the limit of the Ganges and Jumna to the W. and S., and the Brahmaputra and Megna to the E. the country completely intersected by navigable rivers may be computed to cover an area of not less than *forty square degrees!*

HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS.*—The Himalaya range, or, as its name signifies, the *abode of snow*, elevates its lofty peaks from 20,000 to 27,000 feet above the level of the sea, forming an alpine belt 80 miles in extent from Hindostan to Tibet.† Twenty thousand feet have been barometrically measured and trigonometrically confirmed; at this height huge rocks in immense detached masses lie scattered about or piled on each other as if realizing the Titanic fable of climbing to heaven. Beds of decayed sea shells are found, and lichens and mosses, the last link in vegetable life, struggle through a stunted existence beneath the verge of perpetual snow. At 16,800 feet N. side, campanulas and ammonites have been found by enter-

* The Ghauts and other mountain ranges do not require separate notice.

† The principal chain of the Himalayas, running from N.W. to S.E., rises in a ridge, with an abrupt steep face against the plains of 6,000 feet in height; there is then a slope from the crest of the ridge towards the N. The mountains on the side of the snowy range consist of a series of nearly parallel ridges, with intermediate vallies or hollows; spurs are thrown off in all directions into the hollows, forming subordinate vallies. There is nothing like table land (perhaps in the whole of the mountains, with the exception of Nipál), and the valleys are broad wedge-shaped chasms, contracted at bottom to a mere water course; for this reason the quantity of level ground is inconsiderable. On the flank of the great chain there is a line of low hills (the *Sewalik*), which commence at Roopur on the Sutlej, and run down a long way to the S., skirting the great chain. In some places they run up to and rise upon the Himalaya, in others they are separated by an intermediate valley. Between the Jumna and the Ganges they attain their greatest height, viz. 2,000 feet above the plains at their feet, or 3,000 above the sea, rising at once from the level, with an abrupt mural front. To the E. of the Ganges and W. of the Jumna the Sewalik hills gradually fall off. They are serrated across their direction, forming a succession of scarcely parallel ridges, with a steep face on one side, and a slope on the other; the slope being, like that of the great chain (see *Geology*), towards the N., and the abutment towards the S. These hills may be considered an upheaved portion of the plains at the foot of the Himalaya, and formed of the debris of the mountains, washed down by rains and other natural causes. They are covered with vast forests of saul, toon, and fir, and are uninhabited, and, as on the Himalaya, the dip or slope being towards the N., and the abutment towards the S., the great mass of vegetation has a northern exposure, and the S. faces are generally naked.

prizing Englishmen,—at 13,000 feet the birch, juniper and pine appear, and at 12,000 feet the majestic oak rears its spacious head, towering amidst the desolation of nature. The cultivated limits of man have not passed 10,000 feet on the S. slope, but on the N. side villages are found in the valley of the Baspa river at 11,400 feet elevation, who frequently cut green crops, and advancing further the habitations of man are found as high as 13,000 feet, cultivation at 13,600,—fine birch trees at 14,000, and furze bushes for fuel thrive at 17,000 feet above the ocean level! At 11,000 feet elevation Capt. Webb found extensive fields of barley and buckwheat, and 11,630 feet above Calcutta his camp was pitched on a clear spot surrounded by rich forests of oak, pine and rhododendra; a rich rank vegetation as high as the knee, extensive strawberry beds and beautiful currant bushes in full flower (21st June) and a profusion of dandelions, butter cups, crocusses, cowslips, and every variety of wild European spring flowers. In the skyey villages of Kunawar, although the soil is poor and rocky, apples, pears, raspberries, apricots and other fruits are abundant, and above them is a forest of gigantic pines, the circumference of which is stated to be 24 feet and the height 180. The summer heat is so great as to uncover whole mountains of their snowy covering, and the cold of winter frequently so intense as to split and detach vast masses of rock, which roll from mountain to mountain with terrific uproar. Captain Gerrard in crossing the Charang Pass, (17,348 feet high) describes the neighbouring mountains to be all of blue slate, naked to their tops, and exhibiting decay and barrenness in their most frightful form; and the natives declare that volcanoes* exist amidst

* Since the first edition of this work appeared, I have received from India an account of a severe earthquake arising on the N. of the great Himalaya range, which was experienced throughout the greater part of Western India, on the 26th August, 1833; the vibration was from N.E. to S.W. There were three principal shocks; the first at 6.30, P.M.; the second at 11.30, P.M.; and the third, or most severe shock, within five minutes to 12 (Calcutta time). The second shock was particularly noticed

the regions of perpetual snow. Although the limit of eternal frost had been fixed by theory at from 10 to 12,000 feet, yet Samsiri, a halting place for travellers on the banks of the Shelti, is 15,600 above the sea;* the landscape is there beautiful,—verdant hills and tranquil rivulets, with flocks of pigeons, herds of deer, and lovely banks of turf and shrubs.

A village has been found at a height of 14,700 feet: in the middle of October, the thermometer on two mornings was 17; yet the sun's rays felt oppressive, and all the streams and lakes which were sheeted with ice during the night, were free and running by two o'clock. The finest crops of barley are reared here, and to irrigation and solar heat are the people indebted for a crop. The barometer gave for the highest field 14,900 feet of elevation; this verifies the observations, or rather inferences, as to the limit of cultivation in the upper course of the Sutlej; and it is quite possible and even pro-

at Calcutta by the stopping of an astronomical clock, and is thus compared with other places:

	Observed. Dif. Long. Cal. Time.			
	H. M.	M.	H. M.	
Katmandu (Nipál)	10 45	+ 12	= 10 57	Effects very severe; loud noise.
Rungpur	11 20	— 2	= 11 18	Ditto; many houses injured.
Monghyr	11 27	+ 7	= 11 34	Noise heard; walls cracked.
Arrah	11 15	+ 14	= 11 29	Ditto, ditto.
Gorakpúr	11 20	+ 19	= 11 39	Ditto, ditto.
Bancoorah	11 30	+ 4	= 11 34	None such since 1814.
Calcutta			11 34 48	No injury done.

At Katmandu 19 persons were buried under the ruins of their houses, and at Bhatgaon, E. of Katmandu, 300 souls perished. The earthquake commenced gradually, though travelling with the speed of lightning towards the W.; it increased, until the houses, trees, and every thing on the surface of the ground seemed shaken from their foundations; full-grown trees bent in all directions, and houses reeled like drunken men; the earth heaved most fearfully; in a dead calm a noise, as if from an hundred cannons, burst forth; and, to add to the impressiveness of the scene, a general shout arose from the people in every direction, and the murmur of their universal prayer was carried from the city to the British cantonment, a mile distant. Slight vibrations were felt towards Katmandu during the ensuing 24 hours.

* That is three miles and a half high!

bable, that crops may vegetate at 16,000 or 17,000 feet. The *yaks* and shawl goats at this village seemed finer than at any other spot within my observation. In fact, both men and animals appear to live on and thrive luxuriantly, in spite of Quarterly Reviewers, and Professor Buckland, who had calmly consigned those lofty regions, and those myriads of living beings to perpetual ice and oblivion. On the north eastern frontier of Kunawar, close to the stone bridge, a height of more than 20,000 feet, was attained without crossing snow, the barometer showing 14,320, thermometer 27 at 1 p. m. Notwithstanding this elevation, the sun's rays were oppressive, though the air in the shade was freezing. The view from this spot is grand and terrific beyond the power of language to describe. It comprises a line of naked peaks, scarce a stripe of snow appearing.

At *Simla* (lat 31.06. N. long. 77.09. E.) 7,486 feet above the sea, where the Bengal Government have founded a delightful station, the view of the Himalaya Mountains is magnificent. The portion visible is a depressed continuation of the chain extending from the emergence of the Sutlej through the snow, to an abrupt limit bordering close upon the plain of the Punjab, near the debouche of the Ravee; few, if any of the detached peaks rise beyond 20,000 feet; the crest of Jumnotree may indeed be seen from the highest point of Simla, which is a conical hill named Jucko, formerly in undisputed possession of the bears and hogs. This insulated point Jucko, besides being crowned by garnets, throws the waters of its corresponding declivities towards the Bay of Bengal on one side, and the Gulph of Cutch on the other; the former by the intersections of the Giree, the Tons, and Jumna, to the Ganges;* the latter by the medium to the

* The Ganges and Brahmepootur may also be considered as adjunct rivers; but they part to meet again, as Rennel observes. The two streams are as different in character as masculine is from feminine; one creeps slowly through fertile plains, under the pressure of superstitious reverence for gods and cows; the other rolls over rugged and barren wastes, where beef is worshipped by keen appetites.

Sutlej, and that magnificent river the Indus, a narrow septum; even the road itself here marks the divergence of twin streamlets, which are latterly separated 1,500 miles.

There are none of those giant peaks visible from Simla, which we hear of aspiring to 25 and 28,000 feet, threatening heaven with their points and earth with their fall; but the gelid array is sufficiently grand to excite astonishment in the minds of people in their noviciate, who behold the primeval summits sheeted in drapery of perpetual whiteness. The boundary is still very lofty, perhaps not under 13,000 feet upon the plainward slope, while the dark rock stares through the snow in the highest regions. But it is on the cessation of the periodical rains that the scene is most striking; the tops only remaining covered, glare their radiant snow at the powerless sun in calm desolate grandeur. Greater part of the bare rock is then disclosed, and the vast dim mass, just crowned by gelid points, appear like the curling crest of an enormous wave rising out of a sea of mist. The marginal limit has then receded to its maximum elevation, and may be determined as a fixed point; traces of snow extend down the hollows, and accumulations repose far below, while steep cliffs project their bare sides even to 18,000 feet, but the belt is very precisely defined, and if geometrically measured, will be found to have an uniform level beyond 15,000 feet.

The pines, upon the slopes of the snowy chain, are taller and more symmetrical than elsewhere; whole forests occur where individuals measure 24 to 26 feet round. The maximum girth in one instance was 29 feet. Close to the same spot were numbers of the same magnificent barrels, like gigantic masts, each rising as if in rivalry, and all at a level verging upon 10,000 feet, a limit beneath which on the equator (according to Baron Humboldt) the larger trees of every kind shrink; a limit which Mr. Colebrooke and clever reviewers placed close to the marginal snow in the region of the torpid lichen; but the Himalaya peer over the Andes, laugh at philosophers and closet speculators, and dwindle Dr. Buckland and his fossil bones into utter insignificance. The phenomena

which are presented in obscure caves in Europe, are appealed to in the mountains of Asia, but they answer by exhibiting a superb contrast.*

Dr. Gerard crossed the Himalaya range to the skirts of the Ladak capital. After traversing the table land of Roopshoo, Dr. G. descended into the valley of Speetee, opening upon the Sutlej at the monastery of Kanum. The Sutlej was crossed in July by a rope bridge, where the bed of the river has an extreme elevation of 2,500 feet. The mountain state of Cooloo, tributary to Runjeet Sing, was traversed by a route successively varied by ridge and valley. It being the season of rain, the landscape was obscured with mist—the roads being bad and quaggy. The lofty boundary ridge, which throws the streams from opposite sides to the Sutlej and Beas, was crossed at a height of nearly 10,700 feet. On the 27th of July, Dr. G. came in sight of the ancient Hyphasis, at the ferry of Koortor, where the river has an expanse of bed, which he little expected to find so near its source. At Sultanpore, the capital of Cooloo, he encamped near the margin of the river, upon a green sward shaded by magnificent elm trees. Sultanpore is populous, and frequented by a considerable number of foreigners. Good roads, however, are totally unknown. The physical configuration of this alpine tract is gigantic, and its frontiers well defined. The Sutlej is southward, the Hyphasis on the western skirt, while the Himalayan crest forms a magnificent limit on the N., and opens into countries of which we scarce know the name. Leaving Sultanpore, he crossed the Beas by a double bridge, connected by an island.

On the 8th of August, he pitched his tent on the slope of the Himalaya, at an altitude of 10,000 feet, surrounded by luxuriant vegetation and flowering herbs. The road up is one long stair to the crest, constructed by a fakir. On the 9th, they crossed the Himalaya by Rotang Pass, turning a little to the right to the consecrated rills of the river, which

* Letter from Simla, in the Asiatic Journal.

are collected in a small basin, walled round for the purposes of ablution. Here is the source of the Beas, which, at the distance of only five days' march, presents a formidable expanse: the extreme altitude of this spot appears to be about 13,000 feet. Descending into a ravine, the bed of the Chandera-Baga, or *River of the Moon*, was crossed by a cradle bridge. The traveller is now struck with the change of the climate, and the alteration in the appearance of the inhabitants. The configuration of the country assumes a new form, and the eternal snow gradually recedes to the summits of the mountains: even the skies have a deeper and more resplendent blue. Nothing was green but the crops; the vegetation being scanty and arid, and the sun's rays powerful. In the former part of their route they had been daily shrouded in rain and mist: vegetation was luxuriant, and the slopes were fringed with pine forests: here, however, not a tree was visible but the drooping willow, which is planted. The soil was quite destitute of verdure, and the air felt dry and elastic. On the 13th of August, Dr. G. reached Tandeh, upon the bank of the Sooruj-Baga (*River of the Sun*). The passage of the stream was by a fragile bridge of osier twigs. It has an altitude of 10,000 feet. The temple of Tilaknath is two long days' journey down the river. The valley of the Chenab, or Acesines, is under the dominion of Runjeet Sing, but the government officers seldom shew themselves so high up as Tilaknath. The whole country abounds in ancient gigantic ruins.

On the 29th of August, Dr. G. resumed his journey along the coarse of the Sooruj Baga: and on the 2nd of September, he reached the last inhabited spot of the country, at an elevation of 11,000 feet. The valley was prettily enamelled with villages and cultivation. The inhabitants, however, appeared poor, greasy, and ragged. He was greeted by one of the Thakoors (chiefs) of the country with a present of ardent spirits, distilled from malt, some rice, atta, and butter. It was now constant sunshine, and the temperature increased with the elevation, though they were still in the vicinity of

enormous masses of snow. Darcha is the last village in the dell, and the sun's rays reflected from the barren sides of the rocks raise the temperature to 84. in the shade.

On the 8th of September, Dr. G. crossed the Paralasa chain, at an elevation of 16,500 feet, and traced the Sooruj Baga (which the party had been following) to its source, in a lake only 300 feet lower. Dr. G. remarked, 'that its surface was at its extreme ebb; thus almost verifying Moorcroft's similar observation respecting Mansarowar, a fact which Mr. Colebrooke, and reviewers, were puzzled at, and actually discredited; but it would appear that the lakes, at least in the Trans-Himalaya regions, are highest in spring, when the ice first breaks up and thaws.' In crossing this lofty ridge, the wind blew piercingly on one side, while the sun's rays were scorchingly ardent on the other. The extremely thin, dry, and cold air checks the vital energy with fearful rapidity. On the sixth days' journey from the inhabited limits, they ascended the Laitchee long range, which rose up abruptly, like a vast wall from the bed of the Chander-Baga. Along this tract are found marine fossil remains. At length, after a most toilsome journey over rugged and sterile mountains and rocky tracts, Dr. G., for the first time, 'pitched his camp upon the plateau of Tartary.' The barometer indicated an elevation of nearly 16,000 feet! In front was a black ridge, having the uniform height of 3,000 feet above the camp; yet there was no snow on its summit. The soil was almost without any vegetation, baked, hard, and thirsty. The skies were of the most resplendent indigo tint, and the air highly transparent. The attendants, who expected to enter upon a fine flat country, after crossing three successive ranges, viewed with consternation interminable Alps upon Alps arise. They saw a wild horse, at which one of the party fired; but hardly any report was heard, sound being so feeble in the rarified air. A pack of wild dogs (quite red) were also seen stealing along a gully.

On the 17th of September, his progress was arrested by the Wuzeer of Ladak. His interview with this person was

highly agreeable: his deportment, dress, and address were showy, his conversation frank, and his appearance altogether prepossessing. The day after he invited Dr. G. to dinner. The Wuzeer seemed, on the whole, to be a jolly *bon-vivant*. In impeding Dr. G.'s further advance, he appeared to rely more upon that gentleman's good feeling than any exertions of his own; remarking that he would not oppose it by rude interference, but that the consequence would be discredit and disgrace to *him*. The three days Dr. G. passed in the Wuzeer's camp were far from uninteresting: yet, notwithstanding his easy familiarity, he seemed quite uneasy till Dr. G. decided upon turning face southward, and his eagerness to equip and transport him into Speetee, by a route skirting the Chinese confines, evinced his extreme anxiety to get him fairly out of his sight, and away from the precincts of the capital.

On the morning of the 19th of September, the yaks being ready, after the ceremony of smoking pipes together, our traveller and the Wuzeer parted. His route now became excessively uncomfortable, owing to exposure to the cold night air in such a savage country. He met several groups of wild horses, which they endeavoured in vain to chase. Southward, towards Speetee, the landscape appeared very sharply peaked, and in clusters of white tops; but in the N.E. the mountains were of a vast contour, and the snow more uniformly defined. At length they encamped in a dell which opened upon Lake Chimorerel. From this spot were seen numerous herds of shawl goats, sheep, horses, and yaks. The dell, save towards the lake, was land-locked on every side; and Lake Chimorerel itself spread out its blue expanse to the foot of very precipitous mountains, forming a sharply defined and lofty boundary to the valley of Speetee, through the windings of which the route of the party lay.

On the 27th of September, their path skirted the shore of the lake, the whole circumference of which is embayed by mountains; but hill-ward, on its north-eastern shore, the mass of elevated land rose very abruptly from the water's

edge, and entered the regions of snow, which had an uniform margin of 19,000 feet. Neither this nor the other lake has any efflux, and were we less acquainted with the course of the Sutlej, we should have here at least a verification of the fact, which Mr. Colebrooke, and reviewers, received with cautious credence, and even actually discredited, of Mansarowar being entirely land-locked, conceiving that in so elevated a region evaporation was insufficient to carry off the supplies derived from the neighbouring snow; thus forgetting, or not knowing, that the absorbing power of the atmosphere is infinitely increased by its rarefaction, and in tracts so singularly arid, that the traveller beholds ice permanent and unthawed in a temperature of 50., torrents frozen fast in their fall in a medium often 20. warmer than the graduated freezing point. Throughout India, in July and August, though the thermometer often points above 90., evaporation is checked in spite of this heat; such being the density of vapour at so low a level that a damp mouldy surface is thrown over everything. Upon the table-land of Thibet the air is so dry that frost is not visible upon the soil, or grass, though the thermometer may stand at the zero of the scale. Few and inconsiderable streams pass into the Chimorerel at this season, but the dry channels of water courses were crossed, which shewed an expanse of bed that argued their powerful body at some period of the year. The highest water-mark upon the shore did not appear to exceed five feet.

The frozen zone in the tropics which the reader is now examining, is yet but imperfectly explored, and doubtless every additional information which can be obtained and placed on record will be desirable. Mr. H. T. Colebrook whose learning and zeal for the honour of his country has been productive of so much advantage to the Asiatic hemisphere, has furnished some valuable extracts from Captain A. and Mr. J. G. Gerard's geographical survey of the Himalaya to the Royal Asiatic Society. The diary of Messrs. Gerard commenced in the month of June at *Rol*, a small district in Chúárá, one of the larger divisions of

Basehar, 9,350 feet above the level of the sea, and the highest inhabited land *without* the Himalaya Mountains. Crops—wheat, barley and peas. Road to *Buchkalghat* 11,800 feet, through fine woods of oak, yew, pine, rhododendron, horse-chesnut, juniper and long thin bamboos;—flowers abundant, particularly cowslips and thyme; soil, a rich moist black turf not unlike peat. Crossed the *Shátul* pass (15,556 feet) rocks, mica slate and gneis—huge granite blocks, vast angular fragments of quartz, felspar, &c. jumbled together in the wildest confusion, the route over which was fraught at every step with considerable danger. Upon the snow (two of Mr. Gerard's servants were frozen to death at mid-day in September the previous year when crossing this pass) at *Shátul* were many insects like musquitoes, which revived as the sun rose; some birds were seen resembling ravens,—mosses were found on a few rocks; the British travellers rested for the night under shelter of a large rock, (13,400 feet above the sea) where the steep ascent above them of 2,200 feet higher seemed appalling; here and there a rock projected its black head; all else was a dreary solitude of unfathomable snow, aching to the sight and without trace of a path; when the snow was melted, plenty of lovely flowers were found, but no bushes. The snow was soft at mid-day and affording good footing, but the suffering caused by the elevation as it affected the breathing and head was very great. On the 9th June, the temperature did not rise above 41. at noon, it was 24. and 26. at sun rise,—in the evening it snowed. On the 11th June our adventurous countrymen began their descent on the opposite side of the pass, along the dell of the *Andreti*, (a branch of the *Pabar* river) rising near *Shátul*, and halted on the bank of a rivulet named *Dingrú*, just above the forest limit. The *lowest* point in the dell was 11,000 feet; leeks were gathered at 12,000 feet; the ground was a rich sward cut up in groves by a large kind of field rat without a tail, (*Mus Typhlus*). Mr. Colebrooke here observes that the Himalaya glens run for the most part perpendicular to the range, or from N.N.E. to S.S.W. and S.W.; the N.W.

face being invariably rugged and the opposite one facing the S. E. shelving. The roads to the most frequented passes lie upon the gentle acclivity; the difference in the elevation of the forest is very remarkable, in some instances exceeding 1,000 feet. The general height of the forest on the S. face of the Himalaya is about 11,800 to 12,000 feet above the sea; oaks and pines reach that elevation, birches reach a few feet higher, and juniper was observed at 13,300 feet? A *Tagno* village, (8,800 feet) abundance of strawberries, thyme, nettles and other European plants were noticed, and the houses were shaded by apricot, walnut and horse chesnut trees. The ascent of the Yúsú pass, (15,877 feet) at the head of the Sapan river, was performed with the greatest difficulty; the glen through which the *Sapan* forces its passage becomes more and more contracted, until it is at last bounded by mural rocks of granite, between which the river flows in impenetrable obscurity under immense heaps of indestructible ice, running in lofty ridges and studded with gigantic mounds of snow. The source of the *Pabar* is in a lake called *Charámái*, (15,000 feet high) above a mile in circuit, when the river rushes forth over a perpendicular rock, forming a fine cascade, the appearance of which is heightened by the enormous banks of snow, 100 feet high above it, some of which have cracked and fallen outwards into the lake. The dreary solitude of the place was now and then broken by the tremendous crashing sounds of falling rocks or mountain avalanches. Messrs. Gerard descended into the romantic valley of the noble *Baspa* river by sliding down the snowy declivities seated on a blanket, (a mode invariably practised by the mountaineers where there are no rocks or precipices). *Rakham* village in the *Baspa* valley, (11,400 feet high) is situate in the western corner of the glen, here three furlongs wide, half of which is laid out in thriving crops of wheat and barley, and the rest occupied by sand-beds or small islands, with the *Baspa* river winding among them. Just above the village, high steeples of black mica rock rise abruptly 9,000 feet!

The *Kimliá* pass was attempted, but only 15,500 feet could be attained when the snow became impassable. Here the *Rusu* river, at 13,300 feet foams along in dreadful turbulence and rapidity, the noise of the torrent being astounding. Deep blue lakes were passed, along the precipices skirting which notches had to be cut with a hatchet to enable the travellers to wend their weary, dangerous route. Vast fields of snow at 7,000 feet elevation, and heavy rain and sleet prevented their further progress in the direction of the *Kimliá* pass; but the *Chárang* pass was crossed, at 7,348 feet elevation, to the valley of the *Nangalti* river. The snow passed was often of a *reddish* colour, 80 feet thick, with terrific fissures, and the descent for half a mile often at an angle of from 33. to 37. over gravel and snow, with here and there a sharp pointed rock projecting through it. At *Kiukúche*, on the banks of the *Nangalti*, (12,400 feet high) there was an enclosure for cattle, and there were a few, cross bred between the *Yak* (Tartar bull) and common cow, feeding in the glen on a few hundred yards of grassy slope of odoriferous herbs and juniper bushes, surrounded by craggy cliffs of horrid forms.

The *Tidung* at its junction with the *Nangalti* when visited, presented a furious rapid stream of great declivity, for six or seven miles the fall being 300 feet per mile, and in some places double: huge rocks were whirled along with frightful velocity, nothing visible but an entire sheet of foam and spray, thrown up and showered upon the surrounding rocks with loud concussion, and re-echoed from bank to bank with the noise of the loudest thunder; around the blue slate mountains tower 18,000 feet in sharp detached groups or pinnacles, covered neither with vegetation nor with snow, and exhibiting decay and barrenness in its most frightful aspect. (A Tartar village was found here called *Húns*). Where the dell was narrowest, there was so little space for the river that the road continued but for a small distance on the same side, and over this frightful torrent the English travellers had repeatedly to cross on ropes, or *sangas*, loosely hung from rock to rock on either side; one of these *sangas* was inclined at an angle of

15. Messrs. Gerard one while picked their way upon *smooth* surfaces of granite *sloping* to the raging torrent; at another time the route led among huge masses and angular blocks of rock, forming spacious caves where 60 persons might rest; *here* the bank was composed of rough gravel steeply inclined to the river,—*there* the path was narrow with precipices of 500 or 600 feet below, whilst the naked towering peaks and mural rocks rent in every direction, threatened the passenger with ruin from above. In some parts of the roads there were flights of steps, in others frame work or rude staircases opening to the gulph below. In one instance, the passage consisted of six posts driven horizontally into clefts of the rocks about 20 feet distant from each other and secured by wedges. Upon this giddy frame a staircase of fir spars was erected of the rudest nature; twigs and slabs of stone only connected them together,—no support on the outer side, which was deep and overhung the terrific torrent of the *Tidung*; the rapid rolling and noise of which was enough to shake the stoutest nerves. Some of these kind of passages were swept away and new ones had to be prepared for the British adventurers.

From the confluence of the *Tidung* with the Sutledj, the town of *Ribé* or *Ridáing* has a charming appearance, yellow fields, extensive vineyards, groves of apricot and large well built stone houses contrast with the neighbouring gigantic mountains.* Nature thus carefully adapts vegetation to this extraordinary country, for did it extend no higher than on the *Southern* face of the Himalaya Mountains, Tartary would be uninhabitable by either man or beast. On the Southern slope of the range, the extreme height of cultivation is 10,000 feet, and even there green crops are frequently cut, the highest habitation is 9,500 feet, 11,800 may be reckoned the

* All the British travellers who have visited these lofty regions have expressed deep regret at returning again to the plains, notwithstanding the hardships endured and the rudeness of the climate; it is to be hoped we may soon be enabled to open a trade with Tartary through these passes, which will lead to new commercial intercourse.

upper limit of forest, and 12,000 that of bushes, and in some sheltered ravines dwarf bushes are found at 13,000 feet high. Mark the contrast on the *Northern* side, in the valley of the *Baspa* river, there is a village 11,400 feet, cultivation reaches the same level; forests extent to at least 13,000, but advancing yet further, villages are found at 13,000 feet!—cultivation at 13,600, fine birch trees at 14,000, and *tamá* bushes (which furnish excellent fire wood) at 17,000 feet above the level of the sea. To the eastward towards Lake *Mánassarówar*, according to Tartar accounts, crops, forests, and bushes thrive at a still greater height. At *Zinchin*, (*sixteen thousand one hundred and thirty-six feet above the sea*.) where our travellers were stopped by the Chinese guards, about 200 wild horses were seen galloping about and feeding on the very tops of the heights; kites and eagles were soaring into the deep blue æther, large flocks of small birds like linnets flying about, and beautiful locusts jumping among the bushes. At times the sun shone like an orb of fire without the least haze, the stars and planets with a brilliancy only to be seen from such an elevation, and the part of the horizon where the moon was expected to rise, could scarcely be distinguished before the limb touched it; the atmosphere sometimes exhibiting that remarkable dark appearance witnessed in Polar latitudes. With a transit telescope of 30 inches, and a power of 30, stars of the *fifth* magnitude were distinct in broad day. Thermometer 60. in the shade, at sunset 42., and before sunrise 30. in July.

As every thing important relating to these gigantic mountains will, doubtless, be acceptable to the readers of this history, and probably at no very distant period advantageous in a mercantile point of view, no apology will be requisite for giving the elevations,—lat. and long. of the principal peaks and river sources in the Himalaya mountains, between lat. 30.33.10. and 30.18.30. N. long. 77.34.40. and 79.57.22. E. as surveyed by Captain Hodgson and Lieutenant Herbert, and which I believe has never been published in Europe.*

* The Asiatic Society of Bengal printed the whole survey in their valuable 'Transactions' in Calcutta.

110 GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF THE HIMALAYA PEAKS, RIVERS, &c.

Station or Peak.	Height above the sea feet.	Lat. N.	Long. E.	District or State.	Observations.
Sahasrapoor . Chandra Radhad	1,013 7,061	29 47 10 30 18 08	77 22 12 78 25 27	Doab Bhainsa	Starting point of Survey. Peak of ridge separating the <i>Assensanda</i> and <i>Bhagirathi</i> valleys, top clay slate, and bare of trees.
Sarkasanda .	9,371	30 24 28	78 18 23	Ditto	Ditto between the <i>Junnes</i> and <i>Bhagirathi</i> , overlooks the Bhoon, 16 miles direct from Bhoora; summit of a dull greyish stone having a conchoidal fracture, semi-hard. Abundance of golden Phacostea.
Bairat . Jeyth	7,489 4,864	30 24 31 30 58 23	77 55 28 77 19 10	Jamnagar Sirmoor	Fort between the <i>Junnes</i> and <i>Tons</i> , clay slate and quartz. Ditto, extremely steep, yet heavy cannon were dragged up by the British in 1814 for its attack. Clay slate.
Chur . Ditto Peak .	11,089 12,149	30 30 36 30 52 00	77 28 30 77 28 03	Ditto & Jubal Ditto	Peak, highest central point in lowest range of mountains, ridges, spurs and ramifications, visible all round, granite, brecciated abundant, water procurable from snow; Juniper and red currant found on it, and the N. E. face shaded by forests of the cedar pine, S. W. face steep and rocky, with few trees.
Uchalaru .	14,303	30 54 04	78 25 22	Gherwal	Separating ridge of <i>Junnes</i> and <i>Bhagirathi</i> , about 2000 feet above the forest limit, which is 11,500 feet above the sea level, only a patch of snow left in September.
Kedar Kanta . Changshill	12,699 12,871	31 01 08 31 03 10	78 08 20 77 55 10	Ditto Bhainsa	Ditto <i>Tons</i> and <i>Junnes</i> , Gneiss, lost all snow in August.
Whantu (fort)	10,673	31 14 35	77 29 10	Ditto	Ditto between <i>Rasula</i> and <i>Pabar</i> , Gneiss and white Quartz, no granite, above forest limit, highest productions, black currant and Juniper.
1 Peak . 2 ditto . 3 ditto . Sri Kanta .	30,331 22,749 22,317 30,399	30 18 30 30 23 19 30 40 45 30 57 12	79 45 54 79 57 23 79 51 29 78 47 28	Jawahir Gherwal	Peak of <i>Pangra</i> range, connected with the <i>Chur</i> ridge; horseshoe form, throwing off on the eastward side the Ghilri and other streams, on the westward feeds the <i>Setlej</i> , &c. Gneiss and much red and white quartz, wooded to the very summit, where the wild strawberry grows. Ghorokh forts or watch towers of unknown dates.
Various Peaks {	16,383 16,512	31 14 12 31 35 02	78 23 35 77 58 49	Bhainsa	These peaks are far to the E.; so far as we know No. 2 is the highest mountain on this globe. The <i>Bhagirathi</i> winds round the western foot of this peak, where it breaks through the base of the Himalaya chain, changing its course from W. N. W. to S. S. W. S. or higher Himalaya shutting in to the N. the <i>Bappa</i> and <i>Suttelji</i> , giving rise on the S. to branches of the <i>Rasula</i> , <i>Pabar</i> , &c. Various passes over the ridge from 15 to 16,000 feet high.

POINTS ON SOME OF THE RIVERS, INCLUDING THEIR SOURCES, CONFLUENCES, AND THE PLACES WHERE THEY ENTER THE PLAIN.

Bhagirathi .	12,800	30 54 54	78 04 00	Gherwal	Point where the <i>Bhagirathi</i> first emerges from the last snow bed or glacier, measuring 27 feet wide, and but 18 inches deep. Valley 600 feet wide, and 1 mile long.
Sukhi .	8,360	30 55 55	78 41 13	Ditto	The Ganges may be here said to break through the Himalaya passes: the river bed was found 1201 feet below Sukhi, or above the sea 7800 feet.
Hurdwar Jumansai	1,024 10,949	30 54 15 30 54 16	78 09 40 78 26 07	Doab Gherwal	Ganges enters Hinduistan plains. Source of the river <i>Junnes</i> ; a place of pilgrimage, boiling springs, temperature of the water 194°, which for the situation here given is nearly the heat at which water is converted into steam.
Beral Ganga .	15,489	30 57 16	78 31 26	Ditto	Supposed source, but even here a large stream, crossed on a natural bridge of frozen snow; the real source about 3 miles higher from the S. W. foot of the great snowy peak <i>Bondersnack</i> .
Tons or Lupin	12,764	31 08 46	78 28 55	Ditto	First exit from snow bed, 31 feet wide and three deep; far several miles nothing but snow perceptible; origin from the N. face of the same glacier of peaks as the <i>Junnes</i> .
Lari on the Spiti	11,071	32 04 22	78 23 40	Ladwa	A village here; climate so dry that the houses are built of bricks baked in the sun; the houses being flat roofed shows that no great quantity of snow falls. Snow green abundant.

MINOR STATIONS OF SURVEY.

Simla .	7,450	31 06 12	77 09 20	Kyonthal	Now a delightful British station; view of the snowy range from thence, highly interesting.
Rabbathoe . Ranghar Fort Jaha Station .	4,486 4,464 8,120	30 58 12 31 08 16 31 08 56	78 58 27 78 48 10 77 10 06	Bareilly India Kyonthal	British encampment, romantically situated. Strong fort captured from Ghorokhs. High peak of Simla range, top clay slate, bare of trees to the S. well clothed with pine forests on the N. side.
Shall .	9,625	31 11 16	78 41 17	Sagi	Connected with the <i>Chur</i> range, very inaccessible on account of peculiar shape, wooden temple on summit, where human sacrifices were (and are said to be so still) offered to the Hindu goddess <i>Chil</i> .
Malown .	4,448	31 12 39	78 41 26		A steep ridge with strong fortresses captured by the British 1815.

PASSES.

Onnes Pass .	15,400	31 31 07	78 08 26	Bhainsa	Pass over the outer ridge of the Himalaya, leading from the valley of the <i>Rupin</i> into that of the <i>Bappa</i> . Crossed 30 Sept. 1819, 6 miles of road over snow, very soft in some places, of which the general depth was from 2 to 6 feet, but on the summit of the pass not formidable with sticks 9 feet long. Ther. at sunset 33° F., water boiled at 107°. No granite on the ridge, nothing but gneiss.
Beranda ditto Chiding Kona Sri Geri . Chasni Fort . Puar Village .	15,296 12,896 8,424 10,744 6,418	31 23 28 31 27 16 31 24 17 31 21 55 31 22 47	78 08 22 78 27 27 78 28 16 78 28 47 78 16 44	Ditto Ditto Kullia Suk-hut Bhainsa	Pass from the valley of the <i>Pabar</i> into that of the <i>Suttelji</i> . Pass above <i>Shiding</i> to <i>Bhainsa</i> . Fort on the right bank of the <i>Suttelji</i> . Ditto ditto, there are other forts equally high. Good village on <i>Suttelji</i> , 500 feet above the river, excellent grapes to be had here.
Kanana ditto .	8,908	31 40 26	78 30 17	Ditto	Substantial village on ditto, 600 feet above the river, dell -ous apples, and grapes in abundance.
Hangarang Pass	14,710	31 47 34	78 30 50	Ditto	Between <i>Hong</i> and <i>Sungnam</i> ; summit composed entirely of limestone; no snow in October, though a few hundred feet above it laid in patches.
Majang La . Nako .	17,700 11,978	31 48 39 31 52 34	78 06 54 78 36 51	Chinese Tartary Bhainsa	Ridge crested on the road from <i>Shipli</i> to <i>Garu</i> ; few traces of snow in October. Tartar village in <i>Hangarang</i> on the left bank of the <i>Spiti</i> ; barley grows some 1000 feet higher than the village, oaks and poplars are visible near the village.
Skulker Fort . Lasecha Pass .	10,372 13,628	32 00 02 32 02 26	78 12 18 78 35 06	Ditto Ditto	Fort, border of <i>Bhainsa</i> , right bank of <i>Spiti</i> . Pass from <i>Shukherfort</i> to <i>Burwa</i> village; no snow in October, but ink froze at 10 A. M.

GEOLOGY AND SOIL.—It cannot of course be expected that much accurate information should be extant relative to the geological structure of the Hindostan peninsula; the crust of the territory has in several isolated places been explored, but it will require years of extensive scientific research to form a just idea of the nature of the rocks and soil; my duty, therefore, in this as in other sections, is to register facts as far as they have been noticed, so that in time the materials for a connected view may be obtained. Primitive formations in which granitic rocks bear the principal proportions, occupy, it is thought, not only the great Himalaya northern chain, but also three-fourths of the entire peninsula, from the valley of the Ganges below Patna to Cape Comorin; although these rocks are frequently overlaid by a thin crust of laterite, a ferruginous clay considered as associated with the trap formation. The transition formations have not as yet been clearly distinguished; the secondary formations described are—

I. The *Carboniferous group*: coal occurs extensively in the grits bounding the southern slope of the Himalaya, but it has been questioned whether this formation is the older coal or only lignite associated with nagelflue, (as on the slope of the Alps), it has been particularly described, however, where the river Tista issues from this chain, (88.35. E. long.) and there, undoubtedly, bears all the characters of the older formation; its strata are highly inclined, whereas the tertiary beds and even most of the secondary in this part of India are horizontal. The coal district on the river Damúda (100 miles N.W. of Calcutta) extends on the banks of the river 60 miles, and appears from its fossil lycopodia to be undoubtedly the older coal; it reposes apparently on the surrounding primitive rocks, but it is not improbable that it extends across the delta of the Ganges to Sylhet 306 miles, at the eastern extremity of Bengal. Tertiary rocks prevail in Sylhet, and it is doubtful whether the Sylhet coal be not really modern lignite. I believe no carboniferous limestone has been discovered.

II. *Next to coal is a great sandstone formation*, which beginning at the Ganges on the E. first shews itself, sup-

porting basalt on the Raj-Mahal hills; it again prevails throughout the interval between the confluence of the river Soane, and of the Jumna with the Ganges, and then stretches across the W.S.W. through the Bundelcund district to the banks of the Nerbudda, (which flows into the Gulph of Cambay as far as 79. E. long.) where it is overlaid by the extremity of the great basaltic district, of north western India, near Sagâr; the red sandstone shews itself again emerging from beneath the N.W. edge of this basaltic district, at Neemuch, near the W. source of the Chumbul, and at Bang in the valley of the Nerbudda.

In both places, as also along the central portion of the platform before described, stretching through Malwa it is frequently covered with a thin crust of grey argillaceous limestone, supposed to represent English lias but nearly destitute of organic remains, the general absence of which in the secondary rocks of India is remarkable. A primitive range extending from near Delhi to the head of the gulf of Cambay separates the secondary rocks of Malwa from those of the great basin of the Indus, but on the W. border of this ridge through Ajmeer the redstone again shews itself, containing rock salt and gypsum. (The diamond mines of Panna in Bundelcund and of the Golconda District, are situate in this formation, the matrix being a conglomerate bed with quartzose pebbles.)

III. *Tertiary rocks* are found at the foot of the first rise of of the primitive rocks of the Himalaya; in the N.W. of Bengal where the Brahmaputra issues from them at the passes of the Garrow hills: *Cerithia turritelli*, remains of crocodiles, sharks, lobsters, &c. are here found, and further E. *nummulite* limestone* prevails at Sylhet.

The great basaltic district of the N. W. of India extends from Nagpûr in the very centre of India to the W. coasts, between Goa and Bombay, occupying the whole of that coast

* The soil throughout Bengal is often occupied by deposits of clay, containing concretionary lumps of limestone, called *kankar*, probably of very recent origin; it affords the principal supply of lime in India.

to its termination at the gulf of Cambay, thence penetrating northward as far as the 24th parallel of N. lat.

So far with regard to the general view of the peninsula; I subjoin, however, some detached observations made in different parts of the country, beginning with Bengal, where in the neighbourhood of Calcutta we have ascertained, the alluvial strata in consequence of a series of boring experiments which have been at intervals carried on between 1804 and 1833, for the purposes of obtaining water; the results of those experiments are thus summed up in the report of the committee appointed by government.

After penetrating through the artificial soil of the surface, a light blue or grey-coloured sandy clay occurs, becoming gradually darker, as we descend, from impregnation with decayed vegetable matter, until it passes into a stratum of black peat, about two feet in thickness, at a depth, in Fort William, of 50 feet below the surface. This peat stratum has all the appearance of having been formed by the debris of Sundurban vegetation, once on the surface of the Delta, but gradually lowered by the compression of the sandy strata below. Assuming that the salt-water lake is five feet above the average height of the ocean, the peat stratum is about as much more below the present level of the sea. In the grey or black clay above and immediately below the peat, logs and branches of a red* and of a yellow† wood are found imbedded, in a more or less decayed state. In only one instance have bones been met with (at 28 feet), and they appear, from the report of the workmen, to belong to deer, though they were unfortunately lost before examination. A stratum of sand occurs generally above the peat clay, at from 15 to 30 feet deep, from which the wells in the town are chiefly supplied with brackish water.

Under the blue clays, at from 50 to 70 feet deep, the nodular lime-stone concretions, known by the name of *kankar*, occur, sometimes in small grains (called *bajri* in upper India), with the appearance of small land-shells: sometimes in thin

* The common *sundri* of the Sundurbans.

† The root of some climbing tree, resembling the *brisedelia*. N. Wallich.

strata of great hardness, and sometimes in the usual nodular shape. At 70 feet occurs a second seam of loose reddish sand, which yields water plentifully. It was reached also in the perforation under the lock gates at Chitpore, and there (as Mr. Jones had previously asserted from his own experiment across the river) the supply of water was proved to be derived direct from the river. From 75 to 125 feet, beds of yellow clay predominate, frequently stiff and pure, like potter's clay, but generally mixed with sand and mica. Horizontal seams of kankar also run through it, resembling exactly those of Midnapur, or of the Gangetic basin. Below 128 feet, a more sandy yellow clay prevails, which gradually changes to a grey loose sand, extending to the lowest depth yet penetrated, and becoming coarser in quality until, at 170—176 feet, it may rather be termed a quartzzy gravel, containing angular fragments of quartz and felspar larger than peas, such as are met with near the foot of a granitic range of hills. This stratum has hitherto arrested the progress of the auger; the greatest depth attained by Dr. Strong, near St. Peter's Church, being 176 feet.'

On leaving the low and level delta of the Ganges, and approaching the Rajemhal hills in the neighbourhood of Bogli-poor, we find primitive mountains composed of black whinstone in large masses. The hills at the foot of the mountains produce flint, nodules, iron ore, beautiful agates of various descriptions, quartz, crystallizations, and hard bolderstones fit for paving. The Currackpore hills are mostly composed of quartz, from which issue many hot springs, which constantly retain their heat in all seasons of the year. About Monghyr the rocks are quartz, except a few which are composed of a slaty stone of a bluish colour; the hills in Ghidore, near Mallypore, produce good lime-stone; and at Milkee the quartz is so pure that it might profitably be manufactured into glass. The Rev. Mr. Everest, in a journey from Calcutta to Ghazeepore, thus describes the geology of a part of the country he passed through:—'The isolated appearance of the hills on the new road, with the flat plains of sand, or disintegrated granite between them, forcibly suggest that, at one

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time, the former were islets in an ocean, in which were precipitated beds of their debris, and subsequently of the vegetables which grew upon them. The coal beds on the Dhammodu abound with impressions of a reed which is not found in Europe, and may be deemed characteristic of the Indian coal. Between Bancoora and the Soane there are observable not less than four protrusions of trap, not cutting through like dykes, but pushed and spread from between the strata of sandstone and gneiss, as if forced upwards under enormous pressure. The anescent gradations between the primitive rocks, granites, greenstone, basalt, and sandstone, suggest the idea of their having been kept long in contact together while in a state of igneous fusion: the direction also of the trap protrusions, which, at first, dip to the N., then are vertical, and, towards Kutcumsandy, dip to the S., render it probable that they have all a common focus under the earth, and that the whole granitic plateau of Hazareebagh, and perhaps the whole range of the Vindhya mountains, has been upheaved by their instrumentality. The granite in the neighbourhood of the trap evinces, by its crumbling state, the extensive "maladie," as the French call it, to which it has been subjected.

The same series of rocks occurs on both sides of the central plateau, extending in opposite directions—both to the vale of the Ganges and to the alluvium of Bengal:—coal is found on both sides, as is proved at Palamoo and Boglipore. The sandstones above the line are, however, more consolidated and useful. Mr. Everest supposes the hot springs, so frequent in occurrence, to be indicative of gradual combustion of the coal strata, of which there is further evidence in the loads of cinders and burnt shale met with in the mines at Ranigunj. The Rev. Gentleman ascribes the kankur formation, to the action of calcareous springs. As the Ganges is ascended towards Ghazeepore, the soil becomes more granitic, and is then succeeded by a gravel of burnt clay, argite, and cinders, resembling what is seen in other basaltic countries.

Let us now examine the Western part of the peninsula:—the elevated table land of the Deccan is* exclusively composed of rocks belonging to the flat trap formation; the hills which rise on the W. Ghauts as a base have conical or tabular forms, and are sometimes distributed in long ridges or terraces, which run E.N.E. Passing from the lower land of the Conkan into the higher part of the Deccan these tabular forms are grand and beautiful; they are generally triangular-shaped, and insulated from each other by broad and deep ravines, of which the perpendicular descent cannot be less than 1,200 or 1,500 feet: the tables are a compact basalt of a black colour, in which hornblende predominates. About Poonah, and further S.E., the rocks are generally amygdaloidal, and become lighter in colour the farther they are removed from the western entrance. This amygdaloid is in no respect different from the sandstone of extra tropical climates; it shews embedded masses of calcedony, zoolites, and green earth, and in the neighbourhood of water courses, at the depth of 25 or 30 feet below the surface, contains drusy cavities of chrystallized quartz, the appearance of which in digging wells indicates that water is near; a clayey iron ore of a dark brown colour is found at this depth, and is sometimes penetrated by circular canals which have been pervious to water; the amygdaloid rock accompanying the iron ore is similarly penetrated, but its canals are filled up by spiral pieces of white calcedony. Calcareous carbonate, denominated chunam, abounds on the banks of the water courses, and is seen occasionally in alternate strata with an impure bole, called by the natives '*geru*.' Chunam is also found in the form of calc-tuft in the beds of the nullas (ravines,) and is seen vegenous in the basaltic and amygdaloid rocks at the village of Lonud, where calcspar is also found in veins. Greenstone, heliotrope, agate, and horn-stones, are also met with, as is also rock crystal immediately on the surface of amygdaloid, or below the soil. The amygdaloid runs through the Deccan E. and W. corresponding with the hills of quartz

* According to Surgeon Bird.

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rock met with in Pádshápúr. The basalt of the Deccan occurs both in columnar and globular forms, and varies in colour from a blueish grey to a deep black, the latter capable of receiving a high degree of polish, and employed by the Hindoos for the decoration of the interior of their temples. A porphyritic aggregated rock, of a grey colour is found in beds. On the N. bank of the Ghatpurba there are entire hills having some likeness to sandstone, but in fact they are aggregated quartz rock, the structure of which is extremely hard, varying from a secondary sandstone to that of a pure quartz. This structure extends to Belgaum, from whence to Kittoor numerous pieces of iron ore (some bubbled as if suddenly cooled while in a state of fusion) are found scattered over the country indiscriminately huddled together with quartz and basalt. In Kittoor vicinity the structure of the rocks is coarse slate, composed of alternate layers of quartz and iron ore, varying in thickness up to an inch, and giving a striped appearance to the rock, which is highly magnetic when cut into a parallelogramical figure.

The geology of the country between the Kistnah and Godavery is distinguished from most other countries of a similar extent by the existence of only two formations, differing very widely in their characters, viz. *granite* and *flats-trap*, both of which give a striking and separate character to the scenery, cultivation, and vegetable productions.* After quitting the limestone on the banks of the Kistnah, granite alone is the base of the country, even to the Godavery; the principal characteristics as seen at Hyderabad (1,800 feet above the level of the sea) Maidak, Banchapilly, Koulas, &c. are—1st. The great irregularity of extent, and direction of the ranges. 2nd. The narrow but lengthened veins or dykes of trap with which it is intersected (all running nearly in the same direction), and the masses of micaceous and sienitic granite with which it is intermixed. 3rd. The predominance of the red colour arising from the red felspar which is fre-

* See Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, No. 18, for June, 1833, for Dr. Vaysey's Geological Report of Hyderabad.

quently in large crystals, giving the granite a porphyritic appearance. 4th. The concentric lamellar and distant concrete structure, the greater facility of decomposition, and the rounded appearance of decomposed masses, logging-stones, and tors. 5th. The numerous lakes or tanks spread all over the country, some of which are of very large dimensions; within 20 miles radius from the station of *Suldapur* on a misty morning 33 lakes were counted, most of them of considerable dimensions,—they are partly natural—partly artificial, and used for irrigating the surrounding lower grounds.

The other geological divisions of the country consisting of *basaltic trap*,* are interesting:—1st. From its appearance on the upper half or summit only of some of the granite hills. 2nd. Its transition from a highly chrySTALLINE compound of felspar and hornblende (the greenstone of Werner) to coarse and fine basalt, to wacken, and to iron clay. 3rd. The direction and peculiar form of the ranges, the waving form of the land in some instances, and in others its flatness and conical peaks. 4th. Its intermixture of carbonate of lime with the wacken, the basalt, and even with some of the granite in the neighbourhood of the trap. 5th. Black cotton soil, arising generally from the decomposition of the basaltic trap forming the banks of rivers, and covering their neighbouring plains. This soil is rich, and peculiarly adapted to the cultivation of dry grains, such as maize, zea, different species of panicum, &c.

The vast Himalaya mountains are at a considerable angle; the dip of the strata is to the E. of N., and their abutment to the W. of S. The formations are primary; the first towards the plains consists of vast strata of limestone lying on clay slate, crowned by slate, grey wacken, or sandstone. Beyond the limestone tract gneis, clay slate, and other schistose

* The rock in which the caves of Ellora are excavated is said to be a *basaltic trap*, which, from its green tinge and its different stages from hardness to disintegration, is supposed by natives to be full of vegetable matter, in a greater or less advance to petrification; the crumbling rock affords a natural green colour, which is ground up and employed by the natives in painting on wet chunam.

rocks occur; granite, I believe, has not been found in the outer ridges—it occurs in the mountains near the snowy range: the igneous rocks which have been concerned in the upheavement of the outer tracts are of the greenstone trap series, and are very generally dykes intersecting and rising through the regular strata. The formation of the Himalaya have a remarkable feature,—the strata are in all directions fractured or comminuted; the slaty rocks are broken into small fragments as if they had been crushed, and the limestone rocks are vesicular or cavernous, and broken into masses. The soil is principally accumulated on the N. sides, and that lying under the vegetable mould is clayey and calcareous, or limestone gravel, and from the humidity of the climate vegetation is exuberant.

Captain Gerard in crossing the Charang Pass, (17,348 feet high,) describes the neighbouring mountains to be all of blue slate naked to their tops, and exhibiting decay and barrenness in their most frightful form; in other parts the mountains are of granite, with a great mixture of white quartz both in the veins and nodules; gneis however is the only extensive rock to characterise the Himalaya formation; various mineral productions, including iron, gold, plumbago, copper, lead, antimony, sulphur, &c. have been found.

That volcanoes exist in the regions of perpetual snow is in some measure proved by the earthquake which recently occurred, as detailed at page 96; but it is remarkable that over so vast an extent of territory as Hindostan there should be so very few indications of the effects of subterranean fires;—on the contrary, traces of a universal deluge are most striking, not merely in the appearance of the land, its waving outline, and stupendous water courses, but in the fossil remains now being daily discovered; and the extensive beds of shells found on the highest grounds.

Dr. Gerard, in a letter to the Asiatic Society, describes some extensive tracts of shell formations, discovered by him in the Himalaya range at 15,000 feet above the sea; The principal shells comprised cockles, muscles, and pearl fish,

univalves, and long cylindrical productions which are most singular objects. He found them lying upon the high land at 15,500 feet, in a bed of granite and pulverized state; the adjacent rocks being at the same time of shell limestone. All the shells were turned into carbonate of lime, and many were crystallized like marble; the larger blocks, composed of a multitude of shells of different sizes, imbedded in a matrix of calcareous tufa, was broken off from a solid mass of 150 cubic feet, apparently all of the same structure: four classes of shell formation were distinguished; in particular a *fresh water* bivalve, resembling the unio, which exists in great abundance at the foot of the lower hills throughout the plains of the Doab.

In the Neermal hills,* lying N. of the Godaveri river, on the road from Hyderabad to Nâghpûr, many very perfect fossil shells, mostly bivalves, and evidently marine, have been recently discovered embedded in a volcanic rock, together with the head and vertebræ of a fish. The formations rest every where on granite, and have the usual characters of this class of hills. A series of hot springs occur holding lime in solution.

The *Soils* of Hindostan vary of course with the geological characters of the country—in the deltas of rivers, consisting of a rich alluvium—and in countries of a trap formation; a stiff clayey and tenacious surface, highly fertile when irrigated, prevails. In Lower Bengal the fertility of the soil seems to be inexhaustible, owing perhaps to its saline qualities; for several centuries it has been in unceasing cultivation as the granary of India, rudely tilled, without the application of scientific principles to agriculture, and yet there seems to be

* The Neermal Hills belong to *Sohas* range, extending from S.E. to N.W. several hundred miles. The *Lunar Lake* is 40 miles from Saulna, and is a vast crater, 500 feet deep and from four to five miles round the margin; its waters are green and bitter, supersaturated with alkaline carbonate, and containing silix in solution, as well as some iron. The mud is black, and abounding in sulphuretted hydrogen; nevertheless the water is pure, and without smell.

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no diminution in its fertility; as we ascend the Ganges the quality of the earth of course varies.

The following is an analysis of three specimens of soil from sugar cane fields; the *first* was from a village on the Sarju, 10 miles N. of the Ganges, at Buxar; the other two from the S. of the Ganges near the same place. Numbers one and two require irrigation; three was sufficiently retentive of moisture to render it unnecessary; there is a substratum of *Kankur* throughout the whole of that part of the country, and to some mixture of this earthy limestone with the surface of the soil the fertility of the latter is ascribed; the sugar cane grown yielded a rich juice.

	No.1.	No.2.	No.3.
Hygrometric moisture on drying at 212°	2.5	2.1	3.6
Carbonaceous and vegetable matter on calcination	1.8	2.1	4.0
Carb. lime from digestion in nitric acid and precipitation, by carb. pot. (No. 3 alone effervesced)	1.6	0.6	3.9
Alkaline salt dissolved	1.0	1.1	0.3
Silex and alumina	94.1	24.1	36.2
	100	100	100

The earths were not farther examined, but the two first consisted chiefly of sand; the third somewhat argillaceous. All were of a soft, fine ground alluvium, without pebbles, the analysis confirmed the quantities ascribed to each specimen.

Taking another country of different formation as a specimen, I close this section. The soils vary of the Hydrabad district, with the facility with which the rock of which they are formed decomposes; it is generally silicious. The analysis of a garden soil at the cantonment of Secundarabad which had not received much manure, shewed specific gravity 1.70. Four hundred and eighty grains contained water of absorption, 10 grains; stones consisting of quartz and felspar, 255 grains; vegetable fibre, 2; silicious sand 154=431 grains. Of minutely divided matter separated by infiltration, viz. carbonate of lime, 7; vegetable matter, 7; oxide of iron, 2.5; salt, 4; silica, 20; alumina, 8; loss, 10.5. Total. 480. The richest soil in this district, and the most

spontaneously productive is that arising from the decomposition of the clay slate. The soil of Bengal is extremely shallow, and a compound of saltish mud and sand, the former derived from the inundations of the rivers washing down the richest particles of the surface in the upper provinces, and the sand probably being the reliquies of the ocean which is here retreating from the land. The Regur or cotton ground, which extends over the greatest part of central India, is supposed to be a disintegration of trap rocks; it require neither manure nor rest, slowly absorbs moisture, and retains it long, and it has produced the most exhausting crops in yearly succession for centuries. The salpetre or nitrous soil is general in Bahar. All the soils of India have in general a powerful absorbing quality; hence, their fertile properties.

CLIMATE.—The temperature of so wide an extent of country as British India, and of such different degrees of elevation is, of course, very varied; for its exposition I shall, therefore, adopt the division pursued in the preceding sections.

BENGAL PROPER.—No tract of country inhabited by man possesses a more damp climate than this flat province, where nearly one half the year it rains incessantly, and during the other half the dews are most penetrating. (*For its effects see Population Chapter*). Mr. Hamilton thinks the dampness of the climate cannot be ascribed to any inherent moisture of the earth, but that it must originate from the want of a general system of drainage, from luxuriant vegetation and deficient ventilation; but I think it evident that the saline quality of the earth and of the plants which grow in it peculiarly fit it for the retention of the vast quantity of rain, (amounting to 70 or 80 inches) which falls in the rainy season, coming in with June and continuing to the middle or end of October. During this humid period, the range of the thermometer affords no indication of the climate, or more properly speaking oppressiveness, of the weather; it may ascend to 88. or 90. F., or descend to 79. or even 72., but the exhaustion of the European bodily frame still remains unchanged.

I have felt more sinking—more prostration of strength, in Bengal, lying on a couch beneath a *punka* with the thermometer at 77. or 80., than in riding through the forests of New Holland during the blowing of a hot wind, with the thermometer at 110. F. The reason was, that in the former the atmosphere was saturated with moisture, and in the latter almost painfully constrictive with dryness. To judge, therefore, of the effects of heat on the animal frame merely by referring to the height of the mercury in Fahrenheit's bulb, is exceedingly fallacious.

The rainy season* in Bengal is succeeded by what is termed the cold season, which lasts from November to the middle of February, when the hot season begins, and continues to the middle of June. During the cold season the air is clear, sharp and bracing in some degrees. Ther. 65. to 84. mean 72.; Bar. medium 29.96.

The commencement of the hot season in the lower parts of the province is almost intolerable even to a native of the country; men and beasts have been known to fall dead in the streets of Calcutta in April and May, the sun's fervid rays, so advantageous to the farmer and shepherd, seem to penetrate to the very marrow, while not a cloud appears in the heavens to check his burning beams. When the monsoon is on the eve of changing, the very air feels as it were

* Influence of the moon in producing rain (Calcutta) in each year.

	First 4 months in each year.		For each year.	
	Inches of rain within 7 days of new moon.	Inches of beyond that period.	No. of rainy days within 7 days of new moon.	No. of rainy days beyond that period.
1826	1.59	0.68	3	4
1827	1.66	1.00	3	3
1828	0.16	1.32	1	5
1829	1.72	0.00	3	0
1830	0.48	0.71	0	3
1831	0.53	1.85	2	4
1832	4.66	2.25	6	2
1833	3.10	1.00	5	3
Total	25.31	9.24	45	23

N.B. I give this table as illustrative of facts adduced in reference to the same subject in the Northern Hemisphere. (See Vol. IV.)

From these observations, as well as others, made by the Rev. R. Everest, it appears that rain fell most abundantly on the 2nd, 5th, 6th, and 7th days before the new moon, and the 6th day after it.

thick, respiration is laborious and all animated nature languishes, the oppressiveness of the night being nearly as great as that of the day. The following is a—

Meteorological Register for Calcutta during the Year 1833 (Assay Office).

	Barometer, reduced to 32. F.				Temperature of air in an open Viranda.				Hair Hygrometer.		Rain. Inches.	Wind.	Weather.
	8 A. M.	10 A. M.	4 P. M.	10 P. M.	Minimum. 5 P. M.	10 A. M.	Regulated Maximum.	10 P. M.	10 A. M.	4 P. M.			
January..	30.696	.696	.970	.950	61.1	66.6	81.3	66.4	83	78	0.05	Northerly.	Fine, clear & dry.
February..	.938	.998	.944	.981	67.5	74.9	89.5	71.5	86	78	0.48	Light airs.	Generally fine.
March ..	30.768	.880	.787	.820	75.0	82.3	91.7	77.6	90	80	1.77	S. (monsoon)	Squally, hazy.
April698	.705	.680	.690	78.9	87.5	97.3	80.9	92	83	3.53	Ditto.	Frequent storms.
May.....	.606	.617	.645	.658	86.9	87.5	94.9	83	95	90	13.86	Variable.	Oppressive heat.
June.....	30.511	.509	.485	.559	84.3	90.5	95.8	85.1	92.5	82.2	3.04	Ditto.	Cool, with rain.
July.....	.484	.533	.454	.533	81.3	86.3	91.3	83	95.4	84.0	13.44	Do. & calm.	Moderately rainy.
August ..	30.548	.590	.589	.583	81.9	85.0	90.3	80.5	95.0	83.0	8.15	Ditto.	Ditto.
September	30.598	.643	.648	.618	81.1	86.3	90.5	83.6	98	92	6.19	S. and E.	Squally; thunder.
October ..	.790	.860	.781	.819	78.8	85.3	93.5	80.7	91	87	3.68	Calm.	Fine weather.
November	30.643	30.620	.928	.973	76.3	79.8	89.3	74.7	88	74	0.66	Light breeze	Steadily fine.
December	30.937	.614	.608	.617	63.9	71.7	83.3	66.7	89.4	85.7	3.57	Ditto.	Sharp and cold.

On the N. E. frontier of Bengal, where the country begins to be elevated above the level of the sea, the climate, when the land is cleared, is described to be very fine: indeed a sanatorium has been established at Churra Poonjee in the Kossya hills, situated about four marches distant from Sylhet, and the same N. from Assam; a detachment of sick artillery sent thither speedily recovered health, and the station has the advantage of being an important military position as well as a delightful sanatorium: two spots are described as exceedingly eligible for cantonments. One a fine plain, extending from the hill Chillingdes eastward to Nongkreem, and presenting a surface of about four or five square miles, unbroken by any undulation which could not be easily rendered practicable for wheeled carriages. The altitude is probably about 6,800 feet, and the climate so moderate, that in May woollen clothes are worn by all the Europeans from choice. In winter there are frosts, but it does not appear that snow ever falls. The second spot is the plain, about three miles S. of Nogundee, crossed by the road between that place and Sunareem. This possesses all the advantages of the former,

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but is probably a little lower, though not so much so as to be perceptibly warmer; and the access from this spot to Pundua is easier, besides enjoying obvious advantages of health and comfort, as crops in either of these positions would be prepared on emergency to afford a speedy and effectual support to any part of the N.E. frontier.

Nuncklow station in the Kossya hills (the climate of which is now so much appreciated) is in N. lat. 25.40.30., E. long. 91.30., and 4,550 feet above the level of the sea; it is described to be one of the loveliest spots in the world—more like a gentleman's demesne in England than what India is so erroneously supposed to be—all swamps or sand. The thermometer in May ranges from 67. to 75., in June from 68. to 72. and frost and ice exist in winter.

Arracan.—The prevailing winds are two monsoons as in Bengal, but owing to local circumstances the S. W. blows more frequently from the S., and the N. E. more to the W. of N. The *changes* of the monsoon are also not so distinctly marked; the S. W. is of the longest duration, beginning in April and ending in November. Our troops suffered much in Arracan during the Burmese war, but there is no doubt that as cultivation extends, the climate of Arracan will be found far superior to that of Lower Bengal. The principal rainy months are May, June, and July—70 inches fall in June and 59 in July.

Bahar.—The climate is divided into three seasons as in Bengal, but the intensity of the heat and moisture is considerably mitigated; from its elevation above the level of the sea, the cold season is more extended in duration and more frigid.

Tirhoot, a district of Bahar, between 27° and 28° N. lat. extending in a S. E. direction 160 miles, and bounded to the N. by a lofty chain of mountains separating it from the alpine kingdom of Nepaul, is placed in a happy medium free from the fogs of Bengal and the dry parching winds of the N. W. provinces. The soil is luxuriantly fertile, and almost every

European fruit and vegetable is produced in perfection and in abundance in Tirhoot. The following shews the—

Barometrical Pressure and Temperature at Tirhoot.*

	Barometer, at 32° (inches.)			Thermometer (degrees.)				Wind.
	Average Monthly Altitude.	Monthly deviation from Annual Mean.	Mean Monthly diurnal Oscillation.	Average height in the house.	Mean of daily extremes in open air.	Monthly deviation from Annual Mean.	Mean diurnal range.	
January ...	29.698	+ .308	.111	60.6	60.4	-17.6	19.0	E. and W.
February..	.575	+ .165	.101	66.4	66.7	-11.3	23.2	W.
March479	+ .089	.087	76.3	76.1	- 1.9	23.9	W.
April.....	.369	- .021	.089	81.6	85.2	+ 7.2	24.1	W. and E.
May522	- .138	.071	85.3	89.2	+ 7.3	19.5	E.
June146	- .244	.068	86.0	86.7	+11.2	19.1	E.
July125	- .265	.060	84.6	84.5	+ 8.7	12.3	E.
August173	- .217	.070	83.2	85.0	+ 6.5	9.8	E.
September	.237	- .153	.085	84.3	81.5	+ 7.0	10.5	E.
October445	+ .055	.093	81.5	73.8	+ 3.5	14.7	E.
November	.570	+ .080	.090	78.4	—	- 4.2	21.9	E.
December	.614	+ .224	.080	63.6	61.6	-16.4	17.7	W.
Mean . . .	29.390	range .573	.084	77.5	78.0	range 28.8	17.9	

The *Western provinces* under the Bengal Presidency, viz. Allahabad, Agra, Delhi, &c. are temperate, but hot winds blow during a part of the warm season, when the wealthier natives sometimes resort to underground habitations to escape their torrifying effects.

The climate of central India is mild, and approaches much to that of the S. parts of Europe, or to the table land of Spain; although the mercury may rise to 100. during the day, the nights are bland and invigorating.

* The climate of Benares is pretty similar to that of Tirhoot.

The English dominions among the hills and along the Kumaon province are blessed with a delicious climate, the rigours of the winter solstice being moderated by great solar radiation, while the summer heats are tempered by the contiguous eternal snow-topped Himalaya. Indeed, during the summer season, the vicinity of the frozen regions causes a continued current of atmosphere, which sets in daily as regularly as a sea breeze on a tropical shore, and with a nearly similar invigorating freshness. At Saharunpoor, in 30° lat. and 1,000 feet above the sea, the climate is similar to the southern parts of Europe; the mean temperature throughout the year is about 73., and monthly mean temperature at Saharunpoor, (1,000 feet above the sea).

Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
52°	55°	67°	78°	85°	90°	85°	83°	79°	74°	64°	55°

At Mussoorri (7,000 feet high).

39	40	52	60	72	73	66	65	61	60	52	40
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Mr. Trail thus describes the climate of the Bhot mehals (districts) of the Kumaon territory.—During full half the year, the surface is wholly covered with snow, beginning to fall about the end of September, and continuing to accumulate to the beginning of April. In open and level situations, where the bed of snow is in some years 12 feet deep, it is dissipated early in June; in the hollows not till the middle of July. During the five months of absence of snow, the thermometer ranges at sun-rise from 40. to 55., and at mid-day from 65. to 75. in the shade, and from 90. to 110. in the sun. At *Hawil Bagh* in Kumaon, 3,887 feet above the sea, the range of the thermometer during the year was

	7 A.M.	2 P.M.		7 A.M.	2 P.M.		7 A.M.	2 P.M.		7 A.M.	2 P.M.
Jan.	35°	47°	April	54°	66°	July	72°	78°	Oct.	55°	69°
Feb.	37	55	May	57	73	Aug.	72	79	Nov.	42	60
March	46	61	June	73	76	Sep.	65	67	Dec.	34	52

The heat of course diminishes as the height increases, and at Almora town in 29.30. (5,400 feet high) the difference is 2. or 3. less than the above average. During the cold season, on the contrary, from the greater evaporation, the thermo-

meter before sunrise is always lowest in the vallies, and the frost more intense than on the hills of moderate height (that is below 7,000 feet) while at noon the sun is more powerful. The extremes in 24 hours have been known 18. and 51. The snow does not fall equally every year; the natives fix on every third year as one of heavy snow, but in general it does not lie long, except on the mountain tops and ridges. On the Ghagar range between Almora and the plains, snow remains so late as the month of May. At Masuri, 6 to 7,000 feet high, the mean animal heat is only 57. F.; indeed at 4,000 feet elevation the hot winds cease, and vegetation assumes a European character. The quantity of rain falling at Almora is from 40 to 50 inches per annum.

Of the British territories in Berar we know as I have before said, little or nothing certain; dense jungles and foaming cataracts impede the steps of the meteorological inquirer.

Orissa, or more properly speaking Cuttack, enjoys in the neighbourhood of the sea a refreshing breeze. Pooree on the coast is considered by Dr. Brander the Montpellier of Bengal, the climate being less moist, and a refreshing sea-breeze blowing continually from March to July; it is thus also with the Ultra Gangetic territories, viz. Assam, Tavoy, Ye, Tenasserim, &c., where the high lands are cool and not unsuited even to European constitutions, when the jungle has been cleared. The Cachar territory recently acquired is much praised by Captain Fisher, who says—'It is as sweet a country as I can well imagine, and it exceeds in fertility almost any country in India, although enjoying the very great advantage of being above inundations; it is therefore not only adapted to a rice crop, but to almost all other species of produce, and I should specify *sugar* as the one best adapted to the soil and climate. I have traversed the greater part of the cultivated grounds, or rather seen portions of the cultivation in all parts, and I cannot speak too highly of the standing rice crop, which is luxuriant and heavy, standing in most parts *five feet* above the ground, which is perfectly dry. Any one possessed of half a dozen thousand rupees, would

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here acquire for himself a princely domain, and before long would secure for his family a very handsome income. I have been out the greater part of every day, and find the climate very delightful; the heat is bearable, and the cold never intolerable. I am persuaded that, with good sense and better culture, these hills would yield an abundant crop of cotton; and it is here, if any where, that the coffee would succeed, as there are neither hot winds nor inundation. I have procured the Naga receipt for rice-beer, which is regularly malted; the Nagas speak of the beer as both meat and drink. The mountains are favourable to the growth, not only of cotton, but of various plants and grains. Perhaps no country in Asia presents greater variety of vegetable productions; from the oak and vine to the rattan and strawberry; such, indeed, is the fertility of the soil at every altitude, that it seems likely every plant, whether of European or Asiatic origin, could be successfully raised on the Cachar hills.

SOUTHERN INDIA.—The climate is influenced by the N. E. and S. W. monsoons, and by the elevation of the country, the low lands being extremely hot, with dense exhalations, and the upper dry, cool and healthy, as on the Mysore table land. The thermometer ranges in the Carnatic higher than in Bengal (to 100. and 106. F.), but the moisture or evaporation not being so great, the heat is less severely felt; but on the other hand, the cold season is of very short duration.

THE SETTING IN OF THE MONSOON AT MADRAS has been often described. On the 15th of October, the flag-staff is struck, as a signal for all vessels to leave the roads, lest they should be overtaken by the monsoon. The premonitory symptoms of the approaching 'war of elements' are small fleecy clouds appearing, at intervals, to rise from the horizon, and to dissipate, in a thin and almost imperceptible vapour, over the deep blue of the still bright sky. A slight haze upon the distant waters, seems gradually to thicken, although not to a density sufficient to refract the rays of the sun, which still flood the broad sea, with one unvarying mass of glowing light. A sensation of suffocating heat in the at-

mosphere, oppresses the lungs and saddens the spirits. Towards the afternoon, the aspect of the sky begins to change; the horizon gathers blackness,—masses of heavy clouds appear to rise from the sea, black and portentous, accompanied by sudden gusts of wind, succeeded by an intense, death-like stillness, as if the air were in a state of utter stagnation, and its vital properties arrested. Meanwhile, the lower circle of the Heavens are of a deep brassy red; from the partial reflection of the setting sunbeams upon the thick clouds, which every where overspread it. The atmosphere becomes condensed almost to the thickness of a mist—increased by the thin spray scattered over the land, from the sea, by the violence of the increasing gales. The rain now begins to fall in sheeted masses, and the wind to howl more continuously; which, mingling with the roaring of the surf, produces a tumultuous union of sounds, perfectly deafening. The pale lightning streaming from the clouds in broad sheets of flame, appears to encircle the Heavens, as if every element had been converted into fire, and the world was on the eve of a general conflagration; whilst the thunder peal instantly following, is like the explosion of a gunpowder magazine, or the discharge of artillery in the gorge of a mountain, where the repercussion of surrounding hills multiplies, with terrific energy, its deep and astounding echoes. The Heavens seem to be one vast reservoir of flame, propelled from its voluminous bed by some invisible but omnipotent agency, and threatening to fling its fiery ruin upon every thing around. In some parts, however, of the pitchy vapour by which the skies are completely overspread, the lightning is seen only occasionally to glimmer in faint streaks of light, as if struggling, but unable to escape from its prison, igniting, but too weak to burst, the impervious bosom of those capacious magazines, in which it was at once engendered and pent up. So heavy and continuous is the rain, that scarcely any thing, save those vivid bursts of light which nothing can arrest or resist, is perceptible through it. The surf, raised by the wind, and scattered in thin billows of foam, over the

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esplanade, extends several hundred yards from the beach. Fish upwards of three inches long, are found upon the flat roofs of houses in the town, during the prevalence of the monsoon—either blown from the sea, by the violence of the gales, or taken up in the water spouts, which are very prevalent in this tempestuous season. It is, however, these violent conflicts of the aerial elements that a tropical atmosphere is purified and rendered, not merely respirable, but absolutely delicious when the storm has subsided.

In Travancore, owing to the proximity of the ocean, and the waters on either side of the peninsular promontory, the climate is moist but not oppressive, as the sea breeze blows from one quarter or another the whole year round.

The climate of the Neilgherry hills resembles in the higher parts that of the great intertropical plateaus of America, which have become the centres of civilization in the new hemisphere, with the additional advantage, that it is not subject to an inconvenience attending the latter, namely, the sudden changes, and cold piercing winds occasioned by the variety of lofty mountains. The mean temperature at *Ootacamund* is rather more than that of London, but the annual range is very small, and the heat never sufficient to bring the more delicate European fruits to perfection. At the height of that station, Dr. Christie observes, the cultivation of corn and vegetables, can alone be expected to succeed; but lower down, at an elevation of from 5,000 to 6,000 feet, the valleys enjoy the delicious climate of Italy. It may here be reckoned, as applicable to all India, that the climate of the eastern as well as of the western hemisphere, is undergoing a remarkable change, one of the proofs of which is the length of *twilight* now visible and increasing in India, where none was formerly observed. Indian twilights are, however, now nearly as distinct as the European interval between sunset and darkness.

At Coimbatore the temperature during the cold season is minimum 31. F. maximum 59. F.; in April 65. in May 64. (a fuller detail is given at page 133) there are no sultry nights, a blanket being agreeable at all seasons of the year, the Neilgherries are indeed remarkable, not merely for the mildness

of the climate, but also for its equability; the air is at all times perfectly clear, being beyond the zone of clouds and mists, yet the influence of both monsoons is felt; the elasticity of the atmosphere is evidenced by the remarkable distance within which sound is heard, and the lightness and buoyancy of the animal spirits, indeed it is an ordinary custom with the natives, when any thing tickles their fancy, to retire to a sequestered spot, cast themselves on a verdant bank, and there yield to the delightful enjoyment of a long continued burst of laughter, which we sombre mortals would find it difficult to rival, even with Momus Matthews before us.

Bangalore (lat. 12.57. N. long. 77.38. E.) is one of the healthiest and gayest stations in India, and remarkable for the wholesomeness of its atmosphere. The thermometer seldom rises above 82. or falls below 56. F. The vine and cypress grow luxuriantly; apple and peach trees yield delicious fruit, and strawberries are raised in the principal gardens. The monsoons, which sometimes deluge the Malabar and Coromandel coasts, have their force broken by the lofty Ghauts, and the *tableau* of Mysore (on which Bangalore is situate) is constantly refreshed by genial showers, which preserve the temperature of the air, and the lovely verdure of the fields throughout the entire year.

The Malabar and Canara coasts are not unhealthy (tropically speaking) except in the marshes beneath the Ghauts, where the miasm, as in all similarly situated places, is very deleterious.

In the Mahratta country, the N. western parts towards the Ghaut mountains, which attract the clouds from the Indian ocean, are visited with profuse rain, which sometimes continues three or four weeks without intermission, while to the S. and E., perhaps not 30 miles distant, not a drop of rain has fallen during the same period.

As we proceed to the N. and W. peninsula, the climate approaches to that described under the western provinces of the Bengal Presidency, except in the neighbourhood of the sea. In Guzerat the westerly winds are burning hot in May, June and July:—Candeish has a luxurious climate like Malwah;

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and Poonah, a central station in Upper India, 2,500 feet above the level of the sea, 100 miles from Bombay and 75 miles from the nearest sea coast, is delightfully situate within 30 miles of the Ghauts.

On the whole it may be said, that the climate of the British possessions on the continent of Asia, is essentially of a tropical nature, though varying in intensity, and sometimes verging into that of the temperate zone, either by reason of the peculiarities of the soil, or its elevation above the level of the sea. The following table affords a comparative view of the monthly and yearly mean temperature of the air of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and the Neilghery mountains, (8,000 feet high) compared with the temperature of the city of London, and the fall of rain in England.

	Calcutta.		Bombay.		Madras.		Neilgheries.			London.		
	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Monthly Means.		Average of rain for two years.	Mean Max.	Mean Min.	Average of rain for two years.
							6 A.M.	3 P.M.				
	3 P.M.	6 A.M.	4 P.M.	11 A.M.			Inches.				Inches.	
Jan....	75.1	65.	78	70	89.2	74.1	45½	57½	1.17	39.6	32.6	1.483
Feb....	80.	67.	78	70	84.5	73.8	45½	59½	0	42.4	33.7	.740
March...	86.1	68.	81	80	87.6	78.7	58	68	2.47	50.1	39.7	1.440
April...	95.1	79.1	84	83	92.	84.1	58	63½	3.10	37.7	42.2	1.796
May....	97.1	89.1	85	85	94.9	85.1	57	63½	5.21	35.9	45.1	1.853
June....	88.	78.	86	85	90.5	84.2	57½	60	5.25	39.4	48.1	1.850
July....	84.1	78.1	81	81	92.6	85.3	52½	61½	10.37	39.3	52.2	2.516
August.	86.2	79.3	84	84	89.9	83.1	57	60½	11.77	70.1	53.9	1.483
Sept....	86.	78.	80	79	89.7	83.3	54½	60½	2.40	65.6	50.1	2.193
October	89.2	76.1	85	84	87.8	82.4	50½	62	7.41	55.7	43.1	2.973
Nov....	78.	65.2	85	84	84.3	80.1	50½	61½	10.66	47.5	38.3	2.400
Dec....	75.	59.	81	80	80.2	76.	46½	60	3.37	42.3	35.4	2.426
Annual Means.	85.3	73.4	82.4	81.5	87.9	80.8	52½	61	63.88	56.1	42.5	

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—Vegetation partakes of the general features of a country, so varied in aspect as that just now described, and it is so extensive, beautiful, indeed magnificent, as to baffle attempts at a brief delineation. The sea coast border of our Indian territories, as in other parts of the tropical world, is covered with the graceful and almost indispensable cocoa palm, which fortunately for man, grows to luxuriance in sandy and barren spots, where scarcely any other valuable plant would thrive. The forest trees of India

are not to be surpassed in any country, for superbness and number; their diversity and worth is as yet little known in England, and they cover a great part of the country, from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya. Among them are oak, teak, pine, fir, walnut, jack, chesnut, cedar, ebony, sissoo, hornbeam, saul, yew, poon, mango, jarrool, &c. On the Kumaon range, the pine and arbor vitæ trees are not unfrequently seen with trunks of 25 feet in circumference, and 120 feet high, without a branch! The chief rice country of India is Bengal, which produces a surplus of this staple of life; but there are smaller quantities of rice cultivated in other parts (particularly in the western provinces) which are far superior in quality to that of Bengal. The Madras territories do not produce sufficient rice for home consumption, a great extent of waste land is now, however, being brought into cultivation, and the inferior sorts of grain are giving place to rice. The wheat grown in the northern and western provinces is of excellent quality, and a trade is now springing up between Liverpool and Calcutta, in the exportation of flour from the latter place, which is used and preferred in England for various manufactures.* The wheat of Bareilly is particularly fine, and the bread made therefrom, equal, if not superior to any met with in England. The seed was originally introduced (it is said), by Mr. Hawkins, and it is now generally cultivated. Wheat, the produce of the midland district of Kumaon, sells at Almora, at the rate of one rupee the 25 seirs, or 2s. for fifty pounds weight. The barley of the N.W. provinces is also good, and the Hindoos of the Himalaya range distil from it a spirit, not much inferior to Irish potheen.

The cultivation of potatoes (not the sweet potatoe found in almost every tropical country) is proceeding with unexampled rapidity; they are much liked by the natives, even small and watery, as was their produce in Bengal until of late, when more care was adopted in the use of fresh European

* The quantity of wheat and wheat flour exported from India to England, in 1832, was 9,853 quarters.

seed; and at no distant period, this wonderful root bids fair to effect a singular revolution in the cultivation of the soil of Hindostan.

In the more Eastern and Southern provinces, the fruits are principally tropical; but in the N.W. provinces apples, pears, grapes, walnuts, strawberries, raspberries, and other fruits of temperate climates, are now being reared in abundance (the grapes of Malwa have long been celebrated); since the formation of agricultural societies at Calcutta, Bombay, Agra, &c. a marked improvement has taken place among the culinary vegetables; and turnips, parsnips, onions, carrots, peas, beans, brocoli, spinage, radishes, cabbage of every variety, cauliflowers, artichokes, cucumbers, &c., now crowd the bazars during their respective seasons: a spirit of emulation has also grown up among the native gardeners, which promises much improvement. A witness before Parliament, in 1832, thus speaks of the desire of the native to improve and extend cultivation, when encouraged by the natural and wholesome stimulus of individual profit:—

‘ You have only to insure a profit to the cultivator, whatever may be the crop, and the cultivation will be undertaken; for instance, that of the potatoe, in which, extraordinary as it may appear, the first experiments by the Europeans failed, but those by the natives were successful. The cultivation of the potatoe is now in the district of Furrackabad, carried to an extent that is scarcely to be believed. I may state as an example in proof, that the fine class of cultivators alluded to, grow on the same land a crop of indigo, which they cut early in the rains, and then prepare the lands for potatoes, and that the two crops will give a return of about 87 rupees per common begah of the country.* I think the men I now allude to would do anything possible in respect to cultivation. They

* A begah is about one-third of an acre, so that taking three times 87 rupees at 2s. the rupee, it would be a return of produce from one acre of ground to the amount of £26. This simple fact shews how British India would prosper if encouragement were given to its agricultural products.

will give any price for the manure from the stable: it is with the greatest difficulty that people in the town keep manure from them.

On the Neilgheries, European plants and flowers, viz.—the red and white honeysuckle, white and red jasmín, myrtle, violet, balsam, marygold, geranium, and daisy are in fine perfection; as are also red and white raspberries, strawberries, hill-gooseberries, and currants, &c. The indigenous fruits of the Kumaon country are pears, gooseberries, currants (red and white), raspberries, and strawberries, none of which receive culture; on the Kossya, or Cossya Hills, in the neighbourhood of Sylhet, apples, pears, plums, straw, rasp, and blackberries abound; and the ever verdant sod is carpeted with daisies—the whole country presenting the appearance of an undulating park of extremely beautiful scenery. In Kumaon, the apple, pear, apricot, cherry, walnut, pomegranate, mulberry, peach, mango, guava, orange, lemon, citron, plantain, vine, strawberry (tree and herb), rasp, black, barberry, currants, gooseberries, &c. &c., all arrive at perfection, as also all European vegetables and flowers.

The sugar cane grows luxuriantly in most parts, but the manufacture of sugar is principally confined to Bengal and Benares: the grain of the latter sugar is large, bright, and sparkling, like the Mauritius sugar: that of Bengal has a whitish, sandy appearance, and a delicate, rather sickly, flavour, in consequence of the repeated fermentations which it undergoes in the tedious process of native manufacture; it is, however, preferred by the French confectioners in Europe, by reason of its possessing but little acidity.

The coffee of the Southern parts of the peninsula (lower Benga. is perhaps unsuited for it*) is excellent, and it might

* Coffee thrives best in a mild and moist temperature, in black, deep, arable ground, which retains the humidity well, and in the vicinity of forests and rivulets, rather shaded from the too intense heat of the sun. Cold and hard argillaceous earths, and also the sandy clay that lies on a bed of marl, does not suit the coffee plant, which requires a light and nourishing soil, free light and air, without too much exposure to the sun.

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be sent in the greatest abundance to England, but for the extra duties levied on it for the support of the West India interest; even the tobacco of Hindostan which grows every where luxuriantly, and in many places has an exquisite aroma, is shut out from the home market by prohibitory duties. Opium forms one of the most valuable productions of Bengal, Behar and Malwa, and its yearly extending consumption in China (*vide Chapter on Commerce*), render it as valuable in a financial as in a mercantile or agricultural point of view.

Indigo is only cultivated for manufacture to any extent in Bengal, Behar, and the N. W. provinces, viz. Oude, Allahabad, Agra, &c.* The Bengal is the finest, probably not owing to any superior skill in the manufacture (for Europeans are employed in the upper as well as in the lower provinces), but to the superior richness, and perhaps saline quality of the soil in which the plant delights most to vegetate.

The tobacco lands of Guzerat, are stated by English witnesses to be 'the cleanest and best farmed lands they ever saw.' Some sorts cultivated have a fine aroma.

Cotton, whether of the creeper, perennial or forest tree, (*Bombax Ceiba*) every where abounds, but sufficient care has not been bestowed on the growth, so as to render it a triennial instead of an annual, or in the picking and cleaning of it for exportation, although the natives sedulously attend to the same when preparing it for their own manufacture. E. I. cotton receives a brighter dye and retains it longer than American cotton; the Swiss and German cottons (so

* The different parts of the country in which the plant is cultivated may be seen by the following return of the indigo brought into Calcutta for the season of 1833:—From Furruckabad and Western Provinces, maunds, 3,748; Allahabad, Mirzapore, and Benares, 2,281; Juanpore, 463; Ghazepore, 1,876; Chupra and Tirhoot, 15,264; Patna, Buxar, and Dinapoor, 3,024; Purneah, 3,741; Monghyr and Boglipoor, 3,181; Malda, 1,919; Rajshye, Nattore, Dinajipore, 3,930; Rungpore, 616; Mymensing, 296; Dacca and Jelapore, 1,695; Jessore and Furridpore, 20,449; Moorshedabad, 598; Nuddea and Kishnagur, 16,426; Burdwan, Bancoorah, and Burbhom, 4,788; Hooghly, and 24 Pergunnahs, 3,348; Balasore, Midnapore and Cuttack, 156. Total, 93,180 maunds.

superior to the Lancashire cloths) are made from E. I. cotton chiefly. The Dacca cotton is unequalled,* and the 'sea island cotton' from Saugur island at the mouth of the Hooghly, promises to be a valuable article of export.

The E. I. Company's Government have of late years made several attempts for the extensive introduction of the cotton plant into Guzerat, which seems well adapted for its culture. A farm has been established by the Company at the town of Broach, and the benefits resulting from improved cultivation, and greater care in the gathering and cleaning of the cotton demonstrated to the people.

Roses are cultivated to an immense extent at Ghazeepore and other places, for the purpose of manufacturing rose-water, (a sovereign remedy for ills with the natives) and otto or attar of roses, which requires 200,000 roses to produce the weight of a single rupee in attar.

Mr. Forbes Royle in the interesting and valuable Botanical Indian work which he is now preparing justly observes,—In the peninsula of India and in the neighbouring island of Ceylon, we have a climate capable of producing cinnamon, cassia, pepper, and cardamoms. The *coffee* grown on the Malabar coast is of so superior a quality as to be taken to

* The mode of manufacturing very fine Dacca muslins is thus minutely described by Mr. Walters. 'The division of labour was carried to a great extent in the manufacture of fine muslins. In spinning the very fine thread, more especially, a great degree of skill was attained. It was spun with the fingers on a *tukwah*, or fine steel spindle, by young women, who could only work during the early part of the morning, while the dew was on the ground; for such was the extreme tenuity of the fibre, that it would not bear manipulation after the sun had risen. One ruttee of cotton could thus be spun into a thread 80 cubits long, which was sold by the spinners at one rupee eight annas per sicca weight. The *ruffooghurs*, or darners, were also particularly skilful. They could remove an entire thread from a piece of muslin, and replace it by one of a finer texture. The cotton used for the finest thread was grown in the immediate neighbourhood of Dacca; more especially about Sunergong. Its fibre is too short, however, to admit of its being worked up by any except that most wonderful of all machines—the human hand. The art of making the very fine muslin fabrics is now lost,—and pity it is that it should be so.'

Arabia and re-exported as Mocha coffee. The Tinnivelly *senna* brings the highest price in the London market, and there is little doubt that many other valuable products of tropical countries may be acclimated, particularly as several are already in a flourishing condition in the Botanic Garden at Calcutta, such as the cocoa and nutmeg, as well as the camphor, pimento, cajeput, and cashew nut trees. In the Neilgheries a favourite site might, without doubt, be found for the *Cinchona* (Peruvian bark) as well as for the different kinds of *Ipecacuanha*, and as the potatoe has been introduced into almost every part of India, equal success and considerable benefit would probably result from introducing the several kinds of *arracacha*, so much prized for their roots as food by the natives of South America.

Along the coast of the Bay of Bengal the cocoa and areca nut palms flourish and abound, and the continent every where produces indigo, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and opium. The first hardly of any note as an Indian product 30 years ago, is now imported in the largest quantities into England; the cotton is indigenous to India, many provinces seem peculiarly adapted for its culture, particularly Malwa and those to the N.W. The tobacco brought home by Dr. Wallich from Martaban, was pronounced by competent judges to be equal to the best from America: Patna opium is preferred in China, and that of Malwa bids fair to rival Turkey opium in the European market. *The sugar cane is cultivated in every part of India*, but very inferior sugar has hitherto been produced: lately, however, a manufactory has been established near Calna, (Burdwan) a new mine opened in the Burdwan coal formation, and very superior specimens of sugar sent home. Here the occurrence of sugar at the surface of the soil, and coal only a few feet below it, in a country where labour is so cheap, ought to be attended with decidedly favourable results. If from these we turn our attention to other products we shall still see that there are great capabilities every where, we should at least expect them, for though India is generally looked upon as a rice country, *wheat* is imported into and sold at a profit

in England, from the northern provinces, and *flour* for making starch, is now one of the annual exports from Calcutta. Of dyes, medicinal drugs, resins, and gums, and oils,* there are great varieties, and more might be successfully introduced. Timber of every kind is every where abundant, the coasts producing teak, ebony, and many others; the interior saul, sissou, bamboos, and rattans, while a great variety of plants yield excellent materials for cordage. The northern and hill provinces grow at one season European grains, and at another those which are peculiar to the tropics, and many perennials of both these climates succeed equally well in the N.

* A recent number of the Asiatic Journal contains the following notice of a new vegetable oil, which has appeared in the Calcutta market, and which promises to prove a valuable article of trade:—

'This oil is in general use among the natives for mixing with colours, and is chiefly imported from Chittagong; but it would appear, on Major Burney's authority, to be still more abundantly produced in the Tavoy district, and at much less cost; the bazaar price in Calcutta averaging about nine or ten rupees per maud (82 lbs.); whereas, at Tavoy, it may be procured at about one-fourth that price. Both in India and in England it has been found to be a good substitute for linseed oil for outside work, especially in light colours, being worth for this purpose about £12 to £15 per ton. Mr. Dowie, a currier of Edinburgh, read a paper before the Edinburgh Society of Arts, on the mode of applying this vegetable oil alone, or mixed with tallow, to the preparation of leather for shoes, and he considers it as preferable to fish oil. This application is quite new; and at Mr. Swinton's suggestions, some similar trials have since been made in Calcutta, by Mackenzie and Macfarlan, with success. The leather absorbs a great deal of the oil, and the specimens presented to the Society appear to be very soft and tough.

'Major Burney describes the tree whence the *gargan* oil is extracted as forming large forests in Tavoy, growing to a great height and size; its native name is *kaniyen*. The flag-staff at Moulmein, 92 feet high, is formed of a single kaniyen tree. Mr. Maingy says, that the oil is much improved by boiling, which gives it drying properties; he has often used it for boots, and has found it excellent in preparing tarpauling. The inhabitants of Tavoy and Mergui do not burn earth oil like other Burmese, but torches made of this wood-oil touch-wood. The imports into Calcutta for the last three years are as follow:—In 1829-30, Br. mds. 759, average price, 7 8. 1830-31, 914, 6 4. 1831-32, 1,708, 7 2.'

provinces. In the hill provinces the forests are formed of oaks and pines;* the hill-men make their strongest ropes for crossing rivers with *hemp* which every where abounds, and is of the finest quality. Opium, rhubarb, and turpentine, form articles of commerce as well as musk, Thibet wool, and borax, from the other kingdoms of Nature. Somewhere in the vallies at the foot of these hills, or at moderate elevations, the more generally useful productions of European countries might be successfully introduced, as the *olive* and *hop*, the latter would be particularly beneficial, as a brewery has been established in the hills, where the climate is excellent. Here also there is considerable prospect of success in the cultivation of the *tea plant*.'

'In the cold seasons,' Mr. Royle continues, 'there are cultivated (about Saharunpore) of *gramina*, wheat, barley, oats, and millet; of the *leguminae*, peas, beans, vetch, tares, chick, and pigeon-peas; of *cruciferae*, a species of *sinapis* (mustard) and allied genera cultivated for oil seeds, and of the *umbelliferae*, the carrot, coriander, cummin, a species of *ptychotis* and *fennicullium pannorium*, as well as of other tribes, tobacco, flax, safflower, and succory. Almost all the esculent vegetables of Europe succeed remarkably well in the cold season in India. In the RAINY SEASON, a totally different set of plants engage the agriculturist's attention, as rice, cotton, indigo, maize: *holcus sorghum*, species of *panicum*, *paspalum*, and *elusineae*, of *leguminae*, species of *phaseolus* and *dolichos*. Many of the *cucurbitaceae* as well as *sepanum* and the species of *solanum* for their esculent fruit.' In another place this scientific Botanist observes, 'as we have seen with perennials of other kinds so is it with those yielding fruit of an edible nature; many, both of tropical and temperate climes succeed, nearly equally well in the northern parts of India; so that taking Saharunpoor garden (lat. 30. N. long. 77.32. elevation

* The vegetation of the Kumaon ridge of the Himalayan Mountains is of course very different from that of the plains of Hindostan; the agricultural products are—buck-wheat, barley and wheat, and a species of amaran-

above the sea 1,000 feet, and 1,000 miles N.W. of Calcutta) as an example, we have collected in one place and naturalized in the *open air* the various fruit trees of very different countries, as of India and China, Caubul, Europe, and America. Of those belonging to hot countries we have the plantain, custard apple, shaddock, orange, lemon, guava, mango, tamarind, and others, which are common to every part of India. Of Chinese fruits, the *lechee*, *loquat*, *longaro*, *wampee*, flat peach, and digitated citron, are perfectly naturalized. Of fruit trees from more northern countries, as Caubul and Cashmere, and from the hills of Europe, there are the almond, peach, nectarine, and apricot, plum, pomegranate, grape-vine, apple, pear, quince, mulberry, fig, and walnut: of useful trees of cold countries which thrive in what is at some seasons so hot a climate; *pin*es, *oak*, *maple*, *dog-wood*, *service tree*, *holly*, *juniper*, and *box*. Of American trees, besides those first enumerated, the *logwood*, *mahogany*, *parkinsonia aculeata*, and *acer negundo*, may be instanced as perfectly naturalized.

In order to demonstrate the variety of timber in our E. I. Possessions, and the advantages of lowering the duty on its importation into Great Britain, I subjoin a description of a few of the principal trees out of 500 specimens collected by the active and intelligent Dr. Wallich, of Calcutta, by the late Dr. Francis Hamilton (late Buchanan) and A. Maingy, thus; the crop of the two latter being uncertain and in many seasons never reaching maturity: the only vegetables raised are turnips and leeks, but many useful herbs grow spontaneously, amongst which is rhubarb. The Bhot villages are all situated on the northern side of the great chain, and are in some degree subject to the influence of its snows and shade. By any unusual accumulation of snow on the summit, the inferior bed is forced down, and with it the influence of the line of perpetual congelation, if not the line itself, descends, and it sometimes requires the heat of more than one summer to throw back the snow to its former level. In the southern and least elevated part of the ghat, oaks and pines flourish; but with the increase of elevation a gradual change in the forests takes place, from these trees down to the birch, which is found on the very verge of perpetual snow: the bark of this tree is highly useful as a substitute for paper and other domestic purposes.

Esq. and submitted for examination by the Hon. E. I. Company to the London Society of Arts, who reported as follows:—[It should be premised that the annexed list includes *only some of the woods* of Nipaul, and the Ultra Gangetic country.]

Acacia mollis, from Nipal.

A large tree: wood yellowish white, shining, coarse, rather soft.—Sp.* 3 inch. diam. Fibres and rays of the same colour, the latter very distinct: tubes large.

Acacia fragrans, fr. Nipal.

A large tree.—Sp. 2 inch. diam. Wood glossy, coarse: a bad specimen.

Acacia. Joolchumahl, N. † fr. Nipal.

Tree very large: wood excellent for chests and boxes.

Acacia. Popeeah, B. ‡ fr. Tavoy.

A very large tree: the wood used for posts, bows, and rollers for ginning cotton.

Acacia odoratissima. Jatikorai, fr. Gualpara§

Trunk very lofty, but, not straight; often 6 feet in girth: wood hard, and used in furniture.

Acacia marginata. Korui, fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth. Makes good planks.

Acer laevigatum. Suslendi, N. Cherouni, P. || fr. Nipal.

30 to 40 feet high: 3 to 4 inches in diameter; of slow growth; used for rafters, beams, and other building purposes.—Sp. 3½ inches in diam. Wood varied brown and cream colour, with a wavy lustre.

Acer sterculiaceum, fr. Nipal.

A very large tree, 3 feet in diameter.—Sp. 3½ inch. diam. Wood light: fibre pale cream colour, with considerable lustre: rays in distinct brown ribands: tubes large, giving a coarse appearance to the wood.

Acer oblongum, fr. Nipal.

A very large tree. Wood moderately hard and compact.—Sp. fibre cream brown, with considerable lustre: rays in narrow ribands of a flesh colour: tubes small.

Ahnaun, fr. Tavoy.

3 to 5 fathoms long; 12 to 15 inches diameter. Yields good crooked timber, the strongest and most durable of any in Tavoy; used for anchors to the largest boats.

Alnus nepalensis, fr. Nipal.

Wood as firm as English birch, and of a deeper colour; very hard, and difficult to cut; lustre considerable.—Sp. 5 inch. diam. 10 layers in 17 inch (but in another specimen 8 layers in 18 inch.) Heart pale brownish red: fibre glossy: rays reddish brown, very distinct. Bark fibrous, rather thick, composed of many thin laminae.

Alstonia (Echites) scholaris. Chatiyan, fr. Gualpara.

A beautiful tree, often 3 cubits in girth, used for coarse furniture.

Alstonia antidysenterica (Nerium antidys.) Dudkhuri, fr. Gualpara.

A large tree, often 3 cubits in circumference. Is considered a powerful medicine. Beads are made of it, to be worn round the neck.

Anacardium latifolium. Bhela, fr. Gualpara.

Grows to a good size; used for making chests and couches.

* Sp. the individual specimen examined.

† N. Newar, the language of the Hindu conquerors of Nipal. ‡ B. The Burmese language.

§ In Assam. || Parbutia, the language of the natives of Nipal.

Anacardium? Thubbambo, B. fr. Tavoy.

A large tree, used in boat-building.

Andrachne trifoliata. Uriam, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth, used for coarse furniture.

Andromeda ovalifolia. Angaree, P.; Juggoochal, N.; fr. Nipal.

Grows 1 or 2 feet in diameter: wood soft and spongy, used for fuel. Sp. wood moderately hard, compact, reddish brown, with some lustre. Bark with layers of stringy fibres.

Andromeda formosa. Sheaboge, N. fr. Nipal.

A tree of considerable size. Sp. 4'5 inch. diam.: wood pale brown, fine-grained moderately hard: rays very distinct in the outer layers.

Andromeda cordata, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 4'5 inch. diam.: wood brown, nearly dull; rays distinct; bark flaky, not at all stringy.

Antidesma. Boro-helock, fr. Gualpara.

Grows in the mountains; 6 feet in girth; the wood used for furniture.

Aquilaria agallochum. Aggur and Langchi, fr. Gualpara.

Attains a great size in the low-lands of Assam, and on the lower hills of Gualpara; but in these situations the wood is white, and in no estimation. In the Garo mountains certain parts of the heart of the wood become of a dark brown colour, and are strongly impregnated with a highly scented oil. When in this state it is usually called Eagle-wood.

Aralia v. Panax, fr. Nipal.

Said to be excellent wood; used for boxes and other articles. Sp. 4'5 inch. diam; light-coloured, rather soft.

Artocarpus. Thounben or Thoun-pine, B. fr. Tavoy.

A large tree; used in boat-building. It produces a sort of caout-chooc, with which the Burmese pay their boats.

Artocarpus Chama. Kangtali chama, fr. Gualpara.

The glory of the forests of Gorakpur, where it attains a very great size: used for canoes, for which it is well fitted, being both very buoyant and durable in the water.

Bah-nah-thoa, fr. Tavoy.

Timber 4 to 6 fathoms long; 15 to 24 inches in diameter: used in boat and house-building.

Bambusa. Bamboo, fr. Pulo-Geun, in Martaban.

The largest and tallest sort known; the stem 100 feet high, and attaining at the base a diameter 11 inches, with sides 1 inch thick.

Bauhinia Tucra. Tukra, fr. Gualpara.

A close grained, soft, tough wood, of a yellow colour.

Bauhinia Bacuria. Bakuri, fr. Gualpara.

An open-grained, soft, tough wood; 3 cubits in girth: used for furniture.

Berberis pinnatifolia. Milkissee, N.; Jumne-munda, P.; fr. Nipal.

Rarely exceeding a foot in diameter. Sp. 3 inch. diam.; wood strong, close, compact, yellow.

Berberis asiatica. Matekisse, N.; Chitra, P.; fr. Nipal.

Wood small. Sp. rays rather large, distinct; layers 12 in 1'5 inch.: wood tough, compact, greenish yellow.

Betula leptostachya, 1.: Nipal.

Wood not to be distinguished from English birch. Sp. 2'8 inch. diam.; 3 layers; rays in numerous, straight, narrow, parallel, ribands; bark thin, smooth, spotted like common alder.

Betula cylindrostachya, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 4'5 inch. diam.; wood shaky, of no value; layers not distinct enough to be counted;

fibre white, glossy; rays dark nut-brown, in very distinct, narrow ribands; bark thick, tubercular.

Betula Bhojpattra, N. fr. Nipal.

Sp. 5·8 inch. diam.; about 20 layers; wood moderately hard and compact; cuticle used for writing on, and also for covering the inside of the tube of the hookah and kalloun.

Bignonia. Thatsee, B. fr. Tavoy.

A very large tree.

Briedelia stipularis. Kohi, fr. Gualpara.

Grows to a large size; wood close, hard, tough; used for chests, stools, &c.

Briedelia ? fr. Nipal.

Wood not very hard, but fine-grained, and fit for ornamental cabinet work. Sp. 2·5 inch. diam.; colour lighter than box; no tubes nor rays visible.

Butea frondosa. Polash, fr. Gualpara.

Sometimes 6 feet in girth; wood open, soft, and tough, but not strong; used in coarse furniture.

Cassalpinia Sappan. Sappan-wood.

A native both of the peninsula of India, of the Burmese country, and of the Malayan Islands. A large and valuable tree; the wood red; used in dying.

Calophyllum. Thurappe, B.; Choopee, N.; fr. Martaban.

A large tree, used for masts and spars, and for pestles for oil presses.

Callicarpa arborea. Khoja, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth; used for mortars, pestles, and common furniture.

Calyptranthes. Saljam, fr. Gualpara.

Seldom more than 3 cubits in girth. A close, hard, tough wood, used for posts, beams, and planks.

Camellia Kissi. Kissi, fr. Nipal.

Wood close-grained; no sapwood. Sp. 1·5 inch. diam.; wood pale brown; bark very thin.

Capparis, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2 inch. diam.; wood white, moderately hard, dull.

Carapa. Taila-on, B. fr. Tavoy.

Timber 13 to 15 cubits, 15 to 18 inch. diam.; used in house-building.

Careya. Kombo, fr. Gualpara.

About 3 cubits in girth; wood close, hard, tough, and strong. Stocks of matchlocks are made of it.

Carpinus viminea. Chukisse, N.; Konikath, B.; fr. Nipal.

Wood esteemed by carpenters. Sp. pale purplish, with little lustre, hard, rather heavy; tubes small.

Cassia Fistula. Sonalu, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth; an open, hard, tough wood, used for ploughs.

Castanea tribuloides. Cotoor and Chisee; also Makoo Shingali, N. (Shingali, is the general name for oak and chestnut.) fr. Nipal.

Used for large mortars and pestles for grinding grain in; becomes brown by steeping in water. Wood hard and heavy. Sp. rays like English oak; that is, every 5th or 6th much larger than the others. Another specimen, said to be of the same species, wants the large rays.

Castanea. Nikari, fr. Gualpara.

Oak or chestnut; cup covered with strong prickles; leaves notched; 5 cubits in girth; timber close, hard, tough; used for furniture and canoes.

Cedrela hexandra. Toon-wood, fr. Nipal.

Sp. the wood has a great general resemblance to *Laurus*, the outer layers have white glossy fibres, with very distinct brown rays; the inner layers are brownish red, harder and more compact; bark with white fibres.

Cedrela Toona. Toon or Tungd; Poma; Jeca; fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth; a close, hard, but rather brittle wood, of a brown red colour, very durable, and esteemed for furniture. It has an agreeable smell. The wood, under the name of Toon, is extensively used for chairs and other furniture.

Celastrus, fr. Nipal.

An enormous climber. Sp. trunk deeply channelled externally; wood light, reddish brown; tubes large and numerous; rays deep and very distinct, but of the same colour as the rest of the wood; bark, outer, orange yellow; inner, deep brown.

Cerasus. Puddom. Nipal cherry, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 3½ inch. diam. 14 layers: rays reddish brown, distinct; wood rather soft with some lustre.

Cerbera Manghas. Kullooa, B. fr. Tavoy.

From the fruit (probably the kernels) an oil is drawn with which the Burmese anoint their hair. Wood not used.

Champa, white, fr. Nipal.

Sp. part of a plank: a free-working wood, soft and light like deal: fibre wavy white, and very glossy: rays shallow and slender: layers very distinct, 32 in 4½ inches. Compare *Michella*.

Choorosi, N. fr. Nipal.

A very fine sort of wood, said to come from the north.

Chrysophyllum acuminatum, Roxb. Pithogarkh, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; wood white, tough, used in furniture.

Chung, fr. Gualpara.

Perhaps a species of *Chilmoris*. It grows very large, and affords a close tough wood used in furniture.

Cinchona gratissima, Wall. Tungnusi, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

A native also of the mountains in Bengal, where it is called *Usokul*: used in Nipal for posts and rafters. Sp. wood brown, light, coarse-grained: bark with many compressed coarse fibres.

Cordia Myxa? fr. Nipal.

A large tree.

Coraus oblonga, Wall. Easee, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

A tree of middle size. Sp. 3 inch. diam. Wood fine-grained rather hard; fibre white and shining: rays very numerous, reddish brown.

Corylus ferox, Wall. fr. Nipal.

Grows at the top of Sheopore, one of the highest mountains in Nipal; flowers in September, and produces fruit in December: shell of the nut hard and thick. A tree 20 feet high, 2 feet in girth; wood light, compact.

Cow-moo, fr. Tavoy.

Timber 5 to 10 fathoms long; 20 to 30 inches in girth; used in boat and house-building; not much inferior to *Hopsea*.

Ceatægus arbutiflora. Roese, N. fr. Nipal.

A small tree, or rather shrub; wood exceedingly strong: used for walking-sticks.

Croton oblongifolium, Roxb. Parokupi, fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth; a close-grained, but rather brittle wood; used for coarse furniture.

Croton. Lalpatuja, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; a hard close-grained wood, used for small canoes.

Dalbergia Momsita, Ham. Momsita, fr. Gualpara.

Attains a considerable size: wood close, hard, and tough; used in coarse furniture.

Daphne cannabina. Loureir, fr. Nipal.

A shrub, from 6 to 8 feet high; grows on the most exposed parts of the snowy mountains of Nipal. Paper made of the bark is strong, tough, not liable to crack, nor to be eaten by the white ant or other insects.

Decadia spicata. Bongyera, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth. A close, hard, tough wood, used by carpenters.

Dillenia. Zimboon, B. fr. Tavoy.

Timber 3 to 5 fathoms long, 8 to 10 inches diameter. Wood used in house-building; it also affords small crooked timbers for boats.

Dillenia pilosa, Roxb. Daine-oksi, fr. Gualpara.

Trunk 6 feet in girth. Wood open, but hard and tough; used for canoes.

Dillenia speciosa. Chalita, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth. Wood close and hard, but rather brittle.

Dipterocarpus grandiflora, Wall. Ain or Ainhra, B. fr. Martaban, on the

banks of the Atran; also from Tavoy.

A stupendous tree: one of those which yield oil and dammar.

Dububia. (See *Rhus*.) from Nipal.

Sp. 4.3 inch. diam.; layers 10; rays distinct; tubes few, rather large. Wood very white, light and soft. Bark thin.

Ehretia serrata, Roxb. Nalshma, N. fr. Nipal; also fr. Gualpara.

5 cubits in girth; gives planks from 12 to 18 inches wide; wood soft and open-grained, but rather tough; not durable; used for posts and other common purposes.

Elæagnus, fr. Nipal.

Wood similar to, but whiter than, common hawthorn. Sp. 4 inch. diam.; layers 27 in 1.7 inch: neither tubes nor rays visible in the cross section: bark thin.

Elæocarpus. Thaumagee, T. fr. Martaban.

Timber very large, used for mats and posts for houses.

Eriobotrya elliptica. Mihul, P. and N. fr. Nipal.

Wood cinnamon-brown, hard, compact, and reckoned good. Sp. 7 inch. diam.; rings indistinct, about 26 in 3.1 inches; tubes very small.

Euonymus tingens. Kusoori, N. fr. Nipal.

Wood brown, compact, hard, very fine-grained, dull. Sp. tubes not visible; rays small and indistinct: bark, outer, orange yellow; inner, brown with fine white fibres: the yellow bark is used for painting the forehead.

Eurya variabilis (probably the same as the preceding.) (Chickouni, B. and N. fr. Nipal.

Grows large; wood compact, fine-grained, cinnamon-brown; good for turnery ware.

Eurya? fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2.5 inch. diam.: tubes small; rays distinct, red brown; fibre pale brown, with moderate lustre: wood reddish brown, fine-grained, moderately hard.

Fagara floribunda, fr. Nipal.

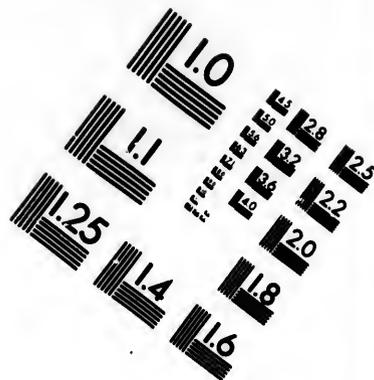
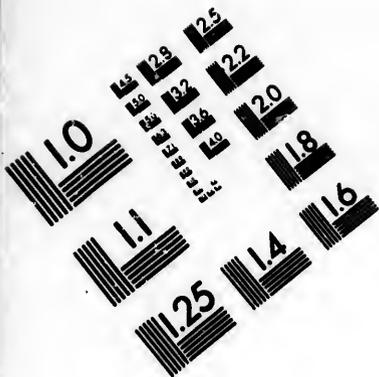
Sp. 3.2 inch. diam.: tubes many and large: wood coarse, and of remarkably open grain, but more compact near the axis; colour brownish yellow, nearly dull.

Fagraea fragrans, Roxb. Annah-beng, B. fr. Martaban.

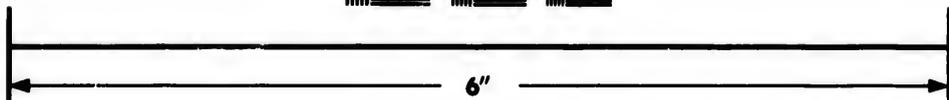
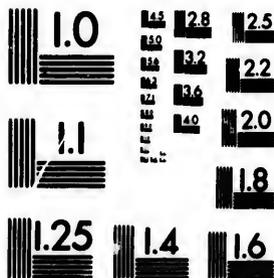
Timber not large; wood yellowish, compact and beautiful, but very hard, and on this account not much used by the Burmese.

Ficus. Doodae-kath, N. P. fr. Nipal.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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Used for water-courses, drains, and gutters. Sp. 4½ inch. diam.; layers 69 in 2 inches: wood soft, free-working, closer than deal; lustre considerable, satiny.

Frasinus floribunda, Lakkuree, N. fr. Nipal.

Sp. 17 layers in 2½ inches; in colour, grain, and toughness, just like English ash.

Fresiera ochroides, fr. Nipal.

A middle-sized tree; wood pale brown, close-grained, and moderately hard: Sp. 2½ inch. diam.; rays hardly distinguishable; resembles pear-tree.

Gardenia, fr. Nipal.

Sp. wood cream-brown, fine-grained, hard, compact; probably used for turnery ware.

Gmelina arborea. Gambhari, fr. Gualpara.

Wood light, but durable, does not warp, and is not readily attacked by insects; used for turnery ware of all kinds, and cylinders of a proper size are turned very thin for drums: other musical instruments are also made of it.

Gordonia integrifolia. Chillounea, P.; Goechassee, N.; fr. Nipal.

The bark contains white spicules that produce violent itching when rubbed on the skin in their recent state. The Burmese have a superstition, that one beam in a house should be made of this wood. Wood brown, nearly dull, moderately hard and compact.

Heritiera Fomes, Ham. (minor, Roxb.) Kunnazoo, B. fr. Tavoy, Soondree of Bengal.

A very large tree; wood exceedingly hard and durable; used for pestles for oil mills; shafts of gigs, and spokes and naves are made of it: an excellent fuel for burning bricks; grows to a much greater size on the Martaban coast than in Bengal.

Hibiscus macrophyllus, Roxb. fr. Tavoy.

A middle-sized tree, used for common building purposes, bark tough and stringy; is made into cordage.

Hopea odorata. Tengaun or Thaengong. Common on the Tenasserim and Martaban coasts.

Canoes are made of this tree, which grows to an enormous size: it also produces a valuable resin or dammar.

Ilex diphyrena, Wall. Karaput, P.; Munasi and Gulsima, N.; fr. Nipal.

Wood heavy, hard, fine-grained, and much like common holly, said to become black with age; used for various purposes of carpentry, Sp. 3 inch. diam.; tubes very small; rays distinct.

Jasminum chrysanthum, Roxb.

Sp. 1½ inch. diam.; neither tubes nor rays visible; wood white, fine-grained, moderately hard; brittle, hard concretions in the bark.

Juglans pterococca, Roxb. from Nipal.

An exceeding large tree. Sp. 2½ inch. diam.; wood pale reddish brown, with considerable lustre, but rather coarse-grained.

Juniperus excelsa, Blieb? The Cedar of Himalaya.

Harder and less odorant than the West India cedar; an excellent light wood.

Kaantha, B. fr. Tavoy.

2 to 3 fathoms long, 12 to 15 inches in diameter. Yields a small but valuable timber for oars and paddles.

Kalajiya, fr. Gualpara.

Common over all India; remarkable for the facility with which it grows from cuttings, and from truncheons; yields much gum; wood of no use.

Kaunso-Kurro, B. fr. Tavoy.

2 to 7 fathoms long, 12 to 20 inches diameter; used in boat-building: see also Meliaceae.

Keahnaun, B. fr. Tavoy.

15 to 20 feet long, 15 to 20 inch. diam. ; strong crooked timber, used for musket-stocks : see also *Xylocarpus*.

Kuddoot-Alain, B. fr. Tavoy.

Grows to a great size ; used by house and boat-builders.

Kuddoot-nee, B. fr. Tavoy.

6 to 8 fath. long, 15 to 20 inch. diam. ; an inferior wood, used in boat-building.

Kujulee P. and N. fr. Nipal.

Trunk 2 feet in diam. ; wood strong and durable ; used for door-posts.

Lagerstroemia. Kuenmounce or Peema, B. fr. Tavoy.

Used in house-building, and for cars.

Lagerstroemia parviflora, Roxb. Sida, fr. Gualpara.

A large tree, 6 feet in girth, and very common ; wood close, hard, and tough, forming excellent timber.

Lagerstroemia Reginae. Jarul, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth, used in boat-building ; but the wood is soft, and deficient in toughness. It is extensively used in Bengal under the name of Jarul.

*Laurus** Lumpatch, P. ; Chasepoo, N. ; fr. Nipal.

4 to 6 feet in diam. ; wood soft and pale when young, hard and pale red when older ; used in carpenter's work, and for beams. Sp. 27 layers in 1'8 inches ; lustre considerable ; rays mostly distinct.

Laurus. Kullowa or Kurrowa, B. fr. Tavoy.

Produces the saasafra-bark and camphor-wood of Martaban.

Laurus. Maythen, B. fr. Tavoy.

3 to 6 fath. long, 18 to 26 inch. diam. ; a very large tree ; wood used for furniture, in house carpentry, and for planks and upper decks for proas.

Laurus. Phetpetta, N. ; Balukshee, P. ; fr. Nipal.

Wood red-brown, of a fine grain, used for chests, &c. Sp. fibre and rays as other Lauri ; tubes filled with a dark red-brown substance.

Laurus (or *Tetranthera*) very like *T. pulcherrima*. Bulooksee, N. ; Sengoulee and Tijpaut, P. ; fr. Nipal.

Wood excellent, used for spinning wheels. Sp. 2'5 inch. diam. ; fibre, tubes, and rays, as other Lauri.

Laurus, (*Tetranthera bifaria*, Wall.) Juttrunga, N. ; Pabelakath, P. ; fr. Nipal.

Large and very useful timber ; wood soft, rather spongy. Sp. 6 inch. diam. ; rotten at heart ; fibre pale yellow, glossy ; rays distinct, dirty brown.

Laurus salicifolia. Horisongher, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth ; wood has a strong smell of camphor ; used for coarse articles of furniture.

Ligustrum napolense. Billae or Bancha, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

Timber about a foot or more in diameter ; used for building purposes. Sp. 4 inch. diam. ; layers about 18 in an inch ; wood heavy, hard, compact, tough, and very fine-grained ; for the purposes of the engraver will probably be found nearly as good as Mediterranean box ; bark with coarse white fibres.

Limonia. Kailkat, P. ; Hakoolnal, N. ; fr. Nipal.

Timber large for the genus ; wood white, soft, but close, strong, and tough ; fit for fine turnery ware. Sp. 7 inch. diam. ; neither rays nor tubes visible ; inner bark very fibrous.

Magnolia insignis, Wall. fr. Nipal.

Sp. 3 inch. diam. ; 12 layers ; wood rather soft, moderately fine-grained, and with some lustre.

* There are 24 specimens of *Laurus*.

Mainaban, B. fr. Tavoy.

Resembles lance-wood; used for beams, posts, and rafters; also for lances, bows, sword-handles, &c.

May-sobek, fr. Tavoy.

Imported in long planks, and used in preference to teak for the bottom planks of ships.

Meliacea, Tokor, fr. Gualpara.

A large tree, used for planks, canoes, and coarse furniture.

Menispermum laurifolium, Roxb. fr. Nipal.

A large tree, very remarkable for the grain and irregular layers of its wood.

Michelia Kisopa, De Cand. Champ or Chaump, P.; Chobsse, N.

The wood much used for light works. Sp. piece of a plank, 30 layers in 3⁷/₈ inches; another sp. 2⁵/₈ inch. diam. 12 layers in 1¹/₂ inch: similar to white Champa, No. 87, but the colour is more yellow, and the rays less distinct.

Minusopa, Thubbae, B. fr. Tavoy.

Wood used for masts and spars; affords also good crooked wood.

Morus laevigata, Wall. fr. Nipal.

A large tree. Sp. 1⁵/₈ inch, diam.; wood coarse brownish yellow, with considerable lustre.

Muraya, Maikay, B. fr. Tavoy.

4 to 5 feet long, 3 to 6 inch. diam.; used for handles of daggers and of other weapons. A strong, tough wood, in grain like box.

Myrica sapida, Wall.; Kaephul, P.; Kobuai, N.: fr. Nipal.

Grain like birch, but the colour darker. Sp. 2⁵/₈ inch. diam.; fibre brownish white, nearly dull; rays very distinct, dark brown in the outer layers; the interior layers harder, heavier, and more compact. The fruit is eaten.

Myristica, Jheruya, fr. Gualpara.

A sort of nutmeg, but neither the nut nor mace have any aroma: timber 3 cubits in girth, used for furniture.

Myrsine semiserrata, Biresee and Kalikaut, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

Wood excellent. Sp. 2⁵/₈ inch. diam.; rays large, deep flesh-colour, and very ornamental.

Nauclea Cadamba, Roxb. Kodom, fr. Gualpara.

A noble tree, 6 feet in girth; wood yellow, used for coarse furniture.

Nerium tomentosum, Adhkuri, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; used for furniture.

Nihari, fr. Gualpara.

An oak or chestnut; cup covered with large prickles; leaves notched; 5 cubits in girth; used for canoes and furniture.

Olea glandulifera, fr. Nipal.

A large tree. Sp. 5 inch. diam.; rays very thin and indistinct; wood pale brown, very hard, heavy, and compact.

Oleina, fr. Nipal.

A middle-sized tree. Sp. 3 inch. diam.; wood pale brown with considerable lustre, handsome grain, and very hard.

Oxyris napalensis, Ihoori, P. and N. fr. Nipal.

A large timber tree, the fruit of which is eaten, and the wood is in estimation. Sp. 1⁵/₈ inch. diam.; tubes very small; wood red-brown, rather hard, compact, and very fine-grained.

Panax, Lubtesee, N. fr. Nipal.

Sp. about 2⁵/₈ inch. diam.; wood soft, light, spongy, with high lustre; bark with short thick tubercles or spines, broad at the base.

Panna pendulus, fr. Nipal.

A middle-sized tree; wood pale reddish brown, light, moderately hard, rays distinct, giving a handsome grain.

Photinia integrifolia, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2½ inch. diam.; works freely; somewhat coarse; colour reddish brown, with scarcely any lustre.

Phyllanthus Emblica, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 3 inch. diam.; layers about 2, very indistinct; rays distinct: a handsome nut-brown, glossy, hard wood.

Pienmahne, fr. Tavoy.

4 to 6 fathoms long; 18 to 20 inches diameter; affords the best and strongest crooked timber, and is very durable; used also in house-building.

Pinus excelsa, fr. Nipal.

Wood remarkable compact. Sp. 3 inch. diam.; 6 layers.

Pinus longifolia, fr. Nipal.

Excellent timber, like Memel deal.

Pinus Brunoniana, fr. Nipal.

Wood soft, and of no value.

Pinus Webbiana, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 7 inch. diam.; exterior layers soft, and of no value; interior ones harder and fine-grained.

Pinus Dammara? fr. Tavoy.

A very large tree, used for beams and rafters.

Pinus Deodara. Himalaya Cedar, fr. Nipal.

Wood very fragrant.

Plumeria alba, fr. Bot. G.

A West Indian tree.

Polypodium giganteum. A tree-fern, fr. Nipal.

A stem 45 feet in height, and proportionately thick, was presented by the Directors of the East India Company to the British Museum.

Pongamia atropurpurea, Wall. Lazun, B.; Choo-kha, T.: fr. Martaban.

A noble forest tree; native of environs of Amherst and Moulmein, on the Martaban coast: the wood used in boat and house-building; flower of a dark purple colour.

Premna hirsina. Chikagambhari, fr. Gualpara.

Is often found 6 feet in girth; the wood has a strong odour like the musk rat; it is used for making musical instruments, and for other uses. It is said that no insect will eat it.

Prunus adenophylla. Aroo, P.; fr. Nipal.

A large tree. Sp. 2½ inch. diam.; fibre white and glossy; rays brown, distinct; tubes rather small; wood light and soft, but harder and reddish brown near the centre.

Psychotria rotata, fr. Nipal.

2. 2½ inch. diam.; axis very eccentric; wood pale reddish brown, dull, fine grained, moderately hard.

Pterocarpus? Puddow, B. fr. Tavoy.

A large tree; wood used for furniture and musical instruments.

Pyrus indica, Roxb.? Mehul, P.; Passi, N.; fr. Nipal.

Sp. 2½ inch. diam. wood brown, compact, moderately hard, very fine-grained; tubes exceedingly small; bark very thin, composed of 9 brown layers alternating with as many white ones; the thickness of the whole scarcely one-eighth of an inch.

Quercus spicata, fr. Nipal.

A very large tree; wood very like English oak; every 7th or 8th ray much thicker than the others.

Quercus semecarpifolia. Ghese and Cusroo, N. fr. Nipal.

A very large tree, from 14 to 18 feet in girth, at 5 feet above the ground; clear trunk from 80 to 100 feet. Sp. 3-5 layers in 3-4 inches; wood light pale brown; rays small, uniform.

Quercus lamellosa. Shulshee and Phrarat, N. fr. Nipal.

Wood very hard, straight-grained, and good, of a pale brown colour; rays uniform.

Quercus. Bunaroo, P.; Gomulsee, N. fr. Nipal.

Wood soft, works as easily as deal; fibre grey, with considerable lustré; rays uniform, reddish brown, very distinct; layers indistinct; heart reddish brown.

Quercus lanata, fr. Natal.

A very large tree. Sp. bad.

Quercus. Tima, fr. Gualpara.

Leaves entire; acorns covered entirely by an unarmed cup formed of concentric rings; timber not more than 3 cubits in girth; used for coarse furniture.

Quercus Amherstiana, Wall. Tirbbae, B.; Ryakle, T.; fr. Martaban.

Grows to a large size; wood used in boat-building, &c.

Rhamnea. Bungla, fr. Gulapara.

3 cubits in girth; used for chests, stools, and other coarse furniture.

Rhamnus virgatus, fr. Nipal.

Wood very hard and heavy; the heart a bright-red brown, not unlike English yew. Sp. 3-5 inch. diam.; tubes very irregular; rays scarcely visible.

Rhododendron arboreum. Ghorans or Ghonas, P.; Tuggoo, N.; fr. Nipal.

The wood resembles plum-tree; used for gun-stocks.

Rhus Bukkiamela, Roxb. Subuchunsee, N.; Bukkiamela, P.; fr. Nipal.

Timber good and large. Sp. 3-5 inch. diam.; greyish white with considerable lustré, soft, light.

Rhus juglandifolium, Wall. Chose, N.; Bhalao, P.; fr. Nipal.

Very like the Japan varnish tree. Sp. 3-5 inch. diam.; heart red-brown, the tubes being filled with a substance of this colour; wood soft, bears a considerable resemblance to the Lauri, with indistinct rays.

Rondeletia coriacea, Wall. Kongeea, P.; Julsi, N.; fr. Nipal.

Wood close-grained, and becomes of the colour of mahogany some time after it has been cut; layers very indistinct; used for rafters, tools, &c. A red dye is also prepared from it.

Rottlera, (perhaps tinctoria) fr. Nipal.

Wood pale brown, compact, hard, fine-grained; bark very thin.

Salix babylonica. Tissee and Bhoose, N. and P. fr. Nipal.

Attains an enormous size.

Sapotea? Palaapean, B. fr. Tavoy.

Leaves most beautifully silky and gold colour beneath. A very large tree: wood used in building.

Schinus Niara, Ham. Niyor, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; a hard, close-grained rather brittle wood, with a resinous scent; preferred by the natives to almost any other for furniture.

Shorea robusta. Saul or Sál.

This is the staple timber of Hindostan for building purposes: vast quantities of dammar, or resins, are extracted from it, as well as from *Dipterocarpus* and *Hopea*, all of which belong to one family, the *Dipterocarpeæ*.

Sterculia? Kuneenee, B. fr. Tavoy.

Attains an enormous size. An oil is extracted from the wood by incision, which is used for torches.

Syndesmis Tavoyana, Wall. Kee-tha, B.; red-wood; fr. Tavoy.

A very large tree; used in building, and for boxes, &c.

Symplocos floribunda, fr. Nipal.

A large tree, wood fine-grained.

Symplocos? Kalikath, P.; Paunlah, N.; fr. Nipal.

A large tree. Sp. wood white, compact of a very fine-grain, and as soft as deal; no tubes visible; rays indistinct; bark as thin as paper.

Taxus virgata, Wall. Dheyri, P.; Lolsi, N.; fr. Nipal.

Grows to a large size: the green branches are used to adorn houses during certain festivals; timber strong and good. Sp. 6.5 inch. diam. Axis very eccentric, 5 | 1.5; all the layers cannot be counted. On the widest side of the axis are 27 layers in 0.85 inch. beginning from the axis; near the outside are 18 layers in 0.9 inch.; wood softer, of paler colour, and less lustre than English yew.

Tectona grandis. Teak, fr. Martaban.

Several specimens of various qualities.

Terminalia Catappa, fr. Bot. G.

A noble and most ornamental tree: wood very good.

Tetradium? fr. Nipal.

A very large tree.

Tetranthera caduca. Pangch-Petiya, fr. Gualpara.

6 feet in girth; used for chests and common carpentry.

Thau-baun-thau-lay, fr. Tavoy.

6 to 12 fathoms long, 13 to 20 inches diam. Wood very pliant; little inferior to Hopea, but does not saw so kindly.

Thymboo, B. Thau-baun-po, fr. Tavoy.

5 to 10 fath. long, 16 to 20 inches diam. Good strong durable light wood; used in boat-building; does not saw kindly.

Town-pine, fr. Tavoy.

7 to 8 fathoms long, 18 to 30 inches thick; used in boat-building; reckoned little inferior to Hopea.

Turpinia pomifera. (Dalrymplea,) Phurasee and Signa, N. fr. Nipal.

A large tree; wood of a dull grey colour, light, soft, compact, free-working, splits easily; not applied to any particular use, Sp. 3.2 inch. diam.; rays indistinct; tubes very small; bark thin, and the inner layers almost black.

Ulderoo, fr. Bombay.

Very little liable to split, and therefore used for fuses for bomb-shells.

Uvaria. Thubboo, B. fr. Tavoy.

A large tree used in boat building.

Vernonia. Magor, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; used for coarse furniture. The only one of the numerous tribe of corymbiferous plants that grows to be a timber tree.

Vitex acuminata. Angchhui, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth. A very close, hard, brittle wood; used for mortars of oil mills, feet of bedsteads, &c.

Vitex Leucoxydon. Bhodiya, fr. Gualpara.

3 cubits in girth; used in making ploughs; will grow on land that is inundated for weeks together.

Vitis or *Cissus*, fr. Nipal.

Sp. 4.3 inch. diam.; wood spongy and very coarse-grained; fibre very small in proportion

to the tubes, which are many and large; rays very distinct, of a reddish brown colour, forming a handsome wavy figure; bark stringy.

Wrightia tinctoria. (Indigo tree.)

The leaves yield indigo. The wood is 'beautifully white, close-grained, coming nearer to ivory than any other known to me.'—*Roxb.*

Xanthophyllum. Saphew, B.; Choo-muna, T.; fr. Martaban.

Very large wood used for posts and rafters.

Xanthoxylon alatum. Timbhus, P. and N. fr. Nipal.

Xylocarpus. Keannan, B. fr. Tavoy.

Timber from 10 to 20 feet long; very durable; used for furniture, and in house-building.

Zisiphus incurva. Harobaer, P.; Kadabusi, N.; fr. Nipal.

Wood in considerable estimation. Sp. 3.5 inch. diam.; fibre brownish white, with little lustre; rays in the outer layers distinct, but of the same colour as the fibre; bark coarsely fibrous.

These statements demonstrate in some degree the varied and useful staples which Hindostan presents:

Indeed the British possessions in India are rich to overflowing with every product of vegetable life, which an all-wise and ever beneficent Providence could bestow to gratify the sight,—and contribute to the comfort and happiness of his creatures; that they are not used to the extent they ought, is the fault of perverse man, who would seem to take delight in thwarting the benignity of the unseen Being whose most bounteous blessings are too often ungratefully spurned or mischievously used.

THE ZOOLOGY OF INDIA is no less extensive than the vegetable kingdom; 'every beast of the earth after his kind, and cattle after their kind, and every thing that creepeth on the earth after its kind,' teems in abundance on the Asiatic plains: and the hunter and the hawker, the fowler and the fisher, as well as the farmer and shepherd, all find ample scope for their respective pursuits. The gigantic and gregarious elephant usurps the dominion of the forests, while the lonely and ferocious tiger infests every jungle, from the *embouchures* of the sacred Ganges* to the Himalaya moun-

* Two reverend Gentlemen (Missionaries) while recently passing through the Sunderbuns or Delta of the Ganges, witnessed a fearful contest between a tiger and an alligator, which they thus describe:—'About an 100 yards from us, an alligator came up out of the river to enjoy his noontide sleep in the rays of the sun. After remaining there half an hour, and being apparently in a sound sleep, we observed an immense tiger emerging from the

tains. During the last four years, about 1,000 children have been devoured by wolves in the vicinity of the city of Agra. The natives can with great difficulty be induced to kill a wolf in Upper India, from a belief that if its blood be spilt, the common people would desert the village, which would be haunted by the ghosts of the children slain: when a wolf is

jungle, and bending his steps toward the place where the alligator lay. In size the tiger exceeded the largest which we had ever seen; and his broad round face, when turned towards us, striped with white, his fierce eyes, together with the amazing apparent strength of his limbs, made the stoutest heart on board to tremble at the thought of encountering such a dreadful foe, with the most cautious pace imaginable, the tiger approached the alligator: his raised foot remained some seconds before he replaced it on the ground; and so he proceeded till he came within the power of his leap, when, exerting all his strength and bounding from the earth, he descended immediately upon the alligator's back and seized it by its throat. The monster of the deep, roused from its slumber, opened its tremendous jaws, and slashed its terrific tail; and, while the conflict lasted each seemed to exert its utmost strength. The tiger, however, had the advantage, for he had grasped the alligator in a part of the neck which entirely prevented him from turning his head sufficiently round to seize his antagonist; and though many severe blows were inflicted on the body of the tiger by its saw-like tail, the noble beast of the forest, when the battle was over, shook his brawny sides, and seemed unconscious of any pain. Having overcome the alligator, he dragged it a little farther on the shore, and sat over it exactly in the attitude of a cat over a captive mouse. He then took the creature in his mouth, and gently walked with it into the jungles. About ten minutes afterward we saw the tiger emerge from the forest; and after gazing on us for a few moments, and perhaps imagining that we were almost too far from the shore to allow him to add us to his trophies of victory and blood, he slowly pursued his course in a different direction to where he had left his prey, and we saw him no more. In less than an hour afterward, the alligator, who had been stunned but not killed, crept out of the jungle, and though evidently much injured, yet with some difficulty reached the river, and escaped his sanguinary foe: he, however, was too much lacerated to remain long in the water, and soon came again to land; but took the precaution of exposing but a part of his body, and keeping his face toward the shore; he continued but a very short time and then launched into the deep, repeating his visits to the beach almost every quarter of an hour whilst we remained. The sight was certainly dreadfully magnificent.

caught, therefore, he is only punished by having a bell hung round his neck, for the purpose of giving warning to little children. Animated nature here luxuriates in all its primitive grandeur, whether we regard the magnitude, the multitude, or the beauty which every where fills and adorns the earth, air, and water: happily however for man, the Creator has wisely ordained that his creatures should prey on each other, were it not so, the present evergreen surface of India must soon become a desert. To particularize the animals of the country, would in a work of this nature be supererogatory, suffice it to say, that no where may the epicure or the gourmand have his palate gratified, or his taste satiated, at less expense, and with greater variety than in British India, where it must be admitted, the reputed (but erroneously entertained idea of the) Pythagoreanism of the Hindoos is fully atoned for by the carnivorousness of the Europeans and their descendants.

I am tempted to give here the following interesting description by Miss Emma Roberts,* in which the feudal game of *hawking*, as practised by Anglo-Indian ladies, is delightfully depicted, as also some of the wild sports of the East:—

‘To ladies, hog-hunting is of course quite out of the question, and there are very few whose nerves could stand against the terror and carnage of an expedition against tigers, to say nothing of the fatigue to be encountered in a chase which frequently lasts for hours under a burning sun. *Hawking*, where there is less excitement, may be relinquished at pleasure, and the pursuit of game leads the party into wildernesses far removed from the dwellings of man. The sylvan denizens of the soil are seen in their native haunts; the majestic nylghau, roused at the approach of intruders, scours across the plain, or crashes through the boughs of a neighbouring thicket; herds of antelopes are seen grazing, and at every step the elephant puts up some beautiful bird or some strange and interesting animal; wolves and bears may be detected stealing off to a more secluded covert, whilst the porcupine utters its shrill cry of alarm, and the monkey gibbers at the passing pageant.

* India is much indebted to Miss Roberts for the fascinating manner in which the highly gifted Authoress has brought its picturesque scenery and singular people before the British public.

Wild geese afford the best sport; they soar exceedingly high, and frequently bid defiance to the falcon's adventurous wing. Smaller birds, partridges especially, have no chance of escape, and when appearing on the edge of those basin-like valleys, which so frequently diversify the plains of India, their capture is seen to great advantage from the back of an elephant, as the spectator can look down upon the whole scene; and following the flight of the hawk along the steep, where the frightened partridge hurries for shelter, observe the fatal precision of his aim, and see him pounce directly on the victim, which he bears to the falconer in his claw. In some parts of the country, the largest description of the hawk is trained to the chase, and its murderous talons are directed against antelopes and the smaller kinds of deer; it darts at the head of the quarry, blinds and confuses it with its flapping wings, tears it with its beak and claws, and finally succeeds in depriving it of life. This is not, however, a common exhibition, and is seldom witnessed except at the courts of native princes. Hunting with *cheetahs* (leopards) is more commonly practised; but though the manœuvres of the cat-like pursuer are exceedingly curious and interesting, as they develop the nature and habits of the animal, there is nothing noble, generous, or exciting in the sport. The cheetahs, hooded like hawks, are secured by a slight harness to a platform fastened on a bullock cart; their keeper holds the beasts in his hand, and those who wish to obtain a good view of the chase, take a seat beside the driver. Antelopes accustomed to the sight of bullocks will permit them to make a much nearer approach than any less familiar animal. When the carts have arrived at a prudent distance from the herd, the driver halts, the cheetahs are unloosed, and espying the prey, they drop silently off the vehicle, taking care to choose the contrary side from that on which the deer are feeding. They steal crouching, along the ground, screening themselves behind every bush, hillock or tuft of grass, which may occur in their way, pausing occasionally when there seems to be any danger of a premature alarm; each has singled out his victim, and measuring the distance with an experienced eye, they dart forward with a sudden bound. Two or three springs ensure success or disappointment; the victor alights upon his prey. But if a threatened antelope should have the good fortune to escape the first attempt, no second effort is made; the cheetah returns growling and in ill-humour to his keeper; he has lost his advantage, and sullenly relinquishes a field which must be won fairly by strength and speed. The poorer class of natives, who take up the occupation of hunters for their own subsistence or pecuniary emolument, sometimes avail themselves of the services of a bullock in approaching within shot of a herd of antelopes. There is a matter of business, not of excitement, and they have no idea of allowing a chance to the object of their pursuit. The bullock is carefully trained for the purpose, and when his education is completed, he makes a

quiet entrance into the jungles, followed closely by his master, who contrives to screen himself completely behind the animal. The bullock grazes carelessly as he advances, making circuitous and apparently unpremeditated movements; at last he arrives at a convenient distance without having disturbed the unconscious herd, he then stands still, the *Aikare* or hunter fixes his clumsy matchlock along the back of the animal, and still unseen takes unerring aim: down drops the devoted antelope, and away fly the rest of the herd, dispersed and out of sight in an instant. Europeans rarely witness this kind of sport, if such it may be called; but it sometimes falls to the lot of a solitary traveller, who from some elevation obtains an extensive view over a wide plain, to have an opportunity of watching the singular manœuvres employed by the hunter and his uncouth agent. Where the weapons at hand are inefficient for open warfare, stratagems must supply the place of more generous hostility; and even Anglo-Indians are sometimes compelled to adopt native arts, and when the assistance of elephants cannot be procured, they will condescend to lay a bait for a tiger, and sit patiently in a tree until the fierce animal shall repair to his evening repast, and they can shoot him while, in fancied security, he is indulging his appetite; others, disdainng such unwarlike defences, will encounter a tiger singly on horseback. This is of course a very difficult and dangerous enterprize; few steeds, however noble, can be brought to face an enemy of which they entertain an instinctive dread. The vicinity of a tiger is often discovered by the distress and terror exhibited by horses, who even in their stables have been known to fall into fits of trembling and perspiration; occasioned by their secret conviction that their foe is at hand; and when a horse is found sufficiently courageous to encounter so terrible a savage, the most extraordinary activity, coolness, presence of mind, accuracy of eye and strength of arm, are necessary to ensure the victory. The hunter, after putting up the tiger, wheels round him in a circle at full speed, never permitting, in the rapidity of his movements, a single moment for the fatal spring, and when the tiger, bewildered and dazzled, offers an unguarded front, pins him to the earth with the thrust of a spear.

The quadrupeds which appear to characterise more particularly the regions of continental India are the following.* They are arranged under those divisions of the peninsula where naturalists inform us they are chiefly found:—

1. <i>Hindustan generally.</i>	<i>Papio niger.</i> Black baboon.
<i>Genetta fasciata.</i> Banded genett.	<i>Rhinoceros indicus.</i> Indian rhinoceros.
<i>Mus giganteus.</i> Gigantic rat.	<i>Pteropus palliatus.</i> Mottled bat.
<i>Cercocebus radiatus.</i> Radiated monkey.	<i>Ursus malayanus.</i> Malay bear.
<i>Papio apedia.</i> Thumbless baboon.	<i>Ursus labiatus.</i> Thick-lipped bear.

* From Murray's *Geography*. Article, *Asia*.

Mangusta mungos. Indian ichneumon.	Bos Gaurus. Gaur buffalo.
Prionodon albifrons. White fronted P.	Bos Gaurus. Gayal buffalo.
Leo asiaticus. <i>Sivatus</i> . Asiatic lion.	
Felis tigris. Royal tiger.	2. Bengal.
Felis venatica. Maneless hunting leopard.	Cercocebus cynosurus. The malbrouck.
Cervus porcinus. Brown stag.	Nycticebus bengalensis. Slow lemur.
Raphicercus acuticornis. Sharp-horned antelope.	Nyctinomus bengalensis. Bengal bat.
Antelope cervicapra. Common antelope.	Pteropus marginatus. Bordered bat.
Raphicercus subulata. Awl-horned antelope.	Genetta bondar. Bondar genet.
Gerbillus indicus. Indian gerbil.	Viverra zibethica. Prehensile viverra.
Hystrix fasciculata. Pencil-tailed porcupine.	Manis crassicaudata. Short-tailed manis.
Hystrix macroura. Long-tailed Indian porcupine.	Cervus hippelaphus. Great russa.
Tetracerus Chicara (<i>H. Smith</i>). Chicara antelope.	Cervus aristoteli. Black stag.
Tetracerus quadricornis. Four-horned antelope.	3. Pondicherry.
Nemorhedus duvaucelli (<i>H. Smith</i>). Duvaucel's antelope.	Pteropus leschenaultii. Spotted bat.
Bos bubalus. Common buffalo.	Sorex indicus. Indian shrew.
	Lutra nair. Pondicherry otter.
	Viverra typus. Common viverra.
	Mus indicus. Indian rat.
	Mus Perchal. Perchal rat.

MINERAL KINGDOM.—The British possessions in India abound with iron,* copper,† lead, antimony, plumbago, zinc, sulphur, silver, and gold, together with inexhaustible supplies of coal, in various parts of the country. Coal (see Geology) is now raised in Burdwan in considerable quantities, and it is preferred for the steam vessels at Calcutta, to European or New South Wales coal, in consequence of its not so soon filling the flues, owing to the pureness of the bitumen and the superior quality of the gas.

In Sylhet a fine coal mine has been found; the coal mine now working at Chirra Poonjee produces a mineral, which does not leave one fourth as much ashes as the Burdwan coal; the strata are nearly horizontal, requiring no pumps or machinery for drainage; it is delivered at the Sanatorium at 400 lbs. weight for 1s. The coal now worked is of the slaty

* Boglipoor district is peculiarly rich in iron; and about Pointy and Siccary Gully, very large mines have been worked in former times: the ore is nodular, and yields from 20 to 25 per cent. iron. The Sylhet hills produce in the greatest abundance fine granular iron ore like sand.

† At a meeting of the Bengal Asiatic Society, 20th February, 1833, specimens of copper ore from Nellore were presented on the part of Mr. Kerr. The mines appear to lie to the northward of the Pennar river, 36 miles N.N.W. of Nellore, and 37 W. from the sea, near a village called Ganypenta in Arrowsmith's map.

kind, specific gravity 1.447., containing volatile matter, 36.; carbon, 41; and a copious white ash, 23=100; seams of a superior coal, from two to four feet thick, have been more recently discovered contiguous to abundance of excellent iron ore. Coal has been recently discovered at Fatehpúr (Nerbudda) which shewed near the surface; water separated on a sand heat, 3.5; volatile matter not inflammable, 10.5; charcoal fixed, 22; earthy residue red 64=100. Specific gravity of coal worked at the mines on the Kosya or Cossyah hills, 1.275; composition volatile matter or gas, 38.5; carbon or coke, 60.7; earthy impurities, 0.8=100, (the ash is exceedingly small). The coal found near Hardwar in the Himalaya mountains, has a specific gravity of 1.968, composition volatile matter, 35.4; carbon 50.; ferruginous ash, 14.6=100; coal found in Arracan, specific gravity, 1.308; gives out bitumen and gas on ignition; composition, volatile matter, much 66.4; carbon, 33; ash, 0.6=100.

Mr. Wildey, late paymaster of His Majesty's Fourth Light Dragoons, who was stationed in Cutch, thus describes the coal found there. The best coal of the mine contains charcoal 70 per cent., bitumen 20 per cent., sulphur 5 per cent., iron 3 per cent., and calcareous earths 2 per cent. The second sort, charcoal 60, bitumen 15, oxyd of iron, 9 earths 10, sulphur 4, hydrogen and carbon acids 2 per cent.*

Rich iron ore is abundant in Cutch, and is gathered in baskets on the surface of the earth, and possesses 22 per cent. of iron, and is from 10 to 12 per cent. more than the common iron ore. The natives of Cutch make steel chain armour, sabres, pikes, and various sharp-edge^d tools; they are the best blacksmiths in Asia; their horseshoes are particularly fine, the iron being more malleable and soft, and not so likely to break. The veterinary surgeon of the fourth Dragoons said they were the finest shoes he ever saw, and far preferable to those made in England. The iron ore found in the S. of India is equally good. Mr. Heath is now pro-

* Some recent accounts state that Cutch does not possess any extensive coal mines; I give however Mr. Wildey's statement in order to induce further enquiry.

ducing excellent iron near Madras. The Himalaya mines supply, chiefly, varieties of red iron ore, affording from 30 to 60 per cent of metal: near Kalsi, on the Jumna, there is an extensive bed of specular iron ore; red hematite, associated with micaceous iron ore, occurs in a large bed in gneis at Dhaniakat: at Rhamghur, on the road from Bhamouri to Almorah, there are beds of the scaly red iron ore, also in gneis: compact red iron ore occurs in clay-slate, containing beds of limestone at Katsari, on the Rhamganga: in some places a brown ore of the hydadit species, containing manganese, and affording a superior steel, is found. Boglipoor district is peculiarly rich in iron, and about Pointy and Siccary Gully, very large iron mines have been worked in former times: the ore is nodular, and yields from 20 to 25 per cent. iron. The Sylhet hills produce in the greatest abundance fine granular iron ore like sand. *Copper mines* are worked at Dhanpur, Dhobri, Gangoli, Sira, Pokri, Khari, and Shor Gurang. The ore found in the Dhanpur mine is *grey copper ore*, which affords from 30 to 50 per cent. of copper; it is associated with *malachite*, or green carbonate of copper. The ores are contained in a compact red-coloured dolomite; hence mining operations can be carried on without the expense of wooden frame-work, or masonry. The Pokri mine, or mines, are situated in talc slate of a loose texture; and hence the working is more difficult. The ores are *vitreous* and *purple copper*, both of them rich in copper. The waters flowing from the mine are impregnated with *sulphate of copper* or blue vitriol. The Sira and Gangoli mines are situated in beds of indurated talc, which are enclosed in dolomite. Sometimes the one, sometimes the other rock, form the walls of the mine. The iron is *yellow copper* or *copper pyrites*, mixed with iron pyrites and smaller portions of grey copper ore. The Khari and Shor Gurang mines are similarly situated, the ores are *grey copper*, *yellow copper* or *copper pyrites*, and *carbonate of copper*. Mines exist to the northward of the Pennar river, 36 miles N.N.W. of Nellore, and 37 W. from the sea, near a village called Ganyenta in

Arrowsmith's map. The copper ore prevails over a considerable tract of country; it consists of malachite, and of black anhydrous oxide of copper, with red and yellow ochre imbedded in micaceous schist. The ore differs from the English coppers essentially, in being free from iron pyrites and other deteriorating ingredients, as lead, antimony, sulphur, &c., which make that ore difficult to purify, whereas the Nellore ore becomes quite pure by simple smelting. A specimen of reduced metal sent with the ores to the Asiatic Society, is of a very fine colour and highly malleable. On analyzing the ore, it was found to contain, carbonic acid, 16.8; black oxide copper, 60.75; red oxide iron, 19.4; silica and loss, 3.05—100. Four different varieties examined by the secretary contained from 13 to 47 per cent. of red oxide of iron and silex. *Lead*.—The most productive of these mines are situated on the River Tonse, near the Deyrah Doon; the ore (a fine granular galena) is found in clay-slate and clay-limestone. It would be tedious to particularize other productions; two have been recently discovered. A native sulphate of alumina obtained from the aluminous rocks of Nepál (used by the native doctors to cure green wounds or bruises), yielding on analysis, sulphate of alumina, 95; peroxide of iron, 3; silex, 1; loss, 1—100; and a native sulphate of iron is procured from the hills of Behar, and used by the dyers of Patna, yielding sulphate of iron, 39; peroxide of iron, 36; magnesia, 23; loss, 2—100. These two minerals, the natural productions of Nepál and Behar, may be had in the largest quantities, and would be found extremely useful in the manufacture of Prussian blue, calico printing, and dying. Common salt (muriat of soda).—Carbonate of soda and nitrate of potash occur in many districts forming the salt, soda, and nitre soils. A salt-lake, 20 miles long by 14 broad, is situate near Samber at Rajpoot Town, in lat. 26.53, and long. 74.57; it supplies a great portion of the neighbouring country with salt on the drying up of the lake after the rains. In Berar there is a salt lake, called Loonar, lying in a sort of cauldron of rocks; it contains in the 100

parts, muriat of 20, muriat of lime 10, muriat of magnesia 6. Natron and soda lakes are said to occur in the Himalaya range; towards the sources of the Indus salt lakes were observed by Mr. Gerard, at 16,000 feet elevation above the sea; and there is an extensive salt mine in the Punjab.

The valuable diamonds and other precious stones found in Golconda, in Orissa, Bundelcund, &c. require no detailed notice; silver ore, of a rich quality, is obtained in different places. Gold is found in the beds of most rivers, particularly in Nielgherries; but it exists in abundance in the state of ore in Malabar. This precious metal has been discovered not only in Coimbatore, but throughout that tract of the country lying W. and S. of the Nielgherry mountains and Koondanad. It is found here in great quantities. The whole of the country W. of the Nielgherry mountains, in the taloogs of Parakameetil, especially at Nelliala, Cherangote, Koonyote, Kotah, Nambolacota, Daraloor, &c. &c. also the adjoining Koondanad and Ghát mountains, and all the rivers and cholas (watercourses) down as far W. as Nellambore, and S.W. as Caladicota, Karimpure, Aliparamba, &c. the whole tract, including the mountains, perhaps comprising 2000 square miles, is impregnated with gold. Even the very stones in the beds of rivers, when pounded, have been found to contain particles of that valuable metal. It is found in solid pieces, but generally it is in extremely small particles, obtained in washing the sand of all the rivers as far as Nellambore, Karimpure, &c. as well as in the soil. Gold dust is procured in considerable quantities in every river in the Bhot Mehals of Kumaon, and is abundant in the multitude of rivers and streams in Assam. According to native statements, there is a valuable gold mine called Pakerguri, at the junction of the Dousiri, or Douhiri river, with the Brahmaputra, about 32 miles from Gohati. In 1809, it was estimated that 1,000 men were employed in collecting gold, and that the State annually received 1,500 rupees weight in gold. There can be no doubt that when the riches of India begin to be appreciated in England, the precious metals will flow in abundance from the eastern to the western hemisphere.

164 POPULATION OF BRITISH INDIA (FROM ALL EXISTING RETURNS).*

Provinces.	Cities and Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Hindoos.			Musulman.			Native Christians.	Jains or Buddhists.	All other Sects.	Total Males.	Total Females.	Grand Total.	Months to Square Mile.
			Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.							
Bengal.	Calcutta, City	8	1000										1000000	558	
	Ditto, 24 Pergannas	4722											1638000	681	
	Hooghly, District	2260											1840800	440	
	Nuddea, do.	3020											1760400	385	
	Jessore, do.	5180											888400	360	
	Backergunge, do.	2780											865700	308	
	Dacca, City	4435											1772800	327	
	Ditto, District	6880											760800	308	
	Uttarah, do.	3980											1087200	370	
	Chittagong, do.	4000											1464670	306	
	Sylhet, do.	6680											4087185	1020	
	Myensing, do.	3680											143061	517	
	Moorshedabad, City	1870	130	44438	45648	90086	26442	37648	64090				1304740	300	
	Ditto, District	6680	26	341710	328614	665224	188385	166896	364732				1087685	327	
	Junglee Mohan, do.	2870											2628720	448	
Birbhoon, do.	5920											1240860	170		
Dinajpore, do.	7865											1487268	748		
Rangpoor, do.	8080											2236482	108		
Banghal, do.	25480											707790	108		
Boglipoor, do.	7270											1340610	282		
Bahar, do.	6328											265706	400		
Bihar.	Ratan, City	667											90866	300	
	Ditto, District	4650											1600284	300	
	Shahabad, do.	7460											1988780	354	
	Purnea, do.	7732											1404000	306	
	Tripoor, do.	4780													
	Saran, do.	6780													
	Sambalpoor, do.	850													
	Bonara, City	8280													
	Ditto, District	9800													
	Midnapore, do.	11600													
	Hidjelic, do.	16800													
	Cuttack, City	16000													
	Ditto, District	2880													
	Assam, do.	2240													
	Tuvay, Ye, do. do.	9280													
Chandernagore, do.	1680														
Asinghur, do.	2880														
Garuchpoor, do.	2880														
Jeonpoor, do.	1680														
N. W. Provinces of Hindoostan.	Alahabad, City	50	31603	22615	44108	9910	10769	20680					64826	294	
	Ditto, District	150	261798	302417	564206	90681	70876	161569					716586		
	Banda, do.	4685													
	Raipur, do.	1780													
	Fatehpore, do.	3650													
	Cawnpore, do.	2450													
	Ritwah, do.	1860													
	Farruckabad, do.	1430													
	Shahjhanpoor, do.	1000													
	Saidabad, do.	3800													
	Allyghur, do.	1800													
	Salewan, do.	2800													
	Bangilly, do.	2800													
	Feeribaken, do.	5800													
	Moradabad, do.	3800													
Madras.	Agra, City	3800	100	26095	29968	68068	10060	16630	31670				96747		
	Ditto, District	1430													
	Delhi, City	9000													
	Ditto, District	1430													
	Saharanpoor, do.	7300													
	Kanara, do.	6380													
	Norwood, District	8700													
	Ganjam, do.	5700													
	Vilaspattam, do.	5000													
	Rajmundry, do.	4600													
	Kanulipattam, do.	4610													
	Guntoor, do.	4980													
	Bellary, do.	13880													
	Cuddapah, do.	12735													
	Nellore, do.	7478													
Arnot, do.	16408														
Chingleput, do.	3030														
Madras, City	7680														
Salem, District	5892														
Chombator, do.	3169														
Tanjore, do.	2673														
Madura, do.	7804														
Tinnevely, do.	6490														
Malabar, do.	4900														
Canara, do.	7477	1000		68692			26220	60000	100000	46000			100000		
Bombay Isle	12870												100000		
Cochin, N. Dist.	9680												100000		
Ditto, S. do.	2670												100000		
Dharwar, do.	13480												100000		
Poona, City	2670												100000		
Ditto, District	13480												100000		
Kandoolah, do.	1560												100000		
Nerat, City	1600												100000		
Ditto, District	1800												100000		
Berach, do.	4900												100000		
Kairah, do.	4900												100000		
Ahmedabad, do.	1728												100000		
Kattywar, do.													100000		

* I give this almost blank return as the nearest approximation to correctness; as neither the E. F. House nor India Board are there any further details; I trust it may soon be filled up to India.

166 POPULATION, VILLAGES, HOUSES, OF BENGAL, BAHAR, &C.

Provinces, Districts, square Miles, Villages, Houses, and Population of the permanently settled Provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa

Province.	Districts.	Square Miles.	Villages.	Houses.	Population.
Calcutta.	City	7	..	55,005	300,000
	Suburbs of ditto	1,168	215	74,175	366,350
	24 Pargunnas	4,610	2,891	130,915	659,395
	Hoojley	2,250	3,997	307,430	1,240,350
	Nudda	3,105	4,548	354,023	1,264,372
	Jessore	5,180	6,239	345,700	1,750,400
	Cuttack	9,640	10,511	396,924	1,984,029
	Midnapore	8,260	8,536	322,212	1,914,060
	Burdwan	3,000	6,676	358,210	1,487,268
	Jungmehauls	6,000	6,403	360,048	1,394,740
	Rangpur	23,480	12,364	470,663	2,325,082
	Bahar.	Behar	5,335	6,312	368,121
Tirhoot		7,732	10,076	353,070	1,066,720
Saran		5,760	6,118	292,915	1,494,170
Shahabad		4,630	4,185	181,770	908,850
Patna		667	1,098	51,141	305,705
Mooresabad.	Bhanguipore	7,270	3,667	120,858	707,790
	Purneah	7,460	5,368	205,478	1,600,384
	Dinagpore	5,920	12,240	498,360	2,625,220
	Rungpoor	7,885	4,231	368,070	1,240,350
	Rajahabye	3,950	9,170	817,431	4,087,185
	Beerhoom	3,870	5,227	223,413	1,207,668
	Mooresabad	1,670	2,342	152,638	763,690
	Mymensing	6,988	7,904	290,934	1,484,670
	Sylhet	2,338	6,717	216,744	1,063,720
	Tripurah	6,830	7,529	274,482	1,372,200
Decca.	Chittagong	3,500	1,166	160,166	700,800
	Backergunge	3,780	3,454	127,328	686,640
	Decca	1,670	2,580	106,777	512,385
	Ditto (Jalalpoore)	2,595	2,543	117,675	583,375
Total ..		162,792	184,206	7,781,240	39,987,661

N. WESTERN PROVINCES.—In the return of the population of India by districts, as laid before Parliament in 1831, there are no data for ascertaining the inhabitants of each district in the Upper or Western Provinces, under the Bengal Presidency: Mr. Ewing, in his Police Report in 1826, gives a rough calculation of 32,206,806 for the Benares and Bareilly Provinces, the area of which (excluding Delhi, which is not given), is 66,510 square miles (*the reader will find the area of each province in the table prefixed to this chapter*) but besides this area, there are 29,800 square miles of ceded districts on the Nerbudda, and 55,900 square miles of districts

* There has been (it is a shame to say so) no census of Calcutta for several years. Those who may consider that 1,000,000, or 1,500,000 mouths is an over estimate for Calcutta should recollect that Calcutta, as London, may be said to embrace both sides of the river; the mere city of Calcutta (embraced within the limits of the Supreme Court) may be likened to the City of London separate from Westminster;—yet even the City of Calcutta contains half a million of inhabitants, if not more.

POPULATION OF THE CITY AND DISTRICT OF ALLAHABAD. 167

ceded by the Rajah of Berar in 1826, making a total of 85,700 square miles, of the population of which there are no returns.

I give the accompanying return, just received from India, as a simple form, which the Court of Directors ought to require from every Collectorate in India, where more detail were practicable it might be adopted,—

Population of the City and District of Allahabad in 1831-32.

City.	Mussulmans.*					Hindoos.*					Grand Total.	
	Houses.	Men.	Women.	Children.		Total.	Men.	Women.	Children.			
				Males.	Females.				Males.	Females.		
City.....	9319	5661	6158	3251	2518	16593	9850	9621	4061	4903	28438	45021
Suburbs..	4747	1358	1445	660	637	4076	4765	5355	2187	2803	15593	19784
Total	13966	6999	7604	3911	3155	20669	15203	15009	6248	7806	44116	64785

District of Allahabad, exclusive of the City.....	Houses.	Mussulmans.		Total.	Hindoos.		Total.	Grand Total.
		Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.		
	143737	20531	70078	161909	251789	302417	554206	780199

MADRAS PRESIDENCY.—The population of the Madras Presidency, is thus given in some returns furnished me from the India House: it is acknowledged that the census of some of the districts, was not correctly ascertained when the first returns were made, owing to the unwillingness of the zemindars to afford any information to Government:—

* The proportion of Musselmans to the Hindoos in Lower Bengal in the principal Mahomedan City and District is thus shewn—

Population of the City and District of Moorshedabad for 1829.

Division.	No. of Houses			No. of Inhabitants.			Proportion of sexes in the City.		
	Mussulman.	Hindoo.	Total.	Mussulman.	Hindoo.	Total.	Males.	Females.	
City.....	14281	25827	40118	56090	90006	146176	28442	27648	
District..	70453	97659	168111	356736	465224	821960	44429	45648	
Total	84734	123486	208229	412826	555230	968136			
							Do. in District.		
							Mussulmans	186036	166996
							Hindoos	241710	233514
							Ratio of Inhabitants per house 4.73.		

Population and area* of the Provinces under the Madras Government:

Districts.	Extent N. to S. miles	Extent E. to W. miles	Area in Square Miles.	Total of A. D. 1822.	Total of A. D. 1827.	Fusly, 1240, A. D. 1820-31.		
						Males.	Females.	Total.
Ganjamt	126	39	3700	332,015	468,047	222,991	215,283	438,174
Vizagapatam	110	59	5600	772,570	1,008,544	543,674	501,740	1,047,414
Rajahmundry	100	80	4699	788,308	660,900	357,292	327,724	685,016
Masulipatam	100	68	4800	529,849	519,125	295,182	249,496	544,678
Guntur				454,754	476,767	271,792	246,626	518,418
Nellore	140	75	7478	439,467	730,066	448,176	396,596	844,772
Bellary	280	264	12703	927,937	941,612	599,831	538,908	1,138,739
Chidambah	262	150	12752	1,094,450	1,000,957	558,300	504,964	1,063,164
Chingleput				368,121	289,828	171,699	150,122	321,821
N. Division	120	130	8002	892,292	730,410	397,555	375,113	772,668
S. ditto	100	90	8500	455,020	549,795	288,277	265,111	553,388
Salem	134	80	7598	1,075,985	955,480	424,048	398,060	822,107
Tanjore	108	70	3872	901,353	1,065,550	578,112	550,618	1,128,730
Trichinopoly	90	48	3169	481,295	476,720	274,151	262,846	536,997
Madras, &c. &c.	190	166	6982	601,298				
Shevavunga	54	49	1724	186,903	1,122,979	578,979	667,929	1,138,411
Tinnevely	135	80	5590	564,957	766,746	430,142	420,749	850,891
Colombatore	162	86	8392	638,199	854,050	425,170	429,664	854,834
Canara	230	46	7477	657,594	665,652	367,691	339,680	707,571
Malabar	118	65	4900	907,675	1,008,66	561,172	552,325	1,113,497
Madras City				462,051		(No returns since 1822.)		700,000
Total	2559	11622	97864	14,006,018	14,287,272	7,796,834	7,293,350	15,090,084

The census of the Bombay Presidency is less to be depended on than the foregoing; combining Colonel Sykes's information with the scanty intelligence laid before Parliament, I make up the following return, as the nearest approximation to truth which is at present attainable.

Divisions.	Collectorates.	Square miles.	Villages.	Houses.	Population.	Remarks.
Deccan.	Bombay Isle.	18	..	20,786	220,000	In the Deccan which includes an area of 48,967 square miles, and a population of 3,288,968, the average number of mouths to the sq. mile is 6,768, and the proportion of males to females, about 100 to 86; the Mussulmans form only from 6 to 8 per cent. of the whole population; the Mahrattas, from 60 to 70 per cent., the Brahmias from 5 to 10 per cent. Rajpoots, from 3 to 6 per cent. and outcasts, &c. from 9 to 10 per cent.
	Poonah	8,281	1,607	114,887	558,213	
	Ahmednuggur	9,910	2,465	136,375	666,576	
	Khandesh	13,527	2,738	120,822	478,457	
	Dharwar	9,122	2,491	187,322	832,757	
	S. Jagheerda	2,078	917	..	778,183	
	Sattara, Ditto	6,169	1,703	..	736,284	
	Concan, S.	6,770	2,340	..	656,827	
	Concan, N.	5,590	387,264	
	Surat, &c.	1,440	555	108,156	454,431	
Broach	1,381	400	55,349	389,527		
Ahmedabad	4,073	728	178,926	528,073		
Kaira	1,927	579	127,231	484,735		
Total	69074	16912	10,968,52	3,940,277		

* I give the area and population from separate Manuscripts at the India House which do not agree in the names of the districts.

† Gangam is exclusive of the Zemindaries, Jaradah, Vizianagaram, and Daracote, in which no census appears to have been taken in that year, thus accounting for the apparent decrease.

‡ This includes Ramnal 2,500 and Dindigul, 2,624 square miles.

Census of the Population of the Islands of Bombay and Colabah, taken in the months of August, September, October, and November, 1826.

No. of Houses.		English.	Portuguese.	Parsees.	Jews.	Americans.	Moors.	Hindoo.	Malays.	Chinese.	Total.
1,219	Fort	432	389	6903	70	39	1232	5029	142	5	13611
520	Colabah	175	413	124	303	1358	304	..	2676
6,457	Dungaree	46	1294	1764	1200	..	12888	29634	513	..	47859
4,311	Byculla	51	114	983	9220	19070	1638	..	31083
2,259	Malabar Hill, &c.	59	44	119	51	2188	39	10	2422
894	Guzgaum	61	1448	1074	519	9998	7	33	18040
1,309	Mahim East	52	810	364	302	3056	142	..	4690
3,595	Mahim West	24	1319	41	258	4773	99	..	6414
		8	2320	25	1141	7568	236	..	11290
20,195	Total										132570
	Military & Esti-										10000
	Floating & mated										20000
	Grand Total.	938	8020	10738	1270	39	25020	82592	3005	48	162570

It is difficult to say how near any of the foregoing returns, except those for Madras, approximate towards correctness; the estimated population of 422,990 square miles here given is 89,577,206, leaving 91,200 square miles of British territory of the population of which no accounts can be traced; but if we allow the low rate of 90 mouths to the square mile, it will make the population of the British territories about *one hundred million!* Now to this vast number, we are to add the inhabitants of the protected and allied states; the area of which is greater than that of the British territory by 100,000 square miles; and allowing an equal amount of population to the British territories, it will give a grand total of two HUNDRED MILLION INHABITANTS,* directly and indirectly under the sway of Great Britain, and subject to the Government of the Hon. East India Company! The number of whites, or

* The following estimate has been made of the population of the allied and independent states:—Hydrabad 10,000,000; Oude, 6,000,000; Nagpoor, 3,000,000; Mysore, 3,000,000; Sattara, 1,500,000; Gaickwar, 2,000,000; Travancore and Cochin, 1,000,000; Rajpootana and various minor principalities 16,500,000; Scindias territories, 4,000,000; the Seiks, 3,000,000; Nepal, 2,000,000; Cashmere, &c. 1,000,000; Sinde, 1,000,000; total 51,000,000. This, of course, is but a rough estimate by Hamilton.

Europeans, does not, including all the military, amount to 100,000.*

It does not fall within the province of a work, the object of which is to enable the British public to appreciate duly the vast importance and actual condition of the Colonies of this Empire,—it does not, I say, fall within the legitimate or advisable scope of such an undertaking to speculate on abstract questions, such, for instance, as the *origin* of the Hindoos,—whether the earth was primitively peopled from the Polar regions (as asserted by a French philosopher), or from the lofty table land of Hindostan (as contended for by many),—whether the Hindoos were originally migratory Scythian or Tartar colonists, or emigrants from Egypt, or *vice versa*, or whether they are a nation of 1,000 or 12,000 years' antiquity; all these disquisitions would be unsuited to work of this description, and as until the last 50 years little or nothing had been known in Europe of peninsular Asia, probably more time will be requisite for the just developement of important truths; I will, therefore, proceed to observe that a misconception has long prevailed that, the inhabitants of British India, to the number of 100,000,000, are a primitive, simple people, usually termed Hindoos, who abstain from eating anything that ever breathed the breath of life, and are invariably disciples of Menu. It would be as absurd to speak of all the inhabitants of Europe as one race, because they wear hats, shave, and are (at least) professedly Christians, as it would be absurd to speak of the many millions who inhabit our possessions on the Continent of Asia as one people because they, generally, wear turbans, do not shave their faces,† and are nominally the worshippers of Brahma. In fact, there

* From Assam I have just received the following data: territory, 400 miles long, and 65 broad at the broadest part; population, 830,000; revenue, S. R. 3,50,000.

† The Hindoos shave the chin and cheeks, but not the upper lip, which is nearly the reverse of the Mahomedans.

is a greater diversity of character and language among the natives of Hindostan than there is in all Europe.

Bishop Heber justly observed, 'it is a great mistake to suppose that all India is peopled by a single race, or that there is not as great a disparity between the inhabitants of Guzerat, Bengal, the Dûab, and the Deckan both in language, manners, and physiognomy, as between any four nations in Europe; and again, the inhabitants of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, and of the Deckhan, are as different from those nations I have seen, and from each other, as the French and Portuguese from the Greeks, Germans, and Poles.' Colonel Todd remarks that along the course of the River *Chumbul* (500 miles) may be found specimens of the various Indian races of *Soondees*, *Chunderawats*, *Seesoodias*, *Aaras Gore*, *Jadon*, *Sikerwal Goojur*, *Jaât*, *Tuar*, *Chohan*, *Bhadoria Ketchwaha*, *Sengar*, *Boondela*, &c., each in associations of various magnitudes, from the substantive state to the little republic communes between the *Chumbul* and *Cohari*. Mr. Crawford thinks that, in India there are at least 30 nations, speaking as many distinct languages; and that these Indian nations are unknown to each other; the Mahrattas being as much strangers to the people of Bengal, or to those of the Carnatic as we are; the Seiks are strangers to the Mahrattas, and some 15,000,000 Mahomedans differ from each other in nation, in sect, and often in language. Bengal, Assam, Arracan, Behar, the upper Provinces Kumaon, the Sikh States, Rajpootana, and Bundelcund (to say nothing of Southern or Western India) contain respectively a people as different from each other as Holland, France, Spain, Portugal, England, Scotland, Germany, and Switzerland; Madras, Bombay, and central India contain a population as different from each other as the foregoing, and may be likened to the Greeks, Austrians, Prussians, Poles, and various Russian tribes.

The Mussulmans are divided into two chief sects—the Soonée and the Shea, as different from each other as Protestant and Catholic among the Christians; and there are nu-

merous subdivisions (as various as those of the Reform faith) whose tenets have more or less effect on their conduct in the affairs of common life; there are also Parsees, Chinese, Malays, Armenians, Syrian, and Roman Catholic Christians, Portuguese descendants, and thousands of other classes. But even among the disciples of Bramah there is a great diversity. The majority perhaps of the Hindoos of Bengal and Orissa do not eat meat, and it has been ascribed to a religious precept forbidding the destruction of animal life; but almost every Hindoo eats *fish*, several eat kid, and many birds: the abstinence from animal food was, in the first instance, owing to an interdict of the priests, in consequence of its scarcity or dearness. Many of the highest Rajpoots and Brahmins in N. and Western India will eat goat's flesh, venison, and *wild* hog's flesh, while they abhor that of sheep, or *domestic* swine; some will eat the jungle cock (which is pretty similar to our game cock except in size) who would think the touch of a domestic fowl pollution; very many castes will eat some particular kind of food but refuse others: at Bikaneer, all the Hindoos profess an abhorrence of fish; at Kumaon they will eat the *short*-tailed sheep of the hills, but will not touch one with a *long* tail: many castes will eat bread baked by people who would lose caste if they were to touch boiled rice prepared by the same hands: an *earthen* pot is polluted past redemption by being touched by an inferior caste, a metal one suffers no such deterioration: some tribes allow a man to smoke, through his hands, from the bowl (*chillum*) which contains the tobacco, but would not allow the same person to touch that part of the hookah which contains the water. Instances such as these might be multiplied *ad infinitum*.

In points of greater importance there is as great a difference between the various tribes of Hindoos, as among the different sects of Christians; even the religious holidays observed in Bengal are different from those kept in the Upper Provinces, the barbarous ceremonies of Juggernaut's car, and the abominations of Churruk Poonjah (where men are swung in the air with hooks fastened through their loins) are utterly unknown

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in Northern and Western India : in some parts of Hindostan female infanticide is almost universal, in others it is held in just abhorrence ; again in some parts polygamy prevails, in others polyandria (as in the Himalaya districts, where one woman is married to all the brothers in a family, for the purpose of keeping property in the family) ; in some places the marriage of a daughter is a cause of great expense to her parents ; in others the source of profit, as the husband pays a considerable sum for his wife, and has the power of selling her again, or even of mortgaging her for a certain time in security for a debt which he is unable to pay. Even the Indian Mussulmans have their castes, for which they are thoroughly despised by a Persian or Affghan.

The different nations, classes, and sects of Hindostan may be thus summarily distinguished, in order to mark their variety. Insidious, cruel, and talented Brahmins, war-like Khetries, industrious Shoodras, ambitious but sensual Moslems,* war-like and cunning Mahrattas,† peaceful money-changing

* The number of Moslems throughout British India has been estimated at from ten to fifteen million ; in some places they do not form one-sixteenth of the population.

† The Deccan is the principal country of the Mahrattas : the total population of this division of Hindostan is about 3,285,985 souls, of whom about 70 per cent. are Mahrattas ; the remainder, according to Lieut.-Col Sykes, consists of low caste Brahmins, Mussulmans, and Rajpoots. The clear evidence of this talented officer before Parliament thus displays the difference between the portion of the Hindoos called Mahrattas and those who are not ; and he also draws a comparison between the Hindoos generally and the Mussulmans.

The Mahrattas are a nation speaking a language peculiar to themselves. The nation comprises Mahratta Brahmins, Mahratta low castes, and other various castes of Hindoos ; but the genuine Mahratta belongs to that great division of the Hindoos denominated Shoodrah, a division comprising an infinity of distinctive groups or races, none of the members of which will eat or intermarry with Shoodrahs not belonging to their own group or race. There are certainly minute shades of difference amongst the Mahrattas, but no distinction of caste. There are local circumstances that probably prevent one family intermarrying with another ; but still every Mahratta can eat with his neighbour Mahratta, unless the latter should have been expelled from his caste, an event of no unusual occurrence.

Jains,* feudatory and high-spirited Rajpoots, roving and thieving Batties and Catties,† scrupulously honest Parsees,‡ lynx-eyed Jews,§ heroic Goorkas, professionally murdering Thugs and Phasingars,|| mercantile Armenians,¶ freebooting Pindaries, vindictive but grateful Nairs, sedate Nestorians,** filthy Mughls,†† haughty Persians, actively commercial Chi-

* I think, on the whole, the minds of the Mussulmans are superior to the Hindoos; the Mussulmans are men of greater elevation of sentiment, greater energy of purpose and dignity of character; they are more luxurious and dissipated, but they are decidedly more martial, manly and cultivated, as a people, than the Hindoos: they are, however, great bigots, which the Hindoos are not. They harmonize, however, very well with the Hindoos; the Hindoos even assist to celebrate some of their religious festivals; and it is very remarkable that all the butchers' meat consumed by the Hindoos (which is considerable), is prepared, as far as the slaughter and cutting up of the animal goes, by Mussulman butchers only.

* The Jains are somewhat similar in features as well as in manners and religion, to the Buddhists of Ceylon and Siam

† These wandering outlaws worship the sun, and hold the moon in great veneration.

‡ The Parsees (of whom there are 10,738 in Bombay island) are one of the finest races of people that are any where to be found; although descendants of the Guebers, or fire worshippers, whose heroism is so well known, they are now generally engaged in traffic, in the details of which they display an honesty, intelligence, and nobleness which is no where surpassed.

§ The Jews are very numerous in India and in China, and many are to be found in the ranks of the Bombay army, where they have behaved bravely; the Asiatic Jews are distinguished from those of Europe by immense 'Roman' noses.

|| The Phasingars of the S. of India are professional murderers, like the Thugs; the latter, however, are composed of men of all castes, and it is remarkable that *Brahmins* are the most numerous and the chief directors of the horrid vocation of their sect.

¶ The Armenians in their manners and peaceful, honourable calling as merchants, bear no slight resemblance to the Parsees.

** The Nestorian Christians are very numerous in the S. of India, and deservedly much admired for their peaceful, intelligent, and industrious habits

†† The Mughls, or natives of Arracan, are a short muscular race, of a copper colour, with round, flat features. They possess more activity and

nese,* mercenary Sindeans, martial Seiks,† fanatical Roman Catholics,‡ despotic Poligars, bigotted Gosseins, prescribed Sontals, piratical Concanese, turbulent Mhairs and Meenas, degraded Muniporeans, sanguinary and untameable Koolies, timid and apathetic Assamese,§ Quaker-like Kaitis,|| wild Puharees,¶ pastoral Todawars,** maritime Cutch,†† usurious natural courage than the Bengalees, but less than their late masters, the Burmese. Their food is chiefly fish and rice, but they object not to a dish of stewed rats or boiled snakes, or a fried section of the putrifying carcase of an elephant; nothing, in fact, from a maggot to a mammoth, comes amiss to a voracious Mugh. These ancient people form six-tenths of a population of 100,000 in Arracan; the Mussulmans the remaining three-tenths, and the Burmese one-tenth.

* This extraordinary race are colonizing themselves fast in Calcutta, and by their superior skill as artificers, are engrossing to themselves the principal handicrafts of the city.

† The eagle eye, Roman nose and flowing beard, give the Seik cavaliers a noble appearance; and in horsemanship they are perhaps not excelled by any other nation, European or Asiatic.

‡ The Roman Catholics (descendants from the Portuguese and French, or converts to their faith) amount, it is said, to 600,000; they are sunk in a state of idolatry not far removed from Hindooism. There are 50,000 Portuguese, or converts to their religion, assuming Portuguese names, in the territories under the Bombay Presidency.

§ The population of Assam (400 miles long by 65 broad) is 830,000; the inhabitants in general are remarkable for their timid submission and apathetic character, and for their ordinary features, or it might be termed ugliness, not even excepting the women; there are a few hill tribes of a more manly character and appearance, and the Camroop women are spoken of as handsome. The Assamese are of the Brahminical faith, but separated into an almost infinite variety of sects.

|| The Kaitis, like the Quakers, support each other; — none are uneducated, they are never seen in a state of indigence or in a mental capacity; they differ from the 'Quakers' in not being of a strictly moral character.

¶ The Puharees inhabit the hilly country between Burdwan and Boglipoor, and appear to be the aborigines of Bengal; they have no castes, care nothing for the Hindoo faith, and do not worship idols; their language, features and manners are alike distinct from the people of the plains.

** This manly race, who in features and independent feelings strongly resemble the ancient Romans, inhabit the table land of Coimbatore.

†† Among the timid navigators of the East, the mariner of Cutch is

Soucars and Shroffs,* outcast Pariars, ferocious Malays, innocent Karians, dissolute Moguls,† peaceful Telingars, anomalous Grassias, grasping Jauts or Jats,‡ effeminate Oorians,§

truly adventurous; he voyages to Arabia, the Red Sea, and the coast of Zanguebar in Africa, bravely stretching out on the ocean after quitting his native shore. The 'moallim,' or pilot, determines his position by an altitude at noon, or by the stars at night, with a rude quadrant. Coarse charts depict to him the bearings of his destination, and, by long-trying seamanship, he weathers, in an undecked boat with a huge lateen sail, the dangers and tornadoes of the Indian Ocean. The use of the quadrant was first learned by a native of Cutch, who made a voyage to Holland in the middle of the last century, and returned, 'in a green old age,' to enlighten his countrymen with the arts and sciences of Europe. The most substantial advantages introduced by this improver of his country were the arts of navigation and naval architecture, in which the inhabitants of Cutch excel. For a trifling reward, a Cutch mariner will put to sea in the rainy season, and the adventurous feeling is encouraged by the Hindoo merchants of Mandavie, an enterprising and speculative body of men.

* Bankers and money changers, a tribe spread all over India.

† The dingy white colour of the Moguls of the N. W. provinces is as displeasing to the eye as their filthy licentiousness is to the mind.

‡ The Jâts originally migrated from the province of Mooltan, on the banks of the Indus, and subsisted partly by plunder and partly by commerce and agriculture. During the civil wars of Aurungzebe's successors, the Jâts secured a large portion of the country between the Ganges and Jumna, accumulated much treasure by pillage and spoil, and built several forts, one of which was Bhurtpore; the title of Rajah was then assumed by their chiefs, the principal of whom reigns in Bhurtpore, the total area of whose government is about 5,000 square miles. The Jâts thus alluded to are descended from a low *Sudra* caste, having subsequently assumed the title of *Khetri*, or military caste, and are distinct from the Jâts or old Mahomedan peasantry of the Punjab. The Indus tribe are, however, well entitled to assume the appellation of *Khetri*, as they are a brave independent race, and one of the most determined enemies which the British forces have engaged with on the battle field.

§ The Oorians inhabit Orissa, and so feminine are they in appearance, that it is difficult to distinguish them from women, both dressing exactly alike. They are timid, but exceedingly dissolute and obscene; they are more versed in low cunning, dissimulation and subterfuge, than perhaps any people in the E., and that is saying much for their character. Their honesty and industry are two remarkable features in contrast with the foregoing traits, with which Mr Stirling depicted the Oorians.

keen-sighted Bunnias,* mendicant Byragies, jesuitical Charuns and minstrel Bhâts, avaricious Mewatties, restless and depraved Soondies,† well-trained fighting Arabs and Patans,‡ commercial Bringaries and Loodanahs,§ aboriginal Gonds,|| monkish Kapriyas¶ and in fine tribes of Sours, Baugries, Moghies, Googurs, Gwarriahs,** &c., too numerous and diversified to depict, and presenting, if not a similar number of languages, a corresponding diversity of dialects and a complete distinction in manners, customs, and occupations.

Nothing is more natural than to expect among so many millions of people spread over so varied a country a marked distinction of character; have we not endless variety in climates, in soils, in waters, in minerals, in vegetables, in fish, in insects, in birds, and quadrupeds, subject to certain defined laws of the Creator, and influenced by natural causes? Why should it be otherwise with the human race, who in colour, physiognomy, stature, speech, gesture, habits, and mental as well as physical peculiarities present, such an extraordinary diversity, that no two persons were ever found alike?††

* The retail and petty dealing in central India is in the hands of the Bunnias.

† Illegitimate descendants of the Rajpoots, looked on by other tribes with disgust for their numerous and habitual vices.

‡ The Arabs and Patans are mercenary soldiers, and, like their European Swiss brethren, ready to fight for those who pay them best.

§ These people live in tents, have no home, and trade generally in grain, with which they travel from country to country, or follow the route of armies, who in their fiercest contests, consider these valuable attendants as neutrals: they preserve a marked separation and independence of other races, and their dress and usages are peculiar.

|| The Gonds, who may be considered the aborigines of the S. part of India, and who bear a striking resemblance to the African negro, still continue to offer human sacrifices where they are not subject to our control.

¶ Similar in habits and rules to the Dominican friars.

** The Gwarriahs live by stealing women and children to sell.

†† While travelling in different countries, I made a collection of the skulls of different nations (the greater part of the collection I had the pleasure of presenting to the Asiatic Society Museum, at Calcutta, where

Even in the same family, we see no two individuals having similar characteristics, notwithstanding all the efforts of education (which may now be seen), and it is exceedingly curious to observe what a marked configuration the crania of diverse people exhibit, even among nations with scarcely a perceptible natural boundary between them. The most striking example noticed was the difference between the Bengallee and the Burmese: the skull of the *former* possesses a greater occipital protuberance than that of any people I have ever met; it is, in fact, *semi-globular*, and the whole skull extraordinarily small, divested of any angular or rugged projections, and of remarkably thin laminæ (these observations are founded on the examination of hundreds of the Bengallee skulls): the cranium of the *latter* (Burmese) possesses what I have never found in any other nation—a *perfectly flat* occipital bone; so much so, that a Burmese skull will rest on a broader and firmer base when placed with the face upwards, than in any other position. As if to compensate for the flatness of the occipital bone, the parietal or side walls of the skull bulge out in an extraordinary manner; the brain case (unlike the Hindoo's) is very large, and the laminæ extraordinarily thick. Among my Burmese specimens were the mutilated skulls of Burmese soldiers, found near Rangoon, some of which were clove in twain by the prowess of British soldiers. On another occasion, I will trace the characters of nations, as exemplified in the mental shield. (For a measurement of the crania and skeletons of a male and female New Hollander, see Vol. IV., New South Wales.)

Since the first edition of this volume went to press, that distinguished Brahmin, (or rather Hindoo) Rajah Rammohun Roy, died near Bristol, afar from the land of his birth, and without kith or kin to hear his last prayer. I knew the Rajah well, having lived for some months with him at his Garden House, near Calcutta. He had his faults (who has not?); but they were more than counterbalanced by his virtues. Immediately on his demise, a cast was taken of his head (which was not only of a very unusual size for a Hindoo, but even for the generality of Englishmen), for the purpose of promoting phrenological inquiry. I give the details (as I have the osteological measurement of the New Hollanders in my fourth volume), for the purpose of stimulating to further inquiry on so interesting a subject.

DIMENSIONS, IN INCHES, OF THE SKULL OF THE LATE RAMMOHUN ROY,
FROM A CAST TAKEN WHILE THE BODY WAS YET WARM.*

Greatest circumference of head, measuring horizontally over individuality, destructiveness, and philo-progenitiveness, 24½; from *occipital*

* In stating the actual dimensions of the head, allowance has been made for the hair.

cation we find a difference in moral qualities, as well as in mental capabilities; in hand-writing even, in the intonation of the voice, in gait, in animal propensities,—and this distinction

spine to individuality, over top of the head, 15; *ear to ear*, vertically over top of the head, measuring from upper margin of the *meatus*, 14½; *philo-progenitiveness to individuality*, in a straight line, 8½; *concentrativeness to comparison*, 7½; *ear to philo-progenitiveness*, 4½; *to individuality*, 5½; *to benevolence*, 6½; *to veneration*, 6½; *to firmness*, 6½; *destructiveness to destructiveness*, 6½; *secretiveness to secretiveness*, 6½; *cautiousness to cautiousness*, 5½; *ideality to ideality*, 4½; *constructiveness to constructiveness*, 5½; *mastoid process to mastoid process*, 5½.

Development.—(1) Amativeness very large; (2) philo-progenitiveness rather large; (3) concentrativeness full; (4) adhesiveness large; (5) combativeness large; (6) destructiveness large; (7) secretiveness large; (8) acquisitiveness full; (9) constructiveness rather full; (10) self-esteem very large; (11) love of approbation ditto; (12) cautiousness large; (13) benevolence ditto; (14) veneration full; (15) firmness very large; (16) conscientiousness ditto; (17) hope full; (18) wonder rather full; (19) ideality ditto; (20) wit or mirthfulness ditto; (21) imitation rather large; (22) individuality ditto; (23) form full; (24) size rather large; (25) weight ditto; (26) colouring full; (27) locality rather large; (28) number moderate; (29) order rather full; (30) eventuality full; (31) time full; (32) tune moderate; (33) language rather large; (34) comparison ditto; (35) causality ditto.

Having had an intimate acquaintance with Rammohun Roy, and possessing, from his own lips and those of his confidants, a knowledge of circumstances which, he did not think proper to reveal in the scanty materials of his life that he furnished, I may with confidence state that phrenological science is not in danger from the '*development*' of the animal portion of the brain; but in the mental development there are not only contradictions, but positive negatives. From No. 1 to 6, his passions were powerful, on occasion, in some instances, uncontrollable, and with difficulty subjected to his extraordinary masculine understanding; his *benevolence* was not merely *large*, but very largely in activity; he had no *order* in any domestic concern, and the only symptom of it observable was in the construction of his sentences in writing: *language* is described as '*rather large*;' in reality it was very remarkable—he understood a variety of tongues thoroughly, and acquired them with facility: *caution* is described only as *large*; if a deep concealment of motives, not unfrequently degenerating into cunning, be *caution*, no man possessed it more than Rammohun Roy, whose *veneration* nevertheless for a Supreme Being was not merely *full*, but unbounded.

becomes the more marked, if we compare two brothers with the nation of which they form a part, while a wider line of demarcation is seen on comparing the people of a province with those of other and distant climes. That I may the better exemplify my assertion as to the variety of British subjects in India, I request a moment's attention to Italy, where the climate and soil is so varied. In that classic land, we have the descendants of a race of men as ancient in record as the Hindoos; but (as in Hindostan) the inhabitants of the north, are essentially different from those of the south, the former produces the best soldiers (Rajpoots) the latter the keenest politicians, (Bengallees) the people of the one are industrious, peaceful, of tamer manners, or if I may so express my meaning, *domesticated*; those of the other, of a wild and stormy temper, generous but revengeful, capable of the most heroic as well as the basest deeds, of an uncultivated genius, and impatient of discipline; whence then this marked contrast in Italy? (a country so small compared with Hindostan) the political institutes, the religion, the language is common to all, but the *climate and soil are essentially different*.

The N. of Italy is a fertile, champagne country, intersected by numerous rivers, cultivated to an astonishing degree, covered with wide and level roads, never ending avenues, and thickly-populated towns and villages, with a highly luxuriant but dull and sleepy landscape; (this description might serve for lower Bengal) the S. is crowned with purple tinged mountains and golden edged clouds, diversified with stupendous and sometimes inaccessible crags, foaming torrents, cashmerian vales, wild but beautiful forests, and a scenery which presents the most splendid pictures at every step; (those who have visited many parts of the highlands of India will recognise the same features as in southern Italy). Is it to be wondered that the character of men inhabiting such different countries should be dissimilar? Hence in the low, hot, and damp swampy regions of India, we have a timid, pacific, commercial, phlegmatic, and even servile race; educated, but

prone to superstition, tyrants over females, yet addicted to compliments, and extravagant in all the littleness attending on the ceremonials of behaviour; while in the elevated, dry, and cool regions of our possessions in Asia, the inhabitants are fearlessly brave, filled with martial ardour, chivalrous to women, courteous to strangers, glorying in deeds of heroism, sanguine in their achievements, desperate enemies and warm friends,—as individuals,—serfs, yet proud, in the aggregate of national independence, at all times ready to reject the pen and the ploughshare for the sword and the war steed, and, as justly expressed by the noble bard,—

“ Who for itself can seek th’ approaching fight,
 And turn what some deem danger to delight;
 Who seek what cravens shun with more than zeal,
 And where the feebler faint can only feel.—
 Feel to the rising bosom’s inmost core,
 Their hopes awaken and their spirits soar;
 No dread of death if with them die their foes,
 Save that it seems even duller than repose!”

Such in fact is the varied character of the nations of Hindostan, hence the discrepant testimony of various witnesses who have only judged of the portion of the people among whom their avocations may have located them for a number of years; one party extolling them to the skies as exhibiting patterns of every virtue which adorns man,—the other representing them as a slavish, lying, cruel, treacherous, unprincipled and ungrateful race. Truth in this, as in most other instances, lies between the extremes; the Hindoos (independent of the effects of climate, soil, and food*) display the terribly demoralizing results which centuries of despotism are so surely calculated to produce. ’Tis true they have not had iron fetters on their wrists and ankles like the slaves in the West Indies, but they have had for ages fetters on the mind far more efficacious for the debasement of the immortal spirit of man,—

* Those Hindoos who, though professing the religion of Menu, live in some degree on animal food, are a very different class of people from those who live principally on vegetables.

———“ Is there no tyranny but that
Of blood and chains? The despotism of vice—
The weakness and wickedness of luxury—
The negligence, the apathy, the evils
Of sensual sloth produce ten thousand tyrants,
Whose delegated cruelty surpasses
The worst acts of one energetic master,
However hard and harsh in his own bearing.”

But those who have studied minutely and extensively the characters of the Hindoos, will admit that they have prejudices to be humoured, affections to be won, passions to be dreaded, and virtues to be cherished and developed.* Since

* The contempt which most, if not all, the different races in India manifest for the fears of death is very remarkable; it may be said that fanaticism is the exciting cause; but it should be remembered that, wherever a British officer leads, his Sepoy troops will follow, and numerous instances have occurred where the Hindoo artillerymen have been cut down at their guns rather than desert them; the gallant manner in which the natives will, single-handed, and armed only with a long knife, attack the most furious tiger for a trifling reward, has been often described, and needs not recapitulation; but their agility and bravery in voluntarily encountering a formidable shark in his native element, for the sake of a few shillings, is not so well known. An illustration of this fact, as it occurred when I was in Calcutta, in 1830, may be here given:—The boat was on its progress down the Hooghly, when a huge shark was seen swimming round it,—a Hindoo prepared to attack it on receiving a small reward for his dexterity; holding the rope, on which he had made a sort of running knot, in one hand, and stretching out the other arm, as if already in the act of swimming, stood in an attitude, truly picturesque, waiting the re-appearance of the shark. At about 6 or 8 yards from the boat the animal rose near the surface, when the native instantly plunged into the water, a short distance from the very jaws of the monster. The shark immediately turned round, and swam slowly towards the man, who, in his turn, nothing daunted, struck out the arm that was at liberty, and approached his foe. When within a foot or two of the shark, the native dived beneath him—the animal going down almost at the same instant. The bold assailant in this frightful contest soon re-appeared on the opposite side of the shark, swimming fearlessly with the hand he had at liberty, and holding the rope behind his back with the other. The shark, which had also by this time made his appearance again, immediately swam towards him; and while the animal was apparently in the act of lifting himself over the lower part of the native's

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the conquest of India by England, the British rulers have been carefully annihilating a chain of feudalism which ever marks an age of barbarism; society which heretofore consisted of only two classes, is now being levelled, by the removal of the slavish dependence of the low upon the higher castes, and millions of human beings are now for the first time learning to know their own worth, and to be conscious that by industry, talent, and integrity, they may elevate themselves to the foremost rank in society; human sacrifices have been abolished, infanticide materially checked, and the horrid rite of female cremation completely prohibited; those palladiums of liberty, the press and trial by jury are being gradually extended; the natives sit on the judgment seat and fill the magisterial chair: and if common justice be done them in their commercial dealings with England, (and no insane attempt be made to interfere with their religious principles before couching them for the moral cataract which yet dims their mental vision,) the future may be looked forward to with glowing anticipations; but when we witness the powerful opposition that even yet exists to the abolition of the diabolical rite of widow-burning among the Hindoo population (remembering that the proportion of Europeans to Asiatics in India, is as *one to five thousand!* and of Mahomedans to Hindoos as *one to ten*) let us beware not to proceed too fast, let us temper benevolence

body, that he might seize upon his prey, the man making a strong effort, threw himself up perpendicularly, and went down with his feet foremost—the shark following him so simultaneously that we were fully impressed with the idea that they had gone down grappling together. As far as could be judged, they remained nearly twenty seconds out of sight, while we stood in breathless anxiety—and it may be added horror, waiting the result of this fearful encounter. Suddenly the native made his appearance holding up both his hands over his head, and calling out with a voice that proclaimed the victory he had won, while underneath the wave,—‘*tan-tan!*’ The people in the boat were all prepared—the rope was instantly drawn tight, and the struggling victim, lashing the water in his wrath, was dragged to the shore and dispatched. This truly intrepid man received only a cut on the left arm, apparently from the fin of his formidable enemy.

with prudence, principle with policy, and justice with expediency.

Sir Thomas Munro has placed on record a minute which has reference to the precipitancy of some of our measures in 1824, he says, 'Our experience is too short to judge what rules are best calculated for this purpose. It is only within the last 30 years that we have here begun to acquire any practical knowledge. A longer period must probably elapse before we can ascertain what is best. Such a period is as nothing in the existence of a people; but we act as if this were as limited as the life of an individual.' With regard to precipitation he has this observation: "One great error in this country, during a long course of years has been too much *precipitation* in attempting to *better the condition of the people* with hardly any knowledge of the means by which it was to be accomplished, and indeed without seeming to think that any other than good intentions were necessary. It is a dangerous system of government, in a country of which our knowledge is very imperfect, to be constantly urged by the desire of settling everything permanently, to do everything *in a hurry*, and in *consequence* wrong: and in our zeal for permanency, to put the remedy out of our reach. The ruling vice of our government is innovation, and its innovation has been so little guided by a knowledge of the people, that although made after what was thought by us to be mature discussion, must appear to them as little better than the result of mere caprice. We have in our anxiety to make every thing as English as possible, in a country which resembles England in nothing, attempted to create at once, throughout extensive provinces, a kind of landed property which had never existed in them." These, indeed, are profound truths.

LANGUAGE.—As may be expected among so great a variety of people, several languages are in use; the modern spoken dialects are thus enumerated—Hindustany, Bengalese, Cashmerian, Dogura, Ooch, Sindy, Cutch, Gugeratty, Concancese, Punjaby, Bicanere, Marwar, Jeypoor, Odeypoor, Harowty, Malwa, Broach, Bundlecundy, Mahratta, Magadha, Koshala,

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Maithala, Nepaulese, Orissa, Telinga, Carnata and Tamul: but in fact (in the upper provinces of Bengal for instance) the languages of the body of the population are so little settled that it would be extremely difficult to translate the Regulations of Government into any language that would be understood by them unless a separate translation were made for every district.

The celebrated Sanscrit is not enumerated in the foregoing list, it having long ceased to be a spoken tongue, from the extraordinary perfection to which it has been matured. That it is the parent of so many Eastern tongues or dialects is not to be wondered at when we find that to all present appearance it is the *parent* of all the existing languages in the world, it being more readily decomposed—retraced to its roots, or reduced to simple elements, and from its possessing the unique feature of an absence of exotic terms. Colonel Vans Kennedy, of the Bombay army, in his elaborate work on the Origin and Affinity of the Languages of Asia and Europe, thus assigns the



The Sanscrit apparently forms the basis of most of the dialects now spoken in the northern parts of India, especially of the Bengali, the Hindoostani, the Mahratti, &c.; but it is entirely distinct from the Tamul, or *Tamil*, which occupies nearly as conspicuous a rank among the languages of the Dekkan as the Sanscrit does among those of the northern provinces. The Tamul language, spoken by a population of more than four millions, is current in the southern portion of the peninsula of India, throughout the Jaghire, the districts of South Arcot, Salem, Coimbatore, Combaconum, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Madura, Dindigal, and Tinivelly, as well as in many parts of the extensive kingdom of Mysore. It is said not to be derived from any language at present in existence, being either itself the parent of the Teloogoo, Malayâlam, and Canarese languages; or, more probably, having its origin in common with these in some ancient tongue, which is now lost, or only partially preserved in its offspring. In its more primitive words, such as the names of natural objects, the verbs expressive of physical action or passion, the numerals, &c. it is quite unconnected with the Sanscrit; and what is thence so largely borrowed, when the Tamuls, by intercourse with the more enlightened people of the north, began to emerge from barbarity, has reference to the expression of moral sentiments and abstract metaphysical notions, and is chiefly to be found in the colloquial idiom. In this remarkable circumstance, and also in the construction of its alphabet, the Tamul differs much from other languages of the S. which are found to admit Sanscrit more largely in literary compositions than in conversation, and which adopt the arrangement of the Sanscrit alphabet with little variation.

Bengali is spoken by about 30,000,000 people in lower Bengal—and the Hindostani by about 20,000,000 in N. and W. India.

The three principal languages of southern India are the Teloogoo, the Tamul, and the Carnatica. The first is spoken in the provinces to the northward of Madras; the second to the southward; the third to the westward, or the table land

above the passes of the mountains ; and also in some districts below the Ghauts, on the western side of the Peninsula."

Efforts are now in progress in India, and in some instances adopted by Government, of representing in Roman characters the principal Asiatic characters—such as Bengallee, Persian, Nagrie, &c. The different classes of letters (gutturals, nasals, &c.) are discriminated by distinctions and marks. The English language (see Education chapter) is now being widely extended.

APPEARANCE AND STATURE OF THE HINDOOS.*—The stature, complexion, and physiognomy of the Hindoos are so different that no general picture can represent the various dissimilar races which compose the body of the people. Among the Rajpoots and mountaineers of the north are frequently found men of gigantic stature and Herculean proportions, who would be considered remarkable in any country in Europe for their size and muscular power. Colonel Tod says, 'Gokul Das, the last chief (of Deoghur) was one of the finest men he ever beheld in feature and person. He was about six feet six, perfectly erect, and a Hercules in bulk. His father at twenty was much larger, and must have been nearly seven feet high.' In general, the inhabitants of the plains are inferior in height, and of a more slender make ; but both the latter and the former are in general of an agile, graceful form, and capable of enduring considerable fatigue. Few deformed persons are seen,—but, from various causes, blindness is not uncommon. The complexion of the people, according to climate and circumstances, varies from a dark olive, approaching to black, to a light, transparent, beautiful brown, with an olive tinge, resembling that of the natives of northern Italy or Provence ; but the mind being so well disciplined, the countenance seldom betrays the fiery passions which are at work within. The face of the Hindoo is oval ; forehead moderately large and high ; eyes and hair black ; eyebrows finely turned, and nose and mouth of an European cast ; the look is calm, placid, and prepossessing, with no

* An interesting popular little work, published by Mr. Knight, entitled the *Hindoos*, has furnished me with a several collected observations.

thing of the sinister aspect of the Malay, or the impassioned expression of the Persian or Arab. The women, when not exposed to the air, or stunted by severe labour, are often possessed of extraordinary beauty, the form being delicate and graceful; limbs finely tapered and rounded; features mild; eyes dark and languishing; hair fine and long; and skins remarkably polished and soft. The Hindoo women of the Brahminical caste bear away the palm of loveliness, more particularly those of the Canara and Malabar coasts. The beauties of form attributed to their countrywomen in general are found in a still higher degree of perfection in them. The contour of the neck and shoulders is exceedingly lovely, the bosom beautifully formed; the limbs slender, but exquisitely moulded: the feet and hands delicately small; their air and motions easy, graceful, and dignified. Nor are the beauties of the countenance inferior to those of the figure. The face is of the finest oval, like the Greek; the nose long and straight; the lips ruddy, and the upper one beautifully curved; the mouth rather small; the chin round, and, in most cases, dimpled *amoris digitulo*. The eyes, shaded by long dark lashes, and surmounted by finely arched slender eyebrows, are full, black, humid, sparkling with fire, yet neither wanton nor petulant.* No women can be more attentive, says Forbes, to cleanliness than the Hindoos, 'they take every method to render their persons delicate, soft, and attractive.'

COSTUME OF THE HINDOOS.—Their dress is peculiarly becoming; in the higher classes it consists of a long piece of silk or cotton, tied round the waist, afterwards brought over the body in negligent folds, and hanging in a graceful manner to the feet; under this they cover the bosom with a short waistcoat of silk or satin, but wear no linen. Their long black hair is adorned with jewels and wreaths of flowers; their ears are bored in many places, and loaded with pearls; a variety of gold chains, strings of pearl and precious stones fall from the neck over the bosom, and the arms are covered with bracelets from the wrists to the elbow; they have also gold

* Bory de Saint-Vincent, *Essai Zoologique sur le Genre Humain*, tom. i. p. 226, 228.

and silver chains round the ancles, and abundance of rings on their fingers and toes; among the former is frequently a small mirror. Forbes thinks the richer the dress the less becoming it appears, a Hindoo woman of distinction always appearing to be overloaded with finery; while the village nymphs, with fewer ornaments, but in the same elegant drapery, are more captivating; although there are very few women, even of the lowest families, who have not some jewels at their marriage.*

The same writer, describing the village of Harasar, celebrated for the sanctity of its temple and the beauty of its women, observes that their jetty locks were adorned with jewels, while their garment, which consisted of a long single piece of silk or muslin, put on in graceful folds, fell like the drapery of a Grecian statue.† Various fashions prevail, however, in different parts of India. In the kingdom of Attinga, on the Malabar coast, the women go uncovered from the waist upwards. It is thought indecent to do otherwise; and Grose tells a story, which was afterwards confirmed to Forbes upon the spot, of a Malabar woman, who, living with an English lady at Anjengo, to please her mistress, dressed in the European fashion, but appearing afterwards in the queen of Attinga's presence with her breasts covered, the barbarous despot ordered them to be cut off, for what she was pleased to consider so signal a mark of disrespect.‡ It is not the inferior classes merely who dress thus sparingly; the greatest princesses are clothed in the same style, and only differ from their slaves by wearing a more transparent muslin and a greater profusion of jewels. Even where persons are accustomed, as they are in several of the southern provinces of the Peninsula, to wear clothing on the upper part of the body, the rules of politeness require, even in women, that they shall uncover the shoulders and breast when addressing any person whom they respect, whether

* Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 74.

† Ibid. p. 190, 191.

‡ Grose, Voyage to the East Indies; Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 391.

male or female.* It was the breach of this rule of good-breeding by the Malabar woman that roused the anger of the female despot of Attinga.

The kind of tissue which, in the south, forms the sole garment of the Brahmini women, is only used in female dress. It is usually from eight to ten yards in length, and about a yard broad, of every variety of quality and colour, with a border of different hue at each extremity. This is wrapped twice or three times round the body, and forms a kind of petticoat, which in front falls as low as the feet, but behind does not reach lower than the calf of the leg, and sometimes not so low. One end of this long web is fastened at the waist, the other, in many districts, passes over the head, shoulders, and breasts; but this is an innovation. The primitive fashion, throughout the Peninsula, required the women always to appear naked to the girdle.†

In Malabar the dress of the women is quite similar to that of the men. Their black, glossy hair, tied in a knot on the middle of the head, is copiously anointed with cocoa-nut oil, and perfumed with the essence of sandal, mogrees, and champahs; their ears, loaded with rings and heavy jewels, reach almost to their shoulders; this is esteemed a beauty. Instead of a small gold wire in the orifice, as is practised in other countries, the incision is filled with a filament from the cocoa-nut leaf, rolled round; the circles are increased until the orifice sometimes exceeds two inches in diameter, the ear is then healed, and being stretched to the perfection of beauty, is filled with rings and massy ornaments. Round the waist they wear a loose piece of muslin, while the bosom is entirely exposed; this is the only drapery of the Malabar women: but they are adorned with a profusion of gold and silver chains for necklaces, mixed with strings of Venetian and other gold coins; they have also heavy bangles, or bracelets; a silver box, suspended by a chain on one side, forms a principal ornament, and contains the areca or betel-nut, with its appen-

* Dubois, Description of the Manners, &c. of the People of India, p. 211.

† Ibid. p. 220, 221.

dages of chunam, spice, and betel-leaf. Their skin is softened by aromatic oils, especially among the Nairs and Tetees, who are peculiarly attentive to cleanliness in their persons.*

The female Portuguese Christians in Calcutta wear a petticoat and loose body made of muslin and silk, trimmed with lace, while their long black hair is turned up *à la Grecque*, and fastened with gold ornaments. The Malay girls' costume is somewhat similar, with sometimes the addition of long, flowing, white veils.

In Northern India, where the power and example of the Mohammedans have operated so many other changes in the manners of the Hindoos, even the national costume has undergone various modifications. Here the dress of the women consists of a close jacket with sleeves, which, in some instances, reach no farther than the elbow, in others, cover even the tops of the fingers. This jacket, fitting tight to the shape, and showing to advantage the beauty of the form, with women of rank is made of rich silk. Instead of drawers, some ladies, says Abul Fasel, wear a *lengha*, stitched on both sides, and fastened with a belt, which appears to be a short under-petticoat; no chemise. Over the *lengha* is worn the common shalice, or petticoat. Some ladies wear veils and long drawers.†

The costume of a northern mountaineer, inhabiting those parts of the Himalaya where the manners of the Hindoos and Tatars appear to mingle and slide into each other, is of course different. 'An *Uniya* woman,' says Mr. Moorcroft, 'wife of one of the goatherds, very good-naturedly filled the water-vessels of those persons who came to the little well, and did not take up her own part till the different candidates for water received the quantity which they asked for. She had rather a pleasing countenance, was of middle stature, and about 35 years old. There was much of curiosity in her looks at seeing us, but nothing of fear or impertinence. Her dress was woollen, and of the same form with that of the men. Her

* Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 390.

† Ayeen Akberry, vol. ii. p. 521.

boots were likewise woollen, and much diversified by patches of various hues. Her hair, which was of a deep black, was plaited in tresses from the forehead down to below the waist, where the plaits, to the number of fifty, after each being terminated by a cowrie shell, were assembled in a band of leather, which was tipped with a tassel of red worsted thread. Her head-lappet, if I may so name it, was of leather, and extended from the forehead down the back to the waist, but in the latter part gradually ended in a point; at the forehead it was bordered with silver, and from this rim hung seven rows of coral beads, each row consisting of five, which were terminated by seven silver *timdshds*, that played upon the forehead. The crown of the lappet was studded with small pearls, distributed in seven rows, and the lower part was decorated with green stones, something like turquoises, but marbled with coral beads, and many bands of silver and of a yellow metal, probably gold, about a finger's breadth. A stiff band of leather, something like a soldier's collar, was placed loosely round her neck, and ornamented with five rows of coral beads. The collar was secured with a button and clasp of silver. In her left ear was a coral bead set in silver, and in her right were two smaller beads in the same material. On her right thumb she wore a square gold ring, with characters engraved on the table.*

In Rajast'han, and throughout the N.W. provinces, the costume varies in each district and tribe, though the materials of dress are everywhere the same; in summer cotton, in winter quilted chintz or broadcloth. The ladies have only three garments; 'the *ghagra*, or petticoat; the *kanchli*, or corset; and the *dopati*, or scarf, which is occasionally thrown over the head as a veil.† Tattooing, which may be regarded as a kind of substitute for dress, has not yet wholly disappeared in India. The Hindoo women, in many parts of the country, paint various figures, chiefly of flowers, on the arms, chin, and cheeks of their daughters. This is effected, as among

* Asiatic Researches, vol. xii. p. 422, 423.

† Colonel Tod, Annals of Rajast'han, vol. ii. p. 651.

the South Sea islanders, by making with the point of a needle, slight punctures in the skin, over which the juice of certain plants is then poured; and thus the figures become ineffaceable.* Many Brahmini women dye their whole bodies, or, at least, so much of them as is uncovered, with a saffron-coloured infusion, which, instead of increasing their beauty, renders them frightful, at least, in the eyes of Europeans. The young and beautiful attempt to increase the dark lustre of their eyes by the use of *surmeh*, or powder of antimony, that famous collyrium which played so conspicuous a part in the toilette of the Grecian ladies. The ladies of Hindostan moreover paint with black the border of the eye-lids, and prolong the eye-lashes and eye-brows at the corners, while the hair is adorned with sweet-scented flowers, and ornaments of gold.

The ornaments of the Hindoo women are rich and numerous. Every toe has its particular ring, so broad above as frequently to conceal the whole toe. Their bracelets are sometimes large hollow rings of gold, more than an inch in diameter, while others wear them flat, and more than two inches in breadth. Round their necks are suspended several chains of gold or silver, or strings of gold, pearl, coral, or glass beads. Many ladies have collars of gold, an inch broad, set with rubies, topazes, emeralds, carbuncles, or diamonds; besides an ornament for the forehead set with jewels; earrings, of which there are no less than 18 species; nose jewels; necklaces; strings of flowers or pearls; belts ornamented with little bells and jewels; and numerous other ornaments of the same costly kind.†

The dress of the men, in which there are neither buttons, strings, nor pins, is admirably adapted to the climate, and produces a very graceful effect. It differs, however, but little, in many parts of the country, from that of the women. The shoes worn by the rich are embroidered with gold or silver thread, open at the heels, and curled up at the toes.

* Dubois, Description, &c. p. 221. They likewise, as do also the Arabs, dye their fingers, the palms of their hands, and the soles of their feet with *henna*.

† See Ayeen Akbery, vol ii. p. 521, 522.

Few persons wear stockings.* Turbans are sometimes worn by the Brahmins, and very commonly by all other persons of the superior classes. The head and beard are generally shaved, but mustachios are worn, and a small lock of hair is usually left upon the crown. A *jama*, or long gown of white calico, confined round the waist with a fringed or embroidered sash, replaces the simple robe of the Eastern Provinces; and the princes and nobles adorn their persons with necklaces of pearl and golden chains, sustaining clusters of costly gems; while their turbans are crusted with diamonds, rubies, and emeralds. Their golden bracelets are likewise set thick with gems. The shoes are of red leather, or English broadcloth. In the ears they wear, like the women, large gold rings, which pass through two pearls or rubies. Both sexes are greatly addicted to the use of *attar*, and other perfumes.†

In Northern India another variety of costume is found. Here the garments of the men consist of 'trowsers of every shape and calibre, a tunic girded with a ceinture, and a scarf, form the wardrobe of every Rajpoot. The turban is the most important part of the dress, and is the unerring mark of the tribe; the form and fashion are various, and its decorations differ, according to time and circumstances. The *balabund*, or silken fillet, was once valued as the mark of the sovereign's favour, and was tantamount to the courtly 'orders' of Europe. The colour of the turban and tunic varies with the seasons; and the changes are rung upon crimson, saffron, and purple, though white, is by far the most common. Their shoes are mere slippers, and sandals are worn by the common classes. Boots are used in hunting and war, made of chamois leather, of which material the warrior often has a doublet, being more commodious and less oppressive than armour. The dagger, or poniard is inseparable from the girdle.‡ At Calcutta, and the other Presidencies, the inhabitants are ap-

* Ward, View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. i. p. 186, 187

† Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. i. p. 70, 71, 83.

‡ Colonel Tod, vol. ii. p. 652.

proximating towards the dress of Europeans, with the exception of the hat.

The *paita*, or thread of investiture, supposed to belong to the three superior castes, is sometimes worn indiscriminately by all: this, therefore, being no distinction, the Brahmins resort to other means of making known their rank. Those of the N. of the peninsula are distinguished by a perpendicular line, drawn with the paste of sandal-wood on the middle of the forehead; in the farming districts this line is drawn horizontally, and the Vishnuite Brahmins, who are exceedingly numerous in all the S. of India, imprint on their forehead three perpendicular lines, joined at the base, and thus representing the figure of a trident. Of these three lines the middle one is red or yellow, while those on the side are white, and being drawn with a kind of clay, called *nama*, this has grown by degrees to be considered the name of the figure itself. The mark of the Sivaites is the Lingam, which they either wear stuck in the hair, or suspended to the arm, in a small golden or silver tube: it is also worn suspended by a ribbon from the neck, like the *bullæ* of the Roman youth, which was frequently of the same form; or else it is enclosed in a silver box which hangs upon the bosom.*

DWELLINGS.—The houses of the rich, in most parts of India, are built of brick, and, like a caravanserai, run round the four sides of a quadrangle. On the N. (the sacred point of the Hindoos) stands the family chapel, which contains the household god. The other three sides are occupied by porticoes and apartments for the family. The windows of these apartments are mere air-holes, through which the women may be seen peeping as through the gratings of a jail. During the great festivals, an awning is extended over the whole court, (as is the fashion, in Arabia and different parts of Africa); and here the common people are admitted, while those of superior rank occupy the verandahs. The dwellings of the middle classes are constructed in the same style, but with different materials; the walls being of mud, the roofs of

* Dubois, Description, &c. p. 9, 48, 51, 57. Antiquitates Middletonianæ.

bamboo and thatch. A low mud-built hut, containing but one room, is the usual dwelling of the poor in Bengal.*

In the S. of India the poor build their huts of a reddish ferruginous clay intermixed with small fragments of quartz, and other materials of decayed granite, forming walls, which, with ordinary care, will resist the rains for many years. In many towns and villages the houses have flat roofs terraced with this mud, which is laid on in the dry season, and turns the rain very well. The buildings erected with this clay have a very tolerable appearance, the surface of the walls being neatly smoothed, and, like the houses of the ancient cities of Italy and France, painted with alternate vertical stripes of red and white. These huts are in the form of a parallelogram, without chimneys or windows. The rich, instead of enlarging the house, merely erect several huts in the same style.† In many cases the rooms are white-washed within, and the houses roofed with tiles. They are in general clean, and, had they any windows, would be comfortable. In Malabar the huts, called *chera*, are like bee-hives, and consist of a circular mud wall about three feet high, which is covered with a long conical roof of thatch. Contrary to what might have been expected in a hot climate, but agreeable to the custom of almost all Hindoos, one small door is the only outlet for smoke, and the only inlet for air and light. Each family has a hut for sleeping, another for cooking, and a third for a storehouse. Wealthy men add more huts to their premises; but seldom attempt at any innovation in the architecture of the country.‡

The *agrarums*, or *grámas*, villages occupied by the *Puttar* Brahmins in Malabar, are remarkable for their taste. The houses are built contiguous, in straight streets; and they are among the neatest and cleanest villages to be seen in India. The beauty, cleanliness, and elegant dress of the girls of the Brahmins add much to the look of these places. Their

* Ward, *View of the History*, &c. vol. i. p. 192.

† *Journey through the Mysore*, &c. vol. i. p. 33, 38.

‡ *Ibid.* vol. ii. p. 192.

greatest defect is, that the houses are thatched with palm-leaves, which never can be made to lie close, and which render them very liable to fires. The houses of the Namburis, Nairs, and other wealthy persons, are much better than those usually met with in the villages of India. They are built of mud, so as generally to occupy two sides of a square area, that is a little raised, and kept smooth, clean, and free from grass. The mud is of an excellent quality, and in general is neatly smoothed, and either whitewashed or painted.

In other parts of Malabar the houses are two stories high, built with stone, and thatched with cocoa-nut leaves. Windows also, though very diminutive ones, are more common on this coast than in any other parts of India.* The kitchen is always situated in the part of the house least accessible to strangers, whose very look, according to the prejudices of the natives, would pollute their earthen vessels, and compel them to break them. The position of the hearth is generally on the S.W. side of the dwelling, because, in their opinion, the dwelling of the god of fire is in that quarter: a peculiar divinity presides over each of the eight points of the compass. It not being customary for men, unless they happen to be near relations, to visit the female part of the family, to avoid the necessity of introducing strangers into the apartments where they are usually occupied with household affairs, verandahs or alcoves are constructed both within and without the principal gate of entrance; in these the men assemble, and sitting cross-legged on the floor, converse on business, religion, politics, receive visitors, "or pass their time in empty talk."†

Somerset House, the British Museum, the Louvre, and many other places and houses both in England and France, represent exactly, in point of form, the common dwellings of the wealthy Hindoos, whether they be erected of stone or of mud. Even in Rajpootana the same style prevails. The mansions of the Rajpoots, Col. Tod observes, are quadran-

* Buchanan, *Journey*, vol. iii. p. 99.

† Dubois, *ubi supra*.

gular piles, with an open paved area, the suites of apartments carried round the sides, with latticed or open corridors extending parallel to each suite. The residence of the Rana of Oodipoor might not, perhaps, lose greatly by a comparison with Windsor Castle; and is very much superior, both in taste and magnificence, to the Chateau of the Tuileries. 'The palace is a most imposing pile, of a regular form, built of granite and marble, rising at least a hundred feet from the ground, and flanked with octagonal towers, crowned with cupolas. Although built at various periods, uniformity of design has been very well preserved; nor is there in the E. a more striking or more majestic spectacle. It stands on the very crest of a ridge running parallel to, but considerably elevated above, the margin of the lake. The terrace, which is at the E. end and chief front of the palace, extends throughout its length, and is supported by a triple row of arches from the declivity of the ridge. The height of this arcaded wall is full 50 feet; and although all is hollow beneath, yet so admirably is it constructed, that an entire range of stables is built on the extreme verge of the terrace, on which the whole personal force of the Rana, elephants, horse, and foot, are often assembled. From this terrace the city and the valley lie before the spectator, whose vision is bounded only by the hills shutting out the plains, while from the summit of the palace nothing obstructs its range over lake and mountain.*

In several districts of Rajpootana the houses are built with a red sandstone, and, wood being scarce and dear, have likewise roofs of stone, which are supported by numerous slender pillars. The façade, in many instances, is coated with marble chunam; and the whole surrounded by a flower-garden, intersected by neat stone channels, through which the water is conducted, for irrigation, from a tank. Bishop Heber, describing one of these gardens, observes; 'some of the trees were of great size and beauty, and the whole place, though evidently uninhabited, was kept in substantial repair, and not

* *Annals of Rajast'han*, vol. i. p. 474, 475.

the less beautiful in my eyes because the orange-trees had somewhat broken their bounds; the shade of the flowering plants assumed a ranker luxuriance, and the scarlet blossoms of the pomegranate trailed more widely across our path than was consistent with the rules of exact gardening. At the further end of the garden we found ourselves on the edge of a broad moat, with some little water still in it, surrounding an old stone-built castle with round towers and high ramparts of stone.*

Rajpoot villages are frequently situated on the slopes of hills, or rocky eminences, and surrounded by groves, or numerous scattered trees. Here, through the soft fleecy mists of the morning, large herds of deer may often be seen grazing; while the branches of the fruit-tree groves swarm with wild peacocks. In Marwar the construction of the villages differs entirely from anything elsewhere seen in India, and approaches, in physiognomy, the wigwams of the Western World. Each commune is surrounded by a circumvallation of thorns, which, with the stacks of chaff rising above it at intervals, has the appearance of a respectable fortification. These stacks of chaff, intended to supply the cattle with provender in scanty rainy seasons, are erected to the height of 20 or 30 feet, and are coated with a cement of earth and cowdung, with a sprinkling of thorns, which are added to keep away the birds from roosting in them. If fresh coated occasionally, they will endure 10 years, and when necessity requires them to be eaten the "kine may be said to devour the village walls." These villages picturesquely scattered through the plain, break very agreeably the monotony incidental to a level surface. Near the banks of rivers the houses are sometimes thatched with bulrushes, which grow to the height of 10 feet.†

In the country above the Ghauts, the villages are fortified in a different style. Every collection of houses, however

* Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. ii. p. 372.

† Colonel Tod, Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 700, 773; Bishop Heber's Narrative, vol. ii. p. 351, 357, 368, 372, 374.

small, is defended by a round wall, or rather tower, of stone, sometimes 40 feet in diameter, and six feet high. This is surmounted by a parapet of mud, in which there is a door that can be approached only by a ladder. Into this tower the inhabitants were wont on the appearance of a plundering party to retire with their families and most valuable effects; and having drawn up the ladder, defended themselves by hurling down stones on the assailants, in which they were vigorously aided by their women. More populous villages have square forts, flanked by round towers, which may, in some cases, deserve the name of a citadel. A circumvallation of mud is likewise thrown up around the villages. In many places the villages are defended, as in Ajmere, by hedges, which rise very high and thick, so as almost entirely to conceal the mud wall. These hedges greatly contribute to enliven the prospect, which is further adorned by the mangoes and other fruit-trees that usually grow around a village.

In Guzerat the villages are open, and the inhabitants more at their ease. 'The villages in the Dhuboy Pergunnah,' says Forbes, 'generally consist of thatched cottages, built of mud, and a few brick houses with tiled roofs; a small dewal, a mosque, and sometimes a choultrie, are the only public buildings. Near the large villages there is generally a tank or lake, where the rain is collected, for the use of the cattle in the dry season, when, for the space of eight months, not a single shower falls, and no water is to be met with except in these reservoirs: they are often enclosed with strong masonry, and their banks adorned by banian, mango, and tamarind trees, to shade the weary traveller, and lessen evaporation. The tanks are constructed at the expense of Government, or by an assessment on the villages; they also contribute to the masonry of a good well and cistern for cattle, when the large reservoirs fail. Sometimes these useful works are private acts of charity, from a rich individual, as instanced in the noble works of Govindsett, in the Concan. Large wells with a grand flight of steps down to the water are not uncommon in remote situations, where travellers,

merchants, and caravans are obliged to pass, far from other supplies.' After expatiating on the value of these blessings in the torrid zone, he continues, 'Hospitality to travellers prevails throughout Guzerat; a person of any consideration passing through the province is presented, at the entrance of a village, with fruit, milk, butter, firewood, and earthen pots for cookery: the women and children offer him wreaths of flowers. Small bowers are constructed on convenient spots, at a distance from a well or lake, where a person is maintained, by the nearest villages, to take care of the water-jars, and supply all travellers gratis. There are particular villages where the inhabitants compel all travellers to accept of one day's provisions; whether they be many or few, rich or poor, European or native, they must not refuse the offered bounty.*

The villages on the banks of the Ganges, though merely a collection of mud-walled, thatched cottages, covered, however, in many instances, with a creeping plant bearing a beautiful broad leaf, of the gourd species, being embosomed in groves of cocoa-palms, banyan, and other trees, have a highly picturesque and rural appearance. A little graceful temple, generally of Siva, in a style almost Gothic, considerably increases the beauty of the scene. In one of these villages Bishop Heber, on his first sailing up the Ganges, describes the appearance of an Indian farm-yard and homestead: 'In front,' he says, 'was a small mud building, with a thatched verandah looking towards the village, and behind was a court filled with cocoa-nut husks, and a little rice straw; in the centre of this was a round thatched building, raised on bamboos about a foot from the ground, which they said was a *golicah*, or granary; round it were small mud cottages, each to all appearance an apartment in the dwelling. In one corner was a little mill, something like a crab-mill, to be worked by a man, for separating the rice from the husk. By all which we could see through the open doors, the floor

* Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 413, 415.

of the apartments was of clay, devoid of furniture and light, except what the door admitted.*

The furniture of the Hindoo is exceedingly simple: their ordinary plates and dishes are formed from the leaf of the plantain-tree, or of the *nymphæa lotus*, that beautiful lily which abounds in every lake. These are neatly sown together with some grassy fibre; but, however neatly fashioned, are never used a second time. Even in the houses of the Nairs, which are neater and better kept than ordinary, you find little beyond a few mats, earthen pots, grindstones, and utensils for cleaning the rice, with a swing for the amusement of the family. A few earthen pots, and two jars, the one for the water, the other for oil, comprise the whole stock for a villager. The cooking utensils are sometimes of brass, or copper, as are likewise their drinking vessels, which are made with a spout, that they may pour out the water in a small stream, as in drinking it is thought indelicate to touch the vessel with their lips. In the superb dwellings of the Rajpoot nobles, where the painted and gilded ceiling is supported by columns of serpentine, and the walls are lined with mirrors, marble, or china, no costly furniture, no hangings, no chairs, tables, beds, couches, or candelabra, are to be seen. The floors are covered with soft rich carpets, over which, to preserve their glowing freshness, a white cloth is spread; and here the Rajpoot sits and sleeps. However, we find that on the coast of Malabar a different fashion sometimes prevails. The hall in the Zamorin's palace, into which Vasco de Gama and his companions were conducted on their first arrival, was set round with seats, rising one above another, like those of an amphitheatre; the floor was covered with a rich carpet; the walls were hung with silk tapestry interwoven with gold; and there were sofas for the prince and his guests. Neat little bedsteads of cane, manufactured by the hill tribes, are in use in many parts of India; as are likewise chairs and tables. In the wealthier habitations silver

* Narrative, &c. vol. i. p. 18.

utensils assume the place of earthen, and now that riches can be exhibited without fear of confiscation there is evidently, in the large cities, an adoption of many articles of European household furniture.

DIET OF THE HINDOOS.—The Hindoos in general, whether of high or low caste, do not, as has been erroneously supposed, subsist upon rice, or abstain from animal food. Even among the Brahmins no such pious abstinence from every thing which has had the principle of life exists, or ever did exist. Persons of this sacred caste eat animal food, like their neighbours; and if certain individuals, or certain sects among them, abstain, it is simply as a matter of taste, and not from any religious motive; for both by their laws and their scriptures the flesh of animals is expressly permitted to be eaten.* There are Hindoos however, both Brahmins and others, who restrict themselves to a vegetable diet.

The sect of Vishnu composes, in Hindostan, a very numerous body, and contains individuals of every caste, from the highest to the lowest. These sectarians, according to the Abbé Dubois, belong to the carnivorous part of mankind, of whom they by no means constitute the most abstemious members. They eat publicly all sorts of meat, excepting that of the cow, and drink toddy, arrack, and all other liquors that the country supplies, without shame or restraint.†

The Brahmins, *in general*, according to Dubois, add to their other numerous vices that of gluttony. When an opportunity occurs of satiating their appetite, they exceed all bounds of temperance; and such occasions, it is added, are frequent.‡

Intoxication is still more common among the Brahmins than the use of interdicted food. A large quantity of wine and brandy imported into Calcutta is drunk by the Brahmins and other classes of Hindoos; to say nothing of the Mussulmans.

The Kshatriyas, or Rajpoots, are eminently carnivorous. When not engaged in war, they usually, at the proper season

* See Institutes of Menu, chap. v. ver. 36, 56, &c.

† Description, &c. p. 53.

‡ Ibid. p. 161.

of the year, devote a large portion of their time to the pleasures of the chase. Among the larger game, the most common is the wild boar. Of the flesh of this animal they appear to be particularly fond; and they pursue it with their utmost ardour. But the covers afforded by the nature of their country, especially the fields of maize, which there grows to the height of 10 or 12 feet, not unfrequently affords the boar a chance of escape. In the barren plains of Marwar, maize porridge is the common fare; but in Mewar, the paradise of the Rajpoot, the luxury of wheaten bread is well understood. Maize and Indian corn, gathered in an unripe state, are tied into bundles, roasted in the ear, and eaten with a little salt. For the introduction of melons and grapes, which at present form the principal dessert of the Hindoos, India is indebted to the Emperor Baber, the most ingenuous and chivalrous of Eastern conquerors. Tobacco was introduced by his grandson Jehângîr. When or by whom the use of opium was made known to the Rajpoots is not known; but 'this pernicious plant,' says an acute observer, 'has robbed the Rajpoot of half his virtues.' Under the influence of opium his natural bravery often degenerates into ferocity, while his countenance when he is not thus excited, has an air of drowsy imbecility.

From the earliest ages the soldiers of Hindoostan, like those of most other countries, have been addicted to intoxicating drinks; but these, though still in favour, are secondary in importance to the opiate. 'To eat opium together is the most inviolable pledge, and an agreement ratified by this ceremony is stronger than any adjuration. If a Rajpoot pays a visit, the first question is, *umul kya?* 'have you had your opiate?'—*umul kao,* 'take your opiate.' On a birth-day, when all the chiefs convene to congratulate their brother on another knot to his years, the large cup is brought forth, a lump of opium put therein, upon which water is poured, and by the aid of a stick a solution is made, to which each helps his neighbour, not with a glass, but with the hollow of his hand held to his mouth. To judge from the wry faces on the occasion, none can like it, and to get rid of the nauseous taste,

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comfit balls are handed round. It is curious to observe the animation it inspires; a Rajpoot is fit for nothing without his *umal*, and Col. Tod often dismissed their men of business to refresh their intellects by a dose, for when its effects are dissipating they become mere logs. Opium to the Rajpoot is more necessary than food.*

Scarcely any kind of animal food is rejected by the Rajpoot, excepting such as by all civilized nations has been accounted unclean. His game consists of the hare, the deer, the boar, the elk, the buffalo; and of the wild-dog, the hyæna, the wolf, and the tiger; of which, the latter class are destroyed as noxious. The votaries of *Caniya*, who have taken refuge in his sanctuary at Nât'hdwârâ, confine themselves, in penance, to a vegetable diet, which consists of dried fruits, spices, and curd, which, however, in these degenerate days, are seasoned with rose-water, amber, and all the aromatics of the East. When entertaining Europeans, the Rajpoots, fearful that their viands may not be suited to the palates of their guests, sometimes request them to bring along with them their *cuisine*. An example of this occurred to Colonel Tod at Jûd-poor. Having been invited to dinner by the Rajah, the prince added to the invitation the above curious request, as he feared that the fare of the dessert might prove unpalatable. 'But this,' says the traveller, 'I had often seen done in Sindia's camp, where joints of mutton, fowls, and fricassees, would diversify the provender of the Mahratta. I intimated that we had no apprehension that we should not do justice to the gastronomy of Jûd-poor; however we sent our tables, and some claret to drink long life to the King of Maroodes. Having paid our respects to our host, he dismissed us, with the complimentary wish that appetite might wait upon us, and preceded by a host of gold and silver sticks, we were ushered into a hall, where we found the table literally covered with curries, pillaws, and ragouts of every kind, in which was not forgotten, the *hari moong Mundore ra*, 'the green pulse of Mundore,' the favourite dish next to *rabri*, or maize porridge,

* Annals of Rajast'han, vol. 1. p. 644, 645.

of the simple Rahtore. Here, however, we saw displayed the dishes of both the Hindoo and Mussulman, and nearly all were served in silver. The curries were excellent, especially those of the vegetable tribes made of the pulses, the kakris or cucumbers, and of a miniature melon, not larger than an egg, which grows spontaneously in these regions, and is transported by kasids or runners, as presents, for many hundred miles round.*

Fruit, as might be expected from its plenty and cheapness, enters largely into the food of the Hindoos.† Their groves and gardens supply an abundance of guavas, plantains, bananas, custard-apples, tamarinds, oranges, limes, citrons, grapes, pine-apples, and pomegranates. But of all the fruits of India the best as well as the most plentiful is the mango, which is found in all parts of the country, even in the forests. The superior kinds of mango are extremely delicious, being not unlike the large yellow Venice peach, heightened by the flavour of the orange and anana.‡ In the mango season, it is the principal diet of the poor, and supposed to be very nutritious. The Chili pepper,‡ and the cardamom, a pleasant spice from the Malabar coast, form a principal ingredient in curries.

The Hindoos are particularly fond of wild honey, which is found in the clefts of the rocks, in caverns, and on the summits of scarped rugged mountains. Of fish likewise, whether fresh or salted, they constantly make use. Whole tribes of men subsist by catching them, and they are conveyed in vast quantities into the interior. Many natives of the Concan are addicted to the chase, and eat the flesh of deer, hares, quails, partridges, and pigeons. The *Chensu*, a tribe inhabiting the hilly country above Malabar, destroy and kill all kinds of game. The *Telinga Banijigaru*, who are worshippers of Vishnu, and are all either merchants, farmers, or porters, eat sheep, goats, hogs, fowls, and fish, and, though prohibited

* Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 732.

† To me the flavour smacks strongly of turpentine, and the liking for the Mango appears quite an acquired taste. The finest I ever met was at Zanzibar.—[R. M. M.]

‡ Forbes, Oriental Memoirs.

the use of spirituous liquors, may intoxicate themselves with *bang* (wild hemp). The *Madigas*, who dress hides, make shoes, or cultivate the ground, eat not only all kinds of animal food, but even carrion: and openly drink spirituous liquors. The *Ruddi*, a very respectable caste of Sudras, chiefly employed in agriculture, eat hogs, sheep, goats, venison, and fowls, and are permitted the use of *bang*.

The *Pallivanlu*, a tribe of Tamul extraction, who are either farmers or gardeners, both eat animal food and drink spirituous liquors. Mutton and fish may lawfully be eaten by the *Muchaveru*, or shoemakers, who, contrary to the practice of persons of this caste in Europe, are expected to abstain from spirituous liquors. To make up in some measure for this extraordinary prohibition, they are permitted to marry as many wives as they please.

The *Wully Tigulas*, another Tamul tribe; the *Teliga Devanges*, of the sect of Siva; the *Baydaru*, who are soldiers and hunters, likewise of the sect of Siva; the *Curubas*, soldiers and cultivators; and the *Canara Devangas*, all eat animal food, and, in many instances, drink spirituous liquors. The tastes of the *Niadis*, an outcast tribe of Malabar, are extremely peculiar. They refuse to perform any kind of labour, and consequently are plunged in the deepest poverty. Unable to catch fish or kill game, they subsist upon wild roots, and whatever they can get by begging; but are occasionally fortunate enough to kill a tortoise, or hook a crocodile, the flesh of which, like the Nubians, they reckon delicious food. The *Bacadaru*, a tribe of Carnata origin, now sunk into slavery, not only eat animal food, but, to borrow the expressive language of Buchanan, 'may lawfully intoxicate themselves;' an advantage as above observed denied to the cobblers.

According to Buchanan, the other castes of southern India, who are commonly known to make use of animal food, are—the *Goalas*, or shepherds; the *Bestas*, farmers and lime-burners; the Mysore farmers; the *Curubaru*, who eat every thing but beef, even carrion; the *Naimars* or *Nairs*, who, al-

though properly Vishnuites, wear the mark of Siva. The *Magayer*, or fishermen; the *Biluaras*, who extract the juice from the palm tree; the *Corar*, (this caste may lawfully eat tigers, but reject dogs and snakes); the *Handi Curubas*.

The *Pariahs*, who are supposed to amount to several million of souls, do not abstain even from beef. They possibly form a portion of the aboriginal population, who, refusing, on the rise of Brahminism, to adopt the prejudices of the new sect, were anathematized and excommunicated by those revengeful priests. Many of the Bengal Brahmins eat fish, and several sorts of animal food; they are not only allowed them, but at some particular ceremonies they are enjoined to do so.* But the Mahrattas, though all Hindoos, and the lower classes especially, eat of almost every thing that comes in their way; as mutton, goat, wild hog, game, and fish. Major Moor, mentions two places by name where the Mahrattas eat beef, and permit cattle to be killed, and publicly exposed to sale.† He then adds:—The lower tribes of Hindoos are not so scrupulous as the higher about what they eat, or what they touch; especially if they are not observed by others. When at a distance from their families, and out of sight of their priests, many divest themselves of these nice ideas of purity. Those domesticated with Europeans generally affect

* I have eaten a very fine beef steak in a Brahmin's house at Calcutta. —[R.M.M.]

† Forbes tells a story illustrative of the scruples of the lower Hindoos, which is too good to be omitted. 'I knew a gentleman,' he says, 'who having formed a party for a little excursion into the country, provided a round of beef, as a principal dish in the cold collation. As he was going on horseback, he desired the beef might be covered with a cloth, and put into his palanquin to keep it cool; the bearers refused to carry a vehicle which contained such a pollution. The gentleman, on finding that neither remonstrances, entreaties, or threats, were of any avail, cut off a slice of the meat, and eating it in their presence desired them to carry him to the place of rendezvous. This produced the desired effect; the bearers were the first to laugh at their folly, and exclaimed, 'Master come wise man, with two eyes; while poor black man come very foolish with only one;' and taking up the palanquin with the beef, set off towards the tents in great good humour.' Vol. i. p. 2; ii. 139.

to be very scrupulous; an English table covered with a variety of food is necessarily surrounded by a number of servants of different castes to attend the guests. At Baroche, Surat, and Bombay, a Hindoo will not remove a dish that has been defiled with beef, a Mohammedan cannot touch a plate polluted by pork, nor will a Parsee take one away on which is hare or rabbit. I never knew more than one Parsee servant who would snuff a candle, from a fear of extinguishing the symbol of the deity he worships, nor would this man ever do it in the presence of a Parsee.*

Bishop Heber observes, 'I have always heard, and truly believed, till I came to India, that it was a grievous crime, in the opinion of the Brahmins, to eat the flesh or shed the blood of any living creature whatever.† But the Bishop had not sailed up the Ganges to Calcutta before he found himself compelled to abandon this belief. Among the merchant ships and Maldivé boats, which crowded the Hooghly, and seemed to reproduce the naval activity of the Thames, he saw the little barks of numerous fishermen, who were employed in catering for the appetites of their wealthy countrymen, Brahmins as well as others. Fish, our traveller now found, 'is considered as one of the purest and most lawful kinds of food. Nothing, indeed, seems more generally mistaken than the supposed prohibition of animal food to the Hindoos. Thus many Brahmins eat both fish and kid. The Rajpoots, besides these, eat mutton, venison, or goat's flesh. Some castes may eat any thing but fowls, beef or pork; while pork is with others a favourite diet, and beef only is prohibited.' He then adds, that though intoxicating liquors are by their religion forbidden to the Hindoos, the prohibition is very generally disregarded by persons of all ranks.‡

Respecting the Pythagoræan habits of the Brahmins and Hindoos, Heber wrote—'You may be, perhaps, as much surprised as I was to find that those who can afford it are hardly

* Oriental Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 138.

† Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. iii. p. 347, 8vo. edit.

‡ Narrative of a Journey &c. vol. i. p. 9.

less carnivorous than ourselves; that even the purest Brahmins are allowed to eat mutton and venison.' And again, in another letter to a friend, he adds, 'I have now myself seen Brahmins of the highest caste cut off the heads of goats as a sacrifice to Durga (Bhavani); and I know from the testimony of Brahmins, as well as from other sources, that not only hecatombs of animals are offered in this manner as a meritorious act (a Rajah about 25 years back offered 60,000 in one fortnight,) but that any person, Brahmins not excepted, eats readily of the flesh of whatever has been offered up to one of their divinities, while among almost all the other castes, mutton, pork, venison, fish, any thing but beef and fowls, are consumed as readily as in Europe.*'

Herodotus mentions a rumour that there were cannibals in India, who were said to eat even the bodies of their parents. We find the charge of cannibalism renewed by a modern author of considerable reputation. 'Not only,' says Major Moor, 'do the Hindoos, even the Brahmins, eat flesh, but they eat (one sect at least) human flesh. They do not, I conclude, kill human subjects to eat, but they eat such as they find in or about the Ganges, and perhaps other rivers. The name of the sect is *Paramahansa*; and I have received authentic information of individuals of this sect being not very unusually seen about Benares, floating down the river on, *and feeding on a corpse*. Nor is this a low despicable tribe; but on the contrary, esteemed by themselves at least, as a very high one; and my information stated that the human brain is judged by these epicurean cannibals as the most delicious morsel of their unsocial banquet.'

In some of the districts of Bahar, there is a tribe of people called *Sheep-eaters*, who seize the animal alive, tear open its throat with their teeth, suck the living blood, and actually devour the flesh and entrails, until nothing remains but the skeleton. Lady Anstruther, who made a valuable collection of drawings during her residence in India, has a set of paintings in water colours, done by a native, which contains the whole

* Narrative &c. vol. iii. p. 251, 277, 347.

process of these extraordinary gluttons, from the first seizure of the unfortunate animal, until it is completely devoured. A lithographic sketch, made after a similar set of paintings, of a sheep-eater in the various stages of his disgusting meal, is published in the third volume of the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, accompanied with a brief memoir by General Hardwicke.

Among all these cannibals and carnivorous people, however, there are undoubtedly many Brahmins and others who rigidly abstain from all kinds of animal food. Nevertheless their aliments are sufficiently varied. The feast of one of these vegetable Brahmins generally consist of seasoned bread, rice, curry, vegetables, pickles, and a dessert. Their ordinary bread is prepared from flour of wheat, juari, or bajera. To this they are fond of adding a thin cake or wafer, 'made from the flour of *oord*, highly seasoned with assafoetida; a salt called *popper-khor*; and a very hot massaula, composed of turmeric, black pepper, ginger, garlic, several kinds of warm seeds, and a quantity of the hottest Chili pepper.' All these ingredients are kneaded together with the oord flour and water into a tenacious paste, which is then rolled into cakes thin as a wafer, which, having been first dried a little in the sun, are then baked, like the oaten cakes of the Scotch, until they are quite crisp. The Brahmini curry is generally nothing more than warm buttermilk, thickened with grain-flour, and slightly seasoned with spices. Another of their favourite dishes is composed of a sort of split pea boiled with salt and turmeric, and eaten with *ghee*, or clarified butter. When the dinner is prepared the Brahmin first washes his body in warm water, during which operation he wears his *dotee*, or that cloth which, fastened round his loins, hangs down to his ancles: when washed, he hangs up the *dotee* to dry, and binds in its place a piece of silk, it not being allowable for a Brahmin to wear any thing else when eating. If a person of another caste, or even a Brahmin who is not washed, touches his *dotee* while drying, he cannot wear it without washing it again. After going through several forms of prayer

and other ceremonies, he sits down to his food, which is spread on fresh gathered leaves, fastened together to the size wanted for the company. The dishes and plates are invariably composed of leaves; a Brahmin may not eat out of any thing else. Tin vessels, or copper tinned, may be used for cooking; but a Brahmin cannot eat out of them. The food, after being prepared in the kitchen, is placed in distinct portions, on dishes of different size, form, and depth, on the large verdant covering in a regular manner. In the centre of the cover is always a large pile of plain boiled rice, and at a feast there are generally two other heaps of white and yellow rice, seasoned with spices and salt; and two of sweet rice, to be eaten with *chatna*, pickles, and stewed vegetables: the latter are chiefly brenjals, bendre turoy, and different kinds of beans, all savourily dressed and heated with chilies of every description. The *chatna* is usually made from a vegetable called *cotemear*, to the eye very much resembling parsley, but to those unused to it, of a very disagreeable taste and smell: this is so strongly heated with chilies, as to render the other ingredients less distinguishable. The *chatna* is sometimes made with cocoa-nut, lime-juice, garlic, and chilies, and, with the pickles, is placed in deep leaves round the large cover, to the number of 30 or 40, the Hindoos being very fond of this stimulus to their rice. These pickles are not prepared with vinegar, but preserved in oil and salt, seasoned with chilie and the acid of tamarinds, which in a salted state is much used in Hindoostan. Brahmins and many other Hindoos reject the onion from their bill of fare. Ghee, which, in deep boats formed of leaves, seems to constitute the essence of the dinner, is plentifully dispensed. The dessert consists of mangoes, preserved with sugar, ginger, limes, and other sweet-meats; syrup of different fruits, and sometimes a little ripe fruit; but the dessert is not common. Such is the entertainment of a rich Brahmin who eats no animal food.

The poor, whose means will not allow them to think of animal food, consume rice, dhall, and other cheap grains, seasoned with salt, spices, and, if possible, a little dried or fresh

fish. The Hindoo uses the right hand only in eating. The use of knives, forks, spoons, &c. he abjures as an abomination; he drinks out of a brass cup, or from the hollow of his hand; but is always careful that the vessel, when any is used, does not touch his lips.

LITERATURE.—The antiquity of the Hindoos is demonstrated by the ancientness, and in many instances the purity of their literary compositions.

Religious works.—The Vedas (signifying knowledge) are, in every respect, the most important work of their ancient literature. They are the basis of their religion, and are appealed to as the foundation of all their social and political institutions. Only a small portion of them has hitherto been drawn to light, and, up to the present moment, the principal source of our information respecting them is a dissertation by Mr. Colebrooke, printed in the eighth volume of the 'Asiatic Researches.'

The Vedas are four in number; each Veda consisting of two parts, denominated the *Mantras*, or prayers, and the *Bráhmanas*, or precepts. The complete collection of the *Mantras* (or hymns, prayers, and invocations) belonging to one Veda is entitled its *Sanhitá*. Every other portion of Indian scripture is included under the general head of divinity (*Bráhma*). This comprises precepts which inculcate religious duties, maxims which explain those precepts, and arguments which relate to theology.*

The whole of the Indian theology is professedly founded on tracts, likewise considered as parts of the Vedas, and denominated *Upanishads*. The proper meaning of this designation is doubtful: it is usually supposed to signify 'mystery;' but neither the etymology nor the usual acceptance of the word seems to warrant this interpretation.†

* As. Res. vol. viii. p. 387, 388. Compare Transact. of the Roy. As. Soc. vol. i. p. 448, 449.

† As. Res. vol. viii. p. 472. The Upanishads were translated into Persian by Sultan Dárâ-Shekúh, the eldest son of the Mogol emperor, Sháh-Jehán, and brother of Aurungzebe; who was born A.D. 1615, and was

The *Mantras*, or prayers, are the principal portion of each Veda, and apparently preceded the *Bráhmanas*. Those of the Rig-Veda are metrical, and are recited aloud; those of the Sâma-Veda are chaunted with musical modulation; those of the Yajur-Veda are in prose, and are inaudibly recited. A table of contents, appended to the several *Sanhitás*, states the name of the author of each prayer, that of the deity or being invoked, and if the prayer be in verse, the number of stanzas and the metre. Indra, or the firmament, fire, the sun, the moon, water, air, the spirits, the atmosphere, and the earth are the objects most frequently addressed.*

The following is Mr. Colebrooke's literal translation of a single prayer from the Rig-Veda:—

'Guardian of this abode! be acquainted with us; be to us a wholesome dwelling; afford us what we ask of thee: and grant happiness to our bipeds and quadrupeds. Guardian of this house! increase both us and our wealth. Moon! while thou art friendly, may we, with our kine and our horses, be exempted from decrepitude: guard us as a father protects his offspring. Guardian of this dwelling! may we be united with a happy, delightful, and melodious abode afforded by thee: guard our wealth now under thy protection, or yet in expectancy, and do thou defend us.'

killed by Aurungzebe's order in 1659. This Persian translation was again translated into Latin by Anquetil du Perron. (*Oupnehhat, id est, Secretum tegendum*, &c. Paris, 1801, 2 vols. 4to.) A free translation from the Sanscrit original of four of the shorter Upanishads may be found in Rammohun Roy's 'Translation of several principal Books, &c. of the Veds.' London, 1832, 8vo.

* 'Every line,' observes Mr. Colebrooke, in speaking of the prayers of the Rig-Veda, 'is replete with allusions to mythology; not a mythology which avowedly exalts deified heroes (as in the more recent legendary poems of the Hindoos), but one which personifies the elements and planets, and which peoples heaven and the world below with various orders of beings.' Mr. Colebrooke proceeds to say, that he has not remarked in these hymns any thing that corresponds with the favourite legends of those sects which worship either the *Linga* or *Sacti*, or else Râma or Krishna. See As. Res. vol. viii. p. 398.

The difference of style alone would be sufficient to prove that in the Vedas, as they are now before us, books, treatises, and fragments belonging to different ages are put together. At what period the present arrangement was made, we are as yet unable to determine, since our total want of authentic information, respecting the history of India, renders it altogether extremely difficult to ascertain the epoch of any of the ancient monuments of Sanscrit literature. From a passage stating the position of the solstitial points, which occurs in a sort of calendar appended to the Rig-Veda, Mr. Colebrooke has drawn the conclusion that this calendar must have been regulated during the fourteenth century;* and part at least of the hymns in honour of the several deities, whose festivals this calendar was destined to regulate, now embodied in the Rig-Veda, must then have been already extant.

Legends.—The class of Sanscrit writings, next in importance to the Vedas, are the *Purânas*, or legendary poems, similar, in some respects, to the Grecian theogonies. The *Purânas* are said to be composed by Vyâsa, the compiler of the present collection of the Vedas. Each *Purâna* treats of five subjects;—the creation of the universe, its destruction, and the renovation of worlds; the *avatâras*, or manifestations of the supreme deity; the genealogy of gods and heroes; chronology, according to a fabulous system; and heroic history, containing the achievements of demi-gods and heroes. Some of the *Purânas*, being less obscure than the Vedas, are now very generally read and studied, and constitute the popular, or poetical creed of the present Hindoos. The principal *Purânas* are 18 in number; their names are the Brahma, Padma, Brahmânda, Agni, Vishnu, Garuda, Brahmavivarta, Siva, Linga, Nâradya, Skanda, Mârkandeya, Bhavinhyat, Matsya, Varâha, Kûrma, Vâmana, and Bhâgavata *Purâna*. They are reckoned to contain 400,000 stanzas. (Wilson, Mackenzie Collection, vol.i. p. 48.) There are also 18 *Upapurânas*, or similar poems of inferior sanctity and different appellations.

* Asiatic Researches, vol. viii. p. 491, &c.

Poetry.—Two great epic poems, the *Rāmāyana* and the *Mahābhārata*, are usually classed with the Purānas. The *Rāmāyana*, comprising 24,000 stanzas, divided into seven books, and written by the ancient poet Vālmiki, records the adventures of Rāma, an incarnation of the god Vishnu, who was born as the son of Dasaratha, king of Oude. The *Mahābhārata* is said to contain no less than 100,000 stanzas. Vyāsa, the supposed compiler of the Vedas and Purānas, is said to be its author. It records the actions of Krishna, the last and most celebrated of the avatārs of Vishnu.

Law.—Books on law constitute another important branch of Sanscrit literature. The treatises coming under this designation may be divided into two classes: some consist of maxims or precepts, usually expressed in verse, put together into codes of greater or less extent, and attributed to various ancient sages, as their original and inspired authors; others consist either of comments on these traditional texts, elucidating and amplifying their import, and solving such difficulties as arise from apparent contradictions in different passages; or of systematic treatises, in which the several topics of Hindoo jurisprudence are discussed according to logical arrangement, and passages from the ancient law-givers are adduced in support of the doctrines advanced.

The most distinguished work extant of the first class is undoubtedly the code generally known under the title of the Institutes of Menu. Numerous compilations of a similar nature exist, which are attributed to Gôtama, Nārada, Sanka, Likhita, Kātyāyana, Yājñawalkya, and other ancient sages. Among the commentaries on their codes, we shall here only mention the gloss of Kullūkabhattachā on the laws of Menu, and the ample commentary of Vijnānēsvara on the Institutes of Yājñawalkya, known in India under the title of the *Mitakshara*: the latter work is the principal law authority, now followed by the Hindoo lawyers officially attached to the courts of justice in the Dekkan, and in the western provinces of Hindoostan.* Among the works on jurisprudence arranged

* Rammohun Roy's Judicial System of India, p. 48.

on a free system, independent from the accidental succession of topics in the ancient compilations of legal precepts, we may notice the *Vīramitrōdaya* of Mitrāmīśra, the *Dāyabhāga* of Jīmūtavāhana, and the Digest of Jagannātha, as some of the most generally known.*

Epic Poems.—The two great epic poems of the Hindoos, the Rāmāyana and the Mahābhārata, are written in a remarkably easy and natural kind of verse, and in a language which though sometimes highly expressive and energetic, generally bears the character of the simplest narrative, and the tone of common conversation. There are, however, other Sanscrit poems, evidently belonging to a more modern age, and written in a style of artificial refinement, both as to language and versification.

The Drama.—The dramatic literature of the Hindoos became first known to the literary public of Europe through the translation of one of its greatest ornaments, the play of *Sacontalā*, by Sir William Jones. The translation of the dramatised allegory, called *Prabōdha Chandrōdaya*, or 'Rise of the Moon of Intellect,' by Dr. Taylor, of Bombay, was published in 1812, more calculated to throw light on the metaphysics than on the scenic literature of the Hindoos. In 1827, however, Mr. Wilson's English translation of six new plays appeared,† accompanied with a dissertation on the dramatic system of the Hindoos, and with some account of other extant Sanscrit dramas. Independently of the other undeniable poetic merit of many parts, at least, of these compositions, they are highly interesting, as the most genuine pictures of Hindoo manners, and of the condition of society in Hindoostan previous to its conquest by foreign invaders. It deserves to be noticed, as a striking peculiarity of the Hindoo dramas, that different forms of speech are employed for different characters: the hero and the principal personages speaking San-

* The two latter works are translated by Mr. Colebrooke.

† Select Specimens of the Theatre of the Hindoos, by H. H. Wilson, Calcutta, 1827, 3 vols. 8vo. A new edition of this work has just been published (London, 1835, 2 vols. 8vo.)

scrit; but women and the inferior characters using the various modifications of that language, which are comprehended under the term *Prâcrit*. None of the Hindoo plays at present known can boast of a very high antiquity, and nearly all appear to have been composed at a period when the Sanscrit has ceased to be the colloquial medium. 'They must therefore,' observes Mr. Wilson, 'have been unintelligible to a considerable portion of the audience, and never could have been so directly addressed to the bulk of the population as to have exercised much influence upon their passions or their tastes. This circumstance, however, is perfectly in harmony with the constitution of Hindoo society, by which the highest branches of literature, as well as the highest offices in the state, were reserved for the privileged tribes of Kshatriyas and Brahmins.' To the unities of time and place the dramatic poets of India have paid but little attention: they are not, however, destitute of certain rules; and many Hindoo writers have endeavoured to reduce to a system the technicalities of dramatic composition. The Hindoos had no separate edifices appropriated to dramatic representations, nor do they appear to have possessed any complicated scenic apparatus. In the palaces of kings there was a hall or saloon, in which dancing and singing were practised and sometimes exhibited, and this room was fitted up on purpose for dramatic entertainments.* Plays were only occasionally enacted, at seasons peculiarly sacred to some divinity, or at royal coronations, marriages, and other public occasions; and this circumstance accounts partly for the limited number, and partly for the great length of those Hindoo dramas which have been preserved to us.

Fables.—The popular collection of fables, commonly known in Europe under the name of the 'Fables of Pilpay,' are of Indian origin. The Sanscrit original has now been ascertained to be the *Panchatantra*, a work so called from its being divided into five *tantras*, or sections, and probably compiled in the fifth century of our era. It consists of stories told in

* At the English theatre at Chouringer, Calcutta, a large part of the audience is composed of the most respectable of the Hindoo gentry.

prose; but interspersed with moral maxims, and other sentences in verse, many of which have been borrowed from other authors, and can be traced to their original sources.*

The Arabian Nights were long considered to have been originally composed in the Arabic language; but, latterly, some at least of the most enchanting tales embodied in that collection have been discovered to be of Indian origin, and the Sanscrit to which they have recently been traced is a voluminous collection of stories known in India under the title of the *Vrihatsak'ha*.†

Arithmetic.—The decimal system of the notation of numerals, now generally in use among us, is an Indian invention, which was probably communicated to the Arabians through the Hindoo mathematicians and astronomers, who visited Bagdad during the reigns of the earlier Abbaside caliphs; and Gerbert of Aurillac, subsequently raised to the papal throne as Pope Sylvester II. (died A.D. 1003,) who had studied in the Arabian universities of Seville and Cordova, in Spain, is usually supposed to have first introduced it into Europe. To the Hindoos the Arabians also appear to be indebted for their first knowledge of algebra. The earliest extant Arabic treatise on algebra,‡ confirms by internal evidence the supposition previously entertained by Cossali, Hutton, and others, that the art of solving problems by reduction and equation had not originated among the Arabians, but had been communicated to them from India. The principal Indian writers on algebra and arithmetic generally, are Aryabhata (in the

* See Mr. Wilson's account of the *Panchatantra*, Trans. of the Royal Asiat. Soc. vol. i. p. 155, &c.

† See the (Calcutta) Quarterly Oriental Magazine, June, 1825, p. 250, &c.; and March, 1824, p. 68, &c. Wilson's Theatre of the Hindoos, vol. ii. p. 138.

‡ By Mohammed ben Musa, who wrote during the reign of the Abbaside caliph Mamûn, in the earlier part of the ninth century of our era. An edition and translation of his elementary treatise on Algebra was published three years ago by the Oriental Translation Committee.

fifth century of our era,) Brahmagupta (who wrote about A.D. 628,) and Bhāscara (in the twelfth century.)* *Astronomy* appears, from an early period, to have been cultivated by the Hindoos for the regulation of time. It seems probable that the astronomy of the Hindoos was originally as independent from that of the Greeks as their early proficiency in algebra; although no doubt can be entertained that, at a period when astronomy had already made some progress among them, they received hints from the astronomical schools of the Greeks.† The number of astronomical works in the Sanscrit language is considerable: the most celebrated among them are the *Sāryasiddhānta* of Varāhamihira, who, to judge from the position of the colures in his work, must have written in the latter part of the fifth century of our era;‡ the *Brahma-siddhānta* of Brahmagupta, who is supposed to have written about A.D. 636;§ and the *Siddhānta-sirōmani* of Bhāscara, which was completed in A. D. 1150.|| The Hindoos place the earth in the centre of the world, and make the sun, and moon, and minor planets revolve round it, apparently in concentric orbits, with unequal or irregular motion. For a physical explanation of the phenomena, they imagine the planets driven by currents of air along their respective orbits (besides one great vortex carrying stars and planets with prodigious velocity round the earth, in the compass of a day.) The winds or currents, impelling the several planets, communicate to them velocities, by which their motion should be equable, and in the plane of the ecliptic; but the planets are

* See Colebrooke's Algebra, with Arithmetic and Mensuration, from the Sanscrit of Brahmagupta and Bhāscara. London, 1817, 4to.

† Colebrooke's Algebra, &c., Dissert. p. 24; Whish, on the Origin and Antiquity of the Hindoo Zodiac, in the Transactions of the Literary Society of Madras, part. i. p. 63, &c.

‡ See Davis on the Astronomical Computations of the Hindoos; As. Res. vol. ii. p. 225—286.

§ Asiat. Res. vol. vi. p. 586; Colebrooke's Algebra, from the Sanscrit, &c., Dissertation, p. 6.

|| Asiat. Res. vol. xii. p. 221, note.

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drawn from this course by certain controlling powers, situated at the apogees, conjunctions, and nodes. These powers are clothed by Hindoo imaginations with celestial bodies invisible to human sight, and furnished with hands and reins, by which they draw the planets from their direct path and uniform progress. The being at the apogee, for instance, constantly attracts the planet towards itself, alternately, however, with the right and left hands. The deity at the node diverts the planet, first to one side then to the other, from the ecliptic; and, lastly, the deity at the conjunction causes the planet, to be one while stationary, another while retrograde, and to move at different times with velocity accelerated or retarded. These fancied beings are considered as invisible planets; the nodes and apogees having a motion of their own in the ecliptic. This whimsical system, more worthy of the mythologist than of the astronomer, is gravely set forth in the *Sūryasiddhānta*; and even Bhāscara gives it, though not without indications of reluctant acquiescence. To explain on mathematical principles the irregularity of the planetary motions, the Hindoo astronomers remove the earth from the centre of the planet's orbit, and assume the motion in that excentric to be really equable, though it appear irregular as viewed from the earth.* Mr. Colebrooke, after a minute investigation of the notions of the Hindoo astronomers, concerning the precession of the equinoxes, arrives at the conclusion that on this subject the Hindoos had a theory which, though erroneous, was their own; that they had a knowledge of the true doctrine of an uniform motion in antecedentia, at least 700 years ago, and that they had approximated to the true ratio of that motion much nearer than Ptolemy, before the Arabian astronomers, and as near the truth as these have ever done since.†

* Colebrooke, *Asiat. Res.* vol. xii. p. 233, 234.

† *Asiat. Res.* vol. xii. p. 220, &c. 'Some of the most celebrated Hindoo astronomers, as Brahmagupta, have been silent on the subject of a change in the places of the colures, or have denied their regular periodical motion. Others, as Manjāla and Bhāscara, have asserted a periodical

‘ Their calendar, both civil and religious, was governed chiefly, not exclusively, by the moon and sun, and the motion of these luminaries were carefully observed by them; and with such success, that their determination of the moon’s synodical revolution, which they were principally concerned with, is a much more correct one than the Greeks ever achieved.*

Philosophy. The various systems of Hindoo philosophy are in some instances considered orthodox, as consistent with the theology of the Vedas; such are the two *Mīmāṃsā* schools: others are deemed heretical, as incompatible with the sacred writings of the Hindoos: such are the *Nyāya* and the *Vaiśeṣika* system; others again are partly heterodox, and partly conformable to the established Hindoo creed; such are the *Sāṅkhya* and *Yōga*. The two *Mīmāṃsās* (for there are two schools of metaphysics under this title) comprise the complete system of interpretation of the precepts and doctrine of the Vedas, both practical and theological. The prior *Mīmāṃsā* (*Pārva Mīmāṃsā*, or *Karma Mīmāṃsā*), which has Jaimini for its founder, teaches the art of reasoning, with the express view of aiding the interpretation of the Vedas: its scope is the ascertainment of duties and religious observances prescribed in the sacred books. ‘ It is not directly a system of philosophy, nor chiefly so; but, in course of delivering canons of scriptural interpretation, it incidentally touches upon philosophical topics; and scholastic disputants have elicited from its dogmas principles of reasoning applicable to the prevailing points of controversy agitated in the Hindoo schools of philosophy.’† The latter *Mīmāṃsā* (*Uttara Mīmāṃsā*, or *Brahma Mīmāṃsā*), which is attributed to *Vyāsa*, is usually called *Vedānta* i. e. ‘ the conclusion, end, or scope of the Veda,’ and consists in a refined psychology, deduced

revolution of the colures; but the greater number of celebrated writers, and all the modern Hindoo astronomers, have affirmed a libration of the equinoctial points.’ *Ibid.* p. 217.

* Colebrooke’s *Algebra*, &c., Dissertation, p. 22.

† Colebrooke, *Trans. Roy. Asiat. Soc.* vol. i. p. 19, 439, &c.

chiefly from the Upanishads, which goes to a denial of a material world.*

The *Nyāya*, of which Gôtama is the acknowledged author, furnishes a philosophical arrangement, with strict rules of reasoning, not unaptly compared to the dialectic of the Aristotelian school. Another course of philosophy connected with it bears the denomination of *Vaisēshika*. Its reputed author is Kanāde, who, like Democritus, maintained the doctrine of atoms. A different philosophical system, partly heterodox, and partly conformable to the established Hindoo creed, is the *Sāṅkhya*; of which also, as of the preceding, there are two schools—one usually known by that name, the other commonly termed *Yōga*.† The former was founded by Kapila, the latter by *Patanjali*. The two schools differ upon one point, which is the most important of all—the proof of the existence of God. The school of *Patanjali* recognises God, and is, therefore, denominated the theistical *Sāṅkhya*; that of Kapila is atheistical, inasmuch as it acknowledges no Creator of the Universe, nor Supreme Ruling Providence. The gods of Kapila are beings superior to man; but, like him, subject to change and transmigration.‡

The preceding remarks have reference to that portion of the literature of the Hindoos which is written in the Sanscrit language, partly because it is the most important and classical branch of it, and partly because the literature, extant in the various vernacular dialects of India, has not yet sufficiently been explored. As far as our present knowledge extends, the majority of the works written in the Hindi, Bengali, Mahratta, Tamul, and Telooگو languages consists in

* See Colebrooke, Trans. Roy. Asiat. Soc. vol. ii. p. 1, &c. Rammohun Roy's 'Translation of an Abridgment of the Vedant,' in his 'Translation of several Books, &c. of the Veds,' p. 1—22. F. H. H. Windischmann, *Sancara sive de Theologumenis Vedanticorum*. Bonn, 1833, 8vo.

† Colebrooke, l. c. vol. i. p. 19.

‡ Colebrooke, Trans. Roy. Asiat. Soc. vol. i. p. 19, 25, &c.; Lassen's *Gymnosophista*, fascic. i. Bonn, 1832, 4to.

translations or imitations of compositions in the Sanscrit.* It is a remarkable fact, that no strictly historical works, of a date anterior to the conquest of northern India by the Mohammedans, have yet been discovered in any Indian language.†

ARCHITECTURE.—The sacred buildings of Hindostan have long been the theme of admiration, and the Mahometan conquerors of Indian seem to have vied with the Hindoos in the magnitude and beauty of their structures. The most ancient temples are probably those excavated in the sides of mountains; one of the earliest of which is the Cave of Elephanta, situate in a island of the same name in the Bay of Bombay.‡

‘The entrance into this temple, which is entirely hewn out of a stone resembling porphyry, is by a spacious front supported by two massy pillars and two pilasters forming three openings, under a thick and steep rock, overhung by brushwood and wild shrubs. The long ranges of columns that appear closing in perspective on every side; the flat roof of solid rock, that seems to be prevented from falling only by the massy pillars, whose capitals are pressed down and flattened as if by the superincumbent weight; the darkness that obscures the interior of the temple, which is dimly lighted only by the entrances; and the gloomy appearance of the gigantic stone figures ranged along the wall, and hewn, like the whole temple, out of the living rock,—joined to the strange uncertainty that hangs over the history of this place,—carry the mind back to distant periods, and impress it with

* See Ward's View, &c. of the Hindoos, vol. iv. p. 476—482 (3rd edition); Wilson's Catalogue of the Mackenzie Collection, 2 vols. 8vo. Calcutta, 1828; Biographical Sketches of Dekkan Poets, by Cavally Venkata Ramaswamie, Calcutta, 1829, 8vo.

† The only exception to this remark that could perhaps be adduced, is the poetic Sanscrit Chronicle of Cashmere, an account of which is given by Mr. Wilson in the 16th volume of the Asiatic Researches.

‡ Elephanta Isle, seven miles from Bombay castle, is about six miles in circumference, and composed of two long hills, with a narrow valley between them.

that kind of uncertain and religious awe with which the grander works of ages of darkness are generally contemplated. The whole excavation consists of three principal parts; the great temple itself, which is in the centre, and two smaller chapels, one on each side of the great temple. These two chapels do not come forward into a straight line with the front of the chief temple, are not perceived on approaching the temple, and are considerably in recess; being approached by two narrow passes in the hill, one on each side of the grand entrance, but at some distance from it. After advancing to some distance up these confined passes, we find each of them conduct to another front of the grand excavation, exactly like the principal front which is first seen; all the three fronts being hollowed out of the solid rock, and each consisting of two huge pillars with two pilasters. The two side fronts are precisely opposite to each other on the E. and W., the grand entrance facing the N. The two wings of the temple are at the upper end of these passages, and are close by the grand excavation, but have no covered passage to connect them with it.*

From the northern entrance to the extremity of this cave is about $130\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and from the eastern to the western side 133. Twenty-six pillars, (of which eight are broken,) and 16 pilasters, support the roof. Neither the floor nor the roof is in the same plane, and consequently the height varies, being in some parts $17\frac{1}{2}$, in others 15 feet. Two rows of pillars run parallel to one another from the northern entrance and at right angles to it, to the extremity of the cave; and the pilasters, one of which stands on each side of the two front pillars, are followed by other pilasters and pillars also, forming on each side of the two rows already described, another row, running parallel to them up to the southern extremity of the cave. The pillars on the eastern and western front, which are like those on the northern side, are also continued across from E. to W.; thus the ranges of pillars form a number of parallel lines, intersecting one another at right angles;

* Mr. W. Erskine, in the Bombay Literary Transactions.

the pillars of the central parts being considered as common to the two sets of intersecting lines. The pillars vary both in size and decorations, and all the walls are covered with reliefs referring to Hindoo mythology.

Mr. Mill speaks slightly (as he generally does of everything Indian) of Elephanta as a cave of no extraordinary structure, and describes the pillars as 'pieces of the rock, as is usual in mining, left at certain distances supporting the superincumbent matter:' but many persons of taste, who have visited Elephanta, entertain a very different opinion. Goldingham mentions among the sculptures the beautiful figure of a youth, and, in another group, a male 'leading a female towards a majestic figure seated in a corner of the niche, his head covered like our judges on the bench; the countenance and attitude of the female highly expressive of modesty, and a timid reluctance.' Further on he adds, 'the part of this surprising monument of human skill and perseverance, hitherto described, is generally called the Great Cave; its length is 135 feet, and its breadth nearly the same.' 'Gigantic as the figures are,' he says, 'the mind is not disagreeably moved on viewing in them a certain indication of the harmony of the proportions. Having measured three or four, and examined the proportions by the scale we allow the most correct, I found many stood even this test, while the disagreements were not equal to what are met with every day in people whom we think by no means ill-proportioned.* Another traveller, who has left us an entertaining account of Western India, observes that, 'the principal temple and adjoining apartments are 220 feet long, and 150 broad; in these dimensions exceeding the largest work at Salsette;† but being very inferior in height, notwithstanding the numerous and richer decorations at Elephanta, the spectator is constantly reminded of being in a cave. At Salsette, the lofty concave roof and noble columns have a majestic appearance: yet, the observer feels more surprise and admiration at Elephanta

* Goldingham, Asiatic Researches, vol. iv. p. 424—434.

† An island also in Bombay Bay, with an extensive rock-cut temple.

than at Salsette: he beholds four rows of massive columns cut out of the solid rock, uniform in their order, and placed at regular distances, so as to form three magnificent avenues from the principal entrance to the grand idol, which terminates the middle vista; the general effect being heightened by the blueness of the light, or rather gloom, peculiar to the situation. The central image is composed of three colossal heads, reaching nearly from the floor to the roof, a height of 15 feet.*

The accomplished Heber says, 'the great cavern is deserving all the praise which has been lavished on it.' 'Though my expectations were highly raised, the reality much exceeded them, and both the dimensions, the proportions, and the sculpture seemed to me to be of a much more noble character, and a more elegant execution than I had been led to suppose. Even the statues are executed with great spirit, and are some of them of no common beauty, considering their dilapidated condition, and the coarseness of their material.†

Of the cave temples of Kennerly, in the Island of Salsette, the same excellent authority observes:—'These are, certainly, in every way remarkable from their number, their beautiful situation, their elaborate carving, and their marked connexion with Buddha and his religion. The caves are scattered over two sides of a high rocky hill, at many different elevations, and of various sizes and forms. Most of them appear to have been places of habitation for monks or hermits. One very beautiful apartment, of a square form, its walls covered with sculpture, and surrounded internally by a broad stone bench, is called 'the durbar,' but I should rather guess had been a school. Many have deep and well-carved cisterns attached to them, which, even in this dry season (May) were well supplied with water. The largest and most remarkable of all is a Buddhist temple, of great beauty and majesty, and which even in its present state would make a very stately and convenient place of Christian

* Forbes, *Oriental Memoirs*, vol. i. p. 429, 430.

† *Narrative of a Journey*, &c. vol. iii. p. 79, 80.

worship. It is entered through a fine and lofty portico, having on its front, but a little to the left hand, a high detached octagonal pillar, surmounted by three lions seated back to back. On each side of the portico is a colossal statue of Buddha, with his hands raised in the attitude of benediction, and the screen which separates the vestibule from the temple is covered, immediately above the dado, with a row of male and female figures, nearly naked, but not indecent, and carved with considerable spirit, which apparently represent dancers. In the centre of the semicircle, and with a free walk all round it, is a mass of rock left solid, but carved externally like a dome, and so as to bear a strong general likeness to our Saviour's sepulchre, as it is now chiselled away and enclosed in St. Helena's Church at Jerusalem. On the top of the dome is a sort of spreading ornament, like the capital of a column. It is, apparently, intended to support something, and I was afterwards told at Carli, where such an ornament, but of greater size, is likewise found, that a large gilt umbrella used to spring from it. This solid dome appears to be the usual symbol of Buddhist adoration and, with its umbrella ornament, may be traced in the Shoo-Madoo of Pegu, and other more remote structures of the same faith. Though it is different in its form and style of ornament from the Lingam, I cannot help thinking it has been originally intended to represent the same popular object of that almost universal idolatry. The ceiling of this cave is arched semicircularly, and ornamented, in a very singular manner, with slender ribs of teak-wood of the same curve with the roof, and disposed as if they were supporting it, which, however, it does not require, nor are they strong enough to answer the purpose. Their use may have been to hang lamps or flowers from in solemn rejoicings.*

The celebrated cavern at Carli 'is hewn on the face of a precipice, about two-thirds up the side of a steep hill, rising with a very scarped and regular *talus*, to the height of probably 800 feet above the plain. The excavations consist,

* Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. iii. p. 92—95.

besides the principal temple, of many smaller apartments and galleries, in two stories, some of them ornamented with great beauty, and evidently intended, like those at Kennery, for the lodging of monks or hermits. The temple itself is on the same general plan as that of Kennery, but half as large again, and far finer and richer. It is approached by a steep and narrow path winding up the side of the hill, among trees and brushwood, and fragments of rock. This brought us to a mean and ruinous temple of Siva, which serves as a sort of gateway to the cave. A similar small building stands on the right hand of its portico. The approach to the temple is, like that of Kennery, under a noble arch, filled up with a sort of portico screen, in two stories of three intercolumniations below, and five above. In the front, but a little to the left, is the same kind of pillar as is seen at Kennery, though of larger dimensions, surmounted by three lions back to back. Within the portico, to the right and left, are three colossal figures, in *alto relievo*, of elephants, their faces looking towards the person who arrives in the portico, and their heads, tusks, and trunks very boldly projecting from the wall. On each of them is a *mahout* very well carved, and a howdah with two persons seated in it. The internal screen on each side of the door is covered, as at Kennery, with *alto relievos*, very bold, and somewhat larger than life, of naked male and female figures.' In its general arrangement Carli closely answers to Kennery: but Bishop Heber thought that 'both in dimensions and execution it is much nobler, and more elaborate; and that the capitals of the columns (all of them at least which are not hidden by the chattah at the E. end) are very singular and beautiful. Each consists of a large cap, like a bell, finely carved, and surmounted by two elephants, with their trunks entwined, and each carrying two male and one female figure. The timber ribs which decorate the roof, whatever their use may have been, are very perfect, and have a good effect in the perspective of the interior, which is all extremely clean, and in good repair, and would be, in fact, a very noble temple for any religion.*

* Heber's Journal, &c. vol. iii. p. 112, 113.

Among the cavern temples of India the most remarkable, perhaps, both for the style of execution and the historical associations connected with them, are those of Ellora, situated near the ancient Hindoo capital of Deoghir, or Tagara, in the province of Aurungabad. Hamilton* justly remarks, that without the aid of numerous plates it would be impossible to render a minute description of these excavations intelligible. The excavations which have, with apparent propriety, been divided into Jain, Buddhist, and Brahminical, are situated in the face of a crescent-shaped hill, about a mile from the little rural village of Ellora. 'The first view of this desolate religious city,' says Mr. Erskine, 'is grand and striking, but melancholy. The number and magnificence of the subterraneous temples, the extent and loftiness of some, the endless diversity of sculpture in others, the variety of curious foliage, of minute tracery, highly wrought pillars, rich mythological designs, sacred shrines, and colossal statues astonish but distract the mind. From their number and diversity, it is impossible to form any idea of the whole; and the first impressions only give way to a wonder not less natural, that such prodigious efforts of labour and skill should remain, from times certainly not barbarous, without a trace to tell us the hand by which they were designed, or the populous and powerful nation by which they were completed. The empire, whose pride they must have been, has passed away, and left not a memorial behind it. The religion to which we owe one part of them, indeed, continues to exist; but that which called into existence the other, like the beings by whose toil it was wrought, has been swept from the land.'

One of the groups of caves which, in contempt, is termed by the Brahmins *Dehr Warra*, or 'the Halálkhorst† Quarter,' has during the rains a very picturesque appearance. The large excavation, according to Sir Charles Malet, is very spacious and handsome, and over the front of it there must rush

* Description of India, vol. ii. p. 148, 149.

† The *Haldikhors* (i. e. literally, those to whom every thing is lawful food) are the lowest tribe of outcasts. Forbes, Oriental Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 136.

a small river, during the rainy season, into the plain below, forming a sheet of water, which, in a beautiful cascade, covers the façade of the temple as with a curtain of crystal. There are two benches of stone that run parallel to each other along the floor, from the entrance, the whole depth of the cave, the prospect from which, of the great tank, town, and valley of Ellora, is beautiful. These benches appear to have been intended, as in what is called 'the Durbar' at Kennery, as seats either for students, scribes, or the sellers of certain commodities, a convenient passage lying between them up to the idol at the end of the cave.*

Of the Buddhist cave-temple near Buddha-Gaya, in Bahar, no very minute or elaborate description exists. The hill in which it is hewn lies about 14 miles from Gaya, and appears to be one entire mass of granite, rough, craggy, and precipitous in its ascent. 'The cave is situated on its southern declivity, about two-thirds from the summit: a tree immediately before it prevents its being seen from the bottom. It has only one narrow entrance from the S., two feet and a half in breadth, and six feet high, and of thickness exactly equal. This leads to a room of an oval form, with a vaulted roof, 44 feet in length from E. to W., 18½ feet in breadth, and 10½ in height at the centre. This immense cavity is dug entirely out of the solid rock, and is exceedingly well polished, but without any ornament. The same stone extends much

* Asiatic Researches, vol. vi. p. 423. The reader, desirous of studying the details of these extraordinary caverns, may consult the elaborate description of Sir C. Malet. *Ib.* p. 382—423; Transactions of the Bombay Literary Society, articles ix. and xv.; Fitzclarence's *Journal of a Route across India*, p. 193—213; Seely, *the Wonders of Ellora*, Lond. 1824; Daniell's *Picturesque Voyage to India*, Lond. 1810; Langlès, *Monumens anciens et modernes de l'Inde*, en 150 planches, Paris, 1813; *Trans. of the Royal Asiatic Society*, vol. ii. p. 326, &c. In the 'Modern Traveller,' an unpretending but clever compilation, the contributions of various authorities have been abridged with much pains, *India*, vol. iv. p. 287—305. Anquetil Duperron has left us an elaborate description of the excavations in his *Preliminary Discourse to the Zend Avesta*, tom. i. p. 233—249.

farther than the excavated part, on each side of it, and is altogether, I imagine, full an hundred feet in length.*

Of all these cavern temples, by far the greater number bear evident marks of having been originally consecrated to the worship of Siva, and his consort Bhavani; whose symbols, the Yoni, the Lingam, and the Bull, occupy the sanctuary of the edifice, or are at least discernible among its principal ornaments. (See *Religion of the Hindoos.*)

Among the most beautiful of the shrines of India is that which the Jains, who have been termed the Deists of Hindostan, have erected to the Supreme God in the mountain city of Comulmere in Rajast'han. The design of this temple, according to Col. Tod, is truly classic. It consists only of the sanctuary, which has a vaulted dome and colonnaded portico all round. The architecture is undoubtedly Jain, which is as distinct in character from the Brahminical as their religion. There is a chasteness and simplicity in this specimen of monotheistic worship, affording a wide contrast to the elaborately sculptured shrines of the Sivas and other polytheists of India. The extreme want of decoration best attests its antiquity, entitling us to attribute it to that period when Sumpriti Raja, of the family of Chandragupta, was paramount sovereign over all these regions (200 years before Christ); to whom tradition ascribes the most ancient monuments of this faith, yet existing in Rajast'han and Saurashtra. The proportions and forms of the columns are especially distinct from the other temples, being slight and tapering instead of massive, the general characteristic of Hindoo architecture;

* J. H. Harrington, *Asiatic Researches*, vol. i. p. 276—278. Of the antiquity or history of this cavern nothing is known. Dr. Francis Buchanan Hamilton, who has given a description of Buddha Gaya in the *Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society*, (vol. ii. p. 40—51,) thinks it probable that part of the ruins may be as ancient as the local tradition would make them, viz. coeval with the age of Buddha; but that the great edifice still existing, though in the last stage of decay, is of far more recent date, and perhaps not older than the tenth century of the Christian era. A Sanscrit inscription found at Gaya has been translated by Sir Charles Wilkins. See *Asiatic Researches*, i. 278—285.

while the projecting cornices, which would absolutely deform shafts less light, are peculiarly indicative of the Takshac architect. Sumpriti was the fourth prince in descent from Chandragupta, of the Jain faith, and the ally of Seleucus, the Grecian sovereign of Bactriana. The fragments of Megasthenes, ambassador from Seleucus, record that this alliance was most intimate; that the daughter of the Rajpoot king was married to Seleucus, who in return for elephants and other gifts, sent a body of Greek soldiers to serve Chandragupta. It is curious to contemplate the possibility, nay the probability, that the Jain temple now before the reader may have been designed by Grecian artists, or that the taste of the artists among the Rajpoots may have been modelled after the Grecian.*

Col. Tod describes another sacred structure in its vicinity, likewise Jain, but of a distinct character; indeed, offering a perfect contrast to that described. It was three stories in height; each tier decorated with numerous massive low columns, resting on a sculptured pannelled parapet, and sustaining the roof of each story, which being very low, admitted but a broken light to chase the pervading gloom. He imagines that the sacred architects of the E. had studied effect equally with the preservers of learning and the arts in the dark period of Europe, when those monuments, which must ever be her pride, arose on the ruins of paganism. How far the Saxon or Scandinavian pagan contributed to the general design of such structures may be doubted; but that their decorations, particularly the grotesque, have a powerful resemblance to the most ancient Hindoo-Scythic, there is no question.

No sect of Hindoos have exhibited so much architectural genius as the Jains. Everywhere, at least so far as our experience extends, where their comparatively pure religion has prevailed, monuments of simple grandeur, or of elaborate elegance, have remained, a testimony of their proficiency in the arts. At Benares, indeed, in the midst of shrines and

* Colonel Tod, *Annals of Rajast'han*, vol. i. p. 670, 671.

temples of remarkable beauty, the sacred building of the Jains has little to distinguish it beyond the diminutive gilt cupola by which the roof is surmounted; but the Brahmins are here so powerful, and their enemies, for such are the Jains, so much at their mercy, that it is more surprising they should possess any place of worship at all, than that it should be destitute of magnificence. Wherever this sect, free from the apprehension of persecution, have deemed it prudent to indulge their natural taste, the case is different. Even in the small obscure town of Mouzabad in Rajpootana, Bishop Heber found their temple richly sculptured, with a beautifully carved dome, and three lofty pyramids of carved stone spring from the roof.* At Calingera, a small village between Neemuch and Baroda, the same traveller observed the most spacious and elegant structure of the kind which he had anywhere seen in India. It was entered by a projecting portico, which led to an open vestibule covered by a dome. Numerous domes and pyramids, surmounting as many small chapels or sanctuaries, adorned the roof, and along its several fronts ran elegantly carved verandahs, supported by slender columns. 'The domes are admirably constructed, and the execution of the whole building greatly superior to what might have been expected in such a situation. Its splendour of architecture, and its present deserted condition, were accounted for by the Thannadar, from the fact that Calingera had been a place of much traffic, and the residence of many rich traders of the Jain sect.†

At the city of Cairah, in Guzerat, there is a Jain temple, which, though distinguished by its striking façade, depressed domes and pyramidal sikharas, is chiefly rendered remarkable by a piece of curious mechanism which it contains. 'Near the centre of the town are a large Jain temple and school, the former consisting of many small apartments up and down stairs, and even under ground, with a good deal of gaudy ornament, and some very beautiful carving in a dark wood like

* Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. ii. p. 429, 430.

† Ditto, ditto, p. 529

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oak. In one of the upper rooms is a piece of mechanism, something like those moving clockwork groups of kings, armies, gods and goddesses, which are occasionally carried about our own country by Italians and Frenchmen, in which sundry divinities dance and salam with a sort of musical accompaniment. These figures are made chiefly of the same black wood which I have described. What they last showed us was a cellar under ground, approached by a very narrow passage, and containing on an altar of the usual construction, the four statues of sitting men, which are the most frequent and peculiar objects of Jain idolatry. They are of white marble, but had (as seems to have been the case with many of the images of ancient Greece) their eyes of silver, which gleamed in a very dismal and ghostly manner in the light of a solitary lamp which was burning before them, aided by a yet dimmer ray which penetrated from above through two narrow apertures, like flues in the vaulting. We were very civilly conducted over the whole of the building by one of the junior priests, the senior pundit of the place remaining, as if absorbed in heavenly things, immoveable and silent during the whole of our stay. While I was in the temple a good many worshippers entered, chiefly women, each of whom, first touching one of the bells which hung from the roof, bent to the ground before one or other of the idols, depositing in some instances flowers of sugar candy before it.*

A splendid Jain temple, on the summit of a mountain, is thus described by Lieutenant Burnes, in one of his interesting papers read before the Calcutta Asiatic Society:—

The mountain of *Abú*, *Abujé*, or *Abúghad*, is situated near the 25th degree of N. lat., in the district of *Sekrúl* and province of *Marwár*, about 40 miles N.E. by E. of the camp of *Désa*. The magnificent temples are erected at the small village of *Dehwarra*, about the centre of the mountain, which has an elevation of about 5,000 feet, where the summit is extremely irregular and studded with peaked hills. There are four in number, all of marble, and two of them of the richest

* Narrative of a Journey, vol. i. p. 386; ii. 430, 526—530; iii. 48, 49.

kind. They are dedicated to *Párasnáth*, or 'the principal of the deified saints, who, according to their creed, have successively become superior gods,' and who are believed to amount to the number of 24, or as some say, to have appeared, like Hindú gods, in 24 different Avatárs. These are the gods of the *Jain*, *Shráwak*, or *Banian* castes, who are a gloomy tribe of atheistical ascetics, not unlike the Buddhists, 'who deny the authority of God, and a future state; believe that, as the trees in an uninhabited forest spring up without cultivation, so the universe is self-existent; and that the world, in short, is produced, as the spider produces his web, out of its own bowels; and that, as the banks of a river fall of themselves, there is no supreme destroyer:—they also deny the divine authority of the *Védas*, and worship the great Hindú gods as minor deities only.'

The building is in the figure of an oblong square, 44 paces long by 22 wide (or perhaps 100 feet by 50); within the building, and in the centre of the area so enclosed, stands the pagoda, in which the great image of the god is placed facing eastwards. In front of this there is an octagon of 24 feet, supporting, on pillars and arches of marble, a cupola of the same. The pillars may be from 12 to 15 feet high. The entrance to the temple is from a small door opposite this cupola, and the grandeur of the building is discoverable at once on entering it, and has a very imposing effect. On all sides of the area there is a colonnade, the long sides having a double row of pillars supporting small domes, within each of which are cells in the walls to the number of 56, in all of which are marble images of the god. In the S.W. corner, and in a chamber detached from the building, is a colossal figure of *Némináth*, in black stone. The whole of the building is of the richest white marble, superbly cut into numerous devices: and it is worthy of remark that there is not an inch of stone unornamented, and not two domes of the same pattern, though 133 in number, and all carved. The grand dome is a most chaste piece of workmanship, and so light do the pillars appear, that it could hardly be imagined

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they could support the superincumbent weight. Adjoining to this building is a room, called '*Háthesál*,' or the elephant hall, which seems once to have also had a roof of domes, and in which are the figures of 10 marble elephants with drivers, each about four feet high, caparisoned in the modern style of those of the native princes, with every rope, tassel, and cloth, beautifully and correctly carved, and apparently (the cars and riders excepted) from one block of marble. The workmanship is exceedingly good, and the representation of the animal is very superior to Indian sculpture in general. The floor of this room is of black marble, while that of the temple is of white. At the door is a large equestrian statue of the founder, who, by an inscription, is described as '*Bimalnáth*, a banian of *Chandouli*, to whom the gods had been propitious.' It is rudely executed, and is evidently the work of later days.

The next temple to be described is the northern one, which is dedicated to *Nemináth*, the 22d deified saint of the *Jains*. It is, with regard to design and material, as the one mentioned, but although of equal length it is 10 paces wider, from which addition the architect has been able to make the colonnade double on all sides without contracting the area too much, and which has a good effect. The pagoda of the god is in the centre, and faces the W. It has also a cupola in front of it, the same as the other in size, though far inferior in execution: but the greatest ornament in this temple, and indeed on *Abú*, is a portico between this cupola and the pagoda. It is supported by pillars, and the roof is formed by nine small domes most exquisitely carved. The stones on both sides the entrance of the temple are deeper cut than any marble Lieut. Burnes ever saw, and approached in resemblance to Hogarth's line of beauty. This part of the building is said to have cost 18 lacs of rupees. The E. side of the building is divided into two compartments, but consists of one long room in which are placed 10 marble elephants, which are more minutely carved than those described, the very twisting of the ropes being represented. In rear of these are the images of the different contributors to the

'Holy undertaking,' rudely cut out in stone, and represented as holding purses full of money ready to be appropriated. There are inscriptions under all these figures, mentioning the names of the different 'pious individuals,' most of whom appear to have been Banians.*

But these provincial temples, compared with those of the capitals of Western India, are no more than so many village churches placed in juxtaposition with Westminster Abbey or St. Paul's. The bigotry of the Patans and Moguls, whom Colonel Tod very properly denominates the Goths and Vandals of Rajast'han, has deprived the lovers of the fine arts in Hindostan of many a beautiful relic of nobler days and noblest arts; but a few exquisite structures have survived their indiscriminating rage, and of these one of the most perfect, as well as one of the most ancient specimens is found in the city of Ajmere. This noble monument of Hindoo architecture stands on the western declivity of the fortress. It is termed by the natives, 'the shed of two and a half days,' for they imagine it to have been the work of magic, and to have been completed within that time. 'The temple is surrounded by a superb screen of Saracenic architecture, having the main front and gateway to the north. From its simplicity, as well as its appearance of antiquity, I am inclined to assign the screen to the first dynasty, the Ghorian sultans, who evidently employed native architects. The entrance arch is of that wavy kind, characteristic of what is termed the Saracenic, whether the term be applied to the Alhambra of Spain, or the Mosques of Delhi; and I am disposed, on close examination, to pronounce it Hindoo. The entire façade of this noble entrance is covered with Arabic inscriptions. But unless my eyes much deceived me, the small frieze over the apex of the arch contained an inscription in Sanscrit, with which Arabic has been commingled, both being unintelligible. The remains of a minaret still maintain their position on the right flank of the *muexin* to call the faithful to prayers. The design is chaste and beautiful, and the material, which is a compact limestone of a yellow colour, admitting almost of as high a

* See Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

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polish as the *jaune antique*, gave abundant scope to the sculptor. After confessing and admiring the taste of the Vandal architect, we passed under the arch to examine the more noble production of the Hindoo. Its plan is simple, and consonant with the more ancient temples of the Jains. It is an extensive saloon, the ceiling supported by a quadruple range of columns, those of the centre being surmounted by a range of vaulted coverings; while the lateral portion, which is flat, is divided into compartments of the most elaborate sculpture. But the columns are most worthy of attention; they are unique in design, and with the exception of the cave-temples, probably among the oldest now existing in India. On examining them, ideas entirely novel, even in Hindoo art, are developed. Like all these portions of Hindoo architecture, their ornaments are very complex, and the observer will not fail to be struck with their dissimilarity: it was evidently a rule in the art to make the ornaments of every part unlike the other, and which I have seen carried to a great extent. There may be forty columns, but not two alike. The ornaments of the base are peculiar, both as to form and execution; the lozenges, with the rich tracery surmounting them, might be transferred, not inappropriately to the Gothic cathedrals of Europe. The projections from various parts of the shaft, (which, on a small scale, may be compared to the corresponding projections of the columns in the *duomo* at Milan,) with the small niches still containing the statues, though occasionally mutilated, of the pontiffs of the Jains, give them a character which strengthens the comparison, and which would be yet more apparent, if we could afford to engrave the details. The elegant Camacumpa, the emblem of the Hindoo Ceres, with its pendant palmyra-branches, is here lost, as are many emblematical ornaments, curious in design, and elegant in their execution. Here and there occurs a richly carved corbeille, which still farther sustains the analogy between the two systems of architecture; and the capitals are at once strong and delicate; the central vault, which is the largest, is constructed after the same fashion as that described at Nadole; but the concentric annulets which in that are plain, in this are one

blaze of ornaments, which, with the whole of the ceiling, is too elaborate and complicated for description. Under the most retired of the compartments, and nearly about the centre, is raised the mumba, or pulpit, whence the Moollah enunciates the dogma, of Mohammed, 'There is but one God:' and from which he dispossessed the Jain, whose creed was like his own, the unity of the Godhead. But this is in unison with the feeling which dictated the external metamorphosis.*

These details mark sufficiently the high degree of civilization that existed at a former period in India; under the Mahomedan dynasties we have attested the advanced state of the architectural art in the beautiful Taje Mehal, composed entirely of white marble, inlaid with precious stones,—the splendid Jumna Musjeed at Delhi, the elegant Cuttub Minar pillar,† the palace of Shah Jehan, and the Mausoleum of Aabar; while in the South we have the magnificent Hindoo temples of Tanjore, Madura, &c.

FINE ARTS.—*Sculpture*.—The art of sculpture appears at a very early period to have occupied the Hindoos. In their choice of subjects they were necessarily much influenced by the nature of their religious opinions, but there are numerous exceptions; and among these must be reckoned various specimens of ancient sculpture still found in the dilapidated city of Mahâmalapur, situate near the sea, at a distance of about 35 English miles S. of Madras. 'The rock, or hill of stone, is that which first engrosses the attention on approaching the place, for as it rises abruptly out of a level plain of great extent, consists chiefly of one single stone, and is situated very near to the sea-beach, it is such a kind of object as an inquisitive traveller would turn aside to examine. Its shape is also

* Annals of Rajast'han, vol. i. p. 779, 780.

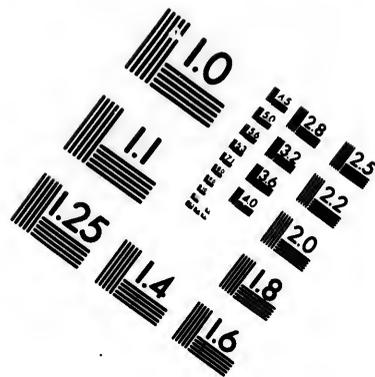
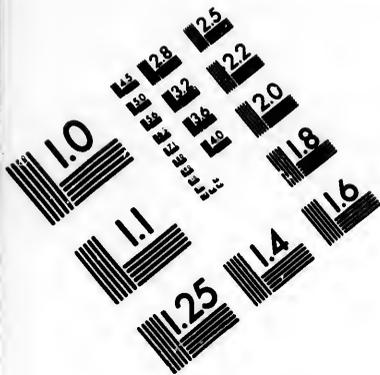
† In 1794 the Cuttub Minar (built 300 years ago) was described as having for its base a polygon of 27 sides, rising in a circular form, the exterior fluted into 27 semi-circular and angular divisions: there were four balconies at successive elevations of 90, 140, 180, and 203 feet; the total height being 242; an irregular spiral staircase led from the bottom to the summit of the Minar, which was crowned with a majestic cupola of red granite, which has since fallen in.

singular and romantic, and, from a distant view, has an appearance like some antique and lofty edifice. On coming near to the foot of the rock, on the N., works of imagery and sculpture crowd so thick upon the eye as might seem to favour the idea of a petrified city, like those that have been fabled in different parts of the world by too credulous travellers.* On the smooth faces of the rock are sculptured, some in basso, others in alto, relievo, numerous figures of gods and heroes, some indistinct, and defaced by the action of the sea air, others fresh, as if newly executed. As far as can be collected from the accounts of travellers, who have bestowed far too little attention on the subject, the ancient sculptors, who adorned this remarkable city with their labours, were men of undoubted genius, capable, by their productions, of conferring pleasure, not only on their comparatively rude contemporaries, but even on men of refined judgment and taste in the present critical age. Bishop Heber bears a very favourable testimony to the degree of skill displayed in the sculptures of Mahâmalaipur; he observes that the 'rocks, which in themselves are pretty and picturesque, are carved out into porticoes, temples, bas-reliefs, &c. on a much smaller scale indeed than Elephanta or Kenneri, *but some of them very beautifully executed.*' They differ from those of the N. and W. of India (which are almost all dedicated to Siva or Cali) in being in honour of Vishnu, whose different avatars are repeated over and over in the various temples, while he only saw the solitary lingam, if it be one, and one unfinished cave, which struck him as intended for a temple of the 'destroying power.' Many of the bas-reliefs are of great spirit and beauty; there is one of an elephant with two young ones, strikingly executed, and the general merit of the work is superior to that of Elephanta, though the size is extremely inferior.†

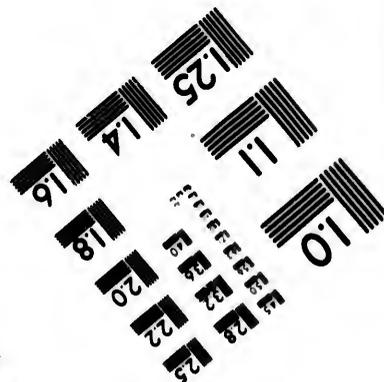
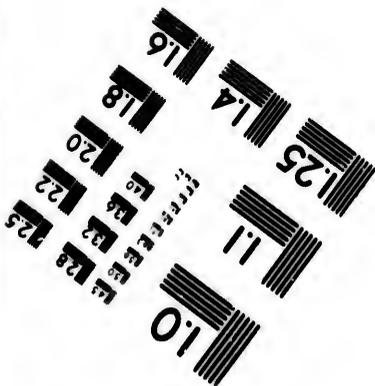
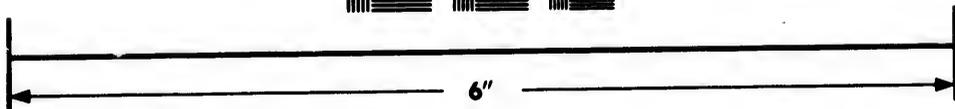
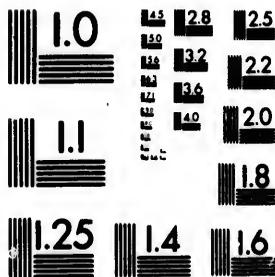
* Asiatic Researches, vol. i. p. 147.

† Narrative of a Journey, &c. vol. iii. p. 217. Mr. Goldingham, a competent judge, agrees with Bishop Heber in considering the execution of the lions as very inferior, as well as in bestowing considerable praise on





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The bas-reliefs on the walls of Malicarji's pagoda at Perwuttum, may be considered in many respects as some of the most extraordinary specimens of art in all India. 'The first and lowest row of these stones,' says Captain Mackenzie, 'is covered with figures of elephants, harnessed in different ways, as if led in procession, many of them twisting up trees with their trunks. The second row is chiefly occupied with equestrian subjects; horses led ready saddled, and their manes ornamented; others tied up to pillars, some loose; a great many horsemen are represented engaged in fight, at full gallop, and armed with pikes, swords and shields; others are seen hunting the tiger, and running it through with long spears. The riders are represented very small in proportion to the horses, probably to distinguish the size of the latter, as a smaller cast seems intended to be represented among the led horses, where a few are seen lower in size, something resembling the Acheen breed of horses. All these figures are very accurately designed. It is remarkable, that several figures are represented galloping off as in flight, and at the same time drawing the bow at full stretch: these Parthian figures seem to have entirely dropped the bridle, both hands being occupied by the bow; some of them are seen advancing at full speed, and drawing the bow at the same time. This mode appears to have been practised by the Indians, as it is highly probable that the arts of common life only are here represented, in the lower row. On the third row a variety of figures are represented, many of them hunting pieces; tigers, and in one place a lion, attacked by several persons; crowds of people appear on foot, many armed with bows and arrows, like the Chinsuars; many figures of Virâgis, or Yogis, are seen distinguished by large turbans, carrying their sticks, pots, and bundles, as if coming from a journey: some leaning

the style in which the bas-reliefs are sculptured. Even in the representation of female beauty, the artists of Mahâmalaipur had attained a high degree of skill. 'The figure and action of the goddess (Bhavani) are executed,' says Mr. Goldingham, 'in a masterly and spirited style.' Asiatic Researches, vol. v. p. 71.

on a stick as if tired, or decrepit from age; others approaching with a mien of respect and adoration. The fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh rows are filled (as it would appear from the scanty information I was able to obtain) with representations of several events regarding the deities of the place, or expressive allegories of the moral and religious dogmas of the Brahmins; and probably some may record particular events of real history. The eighth has fewer carvings than the rest; some stones are occupied by a single flower, of large size, perhaps intended for the lotos; and some, though but a few, by the figure of a god. The ninth, or upper row, is cut into openings, in the manner of battlements; and the stones between each of these apertures are alternately sculptured with the figures of the lingam, and a cow shaded by an umbrella, to signify its preeminence.* Mr. Hunter saw at Oojein the images of Râma, Lacsâmana, Sîta, and Râdha, in white marble, and the statue of Krishna, in black, which were all executed with ability.

Painting appears to have been less assiduously cultivated in India than sculpture, at least so far as there are the specimens extant. Forbes, an enlightened lover of the arts, and himself a painter, having bestowed high praise on the architecture of the principal temple at Chandode, observes that 'the interior of the dome is forty feet in diameter, the concave painted by artists from Ahmedabad, on subjects in the Hindoo mythology. They are done in distemper, which is very durable in that climate; but the drawing is bad, and the style altogether hard, incorrect, and deficient in the effect of light and shade: a light and dark shade seem indeed to be all they are acquainted with. The modern artists have no idea of middle tints, or the harmony of colouring. The outline, though greatly inferior in proportion and line of beauty, bears some resemblance to the ancient Greek and Etruscan vases.†

* Account of the pagoda at Perwuttum, A. R. vol. v. p. 311, 312. See also, in vol. vi. p. 433, the same writer's remarks on the images found in Ceylon. Journey from Agra to Oojein, A. R. vol. vi. p. 40.

† Oriental Memoirs, vol. iii. p. 16.

Portrait painting seems to have been long fashionable in Hindoostan. I have seen in the houses of wealthy Hindoos well executed portraits in oil, and some on glass: Colonel Tod, relating the history of Sanga Rana, observes, 'I possess his portrait, given to me by the present Rana, who has a collection of full-lengths of all his royal ancestors, from Samarsi to himself, of their exact heights, and with every bodily peculiarity, whether of complexion or form. They are valuable for the costume.'

The Hindoos, like the Chinese, copy with great exactness, even from nature; but their portraits, both of individuals and of groups, are peculiarly devoid of grace and expression—they want the touch of genius. I do not, however agree with Mr. Mill, that they are 'entirely without a knowledge of perspective; and by consequence of all those finer and nobler parts of the art of painting which have perspective for their requisite basis.'

Speaking of the interior of the palace of Jeypoor, Bishop Heber remarks, that the 'ceilings are generally low, and the rooms dark and close; both the walls and ceilings are, however, splendidly carved and painted, and some of the former are entirely composed of small looking-glasses, in fantastic frames of chunam mixed with talc, which have the appearance of silver, till closely examined. The subjects of the paintings are almost entirely mythological; and their stile of colouring, their attitudes, and the general gloomy silence and intricacy of the place, reminded me frequently of Belzoni's model of the Egyptian tomb.†

The *music* of the Hindoos is certainly not in accordance with our ideas of harmony. Though the Hindoos appear to be as much affected by it as a connoisseur at the Italian Opera. Sir William Ouseley amuses his readers with a few of the marvellous stories related by the Hindoos of the effects of their ancient music, and of the decline of taste among themselves. 'On the subject of those ancient and extraordinary melodies,'

* History of British India, vol. ii. p. 35, 36.

† Narrative, vol. ii. p. 404.

says he, ' which the Hindoos call *râgs* and *râginis*, the popular traditions are so numerous and romantic as the powers ascribed to them are miraculous. Of the six raugs, the first five owe their origin to the god Mahâdeva (Siva,) who produced them from his five heads. Parvati, his wife, constructed the sixth; and the thirty *râginis* were composed by Brahma. Thus, of celestial invention, these melodies are of a peculiar genus; and, of the three ancient genera of the Greeks, resemble most the *enharmonic*; the more modern compositions are of that species termed *diatonic*.

' A considerable difficulty is found in setting to music the *râgs* and *râginis*, as our system does not supply notes or signs sufficiently expressive of the almost imperceptible elevations and depressions of the voice in these melodies, of which the time is broken and irregular, the modulations frequent, and very wild. Whatever magic was in the touch when Orpheus swept his lyre, or Timotheus filled his softly-breathing flute, the effects said to have been produced by two of the six *râgs* are even more extraordinary than any of those ascribed to the modes of the ancients. Mir Tansine, a wonderful musician in the time of the emperor Acbar, sung one of the night *râgs* at mid-day: the powers of his music were such that it instantly became night; and the darkness extended in a circle round the palace as far as the sound of his voice could be heard. I shall say little on the tradition of Naik Gopâl, another celebrated musician in the reign of Acbar, who was commanded by the emperor to sing the *râg dipaka*; which, whoever attempted to sing, should be destroyed by fire. The story is long: Naik Gopâl flew to the river Jumna, and plunged himself up to the neck in water, where Acbar determined to prove the power of this *râg*, compelled the unfortunate musician to sing it, when, notwithstanding his situation in the river, flames burst violently from his body, and consumed him to ashes.

' These, and other anecdotes of the same nature, are related by many of the Hindoos, and implicitly believed by some. The effect produced by the *maig multar râg*, was immediate rain: and it is told, that a singing girl once, by ex-

erting the powers of her voice in this rāg, drew down from the clouds timely and refreshing showers on the parched rice-crops of Bengal, and thereby averted the horrors of famine from the *paradise of regions*. An European in that country, inquiring after those whose musical performance might produce similar effects, was answered, 'that the art is now almost lost; but that there are still musicians possessed of those wonderful powers in the W. of India.' If one inquires in the W. they say, 'that if any such performers remain, they are to be found only in Bengal.'

'Of the present music, and the sensations it excites, one can speak with greater accuracy. Many of the Hindoo melodies possess the plaintive simplicity of the Scotch and Irish, and others a wild originality, pleasing beyond description.* Counterpoint seems not to have entered, at any time, into the system of Indian music. It is not alluded to in the manuscript treatises which I have hitherto perused; nor have I discovered that any of our ingenious orientalisks speak of it as being known in Hindoostan.'

In Mr. Wilson's translation of a Sanscrit play entitled *Mrichchhacati*, or 'The Toy-cart,' and supposed to have been written about a century before our era, we find the following beautiful lines on the *vīna*, or Hindoo lute:—

" Although not ocean born,† the tuneful vīna
Is most assuredly a gem of heaven—
Like a dear friend it cheers the lonely heart,
And lends new lustre to the social meeting.
It lulls the pain that absent lovers feel,
And adds fresh impulse to the glow of passion."

DOMESTIC ARTS.—Compared with England, the Hindoos have effected few improvements in the instruments of social economy. A Bengal plough is the most simple instrument

* The Hindoos take delight in the favourite Persian air of—' *Tazzi putaza—I ben Oh.*'

† An allusion to the legend of the churning of the ocean by the gods and demons, at which various personages and precious articles, called *ratnas*, or "gems," variously enumerated, were recovered from the deep.

imaginable: it consists of a crooked piece of wood, sharpened at one end, and covered with a plate of iron, which forms the ploughshare. A wooden handle, about two feet long, is fixed to the other end cross-ways; and in the midst is a long straight piece of wood, or bamboo, called *isha*, which goes between the bullocks, and falls on the middle of the yoke, to which it hangs by means of a peg, and is tied by a string. The yoke is a neat instrument, and lies over the neck of two bullocks, just before the hump, and has two pegs descending on the side of each bullock's neck, by means of which it is tied with a cord under the throat. There is only one man or boy to each plough, who with one hand holds the plough, and with the other guides the animals, by pulling them this or that way by the tail, and driving them forward with a stick.

The separating of the grain from the chaff is performed by two or more bullocks fastened together, side by side, and driven round upon a quantity of sheaves spread on the ground, by which means about 30 *maunds** will be trodden out in three hours. The Bengal farmers generally 'muzzle the ox in treading out the corn,' until the upper sheaves have been reduced to mere straw. The rice is then cleared from the husk by large handfans, one person letting the grain fall from his hands, while another winnows it. It is next deposited in granaries, or sent to the corn-merchant. The straw is piled up in stacks for the cattle, the use of hay being unknown. The scythe has not hitherto been introduced into Bengal, where even grass is cut with the sickle. The grinding mills are generally the common hand stones, turned chiefly by women, but the following is an account of a simple mill used in the mountain streams in the N. Doab: it consists of a horizontal water-

See Wilson's Select Specimens of the Theatre of the Hindoos, vol. i. p. 59, 60, (2d edit. London, 1835, 8vo.)

* The *maund* is equal to 74 pounds and two-thirds in Bengal; 37 pounds and a half at Surat; 28 pounds at Anjengo; and 25 at Madras. Rousseau's Persian Dictionary, *s. v.* Ward makes it 80 pounds, and observes that 320 pounds of rice in the husk are sometimes sold for a rupee! Vol. i. p. 106.

wheel, with floats placed obliquely so as to receive a stream of water from a shorter funnel, the flat board being fixed in a vertical axle passing through the lower mill-stone, and held to the upper one by a short iron bar at right angles, causing it to revolve with the water-wheel; the axle itself having a pivot working on a piece of the hardest stone that can be procured at hand,—this, with a thatched roof, and the expense or trouble of digging a cut so as to take advantage of a fall of water, is all that is required.

In the N.W. and dry provinces of India, a simple but effective mode of irrigation is adopted. 'In Rajpootana,' says Col. Tod, 'from the margin of the stream on each side to the mountain's base, they have constructed a series of terraces rising over each other, whence by simple and ingenious methods they raise the waters to irrigate the rich crops of sugar-cane, cotton, and rice, which they cultivate upon them. Wherever soil could be found, or time decomposed these primitive rocks, a barrier was raised. When discovered, should it be in a hollow below, or on the summit of a crag, it is alike greedily seized on: even there water is found, and if you leave the path below and ascend a 100 feet above the terraces, you will discover pools or reservoirs dammed in with massive trees, which serve to irrigate such insulated spots, or as nurseries to the young rice plants. A patch of ground, for which the cultivator pays six rupees rent, will produce sugar-cane 600 rupees in value.*

Among Hindoo implements of husbandry is an excellent instrument in the form of a hoe, with a handle about two feet and a half long, and the iron as wide and as strong as a spade, called a *kuddala*, which answers the purpose of a spade and hoe.

The Indian loom, though much more simple and imperfect, is in substance the same as the English. The frame is laid almost on the ground, in which a hole is cut to receive the

* It is not true, as some writers suppose, that the Hindoos never manure their lands: in Canara leaves are strewed over the fields and ploughed up; in Nagpoor (where the mode of ploughing answers Dr. Tennant's description,) they use manure to a great amount, particularly in the cultivation of

feet of the weaver while at work. Women of all castes are engaged in the preparation of the cotton-thread. The finest muslins are manufactured at Dacca, Shantipoor, Sonarga, and Vicrampoor, where the price of a single piece, which occupies the weaver four months, sometimes amounts to 400 or 500 rupees. When this muslin is laid on the grass, and the dew has fallen upon it, it is no longer discernible. Tavernier relates that the ambassador of Shah Sefi, on his return from India, presented his master with a cocoa-nut, set with jewels, containing a muslin turban, 60 covits, or 30 English yards, in length, so exquisitely fine that it could scarcely be felt by the touch; indeed, the manufacture of no modern nation can, in delicacy and fineness, vie with the textures of Hindoostan.

The common kinds are also preferred, on the score of enduring great hardships, and retaining their whiteness better; and in respect to the coloured or prohibited goods, for the foreign markets, they will always retain their superiority. In the article of Guinea stuffs manufactured at Surat, and in request on the coast of Africa, many attempts have been made to imitate them, particularly by the French, but in vain. The Moors discover merely by the touch whether they have been manufactured in Europe or India; nor is it even to their feel and colour that they chiefly trust; they ascertain by their smell, as the indigo with which they are dyed gives them a peculiar smell which cannot be imitated.*

'The cotton manufactures of India seem anciently to have been as much admired as they are at present, not only for their delicate texture, but for the elegance with which some of them are embroidered, and the beautiful colour of the flowers with which others are adorned. From the earliest period of European intercourse with India, that country has been distinguished for the number and excellence of the sub-

sugar, the betel leaf, and tobacco. For this purpose the dung of sheep and other animals is used. In the culture of cotton the ground is manured with wood-ashes. Rept. 1830, p. 147, 211, 322.

* Oriental Commerce, p. 297.

stances for dyeing various colours, with which it abounded.* The dye of the deep blue colour, in highest estimation among the Romans, bore the name of *Indicum*.† From India, too, the substance used in dyeing a bright red colour seems to have been imported; and it is well known that both in the cotton and silk stuffs which we now receive from India, the blue and the red are the colours of most conspicuous lustre and beauty.‡

The tradesmen of India are numerous. Among the inferior classes, the *Napitas*, or 'barbers,' claim a distinguished place, as, like their ancient brethren of Europe, they unite a certain knowledge of pharmacy with the art and mystery of shaving. No Hindoo, even of the poorest class, ever shaves himself, or cuts his own nails; and there are numbers who disdain even to clean their own ears, which operation falls to the lot of the barbers, who may be seen in the streets, seeking employment, with an instrument like a skewer, covered at one end with cotton, in their hands. The rich are usually shaved daily, the middling ranks once a week, the poor once in a fortnight. The operation is generally performed in the street, or under a tree, and the operator receives for his pains, from the poor a farthing, and from the rich double that sum. The wives of the barbers, who in France both shave and cut hair, are condemned in India to operate on their own sex only, for whom they cut the nails of both fingers and toes, and stain the feet and hands with *henna*.

The *confectioners* of India, who are in great request, make and vend nearly a hundred sorts of sweetmeats, principally composed of sugar, molasses, flour, and spices, no fruit, excepting the cocoa-nut, being ever used in these delicacies, which are in great request among the Hindoos. It is very interesting to drive along the Chitpore road at Calcutta on an evening, and examine the confectioners shops, piled with every variety of cakes and sweetmeats, while smoking fires at

* Strabo, lib. xv. c. 1, p. 694, ed. Casaub.

† Plin. Nat. Hist. lib. xxxv. c. 6, § 27.

‡ Robertson, Dissertation, &c. App. § 4.

the very edge of the bazaar or shops, send forth a savoury odour of refreshing delicacies.

The *potters* caste are numerous and varied; for besides manufacturing earthenware of different kinds, they plaster houses with clay, make bricks, tiles, spouts, balustrades, together with those little images, which, having been worshipped during certain days, are cast into the pools or rivers. Toys, also, as birds, horses, gods, coaches, and elephants, which are painted and gilt, are the work of the potter.

Blacksmiths are numerous; they make arrows, bill-hooks, the *kuddala*, or spade-hoe, the axe, the farmer's weeding knife, the ploughshare, the sickle, the hook to lift up the corn while the oxen are treading it out: besides nails, locks, keys, knives, chains, scissors, razors, cooking utensils, builder's and joiner's tools, instruments of war, &c.

Flower-sellers are found in great numbers in Hindoostan. It is a part of their business to make wedding crowns, together with the lamps and artificial flowers which are carried in marriage processions. They likewise work in gardens, and manufacture gunpowder and fire-works. Hindoo *joiners* were formerly a very rude and ignorant race, possessing no knowledge of the rule, compass or gimlet, or, indeed, of more than ten of those implements which compose a joiner's chest of tools; but they are now richer in tools, and more skilful in the use of them. They make idols, bedsteads, window-frames, doors, boxes, seats, pillars for houses, delineate the figures of idols* on boards, paint images, and sometimes engage in masonry.

The *Rajakas*, or "washermen," are a numerous caste. They were ignorant until recently, of the use of soap, and to this day make use of a wash composed chiefly of the ashes of the plantain, or of the *argemone mexicana*. The linen having been steeped in the wash, and boiled, is dipped repeatedly in water, and then beaten with a heavy mallet on

* The heraldry of Europe has evidently derived its origin from the East; and it was intimately associated with religion and superstition. Maurice observes, that by the same hardy race—the descendants of the Tartar

a board, which is generally placed by the side of a pool or river. And this method, though somewhat adverse to the duration of linen, renders it much whiter than our own.

The *Suvarnakdras*, or 'goldsmiths,' display no small ingenuity in Bengal. Bishop Heber, says 'the goldsmiths of Kutch and Kattywâr emboss very neatly, by filling the cup, watch-case, box, or other vessel, with gum-lac, and punching it in, to the figure required, with a small chisel. Major Sale shewed me a watch-case and a small tankard, very prettily ornamented in this manner, with flowers, elephants, and different birds and animals.' As ornaments of gold and silver are much worn by the Hindoos of both sexes, whether young or old, this is a flourishing caste. Distillers, though they employ a rude apparatus, produce excellent arrack, and the Nagas and other tribes brew good beer.

Few castes of Hindoos are more despised than the *Shoemakers*, principally because they work up the skin of the cow, and may thus be suspected of indirectly encouraging the slaughter of that sacred animal. However, though despised and not allowed to get drunk, they are excellent workmen, and will make a pair of shoes for four-pence; but for a good pair, which will last two years, they demand eighteen-pence. In the upper parts of India they make several kinds of gilt and ornamented shoes, like those worn by the Grecian ladies, which sell in Bengal for from three to forty rupees. These merry sons of Crispin are likewise employed as musicians at weddings, feasts, and religious ceremonies; which,

tribes, which tenanted the north of Asia—were introduced into Europe armorial bearings, which were originally nothing more than hieroglyphical symbols, mostly of a religious allusion, that distinguished the banners of the potentates of Asia. The eagle belongs to the ensign of Vishna, the bull to that of Siva, and the falcon to that of Rama. The sun rising behind a recumbent lion blazed on the ancient ensign of the Tartar, and the eagle of the sun on that of the Persians. The Humza, a famous goose, one of the incarnations of Boodha, is yet the chief emblem of Burman banners. The Russians, no doubt, had their standard from the eastern nations; it is the type of Garuda. The Islamites took the crescent, a fit emblem either of a rising or declining empire, and of their primeval worship.

in the opinion of Ward, accounts in a great measure for the horrid din which on these occasions stuns the ear of an European.* The Hindoo *Druggists* are a respectable class of people. The *Brass-founders* are numerous and skilful.

Shell-ornament-makers abound in Calcutta, where the women sometimes wear six or eight rings of shells on each wrist. In some parts of the country all the lower part of the arm is covered with them. These trinkets, like the gold and silver ornaments possessed by the peasants of France, sometimes become a kind of heir-loom in the family, and descend from mother to daughter to the third or fourth generation.† In different parts of India gunpowder is manufactured—cannon (both brass and iron) cast, and various warlike weapons, as also coats of mail of exquisite workmanship prepared; paper, whether for writing, printing, or wrapping is made in large quantities, and the introduction of a steam paper mill at Serampore has introduced an improved material into the market; the indigo made by natives is equal to any of the European factories—and in delicateness and brilliancy of dyes they quite excel us; the Hindoo surgeons, although not equally daring as the Europeans in the large operations of amputations, &c. are quite as skilful in couching for the cataract, or cutting for the stone,—and whether handicraft requires patient endurance, firmness of touch, and keenness of sight, they are not behind their Western brethren. ‘To say,’ says Bishop Heber, ‘that the Hindoos or Musulmans are deficient in any essential feature of a civilized people, is an assertion which I can scarcely suppose to be made by any who have lived with them. Their manners are at least as pleasing and courteous as those of the corresponding stations of life among ourselves; their houses are larger, and, according to their wants and climate, to the full as convenient as ours; their architecture is at least as elegant. *Nor is it true that in the mechanic arts they are inferior to the general run*

* See Mr. Knight’s Account of the Hindoos, vol. i. p. 193.

† Ward, View, &c. vol. i. p. 98—142.

of European nations. Where they fall short of us (which is chiefly in agricultural implements and the mechanics of common life), they are not, so far as I have understood of Italy and the South of France, surpassed in any great degree by the people of those countries. Their goldsmiths and weavers produce as beautiful fabrics as our own, and it is so far from true that they are obstinately wedded to their own patterns, that they show an anxiety to imitate our models, and do imitate them very successfully. The ships built by native artists at Bombay are notoriously as good as any which sail from London or Liverpool. The carriages and gigs which they supply at Calcutta are as handsome, though not as durable, as those of Long Acre. In the little town of Monghir, 300 miles from Calcutta, I had pistols, double-barrelled guns, and different pieces of cabinet-work brought down to my boat for sale, which in outward form (for I know no further) nobody could detect to be of Hindoo origin.'

In closing this chapter, I trust sufficient facts have been adduced to prove the claims which our Hindoo fellow-subjects have on their brethren in England; I have quoted the testimony of others, in preference to recording my own observations, in order to avoid the recurrence of the charge that has been made of my being prejudiced in favour of the Hindoos, and of our colonists in general; I know of no individual who has ever resided long in India, or attentively examined the Hindoos, without speaking warmly in their favour,—I found them, whether Hindoos, Mussulmans, or Parsees, grateful for even slight attentions, courteous in their manners, hospitable without ostentation, punctual in their duties, and brave without boasting,—in charity abounding, strict in religious rites, and scrupulously exact in the performance of social obligations; of an intelligence quick and refined, docile under instruction, and expanding in comprehension. That England may treat them with justice, and no longer impoverish their beautiful and fertile land by a grasping, mercenary commercial system which beggars the Hindoo without enriching Britain, is my fervent and anxious wish.

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BENGAL—Weights.—5 siccās—1 chittuck—16 = 1 seer—40 = 1 maund.

Two maunds in use; the factory maund, 74 lbs. 10 oz. 10.666 drs. avoirdupois; the bazar maund, 82 lbs. 2 oz. 2.133 drs.

Liquid Measure.—5 siccās—1 chittuck, 4 = 1 pouah or pice, 4 = 1 seer, 40 = 1 maund; or 5 seers = 1 pussaree or measure, 8 measures = 1 maund.

Grain Measure.—4 khaouks = 1 raik,* 4 = 1 paille, 20 = 1 soalie, 16 = 1 kahoon.†

Long Measure.—3 jows‡ = 1 finger, 4 = 1 hand, 3 = 1 span, 2 = 1 cubit, 4 = 1 fathom, 1000 = 1 coss.||

Square Measure.—5 cubits or hauts = 1 chittuck,§ 16 = 1 cottah, 20 = 1 biggah,¶ 3½ = 1 English acre.

Gold and Silver.—4 punkhos = 1 dhan,** 4 = 1 ruttie, 6½ = 1 anna, 16 = 1 tolah, = 224.588 grs. troy; or 8 rutties = 1 massa, 13.28 = 1 mohur.

MADRAS—Commercial.—Candy = 20 maunds. The candy of Madras 500 lbs. avoirdupois. The maund divided into 8 vis, 320 pollams or 3200 pagodas, (the vis being divided into 5 seers,) each pagoda weighing 2 oz. 3 grs. The Commercial Dictionary, from which this statement is taken, observes: the garce = 20 baruays or candies—the baruay = 20 maunds—the maund = 8 visay or vis, 320 pollams or 3200 varahuns, the varahun weighing 52½ English grains; therefore, the vis is 3 lbs. 3 oz.; the maund, 24 lbs. 2 oz.; the baruay, 482 lbs.; and the garce, 9645 lbs. avoirdupois, or nearly 4 tons, 6 cwt.

Measures of Capacity.—The garce corn measure contains—80 parabs = 400 marcals,—the marcal = 8 puddies = 64 ollucks. The marcal = 750 cubic inches = 27 lbs. 2 oz. 2 drs. avo'r. of fresh spring water; hence 43 marcals = 15 Winchester bushels, and the garce nearly 17½ English quarters. Grain, when sold by weight, 9256½ lbs. = 1 garee = 18 candies = 12½ maunds.

BOMBAY—Commercial.—1 tank = 2.488 drs., 72 = 1 seer, 40 = 1 maund = 28 lbs. avoirdupois.

Grain.—2 tipprees = 1 seer, 4 = 1 paille, 7 = 1 parah, 8 = 1 candy = 156 lbs. 12 oz. 13 drs.

Salt.—10½ adowlies = 1 parah, 100 = 1 anna, 16 = 1 rash = 2,572,176 cubic inches.††

Pearl Weight.—1 tucka = 0.208 gr., 13½ = 1 ruttee,—24 = 1 tank = 72 grains.

Gold and Silver—1 wall, 4.475 grs., 40 = 1 tolah = 179 grains.

Long Measure.—16 tussoos = 1 hath = 18 English inches; 24 tussoos = 1 guz = 27 English inches.

Liquor Measure.—The seer weighs 60 Bombay rupees = 1 lb. 8 oz. and 8½ drs., and 50 seers = 1 maund.

* Or 9 lbs. avoirdupois.

† 1 kahoon = 40 B. maunds.

‡ Or barley corns.

|| 1 coss = 1 mile, 1 furlong, 3 poles and 3½ yds.

§ 45 English square feet.

** A grain.

†† 40 tons; the anna weighs 2½ tons.

Civil and Military Administration and Charges of British India, exclusive of Home Establishments, or of Penang, Malacca, Singapore, &c.

Presidency.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Number of Persons Employed.										Charges exclusive of Debt.					Total Revenue (at the new rate of Exchange, &c. the Rupee.)	Total Charges (at the old rate of Exchange.)	Interest on Debts of India, 30th April, 1853.			
			Civil.					Military.					Civil.								Grand Total Civil Charges, enumerated and not enumerated.	Military.	Marine.
			Governors & Members of Council.	Members of Boards of Revenue, &c.	Secretaries to Government.	Diplomatic Agents.	Total Europeans (Civil and Uncovered).	European.	Native.	Marine.	Governors & Members of Council.	Members of Revenue Boards, &c.	Secretariats.	Diplomatic Agencies.	Secretariats.	Diplomatic Agencies.							
Bengal.	317,112	60,000,000	6	4	7	29	579	16,066	96,654	{ 136 E. 340 N.	62,315	101,433	87,786	179,593	4,544,559	4,433,793	136,448	9,445,790	11,844,909	1,782,569			
Aggra ..	86,900	20,000,000	1	{ 20 E. 265 N.	12,000	12,000			
Madras.	141,923	15,000,000	4	2	4	4	361	12,832	57,531	{ 20 E. 265 N. 618 N.	40,725	39,679	39,469	39,855	9,051,710	3,179,924	23,411	8,264,075	4,702,927	291,552			
Bombay	64,938	7,000,000	4	..	3	4	215	7,728	32,508	{ 543 E. 618 N.	38,225	..	27,938	47,715	1,669,422	1,714,998	199,324	3,673,841	2,292,605	32,494			
Total.	612,973	102,000,000	15	6	14	37	1,085	36,626	166,693	1,991	152,265	131,439	153,186	249,101	9,507,691	9,326,611	350,213	18,275,715	18,839,432	2,007,614			

N. B.—The charges occasioned by the new Charter, and the yet unascertained establishment of the new Presidency at Aggra, leaves this Table incomplete. By the new Charter the salary of the Governor-General is Sixca Rupees 240,000, and that of each of the four Ordinary Members of Council, S. R. 96,000, that of the Governor of each Presidency, S. R. 120,000, and that of each Member of their Council, S. R. 60,000. The salary of the Bishop of Calcutta is S. R. 50,000, and of each Bishop of Madras and Bombay, S. R. 34,000.

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CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT (ENGLISH AND INDIAN) OF BENGAL, AGRA, MADRAS, AND BOMBAY; JUDICIAL, POLICE, MILITARY, MARINE, MEDICAL AND ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS, PATRONAGE OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY, &c.

THE Government of the British possessions on the continent of Asia, is vested at home in two powers with co-ordinate authority,—viz. the E. I. Company, and a Ministerial Board, termed His Majesty's Commissioners for the affairs of India, the latter being devised by Mr. Pitt as a check upon the political proceedings of the former. A few words will be requisite to explain this complex authority.

THE COURT OF DIRECTORS.—The more immediate governing power of British India, and consequently the patronage attached thereto, is vested in the Court of Directors, or executive body of the E. I. Company. The capital stock of this Company is 6,000,000*l.* sterling, which is divided, according to a recent calculation, among 3,579 proprietors, of whom 53 have four votes;* 54—three; 347—two; 1,454—one; and 221 hold only 500*l.* stock, and are not qualified to vote but merely to debate on any question; 396 proprietors hold stock under 500*l.* and are not qualified to vote or speak, and 220 have not held their stock a sufficient time to enable them to vote. The stock must be bonâ fide in the proprietor's possession for 12 months, to enable him or her to vote; a regulation adopted to prevent collusive transfers of stock for particular occasions. The total number of *voters* is estimated at 2,000, and of the *votes* about 1,500 are compromised within four miles of the General Post Office. Women as well as men; foreigners as well as Englishmen, if holding stock sufficient, are empowered

* A proprietor of not less than £1000 has one vote; of £3000 two; of £6000 three; and of £10,000 and upwards, no more than four votes.

to vote and debate. A late classification of the votes gave of gentry, bankers, merchants, traders, shipowners, shopkeepers, &c. 1,836; of women (married, widows, and spinsters), 43; of officers in the King's and E. I. Company's Army, 222; of the clergy, 86; of officers in the Royal Navy, 28; of medical men, 19; of the nobility, 20.* The proprietors meet as a Court *regularly* every quarter, and specially when convened to discuss particular business.† The powers vested in this Court are, the election of qualified proprietors as their delegates, or representatives, to form a Court of Directors; to frame bye-laws for the regulation of the Company—provided they do not interfere with Acts of Parliament; to controul salaries, or pensions, exceeding 200*l.* a year, or gratuities above 600*l.* It may confer pecuniary rewards on any eastern statesman, or warrior, above the latter named sum, subject, however, to the confirmation of the Board of Control; it can demand copies of public documents to be laid before it for discussion and consideration, but it is prevented interfering with any order of the Court of Directors, *after* the same shall have received the approval of the Board of Control. The Court of Proprietors did interfere, *and with effect*, in the case of the maritime compensations, on the ground that their concurrence had not been obtained previously to the application of the Board. The Chairman of the Court of Directors is *ex-officio* Chairman of the Court of Proprietors;—debates are regulated as in the House of Commons,—and all questions and elections are decided by the ballot.

The Court of Directors, or Representatives of the foregoing body of Proprietors, consist of 24 persons, qualified according to an Act of Parliament, which provides that each must be a natural born or naturalized subject of Great Bri-

* The following is said to be the state of the votes of the Court of Proprietors in 1832 :—Peers, 20; Members of Parliament, 10; Directors, 50; Clergymen, 86; Medical men, 19; Military Officers, 222; Naval Ditto, 28; Minor, 1; other Gentlemen, 1775; male votes, 2211; female ditto, 372; total, 2583.

† The number of quarterly and special Courts held from 1814 to 1830-31, was 212.

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tain: possessed of £2000 stock, (no matter for what previous period) he must not be a Director of the Bank of England, or the South Sea Company; and, by a Bye-law of the Company, he shall be liable to be removed if he should promote his own, or the election of any other Director, by promises of reward, collusive transfer of stock, or payment of travelling expenses, receive any pecuniary or other remuneration whatever, for any appointment in his gift or patronage as a Director. Six Directors retire annually by rotation, and are re-eligible after twelve months absence, the Proprietors have a review of every Director in the course of four years, and can of course remove if they think fit such as they may deem not fit for the duty which they ought to fulfil.* The Court of Directors elect from their own body a Chairman and Deputy Chairman annually, meet once a week, not less than thirteen form a Court, and all questions are decided by ballot. The Court in general consists of men of various habits, views, and interests; by a recent analysis there were ten retired civil and law officers of the company; four military ditto of ditto; four maritime ditto of ditto; three private Indian merchants; and nine London merchants and bankers; of these fifteen were under ten years standing from the first election; eleven from ten to twenty ditto; two from twenty to thirty, and two from thirty upwards. The Court of Directors enjoy full initiatory authority over all matters at home and abroad relating to the political, financial, judicial, and military affairs of the Company. But its proceedings are subject to certain Acts of Parliament; to the superintendence of the Board of Control, and in several matters to the approval of the Court of Proprietors.

For the despatch of business the Directors are divided into three Committees; Finance and Home, eight Directors; Political and Military, seven; Revenue, Judicial, and Legislative, seven; the duty of each is partly defined by the title, but there is a committee of secrecy, forming the cabinet council of the Company, and consisting of the Chairman, de-

* Nineteen contested elections for Directors took place from 1814 to 1831.

puty ditto, and senior Director; its functions are defined by Parliament. In reference to the business done by the Court of Directors as compared with the Board of Control, the Select Committee of the House of Commons thus reports in 1832:

As to the proportions of general administration resting on the Board of Control, and the East India Company, its Courts and its Officers respectively, it has been asserted, that, of all the reflections, suggestions and instructions bearing upon the policy of the Indian Governments, contained in the public despatches, nine-tenths, if not a larger proportion originate with the India House, though whatever regards the more important transactions with other States, and whatever is done in England, may be said to be mainly done by the Board of Commissioners. Considering the multifarious nature of the Company's relations and transactions, it is to be expected that the correspondence should be voluminous and complicated, comprehending, as it does, not only all that is originated in England, and transmitted to India, but the record of the proceedings and correspondence of all the Boards at the several Presidencies, with duplicates of the documents relating thereto in India, necessary to put the authorities at home in complete possession of all their acts. The correspondence comes home in despatches, and the explanatory matter in books or volumes. The total number of folio volumes received from 1793 to 1813, 21 years, was 9,094; and from 1814 to 1829, a period of 16 years, 12,414.

From the establishment of the Board in 1784 to 1814, the number of letters received from the Court by the Board of Commissioners was 1,791; the number sent from them to the Court was 1,195. From 1814 to 1831, 1,967 letters have been written to, and 2,642 received from, the board. The number of drafts sent up to the Board from 1793 to 1813, were 3,958; from 1814 to 1833, 7,962, making an increase 4,004; in addition, there have been references, connected with servants, civil and military, and others, in this country, amounting between the years 1814 and 1830, to 50,146. Reports made to the Court by its Committees, apart from details and researches made in framing such Reports, 32,902. From 1813 to the

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present time, nearly 800 Parliamentary Orders have been served on the Court, requiring returns of vast extent.

By the new East India charter the Company have agreed to place their Commercial rights in abeyance while they hold the political government and patronage of India, which is extended by charter to the 30th April, 1854, and in consideration of assigning over all their commercial assets (upwards of 21,000,000. sterling) for the benefit of the Indian territory, the present dividend of ten and a half per cent. (630,000*l.*) on the Company's capital stock, is secured on the Indian revenue for forty years, at the expiration of which period the capital of 6,000,000*l.* will be paid off at the rate of 100*l.* for every 5*l.* 5*s.* of annuity. As a guarantee fund for the proprietors in case of the surplus Indian revenues being unable in any one year to pay the dividends, and in order to provide for the ultimate liquidation of the principal, the sum of 2,000,000*l.* is to be set apart out of the commercial assets, to be invested in the three and a half per cents, there to accumulate as a security fund until it reaches the sum of 12,000,000*l.*

The business relating to the India Government is transacted in England, between the Board of Control and the Court of Directors, as follows:—*

All communications, of whatever nature, and whether received from abroad or from parties in this country, come, in the first instance, to the Secretary's Office, at the East India House, and are laid by the Chairman before the first Court that meets after their receipt. Despatches of importance are generally read to the Court at length. The despatches, when read or laid before the Court, are considered under reference to the respective Committees, and the officers whose duty it is to prepare answers take the directions of the Chairs upon points connected with them; the draft is prepared upon an examination of all the documents to which the substance has reference, and submitted to the Chairs; it is then brought before the Committee, to whose province the subject more particularly relates, to be approved or altered by them,

* Evidence before Parliament in 1832.

and, on being passed, is laid before the Court of Directors. After it has passed the Court of Directors, the draft goes to the Board of Control, who are empowered to make any alterations, but required to return it within a limited time, and with reasons assigned for the alterations they have made. Previously, however, to the draft being laid before either Committee by the Chairs, experience has suggested the convenience of submitting it to the President of the Board, in the shape of what is called a previous communication. This is done in communication between the President and the Chairs, in which stage alterations, containing the original views of the President, are made. The draft being returned to the Chairman, is laid by him, either with or without the alterations, as he may see fit, before the Committee. The draft, when approved of by the Committee, is submitted to the Court, and there altered or approved, as the Court may see fit. It is then officially sent to the Board, who make such alterations as they judge expedient, and return it to the Court, with their reasons at large for the same. Against these alterations the Court may make a representation to the Board, who have not unfrequently modified the alterations on such representation; but if the Board decline to do so, they state the same to the Court, and desire the draft may be framed into a despatch, and sent out to India, agreeably to the terms of the Act of Parliament. In the event of a refusal, three Judges of the Court of King's Bench finally decide as to the legality of the Board's order.

By the Act of 1784 and of 1833, the Directors are charged with appointing a Secret Committee, whose province is to forward to India all despatches which, in the opinion of the Board of Control, should be secret, and the subject-matter of which can only be divulged by permission of the Board. The Committee consists of three Members of the Court of Directors, chosen by the Court generally, viz. the Chairman, Deputy Chair, and most frequently Senior Member, who take the oath of secrecy, as prescribed by the Act. Their officers are also sworn to secrecy; and no one is employed in

transcribing secret despatches without the permission of the Board. The Board are empowered by law to issue, through the Secret Committee, orders and instructions on all matters relating to war, peace, or negociations of treaties with the States of India, and the Secret Committee are bound to transmit such order to India without delay. The Secret Committee have no legal power to remonstrate against such orders, provided they have relation to the subjects above stated. The Committee have had communication, upon matters stated in secret despatches, with the Board, and at their suggestions alterations have been made; but they have not the same power with regard to despatches sent down in the Secret Department that they have with regard to other despatches; they are not empowered to make representations thereon to the Board, whose orders are in fact conclusive on the Committee. The signatures of the Committee are necessary to ensure obedience to the orders conveyed by them to the Company's servants, with whom the Board of Commissioners have no direct correspondence.

It has been stated that there is another class of subjects not provided for in the Act which establishes the Secret Committee, but which have been necessarily treated through the Committee, and upon which its orders have been more punctually obeyed than in other cases, namely, negociations with European States having settlements in India, and generally all matters connected with war in Europe, which can in any way affect our Indian interests. (Provided for by the Act of 1833, section xxxvi.)

When either war against a Native State, or the carrying forward an expedition against any of the Eastern Islands, has been in contemplation, and the finances of India at these periods exceedingly pressed, or requiring aid from this country, the Secret Committee, in communication with the Board of Commissioners, have taken upon themselves to provide the requisite funds, without intimating the same to the Court at the time. Thus despatches relating to subjects purely financial and commercial, such as the transmission of

bullion, and the nature and amount of the Company's investments, have gone through the Secret Committee.

THE BOARD OF CONTROL.

The E. I. Company's Home Government, thus briefly described, has been controlled by a ministerial authority since 1784, which is termed the 'Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India,' or more generally the *Board of Control*; it consists of such members of the Privy Council as his Majesty may be pleased to appoint, of whom the two principal Secretaries of State and the Chancellor of the Exchequer shall always *ex officio* form three. The President is also nominated by the Crown, is usually a cabinet minister, and in all changes of Administration retires from office together with the salaried Commissioners and Secretary. The oath which the Commissioners take imposes on them the responsible duty of governing India to the best of their ability and judgment, as much and as completely as if there were no Executive Court or Administrative power. The *controlling* functions of the Board are exercised in revising *all* despatches prepared by the Court of Directors, and addressed to the Governments in India; the *originating*, in requiring the Court to prepare despatches on any named subject, and in altering or revising such despatch as it may deem fit. The Board is divided into six departments, viz. Accounts, Revenue, Judicial, Military, Secret and Political, and Foreign and Public; the duties of which are thus defined.*

1. *The Accountant's Department.*—To examine the accounts of the finances at home and abroad: controul the correspondence between the Court of Directors and the Indian Governments, in the departments of Finance, and Mints, and Coinage: also, occasional correspondence in most of the other departments of the Company's affairs requiring calculation, or bearing a financial character.

2. *The Revenue Department.*—Principally revision of despatches proposed to be sent to the several Governments of

* Evidence before Parliament in 1832.

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India, reviewing the detailed proceedings of those Governments, and of all the subordinate revenue authorities, in connexion with the adjustment of the land assessments, the realization of the revenue so assessed, and the general operation of the revenue regulations on the condition of the people, and the improvement of the country. Besides the land revenue, the detailed proceedings of the local authorities in the salt, opium, and custom departments, come under periodical revision.

3. *The Judicial Department.*—Examination of all correspondence between the Court of Directors and the local Governments, on subjects connected with the administration of civil and criminal justice and police in the interior of India, such as, the constitution of the various courts, the state of business in them, the conduct and proceedings of the judges, and all proposals and suggestions which from time to time come under discussion, with the view of applying remedies to acknowledged defects.

The King's Courts at the three Presidencies, are not subject to the authority of the Court of Directors, or of the Board of Control; but, any correspondence which takes place in relation to the appointment or retirement of the judges of those courts, or to their proceedings (including papers sent home for submission to the King in Council, recommendations of pardon, &c.), passes through this department.

4. *The Military Department.*—Attention to any alterations which may be made in the allowances, organization, or numbers of the Indian army at the three Presidencies; to the rules and regulations affecting the different branches of the service; to the general staff, comprehending the adjutant and quartermaster general's department; the commissariat (both army and ordnance); the pay, building, surveying, and clothing departments; and, in fact, to every branch of Indian administration connected with the Company's army. It also embraces so much of the proceedings, with respect to the King's troops, as relate to the charge of their maintenance in India,

recruiting them from this country, and the periodical reliefs of regiments.

5. *The Secret, Political, and Foreign Department.*—Examines all communications from or to the local Governments, respecting their relations with the native chiefs or States of India, or with foreign Europeans, or Americans. It is divided into the following branches:—

i. The *Secret* department containing the correspondence between the Indian Governments and the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors. Under the provisions of the Act of Parliament, such confidential communications as, in the opinion of the local Governments, require secrecy, are addressed by them to the Secret Committee. Any directions, also, to the local Governments, relating to war or negotiation, which, in the judgment of the Board of Control, require secrecy, are signed by the Secret Committee; and the local Governments are bound to obey those directions in the same manner as if they were signed by the whole body of Directors.

ii. The *Political* department, comprising all correspondence not addressed to the Secret Committee, or sent through that Committee to the local Governments, respecting the native chiefs, or States, with whom those Governments are in alliance or communication, or whose affairs are under their political superintendence, or who are in the receipt of pecuniary stipends in lieu of territory.

iii. The *Foreign* department, including all correspondence relating to communications between the local Governments and the several foreign Europeans who have settlements in India or the Eastern Islands; and embracing, in fact, all the proceedings of the local Governments in relation to foreign Europeans or Americans, resorting to India.

The proceeding of the local Governments, with respect to their residents and political agents, and to any other officers and their respective establishments, through whom communications with native states and chiefs, or with foreigners, may be maintained, are also reported in the several departments in which those officers are respectively employed.

6. *The Public Department.*—The business of this department comprises the examination of all despatches to and from India upon *Commercial* or *Ecclesiastical* subjects, and of those which, being of a miscellaneous character, are distinguished by the general appellation of "Public." The commercial and ecclesiastical despatches, which are considered as forming two branches of correspondence distinct from the "Public," are united with the latter in the same department, only on account of the convenience of that arrangement, with reference to the distribution of business in the establishment of the Board of Control.

The *Public* correspondence comprises all those despatches which do not belong specifically to any of the branches of correspondence hitherto enumerated. They relate to the education of the natives and of the civil servants; to the appointment of writers and of the civil service generally, and to their allowances; to the several compassionate funds; to the grant of licenses to reside in India; to the press; to public buildings; to the Indian navy and the marine department; to the affairs of Prince of Wales' Island, Singapore, Malacca, and St. Helena; and to various miscellaneous subjects. Some of these being closely connected with the business of other departments, are reported upon in them, although the whole pass through, and are recorded in the public department.

The *Ecclesiastical* despatches contain every thing relating to the appointment of chaplains, archdeacons, and bishops; to their allowances; to their conduct; to the building and repair of churches, or other places used for public worship; and to all questions respecting the affairs of the churches of England and Scotland in India, or that of Rome, so far as public provision is made for its maintenance.

Any papers treating of ecclesiastical or miscellaneous topics, though they are not despatches to or from India, are likewise recorded and reported upon in this department.

The cost of the Board of Control is about 30,000*l.* a year. The salary of the President of the Board is 3,500*l.* per an-

num; of each of the paid Commissioners, 1,200*l.*; and of the Secretary 1,500*l.* to be raised to 1,800*l.* after three years' service. The Charter of 1833 authorizes two Secretaries for the Board.

THE FOREIGN GOVERNMENT OF INDIA—

is divided into three Presidencies, viz. Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and a Lieutenancy at Agra, or rather at Allahabad; the Chief at each Presidency is assisted and partly controlled by a Council* of two of the Company's senior civil servants, and the Commander-in-Chief of the army. The government of Bengal is termed the Supreme Government, and the head thereof is styled the Governor General of India; he is necessarily possessed of much local independence, exercising some of the most important rights of sovereignty, such as declaring war, making peace, framing treaties, to a certain extent forgiving criminals and enacting laws.

On all questions of State policy, excepting in a judicial capacity, the Governor General is independent of his Council; if the Council are dissentient, the Members record in their minutes the cause, which being submitted to the Governor General and he still remaining of his original opinion, the discussion is adjourned for 48 hours, when the Governor General may proceed to execution, first assigning his reasons for dissenting from the Council. The whole of the documents relative to the difference are then instantly transmitted to the Court of Directors and Board of Control; and the Court have the power, should they deem fit, of appointing new Members of Council to succeed the dissentient ones, or of recalling the Governor General.

* The Governor-General's Council consists of five Councillors—three to be servants of the Company of ten years standing, and to be appointed by the Directors; the fourth to be appointed by the Directors also, subject to the approbation of the King, but not from among the E. I. Company's servants, and with power to sit and vote in Council only at meetings for making laws and regulations. The Commander-in-Chief forms the fifth member, with precedence after the Governor General.

The Governor General, in virtue of his commission as Captain General, may head the military operations in any part of India. He has also the power of suspending the Governors of the other Presidencies, or of proceeding thither and taking the supreme authority in their Councils, in the execution of any of which acts he is subject to the vigilant supervision of the home authorities. The Governors of Madras and Bombay are in a similar manner independent of local control, but for the sake of obtaining unity in foreign transactions, on matters of general and internal policy, or in expending money they are subject to the authority of the Governor General, who, on proceeding to either of the Presidencies, may assemble his Council there and sit as President.

Regulations for the good government of the British possessions in India are passed by the Governor General in Council; they immediately become effective, but are transmitted home and subject to the revision of the Court of Directors and Board of Control; heretofore ordinances for the good government of the Presidency capitals were not valid until publicly exposed for 14 days, then registered by the Supreme (King's) Court; put in force, but subject to a further ordeal at home: by the new Charter these checks on the Governor General are removed, and that authority in council can now make laws for the regulation of even his Majesty's supreme courts. Such is the legislative department of the Government, the executive is generally exercised by means of Boards, of which in Bengal there are five,* at Madras three,† and at Bombay one. Any of these Boards make suggestions or present drafts of regulations in their respective departments to Government; the Boards also receive from their subordinates suggestions, either for their own information or for transmission to the Governor General in Council; by this means the local knowledge of the inferior officers is brought under the knowledge of the chief executive, and their talents and in-

* 1, Revenue; 2, Customs, salt and opium; 3, Trade; 4, Military; 5, Medical.

† 1, Revenue; 2, Military; 3, Medical.

dustry appreciated: indeed, a leading feature in the duties of the Indian Governments is that of noting down every transaction, whether as individual chiefs of departments or as Boards: thus habits of business are generated, combined with a moral check of supervision, no matter what distance a servant may be from the Presidency, or what period of time may elapse, should an enquiry be necessary. All minutes of the Boards' proceedings are laid before the Government monthly, and then transmitted home. The objection alleged to this is that it creates delay; but as correctly observed by the Court of Directors in their Letter to the Board of Control, 27th August, 1829, the Government of India may in one word be described as a *Government of Checks*. The Court thus judiciously remark—'Now whatever may be the advantage of checks, it must always be purchased at the expense of delay, and the amount of delay will generally be in proportion to the number and efficiency of checks. The correspondence between the Court of Directors and the governments of India is conducted with a comprehensiveness and in a detail quite unexampled; every, the minutest proceedings of the local governments including the whole correspondence respecting it which passes between them and their subordinate functionaries, is placed on record, and complete copies of the Indian records are sent annually to England for the use of the home authorities. The despatches from India are indexes to those records, or what a table of contents is to a book, not merely communicating on matters of high interest, or soliciting instructions on important measures in contemplation, but containing summary narratives of all the proceedings of the respective governments, with particular references to the correspondence and consultations thereon, whether in the political, revenue, judicial, military, financial, ecclesiastical or miscellaneous departments. In the ordinary course of Indian administration much must always be left to the discretion of local governments; and unless upon questions of general policy and personal cases, it rarely occurs that instructions from hence can reach India before the time for acting upon them

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is gone by. This is a necessary consequence of the great distance between the two countries, the rapid succession of events in India, which are seldom long foreseen, even by those who are on the spot, and the importance of the ruling authorities there, acting with promptitude and decision, and adopting their measures, on their own responsibility, to the varying exigencies of the hour. These circumstances unavoidably regulate, but do not exclude the controlling authority of the Court of Directors. Without defeating the intentions of Parliament, they point out the best and indeed the only mode in which these intentions can be practically fulfilled. Although, with the exceptions above adverted to, a specific line of conduct cannot often be prescribed to the Indian governments, yet it seems to indicate any other rather than a state of irresponsibility, that the proceedings of those governments are reported with fidelity, examined with care, and commented upon with freedom by the home authorities; nor can the judgments passed by the Court be deemed useless whilst, though they have immediate reference to past transactions, they serve ultimately as rules for the future guidance of their servants abroad. The knowledge, on the part of the local governments, that their proceedings will always undergo this revision, operates as a salutary check upon its conduct in India, and the practice of replying to letters from thence, paragraph by paragraph, is a security against habitual remissness or accidental oversight on the part of the Court, or their servants at home. From a perusal of the Indian records, the Court also obtain an insight into the conduct and qualifications of their servants, which enables them to judge of their respective merits, and to make a proper selection of members of Council.'

The DUTIES OF THE BRITISH FUNCTIONARIES IN INDIA may be gathered from the following detail of the chief stations and offices of the civil servants in Bengal.*—'The duties of Territorial Secretary, in one branch, correspond in a great measure with those of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in this country; he manages the whole financial business of the

* Evidence before Parliament in 1832.

Government, in concert with the Accountant-general; but the Secretary is the chief officer of the Government in that department; moreover, he has the management of the territorial revenue, and the revenue derived from salt and opium, and he conducts the correspondence of government with the three Boards of Revenue in the upper, lower, and central provinces respectively.

‘In relation to the Board of Revenue, he is merely the ministerial officer of the Government; he is not a responsible officer, and has no direct power over the Board of Revenue.

‘If any increase of charge were proposed by any of the Boards of Revenue, or by any person acting under them, that proposal for increase is submitted to the Territorial Secretary before it is acquiesced in and sanctioned by Government—he is the person always addressed. The Boards of Revenue have the power of writing directly to the Governor-General in Council; but that is a mere matter of form, for such letter goes equally through the office of the Territorial Secretary, and is submitted by him to the Governor-General in Council.

‘The Territorial Secretary offers his opinion upon the admissibility of any new charge proposed. He has no right or power to do so, but he is generally called upon to do so. The Secretaries are in the habit of giving in papers called memoranda. As the Governor-General or Members of Council lay minutes before the Council Board, so the Secretaries, whenever they have any suggestion to make, submit what are called memoranda.

‘One of the Members of the Council is nominally President of the Board of Revenue, he performs no duties.

‘The duties of the territorial and judicial departments as regard the judicial department are quite distinct departments. There are two Secretaries; the Judicial Secretary is quite independent of the Territorial; he conducts the correspondence of the Government with the Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut; they are the chief criminal and civil courts.

‘The police is under his direction, at least all the correspondence of Government on the subject of the police is con-

ducted by him. Like the Territorial Secretary, he is not a substantive officer, only a ministerial functionary of the government. He writes always in the name of the government; his letters always begin with words to this effect, 'I am directed by the Governor-General in Council to inform you:' and this holds good with regard to all other Secretaries.

'The business of a Collector in the lower provinces is the receipt of revenue; the conduct of public sales, in the event of any defalcation on the part of any landed proprietor who is responsible for any portion of the revenue.

'There being a permanent settlement of the land revenue in those provinces, he has not much to do directly with the collection of the revenue; but he has a great number of other duties, as the management of wards' estates (minors' estates); for the Board of Revenue is also a Court of Wards.

'He exercises judicial functions in what are called summary suits, arising from disputes between landlord and tenant, between zemindar and ryot. That is, in disputes connected with the administration of the revenue.

'With reference to the extent in which he decides suits. The suits are summary suits; they are not conducted with the formality of regular suits; they are instituted originally in the courts of law, and are referred by the Judge to the Collector for decision; they are of a particular description; they are not conducted with the formality of regular law-suits; there is a particular process laid down by the Regulations for them.

'It is indirectly in the nature of a reference; it is a claim of the zemindar on the ryot for rent which the ryot disputes or denies; and it is referred to the Collector, as a summary suit, under particular Regulations.

All the instances in which he exercises judicial power are referred to him by the court, as far as regards the summary suits referred to: but there are also investigations which partake largely of judicial inquiries, which he conducts independently of the courts, as, for instance, where landholders in coparceny have petitioned to have their estates

divided, and to become separately responsible to Government. Such divisions are called Butwarahs.

'The revenue collected remains in the custody of a native Treasurer, who gives heavy security, and who is to a great degree independent of the Collector. Security is given to the Government through the Collector; but the Board of Revenue see that it is sufficient, and the Collector is also responsible.'

JUDICIAL.

We may now proceed to examine briefly the mode in which the administration of justice is carried on; in the Bengal Presidency, for instance, there is first a high court of Appeal, termed the 'Sudder Dewany and Nizamut Adawlut,' or chief Civil* and Criminal Court.† The functions of this Court‡ are cognizance of civil, criminal, and police matters; the remission or mitigation of punishment when the sentence of the law officers is unduly severe, co-revision previous to the execution of any sentence of death, transportation, or perpetual imprisonment, arbitration where the provincial judges differ from their law officers; revisions of the proceedings of any of the Courts, with power to suspend provincial judges; it may direct suits for property exceeding 5,000*l.* in value, to be originally tried before it; it may admit second or special appeals from the inferior Courts, and its construction of the Government regulations is final. The Chief Judge has 6,000*l.* a year, and the three Puisne Judges 5,000*l.* each.§

* The civil law is administered according to the religious code of the party, whether Hindoo or Mahomedan. A commission is now being issued to examine into the variety of the civil laws existing in the various provinces, and to endeavour to codify them into a general system.

† The criminal law in India is the Mahomedan code, in which mutilations of the limbs and flagellations to death are not unfrequently ordained; these are commuted by us for imprisonment, &c., and it will be seen in the chapter on education how crime has been diminished in India.

‡ A Court of a similar nature has been established for the Western Provinces, under Lord William Bentinck's enlightened government.

§ There are in the Company's Courts three grades of *European* Judges, the District, the Provincial, and the Judges of the Sudder Court (there

The second degree of Courts are the Provincial Courts of Appeal (of which there are six for Bengal) with a Chief and Puisne Judge to each. They have no criminal jurisdiction; try suits exceeding 5,000 rupees in value, if the plaintiff desire their decision, (he may prefer it before the Zillah Judge, if the value do not exceed 10,000 rupees,) appeals lie from the Zillah Courts, and are final unless in cases of special appeal.

For the Bengal Presidency there are 20 Commissioners of Circuit who combine revenue with judicial functions. They hold sessions of goal delivery at least twice in each year at the different Zillah and City stations. The direction and controul of the Magistrates, Revenue Officers and Police are vested in them. The salary of each Commissioner is 4,000*l.* a year.

The City of Zillah* Courts of Bengal amount to 49; some have a judge, magistrate, and registrar; in others less extensive, the duties of judge and magistrate are conjoined, or the duties of magistrate and registrar.†

These Courts have cognizance of affrays, thefts, burglaries, &c., when not of an aggravated character, and power to the extent of two years' imprisonment; commit persons charged are also Magistrates, who exercise civil jurisdiction under special appointments, and the Registrars try and decide causes referred to them by the Judge of the district.) The native Judges are divided into two classes. 1st, *Moonsiffs*, of whom there are several stationed in the interior of every district; and, 2ndly, *Sudder Aumeems*, established at the same station with the European Judge. Native Judges of any sect can try causes as far as 1,000 rupees, and the amount may be increased at the recommendation of the European Judge to 5,000 rupees; this permission has been granted in very many cases, and the decisions have been extremely satisfactory. An Appeal lies from the District Native Judges to the District European Judge, from the latter to the High Court of Sudder Adawlut at Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, and from thence to the King in Council in England.

* The population and extent of a Zillah is various; in Bengal the average population is about 2,000,000.

† The total salaries of the European covenanted servants of a Zillah Court range from 30,000 to 44,000 S. R. a year

with heinous offences for trial before the Commissioners of Circuit; try original suits to the value of 20,000 rupees; decide appeals from registrars, (*i. e.* causes not exceeding 500 rupees in value) Sudder Aumeems (native judges) and Moon-siffs; and by a regulation of 1832 (for the expedition of criminal justice,) three Zillah judges may be invested with power by the Governor-General to hold sessions and goal delivery.

These Courts have authority over the Police, and the judges are enjoined to visit the goals at least once a week.

Another and extensive set of Zillah and City Courts have been established last year with native judges of every class, caste, or persuasion, found qualified for the duties enjoined them, to whom liberal salaries have been granted; and by a more recent regulation, native assessors sit on the bench with the European judges.

A plan of judicature, similar to the foregoing, is in force at Madras and Bombay, modified by local usages; in some parts there are PUNCHAYETS (native juries) of arbitration and of civil and criminal procedure; in others, native assessors in civil and criminal matters.

In the administration of civil justice the objects of the Company's Government have been to render it pure in source, speedy in execution, and cheap in practice; in the administration of criminal justice the aim has been first to prevent crime, and secondly to promote the reformation of the offender. The judges are well paid, in order to secure the purity of justice; the Courts are numerous, in order that it may be speedily rendered, and the authorized fees are light (particularly in trifling cases) for the cheap attainment of right. In criminal matters, offences are quickly punished,—the death sentences (which are inflicted but for very few crimes) are almost sure to be carried into effect, and it is in evidence before Parliament (in 1832) that prisoners are brought to trial without delay, that the punishments awarded are mild and well proportioned to the offence; that abundant care is taken against unjust convictions, and that extraordinary care is paid

to the health and comfort of the prisoners in the goals; the effect of the system is the extraordinary diminution of crime as will be seen in the Education Chapter. Measures have been taken for the promulgation of a knowledge of the law as well as new laws.

Laws and Regulations.—In pursuance of the direction, and by virtue of the powers given by the 47th section of the Act of the 3d and 4th William IV. chap. 85, the Court of Directors of the East India Company, with the approbation of the Commissioners for the Affairs of India, ordain as follow:—

1. Copies of all laws and regulations shall be communicated to the several Functionaries appointed to carry them into effect, and shall be preserved in all Courts of Justice, and there be open to the inspection of all persons.

2. All laws and regulations shall be translated into the several native languages most commonly spoken, and printed and sold at a low price.

3. The Governments of the several Presidencies will make such a distribution of copies of the laws and regulations so to be sold as may bring them most conveniently within the reach of all persons, and will notify in a public manner where such copies may be procured.

4. The Governments will likewise, on the passing of any law and regulation, publish the title of it, and an abstract of its contents in the Gazettes and such other newspapers as are most generally circulated.

Authentication of Laws and Regulations.—1. The original copy of all laws and regulations shall be signed by the Members of the Legislative Council by whom they shall be passed, and such copy shall be preserved in the archives of the Government of India.

2. Such copies only of the several laws and regulations hereafter passed as shall be printed at the Government Press shall be admitted as evidence in Courts of Justice.

Such copies so printed shall bear in the title page facsimiles of the signatures of the Members of Council by whom

the several laws and regulations may have been respectively passed."

There is a Supreme, or King's Court at each Presidency, with a Chief and two Puisne Judges; a Master in Equity, Registrar, an established number of Attorneys and Barristers, at the discretion of the Judges, and at Calcutta there is a Hindoo and a Mahomedan law officer attached to the Court. The jurisdiction of this Court extends over the local boundaries of the Presidency, with certain exceptions not well defined, and the Courts claim jurisdiction in certain cases beyond the Presidency; such claims have, however, been viewed with alarm, and the extension of the jurisdiction of the King's Court at the present period deprecated. The salaries and contingent expenses of the Supreme Court* at Calcutta annually, are 879,000 rupees, and the emoluments of Barristers and Attorneys about 771,000 rupees. The same items at Madras and Bombay are—for the first, 650,000 rupees, and for the second, 950,000 rupees: total of Supreme Courts, 3,250,000 rupees. Trial by jury in criminal matters, not in civil; natives are eligible as petty and grand jurors; proceedings are in English, with the aid of interpreters, and in general the civil laws of England are applied. There are at Calcutta and Bombay Courts of Requests, for the recovery of small debts, the Recorders of which are Europeans.

THE POLICE

in Bengal, for instance, are divided into stations with a native officer, native registrar, petty officer, and from 20 to 30 po-

* The salaries of the Supreme Court Judges at the three Presidencies are, *Bengal*, Chief, £8,000; Puisne, £6,000. *Madras*, Chief, 60,000 rupees; Puisne, 50,000 rupees. *Bombay*, ditto, ditto. Since 1807, there have been six Chief Justices at Bengal, and since 1805 seven Puisne. At Madras since 1815, four Chief, and since 1809, ten Puisne; at Bombay since 1823, three Chief and five Puisne Judges. The *fixed* charges were, in 1829, as follow: Bengal, S. R. 383,120; Madras, 378,056; Bombay, 293,874; total, S. R. 955,050, being an excess over 1823 of S. R. 205,826.

licemen well armed. In each district there are from 5 to 20 stations, making altogether in lower Bengal about 500, and in the upper or western Provinces 400. Every village has also its own watchman, armed and paid by the village, and as there are 163,673 villages in lower Bengal, there is a further force of 160,000 men added to the Government establishment. In some Provinces of central India, each village has also a petty officer, whose duty it is to track thieves, and when he traces them to a village, to hand over the search to the trackers of that village.

The head officer at each station receives criminal charges, holds inquests, forwards accused persons with their prosecutors and witnesses to the Zillah Magistrate, uses every exertion for the apprehension of criminals and the preservation of the peace in his district, and regularly reports all proceedings to the European Magistrate from whom he receives orders. The village police, together with the village corporation officers (such as the barber, schoolmaster, accountant, waterman, measurer, &c.), land agents, Zemindars, &c. are all required to give immediate information of crime committed within their limits and to aid in the apprehension of offenders. There is a mounted police officered by natives, and a river police conducted also by natives.

The police officers are furnished with precise and brief manuals of instructions, and the abuses which prevailed are being rapidly removed; what was good in the native laws has been retained, and what was evil obliterated, and an excellent system still open to improvement has been the result. The general system of police in India, and its gradations of ranks is thus detailed in the recent evidence before Parliament. 'The lowest police officer is the village watcher. There are several in a village who perform the lower offices. They are under the control of the head of the village; the head of the village is under the control of the Tehsildar, who is a native collector of revenue; the Tehsildar is under the Magistrate, who is the collector. The village watchers are remunerated by a small quantity of grain from the produce

of the village, and from certain fees from the inhabitants; and the head of the village has also similar allowances, to a greater extent. The Tehsildar is a stipendiary officer of the government, employed in the collection of the revenue. There are police officers appointed to towns, called Aumeems of police, who have a jurisdiction also beyond those towns; and there are officers called Cutwals, a kind of high constables, resident chiefly in market towns. There are, in some districts, paid police; and there were formerly various classes of native peons, under different denominations, many of whom have of late years been dismissed as unnecessary.

The strength of the civil service at each Presidency, according to the Bengal Finance Committee, is as follows:—

	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Senior Merchants*	272	133	56	461
Junior, ditto	25	11	26	62
Factors	41	15	30	87
Writers	177	34	36	247
Total	515	194	148	857
Number of Annuitants retiring Annually	9	4	3	16
Casualties at Two and a half per Cent.	10	4	2	16
Annually Required	19	8	5	32

The following detail shows the recent revision of allowances for the civil functionaries of Bengal, the *proposed* salaries not affecting present incumbents:—

JUDICIAL AND JUDICIAL FISCAL.

Sudder Dewanny Adawlut; 5 Judges, at 52,200 each, 2,61,000 St. Rs. Judges of Provincial Courts: 14 Judges, at 36,000; 5,04,000. Registrar of Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut, 37,200. Deputy ditto, 14,400. 21 Commissioners of Revenue and Circuit, at 42,000; 8,82,000. 10 Judges, at 30,000; 3,00,000. 36 Judges and Magistrates, at 30,000 10,80,000. 7 Magistrates, 1,34,400. Registrars, including vacancies, at 8,400 and 6,000; 3,94,800. 10 Joint Magistrates, also Registrars, as now,

* The terms here given have been continued ever since the E. I. Company were a mere trading company, new designations are necessary.

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MISCEL

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subject to revision, 1,27,200. 8 Principal Assistants, including 2 vacancies, at 30,000; 2,40,000. Commissioner in Kumaon, 30,000. Assistant ditto, 8,400. Ramghur Judge, Magistrate, and Collector, 36,000. 1 Registrar and Assistant, 12,000. 1 Collector and Magistrate of Calcutta, 36,000. 3 Collectors and Magistrates, 90,000. 4 Sub-Collectors and Joint Magistrates, as now, subject to revision, 77,307. 1 Superintendent and Remembrancer of Law suits, 24,000. 1 Head Assistant Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, 8,400. 1 Second ditto, 7,200. 1 Third ditto, 6,000. 24 Assistants, at 4,800; 1,15,200. Total St. Rs. 44,25,507.

FISCAL.—3 Members Board of Revenue, at 52,200; 1,56,600. Senior Secretary, 37,200. Junior ditto, 31,200. Sub ditto, 14,400. Head Assistant ditto, 8,400. 3 Commissioners under Regulation III. of 1828,* at 45,000; 1,35,000. 2 Members Board of Customs, at 52,000; 1,04,4000. 1 Secretary, 31,200. Head Assistant in charge of salt chokees, 14,400. Second Assistant ditto, with chokees and stamps, 8,400. Opium Agent at Bahar, 42,000. Ditto at Benares; an equal sum to be drawn as Commercial Resident, 24,000. 2 Salt Agents, Tumlook and Hidgelee, at 50,000; 1,00,000. Ditto at Jessore, 30,000. 6 Salt Agents and Collectors, at 36,000; 2,16,000. 48 Collectors, including those in charge of customs, salt chokees, and Opium Agents, and also Collectors of Customs, at 30,000; 14,40,000. 7 Deputy and Sub-Collectors, including Customs, at 12,000; 84,000. Superintendent of Sulkea Golahs, 30,000. 1 ditto Eastern Salt Chokees, 19,200. Collector of Calcutta Sea Customs, 42,000. 1 Deputy ditto, 20,400. 1 Head Assistant to ditto, 12,000. Collector of Inland Customs, 31,200. 1 Deputy Collector Inland Customs, 16,800. 1 Collector of Customs at Moorshedabad, 30,000. 1 Commissioner Sunderbunds, 30,000. 13 Assistants in Revenue and Salt Departments, at 4,800; 62,400. Total St. Rs. 27,71,200.

POLITICAL.—4 Residents at Foreign Courts, Delhi, Hydrabad, Lucknow, and Nagpore, at 66,000; 2,64,000. 2 ditto, Indore and Gwalior, at 60,000; 1,20,000. 1 ditto, Katmoondoo, at 42,000; 42,000; Governor-General's Agent, Moorshedabad, 42,000. 1 Commissioner, Nerbuddah, 50,000. 1 Superintendent, Ajmere, 36,000. Secretary to Commissioner at Delhi, 13 Political Agents including Military, as now, 2,59,680. Head Assistant and Deputy Agent, Indore, 20,400. 3 Head Assistants to Residents at Delhi, Hydrabad, and Nepal, 27,000. 1 ditto, Ajmere, 8,400. 2 Second Assistants to Residents at Delhi, Hydrabad, at 7,200; 14,400. 3 Assistants to Commissioner at Delhi, at 4,800; 14,400. 19 Military Assistants, as now, 1,40,400. Total St. Rs. 10,38,680.

MISCELLANEOUS.—4 Secretaries to Government, at 52,200; 2,08,800.

* Second Assistant to Sudder Board not included, St. Rs. 6,000.

1 Persian Secretary and Deputy ditto, Political Department, 48,000. 3 Deputies, 36,000. 2 Assistant Secretaries to Government, at 8,400; 16,800. Accountant General, 52,200. Deputy ditto, and the Military Accountant, 37,200. Sub ditto Accountant, Revenue and Judicial Departments, and Civil Auditor, 31,200. Commercial Accountant also in salt and opium, &c. with the Bank, 25,200. Deputy Accountant, and Deputy Civil Auditor, with office of Secretary to Annuity Fund, 19,200. Head Assistant to Accountant General, 12,000. Sub-Treasurer,* 43,200. Head Assistant to ditto, 8,400. Postmaster-general, 37,200. Mint-master, 37,200. Superintendent of Stamps, 63 Writers attached to the College on 1st February, 2,26,800. Total St. Rs. 8,39,400.

MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS.

The Anglo-Indian army, amounting to nearly 200,000 men, well deserves examination, whether in reference to numbers, discipline, gallantry in the field, or fidelity to its government:—

RISE, PROGRESS, AND CHARACTER OF THE NATIVE ARMY OF INDIA.†

THOUGH Bombay was the first possession which the English obtained in the East, the establishment on that island was, for a very long period, on too limited a scale to obtain more than its European garrison, and a few companies of disciplined sepoy. On the coast of Coromandel, which became towards the middle of the last century a scene of warfare between the English and French, who mutually aided and received support from the princes of that quarter, the natives of India were instructed in European discipline. During the siege of Madras, which took place in A.D. 1746, a number of peons, a species of irregular infantry, armed with swords and spears, or matchlocks, were enlisted for the occasion; to those some English officers were attached, among whom a young gentleman of the civil service, of the name of Halliburton, was the most distinguished. This gentleman, who had been rewarded with the commission of a lieutenant, was employed in the ensuing year in training a small corps of natives in the European manner; he did not, however, live to perfect that system, which he appears to have introduced into the Madras service.‡

* Junior Assistant Accountant-General's department not included, St. R. 6,000.

† This brief account was written by the late gallant and patriotic Sir John Malcolm, who had the fullest opportunity for judging of the qualities of the sepoy troops. I have given an abstract of his account as laid before Parliament.

‡ 'It was by one of our own sepoy's' (the Council of Fort St. David observe, in a despatch dated 2d September, 1748, in which they pass an eulogium on the character of Mr. Halliburton) 'that he had the misfortune to be killed, who shot him upon his reprimanding him for some offence; the poor gentleman' (they add)

It appears from other authorities, that the first sepoy who were raised by the English were either Mahomedans or Hindoos of very high caste being chiefly Rajpoots. One of the first services on which the regular sepoy of Madras were employed was the defence of Arcot, A.D. 1751. The particulars of that siege, which forms a remarkable feature in the life of the celebrated Clive, have been given by an eloquent and faithful historian;* but he has not informed us of one occurrence that took place, and which, as it illustrates the character of the Indian soldiers, well merited to be preserved. When provisions were very low, the Hindoo sepoy entreated their commander to allow them to boil the rice (the only food left) for the whole garrison. 'Your English soldiers,' they said, 'can eat from our hands, though we cannot from theirs; we will allot as their share every grain of the rice, and subsist ourselves by drinking the water in which it has been boiled.' I state this remarkable anecdote from an authority I cannot doubt, as it refers to the most unexceptionable contemporary witnesses.

During all the wars of Clive, of Lawrence, of Smith, and of Coote, the sepoy of Madras continued to display the same valour and attachment. In the years 1780, 1781, and 1782, they suffered hardships of a nature almost unparalleled; there was hardly a corps that was not 20 months in arrears; they were supported, it is true, by a daily allowance of rice, but this was not enough to save many of their families from being the victims of that dreadful famine which during these years wasted the Company's dominions in India. Their fidelity never gave way in this hour of extreme trial, and they repaid with gratitude and attachment the kindness and consideration with which they were treated by their European officers, who, being few in number, but, generally speaking, very efficient, tried every means that could conciliate the regard, excite the pride, or stimulate the valour of those they commanded.

In the campaigns of 1790 and 1791 against Tippoo Sultaun, the sepoy of this establishment showed their usual zeal and courage; but the number of European troops which were now intermixed with them, lessened their opportunities of distinguishing themselves, and though improved in discipline, they perhaps fell in their own estimation. The native army in some degree became a secondary one, and the pride of those of whom it was composed was lowered. The campaigns of Lord Cornwallis and General Meadows were certainly not inferior, either in their operations or results, to those of Sir Eyre Coote; but every officer can tell how differently they are regarded by the sepoy who served in both; the latter may bring to their memory the distresses and hardships which they suffered, and perhaps the recollection of children who perished from famine, but it is associated with a sense of their own importance at that period to the Government they served, with the

* died next day, and the villain did not live so long, for his comrades that stood by cut him to pieces immediately.' The name of Mr. Haliburton was long cherished by the Madras native troops, and about 20 years ago, on an examination of old grants, some veterans, wearing medals, appeared as claimants, who called themselves Haliburton Saheb Ka sepoy, or Haliburton's soldiers.

* Orme.

pride of fidelity and patient valour. The pictures of these three distinguished leaders are in the great room of the Exchange at Madras; to that (I speak of 10 years ago) when a battalion comes into garrison the old sepoys lead their families. Wallis and Meadows (these are the names by which the two first commanders are known to them) are pointed out as great and brave chiefs; but it is to the image of their favourite, Coote, the pilgrimage is made, and the youngest of their children are taught to pay a respect bordering on devotion to this revered leader.

In the year 1796, new regulations were introduced into the Indian army, the whole form of which was in fact changed. Instead of single battalions of a thousand men, commanded by a captain, who was selected from the European corps in the Hon. Company's service, and a subaltern to each company, they were formed into regiments of two battalions, to which officers were appointed of the same rank, and nearly of the same number, as to a battalion in the service of His Majesty.

The general history of the native army of Fort St. George is short. Sepoys were first disciplined, as has been stated, on that establishment in 1748; they were at that period, and for some time afterwards, in independent companies, under subadars or native captains. Mahomed Esuf, one of the most distinguished of those officers, rose by his talents and courage to the general command of the whole; and the name of this hero, for such he was, occurs almost as often in the page of the English historian* of India as that of Lawrence and Clive. As the numbers of the native army increased, the form changed. In A.D. 1766, we find 10 battalions of 1,000 men each, and three European officers to each corps. In 1770, there were 18 battalions of similar strength; and 1784 the number of this army had increased to 2,000 native cavalry and 28,000 infantry; a considerable reduction was made at this period, but subsequent wars and conquests have caused a great increase.

A few remarks on the appearance and conduct of this army, with some anecdotes of remarkable individuals, will fully illustrate its character, and convey a just idea of the elements of which it is composed.

The native cavalry of Madras was originally raised by the Nabob of the Carnatic. The first corps embodied into a regiment under the command of European officers, on the suggestion of General Joseph Smith, served in the campaign of 1768 in the Mysore. From 1771 to 1776, the cavalry force was greatly augmented, but then again declined both in numbers and efficiency. The proportion that was retained nominally in the service of the Nabob, but actually in that of the Company, served in the campaigns of 1780, 1781, 1782, and 1783, and was formally transferred, with the European officers attached to it, to the Company's service in 1784. The prospect of fortune which the liberality of an Indian prince offered, attracted to this corps many active and enterprising European officers, and the favour which a Native Court extended to its choicest troops filled the ranks of its regiments of regular cavalry with the prime of the Mahomedan youth† of the Carnatic. When this

* Orme.

† There cannot be men more suited, from their frame and disposition, for the duty of light cavalry than those of which this corps is composed. They are, gene-

corps was highly distinguished frequent a period of brilliant or of defeat were at the 19th Dra

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corps was in the service of the Nabob of the Carnatic, though it was often very highly distinguished, the intrigues of a venal Court and irregular payments caused frequent mutinies. Since it has been transferred to the Company's establishment, a period of more than 30 years; its career has been one of faithful service and of brilliant achievement, unstained by any example, that I can recollect, of disaffection or of defeat. The two severest trials of the courage and discipline of this corps were at Assaye and Vellore; in both these services they were associated with the 19th Dragoons.

The distinguished commander* of that gallant regiment had, from the day of its arrival in India, laboured to establish the ties of mutual and cordial regard between the European and native soldiers. His success was complete. His own fame while he remained in India was promoted by their combined efforts, and the friendship which he established, and which had continued for many years, was after his departure consummated upon the plains of Assaye. At the most critical moment of a battle which ranks amongst the hardest fought of those that have been gained by the illustrious Wellington, the British dragoons, when making their extremest efforts, saw their Asiatic fellow soldiers keep pace for pace, and give blow for blow. A more arduous task awaited the latter, when the battalions of native infantry, which formed the garrison of Vellore, were led by the infatuation of the moment to rise upon and murder the Europeans of that garrison. The fidelity of the native cavalry did not shrink from the severe trial, and after the gates of the fortress were blown open, their sabres were as deeply† stained as those of the English dragoons with the blood of their misguided and guilty countrymen.

But a few authentic anecdotes of some of the most distinguished individuals of the native cavalry of Madras will show, better than volumes; the high spirit that pervades that corps.

In the campaign of 1791, when Secunder Beg, one of the oldest subadars of the native cavalry, was riding at a little distance on the flank of his troop, two or three horsemen of Tipoo's army, favoured by some brushwood, came suddenly upon him; the combat had hardly commenced when the son of the subadar, who was a havildar or serjeant in the same regiment, flew to his father's aid and slew the foremost of his opponents; the others fled; but nothing could exceed the rage of the old man at his son's conduct; he put him instantly under a guard, and insisted upon his being brought to condign punishment for quitting his ranks without leave. It was with the greatest difficulty that Colonel Floyd, who commanded the force, could reconcile him to the disgrace he conceived he had suffered (to use his own expression) from his enemy 'being taken from him by a presumptuous boy in front of his regiment.'

rally speaking, from five feet five to five feet ten inches in height, of light but active make. Their strength is preserved and improved by moderation in their diet, and by exercise common to the military tribes, and which are calculated to increase the muscular force.

* The late General Sir John Floyd, Bart.

† This fact is stated upon the high authority of a respectable officer who belonged to the 19th Dragoons, and was with them on this memorable occasion.

Cawder Beg, late subadar of the fourth regiment, may be deemed throughout his life, as one of the most distinguished officers of the native cavalry at Madras. In 1790, he was attached to Colonel Floyd as an orderly subadar, when that officer, who had been reconnoitering with a small detachment, was attacked by a considerable body of the enemy's horse. Nothing but the greatest exertions of every individual could have saved the party from being cut off. Those of Cawder Beg were the most conspicuous, and they received a reward, of which he was proud to the last hour of his life: an English sabre was sent to him, with the name of Colonel Floyd upon it, and an inscription, stating that it was the reward of valour. But personal courage was the least quality of Cawder Beg: his talents eminently fitted him for the exercise of military command. During the campaign of 1799, it was essential to prevent the enemy's looties (a species of Cossack horse), from penetrating between the columns and the rear guard, and plundering any part of that immense train of provisions and luggage, which it was necessary to carry to Seringapatam. Cawder Beg, with two or three of his relations from the native cavalry and a select body of infantry, were placed under my orders. I was then political representative with the army of the subah of the Deckan, and commanded a considerable body of the troops of that prince. I had applied for Cawder Beg on account of his reputation, and prevailed upon Meer Allum, the leader of the subah's forces, to place a corps of 2,000 men of his best regular horse under the subadar's orders. Two days after the corps was formed, an orderly trooper came to tell me that Cawder Beg was engaged with some of the enemy's horsemen. I hastened to the spot with some alarm for the result, determined if Cawder Beg was victor, to reprove him most severely for a conduct so unsuited to the station in which he had been placed. The fears I entertained for his safety were soon dispelled, as I saw him advancing on foot with two swords in his hand, which he hastened to present to me, begging at the same time I would restrain my indignation at his apparent rashness till I heard his reasons; then speaking to me aside, he said 'Though the General of the Nizam's army was convinced by your statement of my competence to the command you have entrusted me with, I observed that the high-born and high-titled leaders of the horse he placed under my orders, looked at my close jacket,† straight pantaloons, and European boots with contempt, and thought themselves disgraced by being told to obey me. I was, therefore, tempted, on seeing a well-mounted horseman of Tip-poo's challenge their whole line, to accept a combat, which they declined. I promised not to use fire-arms, and succeeded in cutting him down; a relation came to avenge his death; I wounded him, and have brought him prisoner. You will' (he added, smiling,) 'hear a good report of me at the dubar (Court) of Meer Allum this evening, and the service will go on better for what has passed, and I promise most sacredly to fight no more single combats.'

When I went in the evening to visit the Meer Allum, I found at his tent a number of the principal chiefs, and among others those that had been with Cawder Beg, with whose praises I was assailed from every quarter. 'He was,' they said,

† The native troops in the English service wear a uniform very like that of Europeans.

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'a perfect hero, a Rustum;* it was an honour to be commanded by so great a leader.' The consequence was, as the subadar had anticipated, that the different chiefs who were placed under him vied in respect and obedience; and so well were the incessant efforts of this body directed, that scarcely a load of grain was lost; hardly a day passed that the activity and stratagem of Cawder Beg did not delude some of the enemy's plunderers to their destruction.

It would fill a volume to give a minute account of the actions of this gallant officer: he was the native aide-de-camp of General Dugald Campbell, when that officer reduced the ceded districts;† he attended Sir Arthur Wellesley (the present Duke of Wellington) in the campaign of 1803, and was employed by that officer in the most confidential manner. At the end of this campaign, during which he had several opportunities of distinguishing himself, Cawder Beg, who had received a pension from the English Government, and whose pride was flattered by being created an omrah‡ of the Deccan by the Nizam, retired; but he did not long enjoy the distinction he had obtained: he died in 1806, worn out with the excessive fatigue to which he had for many years exposed himself.

The body guard of the Governor of Madras has always been a very select corps, and the notice and attention with which both the native officers and men of the corps have invariably been treated, may be adduced as one of the causes which have led to its obtaining distinction in every service on which it has been employed.

On the 13th of May, 1791, Lord Cornwallis returned his thanks in the warmest manner to this corps and its gallant commanding officer, Captain Alexander Grant, for a charge upon the enemy. It obtained still further distinction under Captain James Grant, the brother of its former commander, when employed, in the year 1801, against the Poligars, a race of warlike men who inhabit the southern part of the Madras territory. There are indeed few examples of a more desperate and successful charge than was made, during that service, by this small corps upon a phalanx of resolute pikemen, more than double its own numbers; and the behaviour of Shaikh Ibrahim, the senior subadar (a native captain), on that occasion, merits to be commemorated.

This officer, who was alike remarkable for his gallantry, and unrivalled skill as a horseman, anticipated, from his experience of the enemy, all that would happen: He told Captain Grant what he thought would be the fate of those who led the charge at the same moment that he urged it, and heard, with animated delight, the resolution of his commander to attempt an exploit which was to reflect such glory on the corps. The leaders of the body guard and almost one-third of its number fell, as was expected; but the shock broke the order of their opponents, and they obtained a complete victory. Shaikh Ibrahim was pierced with several pikes, one was in the throat; he held his hand to this, as if eager to keep life till he asked the

* The Persian Hercules.

† These districts which were ceded to the English Government by the treaty of Seringapatam in 1799, lie between Mysore Proper and the territories of the Subah of the Deccan.

‡ He received the title of Cawder Nuaz Khan, or Cawder the favoured Lord.

fate of Captain Grant. The man of whom he inquired pointed to that officer, who was lying on the ground and apparently dead, with a pike through his lungs; the subadar, with an expression of regret that he had disdained to show for his own fate, pulled the pike from the wound, and instantly expired. His character and his behaviour in the last moment of existence are fully described in the following general order, which was issued on this occasion by the Government of Fort St. George:—

'A rare combination of talents has rendered the character of Shaikh Ibrahim familiar to the officers of the army; to cool decision and daring valour, he added that sober judgement, and those honourable sentiments that raised him far above the level of his rank in life. An exploit of uncommon energy and personal exertion terminated his career, and the last effort of his voice breathed honour, attachment, and fidelity.

'The Governor in Council, desirous of showing to the army his Lordship's sense of the virtue and attainments which have rendered the death of this native officer a severe loss to the service, has been pleased to confer on his family a pension equal to the pay of a subadar of the body guard, being 30 pagodas a month. And his Lordship has further directed that a certificate to this effect, translated into Persian and Hindoostanee, may be presented to the family, as a record of the gift, and a tribute to the memory of the brave subadar Shaikh Ibrahim.'

The posthumous praise given to Shaikh Ibrahim appeared to have inspired others with a desire to share his fate, that they might attain his fame. A jemadar of the same corps, some days afterwards, being appointed with a few select men to watch a road, where it was thought the chief whom they were attacking might try to escape, with one or two followers, determined, when a whole column came out, to make an attempt against its leader, and such was the surprise at seeing five or six horsemen ride into a body of between 200 or 300 men, that he had cut down the chief before they had recovered from their astonishment; he succeeded in riding out of the column, but was soon afterwards shot. He had, when he meditated this attack, sent a person to inform Captain J. Grant (who had recovered of his wounds) of his intention. 'The captain will discover,' he observed, 'that there are more Shaikh Ibrahims than one in the body guard.' Captain Grant, when the service was over, erected tombs over these gallant officers: a constant lamp is kept at them, which is supported by a trifling monthly donation from every man in the body guard, and the noble spirit of the corps is perpetuated by the contemplation of these regimental shrines (for such they may be termed) of heroic valour.

Shaikh Mohcedeen, a subadar of the body guard of Madras, who was one of the first officers appointed to the corps of native horse artillery, accompanied me to Persia, and was left with a detachment of his corps, under the command of Cap-

* Lord Clive (the present Lord Powis) was at this period Governor of Madras; and it is but justice to that nobleman to state, that virtue, talent, or valour, either in European or native, were certain, under his administration, of attaining distinction and reward.

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tain Lindsay, to aid in instructing the Persians in military tactics. This small body of men and their gallant European commander were engaged in several campaigns in Georgia, and this conduct has obtained not only for the subadar, but for all the men of his party, marked honours and reward, both from the Persian Government and their own. Their exertions received additional importance from the scene on which they acted, for it is not easy to calculate the future benefits which may result from the display of the superior courage and discipline of the native soldiers of India on the banks of the Araxes.

The native infantry of Madras is generally composed of Mahomedans and Hindoos of good caste: at its first establishment none were enlisted but men of high military tribes. In the progress of time a considerable change took place, and natives of every description were enrolled in the service. Though some corps that were almost entirely formed of the lowest and most despised races of men obtained considerable reputation, it was feared their encouragement might produce disgust, and particularly when they gained, as they frequently did, the rank of officers. Orders were in consequence given to recruit from none but the most respectable classes of society, and many consider the regular and orderly behaviour of these men as one of the benefits which have resulted from this system.

The infantry sepoy of Madras is rather a small man, but he is of an active make, and capable of undergoing great fatigue, upon a very slender diet. We find no man arrive at greater precision in all his military exercises; his moderation, his sobriety, his patience, give him a steadiness that is almost unknown to Europeans; but though there exists in this body of men a fitness to attain mechanical perfection as soldiers, there are no men whose mind it is of more consequence to study. The most marked general feature of the character of the native of India is a proneness to obedience, accompanied by a great susceptibility of good or bad usage; and there are few in that country who are more imbued with these feelings than the class of which we are now treating. The sepoys of Madras, when kindly treated, have invariably shown great attachment* to the service; and when we know that this class of men can be brought, without harshness or punishment, to the highest discipline, we neither can nor ought to have any toleration for those who pursue a different system; and the commander-in-chief is unfit for his station who grants his applause to the mere martinet, and forgets, in his temperate zeal, that no perfection in appearance and discipline can make amends for the loss of the temper and attachment of the Native soldiers under his command.

We discover in the pages of Orme many examples of that patient endurance of privations and fatigue, and that steady valour, which has since characterized the native infantry of Madras. Their conduct in the war against Hyder Ally in 1766, was such as justly to entitle them to admiration. In the battle of Trinomalee and Molwaggie they displayed all the qualifications of good and steady soldiers; and it

* In old corps, that have been chiefly recruited within the territories which have been long in the possession of the Company, desertion is of very rare occurrence.

The first battalion of the 3d native infantry marched, in 1803, from near Madura (of which district, and Trichinopoly, a great proportion of its men were natives), to the banks of the Taptee, a distance of above 1,000 miles, without one desertion!

was during this war that the 5th battalion of native infantry, commanded by Capt. Calvert, distinguished itself by the defence of Ambore, and obtained the honour of bearing a representation of that mountain fortress on one of its standards. To the campaigns of Sir Eyre Coote we have already alluded, and have spoken of the unshaken fidelity which the sepoy of Madras evinced at that trying juncture; but if a moment was to be named when the existence of the British power depended upon its native troops, we should fix upon the battle of Portonovo. Driven to the seashore, attacked by an enemy exulting in recent success,* confident in its numbers, and strong in the terror of his name, every circumstance combined that could dishearten the small body of men on whom the fate of the war depended: not a heart shrunk from the trial. Of the European troops it is of course superfluous to speak; but all the native battalions appear, from every account of the action, to have been entitled to equal praise on this memorable occasion; and it is difficult to say whether they were most distinguished when suffering with a patient courage, under a heavy cannonade, when receiving and repulsing the shock of the flower of Hyder's cavalry, or when attacking in their turn the troops of that monarch, who, baffled in all his efforts, retreated from this field of anticipated conquest with the loss of his most celebrated commander and thousands of his bravest soldiers.

I shall not dwell upon the different actions in the war against Tippoo and the Mahrattas, in which the Madras sepoy signalized themselves, but merely state some anecdotes of corps and individuals which appear calculated to give a fair impression of the general character of this class of the defenders of our empire in India.

The natives of India have, generally speaking, a rooted dislike to the sea; and when we consider the great privations and hardships to which Hindoos of high caste are subject on a long voyage, during which some of them, from prejudices of caste, subsist solely on parched grain, we feel less surprise at the occasional mutinies which have been caused by orders for their embarkation than at the zeal and attachment they have often shown upon such trying occasions.

A mutiny had occurred in the 9th battalion when ordered to embark for Bombay, in 1779 or 1780, which however had been quelled by the spirit and decision of its commandant, Captain Kelly. A more serious result had accompanied a similar order for the embarkation of some companies of a corps in the Northern Circars, who, when they came to Vizagapatam, the port where they were to take shipping,

* The defeat of Colonel Baillie's detachment, which occurred at the commencement of this war. The defeat has been variously attributed to bad arrangements in the general plans of the campaign, to mismanagement on the part of the commanding officer, and to the misconduct of the native troops. It is probable all these causes combined to produce this great misfortune; but we must recollect that the native battalions that were chiefly accused of bad behaviour on this occasion were raw levies, who had never before seen service, and most of whom had hardly been in the army a sufficient time to be disciplined. The men composing these corps had been hastily raised in the Circars, or northern possessions of Madras, and their conduct created a prejudice (which experience has since proved to be unjust) against recruits from this quarter.

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had risen upon their European officers, and in their violence shot all except one or two who escaped on board the vessel appointed to carry their men.

These events rendered Government averse to a repetition of experiments which had proved so dangerous; but in the year 1795, when the island of Ceylon, and the possessions of the Dutch in the eastern seas were to be reduced, Lord Hobart,* who was then Governor of Fort St. George, made a successful appeal to the zeal and attachment of the native troops, who volunteered in corps for foreign service.

A still greater call for men was necessary when an army was formed, in 1797, for the attack of Manilla, and many of the best battalions in the service showed a forwardness to be employed in this expedition. Among these, one of the most remarkable for its appearance and discipline was a battalion of the 22d regiment. This fine corps was commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel James Oram,† an officer not more distinguished for his personal zeal and gallantry, than for a thorough knowledge of the men under his command, whose temper he had completely preserved, at the same time that he had imparted to them the highest perfection in their dress and discipline. When he proposed to his corps, on parade, to volunteer for Manilla, they only requested to know whether Colonel Oram would go with them: the answer was, 'he would.' 'Will he stay with us?' was the second question. The reply was in the affirmative; the whole corps exclaimed 'to Europe, to Europe!' and the alacrity and spirit with which they subsequently embarked showed they would as readily have gone to the shores of the Atlantic as to an island of the Eastern Ocean. Not a man of the corps deserted from the period they volunteered for service till they embarked; and such was the contagion of their enthusiasm, that several sepoya who were missing from one of the battalions in garrison at Madras were found, when the expedition returned, to have deserted to join the 22d under Colonel Oram. This anecdote is stated with a full impression of the importance of the lesson it conveys. It is through their affections alone that such a class of men can be well commanded.

I find in the Madras native army many instances of unconquerable attachment to the service to which they belong. Among these none can be more remarkable than that of Syud Ibrahim, commandant of the Tanjore cavalry, who was made prisoner by Tippoo Sultan in 1781. The character of this distinguished officer was well known to his enemy, and the highest rank and station was offered to tempt him to enter into the employment of the state of Mysore. His steady refusal occasioned his being treated with such rigour, and was attended, as his fellow-prisoners (who were British officers) thought, with such danger to his life, that they,

* Lord Hobart, afterwards Earl of Buckinghamshire, (at whose desire this memorandum was written), was very successful in inspiring zeal in every branch of the Government under his charge, and his attention was peculiarly directed to the conciliation of the natives. The local information he acquired at this period was subsequently matured by a study of the general interests of the Indian empire; and the life of this virtuous nobleman terminated at a moment when his services, from the high station he had attained of President of the Board of Control, were most valuable to his country.

† This officer has been dead upwards of 15 years.

from a generous feeling, contemplating his condition as a Mahomedan and a native of India as in some essential points different from their own, recommended him to accept the offers of the Sultan; but the firm allegiance of Syud Ibrahim would admit of no compromise, and he treated every overture as an insult. His virtuous resolution provoked at last the personal resentment of Tippoo, and when the English prisoners were released in 1784, the commandant was removed to a dungeon in the mountain fortress of Couley Droog, where he terminated his existence. His sister, who had left her home, the Carnatic, to share the captivity of her brother, was subsequently wounded in the storming of Seringapatam. She, however, fortunately recovered, and the Government of Fort St. George granted her a pension of 52 pagodas and a half per month, or £250. per annum, being the full pay of a native commandant of cavalry. A tomb was also erected at the place where Syud Ibrahim died; and Government endowed it with an establishment sufficient to maintain a fakeer or priest, and to keep two lamps continually burning at the shrine of this faithful soldier.

Among the many instances of the effect which pride in themselves, and the notice of their superiors, inspire in this class of troops, I may state the conduct of the first battalion of the eighth regiment of infantry, which became, at the commencement of his career in India, a favourite corps* of the Duke of Wellington. They were with him on every service; and the men of his corps used often to call themselves 'Wellesley ka Pulten, or Wellesley's battalion, and their conduct on every occasion was calculated to support the proud title they had assumed. A staff officer,† after the battle of Assaye, saw a number of the Mahomedans of this battalion assembled, apparently for a funeral; he asked whom they were about to inter; they mentioned the names of five commissioned and non-commissioned officers of a very distinguished family in the corps. 'We are going to put these brothers,‡ into one grave,' said one of the party. The officer, who was well acquainted with the individuals who had been slain, expressed his regret, and was about to offer some consolation to the survivors, but he was stopped by one of the men: 'There is no occasion,' he said, 'for such feelings or expressions; these men (pointing to the dead bodies) were sepoy (soldiers); they have died in the performance of their duties; the Government they served will protect their children, who will soon fill the ranks they lately occupied.'

* This corps, some years before the period of which we are now speaking, attained very high reputation under Captain Dunwoody, an officer whose memory continues to be respected and cherished in the native army of Fort St. George.

† The respected and distinguished officer, the late Sir Robert Barclay, to whom we owe this and the following anecdote of the Madras troops, concludes a note he had been kind enough to write on the subject with the following remark:—"I have seen (he observes) the Madras sepoy engaged in great and trifling actions more than 50 times; I never knew them behave ill, or backward, but once, when two havildars (or serjeants) that were next to me, quitted their post, from seeing the fire chiefly directed to me; but it is (he adds) but justice to state that, on other occasions, I have owed my life to the gallantry of my covering havildar."

‡ The term 'brothers' extends, in India, to first cousins.

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Though sensible I have dwelt too long upon this part of my subject, I cannot forbear recording an example of that patience with which the native troops meet privation and distress. In 1804, the subsidiary force in the Deccan, commanded by Colonel Haliburton, was inclosed between two rivers, which became suddenly so swollen as to cut off their supplies of provisions. It was a period of general famine, and the communication was cut off with the grain dealers, from whom alone they could expect a supply. All the rice in camp was found to be barely sufficient for five days' allowance, at a very reduced rate, to the European part of the force. Issues to the sepoys were stopt, but while they were left to the scanty subsistence they might be able to procure for themselves, they were appointed the sole guards over that grain, from all share in which they were from necessity excluded. This duty was performed with the strictest care, and the most cheerful submission. Fortunately the waters subsided, and an ample supply prevented their feeling that extreme of famine, the prospect of which they had contemplated with an attention to discipline and a composure of mind which even astonished those best acquainted with their habits of order and obedience.

Bombay Army.—It was at Bombay that the first native corps were disciplined by the English. Of the exact date I am ignorant, but regular sepoys are noticed in the account of the transactions of that part of India some time before they were embodied at either Madras or Bengal. A corps of 100 sepoys from Bombay, and 400 from Tellicherry, is mentioned as having joined the army at Madras in A.D. 1747, and a company of Bombay sepoys, which had gone with troops from Madras to Bengal, were present at the victory of Plassey. The sepoys at Bombay continued long in independent companies, commanded by subadars or native captains. As the possessions and political relations of that settlement were enlarged, its army increased. The companies were formed into battalions under European officers; and during the war with the Mahrattas, A. D. 1780, we find the establishment consisting of 15 battalions. These, at the termination of the war with Tippoo, 1783, were reduced to six, and one battalion of marines. In 1788, its numbers were augmented to twelve battalions. In 1796, it was reformed into an establishment of four regiments of two battalions each, from which it has been progressively raised, by the acquisition of territory and subsidiary alliances, to its present establishment.

The men of the native infantry of Bombay* are robust and hardy, and capable of enduring great fatigue upon very slender diet. This army has, from its origin to the present day, been indiscriminately composed of all classes, Mahomedans, Hindoos, Jews, and some few Christians. Among the Hindoos, those of the lowest tribes of Mahrattas and the Purwarrie, Soortees and Frost† sects, are much more numerous than the Rajpoots and higher castes. Jews have already been favourite soldiers in this army, and great numbers of them attain the rank of commissioned

* Since this was written, a considerable change has taken place in the composition of the Bombay native army.

† The Purwarrie are generally from the southward of Bombay, the Frosts and Soortees from the northward. These are men of what is termed very low caste, being hardly above what are called pariahs, on the coast of Coromandel.

officers.* It is probably owing to the peculiar composition, and to the local situation of the territories in which they are employed, that the sepoy of Bombay have at all periods been found ready to embark on foreign service. They are, in fact, familiar to the sea, and only a small proportion of them are incommoded in a voyage by those privations to which others are subject from prejudices of caste. But this is only one of the merits of the Bombay native soldier: he is patient, faithful, and brave, and attached in a remarkable degree to his European officers. There cannot be a class of men more cheerful under privation and difficulties. I question, indeed, if any army can produce more extraordinary examples of attachment to the government it served and to its officers than that of Bombay.

Towards the close of the war with Tippoo, in 1782, the whole of the force under General Mathews were made prisoners. The Sultan, sensible of the advantages he might derive from the accession of a body of well-disciplined men, made every offer that he thought could tempt the English sepoy into his service, but in vain. He ordered them to work upon his fortifications, particularly Chittledroog, which was very unhealthy, upon a seer (two pounds) of raggy (a small grain like mustard seed) and a pice (about a halfpenny) per day. On this pittance they were rigidly kept at hard labour through the day, and in close confinement at night, subject to the continued insults of their guards; but neither insults, oppression, nor sickness, could subdue their fidelity; and at the peace in 1783, 1,500† of the natives of India, who had been made prisoners near the mountains of the coast of Malabar, marched a distance of 500 miles to Madras to embark on a voyage of six or eight weeks, to rejoin the army to which they belonged at Bombay. During the march from Mysore the guards of the Sultan carefully separated those men, whenever they encamped, by a tank (a large reservoir) or some other supposed insurmountable obstacle, from the European prisoners, among whom were their officers. Not a night passed (I write from a paper of an officer of distinction who was a witness of what he states) that some of the sepoy did not elude the vigilance of their guards by swimming across the tank, or by passing the sentries, that they might see their officers, to whom they brought such small sums as they had saved from their pittance, begging they would condescend to accept the little all they had to give. "We can live upon any thing (they used to say,) but you require mutton and beef."

To the service in Egypt, in 1800, the Bombay troops proceeded with the same alacrity as to every other, and neither the new disorders (to them) of the ophthalmia or plague, from both of which they suffered, abated in the least degree their ardour. It happened that this force, and that from Bengal, were too late to share in the fame which our arms acquired in Egypt: but we can hardly contemplate an

* I write from a memorandum of an officer of rank and experience in the Bombay army. He observes, 'the Jews are clean, obedient, and good soldiers, make excellent non-commissioned and commissioned officers, until they arrive at an advanced age, when they often fall off, and turn drunkards.'

† A considerable number of the sepoy taken with General Mathews had, at the hazard of their lives, made their escape from the Sultan, and reached Bombay, through the Mahratta territories.

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event in any history more calculated to inspire reflection on the character of that transcendent power which our country had attained, than the meeting of her European and Indian army on the shores of the Mediterranean.

During the progress of the war with France, subsequent to 1803, several parties of the Marine battalions of Bombay sepoys were captured on board of the Company's cruisers and carried to the Isle of France, where they were treated in a manner that reflects no credit upon the local government of the island, which probably expected that the hardships they endured would make them give way to the temptations continually held out, and induce them to take service; but in this they were disappointed: not one of those men could be persuaded to enter into the employment of the enemies of Great Britain; and when the Isle of France was captured, they met with that notice which they had so well merited. The Government of Bombay granted to every individual who survived his captivity a silver medal, as a memorial of the sense which it entertained of his proved fidelity and attachment.

From the documents in my possession, many examples of individual heroism in the Bombay sepoy might be given, but I shall content myself with two, which will show in a very strong point of view the nature of their attachment to their European officers.

Four years ago, when the commanding officer* of a battalion on the Bombay establishment was proceeding along the banks of a ravine, with eight or ten men of his corps, to search for some lions, which had been seen near the cantonment of Kaira, in Guzerat, a royal tiger suddenly sprang upon him. The ground gave way, and the tiger and Major Hull rolled together to the bottom of the ravine. Though this fall prevented the latter from being killed by the first assault, still his fate seemed certain; and those who know, from having witnessed it, the terror which the attack of this fierce animal inspires, can only appreciate the character of that feeling which led every sepoy who was with him to rush at once to his succour. The tiger fell under their bayonets, though not before it had wounded two of the assailants most desperately; one having lost his leg, and the other been so lacerated as to be rendered unfit for future service as a soldier. These wounds, however, were deemed trivial by those who sustained them, when they saw that the officer whom they loved had escaped unhurt from his perilous situation.

The second example of this strong feeling of duty is still more remarkable, as it was not merely encountering danger, but a devotion to certain death. I take the account of the transaction from a document† in which it was recorded at the period of its occurrence.

In 1797, Captain Pakenham, in His Majesty's ship *Resistance*, accompanied by some small vessels of war belonging to the Company, took possession of Copang, the chief Dutch settlement on the eastern Isle of Timor. Lieutenant Frost, of the Bombay marine, commander of the *Intrepid* cruiser, who was to be appointed Governor of Copang, had taken a house on shore, where he expected Captain Pakenham to meet the Dutch Governor, and make arrangements for the future ad-

* The present Lieutenant-Colonel Hull.

† Madras newspaper, 27th Sept. 1797.

ministration of peace. The Malays had formed a plan, by which it was settled that the moment Captain Pakenham landed to attend this meeting, they were to rise and murder all the Englishmen on shore. Fortunately something occurred to induce Captain Pakenham to defer his visit; but he sent his boat, and its reaching the beach was the signal for the commencement of the massacre. Nearly 20 persons were slain. A large party had rushed to Lieutenant Frost's house. The head of his surgeon had been struck off, and his own destruction seemed inevitable, when two sepoys of the Bombay marine battalion, whom he had landed from his vessel, exclaimed to him, 'Save yourself by flight, we will fight and die;' at the same time exposing themselves to the fury of their assailants, and giving their commander time to escape to a boat. The sepoys, after a resistance as protracted as they could render it, were slain, and their heads exposed on pikes explained their fate to their lamenting companions on board the *Intrepid*. Captain Pakenham took prompt and ample vengeance of this treachery; he opened a heavy fire upon the place, under which he landed an efficient force, which defeated the Malays, who fled after losing 200 men.

Bengal Army.—I shall not dwell on details connected with the progress of this army, from a few companies who landed with Lord Clive in 1756, to its present number, which is nearly 100,000 effective native soldiers, commanded by about 2,248* European officers, but content myself with noticing those facts which appear best calculated to illustrate the disposition and character of the materials of which it is composed.

The first battalion raised in Bengal were 10 companies of 100 men each, commanded by a captain, with one lieutenant, one ensign and one or two serjeants. Each company had a standard of the same ground as the facings, with a different device, (suited to its subadar, or native captain), of a sabre, a crescent, or a dagger. The Company's colours, with the union in one corner, were carried by the grenadiers. The first battalions were known by the name of the captain by whom they were commanded, and though, in 1764, 19 corps received a numerical rank, corresponding with the actual rank of their commandants at that period, this did not prevent them from continuing to be known under their former appellation, or from assuming the name of a favourite leader; the 15th battalion, was raised in Calcutta in 1757, and called the Mathews, from the name of its first commander. This corps was with Colonel Ford in 1759, when that able officer, with 346 Europeans and 1,400 sepoys, besieged and took by storm the strong fortress of Masulipatam, making prisoners a French garrison, who, both in Europeans and natives, were nearly double his numbers. In this daring and arduous enterprise we are told by the historian of India that 'the sepoys (who lost in killed and wounded on the storm 200 men) behaved with equal gallantry as the Europeans, both in the real and false attacks.'† In 1763, in the wars with the Vizier of Oude, the 'Mathews,' which was with the force under the command of Major Adams, is stated

* This is independent of the officers of artillery and engineers, and of invalid corps. In 1760, the whole of the European officers in the service of the Company in Bengal amounted to 18 captains, 26 lieutenants, and 15 ensigns.

† Orme's History of India, vol. iii. p. 489.

when the Company's European regiment was broken by cavalry, to have nobly supported his Majesty's 84th regiment, whose courage restored the action. Major Adams died shortly afterwards, and a general mutiny of the whole force took place, in which the sepoys at first joined, but were soon after reclaimed to their duty. At the battle of Buxar, which was fought in 1764, all the native corps appear to have behaved well.

In 1782, 'the Mathews' was one of three Bengal corps who mutined, under an apprehension of being embarked for foreign service; and though the conduct of those corps* was remarkable for the total absence of that spirit of general insubordination and disposition to outrage by which mutinies of soldiery are usually marked, they were in the ensuing year broken and drafted into some other battalions. 'Thus fell 'the Mathews' (says Captain Williams), a corps more highly spoken of during the 26 years it existed than any battalion in the service; and at this day (he adds), if you meet any of the old fellows who once belonged to it, and ask them what corps they came from, they will erect their heads and say, 'Mathews ka Pultan,' or, 'Mathews' battalion.'

The present second battalion of the 12th regiment appears, from Captain Williams's account, to have been raised some months before 'the Mathews.' He indeed calls it the first raised battalion. This corps was at the battle of Plassey. It was named by the sepoys the Lal Pultan, or the Red† Battalion, and afterwards Gallis,‡ from the name of one of the first captains. It was associated with the

* I cannot refrain from giving the following account of this mutiny, which is written by an officer who witnessed it. It is very characteristic of the Bengal sepoys—'The mutiny, (this officer observes), excepting a general spirit of murmur and discontent, was confined to the single instance of refusing the service, and whilst in that state, preventing the march of two companies which were ordered to protect stores, &c. prepared for the expedition. The men were guilty of no violence of any description, and treated their officers with the usual respect. The discipline of the corps was carried on as usual; and notwithstanding some of the native officers and men who had acted the most conspicuous part were confined in the quarter-guards of their respective regiments, no attempt was made to release them. After a lapse of several weeks, a general court-martial was held, and two subadars and one or two sepoys were sentenced to death, by being blown away from the mouth of the cannon. The sentence was carried into execution, in the presence of those troops which had mutinied; excepting one other regiment, which was at the station, without the smallest opposition or even murmur; and the troops were marched round the spot of execution, amidst the mangled remains of their fellow soldiers, without any other apparent feeling than the horror which such a scene was calculated to excite, and pity for their fate'. (It was thus also at Barrackpore when the mutiny took place relative to proceeding to Rangoon.—R.M.M.)

The intended service was given up, and the regiments which had mutinied were pardoned in general orders; but on the return to the Bengal provinces of General Goddard's detachment, the officers and men of the regiments which had mutinied were drafted into those old battalions.

† Probably from its dress.

‡ The name of this officer (who is still alive) is Gallicz. The natives of India

Mathews in all its early service, particularly at Masulipatam, Gheretty, &c. ; but in 1764 it mutinied, on the pretext of some promises which were made to it having been broken. Having no apparent object, it was easily reduced to obedience; but Major Munro (afterwards Sir Hector Munro), who then commanded the army, thought a severe example necessary, and 28 of the most guilty were tried by a drum-head court-martial, and sentenced to death. Eight of these were directed to be immediately blown away from the guns of the force then at Choprah. As they were on the point of executing the sentence, three grenadiers, who happened to be amongst them, stepped forth, and claimed the privilege of being blown away from the right-hand guns. 'They had always fought on the right (they said), and they hoped they would be permitted to die at that post of honour.' Their request was granted, and they were the first executed. 'I am sure (says Captain Williams, who then belonged to the Royal Marines employed in Bengal, and who was an eye-witness of this remarkable scene) that there was not a dry eye among the marines, although they had been long accustomed to hard service, and two of them had actually been in the execution party which shot Admiral Byng in 1757.'

This corps subsequently distinguished itself in 1776 at the battle of Korah. It had been known originally as the first battalion. It was afterwards numbered the 9th, from the rank of its captain. In a new arrangement of the army it was made the 16th, then the 17th. By the regulations of 1796, it has become the 2d of the 12th regiment; and it has of late years, as we shall hereafter have occasion to mention, far outdone its former fame.

A detachment, composed of six native battalions, a corps of native cavalry, and a proportion of artillery, altogether amounting to 103 European officers, and 6,624 native troops, was in 17—sent from Bengal to the relief of the settlement of Bombay. Its first rendezvous was at Calpee, a town on the right bank of the Jumna, near Cawnpore, whence it commenced its march on the 12th June 1778. It reached Rajgurh, a town in Bundelcund, on the 17th August, where it halted so much longer than Mr. Hastings thought necessary, that he removed Colonel Leslie, the commanding officer, and appointed Lieutenant-Colonel Goddard to that charge. Under this active and enterprising officer it continued its route through Malwa and Candeish to Surat, presenting the extraordinary spectacle of a corps of the natives of Hindostan, under the guidance of a few officers, marching from the banks of the Ganges to the westernmost shores of India. During the five years that they were absent from home, the men of this detachment conducted themselves in the most exemplary manner, and acquired distinction in every service in which they were employed. I shall not repeat the warm and animated eulogium which Mr. Hastings passed upon this corps in one of the last general orders he issued to the army in Bengal, but all must subscribe to the truth of his observation, that their conduct showed that 'there are no difficulties which the true spirit of military enterprise is not capable of surmounting.'

The force detached to the Carnatic in 1781 was commanded by Colonel Pearse. It consisted of five regiments, of two small battalions (500 men each) of native in-

often corrupt English names in an extraordinary manner: Dalrymple is made into Dalduffe; Ochterlony, Lonyochter; Littlejohn, John Little; Shairp, Surrup, &c.

fantry, some native cavalry, and a proportion of artillery. This corps, which marched about 1,100 miles along the sea-coast, through the province of Cuttack, and the northern Circars to Madras, arrived at that Presidency at a most eventful period, and their services were eminently useful to the preservation of our power in that quarter. Among the many occasions which this detachment had of distinguishing itself, the attack on the French lines at Cuddalore in 1783 was the most remarkable. The Bengal sepoys that were engaged on that occasion behaved nobly. It was one of the first times that European troops and the disciplined natives of India had met at the bayonet. The high spirit and bodily vigour of the Rajpoots of the provinces of Behar and Benares (the class of which three-fourths of this army was then composed) proved fully equal to the contest. In a partial action, which took place in a sortie made by the French, the latter were defeated with severe loss; and the memory of this event continues to be cherished with just pride both by the officers and men of the Bengal native army. Had the result of this affair, and the character of these sepoys, been more generally known, some of our countrymen would have been freed from that excessive alarm which was entertained for the safety of our eastern possessions when the late despot of Continental Europe threatened them with invasion. I trust that every event that can seriously disturb the peace of our Indian empire is at a great distance; but if an European army had crossed the Indus, I should not tremble for its fate. I well know that the approach of such a force would strike no terror into the minds of men of whom I am writing, and that acting with British troops, and led by British officers, they would advance with almost as assured a confidence of victory against a mass of well-disciplined Europeans as against a rabble of their own untrained countrymen. They might fail; but they are too bold, and too conscious of their own courage and strength, ever to anticipate defeat.

I should feel hesitation in stating my sentiments so strongly on this subject, if I did not know them to be those which have been entertained and avowed by many eminent commanders,* who have had opportunities of forming a judgment upon this question. When Colonel Pearse's detachment, which had been reduced by service from 5,000 to 2,000 men, returned to Bengal after an absence of four years, the policy of Mr. Hastings heaped every distinction upon them that he thought calculated to reward their merits, or to stimulate others to future exertion of a similar nature. He visited this corps, and his personal conduct towards both the European officers and natives gave grace to his public measures. A lasting impression† was made on the minds of all; and every favour was doubled by the manner in which it was conferred.

* I can particularly quote the late Lord Lake. No officer ever saw troops under more varied and severe trials than he did the Bengal sepoys. He never spoke of them but with admiration; and was forward to declare, that he considered them equal to a contest with any troops that could be brought against them.

† An officer of rank and distinction (Major-General Sir Henry Worsley), who, when a young subaltern, was an eye-witness of this scene, observes, in a letter which he has written to me on the subject, 'Mr. Hastings, dressed in a plain blue coat, with his head uncovered, rode along the ranks. The troops had the most

The rebellion of Cheyt Singh, the Rajah of Benares, in 1781, must be familiar to all acquainted with Indian history. My purpose in mentioning it, is limited to the object of showing the conduct of the Bengal sepoy under one of the severest trials of fidelity to which they were ever exposed.

The numerous followers of the Rajah had risen upon two companies of sepoy appointed to guard the house in which he was placed under restraint, and killed and wounded the whole of them. The rashness of an European officer had led another party to slaughter in the streets of Ramnagur. Mr. Hastings, who was at Benares when these events occurred, had only a few companies of sepoy to guard his person, and even these he had no money to support. He summoned corps from different quarters to his aid; but when we reflect on the impression which the first success of Cheyt Singh had made, and consider that by far the greatest proportion of his troops with whom Mr. Hastings had overcome the dangers with which he was surrounded were men of the same tribe and country as those against whom they were to act, and that the chief, who was declared a rebel, had long been considered by many of them as their legitimate prince, we must respect the mind that remained firm and unmoved at so alarming a crisis. The knowledge Mr. Hastings had of the sepoy led him to place implicit trust in them on this trying occasion, and his confidence was well rewarded. Their habits of discipline, and their attachment to their officers and the service, proved superior to the ties of caste and of kindred. Not an instance of defection occurred, and the public interests were preserved and restored by their zeal and valour.

Before I make any remarks on the more recent parts of the history of the Bengal native infantry, I must offer some observations on the composition of the army of that Presidency. The cavalry is comparatively young; its formation on the present establishment was only just completed when the Mahratta war of 1803 commenced. Their conduct, however, in the severe service that ensued has justly raised their reputation, and they at present form a most efficient and distinguished branch of the army to which they belong.* The men are rather stouter than those in the same

striking appearance of hardy veterans. They were all as black as ink, contrasted with the sleek olive skins of our own corps. The sight of that day (he concludes) and the feelings it excited, have never been absent from my mind, to it, and to the affecting orders (which Mr. Hastings issued), I am satisfied I, in a great degree, owe whatever of professional pride and emulation I have since possessed.

* It is only to peruse the despatches of the late Lord Lake to be sensible of the excellence this corps very early obtained. I know few military exploits of cavalry more extraordinary than that which he performed with a column of three regiments of British light dragoons and three of native cavalry, supported by some horse artillery and a small reserve of infantry. With this corps his lordship pursued Jeswunt Row Holkar from Delhi, through the Douab, till he came up with and defeated him at Futtyghur. Lord Lake, in a despatch dated 18th November, in which he gives an account of this operation, observes, 'The troops have daily marched a distance of 23 or 24 miles. During the night and day previous to the action they marched 58 miles, and from the distance to which they pursued the enemy, the space passed over, before they had taken up their ground, must have exceeded 70 miles.'

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corps at Madras. The latter are almost all Mahomedans, and a considerable proportion of the Bengal cavalry are of the same race. The fact is, that with the exception of the Mahratta tribe, the Hindoos are not, generally speaking, so much disposed as the Mahomedans to the duties of a trooper; and though the Mahomedans may be more dissipated and less moral in their private conduct than the Hindoos, they are zealous and high-spirited soldiers, and it is excellent policy to have a considerable proportion of them in the service, to which experience has shewn they often become very warmly attached. In the native infantry of Bengal the Hindoos are in the full proportion of three-fourths to the Mahomedans. They consist chiefly of Rajpoots, who are a distinguished race among the Khiteree or military tribe. We may judge of the size of these men when we are told that the standard below which no recruit is taken is five feet six inches.* The great proportion of the grenadiers are six feet and upwards. The Rajpoot is born a soldier. The mother speaks of nothing to her infant but deeds of arms, and every sentiment and action of the future man is marked by the first impressions that he has received. If he tills the ground (which is the common occupation of this class), his sword and shield are placed near the furrow, and moved as his labour advances. The frame of the Rajpoot is almost always improved (even if his pursuits are those of civil life) by martial exercises; he is from habit temperate in his diet, of a generous, though warm temper, and of good moral conduct; he is, when well-treated, obedient, zealous, and faithful. Neither the Hindoo nor the Mahomedan soldier of India can be termed revengeful, though both are prone to extreme violence† in points which they deem their honour, of which they have a very nice

* Before 1796 it was always five feet six inches and a half. By an order in 1809, men may be taken for light infantry corps as low as five feet five inches.

† One instance is given in Captain William's narrative of the action of this violent spirit. In 1772, a sepoy of the now first battalion of the 10th regiment, who had suffered what he supposed an injury, fell out of the ranks when the corps was at exercise, and going up to Captain Ewens, the commanding officer, with recovered arms, as if to make some request, took a deliberate aim and shot him, then patiently awaited the death he had merited. I could give several examples of similar feeling; two will suffice. Captain Crook, formerly of the Madras cavalry, struck a sentry for allowing a bullock that brought water to his tent, to step over the threshold and dirty it. The man took no notice of what had occurred till relieved from his post; he then went to his lines, and a short time afterwards sought his captain, and taking deliberate aim at him, shot him dead upon the spot. He made no attempt to escape. He had avenged his honour from the blows he had received, and met with calmness and fortitude the death that was awarded as the punishment of his crime.

An officer (still living) was provoked at some offence the man had committed to strike a Madras native trooper under his command. On the night of the same day, as he was setting with another officer in his tent, the trooper came in, and, taking aim at him, fired; but, owing to the other officer striking his arm, the ball missed. As, however, he fell in the confusion, and the light was extinguished, his companion, who considered him killed, ran to obtain aid, and to seize the murderer,

sense, to be slighted or insulted. The Rajpoots sometimes want energy, but seldom, if ever, courage. It is remarkable in this class, that even when their animal spirits have been subdued so far as to cause a cessation of exertion, they show no fear of death, which they meet in every form it can present itself with surprising fortitude and resignation. Such is the general character of a race of men whose numbers in the army of Bengal amount to between 30,000 and 40,000, and of whom we can recruit in our provinces to any amount. But this instrument of power must be managed with care and wisdom, or that which is our strength may become our danger. It must always be recollected that minds of the caste we have described are alive to every impulse, and, from similarity of feeling, will all vibrate at the same touch. If we desire to preserve their attachment, we must continue to treat them with kindness, liberality, and justice; we must attend to the most trifling of their prejudices, and avoid rash innovations, but above all, those that are calculated to convey to their minds the most distant alarm in points connected with their usages or religion.

A detachment of Bengal native troops shared in the glory acquired by Lord Cornwallis in his war against Tippoo Sultan in 1790 and 1791. From that time till 1803, the only operation of any consequence in which they were engaged was a short campaign, in Rohilcund, in 1794. The rude and untrained, but fierce and hardy enemies against whom Sir R. Abercrombie had to act, were perhaps too much despised, and they took advantage of a confusion caused in his right wing, by the bad behaviour of the English commandant of a small body of half-disciplined cavalry, to make a furious charge, by which a most destructive impression was made on two battalions of sepoy and a regiment of Europeans.

Their desperate career was checked by the fire of the English artillery, by whose good conduct, and the steady valour of the other parts of the line, a victory was ultimately gained. The native troops never, perhaps, displayed more courage than on this trying occasion, and all regretted that the infamous* conduct of one man had caused such serious loss of officers and men in some of the most distinguished corps† of the army.

The campaigns of 1803 and 1804 present a series of actions and sieges, in every one of which the Bengal sepoy showed their accustomed valour. At the battles of

who had another pistol in his hand. The moment he was out of the tent, he heard the other pistol go off; and, on returning with a guard of men and some lights, he found that the trooper, conceiving that the first shot had taken effect, and that his honour was avenged by the death of the person who had insulted him, had, with the second pistol, shot himself through the head.

* The name of this officer was Ramsay. He escaped, by desertion, from the punishment he had so amply merited.

† The corps on the right of the army was the 13th battalion, which had been eminently distinguished against the French at Cuddalore. It had earned more laurels under its well known commander, Captain Norman Macleod, in the campaigns of Lord Cornwallis. Captain Ramsay's cavalry rode unexpectedly over this fine battalion, and 5,000 Rohillas charged it, before it could recover from the confusion into which it was thrown.

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Delhi and Laswarree they were as eminently distinguished as at the sieges of Agra and Deeg; and I may safely assert, that in the only two great reverses which occurred during the war, the retreat of Colonel Monson and the siege of Bhurtpore, the courage, firmness, and attachment of the native troops were more conspicuous than in its most brilliant periods. We know sufficient of the former operations to regret that no full and faithful account of them has yet been published; nor does Captain Williams's narrative supply this blank. I can only express my conviction, founded on a perusal of a private journal kept by an officer of the detachment, that in this disastrous retreat, the native troops (with the exception of a very few, who, after suffering almost unparalleled hardships, were deluded by the offers of the enemy to desert) behaved in the most noble manner. They endured the greatest privations and distresses during the march from the banks of the Chumbul in Malwa, where the most arduous movement was made, to their arrival at Agra, a distance of nearly 400 miles. They had at once to combat the elements (for it rained almost incessantly) and the enemy. Scenes of horror* occurred which were hardly ever surpassed; yet, though deprived of regular food and rest and harassed with continued attacks, their spirit was unbroken. They maintained throughout the most severe discipline, and I am assured that on many occasions, when their European officers, worn down by the climate and fatigue, appeared faint and desponding, the men next them exclaimed 'Keep up your heart, Sir, we will take you in safety to Agra.'† When in square, and sustaining charges from the enemy's horse, it more than once happened, when a musket was fired by a young soldier, that a veteran struck him with the butt end of his firelock, exclaiming, 'Are you mad, to destroy our discipline and make us like the rabble that are attacking us?'

The only serious impatience that the sepoy of this detachment showed was to be led against the enemy; and the manner in which they behaved on all occasions given them of signaling their valour showed that this feeling had its rise in no vain confidence. The flank companies, under Captain O'Donnell, were very successful in beating up the quarters of a considerable corps of the enemy on the 21st July. On the 24th of August, when all the detachment, which consisted of five battalions and six companies of sepoy, had been sent across the Bannas river, except the 2d battalion of the 2d regiment, and some piquets, Holkar brought up

* Particularly at the Chumbullee Nullah, a rapid torrent, at which the elephants were employed to carry the troops over. The animals becoming wearied or impatient, shook off those on their backs, numbers of whom were drowned. But a still more horrid scene ensued. The fatigued elephants could not bring over the followers. The Bheels, a mountain banditti, encouraged by Holkar, came down upon the unprotected females and children, whom they massacred in the most inhuman manner. It was on this extreme trial, that some of the gallant fellows, who had before suffered every hardship with firmness, gave way to despair. Several of them, maddened with the screams of their wives and children, threw themselves, with their firelocks, into the rapid stream, and perished in a vain attempt to aid those they loved more than life.

† I have been informed of this fact by officers to whom these expressions were used.

his infantry and guns to attack this corps, which not only defended its position, but advanced with the utmost gallantry, and obtained possession of several pieces of the enemy's artillery. It could not, however, be supported by the other parts of the force, who were divided from it by the river, and it was almost annihilated. Those who witnessed the attack which it made upon Holkar's line from the opposite bank of the Bannas speak with admiration of the heroism of the European officers, and of the gallant men whom they led to a momentary but fatal victory. At the close of this affair they saw a jemandar (native lieutenant) retiring towards the river, pursued by five or six men. He held the standard of his battalion in one hand, and a sword, with which he defended himself, in the other. When arrived at the river he seemed to have attained his object of saving the colours of his corps, and, springing with them into the current, sunk to rise no more.

There have been few officers who better understood the character of soldiers than the late Lord Lake; he had early discovered that of the Bengal sepoy; he attended to their prejudices, flattered their pride, and praised their valour. They repaid his consideration of them with gratitude and affection, and during the whole of the late Mahratta war* their zeal and devotion to the public service was increased by the regard and attachment which they entertained for the Commander-in-chief. Sufficient instances of this are recorded by Captain Williams. There is none, however, more remarkable than the conduct he pursued towards the shattered corps of Colonel Monson's detachment. He formed them into a reserve, and promised them every opportunity of signaling themselves. No confidence was ever better repaid, and throughout the service that ensued these corps were uniformly distinguished.

The conduct of the 2d battalion of the 12th regiment may be taken as an example of the spirit that animated the whole. This corps, which has been before noticed under its first name of 'Gallis,' or the Lal Pultan, had behaved with uncommon valour at the battle of Laswarree, where it had 100 men and three officers killed and wounded. It was associated on that occasion with His Majesty's 76th regiment, and shared in the praise which Lord Lake bestowed on 'the handful of heroes,' as he emphatically termed those whose great exertions decided that battle. It was with Colonel Monson's detachment, and maintained its high character in the disastrous retreat we have alluded to. But all its former deeds were outdone at the siege of Bhurtpore. It appears by a printed memorial which we have before us of its European commanding officer, that on the first storm of that fortress this corps lost 150 officers and men, killed and wounded, and did not retire till the last. On the third attack, when joined with the 1st battalion of the same regiment (amounting together to 800 men), it became the admiration of the whole army. The 2d battalion of the 12th regiment on this occasion not only drove back the enemy who had made a sally to attack the trenches, but effected a lodgement, and planted its colours on one of the bastions of the fort. Unfortunately this work was cut off by a deep ditch from the body of the place; and after the attack had failed the 12th regiment was ordered to retire, which they did reluctantly, with the loss of seven officers and 350 men, killed and wounded, being nearly half the number they had carried into action.

* The war of 1803-4

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Examples of equal valour might be given from many other corps during the war, and instances of individual valour might be noticed in any number, but more is not necessary to satisfy the reader of the just title of the Bengal sepoy to the high name which they have acquired; their conduct* throughout the arduous service in Nepal, where they had at once to contend with the natural obstacles of an almost impracticable country, and the desperate valour of a race of hardy mountaineers, has been worthy of their former fame. Since the conclusion of this war a small body of these troops has had an opportunity of exhibiting, in a most distinguished manner, that firmness, courage, and attachment to their officers and the service, which have always characterised this army. We allude to a recent occurrence of a most serious sedition at Bareilly, the capital of Rohilkund. The introduction of a police-tax, intended to provide means for the security of life and property, had spread alarm and discontent among an ignorant population, whose prejudices in favour of their ancient usages are so strong as to lead them to regard any innovation (whatever be its character) with jealousy and indignation. Acting under these feelings, the Rohillas of Bareilly, who are alike remarkable for their strength of body and individual courage, rose in a body to oppose the orders of the civil magistrate. They were influenced by a priest upwards of 90 years of age, who dug his grave, to indicate his resolution to conquer or die, and at whose orders the green flag, or standard of Mahomet, was hoisted, that religious feelings might be excited to aid the efforts which they now proclaimed themselves determined to make to effect the downfall of their European tyrants. What rendered this revolt more alarming, was the knowledge that the cause of the insurgents was popular over the whole country, and a belief that their success would be the signal for a general rise in the neighbouring provinces. All the force that could be collected to suppress this revolt was a detachment of between 300 and 400 sepoy of the 27th regiment of native infantry, and part of a provincial battalion, under Captain Boscawen, with two guns, and a party of about 400 Rohilla horse belonging to a corps lately embodied under Captain Cunningham. The former received, with undiminished courage, the charge of an undisciplined, but furious and desperate rabble, who, encouraged by their numbers, which exceeded 12,000 armed men,

* I know of few instances where more has been required from the zeal and valour of the native troops than in the late campaign against the Goorkhas. The great successes of Major-General Sir D. Ochterlo could only have been gained by the patience and courage of the troops being equal to the skill and decision of their commander, and in the spirited and able operations of Colonel Nicolls, Quarter-master-General of His Majesty's troops in India, against Almorah, where 800 sepoy, aided by a few irregulars, were led against 3,000 gallant mountaineers, who occupied that mountain fortress, and the heights by which it was surrounded. Victory could only have been obtained by every sepoy partaking of the ardour and resolution of his gallant leader. Of their conduct on this occasion we may, indeed, judge by the admiration with which it inspired Colonel Nicolls, who gave vent to his feelings in an order that does honour to his character. Speaking of an attack made by a party of sepoy grenadiers, he observes, 'this was an exploit of which the best troops of any age might justly have been proud.'

persevered in the attack till more than 2,000 of them were slain; and the latter, though of the same class and religion as the insurgents, and probably related to many of them by the ties of Hindred, proved equally firm as the sepoy to their duty. When their priest advanced and invoked them to join their natural friends, and to range themselves under the standard of their faith, only one man was found wanting in fidelity; he deserted, and was soon afterwards slain by his former comrades, who continued throughout to display prompt obedience, exemplary courage, and unshaken attachment to the officer by whom they were led.

However slight this affair may seem, I do not recollect any occurrence in the history of British India more calculated to show the dependence of our power on the fidelity of our native troops, and the absolute necessity of adopting every measure by which their attachment can be confirmed and approved.

It is by treating the sepoy with kindness and consideration, by stimulating their pride, and by attending, in the most minute manner, to their feelings and prejudices, that we can command, as has been well observed, 'their lives through the medium of their affections;' and so long as we can, by these means, preserve the fidelity and attachment of that proportion of the population of our immense possessions in the East, which we arm to defend the remainder, our Empire may be considered as secure.

Subsequent to the date of this account, the native arms of India have fully maintained the high reputation they had achieved.

During the campaigns against the Mahrattas and Pindaries in 1817 and 1818, that in the territories of Ava, and the siege of Bhurratpore in 1826, these troops evinced all the military qualities of zeal, attachment to their colours, and gallantry for which they had been so long distinguished.

Each Presidency has its separate army, commander-in-chief, staff, &c.; but the commander-in-chief of the Supreme Government has a general authority over all the Presidencies. The total armed force in British India is about 194,000 men: it may be said to consist of three branches, viz. King's cavalry and infantry; E. I. Company's *European* engineers, artillery, and infantry; and the Company's *Native* artillery, cavalry, and infantry.

The *European* officers serving in British India are at present in number and distribution as follows:*

* I am indebted for these late returns of the Anglo-Indian army to Colonel Salmond of the Military Department at the India House, who, with the permission of the Court of Directors, has furnished me with much valuable information.

	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers	56	37	42	135
European Horse	53	35	24	112
Artillery	68	26	26	120
Native Horse	13	—	—	13
Ditto Foot	17	18	18	53
Cavalry.	59	30	30	119
Hon. Company's Regulars	140	107	48	295
Ditto Irregulars	23	220	—	243
Infantry.	29	220	155	504
Do. Native Regulars	1070	692	485	2247
Do. Irregulars.	35	—	—	35
Staff	94	94	80	268
Medical Department	194	128	72	394
Commissariat ditto	25	25	13	63
Pioneer's Corps*	—	—	—	—
Warrant officers of Artillery	58	67	49	174
Total	2147	1335	992	4474

The total number of European officers it will be observed is 4,487,† of whom 752 are in the King's military service. The complement of officers to each regiment is, of *Europeans*, one colonel, one lieut.-colonel, one major, five captains, eight lieutenants, four cornets or ensigns; of *Native* commissioned officers there are a subadar and jemadar with each troop or company. The command of stations is given to brigadiers, of whom there are, in Bengal 16, in Madras 12, and in Bombay 7. The divisional commands, under general officers, are—Bengal, King's, 2; E. I. Company, 5; Madras, King's, 2; E. I. Company, 3; Bombay, King's, 1; E. I. Company, 2. Total, King's, 5; E. I. Company, 10.

The average number of European officers in Bengal, an-

* There is now no separate pioneer corps. The pioneers and sappers and miners are embodied in one corps, called the Engineer Corps.

† Included in European horse artillery.

‡ On the Bengal establishment there are ninety-nine corps, namely;— 3 of horse artillery, 7 of foot artillery; a corps of engineers equal to 3 others in the strength of its officers; 10 of native cavalry; 2 of European infantry, and 74 of native infantry. In each of these the European commissioned officers consist of 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 major, 5 captains, 8 lieutenants, and 4 second lieutenants, cornets, or ensigns. The total establishment thus, is 1,980; or 99 colonels, the same of lieutenant-colonels, and of majors; 495 captains, 792 lieutenants, 396 ensigns, and about 180 supernumeraries of the junior rank, awaiting the process of absorption.

nually for the last 18 years, has been 1,754; of casualties, 80 per annum, or 1 in 22; of deaths, 54, or 1 in 32; and of retirement, &c. 26, or 1 in 67. In Madras, total number of officers, 1,346; of casualties, 75, or 1 in 18; of deaths, 52, or 1 in 26; and of retirements, &c. 23, or 1 in 58. In Bombay, total number of officers, 624; of casualties, 34, or 1 in 18; of deaths, 26, or 1 in 24; of retirements, &c. 8, or 1 in 78. (For tables of each department of the service, pay, allowances, &c. see *Appendix*.)

The total casualties of commissioned officers in the E. I. Company's army at the three Presidencies, from 1813 to 1833, has been yearly, 169, 154, 159, 143, 150, 203, 198, 167, 194, 164, 168, 260, 233, 244, 233, 163, 193, 204, 244, 227, 228.

In 1835, the number of high ranked officers of the E. I. Company's service attached to the Indian army establishment,

	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Lieutenant-Generals	6	10	0	16
Major-Generals	9	9	3	21
Colonels	84	51	34	169
	99	70	37	206
In Europe	55	50	29	134
On service	44	20	8	72

The lieutenant-colonels at the same period amounted to 206, majors 206, captains 1,030, and subalterns 2,472. In the Company's army there is no half-pay list, no sinecures, and no pensioners under 25 years' service; until that period is completed, European commissioned officers are not enabled to retire on the full pay of their rank, which is attained by seniority. A lieutenant-colonel, major, or captain, retires on the half-pay of his rank, if his health requires his relinquishing the service, and a lieutenant having served 13, or an ensign 9 years (including 3 years for a furlough) may retire on ill-health certificates, on the half-pay of their rank. There are military funds to which liberal subscriptions are made by the Company's Government, but the charges are principally borne by the officers themselves. The general servitude of the officers in the Company's army is thus shewn:—

The officers in the Company's service receive commissions from His Majesty corresponding with those which they receive from the E. I. Company; but westward of the Cape of Good Hope, the Company's officers possess no rank when on service with the King's officers; eastward of it they take precedence according to date and rank of commission. It is but justice to state, that in no part of the globe can there be found a braver or more gentlemanly community than the officers in the Company's service.*

The following table shews the number of European non-commissioned officers and rank and file in India, and the corps and presidencies to which they belong:—

Corps.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers.....	24†	28†	28†	77
European Horse.....	998	455	471	1,924
Artillery { Ditto Foot.....	2,076	1,431	547	4,054
Native Horse.....	8	2	2	12
Cavalry { His Majesty's Regiments.....	1,302	459	603	2,364
Hon. Co.'s ditto.....	30	18	0	48
H. M. European.....	6,643	2,225	1,701	10,569
Infantry { Hon. Co.'s ditto.....	933	756	783	2,472
Do. Native Regulars.....	146	104	11	261
Do. do. Irregulars.....	17	17
Staff.....	92	87	30	209
Invalids ditto.....	177	266	33	476
Total.....	11,768	8,051	5,040	24,859

* The officers for the E. I. C.'s artillery and engineers are educated at Addiscomb College, near Croydon, in the oriental languages, as well as in military discipline. Each cadet pays 65*l.* the first year, and 50*l.* the second. The cadets are clad in uniform, and get their appointments as soon as qualified. The examination is very strict, and if a lad fails for the engineers or artillery, but evinces general talent and diligence, he is recommended for the infantry. The E. I. Company purchased Addiscomb College and grounds in 1810 for 17,251*l.*; the building cost 82,869*l.*; and the total expenditure from 1810 to 1830 was 366,154*l.*, of which 37,136*l.* was for instructing the cadets in trigonometrical surveys and the art of sapping and mining, &c.; for books, stationery, and mathematical instruments, 18,752*l.*; and the rewards to cadets for industry and talent amounted in four years to 1,600*l.* The total number of cadets educated during the period has been two thousand and ninety; and to the excellence of the establishment, the success and extraordinary formation of the E. I. Company's fine army is pre-eminently due, while the expenditure on each cadet has not averaged 98*l.* (Vide Table of College Expenditure, Appendix.)

† This includes pioneers, as well as sappers and miners, which are now all embodied in one corps, called the Engineer Corps.

The total number of European troops in India (exclusive of commissioned officers) is 30,975, of whom 19,540 belong to His Majesty's cavalry and infantry regiments. The number of King's troops serving in India from 1813 to 1850, has been annually as follows: 21,490, 20,049, 19,828, 20,432, 19,709, 20,110, 17,680, 16,743, 16,290, 15,876, 16,652, 16,395, 16,683, 16,882, 18,249, 19,612, 20,132, 20,292. The cost of these troops (*defrayed by the natives of India*, not by the British public) varied from 800,000*l.* to 1,000,000*l.* a year, independent of charges at home—(viz. 60,000*l.* a year for half pay, &c.) The E. I. Company are authorized by Parliament to raise annually, in the United Kingdom, a certain number of men for the supply of their Indian Army; and in virtue of this authority, they have recruited and sent abroad during the last 11 years 17,000 men, of whom 800 were dispatched to the St. Helena regiments. Their depôt is at Chatham, under the command of a few staff officers; the service is a favourite one with the public, and the finest young men in the country annually engage in it; if steady and intelligent, they obtain rank as warrant officers, deputy commissaries, conductors of stores, &c.

Native commissioned officers in the Indian Army according to the latest returns.

Corps.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Engineers	58*	12*	19*	49
Artillery	5	7	..	12
Foot	46	52	24	94
Regulars
Cavalry	130	121	53	304
Regulars	130	..	19	149
Irregulars	1,187	604	297	2,088
Infantry	165	..	13	177
Regulars
Irregulars	219	100	68	387
Native Doctors
Total	1,913	950	683	3,416

The native officers are in fair proportion to the Europeans. The total number of native officers is 3,416, of whom 387 are native doctors, carefully educated in the Eu-

* This includes pioneers as well as sappers and miners, which are now all embodied in one corps, called the Pioneer Corps.

European principles of medicine and chirurgery. The native officers are raised from the ranks according to their merit, and are a most exemplary body of men, grey in years and experience, they are well calculated to be the intermediate link between the European and the Sepoy soldier. Their steadiness of character and dashing bravery in the field (whether Hindoo or Moslem) has been previously shewn, and it is regretted that they are not enabled to attain a higher rank than subordinate to the youngest European Ensign. Killadars or Commandants of forts should be allotted for the veterans—and every General Officer should have one or two native Aide-de-Camps.

The number of native non-commissioned officers and rank and file in India, and the corps to which they belong, are—

Corps	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers.....	1,621*	1,069*	809*	3,499
European Horse	100	100
Ditto Foot.....
Native Horse	344	478	†	822
Artillery { Ditto Foot Regulars.....	1,017	643	601	3,161
Ditto Irregulars
Gun Lascars	1,246	533	841	2,720
Ordnance Drivers	755	637	..	1,392
Cavalry { Regulars.....	4,980	3,910	1,355	10,245
Irregulars	3,448	..	836	4,284
Infantry { Regulars.....	84,201	38,238	18,547	140,986
Irregulars	9,598	..	912	10,508
Invalids	1,878	912	2,790
Total.....	78,107	47,384	24,923	150,514

These troops are composed of Hindoos and Mussulmans, &c. mixed in every regiment, in a greater or less proportion; and in discipline, cleanliness, sobriety, and bravery, they are unsurpassed by any body of men. The native artillery make it a point of honour to be cut down at their guns rather than desert them, and wherever a British officer will lead it has rarely or never been found that his sepoy will not follow. The native cavalry are excellent and fearless riders, superior to Europeans, and good swordsmen; they are exceedingly fond of their horses, and take the best care of them: of the

* This includes pioneers as well as sappers and miners; which are now all embodied in one corps, called the Engineer Corps.

† No separate corps of horse artillery.

whole army it may be observed that no men are more alive to emulation; a medal is as highly prized by a sepoy as by a British soldier, and hundreds of instances of heroism could be related of them which would do honour to Greek or Roman story. The Bengal army is considered to possess the highest caste men, being principally Rajpoots; the Bombay sepoy is more a man of all-work, and the Madrasites are, perhaps, the hardiest race, but all are extremely tenacious of their rights, and adhere punctiliously to the customs which their religion ordains; any violation of either, particularly of the latter, has ever been attended with serious consequences. If the native troops become averse, or unfaithful, to those whose salt they eat, all the European troops which England could raise would be insufficient for the preservation of India.

The distribution of the Indian army according to the latest returns.

BENGAL.

Divisions of the Army.	Europeans.	Natives.	Total.
Presidency (Calcutta)	3,472	14,448	17,912
Dinapore	1,164	4,594	5,758
Fortress of Buxar	51		51
Benares	932	4,248	5,180
Fortress of Allahabad	33	1,500	1,533
Cawnpore	2,144	11,837	13,981
Meerut	3,306	16,105	19,411
Sirhind	1,407	6,797	8,204
Sangoor	198	6,258	6,456
Rajpootanah Field Force	192	4,375	4,567
Meywar Do.	84	4,395	4,479
Malwa Do.	281	4,124	4,405
	13,254	68,673	90,937

MADRAS.

Centre Division	2,394	8,981	11,375
Mysore Division	1,766	8,202	9,968
Malabar and Kanara	764	2,312	3,076
Northern Division	510	7,555	8,065
Southern Do.	1,026	5,877	6,903
Ceded Districts	981	1,495	2,476
Hyderabad Subsidiary Force	1,080	5,719	6,799
Nagpore Do.	1,139	3,961	5,090
Tennasserim Provinces	154	766	920
Prince of Wales Island and its Dependencies	87	1,704	1,791
	9,901	46,562	56,493

314 SUBSIDIARY FORCES—THE NIZAM'S, OUDE, GUICOWAR'S, &c.

BOMBAY.

Divisions of the Army.	Europeans.	Natives.	Total.
Presidency Garrison	978	2,896	3,874
Southern Division	1,080	5,936	7,016
Poonah Do.	3,012	6,559	6,871
Northern Do.	1,157	9,760	10,917
Sattarah Subsidiary	14	745	759
Asseerghur Fortress	11	742	753
	6,252	26,638	30,190

The establishment of King's regiments in India is—Bengal cavalry, 2; infantry, 8; Madras, cav., 1; inf., 8. Bombay, cav., 1; inf., 2.

Grand total of King's and Company's military force:

Corps.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total
Engineers*	1,799	1,681	906	4,386
Artillery	7,614	4,398	3,990	14,992
Cavalry	10,133	4,844	3,068	17,985
Infantry	73,643	48,860	33,953	149,456
Medical Department	413	328	140	781
Commissariat	35	35	13	63
Staff	192	181	116	483
Invalids	177	3,144	944	3,365
Total	99,925	59,337	32,157	189,399

The subsidiary Indian forces and contingents, where they are specified in treaties with the E. I. Company, are as follows:—*Subsidiary.* Oude not less than 10,000 men; the Nizam 2 regts. cavalry and 8 bats. of infantry; the Guico-

* European Commissioned Officers on staff, employ, and leave, beyond the limits of this Presidency, not included; European and Native Veterans are included in European and Native Infantry.

† Including sappers and miners, pioneer corps, &c.

The Hyderabad Subsidiary Force, stationed in His Highness the Nizam's dominions, is furnished from the Madras Presidency, and consists of the following troops: one bat. foot artil.; two troops of horse artil.; a park of heavy guns; two reg. native cavalry; one reg. of Europeans, and seven reg. of native infantry.

The Nizam's regular and irregular troops under the command of British officers are under the immediate control of the supreme Government, and consist as follows: four independent companies of artillery, with large establishments of field pieces and heavy guns; one regiment of engineers; eight regiments of regular infantry; one garrison battalion; one invalid

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war, 2 regts. of cav. and 4,000 sepoys; Nagpore not stipulated; Mulhar Rao Holkar, the strength judged adequate by

battalion; a body of invalids at Ellichapoor; and five regiments of irregular cavalry,

The payment of the Company's Hydrabad Subsidiary Force is provided for by treaty, and they are paid direct from the British treasuries through the military paymaster. As to the Nizam's troops, they are paid direct by the Nizam's Government, the total expense of which, it is said, amounts to about 42 or 43 lacs per annum.

The Seick Army of the Punjaub was, so late as the commencement of the current century, a mere military confederacy of predatory horse, and that gallant but unfortunate adventurer, George Thomas, considered them the most contemptible troops in Hindostan. The talent of Runjeet Sing has within the last twenty-five years established the military reputation of the Seicks, and this Prince now possesses a regular army, accustomed to war, full of ardour, and jealous of renown; the Seicks possess many qualities which admirably fit them for a military life; they are individually brave and athletic, and are free from those prejudices of caste, which detracts from the military classes of the native soldiery of British India. A Seick will eat of any thing but *beef*; his religion never requires him to undress at his meals, nor does it prescribe fasts, or inculcate any thing to interfere with the duties of a soldier; like the soldier of Europe, the Seicks are however not averse to the use of fermented liquors, and their Sirdars are notoriously addicted to the vice of drunkenness.

The French legion of Cavalry was formed by Monsieur Allard, senior; their uniform is blue with red facings, they are armed with the Polish lance, swords, and pistols; their system is that of the French Lancers. The men of these corps are much attached to General Allard, and these troops only require a few more European Officers to be nearly on a par with our regular Native Cavalry.

The regular infantry, under General Ventura, are also disciplined in the French drill; the words of command are mostly French; they are armed with firelocks and bayonets; these troops are regularly paid and clothed. Runjeet Sing's own personal body guard is a kind of legion of honour; these men are all arrayed in gorgeous dresses and rich armour, and compose the *elite* of the army. Their appearance in their red dresses with heron's plumes, and their martial aspect and blunt demeanor is truly imposing; these men are all tried shots, and at eighty yards can generally hit a small brass pot every time with a matchlock.

The foreigners or Hindoostanias of the Seick army are men from the provinces of British India, and receive a stipulated monthly pay; many of the Seick soldiers receive rations of grain, besides their pay. The avarice of Runjeet Sing has sometimes occasioned mutiny amongst the regular infantry; in one instance the Ghoorka Battalion, on being deprived of a portion of their pay, refused to receive the residue, and as no attention was paid to their complaint, open revolt ensued. Runjeet Sing directed some cavalry to charge the mutineers; the Ghoorka Battalion formed square and beat off the cavalry; the Maha Raja then became alarmed, and retired to the fort of Govind Gharra, when the French officers interposed, and induced the Ghoorkas to retire to their lines.

Monsieur Allard, the General of the regular cavalry, was a distinguished officer in the Imperial army of France, and is a man of high character and

the British Government; Travancore, 3 bats. of inf.; Cochin, 1 bat. do. Mysore and Cutch not specified. *Contingents* of native chiefs. The Nizam, 10 cav. and 12,000 inf.; Guicowar 3,000 cav.; Nagpore, 1,000 do.; Holkar, 3,000 do.; Mysore, 4,000 do. (central India): Joudpore, 1,500 do.; Ghuffoorkan, 600 do.; Bhopaul, 600 cav. and 400 inf.; and Dowlah and Purlumbghur, 50 cav. and 200 inf.; and Dewap, 100 cav. and 100 inf. The following chiefs, not included in the preceding list, are pledged to bring forward troops to the extent of their means when required by the Company's Government:—Rajahs of Bhurtpore and Machery; most of the Boondela chiefs; chiefs of Rajpootana and Malwa not enumerated above, and the Rajah of Sattarah. The military force of the Rajpoot States is 7,676 cav., and 27,788 inf. of which Kotah alone has 20,700 inf., and 4,200 cav. Sindia's army amounts to 10,000 cav., and 20,000 inf.; Holkar's force, 3,456 cav., and 2,000 inf.; the Rajah of Sattarah has 300 cav., and 5,000 infantry; Runjeet Sing's formidable force as given in the Meerut Observer, is detailed in the note.

conciliatory manners; he adopts the Seick costume in allowing his beard to grow, and has married a native woman; this officer wishes to return to France and has been endeavouring to induce the Mala Rajah to allow his younger brother to take charge of his command during his absence.

Monsieur Ventura, General of Infantry, served under Eugene Beauharnois in Napoleon's Russian campaign; he is a brave and intelligent officer, but a violent man.

GENERAL ABSTRACT OF THE SEICK ARMY.—Guns in different forts, 108; Do. Horse Artillery, 58; Do. Foot Artillery, 142; Total guns 308. Mortars, 6; Jamboorans on Camels, 305; Cavalry regular, 5,200; Do. irregular, 43,300; Total Cavalry, 48,500. Infantry regular 6,000; Do. irregular, 17,000; Total Infantry, 23,000. Golundaze, 1,500; Grand Total Army 73,000. The Horse Artillery of Runjeet's Army consist of guns of small calibre, and their field equipment resemble that of our late Foot Batteries; and consequently such Artillery would be utterly unable to cope with our Horse Artillery; still, as these guns are drawn by horses, their fire would be always available, which is not the case with Bullock Artillery.

In 1798 Tippoo Sultan's field army was estimated at 47,470 fighting men; and his revenues at one Crore of Rupees; Runjeet Sing's army amounts to 73,000 men, and his revenues to one Crore and eighty lakhs of rupees.

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DISTRIBUTION OF THE ARMY IN 1813 AND IN 1830. 317

	In 1813.		In 1830.		Increase since 1813.		Decrease since 1813.	
	Europ.	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.	Europ.	Natives.
BENGAL TROOPS.								
Bengal, Bahar and Cuttack	2,388	21,622	5,440	16,776	3,052	4,246
Country between Bahar and Oude, incl. Ganges Posts	1,494	5,885	1,362	4,693	132	1,252
Oude	155	6,309	143	4,909	12	1,500
Dooab and Territory between Ganges and Jumna	4,821	12,075	4,705	14,124	274	1,149
Rohilcund	47	1,943	64	3,863	17	1,920
Acquisitions from Nepal	41	3,583	41	3,583
Country west of the Jumna & north-west of Chumbul	765	19,688	2,233	15,987	1,468	3,071
Rajpootana	357	9,103	357	9,103
Ceded Districts in Nerbudda	246	5,187	246	5,187
Bundelcund	144	5,488	97	3,688	471,800
Malwa	340	4,693	340	4,693
Assam, Sylhet, Chittagong, and Arracan	19	1,103	84	4,776	65	3,673
Penang	21	1,020	21	1,020
Total	9,553	76,633	15,202	92,170	5,651	30,256	212	14,719
Exclusive of Troops at Java Fort Marlborough; Engineers, Escorts, Ordnance Drivers, Conductors, Staff, &c.								
	6,150	9,429	369	4,727				
Grand Total	15,703	86,062	15,701	96,897				
MADRAS TROOPS.								
Nizam's Dominions	1,136	9,455	1,347	6,811	211	1,644
Rajah of Berar's ditto	816	4,001	816	4,001
Northern Circars	394	4,753	944	6,714	350	1,961
Ceded Districts	1,002	7,588	1,069	4,472	67	3,116
Mysore	3,403	8,891	1,779	5,682	1,024	3,209
Carnatic	4,961	12,246	3,841	19,571	..	7,325	1,120	..
Portuguese Territories	464	2,329	464	2,329
Malabar and Canara	1,139	3,978	959	2,491	171	585
Travancore	498	3,969	169	2,455	324	454
Mal'ay Peninsula	37	18	1,141	2,772	1,104	2,754
Candish and Surat
Poona	30	575	30	575
S. Mahratta Country	78	2,456	78	2,456
Total	12,240	51,331	12,140	57,425	3,623	18,497	3,723	12,403
Exclusive of Engineers, Conductors of Ordnance, Native Invalids and Staff.								
	350	4,516	841	324				
Grand Total	12,590	55,847	12,981	57,749				
BOMBAY TROOPS.								
Catch	116	1,125	116	1,125
Kattywar	32	1,208	32	1,208
Guzerat	1,653	5,990	1,269	7,938	267	2,048
Candish and Surat	43	2,265	198	5,042	65	2,827
Bombay Island	3,363	6,928	1,446	3,873	1,937	2,955
N. and S. Concan	24	1,197	66	3,997	42	2,800
Poonah and Sattarah	253	7,836	3,589	7,889	3,327	83
S. Mahratta Country	861	1,196	861	1,196
Malwah
Total	4,766	32,956	7,469	32,278	4,650	11,277	1,937	2,955
Exclusive of Engineers, Conductors, Staff, &c.								
	122	85	258	143				
Grand Total	4,878	33,041	7,727	32,421	12,134	60,630	5,873	30,077

The expense and strength of the Anglo-Indian army at each Presidency, independent of Prince of Wales' Island, St. Helena, &c., from 1813, was:—

Years.	NUMBERS.				EXPENSE.			
	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
1813	101,750	69,487	26,669	300,066	3,072,942	3,042,303	1,123,583	7,247,817
1814	90,760	66,380	28,274	194,432	3,308,788	2,942,568	1,144,604	7,301,100
1815	120,686	68,704	28,937	327,177	3,798,483	3,106,303	1,099,309	8,004,095
1816	130,929	70,998	28,960	330,877	3,990,040	3,373,775	1,022,664	8,996,479
1817	124,520	73,120	30,533	328,185	3,848,570	3,189,070	1,046,280	8,083,920
1818	126,122	73,817	33,598	348,534	4,489,084	3,592,819	1,022,812	9,104,715
1819	122,846	70,502	30,524	348,866	4,726,407	3,723,220	1,022,910	10,899,649
1820	123,009	86,430	35,951	348,390	4,321,100	3,724,724	1,792,729	9,848,549
1821	126,983	89,712	36,377	368,079	4,475,827	3,571,142	2,176,047	10,222,916
1822	120,233	77,664	38,327	348,334	4,247,050	3,261,244	1,046,807	9,355,102
1823	129,473	71,423	36,475	337,371	4,226,626	3,109,700	1,781,222	9,117,548
1824	122,738	69,446	37,688	348,066	4,012,104	3,050,441	1,704,653	9,767,198
1825	126,204	70,422	41,514	378,140	6,175,913	3,314,770	1,704,659	11,195,344
1826	127,250	83,820	49,755	360,824	7,113,114	3,373,338	2,285,647	12,842,099
1827	144,086	89,847	49,267	373,200	6,420,617	3,215,020	2,156,062	11,931,700
1828	125,901	75,473	47,745	359,019	3,996,075	3,050,390	1,014,131	8,276,546
1829	126,627	72,863	44,103	348,433	3,681,789	3,061,748	1,040,615	7,793,152
1830	112,583	70,730	40,146	323,461	3,353,667	2,572,320	1,507,312	7,433,800
1831	97,523	67,669	38,769	303,960	3,431,378	3,390,130	1,255,675	7,782,183
1832	93,421	60,518	34,880	288,819	3,053,708	3,232,427	1,208,709	7,544,844
1833	92,969	59,267	33,762	285,998	3,440,988	3,407,880	1,273,431	7,122,300
1834								
1835								
1836								

Note.—From 1822-29 the conversion of the Indian money into sterling in the above account, has been made according to the bullion value of the rupee, which causes an apparent diminution in the military charges, as compared with the charges in the years preceding 1822-29, of 16 per cent.

The annual charge of the army in 1830 was:—*

Corps.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
Hon. Company's Engineers	23,069	24,022	35,683	82,674
European Horse	88,068	50,788	60,395	199,141
Ditto Foot	116,319	84,507	57,234	358,060
Artillery	27,967	46,228	—	74,295
Native Horse	42,716	38,612	21,778	103,106
Gouldanuz	3,085	—	—	3,085
Cavalry	81,632	40,803	49,059	171,494
H. M.'s European Regts.	200,082	207,310	130,564	537,956
Do. do. Irregulars	130,812	—	48,581	179,393
H. M.'s European Regts.	249,909	267,159	130,564	647,632
Hon. Company's ditto	33,018	43,286	47,026	123,330
Do. Native Regulars	1,433,266	1,140,000	522,989	3,096,255
Do. do. Irregulars	245,304	19,980	12,522	277,806
Staff	174,794	166,581	145,195	486,570
Medical Department	66,072	34,134	30,052	130,258
Pioneer Corps	17,312	35,392	21,600	74,304
Commissariat Department	362,400	207,246	24,423	594,069
Military Charges not coming under the above heads	932,769	724,810	520,302	2,177,881
Total	4,229,887	3,216,275	1,840,510	9,286,672

* In the army estimates for 1835-36, the charge for, and numbers of,

Note.—This Return includes Provincial Corps; it omits Officers on Furlough to England. In the first column, 1891 until 1893, a portion of the Bombay army is returned as composing the Madras army, because it was employed in the Madras territory.

БОЖЕ КРАИНА (1891) и Командир.

МИЛИАРЪ КОШЕ ДА РАДИВЪ СКОРОСТА ИМЪ МИЛИАРЪ КОШЕ РАДИВЪ

THE INDIAN MARINE,

although at one time very considerable, is of late dwindling away; it is attached to the Bombay Presidency, and consists of one frigate; four 18 gun ships; six 10 gun corvettes and brigs; 2 armed steamers and some surveying vessels. The number of officers may be stated at 12 captains; 14 commanders; 46 lieutenants; 71 junior officers, and about 500 European seamen, (with a proportion of 4 warrant-officers to each vessel) and a complement of from 600 to 700 native seamen. The latest Parliamentary returns of the annual cost of the Marine Establishment at Bombay is—Marine cruizers, &c. S. R. 11,94,573; marine office establishment, &c. 1,51,105; water, luggage, and ferry-boats, 25,831; dry docks, mooring chains, &c. 80,444; building vessels, purchase of timber, &c., 4,24,741; total, S.R. 18,76,894; or in sterling 211,128*l.* During the European wars, the Indian navy on every occasion where an opportunity offered, have shewn themselves in nowise inferior in naval tactics and bravery to His Majesty's service, while the extensive and valuable surveys which the officers have made of the islands, rivers, gulphs and bays in the Indian and China seas display their scientific acquirements in a pre-eminent degree, and entitle them to the gratitude of every nation trading to the East.

At Calcutta there is a marine establishment which, though not of a warlike nature is nevertheless of the utmost import-

4 regiments of dragoons and 20 battallions of infantry is thus specified:—*Cavalry*, horses, number 2,804; officers, number 188; non-commissioned ditto and trumpeters, number 268; rank and file, 2,700; total of all ranks, 3,156; pay and allowances of ditto, 115,233*l.*; allowances to field officers, &c. 4,836*l.*; agency, 1,409*l.*; clothing, 12,860*l.*; total for 365 days, 134,338*l.* *Infantry*, officers, number 1,020; non-commissioned ditto and drummers, number 1,200; rank and file, number 14,780; of all ranks, 17,000; pay and allowances, 495,283*l.*; allowances to field officers, &c. 7,923*l.*; agency, 5,021*l.*; clothing, 46,499*l.*; total, for 365 days, 554,730*l.* Aggregate annual charges for cavalry and infantry (including 2,835*l.* for depôts at Maidstone and Chatham), 691,904. Of staff officers belonging to the British army, there are in India 24 colonels (charge 16,000*l.*); 48,000 lieutenant-colonels (16,248*l.*); and 48 majors (14,970*l.*)

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ance,—I allude to the pilot service, which has no equal in any country in Europe. The service consists of 12 strong, well-fitted and quick-sailing vessels, of 200 tons burthen, schooner-rigged and admirably adapted for withstanding the tempestuous weather from April to October, so frequent off the sand-heads at the mouths of the Ganges and Hooghly, where six or eight of the pilot vessels are constantly stationed, either at anchor or cruising about on the look-out for vessels coming up the Bay of Bengal; the moment a ship is seen, a pilot schooner makes towards her, puts a European pilot and a European leadsman on board, and then resumes her search for other ships approaching the port of Calcutta. (It is projected to have a steam vessel on the station to put the pilots on board.)

The service is one of seniority, from leadsman or volunteers (the lowest) to branch pilot (the highest). The number of Europeans in the pilot service is about 130; they are intelligent, skilful and gentlemanly men, well acquainted, from length of service, with the difficult and dangerous navigation of the Hooghly. There are 12 branch pilots, 24 masters, 24 first mates, 24 second mates, and between 70 and 80 volunteers or leadsmen. The salary of a branch pilot is 70*l.* per month; of a master 27*l.*; of a first mate 15*l.* and of a second mate and volunteer 6*l.* per month. Each ship going up or coming down from Calcutta (a distance of 150 miles) gives a gratuity of about 100 rupees to the pilot and the leadsman, who have charge of the ship. The yearly cost, according to the latest return before Parliament is in *S.* rupees—pilot schooners and buoy vessel, 3,68,585; steam vessels 87,454; light-houses, &c. 1,08,505; master-attendant and establishment 1,59,48; paymaster and store-keeper and establishment 56,496; moorings, &c. 86,279; offices, establishments, &c. 68,309; buildings and repairs 3,11,304; pensions 80,266; total 13,26,346, or 153,856*l.* sterling. At Madras the marine is trifling, consisting of but 20 Europeans and 265 natives. The charges are for master-attendant, establishments, &c. at

the Presidency, S.R. 1,11,955; out-ports, 35,000, total, S.R. 1,47,584; or in sterling, 16,867l.

MEDICAL.

The physical or medical branch of the Anglo-Indian service, as regards the number employed in the army and marine is as follows;—

Numbers and Expence of the Medical Officers (European and Native Doctors) employed at each Presidency, and at Penang and St. Helena, since 1813. N.B. The *Civil Surgeons* in the E. I. Company's Service not included.

Year.	NUMBERS.										EXPENSE.					
	Bengal.		Madras.		Bombay.		Penang, &c.		St. Helena.		Total Europeans and Natives.	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.	
	Europeans.	Natives.	Europeans.	Natives.	Europeans.	Natives.	Europeans.	Natives.	Europeans.	Natives.						
1813	150	144	137	176	92	8	4	2	7	1	727	34836	24843	10977	70656	
1814	169	180	180	142	155	99	7	4	2	7	1	730	42766	28316	21130	89393
1815	155	181	143	145	95	7	4	2	6	1	740	8775	29438	21835	60048	
1816	174	196	164	161	98	7	4	2	6	1	811	43132	30674	21681	94407	
1817	162	188	182	160	94	6	3	2	6	1	774	42494	29993	21991	93878	
1818	178	211	181	186	99	6	4	2	6	1	814	41868	29692	22887	99397	
1819	165	228	146	154	93	16	4	2	5	1	814	52442	22723	26934	99090	
1820	171	214	173	167	108	7	8	2	5	1	851	51964	22976	26831	100261	
1821	164	207	174	191	107	8	8	1	7	1	868	57952	26367	22916	107255	
1822	169	218	169	190	116	8	4	2	6	1	882	54968	27676	28903	121547	
1823	178	208	198	185	114	62	4	2	6	1	943	58085	31234	40938	130252	
1824	174	216	196	185	108	62	4	2	6	1	958	57934	29687	29069	118780	
1825	183	242	185	206	108	80	4	7	6	1	1022	63443	31814	29059	123816	
1826	192	258	179	227	110	86	3	5	6	1	1067	14225	28267	27217	66790	
1827	198	241	196	222	122	97	4	5	6	1	1098	67015	29567	29355	122877	
1828	229	226	196	260	109	87	3	6	7	1	1152	70443	35674	27516	129034	
1829	225	221	219	226	152	114	5	10	7	1	1227	67538	29523	28493	125354	
1830	222	225	212	282	156	126	5	10	7	1	1266	66772	35134	30622	128888	
1831	224	227	146	221	119	122										
1832	241	206			118	145										
1833	266	306	149	293	125	147										
1834																
1835																

The range of professional talent is of the highest, and the valuable additions which the surgeons in the E. I. Company's service have made to our heretofore limited knowledge of the botany, zoology, geology, meteorology, &c. of the East, entitle them to the most honoured considerations. The medical so-

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cieties and museums which have been established at each Presidency, have been the means of concentrating in a focus the invaluable local information which the different members of the service have an opportunity, while serving at distant stations, of acquiring: and the native medical schools in which the Hindoo and Mussulman youths are taught anatomy, the practice of physic, surgery and chemistry, either to enable them to serve as doctors and assistant surgeons in the Company's army, or as private practitioners, are as creditable to the munificence of the Company, as to the talent and zeal which presides over them.

ECCLESIASTICAL.

The British clerical establishment in India was stated before Parliament, in 1832, (by Mr. Lushington) to be adequate to its purposes; the European chaplains in 1817, were in number, 39; in 1827, 51, and in 1831, they were increased to 76, of whom 38 were at Bengal, 23 at Madras, and 15 at Bombay. The clergy are under the charge of Diocesans at each Presidency. The total charge of the establishment in 1827, was 66,943*l.* sterling. A late return gives the number of chaplains, stations, and ecclesiastical charges, as follows:

Presidency.	Stations.	Chaplains.	Charge.
Bengal	18	38	£ 40,625
Madras	18	23	20,199
Bombay	12	15	6,119

In 1830-31, the salaries and allowances paid by the Indian Government, at each Presidency, for the support of the clergy and places of worship, was—Bengal Episcopal, sa. rs. 425,876; Scotch Church, 20,451; Roman Catholic, 4,000; total, 450,327. Madras Episcopal, Mad. rs. 206,976; Scotch Church, 11,760; Roman Catholic, 5,346: total, 224,082. Bombay Episcopal, Bomb. rs. 178,578; Scotch Church, 20,862: Roman Catholic, 820: total, 200,280. Grand total, 874,669 rupees, or about 85,000*l.* (See Chapter on *Religion*).

RETIRING FUNDS.—The military, medical and civil services of the East India Company have established retiring funds,

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the principles on which they are founded may be seen in the following sketch of the plan of the Madras Army Retiring Fund:—

According to the London bills of mortality, the average duration of life at the age of 45 is about 17½ years, and the value of an annuity of 1*l.* for that number of years is 10*l.* 15*s.*, the rate of interest being 6 per cent.; the value of an annuity of 250*l.* for a man, at the age of 45, is, therefore, 26,825 sicca rupees, taking the sicca rupee at 2*s.*, or Madras rupees 29,568. The sum required, therefore, for eight annuites is 238,544 rupees. Suppose each officer, on receiving the annuity, pay a minimum, including his subscription of 10,000 rupees, we may deduct 80,000 rs.; leaving a balance of 148,544 rs. to be raised, which may be done agreeably to the following scale:—15 senior Lieut.-Cols. at 20 rupees each, 300 rs.; 24 next ditto at 35 rs. each, 875 rs.; 30 junior ditto at 45 rs. each, 1,350 rs.; 35 senior Majors at 50 rs. each, 1,750 rs.; 35 jun. ditto at 45 rs. each, 1,575 rs.; 350 Captains at 16 rs. each, 5,600 rs.; 564 Lieutenants at 8 rs. each, 4,512 rs.; 280 Ensigns at 4 rs. each, 1,120 rs.—total, 17,082 rs.—For 12 months, 204,984 rs. Deduct on account of absentees in Europe who pay only half subscriptions, 25,000 rs.; ditto for secretary and writer, 2,400 rs.; sum required 148,544 rs.—leaving a surplus of 29,400 rs. to meet deficiencies and the gradual diminution of the minimum.

In the formation of the annexed outline plan for a Retiring Fund, the following principles have been adopted:—

1. The principle of rank in preference to that of service.
2. The principle of annuity—the amount of annuity, it is proposed, be 250*l.* per annum, subject to the payment of a minimum of Madras rupees 10,000, including subscriptions.
3. The annuity to be confined to colonels, lieut.-colonels, and senior majors, in cavalry and infantry corps, in order to prevent supercession. In the artillery and engineers it is proposed that the annuity descend for acceptance to the junior ranks, as the same reason does not apply. When the whole number of annuities are not accepted in one year, those which are declined are to be added to those for distribution in the following year.
4. Lieut.-colonels or senior majors may retire from the service in anticipation of the annuity, retaining the right of accepting it, when it comes to their turn, continuing, however, their subscriptions.

The rates of subscription are calculated on the supposition that the whole army will subscribe to the fund; but it will be observed that by the scheme there is a surplus of rupees (29,000) to meet deficiencies, which may, upon the first establishment of the fund, be apprehended. If the fund be supported by the whole army there can be no doubt that, in the course of a few years, the rates of subscription may be reduced, or the amount or number of annuities be increased.

It is proposed that all subscribers bind themselves to continue their subscriptions whilst on the effective strength of the army; and in the event of the fund being established, the Committee hope, as in the case of the annuity branch of the Medical Fund, that the Court of Directors will compel all officers hereafter entering the service to subscribe.

The Committee propose that eight annuities be yearly distributed, as follows:—one to the cavalry, one to the artillery and engineers, and six to the infantry. But as the infantry will, by this arrangement, lose a fractional advantage to which they are entitled, the loss will be provided for when the details of the plan are matured. The differences of pay and allowances between ensign and lieutenant, for one month, is equal to 11 months' subscription as ensign; between lieutenant and captain 18½ months, as lieutenant; and between captain and major, 16½ months, as captain.

1801	1802	1803	1804	1805	1806	1807	1808	1809	1810	1811	1812	1813	1814	1815	1816	1817	1818	1819	1820	1821	1822	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836
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1836	11

INDIAN PATRONAGE.

The Directors of the East India Company have the nomination of Writers, Cadets, and Assistant Surgeons for the Indian service, this with a salary of 300*l.* a year is the sole reward which they receive for their services, for by their oath they are bound to accept no pecuniary consideration for any appointment whatever. The number of writers, cadets, and assistant surgeons required for the year being made known, the number is divided into 30 shares, of which the Chairman and Deputy Chairman have each two, the President of the Board of Control two, and each Director one. His Majesty's Ministers, through the Board of Control, have the appointment of judges, bishops, officers of the King's army, and a negative on the Court of Directors' nomination of the Governor General, Governors, Commanders in Chief, and members of council.

Appointments of Cadets and Assistant-Surgeons in each year, from 1796.

Year	CADETS, including Seminary Appointments.				Asst. Surgns.	Total.	CASUALTIES amongst the European Commissioned Officers of the Company's Army.			
	Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.			Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
1796	33	55	26	114	33	146				
1797	44	54	34	132	29	161				
1798	169	107	58	498	36	444				
1799	116	76	30	319	27	246				
1800	164	201	109	474	27	401				
1801	13	18	13	43	25	71				
1802	65	190	26	291	31	322				
1803	196	125	171	492	28	520				
1804	198	138	31	367	43	399				
1805	198	230	11	439	31	490				
1806	110	311	19	440	26	376				
1807	149	113	28	290	48	339				
1808	153	55	55	263	24	287				
1809	39	26	19	114	28	142				
1810	31	74	39	194	27	221				
1811	44	43	27	113	14	127				
1812	18	26	7	51	28	51				
1813	19	19	14	52	35	107				
1814	26	13	7	46	46	96				
1815	10	13	4	26	35	61				
1816	13	8	5	26	36	62				
1817	22	23	19	64	33	97				
1818	123	83	63	269	33	302				
1819	178	143	85	406	46	452				
1820	143	224	84	451	62	513				
1821	131	179	116	426	66	492				
1822	116	197	26	339	59	398				
1823	98	26	55	179	48	227				
1824	266	90	66	422	29	451				
1825	299	121	27	447	33	480				
1826	167	210	66	443	74	517				
1827	126	186	26	338	61	399				
1828	100	89	77	266	59	325				
1829	117	33	29	179	37	216				
1830	42	25	16	83	43	126				
1831	26	24	11	61	49	110				
1832	3	11	2	16	6	22				
1833	34	49	19	102	39	141				
1834	22	73	21	116	22	138				
1835										
1836										

No Returns prepared.

Number of Civil Servants appointed to the Bengal Civil Service since 1790, and the Deaths and Retirements incident to the same.*

Years.	No. in the Service.	Apps. each Year.	Total.	Deaths.	Retirs.	Years.	No. in the Service.	Apps. each Year.	Total.	Deaths.	Retirs.
1790	..	19	19	1813	379	21	400	8	1
1791	19	19	38	1814	391	30	421	4	1
1792	38	19	57	1815	416	9	425	10	6
1793	57	19	76	1816	409	26	435	5	6
1794	68	27	95	1817	414	18	432	7	8
1795	93	30	123	..	1	1818	417	17	434	16	5
1796	129	24	146	1	..	1819	413	19	432	10	10
1797	145	20	165	..	2	1820	412	17	429	13	6
1798	163	32	195	..	2	1821	410	17	427	12	5
1799	193	17	210	3	1	1822	410	13	423	10	5
1800	206	21	227	3	..	1823	418	13	431	9	7
1801	234	20	244	4	3	1824	415	22	437	13	1
1802	237	24	261	5	2	1825	423	21	444	12	..
1803	254	26	280	5	2	1826	432	33	465	9	..
1804	273	17	290	3	3	1827	456	50	506	12	1
1805	284	32	316	5	7	1828	493	41	534	11	2
1806	304	16	320	3	1	1829	521	44	565	8	1
1807	316	17	333	7	2	1830	550	13	569	10	..
1808	324	20	344	9	1	1831	..	23	..	22	8
1809	334	13	347	5	2	1832	..	12	..	9	4
1810	340	17	357	5	..	1833	..	9	..	19	5
1811	352	24	376	6	2	1834	..	8	..	9	..
1812	368	21	389	5	5						

* This table from 1790 to 1830 was, I believe, prepared in India, by or for the Bengal Finance Committee; I have compared some of the latter years with the College books at the India House and find a discrepancy as to the number of appointments: the last four years have been furnished me by the authority of the Court of Directors.

The patronage of *appointment* rests only with the home authorities, that of *promotion* is thus managed. A writer on proving his qualifications in India is allowed to fix on any branch of the service, (revenue, judicial, or political), and the principle of succession to office is regulated partly by seniority, and partly by merit, blended so well together, as effectually to destroy favouritism, while a succession of offices is still left open for the encouragement of talent and industry. An Act of Parliament, providing that all situations exceeding in total value 500*l.* per annum, must be held by a civil servant of three years residence in India; ditto, exceeding 1,500*l.* a year, by one of six years standing; ditto, 3,000*l.* by one of nine years, and of 4,000*l.* and upwards by a servant of twelve years sojourn in the East. Thus, for vacancies under each classification, there are a certain number of candidates of the

required local experience when the selection depends on the government, but every care is taken to make merit the sole ground for eligibility and success. The salaries of the whole Civil Service are now undergoing reduction and modifications, which it is thought will tend to stimulate the faculties of the functionaries employed.

The Company's civil servants are educated at the E. I. College of Haileybury, where each student must enter before he is 20 years of age, and pay 105*l.* per annum towards defraying the expensive and elaborate education which he receives in every essential branch of oriental and western literature, philology and science, under the superintendance of a College Council, and the most learned professors in England. The test of examinations for a writership is severe. The nominations during the last five years from the College consisted of sons of noblemen three; of baronets eight; of clergymen fourteen; of East India Directors eight; of Company's civil servants thirty; of ditto, military ditto, twenty-two; of ditto, naval ditto, forty-two; of His Majesty's military and naval officers, twenty-seven; and of merchants, bankers, and private gentlemen, one hundred and ten. The *net* expenditure of the College at Haileybury, from 1805 to 1830, was 363,427*l.*, of which 96,359*l.* was for the building; 33,553*l.* for books, and philosophical instruments, &c.; the salaries paid to professors, amount to 220,730*l.* and the number of students educated was 1,978. (Vide Appendix for a more detailed account of the disbursements of the College.)

The manner in which the patronage exercised in India is controlled by the Home Government of the East India Company, was ably explained by the talented Secretary to the Hon. E. I. Company, in his lucid evidence before the Select Committees of Parliament, relative to Indian affairs.

'The records, as now sent home from India, contain the most minute description of the services, the character, and conduct of every individual in the civil establishment. Perhaps I may exemplify it by stating, that when members of council for India are appointed by the Court of Directors, a list of civil servants within a given period of the standing of those ser-

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vants, from whence it is proposed to select members of council, is laid before the Court of Directors, which list contains a complete statement of the whole course of a servant's progress, from his arrival in India as a writer, to the date at which it is proposed to appoint him to a seat in council. So it is with regard to every other civil servant in the establishment; and, if it would not be troubling the Committee too much, I will take the liberty of reading a letter, which has particular reference to the course now observed with regard to the patronage in India, and the scrutiny which is exercised by the authorities here, or rather the knowledge which they possess of the course pursued by the government abroad. It is an extract of a letter from the chairman and deputy of the Court of Directors to Lord Ellenborough, dated November 1829: "The Legislature has placed the local governments in subordination to the government at home, it has exacted from them obedience to the orders issued by the constituted authorities in this country. The Legislature has provided, that all the Company's servants in India, civil and military, under the rank of Governor-General and Governor, shall, in the first instance, receive their appointments from the Court of Directors; that the members of council shall, excepting in particular cases, be nominated by the Court, and that the Governor-General and Governors shall likewise be appointed by the Court, with the approbation of the King. The legislature has empowered the Court of Directors to recall the Governor-General and other Governors, and to remove from office, or dismiss from their service, any of their servants, civil or military; and as a security against excessive lenity or undue indulgence on the part of the Court, it has conferred upon the Crown the power, under His Majesty's sign manual, countersigned by the President of the Board of Commissioners, of vacating appointments and commissions, and of recalling any of the Company's servants, civil or military, from the Governor-General downward. By these provisions, the fortune of every servant of the Company in India is made dependant on the home authorities; and as long as the powers with which the latter are thus entrusted continue to be properly and seasonably exercised, there appears to us to be little ground for apprehension that the Indian functionaries will forget they are accountable agents, and still less that this forgetfulness will be generated by so inadequate a cause as an occasional delay here, not in issuing necessary instructions, nor in replying to special references, but in reviewing their past proceedings.

The Legislature having thus provided sufficient sureties against the independence and irresponsibility of the governments in India, has with a just appreciation of the distance and the extraordinary circumstances attending the connexion between two countries, not only left to the governments there the distribution and disposal of all the Company's establishments, civil and military, and the power of suspending from the

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service such individuals as may be guilty of misconduct, but has delegated to them powers of legislation, and to the Governor-General, individually and temporarily, some of the most important rights of sovereignty, such as declaring war, making peace, and concluding treaties with foreign states; and while it has enacted, that the wilful disobeying, or the wilfully omitting, forbearing or neglecting to execute the orders of the Court of Directors by the local functionaries, shall be deemed a misdemeanor at law, and made it punishable as such, the enactment is qualified with the exception of cases of necessity, the burthen of the proof of which necessity lies on the party so disobeying, &c.

Nor do the powers thus conferred (large as they are) exceed the exigencies of the case. It would be superfluous in addressing your Lordship to enlarge on the magnitude of the trust reposed in the local governments, and the difficulties with which it is encompassed, difficulties so many and so great, as to be almost insuperable, if experience had not shown that to a great extent at least they may be surmounted. The imposition of the various checks with which the system abounds presupposes the grant of a liberal confidence in those to whom power is delegated. The individuals selected for members of the different councils of government are usually men of mature experience, who have distinguished themselves in the several gradations of the service. At the head of the two subordinate governments are generally placed persons who have recommended themselves to the home authorities by their eminent attainments, extensive local knowledge, tried habits of business, and useful services in India, or persons sent from this country, who, without exactly the same recommendations, are on other grounds supposed to possess equal qualifications. The office of Governor-General has usually been filled by noblemen of elevated rank and character, who in some instances have held high offices of State in England, and who in going to India with the qualities of British statesmen, have there the means of acquiring a personal knowledge of the country and the people whom they are sent to govern; and the allowances of the Governor-General, other governors and members, as well of the supreme as of the subordinate governments, are fixed on a more liberal scale, suitable not to the character of mere executive agents, but to the greatness of discretionary trusts and the weight of their responsibility.

It is by no means our intention, in submitting the foregoing considerations, to apologize for any want of promptitude or regularity on the part of the local governments in reporting their proceedings to the Court, or to absolve the Court from the obligation of carefully revising those proceedings, and communicating their sentiments thereupon within a reasonable time, and above all of enforcing strict obedience to their orders where no sufficient reason is given for suspending or modifying them: all that we mean to infer is, that when the relative characters, position and powers of

the constituted authorities at home and abroad are duly considered, a minute interference in the details of Indian administration was not contemplated by the Legislature, and that as long as a general supervision is watchfully exercised, and no proceedings of importance are kept back from observation, overlooked, or neglected, its intentions are not necessarily defeated by an arrear of correspondence on matters of minor moment.

It is doubtless indispensable that the home authorities shall exercise the utmost caution and circumspection in the selection of their Indian governors, and in the choice of fit persons for the councils of government; that they shall constantly and vigilantly inspect the proceedings of those governments, as they may affect the interests of the State as well as the characters and prospects of individuals: that commendation and censure be impartially distributed, and that in cases of manifest incompetence or gross misconduct, the extreme measure of removal from office be resorted to. It is incumbent on them to take care that, in our political relations with foreign powers, justice and moderation are uniformly observed, that the discipline and general efficiency of the army are maintained, and that in the business of internal administration, the welfare of the native population is sedulously consulted. It is obligatory on them narrowly to scrutinize and control the public expenditure, to keep a watchful eye over all their servants, to see that distinguished merit is adequately encouraged and rewarded, that the undeserving are not promoted by favour, and that evil doers are not improperly shielded from the punishment due to delinquency. It is also within their province to convey to the local governments such instructions as may from time to time be deemed expedient with a view to these or other objects, and to enforce obedience to their orders when transgressed or imperfectly executed without valid reason.

Your answer went in the first instance to show the existence of a control and vigilant scrutiny exercised by the home authorities over the patronage of the Governor-General in India, and which control you consider would cease to exist in the event of the substitution of some other public organ for the Court of Directors at home; and you have instanced this by the care that is taken to ascertain the character and qualifications of individuals selected to be members of councils in India; are not the members of council nominated at present by the Court of Directors, and not by the Governor-General?—What I wished to exemplify to the Committee was, the minute knowledge that the Court of Directors possessed of all nominations made to India, of the progress of their servants, and of their appointment from one station to another, and of the duties they performed. At the present moment there is, I conceive, a check both on the part of the Board of Control and on the part of the Court of Directors in the exercise by the Governor-General of his patronage, which patronage is made by selecting civil servants according to their seniority, as prescribed by the

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Act of Parliament, unless there is any reason for a different course of proceeding; and whilst it is true that the Governor-General selects from the military service military men for civil stations, it is a practice objected to, and for which he is obliged to assign reasons. Unless some strict provision or check shall exist in future as now does exist, the Governor-General will of course be at liberty to exercise his patronage as he might see fit, without any control.

In point of fact, is it your belief that any real control is exercised over the appointments in India of the commissioners, judges of circuit, members of the courts of revenue, and of other Boards; in short, of the detail of the patronage in that country?—I conceive that the patronage in that country is carried on as prescribed in the manner I have already stated, by the regulations, and if there were not the check that now exists, which I conceive the Governor-General is perfectly aware of, he might exercise it to a large and imperious extent.'

The Government of the Anglo-Indian Empire is one founded on an opinion arising out of our moral rectitude as well as physical force, and whatever weakens it, tends therefore to the diminution of our power in the East; in the preceding sketch may be perceived, the existence of present benefit, as well as future advantages, and the positive danger to both countries by rash and crude plans of fancied perfection being urged for adoption at this eventful crisis. Unlike European Governments, the East India Company's administration has been in general in advance of the intelligence of the people; the increasing vigilant control of Parliament, the fast-growing influence of public opinion in England and in India, and the omnipotence of the press in both countries, will from time to time suggest, and enable the authorities to carry into effect, such improvements as may be safely, and with a prospect of permanent benefit enacted, remembering always that governments are not like a forge nail, struck out at a single heat of the iron, but like the oak tree, which grows from year to year, while the more extended its age, the deeper and deeper become its roots. To the corporation of the East India Company, we are indebted for the acquisition and present progressive state of India, to that Corporation the good and the wise still look for the amelioration of Hindostan, and the preservation of the ministerial balance of power in Britain.

Revenues and Charges of British India for 1831-32. (Latest Account.)

GROSS REVENUE.

Items.	Bengal.		Madras.		Bombay.		Total in sterling money.	
	Rs. Rupees.	£.	Rupees.	£.	Rupees.	£.	Rs. Rupees.	£.
Land Tax	64,382,391	16,750,118	36,515,174	9,137,477	13,394,717	3,394,717	10,000,876	2,540,855
Custom, town and transit dues	6,927,911	1,756,989	4,833,686	1,224,978	4,944,978	1,244,978	18,391,118	4,614,798
Salt sale tax	19,152,684	4,842,535	47,795,438	11,983,393	2,211,983	562,535	18,391,118	4,614,798
Opium sale	2,469,687	624,921	17,865	4,511	2,108,938	534,921	10,000,876	2,540,855
Stamp duties	2,469,687	624,921	17,865	4,511	2,108,938	534,921	10,000,876	2,540,855
Post office	4,684,774	1,171,193	13,870	3,517	165,948	41,981	10,000,876	2,540,855
Mint duties, ditto	468,474	117,119	13,870	3,517	165,948	41,981	10,000,876	2,540,855
Marine and pilchage	393,338	98,338	639,489	162,422	110,991	28,246	10,000,876	2,540,855
Tobacco sale	393,338	98,338	639,489	162,422	110,991	28,246	10,000,876	2,540,855
House-tax (Madras & Bombay)	393,338	98,338	639,489	162,422	110,991	28,246	10,000,876	2,540,855
Excise	191,477	48,119	469,477	117,374	94,168	23,792	10,000,876	2,540,855
Judicial fees and fine	469,477	117,374	136,748	34,242	94,168	23,792	10,000,876	2,540,855
Tolls on ferries	664,484	166,121	1,093,176	275,293	1,471,425	367,812	10,000,876	2,540,855
Sayer and abkaree	4,153,990	1,038,497	2,993,176	750,242	1,471,425	367,812	10,000,876	2,540,855
Civil, miscellaneous	385,946	96,486	7,166	1,816	17,973	4,518	10,000,876	2,540,855
Revenue, ditto	1,395,735	348,934	183,994	46,749	116,830	29,457	10,000,876	2,540,855
Motapha or profession tax	2,393,478	600,872	1,166,399	293,847	87,566	22,191	10,000,876	2,540,855
Do. by the Barmaee	875,666	219,166	77,743	19,688	77,743	19,688	10,000,876	2,540,855
Nizam's and Rajpoot tribute	777,457	194,364	77,743	19,688	77,743	19,688	10,000,876	2,540,855
Burtpore on account of war	799,388	200,000	245,611	61,403	245,611	61,403	10,000,876	2,540,855
Mysore, Travancore and Cochin subsidies	245,611	61,403	245,611	61,403	245,611	61,403	10,000,876	2,540,855
Ditto, from Dutch government	375,615	93,904	375,615	93,904	375,615	93,904	10,000,876	2,540,855
Penang, Mal. and Singapore	116,449,994	29,336,487	47,688,376	11,983,393	132,333	33,561	10,000,876	2,540,855
Total in Rupees	116,449,994	29,336,487	47,688,376	11,983,393	132,333	33,561	10,000,876	2,540,855

I have prepared this Table from the accounts laid before Parliament in May, 1834, in order that, in a connected view, the surplus of Revenue in British India, and the mode in which it is expended. The Table being prepared from different returns, I should state that the Bengal Revenue in Sicca Rupees, being in the proportion of 100 to 104 of the Madras and Bombay rupees: in the total column. I have converted the whole into sterling at 2.7 rupees, which is nearly the par value and rate of exchange of the coin.

THE SYSTEM OF THE REVENUE IN BRITISH INDIA, AS IT IS AT PRESENT, AND AS IT SHOULD BE, IN ORDER TO BRING IT INTO A MORE EFFECTIVE AND ECONOMIC STATE. THE SYSTEM OF THE REVENUE IN BRITISH INDIA, AS IT IS AT PRESENT, AND AS IT SHOULD BE, IN ORDER TO BRING IT INTO A MORE EFFECTIVE AND ECONOMIC STATE.

the Madras and Bombay rupees: in the total column I have converted the whole into sterling at 3-7 rupees, which is nearly the bullion value and rate of exchange of the coin.

CHAPTER V.

THE FINANCIAL AND MONETARY SYSTEM OF BRITISH INDIA; PRODUCE FOR SEVERAL YEARS OF THE OPIUM, SALT, AND LAND REVENUE; DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF LAND REVENUE, AND AGGREGATE TAXATION; EXPENDITURE AND DEBT OF THE THREE PRESIDENCIES, WITH THE SURPLUS, OR DEFICIT REVENUE OF EACH SINCE 1814; THE BANK OF BENGAL; INDIAN DEBT; PROPORTION HELD BY EUROPEANS AND NATIVES, &c.

The prosperity of a nation is materially dependant on a just system of finance, the leading principles of which are, that every individual shall contribute to the maintenance of a Government in proportion to the property he possesses, in order to protect him from domestic tyranny or foreign aggression, and that every individual contributing a quota shall have a voice in regulating its disbursement. As the comparative advantages of direct and indirect taxation are now deservedly engrossing a large share of public attention, and the financial system of Great Britain and of our possessions in India is materially different, it will be necessary to enter into some detail, in order that the Indian mode of finance may be more thoroughly understood and appreciated.

The history of most ancient states show that direct taxation, or in other words, taxation on property has been the foundation and main stay of their revenue systems; in England the principle has been progressively departed from since the reign of William III. until now, out of nearly 50,000,000*l.* taxes levied annually in the United Kingdom, almost 40,000,000*l.** are raised on the consumption of the necessaries and comforts of life. In India the ancient system of

* The volume which I have written on the 'Taxation of the British Empire' will show the effects of high taxes on articles of general consumption; especially in connection with the contraction of the currency, which took place in 1819, a measure ruinous to the prosperity of England.

direct taxation has not been changed, the land continuing, as it has been from time immemorial, the grand fund of supply to the Government, as will be seen by the proportions of the Indian revenue derived from different sources in 1831-32, the latest year in which the returns have been laid before Parliament complete :—

DIRECT TAXATION.		INDIRECT TAXATION.	
Land Revenue	£10,750,218	Salt Sale and Licenses	£23,214,982
House Tax	40,000	Customs (Sea and Land)	1,380,009
Tax on Professions	116,830	Opium	1,442,570
Tolls on Ferries	96,242	Post Office	103,501
Territories on Nerbudda	239,847	Tobacco	63,048
Burmese Ceasions	87,206	Mint Receipts	60,518
Mysore, Travancore, and Cochin	342,776	Stamps	328,300
Nagpore Subsidiary	77,743	Judicial Fees and Fines	70,469
Bhurtpore	24,881	Sayer and Abkaree	704,759
Nizams and Rajpoot Tribute	78,938	Marine and Pilotage	45,974
Cutch Subsidiary	13,332	Excise (in Calcutta)	19,106
Miscellaneous	17,996		
	£11,685,569		£26,593,326

Now, in making this division, I have given in the second column several items, which will detract from its amount when examined. The tax levied upon opium is paid indirectly, it is true, by the Chinamen who consume it in the celestial empire, but in reality the tax falls on the land which grows the poppy, for were there no tax levied, the amount now paid by the Chinamen would go into the pockets of the Hindoo landed proprietors, thus we reduce the 6,600,000*l.* to 5,200,000*l.*; and when we consider how nearly salt stamps, judicial, mint, and post-office receipts are direct taxes, the large proportion of the latter will be apparent, and the more so when we view the gross revenues of the Three Presidencies during the 15 years, ending 1828-29, which were as follow :—

Bengal, £196,121,983; Madras, £62,042,067; Bombay, £30,966,970.—Total, £399,151,020.

LAND REVENUE OF INDIA.

The land-tax of British India is entitled to priority of consideration, no less on account of its financial importance as to amount, than of its influence over the rights and in-

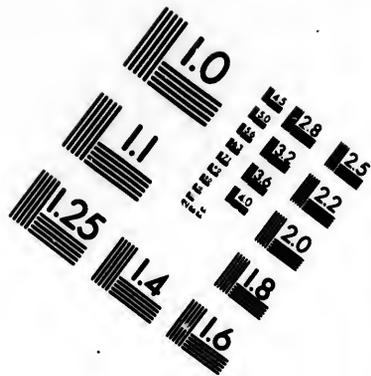
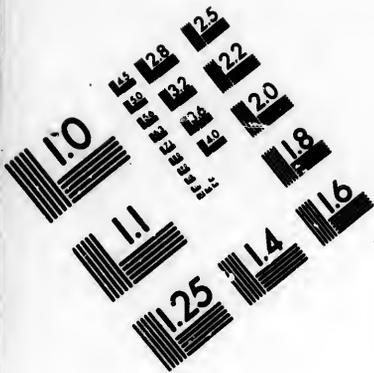
terests of the native inhabitants of the country; and over the general prosperity of the empire. There are three different modes of assessing land in India, and as each has its advocates and are essentially different in operation, the fairest plan which the Author can adopt in laying a detail of them before the public, will be to give a very brief abstract of the evidence on the subject as laid before Parliament, during the recent discussion on the renewal of the E. I. Company's Charter; thus no favour to any system will be shewn, and the public will be better enabled to form a comparative judgment on their respective merits.*

PRINCIPLES OF THE LAND-TAX.—Three different modes of assessing the land-tax prevail in British India—1st. a *perpetual* settlement with the proprietors of land;—2nd. a *temporary* settlement with the heads of villages or townships; and 3rd. a definite settlement with each individual occupant or cultivator of the soil (1832, C. P. 2.†), but the acknowledged basis of every land revenue settlement in India, is the right of a Government to a certain share of the *gross* produce of every inch of cultivated land; the share may be alienated entirely or partially, or it may be diminished by grants from Government: it may be commuted for a money payment under engagements more or less extended for a series of years, or even for perpetuity, but the ground works of the land revenue in India, is the right of Government to a share of the *gross* produce of all cultivation (1832, C. P. 29). Land is assessed with reference to the payments of former years, and to the actual state of the cultivation, and of the season; if the cultivation have been increased the revenue is increased; if land have been thrown up it is diminished; if it be a bad season allowances are made for it (1830, L. 2,285);

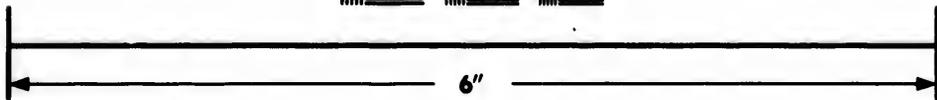
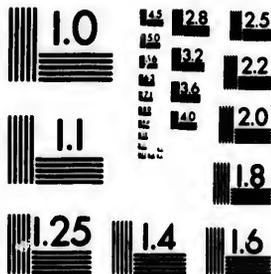
* The source whence each paragraph is derived *verbatim*, is also given; I have only added copulative conjunctions or articles for the purpose of 'dovetailing,' as it were, the sentiments scattered through a vast mass of evidence.

† C. P. in Commons' Paper; Lords' is signified by L.; the figure refers to the number of the paper or question





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and in case of complaint of over-assessment it is rectified (1830, L. 1, 565), as it is well understood that nothing contributes so essentially to secure the public tranquillity as a low assessment (1831, C. 5, 250). The peculiarity of India in deriving a large proportion of its revenue from the land, is in fact a very great advantage; nine-tenths probably of the revenue of the Government is derived from the rent of land never appropriated to individuals, and always considered to have been the property of Government: this is one of the most fortunate circumstances that can occur in any country, because in consequence of this the wants of the State are supplied really and truly without taxation: the wants of Government are supplied without any drain, either upon the produce of the man's labour, or the produce of any man's capital (1831, C. 3, 134). But the great difficulty in raising a revenue from the land in India, is the difficulty of ascertaining correctly the value of the land; approximation is all that can be obtained (1831, C. 3, 162); the general proportion taken is extremely uncertain (1830, L. 2, 537); because no portion of the gross produce of the land can ever be taken as the standard for assessment, for various proportions of the gross produce go as rent, according to all the various qualities of the soil, some lands yielding no rent, others a fourth, others a third, and other portions of the soil of a still more valuable quality, yielding half or more than half of the gross produce as rent (1831, C. 3, 886); that is a surplus of the produce of the soil after a full remuneration to the cultivator for his labour and stock (do. 3, 884). The instruction for many years sent from home, and impressed upon the Governments of India is, that in no case can more be taken than the rent of the land without both injustice and permanent injury to the country, not only injury to the individual cultivators, but injury to the Government itself; and in all doubtful cases, the instruction has been to take special care to err on the side of lenity rather than on the side of severity; to take less than the rent rather than more (1831, C. 3, 162).

The consent of Government is not required for the cultivation of any new land; Government are happy that people should come and take up their abode; they make no enquiry, if there be no objection made by the neighbouring villagers; that is to say, that they do not occupy the lands that others are in the possession of; the right of possession remaining, unless disturbed by other claimants, which rarely or never occurs (1830, L. 546 and 548).

THE ZEMINDARY OR PERPETUAL SETTLEMENT OF LORD CORNWALLIS.

One of the most material points for consideration, in respect to the land-tax, is the different modes of levying the assessment now in force (1832, C. R. P. 2). To begin with the *Zemindary* Settlement, the most obvious feature of advantage in which is the facility of collection, as it is a much more simple thing to obtain the revenue of a large district from a certain moderate number of Zemindars or contributors, than it is to perform the collection in detail by the officers of Government themselves, and another advantage undoubtedly is the greater degree of certainty in the result (1831, C. 3,339); the main difference in the mode of collecting the land revenue in different parts of British India, consisting chiefly in the different degrees of summariness, or detail adopted in the collection of the revenue, from the great mass of cultivators who hold land generally in small portions, and who have a right to the perpetual hereditary occupancy of the soil, so long as they continue to pay the revenue demanded by Government.

When the E. I. Company came into the possession of the revenues of the Dewanny of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, they found the land revenue collected in the most summary method by the intervention of officers under the Mahomedan Government, who had charge of districts sometimes of more, sometimes of less extent, with various titles such as Zemindars, and Talookdars, and who paid the revenue into the treasury

in one sum, for which they were rewarded by the Government generally with a per centage on their collections; in fact Zemindars were found managing considerable districts whose obligations consisted in paying a certain annual amount to the Government; many of them held their districts or estates under this condition hereditarily. (1831, C. 3, 114, 3, 115, 3, 215).

On the E. I. Company becoming possessed of the Bengal territory, great abuses were found to prevail, and to be practised by the different sorts of people employed in the collection of the revenue. The detail of the business was so great that it frightened Lord Cornwallis and the Government of the day, and they conceived that no better method for the protection of the Ryots or small cultivators could be invented than to create a species of landlords, from whom they expected much benefit to arise; the ground upon which their reasoning principally went was this, that those Zemindars, having a permanent interest in the land assigned to them, would feel an interest in the prosperity of the Ryots, in the same manner as a landlord in England feels an interest in the prosperity of his tenants. This was expected to produce two good effects, to create a landed aristocracy in the country, and above all to afford protection to the Ryots or small cultivators, from the kind of paternal feeling that was expected to pervade the Zemindars (1831, C. 3, 136). With a view to the protection of the whole mass of the agricultural population and with the best of motives, the Zemindars in 1793, whether cultivators or officers in actual charge of districts, hereditarily or by special appointment, were created landholders of the country by which a property in the soil was vested in them, in nearly as full a sense as it is to the holder of a fee-simple in England; the sum which a Zemindar had been in the habit of paying was ascertained by the observation of a few prior years, the assessment or tax was fixed for ever, and an engagement was made that this amount of land revenue should never be raised on him; such is the nature of the settlement known by the name of the ZEMINDARY or

PERMANENT SETTLEMENT (1831, C. 3,115, 3,116, 3,136, 3,215; 1832, R. C. P. 21). The countries settled on the permanent Zemindary tenure include under the Bengal Presidency, an extent of 149,782 square miles, embracing the whole of Bengal, Bahar, Benares, and Orissa (Cuttack alone excepted), with a population exclusive of the Benares province of 35,518,645, assessed in 1829-30, at a permanent Jumma or revenue of 32,470,858 sicca rupees. Under the Madras Presidency, the Zemindary settlement includes nearly the whole of the five northern Circars, lying immediately adjacent to the Bengal frontier; rather more than one-third of the Salem, and about one-third of the Chingleput districts included under the head of Madura; and a small portion of the southern division of Arcot, consisting of some of the E. I. Company's ancient lands near Cuddalore; these countries include a territory of 49,607 square miles, with a population of 3,941,021, assessed in 1829-30, at 8,511,009 sicca rupees. The permanent, or Zemindary Settlement has never extended to any portion of the provinces under the Bombay Presidency, which contain 59,438 square miles, with a population estimated at 6,251,546; and 5,500 square miles in the northern Concan, of which the population is unknown; far the greater part of the Madras territories, to the extent of 92,316 square miles, with a population of 9,567,514, has also been exempted from it; as has also been the case in the province of Cuttack, under the Bengal Government, containing 9,040 square miles, and a population of 1,984,620; neither has the Permanent Settlement been extended to the upper or Western Provinces under the Supreme Government, embracing 66,510 square miles, and a population of 32,206,806; nor to the districts ceded on the Nerbudda, and by the Rajah of Berar in 1826, containing 85,700 square miles, of which the population is unknown; thus of the British territorial possessions on the continent of Asia, including an area of 512,878 square miles, the Permanent or Zemindary Settlement extends over but 199,389 square miles (1832, R. C. P. 21). We may now proceed to the consideration of the VILLAGE SYSTEM.

VILLAGE LAND REVENUE SYSTEM.

The landed property in Upper India may be said to belong to the community of a village, each village having head men, leaders, or principals, called *Mocuddims*, or *Potais*, who either by descent, or sometimes by their personal influence, obtain a superiority in the village, and the management of its affairs; they are selected by the villagers, and removable at their pleasure.

The lands are let out to men sometimes in the same village, sometimes in the neighbouring village, while certain portions and certain rights are possessed by the different craftsmen or artisans of the village, such as the schoolmaster, the washerman, the barber, the carpenter, the blacksmith, the watchman, the village accountant, &c. who have each a right to a certain share in the produce of the soil, of which there is also a certain portion set aside for certain recognised expenses of the village, and for defraying its hospitality towards strangers (1830, L. 398, 399, 405, 406, 529). These village communities are little republics, having nearly everything that they want within themselves, and almost independent of any foreign relations. Dynasty after dynasty tumbles down; revolution succeeds to revolution; Hindoo, Patan, Mogul, Mahratta, Seik, English, are all masters in turn, but the village communities remain the same. In times of trouble they arm and fortify themselves; an hostile army passes through the country; the village communities collect their cattle within their walls, and let the enemy pass unprovoked. If plunder and devastation be directed against themselves, and the force employed be irresistible, they flee to friendly villages at a distance, but when the storm has passed over, they return and resume their occupations. If a country remain for a series of years the scene of continued pillage and massacre, so that the village cannot be inhabited, the scattered villagers nevertheless return whenever the power of peaceable possession revives: a generation may pass away, but the succeeding generation will return: the sons will take the place of their fathers, the same site for the village, the same position for the houses, the same lands will be occupied by the descend-

ants of those who were driven out when the village was depopulated, and it is not a trifling matter that will drive them out, for they will often maintain their post through times of disturbance and convulsion, and acquire strength sufficient to resist pillage and oppression with success. This union of the village communities each one forming a separate little state in itself, has contributed more than any other cause to the preservation of the people of India, through all the revolutions and changes which they have suffered, and is in a high degree conducive to their happiness, and to the enjoyment of a great proportion of freedom and independence. (1832, Commons Rev. Committee, p. 29).

It is difficult to state the proportion of the produce of the village paid to Government; the authorities know little of the precise property of any of the proprietors, it is not the interest or the wish of the village that the Government should scrutinize and know their possessions, therefore, if any one of the brotherhood fails to pay his proportion, that is a matter for the village at large to settle, they will often come forward to pay it for him, but those are all private arrangements kept to themselves; and the Mocuddim has no power from the Government to enforce the assessment, what each man in the village has to pay is an internal arrangement, which it is desirable for the Government not to interfere in, the villagers settling among themselves what each has to pay, and the total assessment being calculated after enquiry into the state of prosperity in the village; what it has hitherto paid; what it is capable of paying; the state of the village lands, and what assessments they ought to bear with reference to the produce; and if the villagers are dissatisfied with their Mocuddim, or head man, they turn him out (1830, L. 401, 402, 404, 528, 583, 584.) Surveys of considerable expense have been made by Government; a minute account taken of the state of the land in each village, the fields examined in the presence of a surveying officer, with all the assistance he can procure, not only from his own servants, but from the village communities, the people themselves interested, and also the ryots and people of the neighbouring villages, who are invited to

attend. The exact limits of the village are put down, and even the detail of land within the village, the productions, houses, fruit bearing trees, and so on: the assessment is grounded upon these particulars (1831, C. 3492.) The Upper or Western Provinces of Bengal, the greater part of the Bombay territories, the ceded territories on the Nerpudda and the Province of Tanjore are all assessed by villages. (1831, C. 3119, 3123, 3129, 3130.)

THE RYOTWAR SYSTEM.—The peculiar principle of the third sort of assessment, termed *Ryotwar*, is to fix a maximum of assessment upon all the lands of the country in perpetuity; (1831, C. 4565) the money rent of each individual cultivator for the fields in his occupation is defined with as much permanency as possible, the aggregate of such rents making the total assessment, which varies each year with the increase or decrease of cultivation.

Another main principal of the Ryotwar system is to protect the rights of all ryots or cultivators, as they now exist in every village from infringement; and to prevent all encroachment upon those rights (1831, C. 5156,) thus, in the Ryotwar system, the details of the interest of the respective Ryots are known completely, and not at all in the Zemindary system; and the former effectually does what the latter professes to do, but never has done, and never can do, that is, fix an assessment upon all the lands in the country. Under the Ryotwar system, the assessment goes from detail to the aggregate; it respects property of every class, that of the largest landholder, and that of the smallest; it measures and assesses every portion of an estate, and thus facilitates the transfer of landed property, as the first question when taken into the market is—what is the amount of public demand upon the land? (1831, C. 4565, 4567, 4568.) The Ryotwar system deals with the proprietor; if the Rajah be the complete proprietor, he is the person with whom the Government deals; it does not profess to interfere between him and his tenants, but in order to ascertain what the Rajah is to pay, his lands are first assessed in detail, and then in the aggregate (1831, C. 4570.) The Ryotwar settlement is applicable, it is said, in every state of things; where there are proprie-

tors it may be entered into with proprietors; where there are no proprietors it may be concluded with farmers or cultivators; it may be equally made for the largest or for the smallest quantity of land; for millions of acres, or for only a few. The owner of a single field may make his terms directly with the Government, and turn to his cultivation, knowing that he cannot be called on to pay more than a certain sum. The proprietor of the largest district may do the same: for, although the cess under this system varies according to the value of the land, difference of soil, population, situation, and other localities; and although inferior land, paying the lower cess, becomes liable when sufficiently improved to pay the higher cess; there is, nevertheless, a *maximum* for the best land, beyond which all produce is for the benefit of the landholder: and there are remissions in cases of urgent distress (1832, C. R. P. No. 29.)

Another advantage which the Ryotwar system possesses over the Zemindary, is in the creation of a great body of independent proprietors, instead of a few who are proprietors only in name; and there is an advantage to the revenue inasmuch as all the fruits of industry accumulate for the great mass of the people, but in the case of the Zemindary they accumulate for the benefit of the few, while the Ryotwar system tends also in a considerable degree to the accumulation of capital (1831, C. 4577, 4578, 4579.)

Each of these systems (as detailed in the analysis of the evidence before Parliament just given) find special and powerful advocates and arguments for the adoption of uniformity throughout India; but into this question it is not the author's province to enter; suffice it to say that the main points for consideration in any system of land assessment is the *low amount of the tax*:* and the preservation of the manorial

* A Parliamentary document gives the amount of the land tax *per head* in Bengal, in 1827, at 22 pence yearly, — in Madras 52 pence, and in Bombay 60 pence; and *per square mile*, Bengal 23 pence, Madras 17 pence, and Bombay 19 pence; the population per square mile in each Presidency

rights of the Ryots or cultivators. Adam Smith admits that a land-tax so managed as to give not only no discouragement, but on the contrary some encouragement to the improvement of land; which rises and falls with general not partial prosperity, that makes it the paramount benefit of the Government to preserve peace foreign and domestic; to augment by every possible means the quality and quantity of the territorial produce; to provide easy, cheap, and expeditious transit by land and water to the most profitable markets;—a land-tax thus managed, pressing fairly and lightly on each individual, and influenced by fixed and comprehensive principles of general utility, most beneficially unites the governed and the governor by the least dissoluble ties of mutual self-interest.

By Lord Cornwallis' permanent settlement in Lower Bengal much good was effected, accompanied, however, with a small portion of evil; the *fixing for ever* the assessment on the land was admirable in principle and highly beneficial to the proprietors, but the Government lost the advantage of increased prosperity in the country in consequence of the tax being fixed at a *money* instead of a *corn* rent; had the latter been adopted the tenant could not complain, and the resources of the state would not have suffered: the next evil arose from considering the Zemindars as landed proprietors instead of what they generally were, mere collectors or farmers of the revenue; the interests and rights of the Ryots or cultivating tenants of the soil were thus entirely lost sight of, and no measure has since been devised which would restore them without the allegation being raised of our infringing the solemn compact of the permanent or Zemindary settlement.

With reference to extending the system of the last named settlements to the Upper Provinces of Bengal, it seems neither prudent nor practicable so to do on account of the village corporations or communities described at p. 340.

This, much, however, might be accomplished—the fixing of the Government assessment every 10, 20, or 30 years, at a being, for Bengal 244, Madras 77, and Bombay 76. Land in Bengal is valued at 67 years' purchase.

each rent;—the settlements might be made with each village, leaving to the latter the choice of a longer or shorter lease: this plan might also be extended to the south of India, where the Ryotdwar system is in force; its advantages would be that a stimulus would be given to cultivation and improvement for 10, 20, or 30 years without the Government, like the title owner in England, stepping forth to reap the reward of skill and industry;—the assessment being at a corn rent, the Government would not have a revenue fluctuating according to the rise or fall in the prices of gold or silver, and the rights of individual cultivators as under the Madras Presidency or of village communities, as under the Bombay territories, would be preserved; while the necessity for annual scrutiny, and continual vexatious interference of the Government with the farmers would be happily annulled.

Lead Revenue in British India, at Five Intervals, to show its progress.

LAND REVENUES.		1789-90.	1799-1800.	1809-1810.	1819-1820.	1829-1830*	1835.
Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa.							
Revenues, Current, Do.	S. Rs.	3,56,05,300	3,26,47,028	3,40,28,186	3,71,99,228	3,68,26,718	39,49,288
Balances, Do.	Do.	9,07,989	31,28,247	11,45,267	22,71,617	20,49,288	—
Not in Jumma, Do.	Do.	1,19,271	2,13,500	29,242	4,87,271	4,47,412	—
Miscellaneous, Do.	Do.	1,42,886	85,428	84,644	1,25,036	8,95,698	—
Total		3,68,26,294	3,60,01,294	3,72,81,279	3,90,44,078	3,93,43,186	
Bihar.							
Revenues, Current, Do.	S. Rs.	88,24,282	82,45,420	87,44,142	44,80,431	44,84,728	—
Balances, Do.	Do.	5,94,241	4,28,287	1,27,188	26,088	3,24,288	—
Not in Jumma, Do.	Do.	—	4,428	64,271	23,907	64,401	—
Total		40,19,084	87,96,244	89,80,621	44,86,718	48,75,422	
Ceded and Conquered Provinces under Bengal.							
Revenues, Current, Do.	S. Rs.	—	—	1,40,27,698	1,23,28,282	1,26,12,078	—
Balances, Ceded Do.	Do.	—	—	14,81,284	2,14,61,287	1,54,79,288	—
Do., Conquered Do.	Do.	—	—	7,32,104	—	3,30,807	—
Do., Not in Jumma, Do.	Do.	—	—	10,79,981	6,31,800	9,14,808	—
Do., Do., Conquered Do.	Do.	—	—	41,608	124,081	1,44,712	—
Do., Do., Conquered Do.	Do.	—	—	1,02,941	1,27,184	4,71,720	—
Miscellaneous, Ceded Do.	Do.	—	—	46,794	1,21,218	79,287	—
Do., Conquered Do.	Do.	—	—	2,17,822	65,728	84,771	—
Total				2,60,29,499	2,18,27,273	2,68,77,919	
Ancient Possessions.							
Revenues, Current, Do.	Pagodas	12,74,477	16,58,812	16,29,622	19,84,987	19,07,812	—
Arrears of Do.	Do.	2,28,235	6,86,788	6,01,410	2,95,024	1,26,184	—
Total							
Ceded and Conquered Provinces.							
Revenues, Current, Do.	Pagodas	—	20,26,068	75,28,083	71,21,268	65,19,828	—
Arrears of Do.	Do.	—	1,93,658	4,96,644	4,94,953	4,32,866	—
Total							
Bombay.—Ancient Possessions.							
Revenues, Current, Do.	Rupces	3,70,465	3,96,883	3,07,043	14,28,249	—	—
Ceded and Conquered Provinces, Do.	Do.	19,06,204	20,63,010	19,94,738	121,29,860	—	—
Total							

* For Bengal the return is 1829-1830.

SALT.—The next main item of revenue in Bengal is derived from the manufacture and sale of salt by Government, the average annual produce of which is about 1,800,000 lbs. a year. It is in evidence before Parliament that the people are abundantly supplied with salt, and the tax is less than four *farthings* a month on each individual. Efforts have been made to authorise the Cheshire salt makers to furnish the Bengalese with salt, when the English Parliament recedes or even lessens the duty levied on the Hindoo sugar, being imported into Great Britain, then the Hindoos may receive English salt. Upper Bengal is supplied with salt partly from the Lower Provinces, and partly from salt mines in Western India. Madras exports salt to Bengal prepared by solar evaporation in exchange for rice and other provisions, and Bombay makes salt enough for its own use, the revenue in Bombay and Madras is trifling in amount compared with Bengal, being in the latter about 300,000*l.* and in the former not 20,000*l.* a year. Mr. St. George Tucker, lately Chairman of the E. I. Company, thus details the salt revenue for 1827, which he states to be a fair year for judging of the average revenue:

Population of Bengal, Bihar, and Orissa, computed at	11,000,000	11,000,000	11,000,000
Quantity of salt consumed by this population, supplied from our sales, <i>maunds</i>	45,00,000	45,00,000	45,00,000
Gross sale, at about 300 rupees per 100 <i>maunds</i>	13,50,00,000	13,50,00,000	13,50,00,000
Deduct cost and charges, which constitute no part of the tax	10,00,00,000	10,00,00,000	10,00,00,000
Net revenue or monopoly profit at 2 <i>o</i> . per sicca rupee	3,50,00,000	3,50,00,000	3,50,00,000
Medium consumption of each individual, per annum	6 sicca	6 sicca	6 sicca
Rate of contribution or poll-tax, yearly	10 pence	10 pence	10 pence

The charges on the salt revenue amounted in Bengal, in 1828 to S.R. 71,21,183, or 826,057*l.* viz. advances to manufacturers, S.R. 42,91,768; convention with the French government to prevent any interference with the E. I. Company's revenue, 4,00,000; ditto with the Danish government, (S.R. 1,00,000) It is now upwards of 40,000,000, which would, of course, decrease the amount of the tax paid by each individual.

15,000, salaries, commission to agents on manufacture, rent, establishments and contingencies, 22,61,527; buildings, &c. 1,52,888. At Madras the charge on the salt revenue for the same year was 85,495, of which the manufacturers' share was S. R. 2,50,548; the advances, 1,00,540; the compensations, 25,842; and Moyer Zabitan and other charges, 6,74,794.

Account of the Quantity of Salt sold, the Gross Proceeds, Net Profit, and Average of the Net Profit, from 1803-4, in the Territories under the Bengal Government subject to the Salt Monopoly.

Year	Quantity of Salt sold Maunds.	Gross Proceeds S. Rs.	Net Profit S. Rs.	Average of Net Profit	Average Price per Maund.
1803-4	41,42,627	1,47,57,489	1,13,25,752	273 6 9	
1804-5	42,22,513	1,48,23,889	1,13,04,458	268 4 5	
1805-6	37,95,715	1,20,85,813	88,26,532	237 10 1	
1806-7	45,00,294	1,50,15,441	1,23,07,310	275 14 9	
1807-8	44,77,063	1,50,12,168	1,23,77,593	279 10 1	
1808-9	43,97,059	1,32,55,149	1,03,81,855	242 3 8	
1809-10	46,46,175	1,54,07,504	1,14,03,410	247 0 9	
1810-11	45,00,023	1,50,00,023	1,18,69,304	265 2 8	
1811-12	46,75,360	1,59,51,593	1,15,84,575	237 0 10	
1812-13	50,00,467	1,60,00,467	1,19,00,000	238 0 0	
1813-14	46,00,508	1,46,35,050	1,01,27,007	216 13 6	
1814-15	39,24,053	1,41,99,204	98,00,000	254 0 0	
1815-16	44,46,070	1,43,45,513	96,00,000	217 1 4	
1816-17	45,18,007	1,47,06,320	1,04,00,000	232 9 11	
1817-18	47,06,343	1,50,00,705	1,11,42,424	232 5 16	
1818-19	53,24,067	1,50,00,440	1,17,07,523	222 0 0	
1819-20	53,27,940	1,72,37,587	1,28,57,587	235 5 7	
1820-21	53,79,524	1,90,12,430	1,30,07,897	236 0 11	
1821-22	50,24,875	1,84,88,086	1,30,07,897	250 0 1	
1822-23	51,63,000	1,70,30,000	1,13,15,462	220 3 4	
1823-24	46,13,516	1,41,11,111	1,11,11,111	240 0 0	
1824-25	55,89,071	2,03,30,873	1,35,08,575	239 7 0	
1825-26	38,00,000	1,00,00,000	1,00,00,000	267 0 0	
1826-27	45,00,000	1,04,34,576	1,17,10,043	276 0 0	
1827-28	43,10,000	1,01,01,010	1,01,01,010	237 0 0	
1828-29	43,00,000	1,01,01,010	1,01,01,010	237 0 0	
1829-30	43,00,000	1,01,01,010	1,01,01,010	237 0 0	
1830-31	43,00,000	1,01,01,010	1,01,01,010	237 0 0	
1831-32	43,00,000	1,01,01,010	1,01,01,010	237 0 0	
1832-33	43,00,000	1,01,01,010	1,01,01,010	237 0 0	
1833-34	43,00,000	1,01,01,010	1,01,01,010	237 0 0	

OPIMUM.—The revenue derived from opium, which is only second in importance to salt, is obtained in Bengal by Government receiving the prepared juice direct from the cultivators, and offering it for sale at public auction to the exporter; (no opium is allowed to be grown in Bengal but by the cultivators who are under engagements and advances with Government) and in Bombay a transit duty is charged on the shipment of the drug to China, the opium being grown and prepared in

allied states, Malwa, for instance. Under the head of commerce further particulars will be found; it is here sufficient to say that the incidence of this tax is difficult of ascertainment: on first view it appears to fall on the consumers in China, or other foreigners in the E. Archipelago; but on a second view of the question it is evident that if the British Government did not levy the tax, the Bengal producer of the opium would be at liberty to realize if possible the present price, and pocket himself the difference which now goes into the Indian treasury. The charges in Bengal on the opium revenue for 1827-28, the latest year laid before Parliament, was 658,254*l.* or S. R. 56,74,606; of which the manufacturers received in advance, S. R. 38,79,974; and the salaries, agency establishments and contingencies were 7,26,024; and there was also a compensation to purchasers of inferior Bâhar opium in 1824-25 of S. R. 10,88,608. It may here be observed that a chest or bale of the E. I. Company's opium is instantly purchased by a Chinese customer without any other examination than that of the Company's mark. The total number of chests of India opium imported into China (vide Commerce chapter) was in 1833 chests, 23,692, the value of which was Sp. dol. 15,362,429. An official document laid before the Revenue Sub-Committee of Parliament in June, 1832, gives the following detail to 1827; the subsequent years I have filled up at the India House, the form of the return, it will be perceived, differs in the latter years, when the Malwa cultivation or purchase was abandoned for a transit duty.

(Chests which derived by transit or other duties from the land or from goods imported or exported by sea from the next item, and are yearly increasing. The collection of inland or foreign-like duties in course of final addition in Form-

These several prices of which the maximum was rupees 2*½* 2*½* were reported to the Bengal Government, in the year 1825, as having been given to the cultivators of opium in the respective periods. In 1823 the Government fixed the maximum of remuneration to the cultivator at 3 rupees per acre. (The following price per chest)

Quantity of Behar and Benares Opium sold in India from 1797 to 1827, in millions of *Maunds*; it is here sufficient to show that the incidence of this tax is different in the two provinces.

Year.	BEHAR.		BENARES.		Prime Cost of Time of Sale, per <i>Maund</i> in <i>Mauud</i> in <i>Stock</i> & <i>Export</i> .	Price per <i>Maund</i> to Cultivator or Manufacturer in <i>Bicca</i> & <i>Maunds</i> .	Quantity Sold by Auction.
	Quantity Sold by Auction.	Quantity Sold by Auction.	Chests.	Factory <i>Maunds</i> .			
1797-8	3450	7205	722	1450	82	4	-
1798-9	3883	8004	780	1471	82	4	-
1799	3008	7068	605	1247	81	1	2
1800-1	3148	6598	700	1052	82	0	4
1801-2	3270	6827	723	1500	83	15	9
1802-3	2324	4610	616	1275	83	8	7
1803-4	2360	4700	779	1615	82	4	6
1804-5	3004	6204	833	1703	70	7	0
1805-6	3278	6228	848	1761	79	1	2
1806-7	3049	7580	880	1840	79	14	3
1807-8	3430	8000	923	1623	83	14	5
1808-9	3793	7003	707	1780	83	8	10
1809-10	3070	8310	908	2023	80	0	9
1810-11	3388	8088	1006	2040	82	3	7
1811-12	3950	8198	1007	2052	84	1	3
1812-13	3644	7894	948	1928	84	2	10
1813-14	3023	6309	649	1580	89	3	6
1814-15	3081	7036	843	1726	80	5	2
1815-16	3371	7317	747	1531	85	9	2
1816-17	3085	5637	800	1659	83	3	2
1817-18	2863	5890	689	1404	91	4	2
1818-19	3076	6231	611	1382	82	0	3
1819-20	3161	6549	783	1601	89	14	6
1820-21	3137	4909	800	1854	102	13	14
1821-22	3567	5530	573	1159	119	3	3
1822-23	3256	4723	620	1396	115	11	24
1823-24	4149	7054	1343	2403	130	1	4
1824-25	3936	6272	974	1974	135	-	8
1825-26	4092	6436	1588	2261	136	8	0
1826-27	4509	9981	1002	2006	128	3	0
1827-28	5432	1903	1903	17,000,3671	15,011,7612	1,0881	
1828-29	5397	8122	8122	15,123,492	15,283,281	1,1691	
1829-30	6149	2429	2429	16,207,092	11,115,436	1,284	
1830-31	5601	3147	3147	19,010,340	9,410,716	1,422	
1831-32	6370	3016	3016			1,477	
1832-33	7251	3087	3087			1,100	
1833-34	8276	3047	3047			900	

Customs, whether derived by transit or other duties on land, or from goods exported or imported by sea, form the next item, and are yearly increasing. The collection of inland or turnpike-like duties is in course of final abolition (in Bom-

* These average prices, of which the maximum was rupees 2s. 2d., were reported to the Bengal Government, in the year 1822, as having been given to the cultivators of opium at the respective periods. In 1823 the Government fixed the maximum of recompense to the cultivator at 3 rupees per *Secr*.

† Gross receipts. ‡ Net receipts. § This is the averaging price per chest.

bay totally abrogated), and the duties levied on sea goods very light in amount, and unaccompanied by vexatious restrictions.

Stamps are an increasing source of revenue since their establishment in Bengal in 1797, and in Calcutta city in 1828. The instruments liable to the duty in Bengal, are, contracts, deeds, conveyances, leases, powers of attorney, policies of insurance, promissory notes, receipts, bail bonds and legal proceeding generally (bills of exchange under 25 rupees, and receipts under 50 rupees, are alone exempt). In Madras stamped paper was first introduced in 1808, chiefly on legal proceedings; and in 1816 the duties were extended to bonds, deeds, leases, mortgages, bills of exchange, and receipts. In Bombay the tax was first introduced in 1815; Delhi and some other territories are not yet subjected to this duty, from the operation of which the small dealer and poor farmer is exempt, while the large capitalist or inveterate litigist is made to pay a portion of the Government expenses, the most productive stamps in India being those on money dealing and miscellaneous law papers. The charge on stamps for 1827-28, was in Bengal, 71,431*l.* or S. R. 6,15,782, viz. fees to native commissioners in Mofussil courts, S. R. 2,27,370; purchase of paper, 48,704; commission, salary, establishment and contingency, 3,39,708; for Madras the total charge was, 9,437*l.*

The *sayer* and *abkaree* taxes include a variety of items, in some places being irregular collections by provincial officers; in others licenses on professions or on manufactures, such as the distillation of spirits, which latter is collected by a *still-head* duty, manufactured after the English fashion, at the rate of six annas, or six sixteenths of a rupee per gallon, London proof. There is a tobacco monopoly in some places, and extra cesses in others; but these and other unstatesman-like sources of revenue are all in course of abolition.

The *Mint revenue* is collected by a seignorage for coining of two per cent on the produce, after allowing for the difference of standard and deducting the charges of refining when such are chargeable; that is when the silver is below the

dollar standard, which is five or six times more than the present rate. Copper coinage also yields to the Government a large profit, the copper money being issued at the rate of 64 (weighing 6,400 grains) for the rupee, which is about 100 per cent. above the value of the copper. The charges on the Mint revenue of Bengal was in 1837, 43,833, or S. R. 3,77,867; viz. salaries, establishments and contingencies, 2,01,080; loss of weight in melting the precious metals, 1,76,767; for Madras, 20,406; and Bombay, 3,637.

The Post office tax is light in amount, and increasing as fast as can be expected from a post conveyed by runners on foot. The charges under this head of revenue were for Bengal, salaries and establishments, S. R. 1,25,594, Dawk establishment, 6,42,293. Total, S. R. 7,67,887, or 89,073. Madras, salaries and establishments, &c. S. R. 64,973. Tappal establishment, 1,91,744. Total, S. R. 2,56,717, or 29,329. Bombay, 18,148.

The charges for transmission of letters through the Government Post Offices of British India are—

In Bengal, a letter is forwarded 1000 miles for 12 annas, or 1s. 6d.; in Bombay, ditto 1,000 ditto for 15 ditto or 1s. 10d.; in Madras, do. 1,000 do. for 17 ditto or 2s. 1d.

Judicial revenue is raised on stamps requisite in causes of different amount in order to defray legal charges and discourage litigation, to which the wealthier Hindoos are much prone.—In suits for sums not exceeding 16 rupees, the plaint or petition must be written on paper bearing a stamp of one rupee. If the suit exceed 16 rupees, and do not exceed 32 rupees, a stamp of two rupees is required. Above 32 rupees, and not exceeding 64, the stamp is four rupees. Above 64 rupees, and not exceeding 150, eight rupees. Above 150 rupees, and not exceeding 300, 16 rupees. Above 300 rupees, and not exceeding 800, 32 rupees. Above 800 rupees, and not exceeding 1,600, 50 rupees. Above 1,600 rupees, and not exceeding 3,000, 100 rupees. Above 3,000 rupees, and not exceeding 5,000, 150 rupees. Above 5,000 rupees, and not exceeding 10,000, 250 rupees. Above 10,000 rupees, and

not exceeding 15,000, 350 rupees. Above 15,000 rupees, and not exceeding 25,000, 500 rupees. Above 25,000 rupees, and not exceeding 50,000, 750 rupees. Above 50,000 rupees, and not exceeding 100,000, 1,000 rupees. Above 100,000 rupees, 2,000 rupees. The other stamp duties to which the parties are subject, besides the institution stamp, are, — All exhibits filed in court are required to be accompanied with an application praying the admission of the same, and that application must be written on stamped paper: in the Zillah Court, the stamp is one rupee; in the Provincial Court and the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, two rupees. So also no summons is issued for the attendance of any witness without an application in writing, praying the attendance of such person, which application must be written on stamped paper, similar to that prescribed in the case of filing exhibits. Further answers, replications, rejoinders, supplemental pleadings, and all agreements of compromise and petitions, are required to be written on stamps of one rupee in the Zillah Court, and four rupees in the Provincial Court in the Sudder Dewanny. Miscellaneous petitions and applications preferred to public authorities, either revenue or judicial, are required to be written on stamps of eight annas, if preferred to a Zillah judge or magistrate, or collector; of one rupee, if to a Court of Appeal or Circuit; and of two rupees, if to the Sudder Dewanny or Nizamut Adawlut, or to the Board of Revenue. The appointment of the vakeels to act in each case is made by an instrument bearing a similar stamp. Copies of decrees also are required to be stamped: in the Zillah Court the stamp is one rupee; in the Provincial Court, two rupees; in the Sudder, four rupees; and all proceedings of the Sudder prepared for transmission to the King in Council must be transcribed on paper bearing a stamp of two rupees. Copies of miscellaneous papers are required to be written on a stamp of eight annas, or half-rupee. — [For costs of a suit in the different Courts, see Appendix.]

The Judicial charges are exceedingly heavy, viz. in *Bengal*, the Supreme court, S. R. 4,32,357; Justices of the peace and

diet of the prisoners at Calcutta, 2,51,693; Court of Requests, 98,605; Sudder Dewanny and Nizamut Adawlut, 6,38,869; Provincial courts of appeal and Zillah Adawluts, 62,69,040; Provincial police, 17,69,377; extra and contingent charges, 370,318; Pensions, 38,455. Total, S. R. 9,89,91,694 or sterling 1,147,436*l.*—*In Madras*, Supreme Court, S. R. 3,08,700; Police charges in town of Madras, 1,33,040; Court of Sudder and Fouzdary Adawlut, 2,53,557; Provincial Courts, 25,97,490; Pensions, &c. 7,342. Total, S. R. 33,00,129 or 377,168*l.*—*In Bombay*, Supreme Court, S. R. 3,68,400; Police charges at Bombay Presidency, 1,27,540; Court of Sudder and Fouzdary Adawlut, 2,62,891; Provincial Courts, 19,39,774; Buildings, &c. 76,701. Total, S. R. 27,75,306 or 312,222*l.* The grand total for the three Presidencies being 1,836,816*l.* sterling, (for the charge for the past year vide table prefixed to this Chapter.)

The Marine revenue arises from port and anchorage dues, &c. in order to keep up the useful establishments at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, in particular at the former port.

The foregoing items are the principal, if not the sole, sources of the Government revenue of 18 to 20,000,000*l.* a year, and they offer a strong contrast to the manner in which 50,000,000*l.* a year is raised in Great Britain chiefly on the necessaries of life, or on the comforts and industry of the people.

MONETARY SYSTEM.—The Bank of Bengal, (the only chartered bank in our Eastern possessions) established in 1809, by a charter from the Governor-General in Council, under Act of Parliament, is partly a private, partly a Government bank, regulated as a bank of discounts and deposits, on the principles of the Bank of England, and confined in its accounts and transactions to Calcutta. The shares are in value 1,000*l.* each, and in number 500; the Government hold 100 with power to nominate three Directors, while the proprietors elect six; the President is elected by the Directors, and the proprietors can vote by proxy. Natives may become Directors if chosen by the proprietors. The premium on bank stock is about 50 per cent., and the average amount of divi-

dand of late years nine, to ten per cent. The accounts are public, and regularly laid before government twice a year, and of a paid-up capital of 5,000,000 rupees, part is vested in Government securities, and the remainder employed in the trade of banking. It issues notes which vary in amount from 10 rupees to 20,000 rupees, there being no maximum or minimum limitation. The largest proportion is in notes of 100 rupees upwards; the average amount of its paper in circulation is 800,000, which is all payable on demand at sight. The notes circulate among the natives as far as Bahar, or wherever they are received in the Government Treasuries in receipt for revenue, &c. There are two restrictions upon the issue of paper money, the first practical, namely a reservation of cash, equivalent to a fourth of its engagements payable on demand, and the second, that the circulation of notes shall not exceed 2,000,000, but there has scarcely ever been a demand for notes to half that extent. The Bank of Bengal has no monopoly, it is however the only chartered bank, &c. it is a corporation, can sue and be sued under its common seal, and individuals proprietors are not liable beyond the amount of their subscription; its other exclusive advantage consists in Government receiving its notes solely. The following is the latest return shewing the balance of the Bank of Bengal, 29th June, 1838.

Dr.	S. Rs.	Cr.	S. Rs.
Cash, government securities, loans on deposits of government securities, &c., and bills on government discounted	12,596,490	Bank notes and post bills outstanding and claims payable on demand	12,165,443
Private bills discounted	2,018,030	Net stock	2,949,266
Doubtful debts	719,135		
Advance for legal proceedings	5,335		
Dead stock	117,020		
Total	S. Rs. 17,505,969	Total	S. Rs. 17,505,969

Rates of business, on this date 6 per cent. for private bill discounts, and 4 per cent. for deposit loans; its issues are twelve million rupees, — a sum more than 50 per cent. in excess of the minimum of 1827, in which year the whole amount of bank notes, including those of the three private banks then

in existence, was not greater than the present joint circulation of the Bank of Bengal and the Union Bank. The bank has lost considerably by bad debts and by forgeries, at which latter the natives are extremely expert. There is an establishment termed the UNION BANK at Calcutta, supported by the principal merchants, and quite unconnected with Government. Madras has no bank precisely similar to that of Bengal, and Bombay has not, I believe, any European bank issuing money. There can now scarcely be said to be any gold coin in circulation in Bengal, and the highest silver denomination is rupees, viz. those of Calcutta and Furruckabad. The Furruckabad rupee weighs 180·234 grs. troy; Calcutta rupee 191·916 grs. troy. For practical purposes the Calcutta rupee may be valued as weighing 192 grs. troy, with 176 of silver, and the Furruckabad 180 grs. with 165 of pure metal. The Madras rupee, as established in 1818, consists of 180 grs. and contains 165 grs. of pure silver, and 15 grs. of alloy. The gold coinage is of the same weight and fineness as the silver, but the ratio between gold and silver is liable to be varied from time to time by Government proclamation. Bengal, Madras, and Bombay have each a mint, at which are coined rupees agreeing in standard and weight with the Furruckabad rupees, and the rupees of the three Presidencies are issued to the army at a nominal value, termed a *Sowant* rupee. The gold coins that issue from the mint can scarcely be reckoned among the currencies, because the market value of gold having risen considerably above the mint value, it has ceased to circulate at the prescribed, or at any fixed rate. The gold mohur of Bengal weighs 204·710 grs. of which the fine gold is 187·651 grs.; the Madras gold rupee is of the same weight and standard with the silver, viz. 180 grs.; and at both Presidencies the relative value of gold to silver is fifteen to one, the Bengal mohur being reckoned equal to 16 rupees. A copper coin, weighing 100 grs. is current through the Bengal territories at the rate of 64 to 7 rupees, but it is a legal tender only for the fractional parts of the rupee; cowrees or sea shells still circulate, and to a con-

considerable extent in some provinces, but they are disappearing with the prosperity of the country.

A large mint has been established at Bombay for an uniform coinage, as there are a great number of different rupees current in the Deekhan, coined in different years, and having a marketable value, according to their value. The rates of exchange vary not only between Bombay and Poona, but between district and district. Gold is not current in the Deekhan; there is no paper circulation; but native *Hoes* does, or small bills of exchange, are numerous. The circulating medium is silver and copper, the relative value altering in favour of the latter, all their gold has been exported to England years ago. Ordinary interest of money with the natives nine, and with the European mercantile houses five, per cent. At Calcutta from six to twelve per cent.

The total coinage of the four mints (Calcutta, Benares, Furruckabad, and Sagur) for the period of 31 years, has been 53,322,600. The bullion importation via Calcutta, from 1813-14 to 1831-32 is valued at S. R. 355,837,644; from which, deducting the exports of bullion for the same period, 65,396,544, leave bullion disposed of in the country, S. R. 290,446,100. The coinage of the several mints for the above term of 18 years was—Calcutta, S. R. 203,615,962; Benares, S. R. 88,236,359; Furruckabad, 47,252,843; Sagur, 4,324,779. Making a total of S. R. 343,522,940, being an excess of one-fifth above the imports, or S. R. 53,076,840. The coinage of the native mints is estimated at one half of our own, which will give a total of 3,02,93,578, or three crores per annum for the Bengal Presidency, being 150,000 per diem for 200 working days.

The total coinage of copper pice since 1801, bears a value in silver of 50½ lakhs of S. R., which in tale is 32½ crores for 31 years—or one crore per annum; thus adding 50,000 pieces to the daily work as above mentioned.

By a financial regulation of the Bengal Government (18th May, 1833,) it is enacted that,

The Weight and Standard of the Calcutta Sica, Rupee and its subdivisions, and of the Farruckabad Rupee, shall be as follows:

Unit	Weight in Grains	Standard
Cal. Sica Rupee	176	176
Ditto quarter	44	44
Farruckabad Rupee	176	176

The use of the Sica Weight of 176 Grains hitherto employed for the receipt of Ballion at the Mint, being in fact the weight of the Moorshedabad Rupee of the old standard, which was assumed as the Sica Currency of the Honorable Company's Provinces of Agra, Behar, and Orissa, shall be discontinued, and in its place the following Unit, to be called the Tola, shall be introduced, which, from its immediate connexion with the Rupee of the Upper Provinces, and of the Madras and Bombay, will easily and speedily become universal throughout the British territories.

The Tola or Sica Weight to be equal to 180 Grains Troy, and the other denominations of weight to be derived from this Unit, according to the following scale:

- 8 Battas = 1 Masha = 15 Troy grains.
- 12 Mashas = 1 Tola = 180 ditto.
- 100 Tolas = 1 Mudd = 18,000 ditto.
- 40 Seers = 1 Mun, or Bazar Maund = 100 lbs. Troy.

At Calcutta the monies of account are as follows:

- 4 cowries = 1 gunda = 16 annas = 1 S. rupee (20 gundas = 1 punn = 4 punns = 1 anna) 16 S. rupees = 1 gold mohur.
- The usual accounts are 4 punns or 12 pice = 1 anna = 16 annas = 1 S. rupee = 16 S. S. rupees = 1 gold mohur.

At Madras there is a considerable variety of coins in circulation; accounts are kept thus 80 cash = 1 fanam; 12 fanams = 1 rupee, and 42 fanams = 1 pagoda, star or current pagoda worth 7s. 5½d., commonly valued at 8s. The gold rupee, new coinage, 17. 9s. 2½d., according to the mint price of gold in England. Arcot rupee (silver) and new ditto, 1s. 11½d. and 1s. 11¼d. Copper pieces coined in England of 20 cash, called pice, and of 10 and 5 cash, called dodees and half dodees, are also current.

Bombay rupee divided into 4 qrs., each qr. being 100 reas; there are 2 reas in an urdee, 4 in a doogany or single pice, 6 reas in a dareea, 8 reas in a fuddea or double pice, 50 pice or 16 annas in the rupee, 5 rupees in a pauncha, and 15 rupees in a gold mohur. The annas and reas are imaginary

Cowrie are small shells, plentiful on Eastern shores, particularly those of Africa; they are, however, fast disappearing from commercial transactions at the Presidencies.

coins; the double and single pice, the urdeea and the doreea, are copper coins, with a mixture of tin or lead; the others are the gold mohur and silver rupee, with their divisions. The following is the assay and sterling value of the principal gold and silver coinage of Calcutta and Bombay; a lengthened and elaborate document on the subject will be found in the *Appendix*.

the currency of the country		Gross Weight.	Pure Metal.	Sterling Value.
		Gr.	Gr.	Rs. d.
Calcutta.	Gold Mohur	304.716	187.681	1 13 24 2.25
	Sicca Rupees	301.016	177.078	2 0 6.25
	Furruckabad	180.334	105.318	1 11 8.25
Bombay.	Gold Mohur	179.0	164.66	0 0 0
	Silver Rupee	179.0	164.06	0 2 0
Madras.	Rupee	180.0	166.0	

By the latest accounts from India it was proposed to establish a new bank at Agra, and savings' bank were about to be set on foot under the sanction and superintendence of Government.

For a long period the flow of the precious metals was towards India; the current has now, however, changed, and the exportations from India to Europe of gold and silver has been yearly augmenting.

Net Import or Export of Treasure into and from India in each year, from 1813-14 to 1832-33 inclusive. (For a complete view of the Importations and Exportations at each Presidency see *Appendix*.)

Year.	Net Import.	Year.	Net Import.	Year.	Net Import.	Year.	Net Export.
	Rs. Rs.		Rs. Rs.		Rs. Rs.		Rs. Rs.
1813-14	25,95,000	1819-20	4,30,30,435	1825-26	1,14,02,100	1831-32	64,07,000
1814-15	1,07,00,000	1820-21	2,91,15,843	1826-27	2,03,14,283	1832-33	15,14,000
1815-16	2,25,35,040	1821-22	1,16,40,302	1827-28	1,92,00,070		
1816-17	4,55,09,541	1822-23	2,02,23,913	1828-29	1,43,00,322		
1817-18	4,20,35,483	1823-24	35,81,800	1829-30	1,15,44,754		
1818-19	6,52,30,025	1824-25	1,17,71,000	1830-31	99,30,950		

The treasure held in the several Treasuries of the Com-

It will be seen by the 4th column that there is now a greater export from than import into India.

pany, under the Bengal Presidency* amounts generally to 3,000,000, and under the subordinate Presidencies of Madras and Bombay the amount fluctuates from 2,000,000 to 3,000,000 stg. Before the breaking out of the Burmese war, from 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 stg. was collected by the Marquis of Hastings in Bengal, for the purpose of paying off the debt. The accumulations of such large balances in the hands of government has justly been objected to, as causing sudden and excessive fluctuations in the currency of the country. The amount of remittances from India to England is very great; being first, the sum requisite to pay territorial

* LIST OF THE SEVERAL TREASURIES IN INDIA.—*Bengal (Political).—*

General Treasury, Lucknow, Gwalior, Indore, Nipaul, Nagpore, Delhi, South Behar, Bhopal, N. E. Frontier, Bithoor, Amherst, &c., P. W. Island, Singapore, Malacca.

Bengal (Revenue).— Burdwan, Backergunge, Beerbhoom, Bulloah, Chittagong, Dacca, Dinagepore, Hooghly, Jessore, Jungle Mahals, Myensing, Moorshedabad, Nuddeah, Purneah, Rajeshahye, Rungpore, Sylhet, Tipperah, 24 Pergunnahs, Behar, Patna, Bhangulpore, Ramghur, Sarun, Shahabad, Tirhoot, Hidgelee, Midnapore, Cuttack, Pooree, Bala-sore, Rungpore (N. E. Frontier), Sherepore, Lower Assam, Upper Assam, Arracan, Sandowee, Ramree, Benares, Ghazee-pore, Juanpore, Allahabad, Futtehpore, Bareilly, Caynpore, Etawah, Furruckabad, Goruckpore, Moradabad (S. D.), Ditto (N. D.), Shajehanpore, Agra, Allyghur, Sahe-swar, Bolundshahur, Saidabad, Calpee, Delhi (Centre Division), Ditto (N. Ditto), Ditto (W. Ditto), Ditto (S. Ditto), Ditto (Rohtack Ditto), Seharunpore, Meerut, Kumaon, Sangor, Huttah, Jubbulpore, Nusingpore, Seoree, Hussingabad, Baitool, Reply, Rajpootana, Banda, Pilibheet, Deyrah, Moozuffernugger, Jaggernauth.

Madras (Political).— General Treasury, Masulipatam General Treasury, Travancore, Mysore, Hyderabad, Tanjore, Vellore, Paymaster of Stipends.

Madras (Revenue).— Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Rajahmundry, Masulipa-tam, Guntoor, Nellore, Chingleput, Arcot (N. Division), Ditto (S. Ditto), Bellary, Cuddapah, Coimbatore, Salem, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, Canara, Madura, Tinnivelly, Malabar.

Bombay (Political).— General Treasury, Baroda, Bushire, Bussorah, Mocha, Cutch.

Bombay (Revenue).— Southern Concan, Northern Ditto, Surat, Broach, E. Zillah N. of the Myhee, Ahmedabad, Kattywar, Poonah, Ahmednugger, Carnatic, Candeish.

charges in England, 3,000,000; second, a demand for remittance of private savings and family expenses, estimated at 1,500,000; and third, a return for the outward trade, 3,000,000; total, 7,500,000.

These returns are made through the commerce of India and Outing of bullion from both countries.

The territorial charges of India, payable in England, consist of payments on account of passage of military (88,000); pay to officers, including off reckonings, (120,000); political freight and demurrage, (134,000); war office demand for King's troops serving in India, (220,000); retiring pay, pensions, &c. to King's troops, (60,000); political charges general (including the political charge for the establishments at the India House, 100,000); the Board of Control, (80,000); Halseybury, Addiscomb, (22,000); Chatham and recruiting, &c. (44,000); miscellaneous expenses on account of Prince of Wales Island, Singapore, &c. (140,000); charges of the Tanjore Commission, (4,000); absentee allowance, &c. to civil service, (30,000); territorial stores, (500,000); St. Helena charges (now terminating) (120,000); Lord Clive's fund, (33,000); political annuitants and pensioners, (58,000); &c. &c.

A brief view of the Indian debt will next be requisite. In the early period of British connexion with India, the territorial revenues of the country probably aided commerce, in the latter period commerce undoubtedly aided territory, and for 15 years the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay have had an annual deficit of the sum requisite to meet political charges. The Indian Government was therefore obliged to have recourse to borrow a sufficiency to meet the deficit which the commercial profits of the tea trade failed to supply; and the territorial debt of India was, at four different periods, thus...

The annual drain on India in remittances to England on account of Government, is thought by Mr. Mills, of the Auditor-general's department, to average 23,000,000 a year for the last 30 years. I have elsewhere shown what this sum amounts to in compound interest for that period.

INDIAN DEBT, HELD BY EUROPEANS AND NATIVES.

Year	Debt at Interest	Floating Ditto	Total
1792	47,129,364	27,913,796	75,043,160
1814	26,979,785	3,045,874	30,025,659
1823	29,977,900	7,000,000	36,977,900
1833	25,000,000	9,000,000	34,000,000

Of this Indian debt that of Bengal is the principal fixed or registered debt of which, with the relative proportion held by Europeans and natives was, in 1830, and in 1833,

Date of Loan	Sicca Rupees Held by Europeans	Sicca Rupees Held by Natives	Total
Six per cent. loan 1823	7,000,000	1,000,000	8,000,000
Five Do. 31st Mar. 1823	7,000,000	2,000,000	9,000,000
Five Do. 1st Mar. 1823	4,200,000	1,000,000	5,200,000
Five Ditto of 1823-26	19,517,000	7,000,000	26,517,000
Four Ditto of 1823-26	4,125,000	5,000,000	9,125,000
Four Ditto of 1823-29	6,630,000	5,841,000	12,471,000
Four Do. 1st Mar. 1823	1,400,000	1,000,000	2,400,000
Total	19,743,400	6,773,200	26,516,600

Of the first or six per cent. remittable loan, the principal when repaid is demandable in bills on England at the rate of 2s. 6d. the Sicca rupee, the interest being intermediately payable half yearly, either in cash in India, or if the proprietors reside in Europe, and demand it in that form by bills at the rate of 2s. 1d. The other loans, both principal and interest, are demandable only in India; but to the holders of the second (five per cent. of 1823) an option was given of receiving their interest (which is payable half yearly), in bills at the rate of 2s. 1d. (subsequently reduced to 1s. 11d.) during the pleasure of the home authorities; the third and fourth loans have the interest thereon paid quarterly to all holders wheresoever resident, either in cash or in bills, at the rate of

Principally composed of the loans and treasury notes, not bearing interest, and consisting for the greater part of arrears of salaries and allowances due to civil officers; of pay due to the military, (who in Bengal are kept two months in arrear always), and of deposits.

Of the whole interest of the Indian debt, 927,000l. is subject to the option of having the interest payable in England, and in 1830 the sum of 450,000l. was actually demanded in England; the average rate of interest was six per cent. in 1814, and five per cent. in 1823.

2s., during the pleasure of the home authorities. The five per cent. loan of 1823 is repayable only by annual instalments of one and a half crore of rupees; the notes first entered in the register having the advantage of being least liable to discharge. The whole debt is now fully recognised by the Legislature, and the remittable loan paper bears a premium in the Indian market of from 30 to 40 per cent., and consists solely of the debt of 1822, viz. 7,47,38,700 rupees.

The following is a detailed comparative statement of the Indian debt in 1809 and in 1827:—

Debt in S. Rupees on the 30th of April, 1809.

	10 p. Cent.	5 p. Cent.	5 per Cent.	4 p. Cent.	Total of Debt at Interest.	Debt not at Interest.	Total of Debt.
Bengal	85,84,500	..	16,91,59,028	24,24,065	16,01,07,598	2,30,34,133	20,32,01,716
Madras	29,85,383	..	5,14,60,760	50,46,834	5,05,15,983	31,47,124	6,46,63,000
Bombay	7,07,336	23,25,169	2,97,75,090	1,05,341	3,30,04,343	35,37,834	3,65,02,078
Deduct Sinking Fund.)	1,23,69,321	23,25,169	20,84,13,496	76,27,240	27,37,67,730	3,18,09,001	30,45,56,811
Interest	1,23,69,321	23,25,169	22,69,97,390	76,27,240	24,82,30,290	3,18,09,001	27,51,39,301
Total	12,38,069	2,09,368	1,76,70,830	4,88,234	Total	1,08,84,330	

Debt, S. Rupees, 30th April, 1827.

	10 p. Cent.	5 p. Cent.	5 per Cent.	4 p. Cent.	5 and 4 Pice per Dism.	Total.
Bengal	30,007	..	9,24,92,482	16,89,64,720	22,57,400	26,48,45,000
Madras	1,51,726	3,52,33,210	11,12,039	1,07,900	2,72,98,264
Bombay	18,69,378	23,76,038	..	11,00,450	34,45,780
Interest	3,000	1,01,000	73,01,300	22,08,980	1,48,000	1,01,19,300

	Debt at Interest 30th April, 1827.	Debt not bearing Interest, 30th April.	Total Bearing and not Bearing.
Bengal	26,48,45,000	8,68,66,004	35,17,11,003
Madras	2,72,98,264	83,86,454	3,56,74,718
Bombay	34,45,785	48,78,398	1,02,79,834
Interest	20,75,38,020	10,01,26,716	30,76,64,736

Public Debt, bearing Interest outstanding at the several Presidencies on the 30th April 1832.

Registered Debt	Debt	Rate of Interest	Annual amount of Interest
Loans, Sicca Rupees	2632002	5 per cent.	5181546
do. do.	200401699	5 ditto	10120083
do. do.	13594170	4 ditto.	542367
do. do.	209424070	5 ditto	16849998
Loans transferred from Port Maderaga, do.	19265	10 ditto.	19265
Treasury Notes do.	402660	Various.	242720
Civil & Military Funds do.	9122000	5 and 6 p. cent.	610018
Miscellaneous Deposits do.	194990	6 ditto.	11664
Total, S. R.	310722273		16710680
Total of Debt.			
Caranatic Fund, Rupees	23990057	5 per cent.	1199503
Loans, &c. do.	1272861	6 and 4 ditto.	69991
Civil & Military Funds do.	6000000	5, 6, and 4, ditto.	489166
Miscellaneous Deposits do.	366259	5, 6, and 5, do.	28000
Total, Rupees	32290507		1798845
In Sicca Rupees	30819725		1674033
Civil & Military Funds Rs.	5034630	5 and 6 per cent.	347169
Miscellaneous Deposits do.	1060083	6 and 4 ditto.	71802
Rupees	600721		419971
In Sicca Rupees	6208040		398400
Grand Total	32320467		18784283
In Sterling	£23230465		£1278428

The debts of India in 1833 were as follow:—Debts bearing interest—Bengal, about 32,000,000l.; Madras, 3,000,000l.; Bombay, 630,000; not bearing interest—Bengal, 8,000,000l.; Madras, 700,000l.; Bombay, 300,000l. The five per cent. loan is the principal debt, it amounts, in Bengal to 18,000,000l.; and in Madras, to 2,500,000l.; in Bombay, none. The Treasury notes issued by the Bengal Government amount to 700,000l.

The home bond debt of the E. I. Company, amounting to 3,400,000l. is composed of securities issued by the Company under their common seal, Parliament having authorised their borrowing money to a certain extent, and limiting its subsequent reduction to 3,000,000l.; the rate of interest paid in 1831 on this debt was two and a half per cent.

BENGAL.		MADRAS.		BOMBAY.		INDIA.	
Revenue.	Charge.	Revenue.	Charge.	Revenue.	Charge.	Revenue.	Charge.
1814	11,527,496	5,075,161	6,189,419	897,068	1,271,254	1,000,000	1,000,000
1815	11,415,780	5,637,688	5,261,466	972,648	1,264,644	1,000,000	1,000,000
1816	11,596,359	6,785,974	5,129,535	994,959	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1817	11,746,359	7,811,822	5,261,466	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1818	12,279,975	8,607,728	5,467,728	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1819	12,511,689	9,288,734	5,667,084	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1820	12,511,689	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1821	13,261,261	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1822	14,466,661	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1823	13,654,249	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1824	13,654,249	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1825	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1826	15,131,262	12,708,400	6,261,501	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1827	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1828	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1829	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1830	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1831	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1832	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1833	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1834	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1835	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1836	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1837	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1838	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1839	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1840	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1841	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1842	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1843	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1844	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1845	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1846	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1847	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1848	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1849	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1850	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1851	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1852	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1853	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1854	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1855	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1856	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1857	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1858	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1859	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1860	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1861	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1862	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1863	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1864	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1865	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1866	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1867	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1868	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1869	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1870	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1871	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1872	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1873	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1874	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1875	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1876	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1877	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1878	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1879	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1880	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1881	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1882	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1883	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1884	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1885	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1886	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1887	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1888	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1889	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1890	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1891	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1892	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1893	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1894	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1895	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1896	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1897	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1898	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1899	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000
1900	14,766,400	10,288,734	5,789,875	1,000,000	1,266,170	1,000,000	1,000,000

In the above statement, from the year 1826, the allowances and assignments payable to Native Princes, and other under treaties, amounting to upwards of a million and a half per annum; and the charges of collecting the revenue, including the cost of the opium and salt, amounting to upwards of two millions and half more, have been included in order to arrive at the real produce of the revenue.

In the tabular statement, down to the year 1867, the gross revenues are shewn; and the rate of converting the Indian rupee into sterling is at present higher than the rate at present used.

These alterations in the system of drawing up the accounts of the Indian finances, were suggested by Mr. James Cosmo Gifford, the Comptroller-General of the Indian Revenue, in the late arrangements under the New Charter Act, and sanctioned by the Court of Directors and the Commissioners of the Indian Revenue.

† Deficit of Rs. 2,317,000.

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Commerce of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, with Great Britain, North and South America, France, Lisbon, &c. [House of Commons, June 1833.]

		IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.			EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.		
	Merchandise	Bullion	Total		Merchandise	Bullion	Total
From—	S. Rupees.	£. Rs.	£. Rs.	By—	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Great Britain.	1,87,84,811	7,692	1,87,82,813	E. I. Company	1,22,22,854	None	1,22,22,854
N. America...	11,79,445	8,47,849	20,26,894	British Merch.	1,19,16,882	30,21,184	1,49,38,016
South Ditto...	4,05,981	None	4,05,981	N. America...	None	None	22,80,344
Lisbon.....	57,182	Ditto	57,182	South Ditto...	None	None	None
France.....	1,79,388	5,000	2,78,888	France.....	27,84,876	5,000	32,84,876
Sweden.....	88,872	None	88,872	Sweden.....	1,06,887	None	1,06,887
Hamburg.....	25,894	Ditto	25,894				
Total...	2,22,59,316	8,55,481	2,22,17,787	Total...	2,8990,248	30,21,184	3,2420,727
		MADRAS.			MADRAS.		
	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.		M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.
Great Britain.	21,78,744	None	21,78,744	E. I. Company	2,42,512	None	2,42,512
America.....	18,678	Ditto	18,678	British Merch.	16,37,330	5,98,984	22,36,184
France.....	1,73,892	5,800	1,79,392	America.....	43,812	None	43,812
				France.....	2,32,783	Ditto	2,32,783
Total...	22,67,914	5,800	22,73,721	Total...	21,57,338	5,98,984	27,55,222
		BOMBAY.			BOMBAY.		
	£. Rs.	£. Rs.	£. Rs.		£. Rs.	£. Rs.	£. Rs.
Great Britain.	91,12,811	4,880	91,16,891	Great Britain.	62,82,476	14,54,820	68,40,896
America.....	1,09,881	None	1,09,881	America.....	29,848	None	29,848
Brazils.....	1,33,400	92,800	2,26,200	Brazils.....	59,951	Ditto	59,951
France.....	1,84,793	None	1,84,793	France.....	31,418	Ditto	31,418
Holland.....	19,864	Ditto	19,864	Sweden.....	82,847	Ditto	82,847
Sweden.....	97,888	Ditto	97,888				
Total...	95,89,888	98,880	97,88,300	Total...	12,89,140	14,54,820	17,43,760
		ALL INDIA.			ALL INDIA.		
	£. Rs.	£. Rs.	£. Rs.		£. Rs.	£. Rs.	£. Rs.
Eastern Isles.	22,22,222	21,40,887	70,82,200	Eastern Isles.	61,22,217	5,22,222	66,47,400
Arabia, &c....	26,42,812	22,22,890	20,82,115	Arabia, &c....	72,66,873	20,220	72,87,893
China.....	5,200,000	4,684,370	9,984,470	China.....	17,400,000	55,890	17,455,000

(Commerce of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, with Great Britain, North America, China, Eastern Islands, &c.; Staples of India, and Suggestions for their Improvement and Development.)

EXPORTS FROM
CHAPTER VI.
 IMPORTS INTO
 BENGAL

COMMERCE, MARITIME AND INTERNAL OF BENGAL, MADRAS, AND BOMBAY; TRADE WITH GREAT BRITAIN, CONTINENTAL EUROPE, AND AMERICA, CHINA, EASTERN ISLANDS, &c.; STAPLES OF INDIA, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR THEIR IMPROVEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT.

The commerce between Europe and India has ever been considered one of the most important subjects which could engage the attention of a mercantile statesman; and the fertile regions of the eastern hemisphere are now anxiously looked forward to as a rich field for the enjoyment of British capital, industry and skill; the result depends on the justice of England towards Hindostan. No two countries could be better adapted by Providence for the blessings of commerce than the parent (or governing) and dependent state; *the one* a small and insulated kingdom in the western ocean, teeming with a hardy, industrious and ingenious population, two-thirds of whom are engaged in manipulating and vending the produce of more genial climes; and from their numbers, compared with the area of habitation, pressing close on national subsistence, while peace and foreign competition are daily excluding them from the monopolized commerce heretofore possessed;—*the other* an almost illimitable territory in the eastern world, connected, though separated by the navigable ocean, rich to overflowing with every bounty with which nature has enriched the earth, and peculiarly so in those agricultural products necessary to the manufactures, comforts and luxuries of the more civilized nation. Heretofore the incalculable blessings to be derived from two countries thus favourably situate, have been wantonly or wickedly or inadvertently neglected; let me hope that a better era is now dawning for England as well as for India,—that the former has now begun to perceive the suicidal folly of beggaring the latter,—the temporary advantages of which are as nought

North
June

M
 Total.
 Rupees.
 33,36,054
 40,36,016
 22,80,344
 37,07,876
 1,04,337
 490,797
 2,43,513
 19,33,184
 43,812
 2,22,783
 17,53,232
 3,40,006
 20,648
 50,051
 31,418
 62,647
 33,760
 67,400
 93,892
 Del.
 55,000

compared with the permanent injury received as well as inflicted;* and that the merciful dispensations of an all and ever-wise Being who has made the interchange of superfluous or indigenious commodities one of the most powerful instruments for exciting and sharpening the inventive industry of man, and uniting the whole human race in bonds of fraternal connection and christian charity, will no longer be spurned with an apathy or impiety which sooner or later will receive its merited punishment.

I proceed to shew, *first*, the value of the trade of British India generally. *Secondly*, the shipping employed in that trade at each Presidency. *Thirdly*, the importations into Great Britain of Eastern produce; and *fourthly*, the staple products received at each Presidency from the interior,—these preliminaries will enable the European or the non-commercial reader to appreciate the value and magnitude of our Eastern commerce.

* That the feeling against British injustice is becoming daily more prevalent among the Hindoos, is evident from the following petition:—

*To the Right Honourable the Lords of His Majesty's Privy Council for Trade, &c. &c.—
The humble Petition of the undersigned Manufacturers and Dealers in Cotton and
Silk-piece Goods, the Fabric of Bengal.*

Sheweth,—That, of late years, your petitioners have found their business nearly superseded by the introduction of the fabrics of Great Britain into Bengal. The importation of which augments every year, to the great prejudice of the native manufacturers.

That the fabrics of Great Britain are consumed in Bengal without any duties being levied thereon to protect the native fabrics.

That the fabrics of Bengal are charged with the following duties, when they are used in Great Britain, viz. on manufactured cottons, ten per cent.; on manufactured silks, twenty per cent.

Your petitioners most humbly implore your lordships' consideration of these circumstances, and they feel confident that no disposition exists in England to shut the door against the industry of any part of the inhabitants of this great empire.

They, therefore, pray to be admitted to the privileges of British subjects, and humbly entreat your Lordships to allow the cotton and silk fabrics of Bengal to be used in Great Britain 'free of duty,' or at the same rate which may be charged on British fabrics consumed in Bengal.

Your lordships must be aware of the immense advantages the British manufacturers derive from their skill in constructing and using machinery, which enables them to undersell the unscientific manufacturers of Bengal in their own country; and, although your petitioners are not sanguine in expecting to derive any great advantage from having their prayer granted, their minds would feel gratified by such a manifestation of your lordships' good will towards them; and such an instance of justice to the natives of India, would not fail to endear the British Government to them.

They, therefore, trust that your lordships' righteous consideration will be extended to them as British subjects, without exception of sect, country, or colour.

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VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO INDIA.

Value of Imports into Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, from Great Britain, Foreign Europe, and North and South America. (Madras is not stated in the official returns for 1892-93.)

FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	BY THE EAST INDIA COMPANY.			BY INDIVIDUALS.			Total Merchandise and Treasure from Great Britain.
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	
1811-12	57,54,094	..	57,54,094	77,53,177	24,000	77,77,526	1,35,59,520
1812-13	56,70,112	..	56,70,112	73,70,167	1,00,017	74,70,184	1,30,00,000
1813-14	61,64,434	..	61,64,434	75,00,430	33,500	75,33,930	1,40,07,425
1814-15	59,52,498	..	59,52,498	7,46,283	5,26,127	7,46,283	1,31,50,004
1815-16	53,13,335	..	53,13,335	07,49,847	12,00,271	1,00,58,118	1,04,71,353
1816-17	57,01,044	96,00,544	1,53,01,588	1,25,27,596	23,68,729	1,48,96,325	2,06,07,475
1817-18	54,53,417	0,51,130	55,04,547	2,09,00,698	00,80,394	2,09,81,092	1,10,54,585
1818-19	55,00,299	..	55,00,299	31,47,523	2,21,10,280	1,57,57,814	1,70,48,000
1819-20	54,47,537	01,47,001	55,94,538	1,15,05,468	1,33,10,550	2,48,16,018	1,00,00,000
1820-21	44,02,121	16,25,404	60,27,525	61,17,522	1,00,37,093	1,61,54,615	2,10,00,000
1821-22	40,50,000	..	40,50,000	1,00,70,025	10,74,000	1,11,44,025	2,00,00,000
1822-23	33,15,123	..	33,15,123	2,52,01,023	2,48,007	2,54,49,030	3,27,00,123
1823-24	33,00,004	..	33,00,004	2,27,54,264	0,00,407	2,27,54,671	3,00,00,000
1824-25	35,00,123	..	35,00,123	2,00,12,123	30,205	2,00,32,348	2,57,50,000
1825-26	4,01,000	..	4,01,000	7,00,75,000	2,25,510	1,00,01,510	1,00,00,000
1826-27	1,99,000	..	1,99,000	7,35,728	31,028	1,00,44,956	2,04,00,576
1827-28	3,00,000	..	3,00,000	2,04,10,743	01,800	2,04,12,543	2,00,00,000
1828-29	1,51,916	2,40,414	3,92,330	3,00,000	30,643	3,30,643	3,00,000
1829-30	3,50,00,047	4,888	3,50,00,535	3,50,00,000
1830-31	3,50,26,651	10,773	3,50,37,424	3,50,37,423
1831-32	3,40,00,000	17,48,787	3,57,48,787	3,50,00,000
1832-33
1833-34

FROM FOREIGN EUROPE, FROM N. AND S. AMERICA.

Years.	BY INDIVIDUALS.			BY INDIVIDUALS.			TOTAL IMPORTS.	
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Total Mer. and Treasure.	
1811-12	6,45,813	48,03,704	54,47,077	1,41,53,384	28,00,000
1812-13	6,00,000	17,78,000	23,78,000	6,27,001	4,90,019	11,17,020	16,65,765	20,00,000
1813-14	2,41,000	2,025	2,43,025	20,551	1,80,650	1,99,199	1,43,25,000	1,75,123
1814-15	4,90,000	7,10,591	12,00,591	5,15,042	11,70,874	17,85,916	13,73,704	24,31,000
1815-16	4,11,370	49,00,507	53,11,877	6,23,424	7,10,000	13,33,424	10,00,000	1,00,00,000
1816-17	6,50,000	78,21,000	84,71,000	14,55,073	1,00,00,000	114,55,073	1,00,00,000	1,00,00,000
1817-18	13,17,000	25,75,000	38,92,000	10,07,473	10,10,000	20,17,473	2,70,000	2,70,000
1818-19	11,04,730	57,50,537	68,55,267	11,00,051	1,01,12,148	12,12,199	7,75,000	7,75,000
1819-20	6,37,000	20,31,435	26,68,435	10,55,810	72,74,775	83,30,585	1,74,47,838	1,74,47,838
1820-21	4,10,000	20,28,100	24,38,100	13,57,820	51,78,561	65,36,381	0,00,000	0,00,000
1821-22	8,24,000	37,30,000	45,54,000	13,44,703	75,30,178	88,74,881	2,00,000	2,00,000
1822-23	11,24,000	33,00,000	44,24,000	8,45,140	04,05,873	12,50,013	04,04,013	04,04,013
1823-24	2,00,000	..	2,00,000	10,01,904	44,45,000	54,46,904	2,77,000	2,77,000
1824-25	16,30,127	4,44,877	20,75,004	14,30,500	00,21,000	14,51,500	2,87,000	2,87,000
1825-26	1,71,000	5,05,354	6,76,354	7,77,523	47,70,837	55,48,360	13,15,118	13,15,118
1826-27	17,70,000	0,00,173	17,70,173	2,22,311	23,02,700	25,25,011	0,00,000	0,00,000
1827-28	24,00,000	10,00,000	34,00,000	0,70,301	24,77,704	25,48,005	2,00,000	2,00,000
1828-29	23,01,703	0,00,000	23,01,703	7,50,000	17,85,000	25,35,000	2,70,000	2,70,000
1829-30	10,70,000	00,104	10,70,104	12,03,523	13,40,800	25,44,323	0,00,000	0,00,000
1830-31	14,44,000	0,00,000	14,44,000	10,40,000	0,00,000	10,40,000	0,00,000	0,00,000
1831-32	6,00,265	5,000	6,05,265	10,04,454	0,40,477	10,44,931	0,03,770	0,03,770
1832-33
1833-34

The shipping of each Presidency was as follows:—

Total Number of Ships and Tonnage entering the Port of Calcutta, from 1795-96.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1795	179	37696	1800	168	63151	1823	228	87524
1796	173	65024	1810	200	60179	1824	274	111641
1797	190	33464	1811	225	87124	1825	244	97381
1798	121	48349	1812	226	84328	1826	245	97667
1799	145	47403	1813	222	77192	1827	304	111229
1800	170	54759	1814	200	69928	1828	278	110214
1801	153	32944	1815	201	94966	1829	256	89655
1802	215	81293	1816	269	142006	1830	202	102589
1803	277	66927	1817	428	161346	1831		
1804	185	69557	1818	395	127441	1832		
1805	219	82814	1819	272	105353	1833		
1806	245	92652	1820	261	104029	1834		
1807	194	72544	1821	261	102264			
1808	151	50843	1822	226	116641			

Shipping Inwards at Port St. George, or Madras, and its Subordinate Ports.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1802*	88	28242	1813	1063	82662	1824	1490	101255
1803*	108	44622	1814	1063	74854	1825	1780	106908
1804*	92	39967	1815	1021	39294	1826	1874	118244
1805*	219	84422	1816	959	34925	1827	1912	109329
1806*	221	82645	1817	1160	96789	1828	2252	112709
1807	2945	110009	1818	1066	86142	1829	2229	110578
1808	2479	119278	1819	1066	72542	1830		
1809	2452	123224	1820	1092	77066	1831		
1810	2251	109588	1821	1142	87074	1832		
1811	1060	84469	1822	1172	97229	1833		
1812	926	76407	1823	1685	96781	1834		

Shipping Inwards at Bombay, Surat, &c.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1802	88	28155	1812	72	25245	1824	116	47021
1803	78	29126	1814	76	22584	1825	107	45608
1804	74	29694	1815	84	32280	1826	117	44729
1805	84	36222	1816	106	42900	1827	122	61241
1806	No Returns.		1817	129	59804	1828	172	71244
1807	22	87069	1818	128	65400	1829	122	62242
1808	77	29221	1819	142	61240	1830		
1809	76	24200	1820	111	46700	1831		
1810	92	29647	1821	122	54992	1832		
1811	88	29221	1822	120	48118	1833		
1812	86	29481	1823	116	48180	1834		

The staple exports of India may be in some degree estimated by the following:—

* From 1802 to 1806 the returns exhibit Fort St. George only.

Britain,

Total Merchandise and Treasure to Great Britain.

Rupess.
30,02,240
56,20,700
93,29,274
55,57,167
92,97,967
61,65,259
58,59,272
38,77,723
29,06,241
66,42,411
57,12,519
44,22,926
26,84,482
71,04,692
04,16,617
26,12,202
06,24,144
05,85,982
51,40,627
22,16,961
22,48,617

ORTS.

Total Merchandise and Treasure.

Rupess.
2,46,98,422
2,16,11,021
2,66,04,787
2,91,59,118
4,07,29,004
2,22,22,568
4,99,62,622
4,98,55,011
4,84,11,811
2,52,21,160
4,24,08,778
4,44,32,927
2,60,91,669
4,22,26,147
4,20,65,192
2,52,82,087
2,20,45,829
4,48,01,225
2,07,15,642
4,22,17,679
5,07,75,447

Imports into Great Britain from all Places Eastward of the Cape of Good Hope (except China).

Years.	Abes.	Assafetida.	Benjamin.	Borax.	Camphire, unrefined.	Cassia, viz. Bastana, (not ground.)	Cardamoms.	Cassia. India.	Cassia. Ligea.	Cinnamon.	Cloves.	Coffee.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	No.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1814	27900	97020	30070	60501	248734	1310220	31977	..	179088	270693	202201	7044443
1815	71854	40890	33517	243993	378800	4065898	80711	1946	312181	391806	701240	30505074
1816	70746	13474	13281	442841	331200	4773775	60427	24408	633394	416056	378114	18717430
1817	70391	14159	84470	120732	178680	2906503	5999	2980	443891	391840	290920	13557095
1818	100310	20027	91564	376945	318380	1601727	28377	..	193411	802800	10944	3045485
1819	77773	79533	145137	769133	..	1629240	47434	6073	314709	392244	2799	4107727
1820	26995	71817	131100	950981	136379	1213728	61715	19879	171384	333494	6240	8407721
1821	30605	80921	58335	350914	187405	350688	51066	20651	309939	417903	11094	1904021
1822	31574	60990	104284	92687	4400	494988	48581	23114	272868	121637	33192	4476783
1823	8957	78133	114036	333106	138541	3264109	88519	37781	374574	809373	132044	4114899
1824	33370	111045	40608	327104	471438	1923820	2094	106488	69194	381823	382124	2750912
1825	13055	106770	30606	37540	103328	338113	11573	37498	481002	3389731	39776	..
1826	7406	30611	5443	329483	39066	1478174	11235	63358	328000	153090	926098	5519804
1827	23809	33896	10677	31197	133116	3138641	353	31100	413708	1267443	234753	6872907
1828	33852	30675	62407	52837	373438	6691321	9073	32028	540533	337403	467496	7304376
1829	59770	23497	12407	133371	438470	7389011	31948	63944	814350	543993	2561	6333357
1830	50605	8723	37438	179643	373062	3414502	41830	60788	831296	440650	31081	7025709
1831	30305	892	83070	188341	100070	3068433	72800	171730	392789	222091	134407	7605386
1832	16731	18274	92493	152925	303734	3923353	67281	75173	906606	35738	324644	10467837
1833	32455	..	185923	96459	339664	1457877	100377	43550	1297708	101222	100520	6105116
1834	32420	47819	131079	323923	20601	3353466	64840	10396	1939778	216079	135353	0967039

Years.	Cotton Piece Goods.				Dye and Hard Woods.		Gum.						
	White Calicoes and Muslins.	Dyed Cottons & Grass Cloths.	Nankeen Cloths.	Cotton Wool.	Ebony.	Red Sanders.	Elephants' Teeth.	Galls.	Ginger.	Animal and Copal.	Arabic.	Lacche, Laclake and Caliche.	Shellac and Seedlac.
1814	pieces	pieces	pieces	pounds.	tons.	tons.	cwts.	cwt.	cwts.	lbs.	cwts.	lbs.	lbs.
1815	207682	209666	20004	2850318	234	910	2	74	..	48725	1879	278900	116070
1816	394634	319677	34294	7175243	296	1116	398	90	3013	86017	1368	598593	275020
1817	672344	187023	30978	6973796	186	704	182	734	8454	34174	473	205080	327123
1818	767480	166293	..	31067570	447	639	205	380	15466	92331	583	384009	693356
1819	989824	244254	14628	67464411	324	717	1	20	27343	39300	1099	243387	839077
1820	929223	207743	31821	58846261	115	723	160	411	30521	98607	3460	170088	331549
1821	411770	303298	130299	33126328	43	266	489	7	21938	336745	2373	439439	645560
1822	373322	299143	232734	6827167	14	23	660	120	13270	206313	4034	640864	718603
1823	100998	127384	46673	4364225	34	34	884	373	3139	95136	3485	872907	363261
1824	300778	131063	103963	14699117	30	23	815	1496	3327	190104	6305	53921	366321
1825	374133	154738	624448	10420005	..	98	2142	2263	1807	381630	6935	593197	371064
1826	351817	147580	337022	20294262	103	68	2673	2813	718	329207	6463	535206	708687
1827	358820	260498	385042	31187900	140	233	1623	3775	4784	86635	12057	760730	443589
1828	376606	190531	81966	31364004	298	93	1361	2130	1173	139846	5157	739243	499113
1829	303846	219656	374156	32339382	361	..	910	1394	6741	161226	1224	669203	661371
1830	290675	178808	776069	34984410	419	130	1291	735	4917	234098	3748	590731	725780
1831	171223	283563	573581	31252889	1301	14	1662	1061	1265	55881	1962	483269	649636
1832	79000	227226	195897	33219504	111	65	2173	1031	850	199274	2489	732323	1146128
1833	50219	194596	45718	32793073	37	353	1098	45	16649	311916	4471	399405	770544
1834	76122	139992	62323	33924731	60	1035	2461	499	16004	318651	7348	701116	943837

Imports into Great Britain from all Places Eastward of the Cape of Good Hope (except China)—*continued.*

Year.	Gum.		Hemp, &c.	Hides (Unassad.)	Indigo.	Mace.	Madder Root, or Munjeet.	Mother o' Pearl Shells (Rough).	Musk.	Nutmegs.	Castor Oil.		Oil of Cocoa-nut.
	Sticks.	lbs.									lbs.	cwts.	
1814	44439	30937	302	6733302	104815	1219	322134	68999	393	393
1815	33077	9959	10082	5849293	266899	1394	90256	743603	54772	150	150
1816	4300	1117	6084	7338114	38323	44	4507	6709	305546	59477	390	390	390
1817	344005	327	4082	4926108	80923	1123	5361656	99333	551	551	551
1818	502081	4418	1035	3436643	8924	3710	16	89457	10276	1893	1893
1819	49478	3594	6490	3688094	31	2631	23393	14993	192598	192599	2193	2193	2193
1820	342340	5146	4986	4925740	5387	4323	140230	14989	89013	378332	8043	8043	8043
1821	58980	33	13376	5935333	12893	2650	148466	10451	35081	283661	8160	8160	8160
1822	16429	33	15376	3439473	16821	1392	148950	6610	43456	203461	1738	1738	1738
1823	16179	33	15376	5453244	4773	3839	333310	8949	14516	95094	1654	1654	1654
1824	437	9041	11729	4584090	23319	4693	302920	5124	81107	206937	4	4	4
1825	13531	3822	6379	6058733	58440	1825	204748	341	80683	235441	1334	1334	1334
1826	90890	6830	2375	7873710	106690	2350	369670	1323	388706	347123	913	913	913
1827	8835	14700	1111	4405191	23799	823	370153	1145	69097	139640	1460	1460	1460
1828	...	18472	3392	689366	43139	820	380481	5065	88118	151333	2040	2040	2040
1829	...	26459	3605	5980843	6833	2135	484507	440	97923	301488	3347	3347	3347
1830	37850	14139	5104	7996837	13963	909	455591	3320	45059	441275	6484	6484	6484
1831	146144	11785	3376	7003240	40921	2371	510403	3447	110390	343733	3535	3535	3535
1832	316373	64050	10730	6211905	73022	334	731237	8120	333426	357387	10690	10690	10690
1833	161116	34100	38774	6337353	11447	3966	708106	8546	40327	316783	8272	8272	8272
1834	61069	24011	48716	3648500	37765	3412	611023	4894	54291	686468	6733	6733	6733

Year.	Oil of Nuts and Nutmegs.		Olibanum.	Pepper of all sorts.	Rhubarb.	Rice not in the Husk.		Rice in the Husk.	Safflower.	Sage.	Saltpeetre.	Senna.	Silk; Raw, Waste, and Floss.
	lbs.	oz.				lbs.	cwts.						
1814	55	12	98	5763649	...	134059	...	843	366	146513	3509	965414	
1815	252	14	371	12719839	3433	31190	...	2294	1796	148487	35027	893698	
1816	380	3	325	11985014	34832	3104	...	3314	6490	160605	118696	905874	
1817	6016	12	314	4967063	1189	88436	...	1689	4029	138823	35693	567688	
1818	8344	4	640	6134721	24934	329932	...	657	7727	124011	38045	1011645	
1819	1	4	1321	5396643	99690	374192	...	728	437	10659	137319	37638	970483
1820	...	1445	78747	146682	199223	3098	...	751	9167	196099	68697	1366722	
1821	12	1	1234	846108	113264	73790	...	773	3025	8617	224524	127374	1166558
1822	69	18	364	7311376	40693	12898	...	343	3468	109	133168	68696	924222
1823	5	3	760	3958280	43683	30860	...	69	6730	1323	131996	48476	1331250
1824	112	...	1834	8901694	44488	24771	...	661	3740	8331	184749	21034	1168170
1825	11309	12	2939	5396917	44308	18081	...	708	5103	4261	96637	40728	966390
1826	3903	3	1162	13108410	83098	50044	...	1378	6439	9633	131049	40787	1630230
1827	3203	12	138	9667766	8241	104337	...	3403	3651	9466	301096	74581	1123930
1828	1784	13	2309	4973102	51375	140370	...	37904	3298	8296	204536	107153	1234654
1829	210	...	4672	3005579	127443	193360	...	61233	2698	446	176508	106519	2116690
1830	466	...	4181	3742224	127211	125467	...	21948	3179	2661	143792	176593	1736231
1831	651	...	761	6132340	108469	183857	...	33553	3446	2353	107729	300990	172850
1832	264	...	8306	4390475	115297	171560	...	10744	5556	3377	250526	404017	1614819
1833	2571	8714063	114311	109938	...	13581	6372	7669	149433	400933	990618
1834	7406	7924032	16490	967792	...	25270	6484	28726	957715	412383	1833370

of Good
Coffee.
lbs.
7944445
26595074
18717430
13857095
3045485
4107727
5457721
1904931
4676788
4114389
3789912
4005048
8519904
5873097
7264376
6332537
7928790
7050385
16467837
6195118
9097329

Shellac and seedlac.
lbs.
116070
575020
587183
635356
839077
531549
844359
718603
382621
366231
571084
708027
443589
409813
681271
725780
649636
2146128
1079261
Shellac only.
770544
942327

Imports into Great Britain from all Places Eastward of the Cape of Good Hope (except China)—*continued.*

Year.	Silk Manufactures, viz.										Serp.	Spirits, viz. Arrack.	Sugar, (unrefined.) [†]	Tin.	Tortoise-shell (Rough.)	Turmeric.	Vermilion.	Other Articles.
	Sandwiches, Handkerchiefs, and Remals.	Grape in Pieces.	Crape: Shawls, Scarfs, Gown Pieces, & Handkerchiefs.	Tantries & other Silks in Pieces.	pieces	cts.	imp. gal.	cts.	cts.	lbs.								
1814	71592	..	5	..	81115	..	26554	43780	..	3775	635043	4602	78150					
1815	131370	..	5	..	81002	..	4846	124292	..	2118	7344	1286700	..	78883				
1816	130216	66	9679	287	24001	120240	5401	10510	725210	3708	79003					
1817	97232	17	..	4	18457	..	81027	123308	2400	4823	681003	..	91947					
1818	73070	51	16787	106	111835	202360	1306	8706	706654	1732	90583					
1819	46246	11	..	24	16484	127	62856	202778	200	4712	547353	4040	181801					
1820	126508	254	10047	123	141384	277204	628	9017	914833	26822	147215					
1821	83270	343	..	3106	10054	803	3570	200142	..	8130	413535	47440	100942					
1822	101651	206	..	206	7948	6018	..	218	200950	1285	10347	197537	63	74420				
1823	142317	36	..	106	3650	20346	4002	210370	5050	11606	10007	2776	114400					
1824	131008	25	..	670	4760	11065	145	267912	6377	20230	621750	2504	122700					
1825	101830	100	..	2128	5006	588	1001	244002	1173	20712	98567	..	100314					
1826	236500	3194	..	20500	6824	63	645	342047	3000	35323	452001	..	112486					
1827	224800	651	..	4021	6051	6	..	232	320181	705	16407	370213	6006	110282				
1828	100536	135	..	5052	5745	624	..	4247	510831	1806	27361	942394	42611	120653				
1829	95840	10665	6087	22106	407100	1668	24416	1111006	245	182236				
1830	124270	613	..	23711	8320	11	..	41418	770087	14574	32180	1867794	..	200865				
1831	184308	932	..	17740	7308	1	..	7911	750446†	5472	30002	1202026	10023	203400				
1832	211887	11400	4525	20501	703137	26042	30004	1004845	1020	208710				
1833	202227	4004	1226	74	..	21139	732318	20653	35003	682064	25188	..				
1834	374744	4	490	12231	605163	24757	40006	904810	7385	..				

Total Value of the Imports into Great Britain from all Places Eastward of the Cape of Good Hope (except China), according to the Prices at the East India Company's Sales in the respective Years.

Years.	£.	Years.	£.	Years.	£.
1814	8642275	1821	4773146	1828	7065180
1815	8136167	1822	3713063	1829	6218284
1816	6420785	1823	5032051	1830	5679071
1817	6045860	1824	4065100	1831	5720610
1818	2906147	1825	6178775	1832	6337008
1819	6615768	1826	6730026	1833	..
1820	5056826	1827	5081017	1834	..

The increased commerce may in some degree be judged of from the following :—

* Including Mauritius.
 † Of this £510,077 was Mauritius.
 ‡ Of this £227,004 was Mauritius; £224,017 Mauritius sugar, 1822; £253,600 ditto, 1834.

The Quantity, or, in cases where Quantity could not be ascertained, the Value of each Article of Indian Production or Manufacture at the Port of Calcutta, from the Interior of the Presidency of Bengal, so far as the same can be ascertained.

Year.	Beeswax.	Carpets and Blankets.	Chunam.	Cotton.	Cotton Thread.	Elephants' Teeth.	Ghee.	Ginger.
1813-13	cwt. 30470	pieces.	cwt. 308944	cwt. 75886	lbs.	cwt. 40	cwt. 7871	cwt.
1813-14	50573	407955	265883	130	6677
1814-15	34060	406401	259670	80	4015
1815-16	17821	457056	303607	318	3031
1816-17	19067	460960	336807	118	6703
1817-18	30088	360800	783411	85	3430
1818-19	32801	394019	824003	94	18094
1819-20	19155	469718	335693	364	20667
1820-21	37123	408637	383197	140	23383
1821-22	39673	528810	327768	112	19973
1822-23	39703	494424	168167	122	19938
1823-24	53327	51260	579784	132380	120394	152	31451	3435
1824-25	51609	57273	466866	383118	169350	109	17603
1825-26	47066	39210	351970	178687	336692	93	16737
1826-27	46677	66796	572494	336175	110308	144	21820	5918
1827-28	61849	51611	566823	338647	64483	111	32710	11074
1828-29	58017	69455	556483	319063	39110	148	17358	9274
1829-30	53010	63919	507897	302074	24372	134	14820	4884
1830-31
1831-32
1832-33
1833-34

Year.	Gram of Sorts.	Gunnies and Gunny Bags.	Indigo.	Jagree.	Lac of Sorts.	Long Pepper and Roota.	Oil.	Oil, Castor.
1813-13	cwt. 187590	pieces. 4384288	cwt. 40475	cwt.	cwt. 13125	cwt.	cwt. 8400	cwt.
1813-14	153857	4360504	50966	9864	7846
1814-15	164896	4157789	68746	2501	3300
1815-16	96373	3921388	76661	31880	820
1816-17	164407	3869091	58580	24390	5439
1817-18	265490	6743005	46733	16205	6190
1818-19	373256	4638359	45643	9792	10015
1819-20	358833	8116541	70932	17089	11179
1820-21	628453	5443130	51066	31112	6645
1821-22	677043	3949967	62175	9927	5849
1822-23	661400	3228451	75405	86788	5966	8681
1823-24	487451	3082719	53733	85290	9690	3066	7790	3508
1824-25	603214	3227654	73813	112073	12027	3138	14250	3547
1825-26	935106	1411438	104831	58106	7671	2701	13281	8818
1826-27	878435	9906818	53355	78388	9321	6760	10433	1039
1827-28	558477	5931133	101584	116575	9586	10736	9255	1368
1828-29	577449	5016114	66631	324081	11283	6672	15230	3706
1829-30	530830	5238142	89026	206052	14496	5002	11013	4314
1830-31
1831-32
1832-33
1833-34

of Good

Other Articles.

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Quantity or Value of Articles of Indian Production or Manufacture received at Calcutta, from the Interior of the Presidency of Bengal—*continued.*

Years.	Oil Seeds.	Opium.	Picee Goods.			Safflower.	Saltpetre.	Shawls.
			Cotton.	Silk.	Embroidered.			
1812-13	—	chests.	pieces.	pieces.	pieces.	cwt.	cwt.	pieces.
1812-13	241798	..	4000954	3079	17999	5596
1813-14	216532	..	3779579	1257	34333	5456
1814-15	216532	..	3451685	3018	69408	3903
1815-16	135326	..	5508766	4666	90808	3509
1816-17	198622	..	7908791	3022	197587	3476
1817-18	373726	..	5707979	3256	137315	4926
1818-19	345968	..	4176171	1362	133873	2546
1819-20	392479	4669	4023433	264530	..	1097	240079	4778
1820-21	378827	4369	3586330	377173	..	3023	202809	4883
1821-22	282118	3152	3934953	592259	..	4888	250717	5509
1822-23	313073	3906	3977934	592225	..	6417	196871	4108
1823-24	309322	3367	3781144	668326	2222	7622	280708	2620
1824-25	308742	7396	2449623	564864	2064	7022	190988	4618
1825-26	122444	5310	2431199	480594	12222	4306	158896	3727
1826-27	196666	6788	2627231	424499	2731	3127	115563	4028
1827-28	194191	6350	1973318	424928	1679	2692	224992	3904
1828-29	280431	7799	1698902	456714	823	2049	250628	2823
1829-30	267240	6778	1224295	402366	928	2299	225712	2761
1830-31								
1831-32								
1832-33								
1833-34								

Years.	Silk.	Sugar.	Sugar-candy.	Theel and Borax.	Tobacco.	Turmeric.	Wax and Wax Candles.
1812-13	cwt. 7996	cwt. 120189	cwt. 2449	..	cwt. 16408	cwt. 8226	cwt. 1267
1813-14	5322	120049	1909	..	12892	12054	1196
1814-15	11244	197824	2616	..	4919	9643	1742
1815-16	9912	159428	2289	..	2222	8672	1022
1816-17	2661	311722	1761	..	12142	19008	1222
1817-18	6961	245272	1429	..	22009	12022	1409
1818-19	2667	447279	2477	..	40226	12022	1222
1819-20	19979	409688	1844	9288	41679	20063	1412
1820-21	17166	231409	1916	4291	74296	8161	2121
1821-22	12634	222914	2209	2222	122466	7162	1159
1822-23	12426	222008	2709	2222	127672	10442	1001
1823-24	11222	227009	2044	2022	99044	14264	2094
1824-25	14222	242242	4291	2422	122222	11022	1412
1825-26	14727	199444	4292	1222	70772	10021	842
1826-27	12726	222222	4292	2022	94129	11722	1104
1827-28	12224	197722	2042	1222	96114	12724	1104
1828-29	12007	202222	6222	1222	127222	20127	1027
1829-30	12004	202222	4181	1022	106642	19009	1141
1830-31							
1831-32							
1832-33							
1833-34							

The Quantity, or in cases where Quantity could not be ascertained, the Value of each article of Foreign Production or Manufacture (including the Productions and Manufactures of the United Kingdom), sent into the Interior of the Presidency of Fort St. George from the Port of Madras, in each year, so far as the same can be complied with.

Year.	Metals.					Earthenware.	Glassware.	Liquors—Malt.		Long Cloth.	Muslin.	Piece Goods of Sorts.		Nankens.		Satin.
	Brass.	Copper.	Lead.	Tin.	Tutenague.			Ale.	Beer.			M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	M. Rs.	
1824	1906	85	391	1921
1825	98	836	459	..	1712
1826	111	431	583	..	756	1821	3598	..	43888	..	3429	9637	8636	9127	..	
1827	144	1885	143	671	1843	2092	18778	..	61299	4784	9419	3869	18316	6378	..	
1828	338	1567	169	473	3234	6127	13225	6313	72370	3602	7991	9521	3241	5967	..	
1829	67	967	164	794	4676	3619	9649	7763	66299	3482	5921	4747	3226	5122	..	
1830	83	1644	155	621	1426	3668	10226	1905	32331	..	3243	11216	5779	6778	..	
1831
1832
1833
1834

STAPLES OF BRITISH INDIA.—The products of Hindostan, as may be seen from the foregoing, are as various as they are valuable; I begin with one of its principal staples.

Indigo, from time immemorial, has been cultivated and manufactured in Hindostan, and in 1665 it was one of the exports from India to England; the E. I. Company's servants turned their attention to it about 40 years ago, and its successful prosecution has been principally owing (after the circumstance of the destruction of St. Domingo, which, previous to its revolution, supplied nearly the whole world) to the small duty levied on its importation into England, the duty at first being little more than nominal: in 1812, 1½d. per lb.; in 1814, 2½d.; and in 1832, 3d. per lb. Its importance to India may be judged of from the fact that in the Bengal Presidency the cultivation of indigo is carried on from Dacca to Delhi, occupying upwards of 1,000,000 statute acres, yielding an annual produce worth from 2,000,000*l.* to 3,000,000*l.* sterling, whereof one-half, or perhaps more, is expended in India for rent, stock, wages, interest on capital, &c. There are from three to four hundred factories in Bengal, chiefly in Jessore, Kishnagur and Tirhoot. (See *Appendix*.) The factories are

principally held by Europeans, but many natives have factories of their own, and in several instances produce indigo equal to any manufactured by Europeans. The low price which indigo now brings in Europe is diminishing the quantity produced, the exportation some years being 9,000,000 lbs.; the recent failures in India will tend to bring the trade within more profitable limits. The cultivation of indigo in Madras is trifling,—there is little or none prepared in the Bombay Presidency. The indigo produced annually in the East Indies from 1811 was:—

Years.	Chests.								
1811	21000	1816	25000	1821	21100	1826	26000	1831	20000
1812	22500	1817	20500	1822	25700	1827	44300	1832	
1813	22900	1818	19100	1823	26800	1828	30000	1833	
1814	26500	1819	20700	1824	24100	1829	43200	1834	
1815	30500	1820	27200	1825	43600	1830	32100	1835	

The price of indigo per chest in London was in 1824, 111*l.*; in 1825, 140*l.*; and in 1831 but 45*l.*; the supply now exceeds the demand, at least in England; but the consumption of Bengal indigo is fast augmenting in France, Holland, Germany, &c. [For the importations into England from different countries see *Appendix.*]

Silk forms the next most important staple of India, and in conjunction with the former, its production in our own territories is of essential advantage to silk and tabbnet manufacturers in England. The total quantity of raw silk imported into England for 1834 was 3,693,512 lbs.; and the quantity furnished by British India alone to England in the same year was 1,203,658 lbs.

Three species of mulberry trees are cultivated in India, and two species of silk worm (the country worm, and the annular Italian, or Chinese worm); the latter feeds also on the castor oil plant leaf. The silk is produced in cocoons by the Ryots or small cultivators, to whom the E. I. Company's agents make advances, and the Company have eleven or twelve filatures or large factories for reeling it with machinery on the simple Italian principle. The Gonatea is the best, the Bauleah the worst. The price of silk has risen in India with

the wages of labour, and some manufacturers say the quality has deteriorated; probably *quantity* has been more attended to than quality. The silk districts of Bengal are, Radnagore, Hurripaul, Santipore, Cossimbuzar, Bauleah, Comercolly, Sardah, Jungypore, Mauldah, Rungpoor, Sunna-Meekhi and Gonnatea, all between the parallels of lat. 22° and 26°, and long. 86° to 90°.*

The superior quality of Italian silk does not demonstrate natural inferiority in that of India, or bales of E. I. to which attention has been paid have sold equally well with Italian silk. Efforts are now making in the Bombay Presidency to extend the production of raw silk, and the commencement promises success; we may therefore look forward to a period when we shall be totally independent of every other country for the raw staple of this essential and beautiful branch of our national manufactures.

Cotton, a staple of Indian agriculture and of British manufactures, well deserves attention, were it only for the important circumstance that our chief branch of trade is almost totally dependent on a rival, (and with little provocation) perhaps a hostile state. The importation of American cotton into England is nearly 300,000,000 lbs. yearly, that of India not the *one-twentieth* part of British consumption. If we can be made independent of France and America for indigo and silk, so can we become also of cotton, India producing in itself every variety; the justly celebrated sea island cotton is actually in cultivation in several parts of India, but owing to neglect it degenerates into an annual, whereas in America it is carefully cultivated as a triennial plant. The Dacca muslins, so celebrated all over the globe, (and of which the manufacture is now lost, owing to the inundation of Manchester goods), were made from India cotton, and if the late duty had been kept on American raw cotton, sufficient encouragement would have been given to the Hindoos to attend to its cultivation, as it is we have not only ruined the Indian manufacturer, but in return we have offered no encouragement to the raw producer. The cotton grower in India ought to be stimulated to greater efforts on examining the consumption of cotton wool in England:—

* The Company's factories are now, I believe, being sold to private speculators.

As the surest means of inducing a more careful attention to India cotton, both in the cultivation,* cleaning and packing, a removal of the entire duty on importation into England would be most effectual, coupled with an absence of all transit dues in the East.

OPIUM is the next important staple deserving consideration, the value of which will be most readily appreciated, by looking at the quantity annually exported from India to China for 15 years,—

Year.	No. of Chests Imported.		Average Price per Chest in Spanish Dollars.		Sale Value of each Kind in Spanish Dollars.		Total No. of Chests Imported.	Total val. of Importation Sp. Dol.
	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.	Patna and Benares.	Malwa.		
1816	2610	600	1200	875	5132000	325000	3210	3637000
1817	2530	1180	1265	612	3200450	703800	3680	3904250
1818	3650	1530	1060	725	3050000	1109250	4510	4159250
1819	2970	1630	1235	1175	3667950	1915250	4600	5583200
1820	3650	1730	1900	1515	5795000	2665800	4770	8460800
1821	2910	1718	2975	1325	6628250	2276350	4628	8314000
1822	1822	4000	1552	1290	2828030	5160000	4822	7988030
1823	2910	4172	1600	925	4656000	3850100	7082	8515100
1824	2655	6000	1175	750	3110625	4500000	8655	7619625
1825	3442	6170	918	723	3141753	4464450	9621	7608205
1826	3061	6308	1002	942	3008565	5041520	9069	8610085
1827	5134	4401	906	1204	5125165	5290920	9535	10425075
1828	5965	7701	940	908	5604235	6928880	13132	12533115
1829	7843	6837	800	862	6149377	5907580	14000	12057157
1830	6000	12100	870	588	5700204	7114050	18700	12904263
1831	5939	8265			5682010	5818574	14225	11500564
1832	8267	15403			6551059	8781700	23676	15332759
1833	9534	11715			6080634	7916071	31256	14000905
1834								
1835								
Tot.								

Here we observe a trade in a prohibited article, (opium is smuggled into China) to the amount of upwards of 3,000,000. a year, and which promises yet further increase †

* Indian cultivators of cotton would do well to remark that the cotton of Egypt is *sown in drills*, as is the custom in America.

† The quantity of opium shipped from Calcutta in 1795-6, was 1,077 chests, and in 1829-30, 7,443 chests. The total quantity of opium exported from Calcutta during the former year was 5,183 chests, and during the latter 9,678 chests; the grand total exported during the whole 35 years was 162,273 chests, which, at the average rate at which it sold, 1,200 dollars a chest, would give a trade in this stimulating drug of nearly two hundred million Spanish dollars!

Malwa opium is considered by the Chinese as having a higher touch, but not so mellow, nor so pleasant in flavour as the Patna opium. The smokeable extract which each quality of opium contains is thus intimated by the Chinese,—(who use opium as we do wine or spirits) Patna and Benares opium 45 to 50 touch; avg 48; Malwa 70 to 75; avg 72½; Turkey 58 to 57; avg touch 55. The cultivation of opium in India, as explained under the chapter in revenue, is a monopoly as regards Patna and Benares in the hands of Government; and a revenue is derived from the Malwa opium by a system of passes on shipment from Bombay; an analysis of the recent evidence before Parliament, relative to this curious and important smuggling trade, is interesting.

There is no secret in the opium trade; the quantity imported is well-known, and the prices are always given in the Canton Register, a public newspaper: the opium chests being combrous things, are broken up on board the receiving smuggling ships at Lintin, and the opium placed in bags for delivering to the Chinese, who go alongside the ships in smuggling boats in the open face of day, frequently within view of the Chinese men-of-war boats, and the opium is delivered to them upon their presenting what is called an opium order from the agent at Canton. They take it from alongside in smuggling boats that are well manned and armed; and as there are great many rivers, branches, and islands at different places, they put off directly with it, and then set all the government boats at defiance. Four Mandarin boats have been surrounding a ship when there were 30 chests of opium to smuggle, and was prevented from going to sea on account of the opium: the way that they smuggled it was thus:—they stripped the chest entirely away, took nothing but the opium, and put it into bags; the lower deck port was opened, and in one moment they put the opium into the boat, and all hands were off in a second. It was done in a very heavy shower of rain. There was a cry out about three minutes afterwards, but the boat was gone like a shot. Of the Mandarins' boats lying near—one was lying a-head, touching the ship, another was lying at the stern, and another was lying upon the opposite side. They were there to prevent smuggling. But these boats may not be strong enough to prevent the smuggling, for there are instances of the opium boats overpowering all force where it was a very large quantity, and it was worth their while killing and wounding men. The Hong merchants do not deal in opium, and the persons who carry it from Canton are obliged to conceal it about their baggage to evade the search of the Chinese officers.

The Chinese authorities have frequently issued the strongest proclamations against the entrance of opium into China; it is denounced as a poison, and an imperial edict is supposed to be indisputable; but practice and professions are very much at variance in China, and the smuggling trade in opium is carried on with the connivance of the lower government authorities, perhaps with that of their superiors—although in some instances, when the opium boats have been seized, the crews have had their heads cut off, and the custom-house officers by whom the opium is seized, light a fire upon the top of a hill, declaring the contraband opium to be burnt, while none of it has been put into the fire—so that, although the interposition of the revenue officers may be connected with the loss of life, it does not lead to the cessation of the trade in opium, for the opium finds its way to all parts of the empire, and within the walls of the imperial palace at Peking, although the smoking of opium is found to have upon the persons who practise it the most demoralising effects; to a certain extent it destroys their reason and faculties, and shortens life. A confirmed opium smoker is never fit to conduct business, and is generally unfit for the social intercourse of his friends or family: he may be known by his inflamed eyes and haggard countenance. Formerly the opium trade was carried on at Macoa and Whampoa, but in 1820 the Chinese authorities commenced vigorous measures against the smugglers at Whampoa, and even threatened to search foreign vessels for opium, which was the means of driving the trade outside the port to Lintin, where the opium ships lie at anchor, the commanding officers of those vessels receiving orders from the agents of Canton for every chest of opium that is sold.

The quantity and value of the Indian opium, according to the latest returns, consumed in China was 23,693 chests, valued at upwards of three million sterling!*

* Estimate of Quantity and Total Value of Indian Opium consumed in China during the last Six Years.

Years.	Patna.	Benares.	Malwa.	Total.	
	Chests.	Chests.	Chests.	Chests.	Amount.
1827-28	4,006	1,128	4,401	9,535	S. Rs. 10,425,075
1828-29	4,831	1,130	7,171	13,132	12,533,215
1829-30	5,564	1,579	6,857	14,000	12,057,157
1830-31	5,085	1,575	12,100	18,760	12,904,263
1831-32	4,442	1,518	8,265	14,225	11,501,584
1832-33	6,410	1,880	15,403½	23,693½	15,352,429

SUGAR, may be cultivated and manufactured to an extent in India sufficient to supply the whole world; its production at present is immense, as it forms an ingredient in almost every article of food or drink used by the Hindoos, and where the manufacture is attended to as at Benares, the grain is large and sparkling and pure as the best Mauritius or Demerara sugar. The soil and climate of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay are peculiarly suited to the production of this essential nourishment to man; every village has its patch of cane, and a rough manufacture named *Jaghery* is extracted from the Palmyra and cocoa-nut tree. It is in evidence before Parliament that the sugar-cane of Bengal is as good as any of the W. Indies, and some of a superior quality has been produced.*

The great secret of improving and extending the cultivation of sugar in India, is the reduction of the duty levied on it in England; the coarsest kinds of Bengal sugar now pay a tax in Great Britain of 120 per cent. on the gross price, which after deducting freight and charges is equal to 200 *per cent.* on the proceeds in England! The Hindoos in their recent petition to Parliament thus express their feelings on this subject.

Every encouragement is held out to the exportation from England to India, of the growth and produce of foreign as well as English industry, while *many thousands of the natives*, who a short time ago derived a livelihood from the growth of cotton and the manufacture of cotton goods, *are without*

* In Bengal, in 1831, 1,000 acres were planted with cane. In a very short time afterwards 2,000 tons of sugar, equal to the Havannahs, were announced for our markets, besides what had been disposed of for the Persian Gulf market, and the molasses and rum, which met with a ready demand for internal consumption. Within the same period (six months) there were three dwelling houses, a boiling and curing house, and a refinery, all built of brick and mortar, erected equal in magnitude to two large West India establishments—having a steam engine and mill, a cattle mill, two sets of boilers, and six clarifiers in the boiling house, and a separate one in the refinery. The cost is said to have been very moderate, although an English bricklayer who saw it estimated that in England it would have cost upwards of 50,000*l.* sterling, and that he could not have undertaken to complete it on so magnificent a scale in less than two years.—*Nicholson's Commercial Gazette.*

bread, in consequence of the facilities afforded to the produce of America and to the manufacturing industry of England; but *sugar*, to the production of which the lands of the petitioners might be turned, is loaded with such heavy duties in England, as *effectually to shut the market against the industry of the East Indians, when turned to this particular commodity.*

The small quantity of sugar which British India now sends to England, notwithstanding that in the former place it *exceeded only by rice in consumption*, will be seen by the following recent return of sugar imported into the United Kingdom.

	Year 1834.	
British Plantation	3,844,243 cwts.	E. India Brit. Possess. 76,617 cwts.
Foreign Plantation	202,030 ..	Foreign Do. 64,663 ..
Mauritius	555,860 ..	Foreign Do. 64,663 ..

The quantity of sugar consumed in the United Kingdom, averaged so high as 4,000,000 cwts. would for a population of 24,000,000 (leaving aside 1,000,000 for young infants, many of whom, however, also consume sugar) give only 18 lbs. a year, or 5 oz. a week, for each individual; now, it is well known, that a child of one year old would consume more than 5 oz. a week; that the workhouse allowance is frequently 34 lbs. a year, and the lowest domestic servant, 1 lb. a week, or 52 lbs. a year. We might, therefore, fairly conclude that, if the duties on all our colonial sugars were reduced and placed on a level, the consumption and revenue would be thus increased:—

	Consumption.	Revenue.
West India Plantation Sugar . . .	Cwts. 4,000,000	
Tax at 1 <i>l.</i> (now 1 <i>l.</i> 4 <i>s.</i>) per cwt. . . .		£4,000,000
Mauritius Sugar	500,000	
Tax at 1 <i>l.</i> (now 1 <i>l.</i> 4 <i>s.</i>) per cwt. . . .		500,000
East India Possessions' Sugar	2,000,000	
Tax at 1 <i>l.</i> (now 1 <i>l.</i> 12 <i>s.</i>) per cwt. . . .		2,000,000
Foreign Sugar	500,000	
Tax at 2 <i>l.</i> (now 3 <i>l.</i> 3 <i>s.</i>) per cwt. . . .		1,000,000
Total . Cwts.	7,000,000	£7,500,000

Here we observe that, even at the moderate rate of consumption of 32lbs. a year or only 9 oz. per week, of sugar for each individual, the revenue would be augmented by

2,500,000*l.* and the commerce, health and manufactures of the empire wonderfully increased.—[See Vol. II. *West Indies*, for full details.]

There can even be no doubt, that if the duty were reduced to 12*s.* on West India, and to 16*s.* on East India sugars, similar favourable results would ensue; for a few years (say two or three) the revenue would suffer, but a reduction and equalization to 20*s.* would instantly increase the revenue, while a prospect of eventual further diminution would prepare the way for greater national benefits.

COFFEE next deserves consideration as an Indian staple, and which like the last article only requires just treatment in England to become one of the most valuable exports. In Malabar, Coimbatore, &c. the cultivation is extensive, and the berry of the finest flavour when attended to in the drying. Upper Bengal and the territories acquired from the Burmese are peculiarly adapted for the growth of coffee, and if the duty be reduced on it in England to 6*d.* while the West Indies is reduced to 4*d.*, the commerce of England and the morals of the people will be sensibly improved.

The following returns shew the quantity of coffee imported from the East Indies into Great Britain,—re-exported and retained for home use for 15 years; the return includes Ceylon, avg. 2,824,998 lbs. Singapore, 3,611,456 lbs. Mauritius, 26,646 lbs. &c. From Bengal, Madras and Bombay alone for 1831—2,780,668 lbs.

East India Coffee Imported into the United Kingdom from 1820 to 1834.

Years.	Imported.	Re-exported.	Home use.	Years.	Imported.	Re-exported.	Home use.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.		lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1820	5,497,721	4,307,370	285,945	1827	5,872,511	4,655,104	888,198
1821	1,994,021	3,526,566	206,177	1828	7,380,492	5,084,916	973,410
1822	4,487,859	3,599,814	171,717	1829	6,335,647	7,474,169	974,576
1823	4,114,289	2,129,111	235,697	1830	7,066,199	5,187,866	989,585
1824	5,766,912	4,718,389	313,513	1831	7,691,390	6,525,417	1,234,721
1825	4,513,290	2,678,930	457,745	1832	10,727,026	9,715,324	1,970,635
1826	5,520,354	5,670,677	791,570	1833	6,218,299	3,996,697	1,801,566
				1834	9,951,141	6,303,562	1,566,098

It will be perceived by the foregoing that of late years the importation of E. I. coffee is on the increase, still there is a great defalcation compared with 1815 and 1816, when the

importation of coffee by the *private trade* amounted in two years to 43,381,478 lbs.!

PEPPER is another valuable India staple, but its import from the East has considerably fallen off, the importations of 1815 and 1816 being 17,863,847 lbs. and in 1827 and 1828 but 14,045,868 lbs. being a decrease of nearly 4,000,000 lbs. weight. The duty on it in England is still too high; a reduction of it would be beneficial to all classes.

SALTPETRE is yielded by the Indian soil in greater abundance than any other country, its importation into England by the East India Company in 1814, was 146,000 cwt., but the continuance of peace has much lessened both the price and consumption; both are now again on the rise, but the price is still so low that the saltpetre collected in the East is now being brought to fertilize the fields of Albion.* The import of late years of saltpetre from Bengal has been about 100,000 bags, but the total quantity exported from Calcutta has averaged 170,000 bags, while in the year 1795, it did not amount to more than 13,000 bags. The total quantity exported from Calcutta during the thirty-five years ending 1829-30, was 2,202,465 bags, of which the United Kingdom received 1,523,655 bags; North America 278,895 bags; France 101,237 bags, and China 133,615 bags.

The TOBACCO of Masulipatam, made into snuff, is much prized in England; the quantity of tobacco grown in India is enormous; every class, high and low, use it, and if the duty were reduced in England, the variety of soils in India would afford an infinite variety of that fascinating weed for the British market. Very rich lands produce about 160 lbs. per acre of green leaf; excellent Havannah tobacco is grown in Guzerat, Boglipoor, Bundlecund, &c., and some from the Irrawaddy territories has been reported by the brokers in

* Quantities of *nitrate of soda* have recently been imported into England and France from South America, and the commodity is becoming an object of attention; it is said not to answer so well as saltpetre (*nitrate of potash*) for making gunpowder, but to be equally applicable to the uses of most of the manufacturers and for the curers of provisions; it is also stated to afford a greater proportion of nitric acid than saltpetre.

London as equal to the best American. The want of proper attention in the curing has been a great obstacle to its arriving in a marketable state in England after a long East Indian voyage. Tobacco, like hay, must undergo a heating to be fit for use, and the slightest particle of green vegetable matter left in the tobacco heats on the voyage, destroys the delicate flavour of the leaf, and even rots it. Experiments are now making at Bombay in the curing process.*

GRAIN is one of the staples of Bengal; the total quantity of grain exported from Calcutta to countries beyond the three Presidencies amounted, during the thirty-five years, ending 1829-30, to 12,366,571 bags; for the latter years the export has been on the increase, averaging 600,000 bags a year, and of this quantity Mauritius has of late taken nearly *one-half*, for instance in 1828-29, 332,756 bags. Great Britain has received, during the whole thirty-five years, 1,730,998 bags; and the export to France is yearly increasing.

The following statement exhibits the quantity and value of rice, wheat, and all other grain and pulse exported from the several ports of Bengal to the several ports on the *Coromandel Coast alone*, from 1796 to 1829, (the Isle of France Population is almost entirely fed by Bengal rice.)

Years.	Bags.	Maunds.	Value in Sic. Rupees.	Years.	Bags.	Maunds.	Value in Sic. Rupees.
1796	2,73,763	5,47,526	5,33,451	1816	1,75,519	3,31,024	3,51,024
1797	2,11,664	4,23,328	3,33,170	1817	1,00,018	2,00,006	2,00,036
1798	3,46,341	6,92,682	6,51,691	1818	1,25,619	2,71,238	2,71,238
1799	4,60,066	9,21,032	9,32,321	1819	44,141	88,282	88,282
1800	4,89,311	9,78,622	9,73,601	1820	33,370	66,740	66,740
1801	4,89,431	9,78,862	9,67,073	1821	1,64,876	3,29,752	3,29,752
1802	6,31,300	12,62,600	12,43,020	1822	39,356	1,16,719	1,16,719
1803	7,14,423	14,28,846	14,28,850	1823	4,14,333	8,29,662	15,91,526
1804	4,32,790	8,65,580	8,65,580	1824	3,65,061	7,30,121	11,32,046
1805	5,19,329	10,38,658	10,38,658	1825	4,38,144	8,76,288	11,36,846
1806	13,17,829	26,35,658	26,35,658	1826	36,414	1,18,600	1,06,601
1807	11,15,383	22,30,766	22,30,766	1827	36,077	72,154	1,06,183
1808	3,08,462	6,16,924	6,06,924	1828	33,661	67,322	70,783
1809	2,31,660	4,63,320	4,63,320	1829			
1810	1,36,247	2,72,494	2,72,494	1830			
1811	3,44,144	6,88,288	6,88,288	1831			
1812	4,73,401	9,46,802	9,46,802	1832			
1813	4,84,302	9,68,604	9,68,604	1833			
1814	3,36,530	6,73,060	6,73,060	1834			
1815	1,43,341	2,86,682	2,86,682				

No Returns made up since 1829.

It would be tedious to particularize all the varied and

* The duty on E. I. tobacco might, without loss to the revenue, be reduced from 2s 9d. to 2s. at least.

valuable products of India, whether in reference to ginger, cardamoms, lacdyes, camphor, drugs, oils—essential and non-essential, timber, hemp, *grain*, &c. &c., all of which form important items in the trade of England; suffice it to say, that Nature's choicest treasures are lavished in superabundance on the British possessions in Asia; and if man remains in poverty and destitution, while the riches of the earth are at his feet, and require only to be gathered, he has no right to arraign the wisdom and beneficence of his Creator. When we reflect that there are the almost unnumberable multitude of 100,000,000 British subjects ready and eager to receive our manufactures if we will only receive their produce, whether cotton, sugar, coffee, tobacco, saltpetre, &c., it seems almost insanity to think that we only carry on a commerce of 5,000,000*l.* value with such a vast, rich, and civilized territory. Under a just system the British Commerce with India ought to be 50,000,000*l.* a year, yielding employment, wealth, and happiness to myriads upon myriads of the human race, making the trackless ocean a connecting link instead of a separating boundary between both hemispheres, and giving unto maritime trade that steadiness and permanence which it is always void of when cramped and checked by fiscal laws and exactions.

The following are the rates of duty levied in Great Britain on the several articles of Eastern commerce, and the duty levied on similar productions of other Colonies, or from foreign States, is also added; the equalizations which appear between E. and W. India or Colonial products is the work of last year; and it is but just to assign the merit of the deed to Mr. Poulett Thompson, who, I hope, will proceed still further than he has yet done in reducing the duties levied in England on all products grown or manufactured in our transmarine settlements.

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[I avail myself of a blank page in the typographical arrangement, to shew the result of our impoverishing India by refusing to receive her produce into the English markets.

DECREASING BRITISH TRADE WITH INDIA.

STATEMENT, shewing the Value of certain of the principal Articles Exported from Great Britain to places East of the Cape, except China, in 1811, 1815, and 1828, excluding Mauritius in the last Year.

	Year ending 5th Jan. 1812.	Year ending 5th Jan. 1816.		Year ending 5th Jan. 1828.		Increase since 1812.	Decrease since 1812.
	£.	Quantities.	£.	Quantities.	£.	£.	£.
Brass	12661	Cwts. 1098	9754	Cwts. 316	2970	..	9691
Cabinet & Upholstery Wares	18573	..	5552	..	3787	..	6786
Carriages	4656	No. 164	15566	No. 152	11277	6621	..
Copper, unwrought	240636	Cwts. 10287	58130	Cwts. 13147	70287	..	34161
Copper, wrought	32744	.. 31102	204468	.. 26343	136188	..	20490
Cordage 11451	37809	.. 5161	12254
		Including earthenware.					
Glass	118172	..	116340	..	109525	..	8647
Guns and Pistols	118928	No. 53802	106050	No. 42796	96589	..	22509
Hats	22523	Doz. 4637	21248	Doz. 1986	8600	..	13663
Iron, bar and bolt	90021	Tons 9150	138066	Tons 17378	147790	57760	..
Ditto, cast and wrought	177002	.. 86110	87522	.. 82439	88153	..	68849
Lead	70310	.. 1245	27257	.. 1764	31192	..	39118
Leather, tanned and wrought (including Saddlery)	45026	..	45504	..	43412	..	1616
Linens	25428	..	24673	..	30031	4593	..
Steel, unwrought	9866	Cwts. 10601	17493	Cwts. 4469	5432	2526	..
Tin, ditto 20	89	.. 106	219	219	..
Tin and Pewter Wares and Tin Plates	10226	..	6285	..	6498	..	3729
Woolen Manufactures	277196	..	355734	..	261226	..	15870
Total Woollens, Metals and other principal Articles, exclusive of Cotton Goods	1260980	..	1277540	..	1065590	..	Net. 195390
All other Goods except Cotton	727136	..	1145810	..	1188106	460970	..
Total Exports, except Cotton	1988116	..	2423350	..	2253696	Net. 265590	..
Cotton Manufactures ..	107306	..	142411	..	1505714	1398408	..
Cotton Twist and Yarn	388898	388898	..
Total of all Exports, £	2095422	..	2565761	..	4146398	2052276	..

The Exports of 1828, compared with those of 1815, both being Years of Open Trade, exhibit the following results :

	1815.	1828.	Increase.	Decrease.
Total Woollens, Metal and other principal Articles, exclusive of Cotton Goods	1277540	1065590	..	211950
Total Exports, except Cotton	2423350	2253696	..	169654
Total of all Exports	2565761	4146398	1589537	..

The Books of the Custom House do not furnish the Quantities in 1811, nor is Mauritius separated before 1828.

India Board, Westminster,
21st March, 1832.

WM. LEACH.

Specific Rates of Duty chargeable in England on Articles, the produce of British India, other Colonies and Foreign Places, in June, 1835.

Articles.	British India.	Brit. Colonies.	Foreign.
Aloes	lb. £0 0 2	£0 0 2	£0 0 8
Arrowroot	— 0 0 2	0 1 cwt.	0 lb. 2
Assafetida	cwt. 0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Barilla	per ton. 2 0 0	2 0 0	2 0 0
Benjamin	cwt. 0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Borax, refined	— 0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0
Ditto, unrefined	— 0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Camphor, unrefined	— 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Canes—Ratans	per 1000 0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Ditto, walking	— 0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cardamums	lb. 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Cinnamon	— 0 0 6	0 0 6	0 1 0
Cloves	— 0 2 0	0 2 0	0 3 0
Cochineal	— 0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 6
Coffee (Sierra Leone, &c.)	— 0 0 9	0 0 6	0 1 0
Colr or Cocoa Nut Rope	cwt. 0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
Cotton manufactures	per cent. ad val. 10 to £20	10 to £20	10 to £20
Cotton, Wool	cwt. 0 0 4	0 0 4	0 2 11
Cubebs	lb. 0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Ebony	ton 0 3 0	0 3 0	3 0 0
Galengal	— 0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Galls	cwt. 0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0
Gamboge	lb. 0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Ginger	cwt. 0 11 0	0 11 0	2 13 0
Ditto, preserved	lb. 0 0 1	0 0 1	0 1 3
Gums, varied	cwt. 0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Hair or Wool Manufacture	per cent. ad val. 30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Hemp	cwt. 0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1
Hides, dry	cwt. 0 2 4	0 2 4	0 4 8
Ditto, wet	— 0 1 2	0 1 2	0 2 4
Horns	cwt. 0 2 4	0 2 4	0 2 4
Indigo	lb. 0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 4
Ironed Ware	per cent. ad val. 20 0 0	20 0 0	20 0 0
Iron Root	lb. 0 3 6	0 3 6	0 4 6
Iron Root	cwt. 0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Iron Root	gal. 0 1 6	0 1 6	0 1 6
Jutes and Matting	per cent. 5 0 0	5 0 0	20 0 0
Mother Pearl	— 5 0 0	5 0 0	5 0 0
Musk	oz. 0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Myrrh	cwt. 0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Nutmegs	lb. 0 2 6	0 2 6	0 3 6
Nox Vomica	— 0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6
Olibanum	cwt. 0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
Orpiment	— 1 8 6	1 8 6	1 8 6
Oils, essential	lb. 0 1 4	0 1 4	0 1 4
Oil, Castor	— 0 0 3	0 lb. 3	0 1 lb.
Oil, Cloves	— 0 14 0	0 14 0	0 14 0
Oil, Cocoa Nuts	cwt. 0 1 3	0 1 3	0 1 3
Pearls	per cent. 5 0 0	5 0 0	5 0 0
Pepper (Foreign India, 1s. 2d. per lb.)	lb. 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 2
Rhubarb	— 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Rice, unhusked	cwt. 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Safflower	cwt. 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Sago	— 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Saltpetre	— 0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Sanguis Draconis	— 0 4 0	0 4 0	0 4 0
Sapan and Sandal Wood	ton 0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Senna	lb. 0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Silk, raw	— 0 0 1	0 0 1	0 0 1
Ditto, manufactured	per cent. 20 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
Soap, hard	— 1 8 0	1 8 0	4 10 0
Spirits	gal. 0 15 0	0 9 0	1 2 6
Sugar	cwt. 1 12 0	1 4 0	3 3 0
Teeth, Ivory	— 1 0 0	1 0 0	1 0 0
Tin	— 2 10 0	2 10 0	2 10 0
Tobacco, Segars	lb. 0 9 0	0 9 0	0 9 0
Tortoise-shell	— 0 0 1	0 0 1	0 2 0
Ditto, manufactured	cwt. 20 0 0	20 0 0	30 0 0
Turmerick	— 0 2 4	0 2 4	0 10 0
Vermillion	lb. 0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
Wax, Bees', unmanufactured	cwt. 0 10 0	0 10 0	1 10 0
Ditto, manufactured	— 1 0 0	1 0 0	3 0 6
Wood, Teak (For India, 10s.)	load 0 0 1	0 10 0	1 10 0
Other Goods or Wares manufactured	per cent. 20 0 0	30 0 0	20 0 0

In order to render the foregoing document complete, it will be advisable to give the following comparison of the Prices in London (exclusive of duty) of East India Produce, for the last eight years, with the rate of decrease or rise in price.

BULLION.—There is a considerable trade in *treasure*, or, as we term it in England, in *bullion* throughout the East; for a long period the flow of the precious metals has been from Europe to Asia, but the current is now changed, and the tide has set in favour of the former; in a general view, even up to 1827-28, this will be seen by the following table:

Import and Export of Treasure to Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, from 1810-11 to 1827-28.

Years.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.	Years.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.
	Rupees.	Rupees.		Rupees.	Rupees.
1810-11	2,32,27,099	12,09,008	1819-20	4,99,22,382	39,84,383
1811-12	1,55,35,947	28,62,484	1820-21	3,30,37,630	17,01,252
1812-13	1,37,85,623	47,49,985	1821-22	2,94,55,390	1,31,98,197
1813-14	98,76,598	36,46,669	1822-23	2,59,65,225	6,73,511
1814-15	1,46,27,842	18,32,408	1823-24	2,14,01,996	1,54,44,324
1815-16	2,58,67,158	12,57,734	1824-25	1,85,90,845	45,62,627
1816-17	5,00,46,081	14,12,273	1825-26	2,42,91,607	55,31,129
1817-18	4,70,78,431	17,29,957	1826-27	2,49,77,289	21,85,033
1818-19	7,01,64,170	75,69,500	1827-28	2,93,30,487	92,45,209
Total Rs.	27,02,08,949	2,62,70,018	Total Rs.	25,69,72,151	9,25,25,665

The foregoing return includes the imports and exports to and from every country; the return, whence it is derived, gives the following totals for the whole 18 years:—

Import from Europe and America, R. R. 20,99,92,761. *Export* to ditto, 3,66,47,949; from China, 12,26,83,952; to ditto, 77, 58,148; from Eastern Isles, 7,35,55,054; to ditto, 1,21,34,767; from Mauritius and Africa, 68,43,228; to ditto, 42,43,290; from Arabia, &c. 10,47,73,743; to ditto, 9,02,132; from Ceylon, 6,77,224; to ditto, 11,03,858; from other places, 86,55,838; to ditto, 1,31,91,000.

It is a pity we have not the European and American returns separate; of late years the export from those continents to Asia has been progressively decreasing until now it is scarcely one-fourth the amount of 1815 or 1816. The export from China, &c. to India has increased so as to counterbalance, to some extent, the drain from Europe; but it is to

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be feared that, if no facilities be offered for other remittances than that of treasure to England, the continued drain of the precious metals upon India will be productive of evil consequences in a country requiring a very extensive circulating medium; hence, the additional necessity of the proprietors of E. I. stock leaving no means untried to procure an admission of E. I. produce to the English markets on a fair footing with other Colonial products. (See Appendix for bullion returns from each Presidency down to 1834.)

al Exports.

GENERAL TRADE OF INDIA.

Rupees.
9,84,383
7,01,252
1,98,197
6,73,511
4,44,324
5,62,627
5,31,129
1,85,033
2,45,209

The table prefixed to this Chapter, gives a brief view of the value of the trade carried on by different countries with the three Presidencies; but a few more details on the subject will probably be acceptable: and first with reference to the North American trade with India, which of late years had much decreased; an abstract of 1829 and 1830, is given in the following document just laid before the House of Commons:

North American Trade with British India.

	CALCUTTA.			MADRAS.			BOMBAY.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Value, S.Rs.	Ships.	Tons.	Value, M.Rs.	Ships.	Tons.	Value, B.Rs.
1829-30	13	4,129	17,61,767	3	970	81,899	1	185	23,569
1830-31	17	5,262	22,80,344	2	542	37,062	1	181	29,648
1831-32									
1832-33									

5,25,665

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ditto,
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The principal exports from Calcutta in 1830-31 were piece goods—*pieces*, No. 196,758, value S. R. 8,63,888; Indigo—*maunds* (each 82 lbs.) 5,851, value S.R. 5,85,090; Saltpetre—*mds.* 88,704, value S.R. 3,87,434; Lac Dye, *mds.* 9,190, val. S. R. 1,65,213; Skins and Hides, val. S.R. 1,32,577; Hemp, S. R. 17,291; Rice, Bags, S. R. 17,968; Tin, S. R. 11,462; Foreign Skins, R. 9,559; Gums, R. 12,858; Tortoiseshell, R. 9,013; Ginger, S.R. 15,742. From Madras—Piece goods, M. R. S. 27,085; Hides and Goat Skins, R. 6,944; Coffee, R. 2,645. Bombay, Coffee, B. R. 15,965; Gum Arabic, R. 5,362. The sundries are made up of various drugs, &c. it is pleasing, however, to observe, that the export of Bengal sugar in American ships is on the increase.

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FRENCH.—The French trade with Bengal has of late increased, the principal exports from France being wines, brandy, preserved fruits, millinery and knicknackeries of every sort, the return cargoes consist of indigo, sugar, (the sickly looking whitish Bengal sugar is preferred by the French confectioners for preserves, on account of its containing so little acidity,) peppers, dyes, drugs, coffee, silk, &c. The trade with other parts of Europe is trifling compared with the amount of general commerce, but if the staples of India were improved, it would doubtless increase. A considerable traffic is maintained between India and the Persian Gulf and Arabia; for the seven years ending 1827, the merchandise imported into Calcutta, from those places, amounted to S. R. 85,87,046, and the treasure to S. R. 86,67,716, the exports were S. R. 2,19,22,141 which trade was carried on in 50 English ships, with a tonnage of 20,000, and 80 Arab ships, comprising 35,000 tons. The trade of Madras was of course less; the average annual value of the trade between Calcutta and the Persian Gulf is S. R. 55,96,845; between the Gulf and Madras, S. R. 5,49,819, and between Bombay and the Gulf, S. R. 72,24,971.

The following exhibits the total trade carried on between the three Presidencies and the Persian and Arabian Gulphs.

Years.	IMPORTS.					EXPORTS.				
	English.		Arab.		Value of Imports.	English.		Arab.		Value of Exports.
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	
1821-22	41	15,549	21	10,444	71,00,237	29	12,207	22	9,700	1,01,91,107
1822-23	34	15,248	18	9,119	77,88,107	19	7,955	13	5,809	66,41,226
1823-24	23	12,223	27	9,521	65,00,994	17	3,814	20	9,220	70,29,228
1824-25	11	2,776	16	7,509	22,77,629	5	2,027	40	9,941	64,12,720
1825-26	6	1,912	21	9,277	24,92,075	18	2,052	41	9,562	79,29,524
1826-27	10	2,994	14	8,529	42,02,785	22	2,222	11	2,968	64,22,241
1827-28	22	9,551	22	7,617	52,50,070	14	2,906	18	6,510	60,46,567

INDIA TRADE WITH CHINA.

This commerce is of great extent, though only of late years brought into much notice, as will be seen by the following detail of trade between India and China, in private ships (as contradistinguished from those of the East India Company.)

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	Tonnage.	Value Imports.	Value Exports.	Total Value.
	Tons.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1813	10,668	6,035,128	3,861,916	9,897,044
1814	14,659	7,302,745	4,954,112	12,256,857
1815	11,906	6,991,681	4,337,016	11,328,697
1816	20,172	7,682,500	6,765,269	14,447,769
1817	27,008	11,081,600	5,562,100	16,643,700
1818	21,511	11,999,272	6,814,874	18,814,146
1819	13,873	9,459,932	6,134,692	15,594,624
1820	14,987	10,127,718	5,576,494	15,704,312
1821	21,872	9,170,294	6,170,033	15,340,327
1822	18,011	13,268,249	4,397,701	17,665,950
1823	13,439	11,073,010	6,633,599	17,706,609
1824	20,074	11,024,559	5,799,009	16,823,568
1825	21,748	15,700,878	9,605,089	25,305,967
1826	26,434	15,709,232	8,326,252	24,035,484
1827	28,249	15,845,643	9,656,767	25,502,410
1828	28,282	16,373,228	10,957,814	27,331,042
1829	—	18,447,147	12,921,153	31,368,300
1830				
1831				
1832				
1833				
1834				
1835				

No Returns down to the present Years.

between
Gulphs.

A great part of this trade, indeed nearly one-third consists of smuggled opium from Bengal and Bombay, but the following invoice of the trade for 1830-31, will shew the nature of the commerce in general.

The Trade with China carried on by private India Ships under the British Flag, so far as the same can be ascertained, for the year 1830-31.

IMPORTS, 1830-31.
The Number of Ships, 50; amounting 26,427 Tons.

Cotton.	Metals.	Pepper & Spices.	Rattans.	Betel Nut.	Putchuck.	Drugs.	Sharks' Fins & Fish Maws.
Pounds.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.	Peculs.
46,854,533	{ 10,194 Boxes 880 }	13,916	8,024	23,880	1,866	3,906	5,590

Sandal & other Woods.	Opium.	Woollens.	Cotton Goods.	Cotton Yarn.	Clocks, &c.	Pearls and Corallians.	Total Value of the Imports.
Peculs.	Chests or Peculs.	Pieces.	Value in Dollars.	Peculs.		Value in Dollars.	Dollars.
11,100	17,791	6,166	16,936	267	Nil.	111,469	17,447,642

value of
ports.

rupees.
1,01,107
6,41,326
6,39,338
5,13,730
8,59,554
4,65,941
9,46,567

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EXPORTS, 1830-31.

Tute-nague.	Raw Silk.	Nankeens.	Sugar & Sugar Candy.	Teas.	Cassia & Cassia buds.	Drugs.	Silk Piece Goods.	Bullion.	Total Value of Exports.
Peculs.	lb.	Pieces.	Peculs.	lb.	Peculs.	Peculs. 21,129½ and a quantity (not stated), value 46,435 dollars.	Value in Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
2,400	889,067	925,200	143,464	2,742,533	11,365		466,195	4,684,370	9,076,841

For an account of the general trade of China see Chap. X.

With respect to the India trade, it is stated that a large portion of the assorted cargoes exported from China by the Bengal and Bombay ships are articles prohibited, or subject to such duties that they are generally smuggled, and that with the knowledge and connivance of the Mandarins. There is an island near Whampoa, called French Island, where those smugglers live. Goods intended to be smuggled are sent to French Island, and notice given the night before at what hour the cargo will be brought. The Mandarins then surround the ship, and wait for the smuggling boat; when it comes alongside, they send a man in a canoe to count the packages, that no more may be brought to the ship than they have received their fee for.

How far the throwing open of the China trade will affect the Bengal trade with Canton remains to be seen; it is probable that, excepting in the article of opium, the commerce between India and China will decrease.

The following return of the shipping employed between India and Canton, will convey an idea of the relative proportion of trade carried on by each Presidency; the return is one of the latest laid before Parliament.

SHIPPING BETWEEN CANTON AND CALCUTTA, MADRAS, &c. 401

Years.	From British India to Canton.								From Canton to British India.							
	Calcutta.		Madras.		Bombay.		Total.		Calcutta.		Madras.		Bombay.		Total.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1808-9	15	8598	3	2353	31	24901	48	35941	19	9525	7	3738	11	8643	37	20905
1809-10	13	6983	1	1300	15	12084	30	20917	13	7373	3	1517	16	12331	31	21021
1810-11	11	5695	5	3693	14	13827	38	23125	13	6428	3	820	8	5704	32	13843
1811-12	14	7460	1	86	23	17789	38	25335	14	7112	1	80	7	4636	32	11818
1812-13	7	3146	5	5550	13	13692	25	23268	13	7694	1	260	7	4334	30	13278
1813-14	24	13193	5	5789	10	10572	39	29559	13	5817	1	375	6	4476	19	10688
1814-15	25	13298	3	725	13	10811	39	24834	11	8478	1	690	13	8581	35	14639
1815-16	25	13908	4	4890	21	17070	50	34938	15	5348	1	343	9	6216	35	11966
1816-17	34	19519	4	4671	22	18022	60	39212	28	13891	11	6281	39	20172
1817-18	35	17762	3	3489	19	17310	57	37473	29	15791	4	2161	14	9206	47	27068
1818-19	30	15128	2	3767	24	20850	76	39745	23	10563	3	848	15	10095	39	21511
1819-20	13	10141	2	2532	17	16813	37	29496	10	4863	15	2010	35	13873
1820-21	30	18360	4	5925	15	8476	45	32811	16	6591	3	1534	13	6762	32	14987
1821-22	24	14322	3	2332	24	20016	50	36871	13	6023	3	1722	22	13067	38	21873
1822-23	20	12314	3	4107	25	19882	48	36888	15	6524	1	379	20	10808	36	18011
1823-24	15	10763	3	2654	17	15419	24	28836	11	5510	2	1074	11	6855	24	13430
1824-25	30	14669	3	4054	30	18884	53	37879	11	4984	14	5364	21	9856	46	20074
1825-26	23	8715	3	3919	23	17383	48	30010	17	6822	6	2841	20	12068	43	21746
1826-27	35	21724	1	667	39	26722	75	49118	14	5599	11	5087	27	15738	52	26544
1827-28	37	17070	5	5193	37	27690	60	49691	18	6159	10	5342	30	16748	58	28240
1828-29	16	11544	4	4576	36	25731	56	41651	14	5928	7	4810	30	17544	51	28282
1829-30	18	8373	4	4440	32	25709	44	36331	16	4855	0	5448	25	15664	50	25998
1830-31	25	10112	4	3178	35	26695	64	39648	20	7278	13	13704	25	17066	58	37988
1831-32	25	9485	2	872	37	16656	54	25913	20	7304	16	6711	40	20658	76	43603
1832-33																
1833-34																
1834-35																
1835-36																

TRADE BETWEEN INDIA AND THE EASTERN ISLANDS

In a work of this nature, it would be impossible to enter more fully than I have already done into the detail of Indian commerce, but before closing so important a chapter, it will be necessary to shew the large trade carried on between Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, and the Eastern Islands, a trade which though it may not augment under the new system, as regards India, will probably be extended by European merchants, except in such articles as are exclusively tropical products; the articles in traffic at present are British and India piece goods, opium, indigo, spices, grain, salt, hardware, oil, &c. &c.; by the following return, which extends over 17 years, it will be observed that the quantity of treasure exported from the Eastern Islands is considerable.

Commerce between Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, & the Eastern Islands.

Years.	Imported to India.			Exported from India.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
1814-15	47,20,381	22,83,038	70,03,419	75,89,723	6,84,166	82,73,889
1815-16	49,99,538	23,21,379	73,19,914	78,66,691	97,903	74,09,593
1816-17	59,16,977	44,06,675	93,17,652	62,97,274	34,137	63,31,411
1817-18	56,97,622	50,86,462	87,83,984	76,12,214	96,765	77,98,980
1818-19	38,33,667	44,16,203	82,66,870	53,97,443	75,692	54,73,135
1819-20	33,57,594	44,16,375	77,73,969	61,71,066	1,22,817	63,03,883
1820-21	34,06,385	46,59,966	80,66,351	83,21,534	6,67,062	89,88,596
1821-22	36,17,359	42,84,731	81,81,090	1,11,16,071	6,82,238	1,20,08,309
1822-23	33,26,959	46,73,240	81,93,499	1,06,54,842	1,29,130	1,09,67,933
1823-24	45,37,342	30,19,504	75,56,846	92,43,668	9,20,344	1,02,74,000
1824-25	44,53,431	35,92,631	70,46,062	76,19,569	38,550	76,68,119
1825-26	30,36,705	31,53,327	60,94,032	60,78,320	61,238	61,39,558
1826-27	35,82,182	44,36,600	70,09,042	61,32,354	28,748	61,61,102
1827-28	35,98,375	31,01,493	66,99,867	60,23,159	44,132	60,77,291
1828-29	35,06,184	31,36,948	66,43,132	70,97,108	30,123	71,27,231
1829-30	26,57,987	23,73,528	49,30,515	74,06,432	1,01,920	75,08,352
1830-31	28,23,246	31,09,987	70,22,233	61,34,317	5,33,363	66,67,680
1831-32	20,23,770	12,62,052	32,85,822	37,97,192	24,732	38,21,924
1832-33						
1833-34						
1834-35						
1835-36						

It is now time to close this array of figures, which however monotonous is indispensable, to shew the valuable commerce which British India carries on—a trade which however vast at present, is not a tithe of what it may become, by England adopting a just and generous system towards the intelligent and industrious myriads so mysteriously subjected to her sway; so long as the two countries are united their interests are identified, and a partial or temporary benefit snatched at by the one, will be certainly succeeded by the punishment which sooner or later overtakes injustice.

The produce of the United Kingdom is admitted into the ports of India at a very low rate of duty,* while we place al-

* The following are the rates of duty chargeable on goods the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom imported by sea into Calcutta.

Enumeration of Goods.	British Bottom.	Foreign Bottom.
1. Bullion and Coin	free	free.
2. Horses	free	free.
3. Marine Stores	free	2½ per cent.
4. Metals, wrought and unwrought	free	2½ per cent.
5. Opium	24 rs. seer of 80 sa. wt.	48 rs. seer of 80 sa. wt.
6. Precious Stones and Pearls.....	free	free.
7. Salt.....	3 rs. a md. of 82 sa. wt. per sr.	6 rs. a md. of 82 sa. wt. per sr.
8. Spirituous Liquors.....	10 per cent.	2 per cent.
9. Tobacco.....	4 sa. a md. of 80 sa. wt. per sr.	8 sa. a md. of 80 sa. wt. per sr.
10. Wines.....	10 per cent.	20 per cent.
11. Woollens	free	2½ per cent.
Articles not included in the above 11 items.	2½ per cent.	5 per cent.

Islands.

Total.

Rupees.

82,78,989
74,08,886
69,81,481
77,08,980
84,73,135
69,03,082
92,88,490
20,00,000
88,74,900
76,58,513
61,89,553
61,61,702
69,77,501
77,17,301
75,08,352
66,87,400
28,21,024

most prohibitory duties on the Hindoo agricultural or manufactured produce if exported to England; we have by this one-sided free trade beggared India, and utterly ruined several hundred thousand cotton spinners; in 1814, Bengal exported to London 2,000,000*l.* worth of cotton goods, we have not only supplanted the Hindoos in this market, but also in their own thus destroying a trade of upwards of 4,000,000*l.* value, in addition to which we must add, that by our machinery we have almost destroyed the exportation of Indian cloths to the Eastern Archipelago, to Persia, the coasts of Africa and Arabia; to the continents of Europe, and America, and estimating according to the Custom House returns, the total value of the cotton goods and yarn exported at 17,000,000*l.* sterling, we may safely assume that 10,000,000*l.* worth of the trade has been lost to the Hindoos since 1814.

British Cotton Goods and Cotton Twist exported to India and China.

Years.	White or Plain Manufactures.	Printed or Dyed Manufactures.	Total.	Cotton Twist
	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Lbs
1814	213,408	604,800	818,208	8
1815	489,399	866,077	1,355,476
1816	714,611	991,147	1,705,758	624
1817	2,468,024	2,848,705	5,316,729	2,701
1818	4,614,381	4,227,665	8,842,046	1,861
1819	3,414,060	3,713,601	7,127,661	971
1820	6,598,266	7,584,668	14,172,934	224
1821	9,747,496	9,976,718	19,724,214	5,865
1822	11,712,639	9,029,204	20,741,843	22,200
1823	13,576,521	9,540,813	23,117,334	121,500
1824	14,858,515	9,611,880	24,470,395	105,350
1825	14,211,496	8,826,715	23,038,211	235,360
1826	15,790,601	10,159,791	25,950,392	919,387
1827	28,582,299	14,559,134	43,141,433	3,063,968
1828	32,274,308	12,604,827	44,879,135	4,790,505
1829	34,509,009	11,424,358	45,933,367	3,190,440
1830	45,321,656	13,690,398	59,012,044	4,998,690
1831	37,672,753	15,267,035	52,939,788	6,955,623
1832	40,656,511	18,374,200	59,030,711	4,535,427
1833	43,409,342	17,132,986	60,542,328	5,038,844
1834	46,241,400	14,248,887	60,490,287	5,591,739

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State of Education under the Madras Presidency, distinguishing the number of Colleges and Schools; the Hindoo from the Musselman Scholars, and the Male from the Female Pupils. (From the latest Government Returns in 1896.)

Districts.	Schools and Colleges.		Hindoo Scholars.		Musselman Scholars.		Total.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Ganjam ..	355	12	2,956	37	2000	37	9,906	12
Colleges ..	none	none	9,918	97	none	97	9,413	363
Schools ..	914	303	none	none	none	none	none	none
Vizagapatam ..	none	none	2,066	39	none	39	3,023	37
Colleges ..	2,069	57	1,484	9	none	9	3,553	66
Rajahmundry ..	270	31	4,960	375	none	375	5,935	35
Colleges ..	484	49	7,404	357	3	3	7,761	102
Schools ..	49	99	7,404	357	3	3	7,761	102
Madrass ..	574	99	7,404	357	3	3	7,761	102
Colleges ..	84	15	6,308	343	2000	343	6,381	60
Schools ..	365	84	5,658	341	1	1	5,999	166
Colleges ..	153	107	7,847	186	none	186	7,137	116
Schools ..	494	116	7,181	353	11	11	7,595	93
Colleges ..	none	41	10,371	333	none	333	10,419	704
Colleges ..	51	104	4,191	438	37	37	4,595	66
Schools ..	69	81	16,640	953	none	953	17,428	154
Colleges ..	58	154	7,769	699	66	66	8,538	766
Schools ..	69	84	9,385	131	none	131	10,316	140
Colleges ..	79	108	12,038	1,147	none	1,147	13,185	131
Schools ..	894	119	8,579	796	2	2	9,377	119
Colleges ..	967	93	7,894	313	2000	313	8,206	83
Schools ..	673	724	9,333	3,196	1,123	1,123	11,565	2,190
Colleges ..	173	none	7,75	75	none	75	7,824	75
Colleges ..	75	1,656	8,077	86	2000	2000	8,077	14
Colleges ..	41	14	5,403	143	2000	2000	5,403	143
Colleges ..	41	187	753	10	none	10	763	18
Colleges ..	393	49	2,573	1,490	none	1,490	2,573	517
Charity ditto ..	17	517	17,276	3,313	19,334	1,327	19,410	4,540
Charity rec. private tuition at home ..	17	517	17,276	3,313	19,334	1,327	19,410	4,540
Total Schools ..	12,496	3,313	175,069	19,334	1,327	1,327	184,110	4,540
Total Scholars ..	171,276	3,313	175,069	19,334	1,327	1,327	184,110	4,540

Total Scholars.....

circulating state of the literature press

75	667	3,250	463	26,583	188,058
14	137	5,109	415	26,448	4,540
14	137	5,109	415	26,448	184,110
14	137	5,109	415	26,448	13,561
14	137	5,109	415	26,448	1,287
14	137	5,109	415	26,448	19,334
14	137	5,109	415	26,448	175,000
14	137	5,109	415	26,448	3,313
14	137	5,109	415	26,448	171,776
Total Schools.....					13,496

CHAPTER VII.

THE PRESS—EDUCATION & RELIGION, INCLUDING THE HINDOO, MUSSEL-MAN, PARSEE, SYRIANS, JEWS, ROMAN CATHOLICS, AND ESTABLISHED CHURCH, &c. — SLAVERY—CRIME IN INDIA AND IN ENGLAND — SOCIAL ASPECT AND GENERAL IMPROVEMENT OF BRITISH INDIA.

THE PRESS.—The mighty engine which has effected such an extraordinary revolution among the inhabitants of the earth, and which by its powerful operation and almost unseen influence prevents any just parallel being drawn between ancient and modern nations, is being extended with sure and certain steps in British India, unshackled by stamp duties, undepressed by taxes on paper or on advertisements, and unimpeded by penalty bonds and securities, devoid of all censorship, and practically free for every legitimate purpose which a good citizen can require. The state of the press will be seen by the following authentic and official returns.

BENGAL.—In 1814, there existed but the *Calcutta Gov. Gazette*. In 1820, there were in addition to the foregoing, the *Bengal Hurkaru*, (Messenger) the *Indian Gazette*; the *Calcutta Journal*: and the *Monthly Journal*. The following was the return for the year 1830.

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Calcutta Gov. Gazette. | 12. Calcutta Monthly Miscel. | 23. Calcutta Chronicle. |
| 2. Bengal Hurkaru. | 13. Bengal Directory. | 24. Gospel Investigator. |
| 3. Indian Gazette. | 14. Spy. | 25. Commercial Chronicle. |
| 4. Calcutta Monthly Journal. | 15. Bengal. | 26. Bengal Herald (4 lang.) |
| 5. John Bull. | 16. Weekly Gleaner. | 27. Calcutta Gazette. |
| 6. Asiatic Observer. | 17. Scotsman in the East. | 28. Kaleidoscope. |
| 7. Quarterly Oriental Review. | 18. Columbian Press. | 29. Calcutta Register. |
| 8. B. India Mil. Repository. | 19. Bengal Chronicle. | 30. Mirror of the Press. |
| 9. Unit. & Christ. Miscellany. | 20. Oriental Observer. | 31. Annual Keepsake. |
| 10. Trifler. | 21. Indian Magazine. | 32. Calcutta Magazine. |
| 11. Oriental Mercury. | 22. Literary Gazette. | 33. Commercial Guide. |

At the present moment the following is the number and circulating state of the Calcutta Press.

ENGLISH DAILY NEWSPAPERS.

POLITICAL.		COMMERCIAL.	
	Circulation.		Circulation.
Bengal Hurkaru	726	Exchange Gazette	} Unknown.
India Gazette	378	Daily Advertiser	
John Bull (now Englishman)	306	Tulloch's Do.	
Calcutta Courier	175.	Loll Bazaar Do.	

THREE TIMES A WEEK.		TWICE A WEEK.	
Bengal Chronicle	208	} All three } Calcutta Courier	} 222
India Gazette	195		

WEEKLY.

POLITICAL.		COMMERCIAL.	
Bengal Herald	242	Commercial Price Current	} Unknown.
Reformer	400	Calcutta Exchange Do.	
Inquirer	200	Domestic retail Do.	
Indian Register	200	Export and Imports Do.	
OFFICIAL.		LITERARY.	
Calcutta Gazette	(unknown.)	Calcutta Literary Gazette	338
		Oriental Observer	230

MONTHLY.

Bengal Register.		Asiatic Society Journal	200
Sporting Magazine	270	Calcutta Christian Observer	380
Monthly Journal.		E. I. United Service Journal	130

QUARTERLY.

Calcutta Quarterly Review	200	Quarterly Register.	
Bengal Army List	250	———— (name unknown.)	

ANNUAL VOLUMES.

Bengal Annual	350	Calcutta Directory	1,200
Oriental Pearl.		Bengal Do. and Almanac	1,200
Bengal Souvenir.			

Proportions of Classes who subscribe to the Daily Papers at Calcutta.

	Civil.	Military.	Medical.	Merchantile.	Legal.	Clerical.	Miscellaneous.	Girls and Exchange.	Total.
Hurkaru and Chronicle	136	308	51	306	24	3	184	52	964
India Gazette	103	123	40	79	—	5	173	46	569
Calcutta Courier	69	179	15	151	—	11	4	55	397
John Bull (now Englishman) ..	104	81	9	—	13	14	66	25	307
Total.....	412	691	115	486	37	23	369	178	2008

In addition to the foregoing, several English Newspapers

have been established in the provinces,—viz. the *Meerut Observer*; and *Cawnpore Examiner*; the *Delhi Gazette*; the *Agra Acbar*; the *Mofussil Acbar*, &c. &c.

Of the daily English Newspapers, the *Bengal Hurkaru* may be taken as an example; it is as large as the London *Morning Post*, circulates nearly a thousand copies, has generally a page, if not more, of well paying advertisements, and its cost (independent of postage,) is 20 rupees a quarter.*

The Bengal, or rather properly speaking, the *Calcutta Native Press*,† was in—

1814, Nil—1820, Nil.

In 1834.

- Sumachur Durpun*, (Bengallee with English translations).
- Bunga doot*, or Bengal Herald, (Bengallee, Persian and Hindoostanee).
- Britant Bauhak*, (published at Bowanipoor) English and Bengallee.
- Jani Jan Numa*, Persian; *Gyananneshun* and *Urmoobadiha*, Bengallee;
- Sumachur Chundrika*, do.; *Oodunt Martund*, do.; *Sumbad Coomuddy*, do.;
- Rutnebulli*, do.; *Subha Rajendra*, Persian; *Shumsul Achbar*, Bengallee;
- Subha Rajendra*, do.; *Sumbad Soodbaher*, do.; *Sungbad Tumul Nausach*, do.;
- Sungbad Sarsungroho*, Bengallee and English.

Of these papers some are published twice or thrice a-week, (one, I believe, daily) and the remainder weekly. Before leaving India, arrangements were put in progress by the Author for the establishment of a Scientific and Literary Monthly Magazine in the native languages.

It should be observed that two of the Newspapers given in the English list, (the *Reformer* and *Inquirer*) are the property of and conducted by Natives themselves with extraordinary ability. The general tone of the English Press, as also that of the Native Journals is liberal, but some of the Bengallee Newspapers are of a high orthodox nature; their prejudices are, however, ably met by their own countrymen in the *Sungbad Coomuddy*, (or Moon of Intelligence) and

* The Bengal postage of a newspaper if sent to any place within 500 miles is about 1*d.*, and from 500 to 1,000 miles 3*d.*

† There are a great variety of *Acbars* or newspapers throughout the provinces, at the different Courts of which we do not know even the names,

Circulation.
Unknown.
222

Unknown.
338
230
200
380
130

Calcutta.

Year	Total
53	934
46	546
55	307
35	306
178	2304

papers

other Hindoo Journals. The *Reformer* is, it is said, under the management of a distinguished, wealthy, and highly talented Hindoo, Prassunu Coomar Tagore. But to no individuals is the Indian Press under greater obligations than to the late Rammohun Roy, and the munificent Dwarkanaut Tagore.

The Madras and Bombay Press is less extensive than that of Bengal, and it has been shifting so much that we possess less accurate details of its actual state.

MADRAS.—English Periodicals.—*Gazette, Courier, Hurkaru, Advertiser, The Plain Man's Friendly Visitor, Carnatic Chronicle, Literary Gazette, The Seventh Day, Commercial Circulator, Oriental Magazine, Army List, Register, Almanack, and the Mirat Ulakhbar in English and Hindustanee.*

BOMBAY.—English Periodicals.—*Gazette, Courier, Iris, Guide, Commercial Advertiser, Oriental Christian Spectator, Sporting Magazine, Price Current, Calendar, Register and Directory.* Native Periodicals.—*Na-Sumachur, Persian Huckba, Mamujeka Hurkaru, Chabrook Guzarattee, (Commercial Journal.)* One Newspaper is in Mahratta and English, one is issued daily, and arrangements are in progress for publishing new papers at Bombay as well as at the other Presidencies.

As before observed, there is no stamp duty on the newspaper press of India, and it is but justice to add that when the E. I. Government recently and very properly extended the stamp laws from the Mofussil into Calcutta, they did not put any stamp on newspapers. The Censorship throughout India has been finally abolished, and the enactments on establishing a new journal are—the name and residence of the proprietor, &c. to be registered, and the following regulation complied with—The editors of the newspapers or other periodical works in the English language are required to lodge one copy of every newspaper, regular or extra, and of every other periodical work published by them respectively, in the office of the chief secretary to the Government; and the editors of newspapers, or other periodical works in the

languages of the country, are in like manner, required to lodge one copy of every newspaper or other periodical work published by them, in the office of the Persian secretary to the Government. For these copies they receive payment at the usual rate paid by regular subscribers, for such publications respectively.

The number of printing offices in different parts of India is considerable, but they are difficult to enumerate, a great many of them being managed entirely by natives. The noble establishment of Mr. Samuel Smith, at Calcutta, is a fine specimen of how much may be accomplished by the spirit and talent of a single individual: this gentleman's subscription library and reading rooms are more spacious, and enriched with a more numerous and valuable collection of books, &c. than any circulating library in this splendid metropolis; indeed, I may venture to say that it is superior to Ebers's, Bull and Churton's, and Saunders' and Ottley's combined. The library also, of Messrs. Thacker and Co. is only inferior to Mr. Smith's in size, the collection of books being exceedingly valuable.

In the native as well as in the English journals, a free discussion of the measures of Government takes place, and the improvements suggested by the press, or the complaints made through its columns, receive the ready attention of the Government, which seeks or wishes for no disguise. If no injudicious effort be made to obtain premature circulation for any speculative journal, the press of India will become as useful to the rulers as to the ruled; and if kept free from licentiousness, and private malice or scandal, it will indeed be a boon and blessing to the natives of the eastern hemisphere,* into every part of which, from Persia to China,† it is now

* Lithography, so admirably suited for the Oriental characters, has come to the aid of its elder sister, Typography; there are several establishments in Calcutta; one at Cawnpoor even, and, I believe, one has recently been set up in Persia itself.

† There are two English newspapers, a monthly journal, and, I believe, a quarterly, and two annual periodicals published in China, at Canton and Macao!

slowly but surely finding a footing, and paving the way for the final dissolution of uncontrolled despotism.

EDUCATION.

Let us now turn to the important subject of education; and although the proofs of its progress may not be so easy of demonstration as that of the public press, yet it would be unnatural to suppose that such distinguished Anglo-Indian literati as Verelst, Vansittart, Hastings, Orme, Halhed, Gladwin, Wilkins, Law, Paterson, Jones, Harrington, Wilford, Hunter, Colebrooke, Leyden, Scott, Baillie, Ross, Ellis, Franklin, Erskine, Roebuck, Lumsden, Gilchrist, Malcolm, Marsden, Elphinstone, Babington, Carey, Vans Kennedy, Parker, Macnaghten, Marshman, Wilson, Herbert, Prinsep, Tod, Mackintosh, and a host of others whom it would be tedious to mention, would not make every possible exertion for the diffusion of that knowledge of which many were, and many still are the richest possessors. It was stipulated at the last renewal of the Charter, that 10,000*l.* should be annually devoted from the surplus territorial revenue of India, to the purpose of education; by the following extract from a parliamentary return in 1832, it will be seen that the Company have doubled, and in some years trebled the amount laid down in the Act, although there was no surplus revenue in India:—

1824	£21,884	1827	£45,313	1830	£44,330	1833	£
1825	66,563	1828	35,841	1831		1834	
1826	27,412	1829	38,076	1832		1835	

As an instance of the efforts making for the diffusion of intelligence throughout the British dominions, I may quote the testimony before Parliament of the Hon. Holt Mackenzie, who states that since the renewal of the last Charter, the Bengal Government have established a college at Calcutta for the Hindoos, and reformed very much the old Moslem College; that colleges have been established at Delhi and Agra, for both Hindoos and Moslems; the Hindoo College at Benares has been reformed; at the several institutions it has been the object of Government to extend the study of

the English language, and good books have been supplied, &c.; that seminaries have been established in different parts of the country, and schools established by individuals have been aided by Government.* With respect to Bombay, Major-General Sir Lionel Smith, a veteran and distinguished King's officer, observes in his evidence before Parliament (6th Oct. 1831), 'Education is in such extensive progress, that I hardly think it could be more extended—education is also going on in the Deckan; the encouragement given by Government consists in a very liberal establishment, under the direction of an officer of very great attainments in the native languages, Capt. Jarvis.'

For the army, also, the Company have established schools, and libraries have been sent out to India for the use of the troops; and it is in frequent evidence before Parliament, that great pains are taken with the native regimental seminaries. I might quote similar testimony with respect to Madras, but perhaps the best proof that I could adduce is the statement made by that indefatigable friend of India, Sir Alexander Johnson, in his late able Report laid before the Royal Asiatic Society, namely, that in Madras, 'the proportion of the inhabitants who have been taught reading, writing, and the rudiments of arithmetic, in their own language, amount to *one in five!*'†

Now if we take the Madras population to be no better educated than that of Calcutta or Bombay, we shall actually

* The Calcutta School Book Society, from 1824-25 up to the 30th April, 1833, printed 13,000 copies of 24 Sanscrit works; 5,000 copies of seven Arabic works; 2,500 do. of five Persian authors; 2,000 do. of four Hindu do. and several other works were then in the Press. The printing charges of the Society for the foregoing period was 105,425 rupees.

† Sir Alexander also states, that the Board of Education at Madras have recently circulated an almanack, on similar principles to the British almanack published here, among the native population of the Madras presidency, at the trifling expense of 48l.; and that the late Colonel Mackenzie received from the East India Company 10,000l. for his collections on the history of the Hindoos of the Southern Peninsula. The money paid by the East India Company for Dr. Morrison's Chinese Dictionary, was 12,000l. sterling!

have a higher right of education in India than in any other country on earth:—

EDUCATION IN PROPORTION TO POPULATION.

In India	1 scholar to every	5 inhabitants.
England	1 do.	16 do.
France	1 do.	17 do.
United States	1 do.	11 do.
Austria	1 do.	15 do.
Prussia	1 do.	7 do.
The Netherlands	1 do.	9 do.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN BENGAL.

The *Calcutta Madrassa, or Mahomedan College* was founded in 1781, by Warren Hastings, who provided a building for it at his own expense, amounting to 57,745 rupees, but which was afterwards charged to the Company. The Bengal government also, at the recommendation of Mr. Hastings, assigned lands of the estimated value of 29,000 rupees per annum, for the support of the institution, to promote the study of the Arabic and Persian languages, and of the Mahomedan law, with a view, more especially, to the production of well qualified officers for the courts of justice.

In 1791, the government of the College was placed in the hands of a Committee of Superintendence, consisting of the acting president of the Board of Revenue, the Persian Translator to Government, and the preparer of reports.

The students were divided into classes, and the following sciences to be taught:—Natural Philosophy, Theology, Law, Astronomy, Geometry, Arithmetic, Logic, Rhetoric, Oratory, Grammar.

Not more than two months' vacation allowed to the students in one year. Every Friday to be set apart for purifications and religious worship. The salaries of the preceptors and officers to be—Head Preceptor, 400 rupees per month; first Assistant, 100; second ditto, 80; third ditto, 60; fourth ditto, 30.

Each student in the five classes to receive an allowance of 15, 10, 8, 7, or 6 rupees per month, according to his class. The number of students to be regulated by the committee, and all surplus funds to be employed in the purchase of books.

In a voluminous report in 1819, of a retrospective view of the resources and expenditure of the institution, the latter amounted, from the year 1794 to the year 1818, a period of 25 years, to the sum of 4,94,197 rupees. 30,000 rupees per annum, is now guaranteed to the College out of the public treasury, instead of the institution depending upon the uncertain produce of the lands which were originally granted to it as an endowment. The public examinations which take place every year demonstrate the progress of the College.

In 1827, the study of Arabic, Muhomedan Law, and Mathematics was extended, and a Medical Class instituted. The examinations were in Arabic, Logic, Rhetoric, Philosophy, Euclid, Arithmetic, Algebra and Medicine. In 1828, an English Class was established; Skeletons and Anatomical Models and Surgical works provided. All applications for Law officers under Government were to be accompanied by certificates from the College, and a preference given to those who had acquired the English language and produced testimonials of good conduct in the College. In 1830, number of Students 99; examined 85.

Benares Hindoo Sanscrit College, established by Jonathan Duncan, Esq. the resident at Benares in 1791, as a means of employing, beneficially for the country, some part of a surplus which the public revenues yielded over their estimated amount. The expense for the first year was limited to 14,000 rupees. In the following year it was augmented to 20,000 rupees; at which amount it has been continued down to the present time. The object of this institution was the preservation and cultivation of the laws, literature and religion of the Hindoos, (and more particularly of their laws) in their sacred city; a measure which it was conceived would be equally advantageous to the natives, and honourable to the British Government among them.

The establishment originally consisted of a head pundit or rector; eight professors; nine students who enjoyed salaries; with book-keepers, writers, peons, &c. The Governor-General was constituted visitor, and the resident his deputy. Besides the scholars on the foundation, and a certain number of poor children who were to receive instruction gratis, the institution was open to all persons who were willing to pay for instruction: the teachers and students to hold their places during the pleasure of the visitor. All the professors, except the professor of medicine, to be Brahmins. The Brahmins to have preference in succession to the office of rector, or to professorships. Four examinations in the year to be held before the resident. Each professor to compose annually for the use of his students, a lecture on his respective science. Examinations into the most sacred branches of knowledge to be made by a committee of Brahmins. Courses of study to be prepared by the professors. The internal discipline to be in all respects conformable to the Dherma Shastra, in the chapter on education.

The prescribed course of studies in this college to comprehend, Theology, Ritual, Medicine including Botany, &c. Music, Mechanic Arts, Grammar, Prosody, and Sacred Lexicography, Mathematics, Metaphysics, Logic, Law, History, Ethics, Philosophy, and Poetry.

The Calcutta Hindoo Sanscrit College, dates its establishment from 1821 For the support of this institution, the annual sum of 30,000 rupees has been allowed by Government, and 1,20,000 rupees has also been allotted

for the erection of a college. The establishment consists of 14 Pundits, a Librarian and servants, 100 scholars on the foundation, and a Secretary.

The sum of 1,200 rupees is reserved for distribution in prizes at the public examination, and a school for Hindoo children is connected with the college.

In 1823 the Bengal Government formed a *General Committee of Public Instruction at Calcutta*, for the promoting of education and of the improvement of the morals of the natives of India.

The annual sum of one lac of rupees, which, by the 53 Geo. III., c. 155, was appropriated to the purposes of education was placed at their disposal. The schools at Chinsurah, Rajpootana, and Bhaugulpore, were placed under the control of this committee, and the separate grants which had been made to those schools, amounting together to 16,800 rupees per annum, were discontinued from the 1st January 1824.

The total amount placed at the disposal of the General Committee of Public Instruction in the years from 1821-22 to 1825-26 was, S. R. 4,78,400.

Agra College. In 1822, the Governor-General in Council sanctioned the institution of a college at Agra; the sum of 42,501 Rs. was for the erection of the college; an expenditure of 15,420 Rs. authorised, and the number of students in the college was in 1826—117; 1827—210; in 1830—203; of whom 73 received stipendiary allowances.

Delhi College, similar to the foregoing by its adaptation to useful instruction. In 1827 the number of students was 204; in 1828—199; and in 1829-152; the reduction being owing to a discouragement of pecuniary or stipendiary grants to pupils.

Vidalaya or Anglo-Indian College. "This highly interesting and promising institution," it is stated, "owes its origin to the intelligence and public spirit of some of the opulent native gentlemen of Calcutta, who associated together in 1816, and subscribed a capital sum of Rs. 1,13,179, to found a seminary for the instruction of the sons of Hindoos in the European and Asiatic languages and sciences. It was placed under the superintendence of the General Committee, as the condition of pecuniary aid, to the amount of 300 rupees per month, for house-rent, afforded to it out of the Education Fund. This institution has a growing popularity and decided superiority, on its present footing, over any other affording tuition to the natives in the English language; a select library of books has been sent from England, and some additional philosophical apparatus. The number of scholars, all male, is stated at 200; and so long, the committee add, as such a number, all respectably connected, "can be trained, in useful knowledge and the English language, a great improvement may be confidently anticipated in the intellectual character of the principal inhabitants of Calcutta." In order to secure the continued attendance of the

more promising pupils, and to enable them to complete their course of study, a limited number of scholarships has been endowed by the Government. The number of pupils were in January 1826—196; in 1827—372; July 1826—280; 1828—437 (of whom 100 received gratuitous education.) The number is still on the increase.

English College. The Government sanctioned the establishment of a distinct *English College*, for the admission of a certain number of the more advanced pupils from the Hindoo and Mahomedan colleges, for gratuitous instruction in literature and science, by means of the English language; for which purpose the Education Fund could afford an income of Rs. 24,000 per annum.

The Bishop's College near Calcutta. A grant of land, of about 20 acres, was made by the Government in India, for the purposes of the College, to which a farther grant has since been made. It stands about three miles below Calcutta, in a fine situation, on the opposite bank of the river Hooghly, which is there much wider than the Thames at London. The spot is peculiarly favourable for privacy and retirement: and the scenery is such," Bishop Middleton observes, "as to gratify and soothe the mind."

The foundation stone of the college was laid, on the 15th of December, 1820, by Bishop Middleton. The Incorporated Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, transmitted to Dr. Middleton the sum of 5,000*l.* to enable him to commence the work; 5,000*l.* were contributed by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; 5,000*l.* more were voted by the Church Missionary Society; and the British and Foreign Bible Society had added 5,000*l.* This sum of 20,000*l.* was augmented by collections in all the churches in England and Wales, in consequence of a "King's Letter," which amounted to 45,000*l.* with which the building has been completed.

The College consists of three piles of buildings, in the plain Gothic style. These buildings forms three sides of a quadrangle; the fourth, or south side, being open to the river, which in that part flows nearly from E. to W. The pile which fronts the river consists of the college chapel to the E., divided by a tower from the hall and library on the W. The buildings on the E. and W. sides of the quadrangle contain the apartments for a principal and two professors, with lecture rooms, and rooms for the students. The whole is formed on the plan of combining comfort and convenience with an elegant simplicity.

Bishop's College is under the immediate direction of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel; but the statutes are so framed as to afford opportunity both to the Government in India and to the religious societies connected with the Church of England, of obtaining, under certain

regulations, the benefits of the college for such students as they may place there.

For the regular supply of students, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, has adopted the measure stated in the following extract from a late report:—"Ten theological scholarships and ten lay scholarships have been formed by the society, for native or European youths educated in the principles of Christianity; and the sum of 1,000*l.* per annum has been appropriated to this special purpose. The ordinary age of admission of fourteen

The Christian Knowledge Society assists in this plan of scholarship; having placed the sum of 6,000*l.* at the disposal of the Gospel Propagation Society, for the purpose of endowing five scholarships, to be called, in memory of the founder of the College, "Bishop Middleton's Scholarships." This grant is also intended to provide a salary for a Tamil teacher in the College, that being the language chiefly used in the Society's missions.

The Church Missionary Society voted a grant of 1,000*l.* per annum for several years, on account of the importance of the institution, and of the co-operation it afforded in their department of labour in India.

In 1830, the Directors of Bishop's College have upwards of 50,000*l.* in the 3*½* per cents., as a fund towards the support of that institution. There are upon that foundation a principal, two professors, eight missionaries, two catechists, and a printer.

The College Council consists of three professors, and attached to the College are four European Missionaries.

The foregoing abstract of the Colleges in Bengal is sufficient to convey an idea of the good intentions of the Government in furthering education. There are various primary and elementary schools, viz. at Chinsurah (where there are 1,200 scholars); at Ajmeer (in which school there are 200 boys); Boglipoor school (134 pupils); Cawnpore (75 scholars); Allahabad (50 ditto);* Dacca (25 schools and 1,414 pupils); Mynpoory College, Etawah (40); Bareilly (131 schools, 300 seminaries, with 3,000 pupils); and an established College, with 50 students. The following statement respecting Bareilly is full of interest:

In 1827, the local agents in Bareilly, Messrs S. M. Boulderson, J. Davidson, and C. Bradford, were required to report "what schools, col-

* It is proposed to establish an English College at Allahabad.

leges, or seminaries of any description whatever, existed in the towns or villages" of that district. In reply they informed the Education Committee, that in the town of Bareilly there were 101 schools in which Persian was taught, and 20 in which the children of the Mallhims were taught accounts; besides which there were 11 persons who taught Arabic, and two who taught the science of medicine; that in the villages round about Bareilly there were nine Hindoo schools and 13 Persian; and in other parts of the district as follows:—

In the thannah of Bhoora, 4 P.* in Ichonadab, 3 P. 3 H*. ; in the town of Budaou, 34 P., besides the College of Mahasnood Ally: in the neighbouring villages, 6 P. 1 H.; in Kusbah Furreedpore, 8 P.; in the neighbouring villages, 8 P.; in Kusbah Besulpore, 2 H.; in the neighbouring villages, 7 H.; in the thannah of Dettagunge, 6 P. 2 H.; in Riche, 1 H.; in the adjoining villages, 11 H.; in the Busten Ojahnee, 1 P. 2 H.; in the villages adjoining, 2 P. 16 H.; in the town of Omiah, 8 P. 21 H.; in the adjoining villages, 6 P.; in the thannah of Bilsee, 4 P. 3 H.; in the town of Shaguati, 1 P.; in the villages of the Pergunnah, 3 P. 1 H.; in the thannah of Nawaubgunge, 5 P. 32 H.; in the Busten of Sheergicoli, 2 P.; in the neighbouring villages, 10 P.; and that in a village of the same thannah there were resident three learned men who taught the Arabic sciences, and in the thannah of Meerungunge, 3 P. 4 H.

"In these schools," the local agents observe, "science of any sort is rarely studied. Works in the Persian language, such as the Bostan, Gollstan, Zalicka, Madhooram Aboolfuzul, Secundernameh, Tusha Kheeleefa, Bahardanisli, are read, with a view to facility in writing Persian; besides this, the scholars are instructed in the simplest rules of arithmetic. In the colleges, the works read are in the Arabic language. The course of study includes Surf, Neho, Mautick, Laws of Composition, Fikha Kikmut, under which are included medicine, mathematics, and natural philosophy, the Buddus, and the explanations of the Koran; besides there, there are schools in which the children of Mahajans and those intended for putwarries are taught accounts; those who study the Hindoo sciences read the Vedas, the Shastras, the Poorana, Beakam Jotuh Chelum Naryul, Ojoosh Bed, Memunsa, Neri. We have not heard that there are any establishments for such scholars in the villages.

"In the schools in which Persian is taught, the boys read manuscript copies of the different books, and learn to write on boards.

"Hindoos and Mussulmans have no scruples about reading together. The teachers are almost always Syeds, Sheiks, Moguls, Patans or Kaits.

"The teachers are paid from three to seven rupees a month by the person at whose house they sit; they also get their meals twice a day; and

* P. Persian, and H. Hindoo.

surance, that is, a *kubba*, *razee*, *toshak* and *bolaposh*. *Kubba* and *razee* are regularly given every year, whether the old one be worn out or not; the *toshak* and *bolaposh* are sometimes given, sometimes not. Summer clothing is also sometimes given, but rarely. Those who do not pay a teacher for attending at their own houses, send their children to the houses of those who entertain one, and pay the teacher from four annas to one rupee monthly, according to their means; besides this, the master gets other perquisites, such as 'jummajee' offerings, presented on Thursday evenings by each boy, from four *gundahs* to one and five annas; 'aghazee' offerings, presented on beginning a new book, from five annas to one and a half rupee; 'eldic,' presented on holidays, from one anna to one rupee. The boys begin to study at six years of age sometimes, but seldom till 20,* in the colleges, from 14 to 25, sometimes 30, sometimes much less. It depending upon the talents and inclination of the students. Those who learn Persian, viz. boys till the age of 14 and 15, never remain under the roof of the master; on the contrary, he generally attends at the house of some person or other, where he instructs the children of the master of the house, and those of others. Schools in which accounts are taught differ in no material respect from Persian ones. Those who teach Arabic have sometimes pupils who come from a distance residing under their roof; but those who live in the same town remain in their parents' house. It is considered improper to take any thing from Arabic students, unless from necessity. The schools in the towns are well attended in comparison with those of the villages; we have heard of no schools supported by public grants."

In Delhi district there are about 300 elementary schools, in several of which the Preceptors receive no pay, but teach *gratis, in hope of Heaven*. There are a great variety of other colleges and schools in Kidderpore, Burdwan, Moorshedabad, Hooghly, Nuddea, Rajishaye, Calcutta Benevolent schools (250 pupils of both sexes): Infant schools in various districts, under the Committee of Management at Calcutta; Sylhet, Chittagong, Beaspoor, &c. independent of regular schools, and private or missionary seminaries. The Missionary Societies maintain schools at their respective stations. The following are maintained by them under this Presidency;—

By the *London Society*.—At *Calcutta*, and out stations, Bengallee schools, for boys, 11; for girls, 4—15. At *Chin-*

* It is thus in the official document.

surah—Bengallee, for boys, 2. At *Berhanpore*—Bengallee, for boys, 1; for girls, 1—2. At *Benares*—Hindui, for boys, 4. By the *Baptist Society*.—At *Calcutta*, and out stations, for boys, 2; for girls, 22—24. At *Cutwa*, for girls, 4. At *Sewry*, for boys, 4; for girls, 4—8.

STATE OF EDUCATION AT MADRAS.

The reports in detail from this Presidency are not numerous, but to compensate in some measure, we have a more complete return than from any of the other Presidencies relative to the males and females at each school, distinguishing the Hindoo from the Mussulman scholars. This return will be found affixed to this Chapter. A summary of the report states, that the schools are for the most part supported by the people who send their children to them for instruction, the rate of payment for each scholar varying in different districts, and, according to the circumstances of the parents of the pupils, viz. from one anna (three-halfpence) to four rupees (eight shillings) a month, the ordinary rate of the poorer classes being generally four annas, and seldom exceeding eight annas. There are endowed schools, or teachers, in the following districts:—

Rajamundry—69 teachers of the sciences, endowed with land, and 13 receiving allowances in money.

Nellore—several Brahmins and Mussulmans, receiving 1,467 rupees *per annum* for teaching the Vedas, Arabic, and Persian.

Arcot—23 colleges and six Persian schools.

Salem—20 teachers of Theology and one Mussulman school.

Tanjore—77 colleges and 44 schools, supported by His Highness the Rajah.

Trichinopoly—seven schools.

Malabar—one college.

Endowments for purposes of education in other districts have unfortunately been appropriated to other purposes.

The Missionary Societies maintain the following schools, under this Presidency:

The *London Society*.—At *Madras*, and out stations, Tamil, for boys, 14; girls, 2; boys and girls, 2—16. *Tripassoor*—Tamil, boys and girls, 2; English, boys and girls, 2—4. *Vizagapatam*—Telooگوو, boys and girls, 11. *Cuddapah*—Telooگوو, boys and girls, 8. *Chittoor*—Telooگوو and Tamil, for boys, 7; girls, 1—8. *Belgaum*, and out stations—Mahratta and Tamil, for boys, 7; for girls, 1—8. *Bellary*—Canarese and Tamil, for boys, 12; for girls, 1—13. *Bangalore*, with out stations—Canarese, Mahratta, Telooگوو, and Tamil, for boys, with a few girls, 7. *Salem*—Tamil, Telooگوو, and English, boys, 7. *Comboconum*—Tamil, for boys, 12; for girls, 1—13. *Coimbatore*—Tamil, for boys, 5. *Nagercoil*, with out stations—Tamil, for boys, 46; for girls, 4—50. *Neyoor*, with out stations—Tamil, for boys, 50; for girls, 1—51. *Quilon*—Malayalim, for boys, 14; for girls, 10—24. The *Wesleyan Missionary Society*,—At *Madras*, 14. *Bangalore*, 6. *Negapattam* and *Melnattam*, 8.

A committee of public instruction has been formed at Madras on the model of that of Bengal, and much good has already been effected by the same.

STATE OF EDUCATION AT BOMBAY.

The Government of this Presidency has not been behind hand in promoting the blessing of education. In July, 1828, a circular letter was issued to the several collectors under the Bombay Government, calling upon them to report annually to the Foujdarry Adawlut the number of schools in their collectorates, the number of boys attending each, and the mode in which education was conducted, also the mode in which printed tracts were sought after and disposed of. In October, 1829, these reports having been received, the Registrar of the Adawlut was instructed to forward to the Government a general report of the state of education in the provinces of the Bombay Presidency, framed from the infor-

mation conveyed in the statements of the several collectors, and suggesting the means which, in the opinion of the Judges, were most likely to promote and improve the education of the natives of India.

First, by a gradual extension of schools on an improved principle, either by affording the patronage of Government to native schoolmasters, on condition of their improving their system, or by the establishment of new schools in populous places at the expense of Government: and,

Secondly, by the gratuitous distribution of useful books, such as books of arithmetic, short histories, moral tales, distinct from their own false legends, natural history, and some short voyages and travels.

Periodical examinations the Judges recommend to be held with caution, as likely to excite alarm, and when voluntarily submitted to by the schoolmasters, to be accompanied by liberal rewards to the scholars for proficiency, 'as showing the interest the Government takes in the proceedings, and as a mode of encouragement which would seem upon common principles likely to be attended with a good result.'

This report is accompanied by the following 'Statement of the Schools and Scholars in the different Collectorships.'

Native Education Society. The committee of this noble institution (voluntarily formed in 1815, and composed in nearly equal proportions of Europeans and natives) at a meeting, 12th April, 1831, stated that its aggregate receipts and disbursements within the year amounted to between 70,000 and 80,000 rupees; that it has constantly on sale more than 40 publications in the native languages, many of them the produce of the Bombay lithographic and other presses, of which former mode of printing favourable specimens are appended to the reports; and that it has under its controul and management the several schools and establishments described in the following paragraphs:—

In the central school 250 boys have been through a course of study in the English language; 50 have left it with a competent knowledge of the language, consisting of an acquaintance with geography, mathematic,

and geometry. In Bombay, the boys in the Mahratta school have amounted to 954, and in Guzzerattee to 427. At present, there are altogether 56 of the society's schools, each containing about 60 boys, amounting in the whole to 3,000 boys under a course of education.

This report contains the following further particulars:—

Your committee observe that the boys who have made the greatest progress in the English schools are the Hindoos; they are left longer in the schools by their parents than other boys, who, though equally intelligent and quick, are more irregular in their attendance. Few or no Mahomedan boys ever enter the schools.

In 1826, there were in the Society's school at Bombay, 367 boys *boarders*, and 228 girls ditto; and there were of day scholars 268 Christians, and 472 natives. In Surat school, 3 Christians and 48 natives, and the regular schools 183 pupils.

There is a Hindoo college at Poona, at which premiums are awarded to the most deserving students. An admirable Engineer College has been formed at Bombay, at which, according to the latest return, there were 86 students entertained and instructed.

Schools and Scholars at Bombay.

DISTRICTS.		Schools— Master paid by Government.	No. of scholars.	Village Schools.	No. of Scholars.	Total Schools.	Total Scholars.
Deccan.	Poona	5	266	204	4651	209	4917
	Ahmednuggur.....	4	233	164	2966	168	3133
	Candelah	2	59	112	1610	114	1669
Guzzerat.	Surat	3	96	188	4668	190	4164
	Broach	3	73	24	967	26	1043
	Kaira	3	157	62	3024	64	3181
	Ahmedabad	3	127	86	3226	91	3353
Concan.	Northern Concan ..	3	188	135	2490	137	2678
	Southern ditto.....	1	31	285	6700	282	6721
	Darwar	2	94	302	4196	304	4399
		25	1315	1680	33838	1703	35153

In May, 1830, the Education Society reported 25 schoolmasters, 11 Mahrattas, and 11 Guzzerattees, ready to commence their duties as teachers in the various schools in the Deccan, in Guzzerat, and in the two Concan. They had

acquired an accurate knowledge of their own languages, and were so far acquainted with the higher branches of the mathematics as to entitle them to be considered teachers of the second order. Stations were proposed for them by the Society, to which they were sent by the Government.

In 1820, there were 44 students quitting the institution to enter on professional employment, of whom there were—Europeans, 7; Mahratta, 32; Guzeratee, 5. Mathematical instruments, &c., are supplied by the E. I. Company.

The following very condensed abstract relative to the number of the schools under the Bombay Presidency (according to circular queries in 1825) and the mode in which the teacher is remunerated, will be perused with much interest.

Official Returns (Abstract) of the Schools under the Bombay Presidency.

Districts.	Number of Schools and Scholars.		Allowances to Schoolmasters, and from what Source derived.
	Schools.	Scholars.	
Ahmedabad.	City..... 21 Villages... 63	Brahmins 2 Ditto 408 Wan... 84 Kumbhes 534 17 oil cr castes 490 In Goga 167 Total 2,651	.. The manner of remunerating teachers is exceedingly various, each village having a mode peculiar to itself. The more general practice is, for each boy to present daily about a handful of flour. A sum of from one to five rupees is also usually paid on his leaving school. The parents also pay about one rupee and a half on the boy being perfect in the first 15 lessons. A similar sum on his acquiring a perfect knowledge of the alphabet, and another similar sum when he is able to write, to cast up accounts, and to draw out bills of exchange. The office of schoolmaster is generally hereditary.
Concan.....	66 (58 in private dwellings, and 28 in temples.)	1,300 of all castes, including 567 Brahmins, and no girls.	.. Pecuniary payments, amounting to about four rupees a month upon an average (a salary which is stated to be perfectly inadequate for efficient instruction); it is also customary in Hindoo schools, for each child to give two nutwars of rice per month, and the shewoo pice, or two pice, to the teachers on every great Hindoo holiday; but this custom is not invariably observed.
Kaira Dist..	120 badly conducted	seldom more than 100 boys in each school; in general much less.	.. The boys daily, when they quit the school in the evening, present a handful of grain, seldom exceeding a quarter of a seer; and when they finally leave the school make the master a present of two or three rupees. Boys of respectable families also give half a rupee on first entering the school, and on days of ceremony send him a meal of grain and ghee. They also sometimes beg for him from respectable visitors. Total of income between 40 and 100 rupees.
Kaira Sudder Station..	2 The education does not extend beyond the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic.	230 average number of all classes.	.. The office confined in Brahmins, though not hereditary. They receive generally seven seers of grain monthly from the parents of each boy, and five rupees in cash when he is withdrawn from school.

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Districts.	Number of Schools and Scholars.	
	Schools.	Scholars.
Concan...	90	190
Govt.	120	120
Charitable ..	90	90
Hindoo.....	100	100
Mahom....	80	80
Surat Zillah. (Exclusive of alienated Villages) ..	120	average about 2000.
Surat Town.	Hindoo... 43	2,373
	Pandits... 18	66
	Mahom... 59	471
	Mooltas... 50	287
	In Cashan 12 Villages... 85	Not stated
Broach Town.	16	373
Kandesh...	Hindoo... 2,022	(being in the proportion of 1 to 18, the number of male inhabitants, being 36,001.
	Elemen- tary... 76	
	Superior... 19	
	Mahom... 19	
	Total 199	

Allowances to Schoolmasters, and from what source derived.

Fixed pay from Government per month Rs. 50
 Ditto from American Missionary Society 20
 Various Allowances from Parents between per month, Rs. 40 and 50.

Total Emoluments: Rs. 913 1 61
 Flour 4,125 10 to 2,000 2 10
 Cash 155 3 0
 Service lands 5,103 2 90 to 6,103 2 90

Each master receives about 60 rupees per annum, for 50 boys in grain and money.

In the townships they receive their recompense chiefly from the parents. There are, in some cases, fixed allowances of from 30 to 70 rupees. In others a daily present of one quarter of a seer of grain, and payments in money upon the scholars attaining to a certain state of proficiency. In the villages the mode of remuneration is usually similar to that adopted in the townships; but the fixed annual allowances are as low as 20 rupees, and scarcely ever exceed 30 rupees.

The schoolmaster's allowances are derived from the parents of the children, and consist of a small quantity of grain daily presented by the pupil. A few pice in the course of the month, half a rupee or a rupee at the different stages of advancement. The income of a schoolmaster never averages more than from 3 to 5 rupees monthly, and is precarious.

The schoolmaster's allowances are all derived from the scholars, and supposed to average not more than 30 rupees per annum for each school.

Under this Presidency the London Missionary Society maintains the following schools. At Surat—Goojurattee, for boys, 4; girls, 1—5. At Darwan—Tamil, 2.

The following extract from the evidence of the Hon. Holt Mackensie's recent evidence before Parliament on this important subject, is worth rescuing from the voluminous mass of official documents in which it lies buried.

Will you state more particularly any new way that you consider will facilitate the education of these persons?—Already a good deal has been done by government. In the colleges at Calcutta especially, the system of education has been much improved. Besides their own learning, many of the students are now attending to English: mathematics particularly

are cultivated; and there is a gradually extending acquisition of general knowledge. By pursuing the system, by establishing more seminaries under proper superintendence, by supplying instructive books, and especially by promoting the acquisition of the English language and science, we may soon give to the educated classes more enlarged notions, notions that will certainly fit them better for communicating and co-operating with us.

At this moment what are the means of education for the native judges, and especially the sudder aumeens?—For the Moslems there is the Mudriassa or College at Calcutta, in which law and all branches of Mahomedan learning have long been taught; and, more recently established, there are academics at Agra and Delhi, where both Mussulmen and Hindoos receive a more popular education. The Hindoo law is taught in government colleges at Calcutta and Benares. The students who are admitted on the foundation of the government colleges are selected on a competition of candidates; and most of them, after passing through the prescribed course of study at those institutions, obtain certificates that they have acquired such a knowledge of law as to qualify them for the situation of law officers in any of the established courts; to which, if appointed, they become, as I have mentioned, *ex officio*, sudder aumeens. A similar testimonial is required from all candidates for the situation of law officer, wheresoever educated. The other sudder aumeens and the moonsiffs are appointed on a general report of their being qualified for the trust; and for both classes there exist, independently of government institutions, various means of education common to Hindoos and Mahomedans, more or less efficient. There are schools of which the masters live by the fees of their scholars, as in this country. Teachers entertained by individuals usually instruct the children of neighbours; and throughout the country, almost every man noted for learning is himself an instructor of youth. I do not remember hearing of any celebrated doctor or pundit who had not young men waiting upon them as pupils, and learning the law and other sciences at their feet. In this way a great many young men are educated in almost every district; but it is not easy to say the precise extent to which instruction is thus conveyed.

Do the pupils pay the teacher?—Not generally for instruction of a highly learned character. Those who teach merely Persian or Hindoe either take fees from their scholars, or are paid by the heads of the families in which they are employed. But men at all celebrated for learning, and indeed most of the instructors in Arabic and Sanscrit, usually give tuition gratis; often, indeed, feeding and clothing their pupils: and at the government institutions there are a considerable number of students who get a small allowance for their support, it having always been the practice of native colleges that the student should not pay, but be supported. The

habits of the people being very moderate, a few shillings suffice for the support of a student. The rank and reputation of a man of learning are promoted by his having many pupils: and both masters and scholars in many cases get presents on occasions of solemnity; it being indeed no disgrace to a poor student to beg.

These pupils, then, are not of use to their teachers as they advance?— I never heard that they were of any use. The men of learning who gather pupils about them look more to the reputation of the thing than to any thing else.

Perhaps in that way promoting their employment?— Chiefly in promoting their rank in society.

Now with respect to the allowance in the Government College, is that allowance made by government?—Yes. A part of the general fund is appropriated to the support of a certain number of students. It has been an object with us, latterly to encourage the attendance of students who are willing to attend, without pay, for the sake of learning; but with reference to the usages of the people, the change can only be made gradually.

Mr. Mackensie adds,—

I believe that all endowments which existed when we acquired the country were maintained; but in the Bengal provinces there were few, if any, that could properly be called institutions established by the government for the purpose of instruction. Particular Brahmins and other learned men frequently had allowances on the condition of communicating instruction: these have been continued where the grant of the former government appeared to be perpetual. Where the grant was personal, it has ordinarily lapsed with the death of the party.

The Calcutta Education Press (now the Baptist Mission Press) has been productive of much good; between July, 1824, and February, 1830, the number of native works produced at this press were—

	Finished.	In Hand.	Finished.	In Hand.
Sanscrit	15	3	Hindi	3
Arabic	2	5	Persian	4

The total value of the works was Rs. 58,890. *The Calcutta School-Book Society* had published 38 volumes on important subjects, in the several Indian languages, as follows:—

In Sanscrit	3	Persian	5	Anglo-Persian	3
Bengallee	9	Hindostanee	1	Anglo-Hindostanee	2
Hindee	3	Anglo-Bengallee	3	English	6
Arabic	2	Anglo-Hindee	1		
					38

Of the foregoing elementary and standard volumes, there were 28,671 copies circulated in 1828 and in 1829, as follows:

Of Reports	651	Arabic	117
Sanscrit Books	177	Persian	1,907
Bengalee	10,074	Hindustanee	1,173
Hindee	2,452	English	9,616
Oeriya	200	Anglo-Asiatic	2,304
		Total	<u>28,671</u>

Of the Serampore Missionaries (particularly Drs. Carey* and Marshman) it is impossible to speak in sufficiently laudatory terms, without hurting the feelings of those amiable pioneers of civilization. They have 27 missionary stations, containing 47 missionaries, spread over an immense extent of country. It is truly observed that 'the missionaries sent from Serampore are prepared for their labours at a moderate expense; they are generally content with a style of living which persons brought up in Europe could not endure without loss of health, and every member of the mission is taught, not only that it is lawful, but desirable, for him to secure the means of his own support, by any employment which does not obstruct his usefulness.'

Shortly before leaving India, I visited the College at Serampore, and was really at a loss which to admire most, the active industry, skill and intelligence put in operation, or the profound and unaffected piety which pervaded the whole establishment. In one part of the College types in every language were being cast; in another a capital steam-engine was plying its powerful machinery for the manufacture of excellent paper; in a third place were numerous compositors employed on books, pamphlets, newspapers, school tracts, hymns, catechisms, &c., and in a fourth spot printers, ink-

* Since the first edition of this work went to press, Dr. Carey has descended, full of honours, to the grave. An interesting memoir of this venerable character will be found in the 'Gentleman's Magazine' for April, 1835, written by Mr. Fisher. The translation of the Scriptures into the native languages by Dr. Carey will be found detailed at page 317.

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makers, binders, &c. &c. all, in fact, was peace, harmony, and holiness. The English language is making rapid strides, in every part of India; a recent Bengal newspaper, the *Samachar Durpan* (which has been established by the Serampore missionaries, one half being in the English, and the other half translations into the Bengallee) states that, with the view of encouraging the study of this language, Lord W. Bentinck has adopted it in his correspondence with Fyz Mahomed Khan, one of the native chiefs in the West, which has created a considerable sensation in Delhi. A demand for English tutors and secretaries is already perceptible. The teacher who recently resigned his situation in the Delhi College, said he could easily get a tutorship and secretaryship under a native prince. Mr. Rennel, of the collector's office, having been discharged, has also the offer of a situation from a native prince. Kishenlall has already engaged an English teacher for his two sons, whom he intends to make secretaries to Fyz Mahomed Khan. Lord William's letters in English to the native chiefs, are likely to draw their attention to the acquisition of English. As soon as the chiefs begin to study the language, or make their sons do so, the use of English will become general.

From the Bombay *Durpan*, we also learn that the English language is much more generally sought among the natives than at any former period. Besides the school at Poona, the Central English school of the Native Education Society has 100 students, and to this number the school is limited. (The missionaries, with the assistance of the Government, have recently established one English school, and the Government are about instituting another.) There are, however, numerous private schools on the island, in which the total number of youths learning English, will be found to be several hundreds.

It is stated in the Serampore account, that, since 1825, from 40,000 to 50,000 volumes or pamphlets (not copies of them) have been thrown into circulation by the native press!

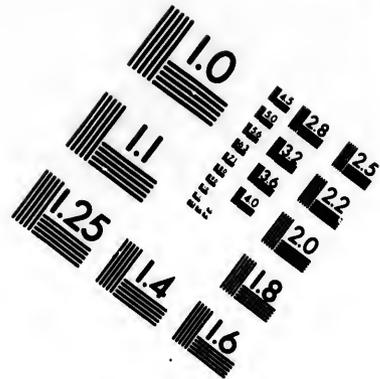
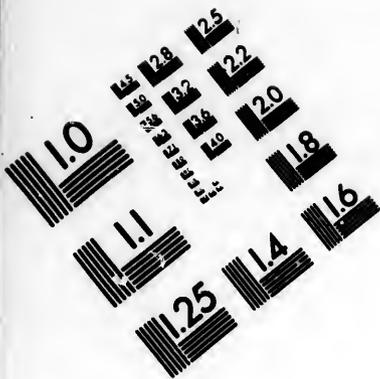
Another journal subsequently observes—We learn that his Majesty of Oude has recently established an English school at Lucknow, and placed it under the controul of Major Low; the number of scholars that now attend daily, amount to from 30 to 40, the majority of whom are the descendants of Christians, the rest Hindoos and Mahomedans. It rests not on my individual testimony, but it is in evidence before Parliament, that the natives have not only shown a great anxiety to obtain a knowledge of the English language, but that they have also evinced considerable proficiency in the same; the truth of the following extract from the recent Parliamentary Committee on the East India affairs, can be attested by hundreds of persons now in Europe.

Some of the students, who have completed their education in the Hindoo College and other institutions, are in the habit of holding debating societies, where they discuss topics of considerable importance in the English language, and read lectures and essays of their own composition, upon various literary and scientific subjects. At one of the meetings above mentioned, the question for discussion was, 'Whether posthumous fame be a rational principle of human action or not.' It is true that the debate soon branched off into a consideration of the possibility and probability of human perfection; but the orators spoke with remarkable fluency, quoting Gibbon, Hume, Reid, Bolingbroke, Voltaire, Shakspeare, Milton, &c. The forms of similar meetings in England were imitated; and the chairman having inquired the reason of the secretary's absence, a loud cry of 'Persecution' was raised, and it was explained that he was prevented from attending by his father, who was afraid that his principles of paganism should be corrupted, in consequence of the other members being deists.

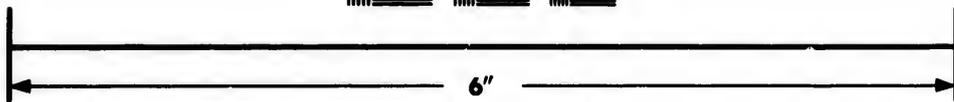
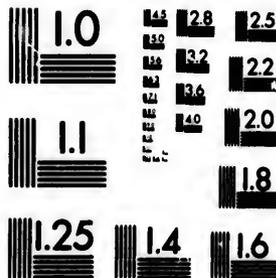
In corroboration of the foregoing, I may mention that I have found many of the Hindoo youths more accurately acquainted with English standard authors than is readily to be met with in England; they have now got up English playhouses, in which Shakspear and the productions of the best British dramatists are acted with astonishing spirit.

* A Literary Society has been recently organized by the learned Hindoos at Madras, and placed in communication with the Royal Asiatic Society of London; by late arrivals I am informed that an Horticultural Society has been formed at Agra;—other institutions will doubtless spring up rapidly.





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STATE OF RELIGION AND CHRISTIANITY IN INDIA.

The government of British India possesses a feature which has rarely or never been found in any nation or in any age; I allude to its *toleration* of every mode or form of religion in which different sects may choose to adore the Creator; to its *protection* against hostility, forcible opposition or oppression by one rival sect against another, and to its *auxiliary* pecuniary aid when solicited by any congregation or community.

The Hindoo religion is of course the creed of the vast majority of the people; although now a gross system of *polytheism* adapted to the rudest capacities and appealing to or exciting merely sensual passions, there are various evidences in proof that it was once an almost pure system of *monotheism*, on which was subsequently engrafted the Hindoo *trimurti* or Triad. Thus BRAHM, (God), is among almost innumerable definitions acknowledged in the *vedas*, or sacred writings of the Hindoos, as *the Almighty infinite, eternal, incomprehensible, self-existent Being: He who sees everything, though never seen: He who is not to be compassed by description: who is beyond the limit of human conception, and from whom the universal world proceeds: whose work is the universe, and who is the Lord of the universe: He who is the light of all lights, whose name is too sacred to be pronounced, and whose power is too infinite to be imagined: The one unknown, true Being, the Creator, the Preserver, the Destroyer of the universe!*

These sublime ideas of *the Deity (Brahm!)* (who amidst the multitudinous worship of 330,000,000 of gods, has never been desecrated by an image or even temple, and whom the Hindoos dare not even name;) have been often mentioned to me by the late distinguished Rammohun Roy, who in conjunction with a few of his brethren in Calcutta, endeavoured to restore the pure and ancient form of Hindoo monotheism, by the establishment of an institution devoted to the simplest worship of the one, indivisible, invisible, omnipotent, and omnipresent God; the regulations for the conducting of this worship the writer of this work drew up, and the following is part of

the trust deed prepared at the suggestion of Rammohun Roy, in Calcutta, in 1829,* it is a singular instance of a desire to discard the gross idolatry of a once primitive form of religion.

Trust Deed.—Upon trust and in confidence that they the said [*Here follow the names of the Trustees*] or the survivors or survivor of them, shall, at all times, permit the said building, land, tenements, hereditaments, and premises, with their appurtenances, to be used, occupied, enjoyed, applied, and appropriated, as, and for a place of Public Meeting, of all sorts and descriptions of people without distinction, as shall behave and conduct themselves in an orderly, sober, religious, and devout manner, for the worship and adoration of the Eternal, Unsearchable, and Immutable Being, who is the Author and Preserver of the Universe, but not under, or by any other name, designation, or title, peculiarly used for and applied to any particular Being or Beings, by any man or set of men whatsoever; and that no *groven image, statue, or sculpture, carving, painting, picture, portrait, or the likeness of any thing*, shall be admitted within the message, building, &c., and that no sacrifice, offering, or oblation of any kind or thing shall ever be permitted therein; and that no animal or living creature shall, within or on the said message, building, land, tenements, hereditaments, and premises, be deprived of life, either for religious purposes, or for food; and that no eating or drinking (except such as shall be necessary by any accident for the present preservation of life), feasting or rioting, be permitted therein or thereon; and that in conducting the said worship or adoration, no object animate or inanimate that has been, or is, or shall hereafter become, or be recognised as an object of worship by any man, or set of men, shall be *revelled, or slightly or contemptuously spoken of*, or alluded to, either in preaching, praying, or in the hymns, or other mode of worship that may be delivered, or used in the said message or building; and that no sermon, preaching, discourse, prayer, or hymn be delivered, made, or used in such worship, but such as have a tendency to the promotion of the contemplation of the Author and Preserver of the Universe, to the promotion of charity, morality, piety, benevolence, virtue, and the strengthening the bonds of union between men of all religious persuasions and creeds: and also that a person of good repute, and well known for his knowledge, piety, and morality, be employed by the said trustees, as a resident superintendant, and for the purpose of superintending the worship, so to be performed as is herein before stated and expressed; and that such worship be performed daily, or at least as often as once in seven days.

What a contrast does the foregoing description of a Hindoo place of worship present to the establishment of the temple

* The institution was opened by the late Rajah Rammohun Roy, accompanied by the writer (the only European present), in 1830. There were about 500 Hindoos present, and among them many Brahmins, who, after the prayers and singing of hymns had been concluded, received gifts in money to a considerable extent.

of the Idol of Jugunnauth, in Orissa, which the East India Company have now forbidden their government to meddle with, in any manner, as respects the collection of taxes* from the pilgrims thereto, although levied for the purpose of defraying the expenses incurred for the maintenance of peace and order; it was well, however, to withdraw from the levy of taxes on such idolatry.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE IDOL JUGUNNAUTH AT THE TEMPLE IN ORISSA.

1. *Maha Raja Ramchundra Devu*.—Honorary servant to the idol, to drive the flies from off the idol with a *chamur*, sweep the great car, and place flowers on the idol.
2. *Moodee Ruff*, alias *Plenipotentiary*.—This officer is astronomer to the idol, and performs the other duties in the absence of the Maha Raja.
3. *Nayuk*, or *Head of the order of servants attending upon the idol*.—This officer adorns the idol, and performs other services, and superintends all the other officers.
4. *Punda*.—Performs the ceremonies during the presentation of the offerings.
5. *Pusoo-Paluk*.—Adorns the idol.
6. *Chowkiya*.—Keeps watch at the time of presenting the offerings.
7. *Puricha*.—This officer accompanies the idol to the tank, and purifies the temples.
8. *Neab Puricha*.—In the absence of the *Puricha*, these act in his stead.
9. *Muhar Shoohar*, or *Head Cook*.—Brahmun cooks, who carry the offerings into the presence of the idol.
10. *Shoowars*.—Brahmuns who assist the head cooks.
11. *Guraburoo*.—Persons who give water to the priests at the time of their performing the ceremonies of worship.
12. *Put'hree*.—Clear the sacred vessels, and carry the flowers, sandal-wood, &c. to the officiating priests.
13. *Tunt'hee*.—Brahmuns who place the boiled rice and split peas in silver and gold dishes, before the idol. This is called *sirkaree bhoge*, or that allowed by the government.
14. *Sawar*.—These persons distribute proper quantities of the offerings to different temples and officers, according to the appointed rules.
15. *Khooteiya*.—Wardrobe to the idol at the time of the festivals.
16. *Meerkap*.—Master of the wardrobe, that is, of the jewel office; and *Changra Meerkap*, master of wearers' apparel.
17. *Doita*.—Removes the idol from the throne, and puts him on the car, and replaces him again.
18. *Putees*.—Brahmuns who dress the idol. After the bathing festival, the idols are taken into a room, stripped of their old clothes, and swaddled with new ones. During the fifteen days of this festival, the offerings are presented by these people.

* The despatch is dated from the Court of Directors, 20th February, 1833.

19. *Majuna*.—These officers rub and clean the idols, and convey the smaller idols to tanks and other places, and afterwards place them in the room allotted for them.
20. *Hurva Nayak*.—After the offerings are removed, these officers bring *paan*, and hot spices, and place them before the idol, and which Juggnauth munches at his ease.
21. *Aakund Moorhap*.—Lamp-lighter.
22. *Kat Moorhap*.—Lord of the bed-chamber.
23. *Puhuree*.—Watchmen at the time of presenting the offerings.
24. *Pooran Panda*.—Reads out of one of the *poornas* every afternoon near the idol.
25. *Mookhupukhal*.—A person who attends with a clumsy tooth-brush and water, to wash the face of the idol in the morning.
26. *Destana*.—Warns the idol of the time for the performance of the ceremonies.
27. *Perkanat*.—Watchmen of the wardrobe.
28. *Chatooa*.—A person who carries the umbrella.
29. *Tarasiya*.—A person who carries an ensign in the form of a half-moon.
30. *Deotiya*.—A torch bearer.
31. *Dunda Chutre*.—A person who stands by the throne with an umbrella, at the time of a feast occurring, on the 11th and 26th of the moon, and at other festivals.
32. *Kahaliya*.—One who blows the *kahal*, a sort of trumpet.
33. *Ghuntooa*.—A person who sounds the *ghuntir*, or brass bell.
34. *Ghutwaree*.—A person who prepares the sandal-powder.
35. *Linka*.—Peans.
36. *Prudham*.—Persons who give the golden rods of office to the *Parichas*.
37. *Dooares*.—Doorkeepers (porters.)
38. *Sursta*.—Grinder of pulse.
39. *Devu Dasse*.—Dancing and other young and beautiful girls, with a band of musicians.
- Besides split peas, milk, curds, fruit, vegetables, &c. &c. it is said that not less than 124,900lb. of rice alone are offered to this god every year. The servants of the idol are paid out of grants of temple lands. On extraordinary occasions, (but not of late years) not less than *two million* of people have assembled at this temple; and if the weather were very wet and inclement, nearly half of them perished!
- The largest of the cars of *Juggnauth* and his sisters is 43 feet high, and has a platform of 34 feet square: their loftiness and size gives them an imposing air, but every part of the ornaments is of the most mean and paltry description. The enthusiasm of the people is decaying, and soon tires; and it is indispensable to avail of the assistance of a multitude of the inhabitants of the vicinity, who hold their land rent free, on condition of performing the service of dragging the three cars at the annual ceremonies. No person of late has thrown himself beneath the wheels of the idols' car, the East India Company's authorities have taken care to prevent such fanaticism, and indeed it is to be hoped that in a few years more the ceremony will be very trifling.

When it is considered that the religion or idolatry of the Hindoos is the creed of upwards of 60 or 70,000,000 of British subjects, a very brief analysis of some of the Deities worshipped will, doubtless, be acceptable to the English reader. The most learned Brahmins, while asserting and advocating the ancientness and correctness of the form of worship established by the late Rammohun Roy, maintain as an excuse for the present idolatries, that *it is easier to impress the minds of the rude and ignorant by intelligible symbols than by means which are incomprehensible*. Acting upon this principle (says Mr. Coleman in his erudite work on the Hindu Pantheon), the Supreme and Omnipotent God whom the Hindoo has been taught to consider as too mighty for him to attempt to approach or even to name, has been *lost sight of in the multiplicity of false deities whose graven images have been worshipped in his place*. The Hindoo *Veda* (Bible) inculcates the belief in and worship of *one great and only God*, omnipotent, omnipresent and omniscient, whose attributes are allegorically (and only *allegorically*) represented by the three *personified* powers of Creation, (*Brahma*) Preservation (*Vishnu*) and Destruction (*Siva*) who form the Hindoo *triad* without beginning and without end, destruction and re-production being one—the same—indivisible. Comprehensible as these attributes are, it is but natural to suppose that the Hindoo sages having once entered on allegory in an endeavour to explain *immateriality* by *materiality* there were no bounds to invention but the fertility of thought and the credulity of their followers, thus on a simple and sublime monotheism there has been grafted a trinity—and thence a polytheism accompanied by the most disgusting of abominations, while the imaginary deities most honoured (as the goddess *Kali*) are of the most cruel, bloodthirsty and bestial character. Let us now glance at the mythological history of the principal Hindoo deities in which it is not a little remarkable we find such a close approximation to the Greek Pantheon, while the ox so venerated by the Egyptians is held in such sacredness by the Hindoos.

HISTORY AND ATTRIBUTES OF THE HINDOO DEITIES.*

BRAHM! The supreme Being created the world and formed the goddess Bhavani (Nature) who had three sons, *Brahma*, *Vishnu* and *Siva*: to the first was assigned the duty of continuing the creation of the world; to the second its preservation; and to the third its destruction: in other words these three presided over the three great operations of nature—production, preservation, and destruction.

BRAHMA (Saturn) the grandfather of gods and men, creating power dormant until again required to be exerted in the formation of a future world on the total annihilation of the present one which is expected in the *kalki avatar* (or tenth incarnation on earth of Vishnu): represented as a golden colored figure with four heads and four arms; power being dormant seldom worshipped, his heaven excels all others in magnificence, containing the united glories of all the heavens of the other deities. His earthly incarnations are (1) *Daksha*—(2) *Viswakarma* (Vulcan) architect of the universe, fabricator of arms to the gods, presides over the arts and manufactures, and represented as a white man with three eyes. Many temples dedicated to this god—one at Ellora hewn 130 feet in depth out of the solid rock, presenting the appearance of a magnificent vaulted chapel, supported by vast ranges of octangular columns, and adorned by sculptures of beautiful and perfect workmanship. (3.) *Nareeda* (Mercury) messenger of the gods, inventor of the lute, and a wise legislator. (4) *Brigu*, who appears to have presided over population since he caused the wife of King Suguru, heretofore barren, to produce 60,000 sons at one birth! The Brahmadicas, Menus and Rishis, are sages descended *longo intervallo* from *Brahma*, whose wife, (some say the daughter), *Suraswatty* (Minerva) is the goddess of learning, music, poetry, history and the sciences; her festival is highly honoured, and offerings made to her in expiation of the sin of lying or having given false evidence.

* The reader desirous of a more detailed account will find it in Coleman's elaborate Hindoo theology.

We now come to the second of the Hindoo Triad.

VISHNU—the preserver of the universe—represented of a black or blue colour, with four arms and a club to punish the wicked. He is a household god, extensively worshipped, and on his tenth (nine are passed) avatar, when the sins of mankind are no longer bearable, he will appear as an armed warrior on a white horse adorned with jewels, having wings, holding in the one hand a sword of destruction, and in the other a ring emblematical of the perpetually revolving cycles of time. His heaven is described in the *Mahabarat* as entirely of gold, 80,000 miles in circumference; all its edifices composed of jewels and precious stones,—the seat of the god is glorious as the meridian sun;—*Sri* or *Lakshmi*, the goddess of fortune, and favourite wife of Vishnu, shining with 10,000 beams of lightning, sits on his right hand; there is a constant singing of hymns and chaunting his praises: his various *avatars* or earthly incarnations were for the purpose of saving the world, restoring the lost *Vedas* or sacred writings, to destroy the giants, punish the wicked, &c. His first avatar was in the form of a fish, to save a pious King Satyavrata (by some supposed to mean Noah) and his family, when the earth was about to be overwhelmed by a deluge on account of the wickedness of the people. Vishnu at first appeared before the devout monarch as a little fish to try his piety and benevolence, then gradually expanding himself he became one of immense magnitude; and thus announced the flood which on account of the depravity of the world was about to overwhelm the earth with destruction—‘in seven days from the present time the three worlds will be plunged in an ocean of death; but in the midst of the destroying waves a large vessel, sent by me for thy use, shall stand before thee. Then shalt thou take all medicinal herbs, all the variety of seeds, and accompanied by seven saints, encircled by pairs of all brute animals, thou shalt enter the spacious ark, and continue in it secure from the flood on an immense ocean, without light except the radiance of thy holy companions. When the ship shall be agitated by an impetuous wind, thou shalt fasten it

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with a large sea serpent to my horn, for I will be near thee, drawing the vessel with thee and thy attendants. I will remain on the ocean until a day of Brahma (a year) shall be completely ended.'

'As it was announced,' says Mr. Coleman, 'the deluge took place; and Satyavrata entered the ark and did as he was directed, in fastening it to the horn of the fish; which again appeared, blazing like gold, and extending a million of leagues: When the deluge was abated, and mankind destroyed (except Satyavrata and his companions), Vishnu slew the demon Hayagriva, and recovered the lost Veda: or, in other words, when the wicked were destroyed by the deluge, sin no longer prevailed, and virtue was restored to the world.'

From one to eight the Avatars of Vishnu are of various descriptions (that of the second or tortoise producing the *water of life*, affords an extraordinary coincidence with the singular story of the Iroquois Indians) for the punishment of evil and the reward of good; the eighth Avatar was that of the celebrated god *Krishna*, whose attributes are similar to those of the Greek deity Apollo, and like the latter, extensively and enthusiastically worshipped, especially by the ladies; he is represented as extremely beautiful, of an azure colour, with a crown of glory on his head, and Orpheus-like ravishing the mountains and the trees, as well as all animated nature with the exquisite music of a flute. He had 16,000 mistresses, and was nearly as great a conqueror in the battle field as in the camp of love; but he subsequently became penitent, was satisfied with eight wives (astronomically considered to represent the planets moving round the *sun*; which Krishna is sometimes thought to represent), his festivals are well kept, and much rejoicement and pleasures of various kinds are then indulged in. His son by Rukmini (Venus), the most beautiful and favoured wife, was Kamadeva, or Camdeo (Cupid) with bee strung bow and flower tipped shaft, riding on a (Lory) parrot with emerald wings, sometimes accompanied by his consort *Affection*, full of mischief and

always wandering about; as Sir W. Jones has beautifully apostrophized Camdeo—

Where'er thy seat—whate'er thy name,

Seas, earth, and air thy reign proclaim;

Wreathy smiles and roseate pleasures,

Are thy richest, sweetest treasures;

All animals to thee their tribute bring,

And hail thee universal king!

The other Avatars of Hanuman (the monkey) Wittoba, (the gigantic crane), &c., it would be unnecessary to particularize, we may therefore proceed to examine the third branch of the Hindoo trinity.

SIVA, the destroyer, is one of the most dreaded of the Triad; his emblems are conjectured by Mr. Patterson to be pregnant with allegorical allusions; he has three eyes to denote the three divisions of time—past, present, and future—the crescent in his forehead refers to the measure of time by the phases of the moon, as the serpent denotes it by years: and the necklace of skulls, the lapse and revolution of ages, and the extinction and succession of the generations of mankind. He holds the trident in one hand, to shew that the three great attributes of creating, preserving, and destroying, are in him united, and that he is the Iswara, or supreme Lord, above Brahma and Vishnu; and that the emblem called *damara*, shaped like an hour-glass, with which he is sometimes seen, was actually intended to be such, to pourtray the progress of time by the current of the sand in the glass. On the celebrated colossal sculpture of the *Trimurti*, or three-formed god (Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva), in the caves of Elephanta, he has marked on his cap a human skull and a new-born-infant, to shew his two-fold power of destruction and reproduction; and on another figure in the same cave, he is represented in the attributes of his vindictive character, with eight arms, two of which are partly broken off. In one of the remaining six he brandishes a sword, and in another holds a human figure: in the third he has a basin of blood, and in the fourth

a sacrificial bell, which he appears to be ringing over it. With the other two he is in the act of drawing a veil, which obscures the sun, and involves all nature in universal destruction.*

His consort *Kali* is represented like her husband, with a necklace of skulls, and a sword of destruction, but painted of a dark colour (*Siva* is white) to indicate the eternal night that will follow the dissolution of *Time*. On the grand consummation of things, when time itself shall be destroyed, *Siva* is represented as deprived of his necklace of skulls, sword, crescent and trident, to demonstrate his dominion and power no longer exists. The bull is his favourite animal, hence its reverence among the Hindoos. The worshippers of *Siva*, who are beyond all comparison the most numerous (in Bengal) perform the most revolting, barbarous, and obscene rites: some lie on beds of iron spikes, others thrust rods of steel through the tongue and other parts of the body, many have a hook passed through the muscles of the loins, by which they hang and swing from a scaffolding 30 feet high; the bodies are covered with nails or packing needles, the leg is kept bent, or the arm extended, until it becomes immovable; the fists are clenched until the nails grow out of the back of the hand, and the most painful tortures, self-inflicted by a host of filthy, naked *Sunyassis*, who in private make amends for the pain and filth they undergo in public by a revolting system of debauchery. *Siva* has several incarnations, one termed *Bhairava*, or *Byru* (or by some said to be his son by the cruel goddess *Kali*) is a terrific deity, only to be satisfied by blood. *Kali* (black goddess) so horribly worshipped by the Hindoos with human sacrifices, whenever they could evade the watchfulness of the British government, is adored under various forms and names of *Bhavani*, goddess of Nature and fecundity—as the potent *White Parvati*, and as the tremendous *Yellow Durga*, who delights in sacrifices of the blood of sheep and goats, and during whose festival every species of licentiousness prevails; the latter is repre-

* Coleman's Hindoo Mythology.

sented as having 100 arms, and that by means of 100,000,000 chariots, 120,000,000,000 elephants, 10,000,000 swift footed horses, and a proportionate number of infantry, she conquered 30,000 giants, who were such monsters in size, that they covered the earth.

The foregoing brief analysis of the Hindoo trinity and their consorts will suffice, for the reader would doubtless not desire a further description of the 300,000,000 deities who branch off from the preceding Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva; sufficient has been said to demonstrate the basis of the Hindoo mythology, the sects embraced under whose faith are extremely numerous, all tending to prove that when man attempts to materialize spirit, there is no end to the absurdities and inconsistencies into which he may be led.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE HINDOOS.—Connected with their religion, and indeed in a great measure embraced with its mythology, is the Hindoo system of chronology, which comprises a *calpa*, or grand period of 4,320,000,000 years divided into four lesser *yugs* (period of ages) thus:

1st. Satya-yug—years 1,728,000.	3rd. Dwapa-yug—years 864,000.
2nd. Treta-yug 1,296,000.	4th. Kali-yug 432,000.

making one Divine age or *Maha* (great) *yug*, of which there are to be 71 *Maha yugs*, equivalent to 306,720,000 of our years; but this is not all, for there is to be added a *sandhi* (when day and night border on each other) = a *satya-yug* 1,728,000 years; one *manwantara* = 368,448,000 years; fourteen of which = 4,318,272,000; and adding a *sandhi* (1,728,000 yrs.) to begin the *calpa*, or grand period, forming a duration for the world extending over 4,320,000,000 of our present years; those who fear the coming comet of 1835 will be glad to learn that only one half of this period has passed, the date being now *anno mundi* 2,160,000,000! Mr. S. Davis, in his essay on the subject in the *Asiatic Researches*, demonstrates that these are not fanciful fictions, but founded on actual astronomical calculations, based on an hypothesis. The Hindoos date from the commencement of the present *kali-yug*, which begun, according to our era, in the 906th

year. The corresponding dates are therefore—Hindoo 4,933; A. M. 5,889; A. D. 1832.*

MAHOMEDANISM. The disciples of Islam embrace about 15,000,000 of the population of British India, and they are divided into several sects; one in particular, the *Musdavis*, founded by Mondana Soofi—admit the divine mission of Mahomet, but disclaim his title to particular veneration; like the Sunyassis they go nearly naked, braid the hair, smear the body with ashes and filth, and wear heavy iron chains round their waists and neck.

That the Mahomedan religion did not make any greater progress than we find it has done after several centuries of government in India, although its practical essence is sensuality† and well adapted to people of a tropical clime, must be ascribed to the persecutions with which its propagators endeavoured to extend it, thus presenting a strong contrast to Christianity, which, wherever it was reviled and spit upon, was sure to be extended; and when (as among Roman Catholic enthusiasts) endeavoured to be propagated by idolatries and force, certain to bring down ruin on its propagators. There are many other religious sects among the British population of India—some such as the Bazeeghurs or Nuts (the Gipsies of Hindostan) are half Hindoos and half Mussulmans, admitting the rite of circumcision, yet employing a Brahminical priest; the Bazeeghurs conceive that one spirit pervades all nature, and that the soul being a particle of that universal spirit, will, when released from the body, rejoin its parent source. The *Dhamians*, or Vashtenaiva sect, was founded about one hundred years ago, and is a compound of

* The Hindoos have various other eras, which are too numerous and unimportant to be dwelt on.

† There are, however, many excellent precepts in the Koran. Take, for instance, the following observations frequently inscribed over the gate of a mosque—'The world was given us for our own edification, not for the purpose of raising sumptuous buildings; life for the discharge of moral and religious duties, not for pleasurable indulgencies; wealth to be liberally bestowed, not avariciously hoarded; and learning to produce good actions, not empty disputes.'

Hindoo and Islam-ism; proselytes are admitted from both, and the sect is probably extending; their form of worship is by chaunting a few melodious hymns, and reading from a sacred book. The Sirmooris, like other hill tribes, are immersed in the deepest superstition; every mountain peak being the residence of a sprite whose wrath is deemed dangerous to provoke. Polyandry, or the custom of one woman having two or more husbands (relations), obtains among them; It frequently happens that two brothers succeed conjointly to an estate: they cohabit with one wife, and the integrity of the property is thus preserved.* This strange custom indicates the state of society; the women of another mountain tribe, the Newars, like the Nairs of Malabar, may have as many husbands as they please, being at liberty to divorce them on the slightest pretences. The Binderwars, one of the Goand of Gond tribes inhabiting the hills of Oomacutu are sunk in the deepest paganism; they are cannibals, but declare a strong abhorrence of eating any person but one of their own tribe, and then only when he or she is attacked by what they may deem an irrecoverable illness; on which occasion they collect all the relatives of the sick person, cut the throat of the deceased, and then feast amidst much rejoicing on the body: this bloody right is considered a meritorious act by this otherwise innocent people. Other idolatrous tribes, such as the Bheels, Koolies, Ramoosees, &c. have one peculiarity which it would be well if Christians would rival them in,—*their word is sacred—their promise unimpeachable.*

Before proceeding to notice the Christian sects, it will be well to say a few words on that singular and exemplary race termed—

PARSEES, OR FIRE WORSHIPPERS, who form one of the most valuable classes of the subjects of the British Crown. This sect preferring liberty to slavery, and the exercise of their pure religion to the degrading heresy of Mahomet, emigrated from Persia in the XVIIth Century, soon after the conquest of the Persians by the Mahomedans, carrying with

* Asiatic Researches.

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them that sacred fire (emblematical of the Sun and thence of the Almighty) which they religiously venerate. A number of these persecuted Guebbers found their way to western India along the coast near Danoo and Cape Sejan, and were admitted by the Hindoo Rajah to settle in the neighbouring country, principally at Oodwara, (still the residence of their chief priests, and the depository of the sacred fire brought with them). They may be termed the Quakers of the East. The opulent among them are merchants, brokers, ship-owners, and extensive land-owners. The lower orders are shop-keepers, and follow most of the mechanic arts, except those connected with fire: thus there are neither silver-smiths, nor any workers of the metals among them; nor are there any soldiers, the use of fire-arms being abhorrent to their principles; nor are there any sailors. Their charities are munificent and unbounded, relieving the poor and distressed of all tribes, and maintaining their own poor in so liberal a manner that a Parsee beggar is no where seen or heard of.

The Parsees population is divided into clergy and laity (Mobed and Bedeen). The clergy and their descendants are very numerous, and are distinguished from the laity by the wearing of white turbans; but they follow all kinds of occupations, except those who are particularly selected for the service of the churches, though they have no distinction of castes. A recent innovation, respecting the commencement of their new year, has formed them into two tribes, one celebrating the festival of the new year a month before the other, which causes their religious ceremonies and holidays to fall also on different days.

The modern, like the ancient, *Parsis* or Parsees, have no statues of the Deity, no temples, no altars, they treat such as folly; they reverence the whole vault of heaven, the sun, the moon, planets, stars, earth, fire, water, and the winds, but do not sacrifice to them as Herodotus describes the ancient *Parsis* to have done. The *Zend-Avesta*, or sacred writings, (ascribed by some to Zoroaster) is principally a series of

liturgic services and prayers. *Light* is regarded as the best and noblest symbol of the *Supreme Being*, who is without form. They delight to worship the rising sun, the rays of which are never allowed to fall direct on the sacred fire within the temples, or rather repositories of the fire. The Parsees suppose a continued warfare between good and evil spirits, which fill all nature, and besides a heaven and a hell, (which latter is not eternal) they have a middle state (*Hanastan*) where the souls of those whose good and evil actions are equally balanced remain till the day of judgment. They have no fasts as God delights in the happiness of his creatures; all birds and beasts of prey, with the dog and the hare, are alone forbidden food. Polygamy is not allowed, unless the first wife be barren; concubinage strictly forbidden,—priests marry—and marriage being laudable every season is good; unlike the Hindoos they admit converts, and the planting of trees is esteemed among their good works.

Most of the ancient ceremonies have been preserved inviolate; and particularly those concerning the rights of sepulture. No person of a different sect is allowed to approach, or any stranger allowed to witness, the obsequies; the bodies are exposed to the elements and birds, on the terraces of towers or sepulchres.

They have a few plain and unornamented churches, where they assemble for the purpose of prayer; they are crowded every day by the clergy, but the laity only attend on certain days.

Jews, black and white, exist in various parts of India, in particular a very ancient colony of black Jews reside in Cochin, who it is traditionally said arrived in India soon after the Babylonian Captivity. Mr. Fisher, the learned and indefatigable searcher of the records at the India House, in adverting to this circumstance says, that 'this tradition derives countenance from the circumstance of their possessing copies of only those books of the Old Testament, which were written previously to the captivity, but none of those whose

* The dog and cock are respected for their guardian watchfulness.

dates are subsequent to that event. The library of the late Tippu Sultaun contained some translations from these ancient Jewish Scriptures; and there are copies of them in the possession of Jews in Malabar, which are remarkable for this peculiarity. Some of the Jewish manuscripts which are in the hands of native Jews, are described as exhibiting an appearance of high antiquity, and as written on rolls of a substance resembling paper, and in a character which has a strong resemblance to, but not an exact agreement with, the modern Hebrew.

The eastern Jews like their western brethren are astute traders; they have several Synagogues and are remarkable for a zeal to diffuse the tenets of the faith in which they believe; they are said to be very numerous in China, but afraid of being confounded with the Christians who are zealously watched in the Celestial Empire.

CHRISTIANS. The most ancient of the Sects who believe in the divine incarnation (or as the Hindoos would term it *Avatar*) of Christ are the Syrian Christians, disciples of St. Thomas the Apostle, who it is said after establishing Christianity in Arabia Felix, and in the Island of Socotra, landed at Cranganore, on the Malabar Coast, A. D. 51, where he found a colony of Jews living under the protection of a powerful Hindoo Sovereign. St. Thomas it is said rapidly spread Christianity along the coast and throughout Southern India, but one of the kings having become a convert to the Faith, St. Thomas was subjected to much persecution, and ultimately stoned to death on a Mount, which still bears the name of the Martyr. The following interesting account of this primitive church has been handed me by Mr. Fisher, late of the India House, and it is hoped the statements thus given will lead to further investigation into so exciting a subject.

St. Thomas's mount, as well as the ancient city or town, to which also the Christian inhabitants have given the name of *St. Thomé*, are now, and have been for several centuries, places of pilgrimages and annual resort of *Christians*, who come from all parts of India, the interior of Armenia and Syria, crowding to the town, and covering the mount, in order that they may kiss the spot where the Apostle suf-

ferred martyrdom; there also depositing their offerings, and praying over the place of his sepulture, which they are represented as holding in such high veneration, that they carry away with them small portions of the red earth, and, conceiving it to possess miraculous properties, administer it with great solemnity to the sick and dying.

The Syrian Christians suffered persecution from heathen rulers during the three first centuries. Early in the fourth century, they obtained aid from Athanasius, Bishop of Alexandria, who is represented as having come to their succour, and appointed a Bishop to rule over and protect them.

In the year 345, *Mar Thomas* assumed charge of them; under the authority of Eustathius, Bishop of Antioch, and introduced amongst them several Bishops and Priests, as also 'many Christen men, women, and children from foreign countries.' This man, *Thomas Cama*, or *Mar Thomas*, was an Armenian merchant, in creed an Arian, who first came to India with commercial views only; but being a virtuous and upright man, and having amassed great wealth, he obtained the friendship of the Kings of Cranganore and Cochin, at the same time enjoying the veneration and respect of the Christians of St. Thomas; for whom he is stated to have built many churches, to have established seminaries for the education of their clergy, and to have founded a town called *Maha Devapatam*, in the neighbourhood of the city of Cranganore, wherein he planted the foreign colony of Christians he had imported.

He also, assisted by Syrian teachers, introduced the Syro-Chaldeac ritual, and successfully exerted his influence with the native princes to obtain for the Christians on the Malabar coast exclusive privileges; such as independence of the native judges, except in criminal cases, and a rank in the country equal to nobility, by which they were placed on a level with the superior castes. These privileges were ostensibly granted to the Christians, in consideration of their virtues, and they were enjoyed uninterruptedly through several succeeding centuries, having been confirmed by formal grants in different and now unknown languages, engraved on tablets composed of a mixed metal. The inscription on the plate supposed to contain the oldest grant, is in the nail-headed or Persepolitan character. Another is a character which has no affinity with any existing language in Hindostan. These tablets were lost during several centuries, and were recovered a few years since by the exertions of Colonel Macauley, the British resident in Travancore, to the great joy of the Syrian churches; by whom they were deposited, and are still preserved in the Syrian college, which has been erected at Cattayam.

In settling the ecclesiastical constitution of the Syrian churches, it was determined that the right to rule over them should vest in those families only out of which the Apostle had himself ordained priests. The offices of Bishop, Archdeacon, and Priest, were accordingly for many years confined to these families, and persons were chosen from them who were recognized as the natural judges in all civil and ecclesiastical causes, and as having authority over all temporal as well as ecclesiastical affairs.

In the ninth century the Syrian Christians were much depressed, and sought the aid of the Nestorian patriarch, who commissioned two ecclesiastics of that church, *Mar Saul* and *Mar Ambrose*, to proceed to Malabar, and rule over them. These

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prelates on their arrival at Quilon, were received by the Christians with great thankfulness. By their presence they soon commanded the respect of the native princes, who allowed them to make converts, and to erect churches wherever they pleased; for which also they obtained endowments from the noble and wealthy part of the community. From the Hindoo princes they moreover obtained the formal renewal of ancient privileges by grants, which were engraven, as those of higher antiquity had been, on plates of metal. These grants are still preserved, and are in the languages of Malabar, of Canara, of Bisanagur, and in Tamul.

The Syrian or Nestorian Bishops, *Mar Saul* and *Mar Ambrose*, are still held in high veneration by the Syrian Christians, who mention them in their prayers, and dedicate churches to their memory.

Between the ninth and fourteenth centuries these Christians are described as having attained to their highest state of external respectability; if not of purity. They were enlightened by the instruction of a succession of able teachers from Syria, who spread the blessings of the Gospel with zeal, integrity, and honour; receiving such only to their communion as could approach with unblemished character; and rejecting all and every one who could not appear with hands undefiled, and with minds thoroughly convinced of the abomination of heathen worship. All false miracles were then rejected, and the Christians were distinguished by intelligence and decency of manners, which recommended them to the native princes, by whom their teachers were invested with the first offices under the Government. At length they entirely shook off the yoke of the Hindoo princes, and elected a Chief or King of their own religion, raising one *Baliarte* to the throne, who assumed the title of 'King of the Christians of St. Thomas;' but this state of independence did not long continue. The regal power, through default of succession, passed to the Rajah of Cochin, and that chief, while he professedly respected their rights, persecuted them through hatred of their religion.

In this state the Portuguese found them; *encompassed on all sides by enemies, and bowed under the yoke of the Hindoo princes.* The account which the Portuguese gave of them was, that they 'were in a state of decadence, and amounted to about 200,000 Christians, the wreck of an unfortunate people, who called themselves Christians of St. Thomas, and after the example of their ancestors, performed pilgrimages every year to the place where the apostle consummated his martyrdom; whose history and miracles, extracted from their annals, had been composed into a species of canticles translated into the language of the country, and sung by the inhabitants of the fishery (the Manaar pearl fishery), and of the coast of Malabar.'

Their subsequent history is a good deal interwoven with that of the Roman Catholics in India: it may suffice to observe, that when the Syrian Christians placed themselves under the direction of the Portuguese missionaries, and, as the latter assert, 'voluntarily requested that they might be adopted as good and faithful subjects of the King of Portugal,' they amounted to 1,500 Christian churches under the Syrian patriarch, retaining their martial character, and associating with the higher castes of Hindoos, who deemed themselves honoured by the association. On the part of the Syrian Churches, it is stated that they proposed their union with the western church, 'having full confidence in its piety and truth, and no knowledge of its corruptions'—that in particular the Sacraments of confirmation,

of extreme unction, of auricular confession, and the worship of images were unknown to them—that the title of 'Mother of God' was, when they heard it, disgusting to them, and that when her image was first presented to them, they rejected it with indignation, exclaiming, 'We are Christians, and not Idolaters.' To induce the Syrians to conform to the idolatry of the Roman Catholic Church, the missionaries resorted first to artifice and then to force. They founded colleges and schools for youth, whom they proposed to instruct in the rites of the Latin Church, still employed the Syrian language, and it is believed that their schools did some service; but these measures not effecting their main object, which appears to have been the establishment of the Pope's supremacy, together with the erroneous tenets and particularly the idolatry of his religion,* the missionaries resorted to the *inquisition* about the middle of the sixteenth century. Division, contention, and confusion were the natural consequences of this step: in which state the churches continued till the year 1599, when a fresh attempt was made to effect a compromise between the Latin and Syrian Christians, at a conference called the Synod of *Udampere*, a town in the neighbourhood of Cochin. Here the parties met; but the Roman Catholic missionaries, the Jesuits, had bribed the civil power, which was in the hands of the Cochin Rajah, so effectually as to destroy the freedom of discussion, and eventually to obtain the means of subjecting the Syrian bishops to persecution, for their faithful adherence to the truth. Two of these confessors Mar Symeon, and Mar Ignatius, were embarked on board of Portuguese vessels for Lisbon, where they were treated as heretics, and never more heard of in India. In this state of depression and suffering under Popish intolerance, the Syrian Christians continued more than 60 years, until the capture of Quilon by the Dutch in 1661. By that event the power of the Portuguese was destroyed, and the Christians of St. Thomas restored to liberty. In 1665, the Jesuits quitted India. From their expulsion to the year 1815, the Syrian Churches continued a separate branch of the Indian community; although divided into sects, and impaired in energy and purity of doctrine, by their unhappy connection with the Roman missionaries.

In 1815, on the demise of their patriarch, they obtained the aid of the Company's Government, exerted through Col. Macaulay, the Company's resident in Travancore, who having recovered for them their ancient grants and evidences of nobility, assisted them to found a College at Cattayam for the education of a clergy, and for the Syrian youth generally. Colonel Macaulay effected several other arrangements for the general improvement of their condition. A considerable grant of land was obtained for the college, together with a donation of 20,000 rupees from the Rannee of Travancore, and three English missionaries were attached to the college at the instance of the resident.

The Syrian Christians now exist under three denominations.

First. The Syrian Churches, of which there are 57 in Quilon and the neighbour-

* They professed to have found the remains of St. Thomas the Apostle and Martyr; and a skull and bones, called his, were kept and worshipped in a church at Goa, dedicated to the Blessed Virgin, *Mother of God*. One friar Emanuel is reported to have dug up these remains at the command of Don John, King of Portugal.

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ing districts, comprehend a Christian population of 70,000 persons, who are governed by a Metropolitan, and retain a comparatively pure doctrine, although its professors are in general in low condition.

Second. The *Syro-Roman* Churches, who had adopted the Roman ritual with its corruptions, but still perform their worship in the Syrian language. These are in number 97 churches, with a population of about 96,000; viz. 52 churches, with a population of about 49,000, under the Archbishop of Cranganore; 38 churches, with a population of 40,000, under the Vicar Apostolique of Verapoli; and 7 churches, with a population of about 7,000, under the Bishop of Cochin and Quilon.

Third. The Latin churches, which have fully conformed to the Church of Rome, and use a ritual in the Latin language. These are in number 40 churches, with a population of about 54,000; viz. 21 churches, with a population of about 29,000, under the Vicar Apostolique of Verapoli; and 19 churches, with a population of about 35,000, under the Bishop of Cochin and Quilon. In addition to these churches, and dependent on them, there are numerous chapels of ease scattered over the country, in many instances four to each principal church.

The Syrian Churches keep quite distinct from the Latin Churches, and do not intermix with them.

Such of these churches, and they are numerous, as are within the Company's territory, have enjoyed not only that general protection for persons and property, which is common to all classes of natives; but many grants or loans of money, and grants of land for the erection of Churches and for cemeteries, have been made to them. A volume might be filled with the details of these grants. The claims of the Christians for protection against Mahomedans and Hindoos, are also not unfrequent. The following is a somewhat remarkable instance. In one of the villages within the territories of the Ex-Paishwa, lately transferred to the Bombay Presidency, there appears to have been a body of these native Christians, who, immediately on the establishment of the British power in the district, applied to the magistrate to relieve them from the disagreeable obligation of drawing the Hindoo idol's car on his festival day. The Hindoos put in a formal answer to the claim of exemption, pleading that the practice had continued for more than 80 years, which amounted to custom beyond the memory of man to the contrary. The cause was duly, and it may be presumed ably, argued by native Vakeels, before the British magistrate; who decided that no custom, of however long continuance, could justify a practice so monstrous, as that of compelling Christians to draw the car of an Idol. The decision was final—whether it gave universal satisfaction, the record does not state.

Mr. Fisher next proceeds to describe the

ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSIONARIES.—The establishment of these missionaries at Goa early in the sixteenth century, has already been adverted to, and their most oppressive conduct towards the Syrian Christians. The learning and science of Europe, which they carried to India with them, contributed, it may be presumed, as much as the military power of the Portuguese, to give them an influence and ascendancy among the native princes, which they might have enjoyed as long and as

beneficially as the East India Company have enjoyed theirs, had they used it as temperately, as wisely, and as justly. How they did use it is now matter of history, and if any of your readers are not sufficiently informed upon the subject, they may be referred to the history of the Inquisition of Goa; or to the several other Portuguese accounts of their mission.

The E. I. Company's dominion, as it spread in India, extended of course over countries and places which contained churches, religious houses, and other establishments of Roman Catholics; for the most part of Portuguese origin. These Roman Catholics have received, and still receive, the same protection for their persons and property, religious as well as civil, as has been extended to every other class of inhabitants. The Padres, for they were known by that name in the seventeenth century, have been allowed the free exercise of their religion to the extent of building and consecrating churches, and performing worship therein, according to their own views. They have also been allowed peaceably to carry the Host in procession, but have not been permitted to compel either Papists, Protestants, Mahomedans, or Hindoos to kneel before it. Endeavours to exert force have occasionally brought them in contact with the Company's government, and at one time the refractory conduct of the congregation *de propaganda Ade*, caused them to be excluded from Madras, and the Capuchins to be preferred and allowed, *as the only body of Roman Catholics, which the government could at that time with safety to the peace of the settlement, permit to reside in it.* But this and any other similar restraints, which may have been imposed, have been temporary; and withdrawn when the occasions have ceased. There is not, that I am aware of, any regulation of the Company's government, which would prevent one of the Bishops of the Church of Rome, now resident in India, from receiving and wearing a cardinal's hat, were it the pleasure of his holiness the Pope to send him one. The law of *præmunire*, the famous contrivance of Henry the Eighth, by which he deprived his minister Wolsey of all his goods, and John Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, of his head, is unknown in India, except as a piece of English history. The Roman Catholic Bishops of India do in fact correspond with the several states of Europe, such as Italy, France, and Portugal, to which they acknowledge ecclesiastical allegiance, and have often obtained assistance from the Company in conducting their correspondence with those states, and in remitting and receiving funds: still further, they enjoy at the present time large pecuniary support, which has from time to time been freely granted to them, in every instance where a case of necessity and of useful application has been clearly made out. In such cases, the Company have either granted plots of ground, or sums of money, to erect churches; or the loan of such funds, or stipends for the officiating priests, of whom there are at the present time a very considerable number in the monthly receipt of such stipends.

As much discussion now exists in England and in Ireland relative to the propriety of the state leaving the Roman Catholic priesthood dependent on almost elymosynary contributions, and as charges have been made against the E. I. Company of refusing support or toleration to the Roman Ca-

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tholic faith, I entreat the reader's attention to the following documents just received (June, 1835) from the India House, and not before printed. Were the E. I. Company to give publicity to all their regulations, the toleration and beneficence of their rule would be far less subject to misrepresentations.

BOMBAY ROMAN CATHOLICS.—Memorandum by Mr. Acting-Secretary Reid, dated May, 1832:—

The statement required is herewith forwarded, with the exception of the four items marked A., the other grants have all been made at civil or military stations.

18th March, 1820. A donation was granted towards the erection of a Roman Catholic chapel at Kaira, to the amount of Rs. 200.

24th June, 1822. A donation was granted under this date towards the erection of a Roman Catholic chapel at Baroda, to the amount of Rs. 200.

30th May, 1822. An estimate was passed under this date for enclosing part of the burying ground or backbay for the use of the Roman Catholic soldiers, amounting to Rs. 4,10,230.

15th March, 1822. A piece of waste land was granted under this date to the Roman Catholics at Broach for the purpose of a burial ground.

18th October, 1822. A donation was granted under this date towards the erection of a chapel at Rutnagherry, to the amount of Rs. 200.

25th November, 1822. A further donation was granted under this date towards the completion of the Roman Catholic chapel at Kaira, to the amount of Rs. 800.

16th May, 1826. An estimate was passed under this date for building a chapel at Colaba on account of the Roman Catholic soldiers stationed there, amounting to Rs. 17,421.

7th November, 1826. An estimate was passed under this date for walling in the burying ground allowed for the Roman Catholic soldiers at Matronga, amounting to Rs. 1,033,290.

28th July, 1826. A donation was granted under this date on account of the Roman Catholic chapel erected at Mhow, amounting to Rs. 200.

2d September, 1828. The sum of rupees 3,000 was awarded under this date towards the erection of a Catholic place of worship for the Catholic soldiers at Poona.

30th June, 1828. A donation was sanctioned under this date towards the erection of a Roman Catholic chapel at Belgaum, of Rs. 300.

18th April, 1829, A. A donation was sanctioned under this date towards rebuilding the church of N. S. de Rozario of Tarapoor, to the amount of Rs. 100.

20th June, 1829. A monthly allowance was sanctioned under this date as a grant to the church of St. John the Baptist of Tannah, to the amount of Rs. 30.

1st June, 1829. A further sum was sanctioned under this date towards the erection of the chapel in the cantonment of Poona, to the amount of Rs. 636,216.

5th March, 1830. Under this date Government sanctioned the construction of a Roman Catholic chapel at Deera, at an expense not exceeding Rs. 3,000.

29th September, 1830, A. A donation was granted under this date towards the

repair of the Roman Catholic church of Conditry in Salsette, to the amount of Rs. 100.

16th July, 1831, A. A donation of rupees 150 was sanctioned under this date towards the repair of the church of N. S. de Remedeos of Poinser in Salsette, provided the ryots and lessors of the village would come forward with the remaining sum required for that purpose.

1832, A. A monthly allowance of rupees 10 was sanctioned for the Portuguese church at Caranja.

Extract from Public Letter of the Court of Directors of the E. I. Company to Bombay, dated 23rd January, 1828:—

33. We shall not withhold our sanction from the addition of 10 rupees which you have made to the monthly salary of 30 rupees to the Priest at Kaira, as the object of the addition is to defray the expence of his journeys to Ahmedabad and Rutherford, at which latter place there is a cantonment of dragoons.

34. Nor do we object to the grant of 40 rupees per mensem to the Bishop of Antipholi, to enable him to secure the services of Priests for the spiritual instruction of the Roman Catholic soldiers stationed at Bombay.

36. With respect to the proceedings reported in your letter of the 1st November 1819, and the arrangements recommended to our adoption in that of the 12th of August, 1820, we regret that you should have been kept for so long a time in ignorance of our sentiments. This delay was occasioned principally by the want of sufficiently detailed information as to the number of the Roman Catholic clergy within the limits of your Presidency, and the nature and extent of the funds by which they are supported. Although this defect has not been supplied by your subsequent despatches we are nevertheless unwilling to postpone any longer the communication of our opinions respecting the policy which should be pursued towards the Roman Catholics of Bombay and its dependencies. As, at the date of the cession of Bombay by the Crown of Portugal, the Roman Catholic was the established religion of the Island, and as, in virtue of a stipulation of the grant by which it was transferred to the East India Company, the Roman Catholic population were secured in the full enjoyment of their privileges, as well as in the free exercise of their religion, we feel that they are entitled to such protection.

37. From Mr. Henderson's report, recorded on your consultations of the 4th June, 1814, it would appear that the Romish clergy on the Island of Bombay derive no part of their support from your Government, with the exception of the pension of 400 rupees per annum, which was granted in the year 1814 to the Bishop of Antipholi, and which received our sanction.

38. With regard to the places acquired by cession or conquest from the Mah-rattas, we observe that you agree to allow a pension of 30 rupees per mensem to the Priests at Surat Malwan, Broach and Kaira, but that you decline complying with a petition from the Vicars in Bassein, praying for the like indulgence.

39. We feel that it would be discreditable to a Christian Government to witness with utter indifference, the possible lapse of its native Roman Catholic subjects to heathenism for want of the means of supporting their pastors, and indisputably, they have at least as strong a claim upon our country as the Hindoo and Mahome-

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dan priesthood. Entertaining these sentiments we shall not disallow the stipends which you have actually granted.

40. The arrangement recommended to our adoption in your letter of the 12th August, 1820, has primarily in view the effectual supercession of the Archbishop of Goa's spiritual jurisdiction, which, notwithstanding your endeavours to exclude it, has, it appears, been clandestinely exercised within the limits of your Presidency. If this subject had now been for the first time brought under our notice, it might be doubted whether the actual and prospective inconveniences of the Archbishop's were as formidable as has been supposed. But with reference to our former orders, and to the encouragement which has been afforded to the Carmelite Bishop and Priests, we consider ourselves in a measure pledged upon a subject which was then considered. It appears to us, that it would be next to impossible to extinguish the influence of the Archbishop over the Roman clergy, so long as they are obliged to resort to Goa for education and ordination. It is not to be expected that the sanction of a Protestant magistrate to resumption of spiritual functions by a Priest, who had received ordination at Goa, and been suspended from his benefice by the Archbishop, would be respected by his flock, even if the Priest himself should regard it as a valid warrant for administering the sacraments and receiving confessions which, we think is very doubtful.

41. In your letter of the 12th Aug. 1820, you state the expense of the proposed seminary for the education of persons to supply the Roman Catholic churches at about 300 rupees per mensem; but we observe that the Bishop of Antipholi (who is to nominate the pastors subject to your approval) has stated in his letter to Mr. Elphinstone of the 16th May, 1823, that 150 rupees per mensem would enable him to provide teachers for the instruction of individuals desirous of qualifying themselves for the sacred office.

42. If the Roman Catholic population of Bombay and its dependencies should willingly submit to the authority of the Carmelite Bishop and to the Priests of his ordination, there would still remain the difficulty (which you yourselves have noticed) of adjusting the conflicting claim of that prelate, and of the Archbishop of Goa, as to the limits of their respective jurisdictions. We apprehend that this could be done in no other mode than by a reference to the Court of Rome, and unless the Carmelite Bishop should have the means of obtaining the Pope's decision upon the point, we see no prospect of a termination of the dispute; under these circumstances, we do not feel prepared to accede to the propositions which you submitted to us in your letter of the 12th August, 1820. In the present state of our information, we certainly should not be disposed to authorise so large an annual expenditure as you have recommended, but neither would we wish to prohibit you from affording a small pecuniary assistance to the Roman Catholic clergy in cases where the refusal of such assistance might, by possibility, involve the dispersion and apostasy to heathenism of their congregations.

43. Towards the education of persons designed to fill vacant benefices, we are willing to contribute an annual sum not exceeding 1,800 rupees, which we conceive will be sufficient to provide qualified pastors for the congregations who acknowledge the spiritual authority of the Bishop of Antipholi. We, however, do not pledge ourselves to this as a permanent arrangement, as it is not impossible that some other mode may hereafter present itself of supplying pastors to the Roman Catholic churches.

44. We wish you to furnish us with a statement of the number of the Roman Catholic churches in the territories subject to your Presidency, the number of the Priests belonging to those churches, the sources whence they derive their support, and such other particulars as may serve to explain the actual condition of our Roman Catholic subjects.

[Let it be remarked that the foregoing was written before the Roman Catholics were emancipated from political disabilities in England, and then the sentiments it conveys will be more readily seen in reference to public opinion in England.—R. M. M.]

The following extract from a Public Letter from Bombay, dated 20th January, 1830, to the Court of Directors, will shew what has been done:—

Par. 27. Having called for information in regard to the Catholic churches, &c. within the limits of this Presidency, we beg to lay the result before your Honourable Court.

The Bishop of Bombay states that he has within the Island of Bombay under his jurisdiction five churches, including the new church at Colaba, built by the Hon. Company, and two chapels, that the number of Priests are thirteen, exclusive of his Vicar, General Fr. Luiz Maria, and Bishop Prendergast, who lives with him. That all these churches, except that at Colaba, have sufficient funds to keep them in good order, and to support their Priests, that those funds were left by pious benefactors; that at Surat he has two churches under his jurisdiction, and two Priests, one of whom, as chaplain to the Servants of the Hon. East India Company, receive 40 rupees per month, and the other nothing. That both the churches have sufficient funds to keep them in good order, and to support those Priests. That at Broach and Baroda he has two chapels without any fund whatever, the chaplains there receiving from the Hon. Company an allowance of 30 rupees each per month. That he has a chapel at Kaira without any fund, and that the chaplain receives from the Hon. Company an allowance of 40 rupees per month. That he has small chapels at Mhow, Dhoolia, Candeish, Malwan, and Rutnagherry, and the respective chaplains receive 30 rupees per month from the Hon. Company. That the chapels at Poona and Aurungabad ought to belong to him, but for the want of Priests he has consented to the Archbishop sending Priests there: the Bishop requests an allowance of rupees 15 per month on account of each of those small chapels, for keeping them in order, and an addition of rupees 10 per month to the allowance of the chaplains attached to them.

The senior magistrate of police states that there are twelve Roman Catholic churches on the Island of Bombay, but in regard to the number of Priests, &c. he refers Government to the Bishop of Antipholi, and the Archbishop's Vicar General in Bombay, as he has no means himself of furnishing information thereon.

The Collector of Ahmedabad reports that there are no Roman Catholic churches within his collectorate, and that the whole number of persons of that religion residing within his jurisdiction does not amount to above 40 souls.

The Collector of Broach reports that there is only one Roman Catholic church and one Priest in his Zillah: that the church was built by subscription, and the Priest receives a monthly allowance of rupees 30 for his support. That the annual repairs of the church, and other monthly contingent expenses thereof,

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such as clerks, pay, &c. are borne by subscription lately made by some Roman Catholics residing there.

The Collector of Kaira reports that there are two Roman Catholic churches in his Zillah, to which but one Priest is attached: that both churches are in the vicinity of Kaira, one close to the head cutchery in the suburbs of the town of Kaira, for performing the duty of which the Priest is allowed rupees 40 per month from the Government: the other is situated in the camp, for performing the duty of which the Priest receives private voluntary contributions.

The Collector of Surat reports that there are two Roman Catholic churches at Surat—the first was erected in 1624, a Sunnud was granted in the year 1729, by the Emperor of Delhi, and the Nawaub of Surat paid monthly a sum of rupees 126 2 0 in support of it: this was continued until the date of its coming into the possession of the Hon. Company, when it ceased; it is now supported by the rent of three houses, yielding, when occupied, an aggregate monthly sum of Rs. 45. At present they have fallen much into decay, and two are without tenants, these belong to the church. The second church is supported by Government, the Priest receives a monthly sum of Rs. 40, besides the subscriptions obtained occasionally from private individuals, it is said to be in a flourishing condition. The number of Roman Catholics who attend these two churches does not exceed 120 persons. There are few Roman Catholics, and no churches in any other part of his Zillah.

The Collector in the Southern Conkan reports that there are six churches in his Zillah, viz:

No. of Churches.	No. of Priests.	Churches where situated.	Estimated Annual Expense.	The sources whence they derive their support.	Remarks.
1	1	Malwan	557 1 0	From Government 540 0 0 From the Congregation 15 0 0 553 0 0	The marriage fee is 5 Rs., and small fees are also exacted at burials.
1	1	Vingooria ..	58 0 0	From the Congregation 58 0 0	The priest, who occasionally officiates, resides in Saurint Wares, and visits this church 4 or 5 times a year. The proceeds are derived from marriage fees, and a payment of 1 or 2 annas a head by each Catholic.
1	1	Vixiadroog ..	0 0 0	No regular expense	The priest from Malwa visits the Church occasionally, the congregation is very limited, and the repairs of the church are made by the parishioners.
1	1	Ratnagherry	540 0 0	From Government 540 0 0	This church was built in 1633 by the Portuguese inhabitants, with the assistance of 200 Rs. from Government.
1	1	Hurnee	0 0 0	No regular expense	The priest of Ratnagherry occasionally visits this church. The congregation is very limited.
1	1	Korli.....	0 0 0	From Government 237 1 6s From Angria, the produce of some Enam land 19 0 0 From the Congregation 25 0 0 274 1 6s	The deficiency in the funds is made up by alms, which the priest procures at Bombay and other places, the church is of the time of the Portuguese Government at Reodunda.

Mr. Reid states that the number of Roman Catholics is very inconsiderable, and consists principally of a floating population from Goa and Bombay. At Korli, opposite the Fort of Reodunda, and at Vizadroog and Hurnee, few old Portuguese residents are to be found. To Malwa, Vingooria and Rutmagherry they have been attracted since the establishment of the British Government, and consist of English writers and their families, farmers of the Government, Liquor Farms, and a few stone cutters and mechanics; the total number does not exceed 1,000 souls.

The Collector of Ahmednuggur states that there are no churches nor any established Priest in any town in his collectorate. That the Roman Catholics of Ahmednuggur, about 50 persons, met in a place of worship on Sundays and other days, and have been contemplating building a church, inviting a clergyman, and requesting ground from Government for the site of a church and burial place, and the Collector expresses a hope that when such application is made, we will afford them suitable assistance.

The principal Collector of Dharwar reports that there are 11 churches in his collectorate, viz: one at each of the following places, Rhanapoor, Nundagurh, Shawpore, Belgaum, Kittoor, Beedee, Machgurh, Darwur, Asrah, (in the Kolapoor territory) Hallkurnee, and Bellgoondee. That there are three Priests to those churches, one senior and two junior, all natives of Goa. That the four first mentioned churches are under charge of the senior Priest, to whom the other two Priests are required to report proceedings; the next four under one of the junior Priests, and the remaining three under the other, the whole are subject to the Archbishop of Goa. They derive their principal support from the Portuguese Government, the senior Priest is allowed a salary of 300 Goa rupees per annum, and the two junior Priests 250 rupees each; they also receive fees for baptisms, marriages, funerals, &c. for little more than a year and a half the senior Priest, who officiates at Belgaum, received an allowance of 25 Rs. per month from the British Government, but this has been discontinued since the removal of the 1st Bombay European regiment. The members of the four churches under the immediate superintendence of the senior Priest, amount, including men, women, and children, to 1,300 souls; those of the other four churches to about 600; the remaining three churches to about 700; making together 2,600.

The whole of these are descendants of a body of Roman Catholics, who, about a century ago, removed from below the Ghauts and settled there. Their chief employment is distillation of spirits; besides the above there are at present at Belgaum, in his Majesty's 41st regiment of foot, 279 men, 43 women, and 44 children, Roman Catholics, and 2,500 (sepoys, pioneers, drummers, sifers, and camp followers) among the native troops, besides some of the same description, under the junior Priests at Dhauwar and Kelapoor.

The acting Collector of Poona reports that there is one church and two Priests under his collectorate, and that the only Catholic inhabitants there, are a few ser-vants and followers attached to the Camp at Poona. He does not report the sources from which they derive their support, but from the Accountant-generals statement it appears, that one of them receives an allowance from Government of Rs. 50 per month, and the other Rs. 25.

The Collector of Khandesh reports that there are two small churches in his

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collectorate, one at Malligaum and the other at Dhoolia; there is only one Priest in Khandesh who resides at Dhoolia, he proceeds to Malligaum once in six or seven weeks to perform mass, he receives Rs. 30 per month from the Government, which is considered as a salary for performing mass on public days; in addition to this, he is generally paid by individuals one rupee for each baptism, and one for each burial, and five rupees for each marriage; but these are not established fees, they are dispensed with, when the parties are in low circumstances; for all extra masses on account of individuals for their departed friends, or other purposes, half a rupee is paid; the amount of those fees may average about 12 rupees per mensem. The Priest in Khandesh is not at all content with his allowances, as he could obtain more than double the sum in Bombay, but, he understands, he has been sent up to Khandesh much against his inclination. There are about 200 Roman Catholics in Khandesh, some of whom are very respectable men, and who serve the Government as accountants, English writers, &c.; others are personal servants and cooks of European gentlemen. An addition of 10 Rs. per month has lately been granted to him to defray the expense of his proceeding to Malligaum.

The Collector in the Northern Conkan has handed up a statement, shewing the number of Roman Catholic churches, the number of the Priests belonging to them, the sources whence they derive their support, and the number of the Roman Catholic houses and subjects in his district, to which we beg to draw your Honourable Court's attention.

That the Roman Catholic faith is rapidly losing ground in his Zillah, there can be little doubt. Upwards of 1,200 families, Coolies, left the church during the raging of the cholera, and returned to the worship of their forefathers; from what he has observed, however, the change was merely in name, the greater number calling themselves *Christians* are in fact idolaters; some, it is said, worship the Hindoo gods secretly in their houses, although they attend the church, and almost all conceive the images of the saints as gods, and worship them in that light.

Few, very few of the Christians, resident in his Zillah, are descended from the Portuguese families, they are generally converted Koombies, Bundarees, Coolies, and a few Brahmins; and the most extraordinary circumstance is, that most of them still adhere to the former prejudices of caste, and rarely intermarry, and in some parts will not eat together, notwithstanding which they are considered as brethren of the Church of Christ.

The cause of this ignorance must originate in the extremely depressed state of the clergy, and this is caused by the wretched pittance obtainable in each parish, no families of respectability would think of educating any member for such a station. The vicars of Salsette, in their petition to Government, dated in December, 1826, stated that the churches are almost "all in great decay, and going to ruin; and there is nothing left for their repairs. The parishioners are so very poor and miserable that they can scarcely maintain themselves and families." Some of the churches are little better than a heap of ruins.

Considering the description of the Priests generally, the Collector hardly knows whether the want of them in many places is a disadvantage or not, if men of education and character could by any means be appointed, the advantage would be

certain. The statement now forwarded shews 13 Priests officiating over 24 churches or parishes, in the Island of Salsette, the Priest at Tannah having the charge of four churches. The Priest of Agasee in the Mahim Talooka has charge of the churches of Tarapoor and Dahnoo, or rather parishes, (for the church at the latter place is completely destroyed,) a distance of 20 coss, but at present there are not many Christians in those two parishes.

Extract from Public Letter to Bombay, dated 23rd July (No. 26), 1833. Answer to Letter dated 2nd November (No. 28), 1831:—

Par. 3. In the first of the letters under reply, you bring to our notice the dilapidated state, and miserably poor condition of the Roman Catholic Churches under your Presidency, and suggest to us the propriety of sanctioning the sum of 400 or 500 rupees a month, in addition to the charge now borne by your Government for the support of that religion, being distributed amongst the different parishes of Salsette and other places where a considerable number of Roman Catholics may reside.

In our despatch of the 23d January, 1828, we communicated to you our opinions respecting the policy which should be pursued towards the Roman Catholics at Bombay and its dependencies, observing, that as at the date of the transfer of Bombay to the Company, the Roman Catholic population were secured in the full enjoyment of their privileges as well as in the free exercise of their religion, we felt that they were entitled to protection, and that we would not prohibit you from affording pecuniary assistance to the Roman Catholic clergy in cases where the refusal of such assistance might by possibility involve the dispersion and apostacy to heathenism of their congregations.

5. In the spirit of those instructions, and trusting to your discretion in the distribution of the amount, we authorize you to disburse in the manner you have suggested, such further sum, not exceeding 400 rupees a month; as may be necessary for the decent maintenance and support of the Roman Catholic clergy within the districts subject to your authority.

6. The second letter, under reply relates to the assistance afforded by Government towards rebuilding the Churches of Nossa Senhora de Esperança of Bombay, and of Nossa Senhora dos Remedios, in the district of Bassein, and requests our opinion on the subject of such grants generally.

7. Although the grant of Rs. 14,000 towards rebuilding the church of N. S. de Esperança is large, we are satisfied from a consideration of the proceedings of Government connected with the removal of the church from the Esplanade in 1804, and rebuilding it on another site, that your Government was bound to assist the parishioners in erecting a new church; and that the amount of that assistance was not greater than the exigency of the case required.

8. We do not object to the donation of Rs. 300 which you authorised conditionally to be made towards rebuilding the church at Bassein.

Madras Roman Catholics.—The following is from the

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Acting Superintendent of Police, dated Madras, 4th Nov. 1834. He says,—

The statement marked No. 1. may be relied upon as perfectly correct, with, perhaps, the exception of the extent of the respective congregations, upon which point I found the greatest difficulty to fix on a true *data* by which to calculate the number claimed by the different churches; without, however, being enabled to state positively the number of *each* congregation, the *whole* Roman Catholic population may be fairly considered about 60,000 in and near Madras.

The statement No. 2. furnished by the Secretary of the Bishop of St. Thomé is useful, inasmuch that the *amount* of the funds possessed by the different churches is correct.

Statement No. 3, by Mr. Satur, who is attached to the Capuchin Mission, gives no information except on the Capuchin churches.

STATEMENT OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCHES, THEIR VICARS,
AND THEIR RESPECTIVE FUNDS.

Cathedral of St. Thomé, the acting Bishop Fr. Manuel da Ave Maria; about 20,000 pagodas, four houses to be rented, and two gardens. Church of Santa Rita at do. under do.; about 1,200 pagodas, and a house to be rented. Church of St. Domingos, do. no Vicar; two houses to be rented. Church of Madre de Deos, do. Rd. Manuel S. de Jesus; a garden and 500 pagodas. Church of Lazarus, do. do.; a cocoa-nut tree garden. Church of Discaço, Rd. Antonio F. dor Arcanjos; supported by the estate of the late Mr. J. de Monte. Church of Lur, Rd. Fr. Francisco das Dores; about 500 pagodas, a house to be rented, and a garden. Church of Little Mount, no Vicar; a garden of paddy fields. Church of St. Thomas' Mount, Rd. Antonio Rozario Cardozas; about 2,500 pagodas, and two houses to be rented. Church of Covelong, Rd. Luis Rubeiro; about 64,000 Rs. but there is a seminary to be supported also with the same fund. Church of Poonmalay, Rd. Antonio Joze Pires; pagodas 2,500. Church of Pulicat, no Vicar; no fund. Church of Vepery, Rd. Fr. Felix; no fund; at present in charge of Rd. Muhille. Church of Periapaleum, no Vicar; no fund. Church of Madaverum, no Vicar; no fund. Church of Wallajawpettah, no Vicar; no fund, Church of Capuchins, of Madras, Rd. Fr. John Baptista; about 30,000 pagodas, and two houses. Church of St. John at Madras, Rd. Dlimingos J. A. Pereira; supported by the estate of Mr. J. De Monte. Church of Parchy at Madras, Rd. Jannario Saldanha; no fund, but is supported by the Cathedral fund. Church of Royaporam, no Vicar; about 20,000 pagodas (boatmens' funds.) Church another, at Madras, no Vicar; supported by the Capuchins.

STATEMENT, shewing the number of Catholic churches at Madras, St. Thomas's Mount, Pulicat, Covelong, and Periapalliam, and the extent of their respective congregations, and the mode in which they are supported.

Situation of the Churches.	Names.	The extent of their respective congregations, including all classes.	Names of the Missioners officiating in each church.	Under what Jurisdiction.	How supported, whether from any distinct funds or from any endowments, such as houses, &c. and to what amount.	Remarks.
Madras Black Town	Blessed Virgin Mary	About 12,000	Don Fré Pedro de Alcantara, Vicar Apostolic of the Capuchin Mission at Madras.	Capuchin Mission.	By its own fund, to the amount of 27,000 pagodas & two houses, besides other sums, forming an aggregate of about 20,000 pagodas, allotted for certain specific objects.	Built in 1785 by public contributions: the fund exclusively belonging to the church was originally acquired by a compensation of 12,000 pagodas, made by Government on account of the demolition of a church in the fort, which the Portuguese inhabitants built, and the rent by legacies, donations, and the assistance of the priests, charity schools, &c.
Ditto	St. John	1,500	Rev. D. I. A. Pereira.	See, St. Thomé.	By the estate of the late Mr. John D'Almeida. The priest receives 10 pagodas per mensem from the rents of several houses, appropriated to charitable purposes.	This church was established at the particular instance of a large body of Roman Catholics, who, annoyed at the conduct of the Capuchin friars, petitioned Government, and founded it in 1815 under the auspices of the Sec of St. Thomé. A range of bazars belongs to the church, the rent of which goes towards the liquidation of a debt contracted for its benefit, to the amount of 2,500 rupaes.
Parecherry	Blessed Virgin Mary	10,000	Rev. I. Saldanha.	Ditto.	By the Sec of St. Thomé.	Built by the headmen and other christian parials of the place, and the assistance of one Thomas D'Souza, Esq. an opulent Portuguese merchant.
Royapooram	St. Peter	10,000	None attached at present.	Ditto.	By its own fund, about 40,000 rupaes.	Built by the christian business men of these countries, to the amount of 70,000 rupaes, of which went towards the building of the church.
Ditto	Mater Dolorosa	1,000	Ditto.	Capuchin Mission.	By the Capuchin Mission. No Minister is attached to it, services occasionally performed.	Built lately by the Capuchins.
Near the Monegar Choetry	St. Roche and Lazaro	200	No Vicar.	Ditto.	Ditto	Built by the Capuchins having their burying ground there.
Vepery	St. Andrew	4,000	Rev. Mr. Felix.	Ditto.	By its own fund.	Built by Father Felix, a Capuchin friar, from his own funds.

Madaveram	St. George	100	No Vicar.	Capuchin Mission.	No fund or priest.	A small chapel, built by public contributions from the Catholics, who have handed property to the church. Foundation laid by the King of Portugal when the Sec of St. Thomé was established. Fund about 20,000 pagodas, besides four houses and two residences, partly the ca-
St. Thomé	St. Thomas's Cathedral	..	Fré Manuel Da Azevedo, Acting Bishop.	See, St. Thomé.	By its own fund.	

	St. George	No Vicar	Capuchin Mission	No fund or present	
Near the Montegar Choultry	St. Roche and Lazaro	No Vicar	Ditto	By its own fund	Built by the Capuchins having their burying ground there.
Vepary	St. Andrew	Rev. Mr. Felix	Ditto		Built by Father St. John, a Capuchin friar, from his own funds.
Maderam	St. George	Fré Manuel Da Avil Mira, Acting Bishop	See, St. Thomé		A small chapel, built by public contributions from the Catholics, who have handed property at Maderam. Foundation laid for a larger building.
St. Thomé	St. Thomas's Cathedral				Erected by the King of Portugal when the Sec of St. Thomé was established.
Ditto	St. Rita	No Vicar	Ditto	By its own fund, about 1,200 pagodas.	Fund about 20,000 pagodas, besides four houses and two gardens, partly the endowment of the King of Portugal, and the rest from legacies, &c. The Sec is under the immediate patronage of the Monarch.
Ditto	St. Domingo	Rev. I. S. D'Souza	Ditto	By the rent of two houses belonging to the church.	No Minister attached to it. Service is occasionally performed.
Ditto	Madre De Deus	Rev. M. S. De Jesus	Ditto	By its own fund 500 pagodas, and the rent of a garden.	On Tuesdays this church is opened, and Divine Service performed, when charitable donations, in candles, oil, and other commodities, are obtained to a considerable amount, adequate to the support of the church, &c.
Ditto	St. Lazaro	Ditto	Ditto	By the Bishoprick. A garden belongs to the church.	
Luz	Blessed Virgin Mary	Rev. Fré Francisco Dos Deros	Ditto	By its own fund about 500 pagodas, and a small garden belonging to the church.	
Near Monbray Gardens	Ditto	Rev. A. F. De Arcanjos	Ditto	By the estate of the late Mr. John De Monte.	No Minister is attached to it. Service is occasionally performed.
Little Mount	Ditto	No Vicar	Ditto	&c. belonging to the church.	An allowance is also granted by Government on account of the European troops in the cantonment.
St. Thomas's Mount	Ditto	Rev. A. R. Carboza	Ditto	By its own fund about 2,500 pagodas, and two houses belonging to the church.	Built by public contributions. Service is occasionally performed.
Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	No fund.	Ditto
Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto
Ditto	St. Francis Xavier	Rev. L. Ribeiro	Ditto	By its own fund about 64,000 rupias, bequeathed by the late Mr. John D'Monte.	A Portuguese seminary is also supported at Covelong out of the interest arising from the same fund.
Ditto	Blessed Virgin Mary	No Vicar	Ditto	By its own fund about 2,500 pagodas, bequeathed by the late Mr. J. D'Monte.	
Poonamalle	St. Anthony	Rev. A. I. Pires	Ditto	No fund.	Built by the Catholic inhabitants of the place. Service is occasionally performed.
Pulicat	Blessed Virgin Mary	No Vicar	Ditto		Built by public contributions. Service is occasionally performed.
Wallajahpettah	Ditto	Ditto	Capuchin Mission	Ditto	Ditto
Perispalliam	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto

N. B. As some of the churches derive support from the rents of houses and lands belonging to the estate of the late Mr. D'Monte, the amount allowed to each depends upon the actual receipts realized from time to time.

The Roman Catholic establishments which now enjoy the protection and support of the E. I. Company, include *four* apostolical vicars, with authority direct from the Pope; nominated by the Society, *De Propaganda Fide*, and stationed at *Pondicherry, Verapoly, Bombay, and Agra*. There is also a prefect of the Romish mission at Nepal. These apostolical vicars have under them in their several dioceses a number of priests; most of whom are natives of India, and have been educated in Indian seminaries by European ecclesiastics.

There are also *two* Archbishops and *two* Bishops, presented by the *King of Portugal*. The Archbishops are of *Goa*, who is the Metropolitan and Primate of the Orient; and of *Cranganore, in Malabar*. The Bishops are, of *Cochin in Malabar*, and *St. Thomas at Madras*. The latter includes *Calcutta* in his diocese; where he has a legate, who has under his superintendence fourteen priests and ten churches, viz. in *Calcutta*, one; in *Serampore*, one; in *Chinsurrah*, one; in *Bandel*, one; in *Cosimbazar*, one; three at *Chittagong*; in *Backergunge*, one; and in *Bowal*, one.

The priests and churches under the presidencies of *Madras* and *Bombay* are very numerous, exclusive of those which were formerly Syrian churches, and have been, as already mentioned, incorporated with that of *Rome*.

The Roman Catholic Bishop of *Bombay*, who, with his Vicar-general, resided on the island, has under his jurisdiction there five churches, inclusive of a new church on the island of *Colaba*, and two chapels. These are connected with these establishments thirteen priests, exclusive of the Bishop and his Vicar. All the churches, except *Colaba*, have sufficient endowments for their support, and that of their priests.

The principal church, which is dedicated to *N. S. da Esperança*, formerly stood on the Esplanade; but in the year 1804 it was removed at the Company's expense, and a new one erected by *Salliah Mahomed Fuzael*. This building cost about 4,000*l.* In 1831 it was discovered that the work had been badly executed, and the church was then ready to fall,

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in consequence of which the Company made a further grant of 14,000 rupees, nearly 2,000%, towards its repair.

At Surat there are two churches under the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Bombay. The oldest was erected in the year 1624; and it is a remarkable circumstance that for many years this church enjoyed a monthly income of 126 rupees, 2 annas paid by the Nabob of Surat, by virtue of a Sunnud from the Emperor at Delhi. This endowment ceased to be paid when Surat came entirely under the control of the Company; but the church is still in possession of freehold property, yielding a monthly sum sufficient for its support. The second church is wholly supported by the Company, who pay the priest his monthly stipend of 40 rupees. The stated worshippers in these two churches somewhat exceed one hundred.

The other Roman Catholic churches under the Presidency of Bombay are as follow: one in Broach, which was erected, and is still supported, by voluntary subscription, excepting a monthly stipend of 30 rupees to the priest, paid by the Company: one at Baroda, supported in the same way: the church of N. S. los Remedios at Bassein, to the re-edification of which, in the year 1832, the Company contributed liberally; a church at Poonah, with two priests, who enjoy stipends paid by the Company: one at Malwa; one at Vingorla; one at Viziadroog; one at Rutnagherry, erected in 1822, with the aid of a grant from the Company, and one at Hurree.

Notwithstanding the forms and ceremonials of the Roman Catholic church approximate so closely to the Hindoo worship (as often observed to me by the late Rammohun Roy); there have been few converts to the Creed of Rome, and those who have become, nominally, converts to the Catholic church,*

* By a Government regulation of 1831, any Hindoo who may become a convert to christianity does not forfeit rights of caste or inheritance, or any temporal advantages connected with caste. This is but just in a Christian Government acting on the broadest principles of toleration. Thus when litigations for property or personal services appropriated as endowments for the support of the Hindoo or Mahomedan religion arise, the inter-

have relinquished, it is true, one faith, but without adopting another, while the principles of morality were too loose to stand as a substitute for religion.

PROTESTANT CHURCH.—We may now proceed to observe how far the established church extends, premising that in this as in the foregoing instances, every aid has been furnished by the E. I. Company's Government which could promote the cause of true religion and its concomitants—charity, peace, and happiness. The following detail shews, first, the state of the Established Church in Bengal, according to the latest return in 1830, and the expenses incurred there, from the date of Calcutta being made a Bishop's See in 1814 to 1831.

Stations.	Congregations.		Stations.	Congregations.	
	Civil.	Military.		Civil.	Military.
Two Chaplains :			Under 1 Chaplain :		
Cathedral	650		Ghazeeapore	uncertain.	380
Old Church	400		Buxar	15	75
St. James's	260		Saugor	40	116
Fort Church	84	210	Under 1 Chaplain :		
The Archdeacon, acting :			Agra		750
Dum Dum		700	Muttra		100
Barrackpore	12	160	Allyghur		60
Chinsurah	144	210	Etawah		20
Berhampore		275	Under 1 Chaplain :		
Under 1 Chaplain :			Bareilly		60
Dacca	30		Almorah		35
Chittagong	12		Havillbaugh		15
Jalapore	8	uncertain.	Moradabad		30
Mymensing	8		Shajehanpore		30
Tipperah or Barisal	15		Under 1 Chaplain :		
Under 1 Chaplain :			Delhi	22	34
Benares or Secrole	100	35	Rajapore		88
Chunar	250		Meerut	108	1,530
Mirzapore	30		Nusscerabad		60
Jaunpore	40		Cawnpore	377	1,067
Under 1 Chaplain :			Under 1 Chaplain :		
Patna	50		Kurnaul		160
Muzsufferpore	24		Loodlanah		50
Gyah	12		Hanse		30
Dianpore	uncertain.	390	Mhow		210
Allahabad	20	80	Cuttack		

The returns of the congregations attending the churches at *Neemuch, Boglepore, Cuttack, Futtyghur, Saugor, Howrah*, and the chapel at the *European Barracks*, are not given.

ference of the magistrate amounts to a direct recognition of rights connected with or growing out of the several religious distinctions of the party. British India can scarcely therefore be said to have a *State religion*,—it is tolerant, protective and auxiliary to each and every creed, allowing the light of reason and the convictions of truth to operate in every direction unaided by physical force and unmolested by bigotry or fanaticism.

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St. James
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Name or Station of Church, &c.	Expenditure for Construction, &c. to Feb. 1831.	Yearly Allowance of Establishment for 1832-33.	Name or Station of Church, &c.	Expenditure for Construction, &c. to Feb. 1831.	Monthly Allowance of Establishment &c. to Feb. 1831.
Presidency :					
St. John's, the Cathedral ..	2,348	12,648	Goruckpore	1,200	421
The Old or Mission Church	6,000	5,859	Ghazepore	26,478	815
St. Peter's Church	1,15,149	1,947	Dinapore	29,913	—
St. James's Church	68,008	3,270	Saugor	31,414	834
Room in General Hospital ..	12,038	—	Allahabad	1,910	577
Barrackpore	—	387	Cuttack	5,444	269
Cawnpore	60,409	698	Chunar	—	343
Benares	11,601	631	Berhampore	—	367
Dacca	14,824	877	Nusseerabad	1,466	451
Dum Dum	58,444	1,647	Ditto, New Church	5,153	—
Agra	28,703	302	Chinsurah	4,654	713
Patna	—	137	Kurnaul	1,354	660
Meerut	54,697	2,092	Neemuch	302	247
Nomillah	24,355	—	Moradabad	1,088	—
Howrah	4,585	1,959	Boglepore	900	—
Mhow	503	206	Hanse	21	—
Nagpore	99	—	Muttra	78	—
Futtyghur	3,430	95	Allyghur	16	—
Burdwan	2,181	—	Dinagapore	—	1,106
			Secroie	—	218
			Furruckabad	—	334
			Bareilly	—	137

The foregoing tables are given (as are also several others in this volume) partly in order that more complete returns may in future be kept or prepared in India, in the statistics of which we are sadly deficient, the present being the first public effort to afford a *complete view* of Indian statistics.

The following is the total expense incurred for the Bengal Established Church from 1815 to 1832-33:—

Years.	Ordinary Monthly Expenditure.	Contingent Monthly Expenditure.	Total Monthly Expenditure.	Total Annual Expenditure.	Years.	Ordinary Monthly Expenditure.	Contingent Monthly Expenditure.	Total Monthly Expenditure.	Total Annual Expenditure.
1815	11,626	248	11,874	1,42,498	1825	26,963	1,798	28,760	4,30,614
1816	20,539	356	20,895	2,50,742	1826	39,675	1,595	31,070	4,14,516
1817	22,178	388	22,566	3,70,795	1827	36,999	2,370	39,378	4,60,311
1818	22,838	450	23,297	3,79,566	1828	—	—	—	4,82,803
1819	23,739	922	23,661	3,83,823	1829	—	—	—	4,49,603
1820	22,463	857	23,320	3,79,844	1830	—	—	—	4,45,128
1821	21,378	1,721	23,099	3,77,197	1831	—	—	—	4,88,243
1822	22,446	1,117	23,563	3,89,758	1832	—	—	—	4,81,610
1823	19,963	1,205	21,168	3,54,027	No distinct Returns per Month.				
1824	24,971	3,152	28,123	3,57,111	1834	—	—	—	—

An official letter from the Archdeacon of Bombay (10th Nov. 1831) thus details the state of the Protestant Church under that Presidency; *en passant*, it may be remarked that

466 BOMBAY PRESIDENCY CHURCH STATIONS & CONGREGATIONS.

the number of chaplains allowed is fifteen, but in 1832 ten only were present, owing to sickness, &c.

Stations.	Number of Europeans.	Stations.	Number of Europeans.	Stations.	Number of Europeans.
1. St. Thomas's Church, Bombay.	—	6. Kirkee	607	14. Belgaum	243
2. Bombay Garrison	—	7. Ahmednuggur	784	15. Darwar	20
3. Colabah with Bombay Harbour	—	8. Malcolm Peth	70 to 100	16. Surat	20
4. Byculiah (New Church.)	—	9. Daporee	22	17. Sholapore	138
5. Poona	1,860	10. Deesah	1,014	18. Bhoj	117
		11. Ahmedabad	40	19. Malligaum	54
		12. Baroda	38	20. Rajcote	20
		13. Tannah	60		

In the above statement, four chaplains are assigned to the islands of Bombay and Colabah, in conformity with the opinion of the late bishop, Dr. Turner.

The following official documents, 1, 2, and 3, further illustrate the state of the established church at Bombay, according to the latest returns.

Table, No. 1.—Ecclesiastical Charges.

In the Year	Rupees.	In the Year	Rupees.
1821-25	2,88,081 2 26	1830-31	
1825-26	2,10,386 1 00	1831-32	
1826-27	2,17,967 3 75	1832-33	
1827-28	2,25,965 2 00	1833-34	
1828-29		1834-35	
1829-30		1835-36	

No. 2.—Charges in the Ecclesiastical Department under the Heads of Salaries and Establishments (per annum, and in rupees).

Years.	Salaries.	Establishments.	Total.	Years.	Salaries.	Establishments.	Total.
1815	43,937	4,263	48,201	1825	148,479	30,153	178,632
1816	66,777	4,263	71,040	1826	159,553	36,659	175,212
1817	84,777	4,611	89,388	1827	161,571	31,353	212,923
1818	88,065	4,735	92,800	1828			
1819	96,665	5,079	101,744	1829			
1820	101,867	6,008	107,875	1830			
1821	112,830	6,667	119,497	1831			
1822	108,168	14,737	122,905	1832			
1823	93,611	20,757	114,368	1833			
1824	123,433	17,761	141,194	1834			

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No. 3.—Statement of Expences incurred in the Construction and Repairs of Churches, from 1818 to 1827.

Name of Church.	When finished.	Expense of Erection.		Repairs.	Total.	Remarks.
		Rs.	Rs.			
Strat	1823	58,328	—	—	58,328	Excess above estimate Rs. 25,328.
Scotch Church	1818	56,582	—	—	56,582	
Kaira	1824	74,786	—	—	74,786	Excess above estimate Rs. 24,169, exclusive of Plate, Rs. 1,400.
St. Thomas's Church	—	—	—	80,669	80,669	This includes repairs to 1819 only, from which period Rs. 7,200 appear to have been allowed for repairs and establishments, against which the receipts from pews are to be set off, the amount of which is not ascertainable here.
Poonah	1824	42,509	—	446	42,955	
Tannah	1825	43,553	—	—	43,553	
Ch. Churches erected which are unnoticed either in the Public or Ecclesiastical Correspondence.					Rs.	
N. Concan	1826	14,348	—	—	14,348	
Dapores	—	—	—	—	9,012	
New Church E. Zillah	1826	9,091	—	—	9,091	
North of the Myhee						
Baroda	1825	11,591	—	—	11,591	
Mhuw	1826	8,200	—	—	8,200	
Koorkee	1827	3,700	—	—	3,700	
					56,002	
Total Rs.					3,04,848	
Roman Catholic Church at Colaba	1826	—	—	—	17,421	
					3,82,269	

Expences of Civil, Military, and Church Establishments at Bombay.

Year.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.	Year.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.
	Rupees.	Rupees.			Rupees.	Rupees.	
1818	Civil Establishment	32,177	4,263	1819	Civil Establishment	33,977	4,347
	Military Ditto	11,760			Military Ditto	33,847	
		43,937			Scotch Church	8,839	
1816	Civil Establishment	32,177	4,369	1820		56,666	5,979
	Military Ditto	27,559			Civil Establishment	33,977	
	Scotch Church	8,839			Military Ditto	58,467	
	68,577		9,421	Scotch Church			
1817	Civil Establishment	32,177	4,263	1821		1,01,867	6,669
	Military Ditto	43,759			Civil Establishment	33,977	
	Scotch Church	8,839			Military Ditto	69,178	
	84,777		9,678	Scotch Church			
1818	Civil Establishment	33,977	4,269	1822		1,12,830	8,667
	Military Ditto	46,147			Civil Establishment	33,977	
	Scotch Church	8,839			Military Department	64,461	
	88,965		9,678	Scotch Church			
					1,08,108	14,737	

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Total.

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Expences of Civil and Military Establishments, &c. at Bombay—continued.

Years.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.	Years.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.
	Rupees.	Rupees.			Rupees.	Rupees.	
1823	Civil Establishment	33,977	5,577	1826	Civil Establishment	47,977	9,073
	Military Ditto	43,750	15,180		Military Ditto	70,509	27,396
	Scotch Church	13,434			Scotch Church	19,664	
	Catholic	1,440			Catholic	2,330	
		92,611	20,757			1,39,835	36,009
1824	Civil Establishment	33,977	5,601	1827	Civil Establishment	44,077	9,064
	Military Ditto	67,750	12,180		Military Ditto	92,851	31,068
	Scotch Church	19,666			Scotch Church	20,963	
	Catholic	2,040			Catholic	3,180	
		1,23,433	17,781			1,01,571	41,832
1825	Civil Establishment	46,777	5,977	1828	Civil	66,419	9,512
	Military Ditto	80,000	24,185		Military	1,10,244	13,308
	Scotch Church	19,666			Civil	66,419	10,458
	Catholic	2,040			Military	1,19,064	13,704
		1,48,479	30,152	1830	Civil	79,633	12,327
					Military	1,24,234	13,176
				1831	Civil	79,922	11,035
					Military	1,09,308	12,876
				1832	Civil	64,302	10,111
					Military	92,640	11,904

Expences of Civil, Military, and Church Establishments at Madras.

Years.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.	Years.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.
	Rupees.	Rupees.			Rupees.	Rupees.	
1815	Civil Establishment	42,350	2,948	1819	Civil Establishment	1,61,909	12,789
	Military	78,736	4,138		Scotch Church	10,500	
		1,21,086	7,106		Catholic	2,220	
					Missionary	1,020	
1816	Civil Establishment	47,448	2,948			1,76,345	
	Military	86,608	5,334	1820	Civil Establishment	1,70,332	15,284
		1,34,056	8,282		Scotch Church	10,500	
1817	Civil Establishment	1,76,218	13,241		Catholic	1,800	
	Scotch Church	10,500			Missionary	1,200	
	Catholic	2,226				1,83,832	
	Missionary	2,048		1821	Civil Establishment	1,78,160	14,626
		1,90,092			Scotch Church	10,500	
1818	Civil Establishment	1,03,496	15,337		Catholic	1,900	
	Scotch Church	10,500			Missionary	1,200	
	Catholic	2,226				1,91,660	
	Missionary	1,100					
		2,07,322					

Expences

Years.		
1822	Civil	
	Scotch	
	Catholic	
	Missionary	
1823	Civil	
	Scotch	
	Catholic	
	Missionary	
1824	Civil	
	Scotch	
	Catholic	
	Missionary	

* The church situated near Royapoor near Triplicane St. Andrew Lazar. The assumption, controul of called St. the controul in 1815, n Thomé for stands un Capuchin acquireme to which Armenian-port and de tence o by the Cap and by aln

Expences of Civil and Military Establishments, &c. at Madras—continued.

Year.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.	Year.	Salaries per Annum.		Establishments per Annum.
	Rupees.	Rupees.			Rupees.	Rupees.	
1822	Civil Establishment	1,70,296	15,447	1825	Civil Establishment	1,56,466	13,593
	Scotch Church	10,400			Scotch Church	18,373	
	Catholics	2,360			Catholics	2,598	
	Missionary	1,906			Missionary	2,596	
		1,84,952				1,90,091	
1823	Civil Establishment	1,64,547	14,876	1826	Civil Establishment	1,63,442	16,437
	Scotch Church	10,500			Scotch Church	18,373	
	Catholics	2,362			Catholics	2,598	
	Missionary	2,510			Missionary	1,980	
		1,71,119				1,98,496	
1824	Civil Establishment	1,64,439	15,710	1827	Civil Establishment	1,93,922	21,217
	Scotch Church	10,500			Scotch Church	18,373	
	Catholics	2,292			Catholics	6,619	
	Missionary	4,566			Missionary	1,086	
		1,82,300				2,10,966	
				1828	Salaries	2,01,306	10,961
				1829	Ditto	2,18,082	20,316
				1830	Ditto	1,85,206	23,976
				1831	Ditto	1,87,170	25,198
				1832	Ditto	1,86,343	23,604

* The controul of the Capuchin Friars in and about Madras is as follows:—The church situated in Armenian St. called Queen of Angels. The chapel situated at Royapooram, called Mother of Affliction. The chapel situated at Wallajapettah, near Triplicane, called Lady of Purification. The church situated at Vepery, called St. Andrew. The chapel situated near Monigar Choultry, called St. Roque and St. Lazar. The Chapel situated at Big Parcherry, near the mint, called Lady of Assumption, formerly under the controul of the Capuchins, is since 1824, under the controul of the acting Bishop of St. Thomé. The church situated at Royapooram, called St. Peter, formerly under the controul of the Capuchins, is from 1826 under the controul of the said acting Bishop. The chapel situated near the market, erected in 1815, now called St. John's Church, by order of the then acting Bishop of St. Thomé for the use and benefit of the Rev. Father Eustaquio, a Capuchin Friar, stands under the controul of the present acting Bishop. The funds which the Capuchin Friars possess amount to about 180,000 rupees, most of which is the acquirement of their predecessors, and the rest legacies by will of several testators, to which the superior for the time being of the said Capuchin church, situated in Armenian-street, is the executor. The interest of these funds are for the support and maintenance of the Capuchin Friars, charitable purposes, pious works, and decorum of the said church, situated in Armenian-street, under the superintendence of the said superior. The chapel of the Mother of Affliction is supported by the Capuchins; the chapel of the Lady of Purification by the revenues thereof, and by alms of the public. The church of St. Andrew by the revenues thereof,

and from rent of the houses belonging to that church: The chapel of St. Roque and Lazar by the Capuchins. The chapel of the Lady of Assumption by the revenues thereof, and by alms of the public. The church of St. Peter by the funds thereof, which are under the controul of the Marine Board, acquired by boat people, and the church of St. John by the funds of the late Mr. John de Monnte, who was a benefactor of the said church, and from Revenues thereof.

As to the number of Europeans or their descendants who attend these churches and chapels on Sunday and other festival days, I cannot exactly say; but to the best of my knowledge and belief, I think they may be in all, including the soldiers of the garrison of Fort St. George, to about 700, excluding country-born, Malabar, Pariahs, and boat people, who may be about 10,000; but since a division of Roman Catholics has taken place in 1815, among the country born, a part of these description, to about 400 or 500, frequent the church of St. John, and the rest attend the Capuchin church to a greater number. The Pariahs of Parchy and boat people to their own churches, where a small body of country born to about 200, in Parchy, frequent the Chapel of Assumption; and about 100 in the Church St. Peter. The Pariahs of Wallagapettah in their own chapel, where a small body of country born to about 50, frequent there, and at Vipery about 200, among country born, excluding Malabar Sepoys and Pariahs, who may be about 2,000.

Ecclesiastical Establishment of the Three Presidencies.

Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.
The Lord Bishop, Archdeacon, and 27 Chaplains.	The Bishop, Archdeacon, and 28 Chaplains.	The Bishop, Archdeacon, and 14 Chaplains.
Of whom 29 were present in 1830, and 8 absent on furlough, &c. &c.	Of whom 19 were present in 1830, and 4 absent on furlough, &c. &c.	Of whom 11 were present in 1830, and 3 absent on furlough, &c. &c.

The foregoing returns are given more with a view to promote further investigation, and to excite to more uniform and accurate returns, than as explicit statements, though they include all the Manuscripts at the India House, or Board of Controul. In a Return before me of the Expenses of the Bengal Ecclesiastical Establishment for the year 1832-1833, and which only arrived in England 5th Feb. 1835, I find that there were Chaplains at Meerut, Messceerabad, Agra, Bareilly, Dacca, Kurnaul, Barrackpoor, Patna, Cawnpore, Chinsurah, Furruckabad, Saugore, Benares, Dinapore, Mhow, Ghazeepore, Neemuch, Berhampore, Allahabad, Dum Dum, Futtyghur and Chunar, all out stations from the Presidency. There were also Four Roman Catholic Priests paid by Government for Ministering to the Soldery, viz. at Calcutta, Patna, Berhampore and Cawnpore; the total Salaries of the Bishop and Clergy for 1832-33 was, 282,059 S. Rupees; of Four Roman Catholic Priests, 4,474; and of Four Ministers of the Scotch Church, 7,413 Rupees.

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PROPOSED CHURCH ESTABLISHMENT AT BENGAL, MADRAS, &c. 471

Scale of Establishment proposed by the Civil Finance Committee.

Bengal.	Madras.	Bombay.
<p>Presidency: The Lord Bishop, Archdeacon. 1 Chaplain to the Ld. Bishop. 5 ditto to the Presidency. 1 ditto at Barrackpore. 1 ditto at Dum Dam.</p> <p>Subordinate Stations: 1 Chaplain at Berhampore. 1 ditto at Decca. 1 ditto at Bhagnulpore. 1 ditto at Dinapore. 1 ditto at Ghazepore. 1 ditto at Behares. 1 ditto at Allahabad. 2 ditto at Cawnpore. 1 ditto at Furruckabad, or Bareilly. 1 ditto at Agra. 2 ditto at Meerat. 1 ditto for Malwa, and Rajpootana. 1 ditto at Saugor.</p> <p>23 Chaplains. 6 { ditto allowed for furlough and contingencies.</p> <p>29 Total number of Chaplains. Number at present 27 Chaps. Ditto proposed 29 ditto.</p> <p>Proposed reduction 2 ditto.</p> <p>Each receiving Rs. 4,616 per annum Rs. 66,880 Deduct allowance to Missionaries, 6 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum. } 7,200 61,680</p> <p>Add Scotch Kirk— Senior Min. Rs. 12,931 Junior ditto .. 9,462 22,413</p> <p>Total saving.. Rs. 84,093</p>	<p>Presidency: Archdeacon. 1 Senior Chaplain. 1 Junior ditto. 1 Chaplain. 1 ditto at Fort St. George. 1 ditto at Black Town. 1 ditto at St. Thomas's Mount and Poonamellee.</p> <p>Subordinate Stations: 1 Chaplain at Bangaloro. 1 ditto at Trichinopoly. 1 ditto at Bellary. 1 ditto at Masulipatam. 1 ditto for Cananors and Mangalore. 1 ditto at Nagpore. 1 ditto for Vizigapatam and Ganjam. 1 ditto for Nellore, Arcot, and Cuddalore. 1 ditto for the Neilgherries, Tallicherry and Calicut.</p> <p>15 Chaplains. 4 { do. allowed for furlough and contingencies.</p> <p>19 Total number of Chaplains. Number at present 23 Chaps. Ditto proposed 19 ditto.</p> <p>Proposed reduction 4 ditto.</p> <p>Each receiving Rs. 7,875 per annum Rs. 81,500 Deduct allowance to Missionaries, 4 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum. } 4,800 76,700</p> <p>Add Scotch Kirk— Senior Minister 11,700 Junior ditto .. 78,73 90,433</p> <p>Total saving.. Rs. 46,328</p>	<p>Presidency: Archdeacon. 1 Senior Chaplain. 1 Junior ditto. 1 Chaplain for Colabah, Tannah, and the Harbour of Bombay.</p> <p>Subordinate Stations: 2 Chaplains for Poonah and Kirtes. 1 ditto for Surat, Broach and Baroda. 1 ditto for Deesa, Ahmednugger and Kalra. 1 ditto for Belgaum, Darwar and the S. Canan. 1 ditto for Rajcote and Catch. 1 ditto for Ahmednugger and Mulligaum in Candesh.</p> <p>10 Chaplains. 2 { allowed for furlough and contingencies.</p> <p>12 Total number of Chaplains.</p> <p>Number at present 14 Chaps. Ditto proposed 12 ditto.</p> <p>Proposed reduction 2</p> <p>Receiving per an. Rs. 10,200 Deduct allowance to Missionaries, 2 receiving each Rs. 1,200 per annum. } 2,400 16,800</p> <p>Add Scotch Kirk— Senior Minister 11,700 Junior ditto .. 6,610 18,310</p> <p>Total saving.. Rs. 97,170</p>

The following statement exhibits the several missionary stations formed in India by the London, Baptist, and Wesleyan Societies, with the date of the year when the mission was established at each station, and the number of missionaries resident at each.

London Society:

Calcutta, A. D. 1816, Missionaries, 4; Chinsurah, 1813, 1; Berhampore, 1824, 2; Benares, 1820, 4; Madras, 1805, 4;

Tripassore, 1826, superintended by the Madras Missionaries; Vizagapatam, 1805, 2; Cuddapah, 1822, 1; Chittoor, 1827, 1; Belgaum, 1820, 2; Bellary, 1810, 4; Bangalore, 1820, 2; Salem, 1827, 1; Combaconum, 1825, 1; Coimbatoor, 1830, 1; Nagercoil, 1806, 2; Neyoor, 1828, 2; Quilon, 1821, 1; Surat, 1815, 3; Darwar, 1829, superintended by the Belgaum Missionaries.

Baptist Society.

Calcutta, 1801, Missionaries, 7; Patna, 1832, 1; Digar, 1809, 1; Monghyr, 1816, 2; Sewry, 1807, 1; Cutwa, 1804, 1; Luckyantipore, 1831, 1; Khane, 1831, 1; Bonstollah, 1829, 1.

The above is exclusive of the mission family at Serampore, which is in the Danish territory.

Wesleyan Society.

Madras, 4 Europeans, with native assistants; Bangalore, 4; Negapatam and Melnattam, 1.

[I should be glad to see the Moravian Missionaries settling themselves in India. R. M. M.]

Of the efforts of every class of Missionaries to extend the blessings of education and religion in India, it is difficult to express my warm feelings. The estimable Serampore Missionaries are before alluded to; but, as a further illustration of what other Missionary sects are doing, the following recent account of the American Missionaries in Burmah, will be perused with heartfelt delight.

Missionaries in Burmah.—By a private letter, dated Feb. 1st, from one of the American Missionaries at Maulamaing, we are informed that the printing of the scriptures in the Burmese language is now rapidly going forward at that station. An edition of 3,000 copies of Mr. Judson's translation of the New Testament has been printed, and 2,000 copies of the Gospels of Luke and John are in circulation. It is in contemplation, also, to reprint those two gospels in an edition of 10,000 copies. The greatest part of the edition has been sent to Rangoon for distribution on the great annual festival of Shua-d-gong, which takes place, we believe, in the present month. It was not only expected that 1,500 or 2,000 copies of the gospels of Luke and John, but 10,000 tracts would be dispersed among the people who would then be assembled from all parts of the adjacent country. The Old Testament, we are informed, is also being translated.

Intelligence of the Christian religion has, since the establishments of the American Mission, previously to the late war in Rangoon, and latterly in Maulamaing, been very extensively made known in the Burmese Empire, particularly in the southern regions.

One of the Missionaries has lately gone amongst the Karens, a singular race of men, inhabiting the country to the eastward of Maulamaing, many of whom have, within two years past, embraced Christianity. The object of this visit, besides the common one of making known the gospel, is the establishment of schools. During the past year, a Tract and Spelling Book has been printed in the Karen language. The characters of the language were prepared by the Rev. Mr. Wade, who has lately been compelled by ill health to leave the missionary field and return to America.

From the press at Maulamaing has been published also, a Tract in the Talaing language, during the past year.

The types used in printing the Karen and Talaing languages, so far as they differ from the Burmese, were prepared at the seat of the Mission in Maulamaing; from matrices executed at the Baptist Mission Press, Calcutta.

By a letter from Singapore, we learn that the Rev. Mr. and Mrs. Jones, formerly attached to the Mission at Maulamaing, had arrived at that place on their way towards Bangkok, in Siam, where it is Mr. Jones's intention to establish himself as a Missionary.

While attempts are thus being made by the American Missionaries to carry the lamp of truth to one portion of the benighted Empire of Burmah, the Serampore Missionaries are engaged in the same benevolent operations in behalf of Arracan. They have lately commenced a re-print of Mr. Judson's translation of the New Testament in the Burmese language, for the use of the Arracanees, having already printed many tracts and some of the Gospels and Epistles, and distributed them, by their agents, throughout a great part of the territory of Arracan.

In reference to the Roman Catholic Missionaries in India, the Select Committee of Parliament thus report in 1832:—

The failure of Roman Catholic Missionaries is acknowledged by themselves, and attested by other witnesses; while the progress of the Protestants appears to be daily becoming more successful. Their judicious plan is to establish schools, which they have effected both in the North and South of India. The number of scholars in Bengal alone amounts to about 50,000.

I am here tempted to subjoin the following extract from the lamented Bishop Heber's primary diocesan charge at Calcutta, which I brought with me from Bengal, and which has not before, I believe, been published in Europe; never was the duty of an Indian clergyman more piously, more eloquently, pourtrayed than by that amiable and talented divine, whose memory every well wisher of India must cherish with respect:

The Indian chaplain must not anticipate the same cheering circumstances which

make the house of the English parochial minister a school and temple of religion, and his morning and evening walk a source of blessing and blessedness. His servants will be of a different creed from himself, and insensible, in too many instances, to his example, his exhortations, and his prayers. His intercourse will not be with the happy and harmless peasant, but with the dissipated, the diseased, and often, the demoralized soldier. His feet will not be found at the wicker gate of the well known cottage; beneath the venerable tree; in the grey church-porch, or by the side of the hop-ground and the corn-field; but he must kneel by the bed of infection or despair, in the barrack, the prison, or the hospital.

But to the well-tempered, the well-educated, the diligent and pious clergyman, who can endear himself to the poor without vulgarity, and to the rich without involving himself in their vices; who can reprove sin without harshness, and comfort penitence without undue indulgence; who delights in his Master's work, even when divested of those outward circumstances which in our own country contribute to render that work picturesque and interesting; who feels a pleasure in bringing men to God, proportioned to the extent of their previous wanderings; who can endure the coarse (perhaps fanatical) piety of the ignorant and vulgar, and listen with joy to the homely prayers of men long strangers to the power of religion; who can do this, without himself giving way to a vain enthusiasm; and whose good sense, sound knowledge and practical piety, can restrain and reclaim the enthusiasm of others to the due limits of reason and scripture; to him, above all, who can give his few leisure hours to fields of usefulness beyond his immediate duty, and who, without neglecting the European penitent, can aspire to the further extension of Christ's kingdom among the heathen;—to such a man as Martyn was, and as some still are, (whom may the Lord of the harvest long continue to his church) I can promise no common usefulness and enjoyment in the situation of an Indian Chaplain.

I can promise him, in any station to which he may be assigned, an educated society, and an audience peculiarly qualified to exercise and strengthen his powers of argument and eloquence. I can promise him, generally speaking, the favour of his superiors, the friendship of his equals, and affection, strong as death, from those whose wanderings he corrects, whose distresses he consoles, and by whose sick and dying bed he stands as a ministering angel! Are further inducements needful? I yet can promise more. I can promise to such a man the esteem, the regard, the veneration of the surrounding Gentiles; the consolation, at least, of having removed from their minds, by his blameless life and winning manners, some of the most inveterate and most injurious prejudices which oppose, with them, the reception of the Gospel; and the honour, it may be, (of which examples are not wanting among you) of planting the cross of Christ in the wilderness of a heathen heart, and extending the frontiers of the visible church amid the hills of darkness, and the strongholds of error and idolatry.

It would be impossible to close this chapter on Christianity in India without referring to the translations of the sacred Scriptures into the several languages written and spoken on the peninsula of Hindoostan. The late Dr. W.

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Carey, of Serampore, was the most distinguished labourer in this field, the surprising extent of whose labours I will give on the authority of a memoir of this eminent missionary and philologist, by Mr. Fisher;* to which I may also refer for some interesting particulars of Dr. Carey's life and labours.

'The versions of the Sacred Scriptures which have issued from the Serampore press, and in the preparation of which Dr. Carey took an active and laborious part, are numerous. They are in the following languages:—Sungskrit, Hindee, Brij-Bhassa, Mahratta, Bengalee, Orissa or Ooriya, Telinga, Kurnata, Maldivian, Gujurrattee, Buloshee, Pushtoo, Punjabee or Shekh, Kashmeer, Assam, Burman, Pali or Magudha, Tamul, Cingalese, Armenian, Malay, Hindosthancee, and Persian; to which must be added the Chinese. Dr. Carey lived to see the Sacred Text, chiefly by his instrumentality, translated into the vernacular dialects of more than 40 different tribes, and thus made accessible to nearly 200,000,000 of human beings, exclusive of the Chinese Empire, in which the labours of the Serampore Missionaries have been in some measure superseded by those of Dr. Morrison.'

In addition to the versions of the sacred Scriptures in the languages of India, published by Dr. Carey, translations of the Old and New Testaments in the following languages have been completed by Missionaries sent out by the London Society:—

In the *Telinga* or *Teloogoo*, by Messrs. Cran, Des Granges, Pritchett, Gordon, and Howell, between 1812 and 1834.

In the *Canarese*, by Messrs. Reeve and Hands, between 1818 and 1832.

In the *Mahratta*, by Messrs. Wall and Newell.

* See 'Gentleman's Magazine,' May, 1835. The following is the account of Dr. Carey's philological works, from the same authority:

'The Mahratta Grammar was his first work, and was followed by a Sungskrit Grammar, 4to. in 1806; a Mahratta Dictionary, 8vo. in 1810; a Punjabee Grammar, 8vo. in 1812; a Telinga Grammar, 8vo. in 1814; also between the years 1806 and 1810 he published the Raymayana, in the original text, carefully collated with the most authentic MSS. in three volumes, 4to. His philological works of a later date are a Bengalee Dictionary, in three volumes, 4to. 1818, of which a second edition was published in 1825, and another in 8vo. in 1827-1830; a Bhotanta Dictionary, 4to. 1826; also a Grammar of the same language, edited by him and Dr. Marsham. He had also prepared a Dictionary of the Sungskrit, which was nearly completed, when a fire broke out in Serampore, and burnt down the printing office, destroying the impression together with the copy, and other property.'

In the *Goojurattee*, by Messrs. Skinner and Fyvie, between 1820 and 1832.

In the *Hinduwee* and *Urdee*, some books of the Old Testament, by Mr. Robertson.

Of many of these versions of the Scriptures very large editions have been printed and circulated; and it is impossible at the present moment fully to estimate the extent to which they may subserve that great Missionary enterprise, the evangelization of India.

SLAVERY IN BRITISH INDIA.

For the last forty years the E. I. Company's government have been gradually, but safely abolishing slavery throughout their dominions; they began in 1789* with putting down the maritime traffic, by prosecuting any person caught in exporting or importing slaves by sea, long before the British government abolished that infernal commerce in the western world, and they have ever since sedulously sought the final extinction of that domestic servitude which for ages has existed throughout the East, as recognized by the Hindoo and Mahomedan law. Mr. Robertson, in reference to Cawnpore observes:†—

'Domestic slavery exists; but of an agricultural slave I do not recollect a single instance. When I speak of *domestic* slavery, I mean that *status* which I must call slavery for want of any more accurate designation. It does not, however, resemble that which is understood in Europe to be slavery; it is the mildest species of servitude.

The domestic slaves are certain persons purchased in times of scarcity; children purchased from their parents:

* In their despatches of this date, it was termed an '*inhuman commerce and cruel traffic*;' and French, Dutch, or Danish subjects captured within the limits of their dominions in the act of purchasing or conveying slaves, were imprisoned and heavily fined, and every encouragement was given to their civil and military servants to aid in protecting the first rights of humanity.

† Lords' Evidence, 1687.

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they grow up in the family, and are almost entirely employed in domestic offices in the house; not liable to be resold. There is a certain species of slavery in South Bahar, where a man mortgages his labour for a certain sum of money; and this species of slavery exists also in Arracan and Ava. It is for his life, or until he shall pay the sum, that he is obliged to labour for the person who lends him the money; and if he can repay the sum, he emancipates himself.

Masters have no power of punishment recognized by our laws. Whatever may be the provision of the Mohamedan or Hindoo codes to that effect, it is a dead letter; for we would not recognize it. The master doubtless may sometimes inflict domestic punishment; but if he does, the slave rarely thinks of complaining of it. Were he to do so, his complaint would be received. This, in fact, is the palladium of liberty in England.

In Malabar, according to the evidence of Mr. Baber, slavery as mentioned by Mr. Robertson also exists, and perhaps the same is the case in Guzerat and to the N.; but the wonder is not that such is the case but that it is so partial in extent and fortunately so mild in character, approximating indeed so much towards the feudal state as to be almost beyond the reach as well as the necessity of laws which at present would be practically inoperative. The fact that of 100,000,000 British inhabitants or allowing five to a family, 20,000,000 families, upwards of 16,000,000 are landed proprietors, shews to what a confined extent even domestic slavery exists. A Commission has been appointed by the New Charter to enquire into this important but delicate subject.

STATE OF CRIME IN BRITISH INDIA.

Intimately connected with the Press and education of a people is the state of crime in a country; the judicial establishment of India has been detailed in the 4th Chapter, and here it will only be necessary to refer to some statistics of crime; the official returns on the subject are few, not to the

was a decrease during the first period of one hundred and twenty-four, and comparing the two last with the two first years, after an interval of ten years, the difference will be more strikingly observed:—

In 1816 and 1817, death sentences	number 229
In 1826 and 1827, ditto ditto	122
Decrease on two years	107

If we place the death-sentences in juxta-position with those in England, notwithstanding, as the note will explain, the advantages in favour of England, independent of the population in one country being 60,000,000, in the other scarcely one-fifth of the number, we shall observe yet more the improved state of Indian morality and jurisprudence.

Number of Death-Sentences in England and in India for Five Years.

Years.	In England. Population 12,000,000.	In Bengal. Population 60,000,000.
1823 - - - -	968	77
1824 - - - -	1,066	51
1825 - - - -	1,036	66
1826 - - - -	1,203	67
1827 - - - -	1,529	55
Total in both Countries -	5,802	316

Thus, while those of India decreased twenty-two between the first and last year, those of England increased five hundred and sixty-one!

stances intervene. The decrease shows, therefore, an actual decrease in crime; not, as would be the case in England, only a decrease of the nominal severity of the law, which in fact is actually taking place from year to year, not only by means of legislative enactments, but also by the unwillingness of jurors to find judgments involving death; yet, notwithstanding these favourable circumstances in a comparison of India with England, the amount of capital convictions is still on the increase in the latter country.

Official returns of English crime come down to 1832, and the following is a comparison for twelve years:—

DEATH SENTENCES IN ENGLAND AND WALES FOR TWELVE YEARS.

From 1811 to 1816	No. 3,181
From 1827 to 1832	8,194
Increase on six years	No. 5,013

It is terrible to witness such trifling with human life and human feeling as the English returns exhibit; the man who steals a lamb, as well as he who murders the shepherd—he who forges a bank note, as well as he that slays a Bank Director—the impoverished wretch whose necessities or recklessness robs me of my purse, and the miscreant who wantonly takes the life of his sovereign, are equally subjected to the severest doom which earthly vengeance can inflict; or, on the other hand, a premium is held out for crime by the uncertainty of its punishment. A thief reasons thus: ‘If I commit this crime, I merely run the chance of being discovered; if that chance fail me, I have another in the law, a flaw in the indictment or so;* and if the second hazard turn up against me and I am sentenced to death, I have a third cast for life, as not more than one in eighteen are executed,† and I may perhaps be one of the seventeen who escape; should I be the unlucky one, why then fate willed it so, and it must be so.’ Thus the commission of a crime is made, by the very uncertainty of the laws, to depend on a cast of the die, or the twirl of a tee-totum; and this is what is called justice to society and criminal jurisprudence,

* From 1824 to 1830, there were in England—

Convictions	number 80,882
Acquittals	22,330
No Bills found	12,387

Thus the number of acquittals and no bills found were nearly equal in number to half the convictions; such is the glorious uncertainty of the law!

† In the seven years ending with 1828, the death sentences in England and Wales were 7,980, of whom 456 were executed!

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in this enlightened country and enlightened age! Far better were it to adopt the Draconian code in its full spirit, and let the pickpocket be decapitated by the side of the murderer.*

What is the avowed object of capital punishments? The prevention of crime alone; for all hopes of the reformation of the offender is cut off, by man impiously daring to disobey the command of his Creator, who emphatically declared, 'As I live,' saith the Lord God, 'I desire not the death of a sinner, but rather that he should turn from his wickedness and live;' yet men—Englishmen—calling themselves Christians, make a mockery of their professions by spilling the blood of the divine image, when acting on the inhuman Jewish code, which declares (as all savage or pagan nations do) 'an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth.' The declaration of the Almighty, that 'he who liveth by the sword shall perish by the sword,'† gave no authority to man to be the executioner of that decree; the fulfilment of it rested with the Omnipotent Being, in whose hands are the scales of judgment. But, says my Lord Brougham, man may take away the life of his fellows if it be conducive to the good of society: I deny the abstract right, for earthly creatures possess none but what are in unison with the laws of God, which are based on the eternal and immutable principles of justice; and as to any conventional right, it should first be proved that the destruction of life was necessary to the prevention of crime.‡

* Sir Robert Peel's 'amended' forgery bill contained thirty-five death-punishments.

† Judge Park says, in passing sentence on Cook the murderer, 'Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed;' but does this precept give any legal authority to man? Is it not merely a confirmation of the decree, that those who live by violence shall perish by violence? The divine precept is clearly, that 'man should turn from his wickedness and live.' If the execution of Cook would prevent another individual from committing murder, then there might be some worldly excuse; but there would be no decree from Heaven.

‡ In Russia, capital punishment was abolished with the most beneficial consequences. In France, after the revolution, 115 capital offences were reduced to fewer than 20, with the usual results; even in monkish Por-

It is well known that in proportion to the severity and uncertainty of the laws, offences against person or property are in an inverse ratio. In Tuscany, when capital punishments were abolished *in toto*, crime decreased;* but in Rome, where executions daily occurred, crime increased: Spain, with more capital punishments by law has more capital offences than any country in Europe; Majorca, under the same political government, but with milder punishments, few crimes being capital by law, has comparatively fewer offences; † Ireland, with more severe criminal laws than England, is even more rife with bloody deeds ‡ than the latter country, which in its turn is yet more so than France, and France still more so than America, where few offences are subject to the deprivation of life. In Prussia capital punishments have been

tugal the light of truth has penetrated with some success; the results in the United States are well known, and the profound as well as eloquent writings of Sydney Taylor demonstrate what a wide field of improvement is open for England to cultivate.

* In a French work on Italy, published in 1793, I find the following confirmation of this statement, which has recently been doubted. The writer, in speaking of Leopold, Prince of Tuscany, thus continues:—'Il est occupé d'une réforme entière de sa législation. Il a vu une lumière nouvelle dans quelques livres de la France; il se hâte de la faire passer dans les lois de Florence. Il a commencé par simplifier les lois civiles, et par adoucir les lois criminelles. *Il y a dix ans que le sang n'a coulé en Toscane sur un échafaud. La liberté seule est bannie des prisons: le grand duc les a remplies de justice et d'humanité.*

'*Cet adoucissement des lois a adouci les mœurs publiques; les crimes graves deviennent rares depuis que les peines atroces sont abolies: les prisons de la Toscane ont été vides pendant trois mois!!!*'

† Westminster Review for July, 1832.

‡ In seven years in Ireland, ending with 1828, the number of persons accused of murder were 2,604! But such is the repugnance of the people to come forward as evidence, that out of the whole number of criminals, but 224 were sentenced to death, and 155 executed. This is the state of the law in a country where the pitch cap, the triangle, and the gallows have superseded mildness, conciliation, and justice. The proportion of crime in 1831 to the number of inhabitants has been in Dublin, 1 in 96; in Edinburgh, where capital punishments are far less frequent, 1 in 540; in London and Middlesex, which stands between both, the proportion has been 1 in 400; and in Cardigan, where a capital punishment is a very rare event, the proportion of commitments to the population is only 1 to 4920.

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much lessened, with the usual beneficial results;* as has also been the case in Norway,† Brunswick,‡ and Belgium.§ Thus

* In Prussia, with an average population of 12,000,000, the executions have been comparatively unfrequent. In the 17 years from 1818 to 1834 (inclusive), there have been in all 123 executions, and the crimes for which they took place are as follows:—arson, 1; voluntary manslaughter, 22; murder, 100. The one execution for arson took place in 1818, since which time, consequently, the punishment of death has been inflicted only for intentional homicide of different degrees. Even for murder, the sentence is nearly as often commuted as executed. In the whole 17 years, there were sentenced to death for murder 187, of whom 100 only were executed.

With reference to the great diminution in severity of late years:—

In the first three years, 1818, 1819, 1820, there were executed 24.

In the last three years, 1832, 1833, 1834, there were executed 6; 2 in each year.

Murder.—Five years, ending 1824—capitally convicted 69, executed 47; or 68-100.

Five years, ending 1829—capitally convicted 50, executed 26; or 51-100.

Five years, ending 1834—capitally convicted 43, executed 16; or 37-100.

Here there is a diminution of executions in each of the two last periods, and at the same time a diminution of crime. If we compare the two extreme periods, we find one-third *less* crime in the last with 16 executions, than in the first with 47 executions.

† A code of penal law has been prepared by a commission in Norway. It was published in 1834, and has been translated into German. By it the only crimes punished capitally are murder, high treason, robbery where the person robbed dies in consequence of the injuries he has received, and arson where some person has lost his life by the fire.

‡ In the Duchy of Brunswick there was no execution during the reign of Charles William, which lasted from 1780 to 1806; and in a criminal code which has been prepared for Brunswick by Strombeck, an eminent lawyer of that Duchy, no capital punishment is retained.

§ Punishment of death in Belgium:—

Periods.	Total executed for various Crimes.	Capital Convictions.*	
		Murder.	Other capital crimes.
5 Years ending with 1804	235	150	203
5 1809	88	82	70
5 1814	71	64	40
5 1819	36	48	39
5 1824	23	38	33
5 1829	22	34	40
5 1834	None	20	23

* In the last three years twenty-two were sentenced to death for murder, of whom only four were executed.

it is evident that undue severity, when combined with uncertainty, tends exceedingly to increase crime, while it is but a burlesque on religion to make the scaffold a stepping stone to heaven; to make the twenty-four hours intervening between the sentence and execution of the culprit an expiatory period for a long life of guilt.

These remarks are scarcely made with the hope that they will be attended to in England, where the voice of reason as well as of humanity has been almost raised in vain; but if they should be the means of encouraging the judges of the E. I. Company's provinces in the almost holy path they have pursued; or if they should assist in rescuing one individual, whether carved in ebony or in ivory,* from death; or if they should even stimulate others to examine the truth of the doctrine laid down, the aim of the writer will have been accomplished.

Let us now proceed with the Bengal statistics of crime. The last table gave the returns of the Court of Nizamut Adawlut; the following are those of the Courts of Circuit, specifying the nature of the crimes:

No. 1.—Sentences for Offences against the Person, passed by the Courts of Circuit in Bengal, at Two Periods.			No. 2.—Sentences for Offences against Property, passed by the Courts of Circuit in Bengal, at Two Periods.		
Offences.	Number of Persons sentenced.		Offences.	Number of Persons sentenced.	
	1823 to 1824.	1825 to 1827.		1823 to 1824.	1825 to 1827.
Adultery	51	20	Arson	66	47
Assault	1,917	1,126	Burglary	1,195	1,050
Assault	213	174	Cattle stealing	55	31
Man-slaughter	491	250	Child stealing	107	57
Rape	2	2	Counterfeiting and uttering counterfeit coin ..	47	21
Shooting, wounding, or poisoning	261	199	Embezzlement	108	49
Sodomy	5	6	Forgery and uttering ..	71	60
Felony & Misdemeanour	109	107	Larceny	491	323
Perjury	147	66			
Total ..	3,196	1,960	Total ..	2,179	1,624
Sentences of the first period..	No. 3,196		Sentences of the first period..	No. 2,179	
Ditto of the second do.....	1,960		Ditto of the last do.....	1,624	
Decrease of crime..	No. 1,236		Decrease of crime..	No. 646	

* Sir R. Rice, in his evidence before the Lords in 1830, says, that among a population of 150,000 persons in Bombay, during three years, there was but one execution, and that was of an English sergeant.

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This is a very great decrease on two years, and in looking at the years preceding those given in the first table, the diminution is yet more gratifying to behold. For instance, adulteries were, from 1816 to 1818, in number 95; felony and misdemeanour, in the same years, 376; shewing a decrease on the former of 75 cases; and on the latter of 269. In the second table there is also a marked improvement in the country.

Burglary.		Cattle Stealing.	
In 1816 to 1818	- No. 2,853	In 1816 to 1818	- No. 203
1825 to 1827	- - 1,036	1825 to 1827	- - 31
	<u>Decrease No. 1,817</u>		<u>Decrease No. 172</u>
Embezzlement.		Larceny.	
In 1816 to 1818	- No. 150	In 1816 to 1818	- No. 1,516
1825 to 1827	- - 49	1825 to 1827	- - 223
	<u>Decrease No. 101</u>		<u>Decrease No. 1,293</u>

But if the foregoing Circuit Court returns be refreshing to humanity, those of the magistrates' courts for the Lower and Western provinces of Bengal are much more so, for the decrease of crime is yet more extraordinary, whether as regards offences arising from revenge, from destitution, from blood-thirstiness, or from immorality. The following shews the sentences of two years; if we had them of a more recent date, I am convinced we should observe a still great diminution.*

* The evidence of Mr. Mangles (Lords, 4th March, 1830), is confirmatory of this assumption in reference to the very great diminution in the number of crimes. 'Q. Can you state in what proportion the number of crimes has diminished? A. I think in the Lower Provinces the average of dacoities of late years is about as one and a fraction to seven, as compared with the state of things 25 or 30 years ago.' Mr. Mangles adds, 'in the district of Kishnagur, formerly most notorious for dacoities, that crime has decreased, from an average in former years of 250 or 300, to 18 or 20!'

Comparative Statement of Offences against Property and against the Person, on which the Magistrates passed Sentence in the Lower and Western Provinces of Bengal, during the Years 1826 and 1827.

Crimes.	Number Sentenced.		Decrease of Crime.	
	1826	1827		
Against property.	Arson - - - -	154	31	123
	Burglary - - - -	2,433	1,995	438
	Frauds and other offences	6,161	3,302	2,859
	Larceny - - - -	8,301	7,927	374
	Plundering - - - -	768	97	671
Total - - No.	17,817	13,352	4,465	
Against the person.	Assault and battery -	6,535	3,965	2,570
	Manslaughter - - -	44	11	33
	Riot - - - -	2,259	700	1,559
Total - -	8,838	4,676	4,162	
Various offences.	Bribery - - - -	289	70	219
	Escape from custody -	149	72	77
	False complaint - - -	1,728	652	1,076
	Neglect of duty - - -	10,332	6,652	3,680
	Perjury - - - -	178	41	137
	Resistance of process -	1,010	533	477
	Vagrancy - - - -	183	55	128
Total - - No.	13,869	8,075	5,794	

Decrease of offences against property in one year No. 4,465
 Decrease of do. against persons in do. - 4,162
 Decrease of various other offences in do. - 5,794

Total decrease of crime in one year - 14,421

In arson, burglary, fraud, larceny, bloodshed, bribery, perjury, &c. we see a rapid decrease, amounting altogether in one year to upwards of 14,000!

In India, offences decreased one-half in one year; in England they increased in five years at the enormous rate of upwards of a 1,000 per annum! When commencing these tables, I have shewn the number of persons sentenced to death and transportation, or imprisoned for life, by the Nizamut Adawlut: exile or incarceration sentences for seven years have thus decreased before this court:—

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SENTENCES OF SEVEN YEARS' TRANSPORTATION OR IMPRISONMENT, by the NIZAMUT ADAWLUT.

In 1825	-	-	-	-	number 334
1826	-	-	-	-	137
1827	-	-	-	-	65

A decrease, after one year's interval, of 269 sentences.

Another method exists for testing the efficacy of the police and of the laws, which is by looking at the returns of the higher classes of crime, whether murder or robbery with violence; I have, therefore, prepared this table to exhibit the result of the two periods of two years each, and I would fain indulge the hope that the view these tables, one and all, exhibit, will have some effect in England, by leading those who have heretofore opposed the abolition of capital punishment, to reflect seriously on the consequences of their perverseness. In the execution of the laws there ought to be no such hopes held out as those of clemency; the strictest justice is the greatest mercy, not only to the unfortunate individual but to society.

State of Crime in the Lower and Western Provinces of Bengal, at Two Periods of Two Years each.

Crimes.	Lower Provinces : No. of Sentences.		Decrease of Crime.	Western Provinces : No. of Sentences.		Decrease of Crime.	Total Decrease in Lower and Western Pro- vinces.
	1824 and 1826.	1827 and 1828.		1824 and 1826.	1827 and 1828.		
Depredations with murder	165	96	69	460	271	189	268
Ditto with torture or wounding	283	194	89	901	512	389	478
Ditto with open violence, but without personal injury	336	221	109	83	34	49	158
Murder without depredation ..	355	196	159	311	255	56	218
Homicide not amounting to murder	302	246	55	311	185	126	181
Affrays, with loss of life	86	47	39	180	116	64	101
Totals....	1,325	1,008	318	2,246	1,373	871	1,394

Under a mild and equitable system, *murders* with and without depredation decreased 576 on two years! If this argument be not adverse to the bloodthirsty Mosaic code which England has so long followed, I know not what is.*

* The number of persons charged with shooting at, stabbing, and poisoning with intent to kill, in England, have thus lamentably increased. —

In 1826	number 47	1830	number 80
1827	82	1831	104
1828	72	1832	132
Totals	number 201		number 316

WESTERN PROVINCES; the number of murders without deprecation were—

In 1818 and 1820	-	number 496
1827 and 1828	-	255
Decrease	-	number 241

Under an eternal hanging system, would such a diminution have taken place?

Affrays with loss of life were,		Homicides.			
In 1821 and 1823	-	number 232	In 1818 and 1820	-	number 377
1827 and 1828	-	118	1827 and 1828	-	185
Decrease	-	number 114	Decrease	-	number 192

Depredations accompanied by torture and wounding—

In 1818 and 1820	-	number 1,000			
1827 and 1828	-	512			
Decrease	-	number 488			
In the Lower provinces the same offences were—		Depredations with open violence—			
In 1818 and 1820	-	number 319	In 1818 and 1820	-	number 545
1827 and 1828	-	194	1827 and 1828	-	221
Decrease	-	number 125	Decrease	-	number 324

Mr. Robertson gives, in his pamphlet on the Civil Government of India, published in 1829, several tables to shew the decrease of crime.

Gang-robberies were—		Wilful murders—			
In 1807	-	number 1,481	In 1807	-	number 406
1824	-	234	1824	-	30
Decrease	-	number 1,247	Decrease	-	number 376
Violent affrays—		Gang-robberies in the district of Kishnagar were—			
In 1807	-	number 482	In 1808	-	number 329
1824	-	33	1824	-	10
Decrease	-	number 449	Decrease	-	number 319

Let us, however, proceed to a closer analytical comparison of crime in England and in the Lower and Western provinces of Bengal, as exhibited in the following parliamentary table:

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Crime in England and Wales, Lower Bengal, and the Western Provinces. Sentenced to Death, Transportation, and Imprisonment for Life, in Six Years ending 1827; (the Population of England and Wales, 13,000,000; of Lower Bengal, 40,000,000; of the Western Provinces 20,000,000.)

Sentences.	Total Sentences and Executions from 1822 to 1827.		
	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death	6,815	168	198
Transportation or imprisonment for life }	892	465	415
Executions	377	168	198
Yearly Averages.			
Sentences.	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death	1,135 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	33
Transportation or imprisonment for life }	120 $\frac{1}{2}$	77 $\frac{1}{2}$	69 $\frac{1}{2}$
Executions	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	33
Yearly Averages in proportion to the Population.			
Sentences.	England and Wales.	Lower Provinces.	Western Provinces.
To death	1 in 11,445	1 in 1,428,571	1 in 606,060
Transportation or imprisonment for life }	1 in 108,033	1 in 516,129	1 in 289,159
Executions	1 in 206,897	1 in 1,428,571	1 in 606,060

While the executions in England are, in proportion to the population, one in 200,000, those in the Lower provinces of Bengal are not more than one in 1,500,000; and while all sentenced to death in India experienced the punishment awarded them, in England not the 1-18th of those sentenced to die suffered. Yet has crime augmented in the latter, and diminished in the former country.*

* In England, the condemnation to death for 21 years, from 1813 to 1833, are given as 23,700; executions, 933; giving 1,128 average annual

The number of committals in England and in Wales in six years, stand thus:—

1805 (females 1,338)	4,605	1830 (females) 2,972)	18,107
1806 (do. 1,226)	4,346	1831 (do. 3,047)	19,647
1807 (do. 1,287)	4,446	1832 (do. 3,343)	20,829
Total (females 3,851)	13,397	Total (females) 9,362)	58,583
Last period -	(females 9,362)	-	58,583
First period -	(do. 3,851)	-	13,397
Increased crime (females 5,511)		45,186	

These returns shew the committals in England and Wales to be, in proportion to the population, one in every 696 inhabitants. Great as this amount is, it has been exceeded during the past year. In the foregoing table England and Wales are included, but the proportion of crime in Wales bears no comparison to England; in the latest returns England and Wales are separated:—

COMMITTALS FOR CRIME 1830.*

In England	-	-	1 in 740 Inhabitants.
Wales	-	-	1 in 2,320 ditto.
Scotland	-	-	1 in 1,130 ditto.
Ireland	-	-	1 in 490 ditto.

Crime appears to be on the increase in Scotland, for a few years ago the proportion was rated as one in 5,093. But the state of morals must not be judged of in England by the number (740), for unfortunately in many places the proportions are less inclined to virtue's side.

It has been calculated that one-fifteenth of the population of the United Kingdom subsist by prostitution; one-fifteenth by swindling, robbery, and every species of crime; and five-fifteenths are what are denominated poor, living from hand to mouth. Such have been in a great measure the effect of an condemnations, and 44 executions; an enormous proportion when compared with those of France or Belgium. The medium executions in France, from 1825 to 1832, amounted to 67, or 1 for 477,000 souls; in England, from 1827 to 1833, to 44, or 1 for 295,000 souls; in Belgium, from 1815 to 1829, to 4, or 1 for 680,000.

* Eclectic Review.

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ensanguined code of laws, which some have had the infatuation to propose for adoption in India.* Let us compare crime in the Company's Bengal territories (the only place whence we have returns) with offences in England, in Ireland, and in France; with reference to the yearly averages, and the proportion to the population :

Averages of Sentences, and comparison with the Amount of Population, in England and Wales, in France, and in Bengal.

Averages of Sentences, and comparison with the Amount of Population, in England, &c.—continued.

Sentences.	Yearly Averages.				Proportion of Yearly Averages to Population.			
	England, 7 yrs.	Ireland, for 7 yrs.	France, 1 yr. (1829)	Bengal, for 4 yrs.	England : Population 20,000,000.	Ireland : Population 7 to 8,000,000.	France : Population 30,000,000.	Bengal : Population 60,000,000.
To death	1,232½	270	80	503	1 in 10,547	1 in 26,840	1 in 237,078	1 in 1004,182
Transportation or imprisonment for life	193½	553	373	149½	1 in 67,173	1 in 136,289	1 in 109,980	1 in 402,010
Do. for 7 years	379½	81	1,038	357½	1 in 48,610	1 in 86,419	1 in 29,041	1 in 167,669

The following extract from the Supreme Court's Reports of Calcutta, for February, 1833, adds a further gratifying instance of the decrease of crime in India.

	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
Number of offences	2,330	1,304	1,329	
Persons apprehended	3,556	1,256	2,023	
— convicted	625	675	718	
Property stolen	Rs. 1,36,383	1,23,714	62,981	
— recovered	4,854	33,823	6,793	

The preceding tables, as well as the facts stated in the foregoing pages, are the best criterion of the efficiency of the Company's Government, and the excellence of their criminal code; I question whether any country in Europe would present so rapid and so remarkable a diminution of crime as the Bengal tables demonstrate. It is to be regretted

* In seven years, ending with 1828, there have been in England the following executions:—93 for murder; 104 for burglary; 72 for highway robbery; 37 for horse-stealing; 31 for attempts to murder; 27 for rape, &c.; 23 for forgery; 12 for coining, and several others for various offences; the executions for crimes committed in the City of London and County of Middlesex, were in number 125. What a wanton effusion of human blood! Have any one of these crimes decreased? Not one—the very reverse; while those crimes in which death-punishments have been abolished nearly (sheep-stealing for instance), have actually decreased.

that we have not complete tables of all India, as also returns from all the British Colonies; I would therefore suggest, that extensive statistics of crime be prepared for the India-house and Colonial office, which would not only be most valuable in themselves, but also offer the best possible proof of the condition of the people subject to the authority of the E. I. Company and of the Crown.*

Before closing this Chapter, it may be advisable to glance at the *general condition of British India*, as stated by various authorities in and out of Parliament.

GENERAL CONDITION OR ASPECT OF BRITISH INDIA.

No man was better qualified from his acute powers of observation, or his extensive knowledge of other countries to form an opinion of our possessions in the East than Bishop Heber, who thus graphically dwells on this subject:—

Bishop Heber's View of the visible Improvement in Hindostan—
 'Southern Malwa from a mere wilderness is now a garden,' p. 74.
 'During the years of trouble, Malwa (except in the neighbourhood of fortified towns and among the most inaccessible mountains) was entirely depopulated. All the villagers hereabout had emigrated chiefly into Berar, Candeish, and the Deckan: and some had become servants and camp followers to the British army, till, within the last three or four years, they returned each man to his inheritance, on hearing that they might do so with safety.' p. 98. *Life of Bishop Heber.*

'Every where, making due allowances for the late great droughts and consequent scarcity, amounting almost to absolute famine, with its dreadful attendant evils of pestilence and the weakening of all moral ties; the country seems to thrive under its present system of Government. The burdens of the peasantry are decidedly less in amount and collected in a less oppressive manner, than under the old monarchy. The English

* It would be extremely desirable if the number of gaols in India and in the colonies, and the number of prisoners in each gaol, were specified, as also the mode of employing the prisoners, and the general effects of prison discipline. There can be no doubt that the public exposure of criminals in road gangs not only hardens the offender, but takes away, in a great measure the dread of punishment from those inclined to crime, as witnessed by me in New South Wales.

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name is therefore popular with all, but those who are inevitably great losers by our coming—the courtiers of the Peishwa, such of the traders as lived by the splendor of his Court, and probably, though this does not appear, the Brahmmins;’ p. 211.

‘ Though our influence has not done the good which might be desired or expected in Central India, that which has been done, is really considerable. Except from the poor Bheels, and from the few gangs of marauders which still lurk in different parts of the country, that country is now at peace; and how slight are these dangers, and how easy to be borne are the oppressions of the native rajas, in comparison with the annual swarm of Pindarie horsemen, who robbed, burned, ravished, enslaved, tortured, and murdered over the whole extent of territories from the Runn to the Bay of Bengal? While their inroads are remembered, to say nothing of Jeswunt Rao, Holkar, and Ameer Khân, the coming of the English cannot but be considered as a blessing; and I only hope, that we may not destroy the reverence and awful regard, with which our nation is still looked up to here; vol. 2, p. 74.

‘ The country people seem content and thriving;’ p. 114.

The Bishop and Archdeacon Corrie, (who has been in India nearly 40 years) give the following description of the country traversed during a visitation:—

Sept. 15.—‘ We passed Mirzapoor, the size and apparent opulence of which surprised me, as it is a place of no ancient importance or renown, has grown up completely since the English power has been established here; and under our government, is only an inferior civil station, with a few native troops. It is, however, a very great town, as large, I should think, as Patna, with many handsome native houses, and a vast number of mosques and temples, numerous and elegant bungalows in its outskirts; and on the opposite side of the river, a great number of boats of all kinds, moored at its ghâts, and is computed to contain between two and three hundred thousand people.

‘ This is indeed a most rich and striking land. Here, in the space of little more than two hundred miles, along the same river, I have passed six towns, none of them less populous than Chester,—two (Patna and Mirzapoor), more so than Birmingham; and one, Benares, more peopled than any city in Europe, except London or Paris! And this, besides villages innumerable. I observed to Mr. Corrie, that I had expected to find agriculture in Hindostan in a flourishing state, but the great cities ruined in consequence of the ruin of the Mussulman nobles. He answered, that certainly very many ancient families had gone to decay, but he did not think the gap had been ever perceptible in his time, in this part of India, since it had been more filled up by a new order rising from the middling

classes, whose wealth had, during his recollection, increased very greatly. Far indeed from those cities which we had already passed decaying, most of them had much increased in the number of their houses; and in what is a sure sign of wealth in India, the number and neatness of their ghâts and temples since he was last here. Nothing, he said, was plainer to him, from the multitude of little improvements of this kind, of small temples and bungalows, partly in the Européan style, but obviously inhabited by natives, that wealth was becoming more abundant among the middling ranks; and that such of them as are rich, are not afraid of appearing so. The great cities in the Doab, he said, were indeed scenes of desolation. The whole country round Delhi and Agra, when he first saw it, was filled with the marbled ruins of nullas, mosques and palaces, with the fragments of tanks and canals, and the vestiges of inclosures. But this ruin had occurred before the British arms had extended thus far, and while the country was under the tyranny and never ending invasions of the Persians, Affghans and Mahrattas. Even here a great improvement had taken place before he left Agra, and he hoped to find a much greater on his return. He apprehended that on the whole, all India had gained under British rule, except, perhaps, Dacca and its neighbourhood, where the manufactures had been nearly ruined; p. 314.

In another place the lamented Heber says—

‘One of the strongest proofs that I have met with of the satisfaction of the Hindoos with their rulers was the mutual felicitations which the archdeacon overheard between two villagers near Cawnpore, and which was not intended for his ear. ‘A good rain this for the bread’ said one of the villagers to another; ‘yes,’ was the answer, ‘and a good government under which a man may eat his bread in safety.’

But Bishop Heber is not the only testimony on which the shadows of partiality cannot be cast; Major General Sir Lionel Smith, K.C.B., an old king’s officer who visited various parts of India, resided there a great number of years, and describes himself as very partial to the natives, says—

‘I should say the condition of the people had been highly ameliorated by the government since the conquest.’ (5532).—‘Do not you think the people are better protected, and that they pay less than under the native government? A. Yes; the government in several bad years made remissions to them in the amount of the taxes.’ (5508).

Mr. Robertsor, in his interesting remarks on the civil government of India, thus alludes to the condition of the people, and the cultivation of the country—

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' I have never served in the Benares province, but of Behar I can speak with confidence as being cultivated to an extent that, in many places, hardly leaves room for carriage roads. The people do not generally bear any marks of poverty.

' I have, as magistrate of Patna, often been surprised at the readiness with which fines of twenty or thirty rupees, commutable into only one month's imprisonment, have been paid by common villagers; and my own belief is, that the labouring peasantry of that province are, with reference to the climate and their wants, fully as well off as the peasantry of England, certainly beyond all comparison, in a better condition than the same class in Ireland, and in many parts of Scotland.'

Mr. Harris, an extensive indigo planter, in speaking of the condition of the peasantry during the years when they fell under his observation, from 1808 to 1822, says—' their condition was greatly improved latterly, from the time I first went there, to the time I came away; their houses were better, and their condition greatly improved,' (Lords, 4288).—' The whole country (the district of Tipperah) is cultivated like a garden, there is not a spot of ground where they could feed a bullock, scarcely,' (4279).

W. Malcolm Fleming, an Indian judge, was asked (Lords, 1141):—' Did the country improve during the time you were acquainted with it?—Very much. Both in population and in wealth?—Yes. Did it appear to you that there was more agricultural capital in the country when you left it than when you went to it?—Yes; certainly, much more. Was there more applied to the cultivation of land!—Yes. Was there more applied to manufactures or trade?—I do not think that there was; but there was a great deal more land brought into cultivation. Did the people appear to you more comfortable than when you first knew it?—Much more so.

Mr. Christian described the whole country to be improved, and, with reference to the Upper Provinces, particularly stated, that ' cultivation has extended very considerably,' (Lords, 905).

Mr. R. D. Mangles, says:—The incomes of the proprietors of land in the Lower Provinces, taken on the average, are equal to the Government revenue; all agricultural produce

has risen very considerably, and the extension of cultivation is very great. (Lords, p. 59).

Mr. Sullivan describes the 'progress of population, increase of stock, improvements in agriculture, and the creation of capital employed in different works in Coimbatour,' (Commons, 679).

Mr. Rickards admits the efforts of the Government for the encouragement of agriculture,' (2,809).

Mr. Fortescue describes the 'population of the Delhi territory as rapidly increasing,' (Lords, 459); and, in another place, thus depicts the blessings which have resulted from the occupation of the country by Great Britain. Did the people appear to be satisfied with the administration of justice?—I do think they were particularly so. Has the revenue increased in that country of late years, since we first got possession of it?—Extremely; almost beyond calculation. And the population?—Yes; and the population also. When we took possession there were about 600 deserted villages; when I came away, there were about 400 of them that had been re-peopled again, chiefly by the descendants of those who had a proprietary right in those villages, and this in consequence of our administration. (March, 1830, Lords).

While on the subject of deserted villages, I cannot help directing the reader's attention to an Appendix in the late Sir John Malcolm's Central India, in which will be found detailed accounts of the villages restored, or rather recovered from the tigers and wild animals, who were their so-called inmates. The total of khalsa, or Government villages re-peopled in Holkar's country, were:—In 1818, no. 269; 1819, 343; 1820, 508: leaving of villages uninhabited, but since peopled, 543.

In Dhar, the restoration of villages were:—In 1818, no. 28; 1819, 68; 1820, 52: leaving then uninhabited, 217.

In Dewas, villages restored:—In 1818, no. 35; 1819, 106: leaving then uninhabited, 141.

In the Bhopal, the restorations were:—In 1817, no. 965; 1818, 302; 1819, 249; 1820, 267: leaving untenanted, 813.

In many places not only were hundreds of villages left roof-

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less, but the wretched inhabitants, when returning to them on the establishment of our sway, were devoured by the numerous tigers that overran the country. Capt. Ambrose despatched to his superior authority in 1818, a list of the people killed by these ferocious animals in one district within the year, amounting to 86! The names of the individuals and the villages they belonged to, were stated in the return; Sir John Malcolm says, an intelligent native gave the number of men killed by the tigers, in 1818, at 150; in consequence of the exertions of Government, much fewer lost their lives in 1819, and in 1820 scarcely any. In several other parts of India also, on the restoration of tranquillity, the tigers disputed with the returning peasantry for the possession of the villages. Such is the country which, within 10 or 12 years, has been reclaimed from the lair of wild beasts, and re-peopled by men.

Enough has been said to shew the present state of India; a few words as to its condition under the native princes may not be amiss, although the fearful details at the conclusion of the first chapter sufficiently illustrate the unfortunate situation of its inhabitants. Colonel Brigg's thus describes the state of Candeish:—

4018. Was it in a very unsettled state when you went there?—It was in a very unsettled state, and had been so for the last thirty years previous to our taking possession of the country. It had been overrun by bands of freebooters; I believe there were at different times about eighty distinct bodies, which had been in the habit of ravaging the country; this was the cause of its being very much depopulated. I think 1,100 out of, I believe, 2,700 villages, for I merely speak from recollection, were rendered *desolate altogether*: and those which remained were open to the pillages of a race of people denominated Bheels. These people are supposed by some to be the aborigines of the country; but they have been for a long period attached to villages as guardians or watchmen, with certain immunities in land and fees from the people themselves. The consequence of those ravages deprived the inhabitants of the means of supporting the Bheels, who went into the hills, and were in the habit of attacking the villages.

Of the Nagpore territories Mr. Jenkins thus speaks:—‘ I

had scarcely arrived at Nagpoor in 1807, before I saw the whole country in a blaze, and almost every village burning within a few miles of the city of Nagpoor, and this going on from year to year !' (Lords, 2,197).

Mr. Jenkins stated that the people were very well satisfied with the administration of justice while we had the country; their Lordships then enquired :—

2207. From your own observation, when you went there had you reason to believe that the people were satisfied with the native government?—*Far from it; for they had little protection from foreign invasion. The Pindarees were constantly ravaging the country; and the Rajah's troops, if they were sent to suppress them, plundered them; and the zemindars plundered the ryots in the districts immediately near them.*

Mr. Jenkins states, that during the eight or nine years that Nagpoor was under the controul of the Company, 12 or 14 additional banking-houses were established, the agricultural class to every appearance possessed more wealth, the expenditure of the Rajah was reduced, and an annual surplus of near five lacs of rupees created.

I might fill pages upon pages with testimony equally as conclusive as that of Colonel Briggs and Mr. Jenkins; I therefore pass on to notice an assertion, ' that the value of money in India has not undergone a visible change, and that as the money-prices of grain and other commodities, and the wages of labour, have undergone no change since the establishment of the British Government in India, we may conclude that the value of money has, throughout this period, been equally steady.*

The following table has been prepared by the statistical reporter at Bombay, Colonel Sykes, and laid before the Parliamentary Committee :—

* Rickard's India, Vol. 1, p. 598.

Comparison of the Wages of Artificers and other Public Servants, under the Peishwa's and British Governments in the Dukhein, in 1828 and 1814.

	Rupees	Under the British	Under the
		rule in 1828.	Peishwa's in 1814.
		Monthly Wages.	Monthly Wages.
Head Carpenter		25, 35, and 45	15, 20, 40
Common ditto		15	12
Two Sawyers		15 and 22½	8
Head Smith		25 and 30	20
Smith		15 and 22½	12
Head Armourer		30	20
File Man		15	12
Hammer Man		6, 8, and 13½	7
Head Leather Worker		15	12
Head Bricklayer		25 and 35	15 and 20
Tailor		9½	6
Chief of Dooly Bearers		15 and 20	
Groom*		8	5
Camel Man		7 and 9	5
Head of Palankeen Hamals		15	10

The Price of Grain, Pulse, and other Articles under the respective Administrations

	per Rupee	Under the British	Under the
		rule in 1828.	Peishwa's in 1814.
		Sers.	Sers.
Rice (Putnee)		16	12
Ditto (Ambeonor)		13	9½
Wheat		18	14
Joaree (Andropogon Sporzhum)		32	21
Bajree (Panicum spicatum)		28	17
Dhall (Cytisus Cajan)		16	11
Ghee (clarified butter)		2	1½

This table confirms the statements of the several authorities quoted as to the improved condition of the country; for if the price of food be augmented in the Dukhun (or Deckhan) and the rate of wages be simultaneously increased, there can be no stronger proof of prosperity, not only in that part of India referred to, but also in those parts which have been longer under the Government of the East India Company. Colonel Galloway, adverting to the 'increase of cultivation,

* Under the Peishwa's government, one man attended on two horses, and one man on two camels.

and the high price the husbandman now receives for the produce of his labour; (Law and Constitution of India, p. 198) says, 'I have in many parts of the ceded and conquered provinces seen grain selling at 25 seers* per rupee, where we were credibly informed by the natives that 120 seers were often, even generally procurable for that sum.' As regards Bengal, I made particular enquiry in 1880 on the subject; and the authority from whom I received the following statements, is Dwarkanaut Tagore, than whom no man in Bengal is better qualified to make them. The increase of wealth, throughout Bengal,† has been most rapid; notwithstanding the disadvantages under which the agriculturists labour, by the English markets being shut against their raw and manufactured produce, and the great number of artisans thrown out of employment by the introduction of piece goods, &c. from England; land purchased at Calcutta 30 years ago for 15 rupees, is now worth, and would readily sell for 300. Ten years ago a labourer in Calcutta received two rupees per month, now he is not satisfied with less than four or five rupees per month,‡ and there is even a scarcity of workmen; 12 field labourers were formerly to be had for less than one rupee a day, now half that number could not be had at that rate of wages. A cabinet-maker§ was glad to obtain eight rupees a month, for the exercise of his skill, now he readily obtains 16 or 20 rupees for the same period; I need not go through the other classes of handicraftsmen, or labourers, all have risen in a like proportion; and as to the price of food, it is sufficient to state one article as a cri-

* A seer is 2 lbs.

† Land is now worth 67 years' purchase of the revenue.

‡ Mr. Colebrook says, in 1804 in his Husbandry of Bengal, 'that a cultivator entertains a labourer for every plough, and pays him wages, on an average, one rupee per mensem, and in some districts, not half a rupee per mensem; this was at a period when not one third of the land of a zemindarry was cultivated, whereas now there is frequently not an acre on an estate untilled.'

§ The wages of a Hindoo carpenter at Calcutta may be estimated at 6d., of a Chinese at 2s., and of the lowest European, 6s. per day.

terion—rice, the staff of life in Bengal, was wont to be sold at eight annas (half a rupee) per maund (82lbs.), its price has increased four-fold, being now averaged at two rupees per maund. In fine, a new order of society has sprung into existence that was before unknown, the country being heretofore divided between the few nobles, in whose hands the wealth of the land was concentrated, and the bulk of the people, who were in a state of abject poverty; from the latter have arisen a middle rank which will form the connecting link between the Government and the mass of the nation. The advantages to be derived from this change are incalculable;—whenever such an order have been created, freedom and prosperity have followed in their train. Do we need example? Look at England after the Norman conquest, when the people were serfs, and the feudal Barons were the very counterparts of the India zemindars; but watch the progress of society up to the eighth Henry, when wealth became more equally diffused; and continue the view to the present day when the power of the middle ranks has become so paramount, by reason of the mass of wealth and intelligence concentrated in their ranks.

The country of the foaming Guadalquiver is a melancholy illustration of a nation possessing but two ranks of society, where the most beggarly Asturian, who can support a bare existence without mental or bodily labour, claims the rank of an Hidalgo, and strongly reminds one of the lazy proud 'Suwars,' so admirably delineated by Bishop Heber, in his highly interesting work. Look at Hungary and other places, where the peasantry are sold with the soil; in fact, in every country where there have been only two extremes of society, mental and bodily despotism have supervened. The East India Company's Government have broken through that curse,—they have annihilated a feudalism which has ever marked an age of barbarism. It is true, that society has been levelled; that the slavish dependence of the low, upon the high caste, has been severed; and millions of human beings are now, for the first time, learning to know their own

worth; to be conscious that, by industry, talent, and integrity, they may elevate themselves to the foremost rank of society, and 'redeemed, regenerated, and disenthralled,' the meanest Indian peasant may hurl defiance at any petty tyrant, who, from the insolence of office, alleged hereditary rights, or domineering Brahaminical priesthood, may still foolishly think to retain longer in subjection a submissive people, who had, alas! too long licked the dust of the earth.

In the language of Bishop Heber to the Supreme Government, in 1825.—'It is my earnest prayer to that good Providence, who has already made the mild and just, and stable Government of British functionaries productive of so much advantage to Hindoostan, that He would preserve and prosper an influence which has been hitherto so well employed,*

* The following is a very brief abstract of *some* of the roads and bridges constructed in India since the last renewal of the E. I. Company's Charter; the official document from which it is taken extends to ten times the length of the present statement:

BENGAL, 1812—road from Calcutta to Juggurnauth, upwards of 300 miles in length, with branches to the principal towns near which it passes.

1813—canal, between Ganges and Bugruttee rivers.

1814—military road from Calcutta to Benares, 500 miles, restored to its original width, repaired, bridges erected &c.; pukka road from Allahabad to Burdwan, 450 miles.

1815—erection of lighthouses at different places; building a bridge at Meerut; cutting a road 12 feet wide for beasts of burthen from Bumouree to Almorah, and cutting bridges.

1816—rebuilding the houses of the Botanical Garden; establishment of a native hospital at Patna; erection of a lighthouse at Kedgeroe.

1817—repair of an ancient aqueduct in the Deyra Doon; restoration of the Delhi canal; ditto in Goruckpore; construction of a new road at Mochucollah; erection of telegraphs between Calcutta and Nagpore, 733 miles; construction of a road from Tondah to Bumouree; completion of the new road from Patna to Gyah.

1818—eight bridges built for the entrances on the land side of the city of Delhi; a new road from Puttah Ghaut to Hurripaul; ditto between Patna and Shehargotty.

1819—construction of a chapel at Benares; extension as far as Ruderpore of the road constructed from Bumouree to Tondah in Kumaon, for the purpose of opening a communication between the Plains and Almorah; repairing the bridge over the Ramgunga, and constructing a new bridge over the Soorjoo rivers in Kumaon.

1820—formation of a botanica garden at Saharunpore; road from the Barrackpore to opposite Buddec Pantee.

1821—roads from Agra to Mhow *via* Lakheree and Mokundiah; Mhow to Delhi, by Neemutch and Nusseerabad; Aseerghur to Hussingabad, then to Mhow *via* Mundiasir, and to Nagpore *via* Berhampore and Ellich-

that He would eventually make our nation the dispenser of still greater blessings to our Asiatic brethren, and in his own

poor; Cawnpore to Saugor through Bundlecund, and thence to Nagpore by two routs, viz. by Jubblepore and by Hussingabad; Calcutta to Nagpore, through the Singboom country.

1822—canal to unite the Hooghly with the Ganges, through the salt-water Lake; survey and improvement of the port of Cuttack; a line of telegraphs from Fort William to Chunar; road from Chilkeah to Howel Baugh in Kumaoon, for facilitating the commerce between Tartary and the Plains.

1823—a canal to unite the Damrah and Churramunnee; re-opening of Feroze Shah's canal in Delhi, completed; restoration of Zabita Khan's canal in the Upper Doob; the course of all Murdher's canal, drawn into Delhi; erection of a splendid new mint at Calcutta, in progress.

1824—road between Nagpore and Ryepore; erection of a chapel at Dum Dum, another at Meerut, two churches at Cawnpore, a church at Dacca, an additional church at Calcutta, and a church at Burdwan; a new road from Mirzapore to Saugor, Jubbulpore, Nagpore, and Omrawatty to Bhopalpoore, Mhow, &c.

1825—establishment of a botanical garden at Singapore; erection of bungalows and seraies for travellers in the military road from Calcutta to Benares; road from Cuttack to Padamoondy or Aliva.

1826—a new dawk road between Calcutta and the new anchorage.

1827—four Shakesperian bridges.

1828—removing rocks in the Jumna; nine iron chain bridges over the rivers in Kumaon.

1829—roads in the districts of Jounsay and Bhowar; a road from Bala-sore to the sea beach.

1830—a new road from Cuttack to Ganjam; Jynta road ditto; *via* Hooghly and Burdwan to Bancoorah; staging bungalows and seraies at Gopeegunge, Allahabad, &c. &c.; seven telegraphic towers on the semaphore principle from Kedgerie to Calcutta

1831—assisting the "Strand Road" at Calcutta.

MADRAS, 1815—new street on the beach; St. George's church; bridge over the Mambaroota river.

1816—bridge over the Paramboor, and a new road between the Black Town and the N. W. approaches to Madras.

1817—formation of wells; chapel at Arcot, and one at Poonamalee.

1818—stone bridge across the Madras river; a new observatory.

1819—a road in the Neilgherry Hills; repairs to the bridges across the Cauvery.

1820—rebuilding of the lighthouse at Madras.

1821—building a church for the Missionary Society; erection of a chapel at St. Thomas's Mount, and of a church at Vepery; a stone bulwark at Fort St. George against the inroads of the sea.

1823—erection of bridges at the island of Samoodra, in Coimbatoor; Scotch Church (St. Andrew's.)

1823—a new cut for the Votary nullah; a new bridge, &c.

1824—a canal at Chumnapore; a church at Tellicherry; great road from Secunderabad to Masulipatam; great road from Madras through the Northern Circars, to the Bengal frontier.

1825—a tunnel from Fort St. George to the sea.

good time, and by such gentle and peaceable means as only are well pleasing in His sight, unite to us in community of faith, of morals, of science, and political institutions, the brave, the mild, the civilized, and highly intelligent race, who only in the above respects can be said to fall short of Britons.

- 1826—several bridges and roads in various places.
 1827—ditto ditto, all mentioned in the returns.
 1828—ditto ditto, the names may be seen in the official document.
 1829—military road through Coorg, and other works.
 1830—a new cut across the Kendalseroo river in Nellore, &c. &c.
BOMBAY, 1814—new road from Bancoote to Mundgaum; repair of the docks, and the completion of the slope in the dock-yard; a church at Surat.
 1815—from Bandorah to Gorabunder.
 1816—a Scotch church; a chapel at Colabba.
 1817—a tank at Bohur; chapel at Tannah; new mint.
 1821—aqueduct; the flats of Bombay drained; church in the N. Concan.
 1821—chapel at Poonah; tank in Salsette.
 1822—new wharf at Bombay.
 1824—town hall undertaken.
 1825—military road from S. Mahratta country to coast; church at Dapooree; also churches in the east zillah north of the Myhee, and at Baroda and a Roman Catholic chapel at Colabba; road from Nassick to Bhewndy.
 1826—improvement of Sion causeway; bridge over the Moolla; a new observatory, and a church at Mhow.
 1827—improvement of the Bhoze Ghaut; a church at Kirkhee; road from Malligaum to Surat.
 1828—bungalows at Malabar Point, and botanical garden at Dapooree.
 1831—subscription for a church at Byculla.

[Various other works, since undertaken or completed, not included in the foregoing return.]

The line of road proposed, in 1831, by Lord W. Bentinck, then to be constructed or repaired, or which were in progress, were—1st, the main road from Calcutta to Delhi, extending 908 miles (passing through Benares, Allahabad, Cawnpore, and Coel); 2nd, the completion of the road from Mirzapore to Jubulpore (opening a communication with central India), 239 miles; 3rd, the completion of the Cuttack road (the line between Calcutta and Madras Presidency), 248 miles; 4th, the Calcutta and Moorshedabad road, 107 miles; 5th, the Patna branch road, 83 miles; and, 6th, a road from Calcutta to Dacca (opening a communication with the E. frontier), 199 miles;—total 1,784 miles. The number of prisoners at work on these roads in January, 1834, was 10,000. It is proposed also to open a road of 450 miles from Mirzapore on the Ganges, through Jubulpore towards Bombay, as far as Amroutee, the great cotton mart of central India. Cross roads are forming in different directions.



CHAPTER VIII.

CEYLON, ITS AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, CLIMATE AND NATURAL PRODUCTIONS; EARLY HISTORY—EUROPEAN CONQUEST AND BRITISH SETTLEMENT—POPULATION MALE AND FEMALE, WHITE, FREE, BLACK, AND SLAVES, IN EACH DISTRICT—CLASSIFICATION—FOODHIST RELIGION—CIVIL GOVERNMENT—JUDICIAL ESTABLISHMENTS—MILITARY FORCE—REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE; GOVERNMENT AND MISSIONARY SCHOOLS—INTERNAL AND MARITIME COMMERCE—SAILING DIRECTIONS—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL ASPECT, IN A MILITARY AND NAUTICAL VIEW, AND ADVANTAGES TO GREAT BRITAIN.

CEYLON (*Selan, Singhala, Lanka, Serendib, or Taprobane*), situate between the parallels of 5.56. to 9.50. N. lat., and from 80. to 82. E. long., is one of the most magnificent islands on the face of the globe; in shape it somewhat resembles an egg; the extreme length is about 270 miles from N. to S., with an *extreme* breadth of 145 miles (an *average* of 100), a circuit of 750 miles, and a superficial area of about 24,664 square miles.

Favourably situate at the W. entrance of the Bay of Bengal, it is separated on the N.W. from the Coromandel coast, by the Gulf of Manaar, in breadth 62 miles, and 150 miles distant from Cape Comorin; on the S. and E. its beautiful shores are layed by the Indian Ocean. The interior of the island is formed of ranges of high mountains, in general, not approaching nearer to the sea than 40 miles, with a belt of rich alluvial earth, nearly surrounding the island, and well watered by numerous rivers and streams. A picturesque table land occupies the southern centre, and thence, towards the coast is a continuous range of low hills, and elevated flat land extending nearly to the sea-shore. To the W. the country is flat, and on the northern shore, broken into verdant rocky islets, and a peninsula named Jafnapatam. The lofty central division of the island varies in elevation above the

level of the sea, from 1,000 to 6,000 feet, but the range of table land may be estimated at from 2,000 to 3,000 feet higher above the sea. The mountains* run in general in continuous chains with the most lovely vallies the sun ever shone on between them; the hills clothed to the very summits with gigantic forests, from which issue magnificent cascades and foaming cataracts, that form in the vallies placid rivers and babbling brooks fringed with turfy banks, and all the beautiful verdure of the tropics.

RIVERS.—The rivers, as may be expected, are numerous, in fact, the whole island abounds with perennial mountain streams, rivulets, and rivers, the latter more numerous on the S. and W. than on the N.E. The principal are—the Maha-Villa-Gunga, which is navigable for boats, and rafts during a great part of the year, from Trincomalee (where it falls into the sea), nearly as far as Kandy (in the centre of the island), where its course is impeded by a ledge of rocks; the Calany Gunga, or Mutwal, is not inferior in importance to the former, and is the medium for much internal intercourse for 50 miles from Columbo to Ruanw lle: the Welawe and Gindora, &c., all of which serve rather the purposes of irrigation than navigation. There is, however, an inland river navigation over 100 miles of picturesque country from Chilaw to Putlam 30 miles N. of Caltura.

LAKES.—There are a few lagunes on the table land, the principal advantage of which is, the abundant supplies of fish which they afford, and in irrigating the rice lands. In

* Heights above the sea, in English feet, of some of the principal Mountains, &c. in the interior of Ceylon (L by levelling; Δ by geodesical operations):—Upper Lake in Kandé, 1678, L.; Matteé Pattanna, the hill above it, 3192 Δ; Oorraggalle, the rocky ridge of Hantanné to the southward of the town, 4310, Δ; Hoonassgiria Peak, 4990, Δ; 'The Knuckles', a part of the same chain, 5870, Δ; Highest point in the road leading through the Kaddooganawa Pass, 1731, L.; Adam's Peak, 7420, Δ; Nammoonnakoole, near Baddoolla, 6740, Δ; Amboolluwa, near Gampalla, 3540, Δ; Pedrotallagalla, close to the Rest House of Nuwera Ellia, 8280, Δ; Diatalawé, near Hangooranketté, 5030, Δ; Alloogalle, near Amoonaporré, 3440, Δ.

the maritime provinces, particularly in Batticaloa, the communication between one district and another is maintained by canals connecting extensive salt water lakes, which have embankments of a stupendous nature, constructed by the Cingalese three centuries before the Christian era. Small vessels from India may land their cargoes at Calpentyn in the Gulf of Manaar, and have them conveyed by canal to Columbo.

GEOLOGY.—The island would seem to have been at no very distant period connected with the peninsula of Hindostan, from which it was probably separated by an irruption of the ocean.* Uniformity of formation characterises Ceylon, the whole of the island, with few exceptions, consisting of primitive formations, the varieties of which are extremely numerous; the most prevailing species is granite or gneiss; the more limited are quartz, hornblende, dolomite, and a few others. The varieties of granite and gneiss are innumerable,

* The ridge called, 'Adam's Bridge,' consists of a mass of loose sand, with no firm foundation of rock or clay to support it. The sand appears to be transported in great quantities from one side to the other of the ridge, according to the direction of the monsoon; for, in addition to the action of the surf, which washes it over to the lee side, where it is narrow,—in other parts, where it is broad, streams of it, in a dry state, are carried across by the wind itself, and deposited there. The channels through the strait are very shallow, and not more than sufficient for the small country boats to pass; but it is stated, in the records of the Dutch government at Ceylon, that a Dutch fleet once passed through the channels of Adam's Bridge to avoid a Danish fleet in chase of them. It has been justly observed, that if such really were the case, the channels must have been in a very different state, as some parts of the 'bridge' are now dry, and a few feet of water is the greatest depth any where on it.

The principal channel now used by the Dhonies, and other small country boats, lies on the western side of the strait, on which channel some curious dams appear to have been formed by the action of the sea on the soft sandstone. According to the records of the Pagoda of Ramisseram, it appears that this island was, about the close of the fifteenth century, connected with the Peninsula, at which time, it is recorded, that pilgrims passed over it on their way to the Pagoda.

It is proposed to deepen the principal channel, which probably might be accomplished for a moderate sum, so as to make it available not only for the coasting trade, but for large vessels, by which a great deal of time would be saved.

passing often from one into another, occasionally changing their character altogether and assuming appearances for which, in small masses, it would be extremely difficult to find appropriate names. Regular granite is not of very common occurrence; well formed gneiss is more abundant, but sienite is not common: pure hornblende, and primitive greenstone, are far from uncommon; and dolomite sometimes of a pure snow white, well adapted for the statuary occasionally constitutes low hills in the interior: limestone is principally confined to the northerly province of Jafnapatam, and the island appears to be surrounded by an interrupted chain, or belt of sandstone, interspersed with coral.

SOIL.—The N. division of the island is sandy and calcareous, resting upon madrepora,* as it is little elevated above the level of the sea; the surface of the elevated lands of Saffragam, and Lower Ouva, is much stronger and well adapted for tillage; the granitic soil of the interior produces the most luxuriant crops wherever there are a sufficiency of hands to call forth the gifts of industry. The soil of the southern plains is sandy, resting on a strong red marl termed *Cabook*, the base of which is granite, and in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the lands are low and subject to inundations from the Mutwal River.

The foundations of the island are apparently calcareous, yet the greater proportion of its soil is siliceous, in many places (as in the cinnamon gardens near Columbo), the surface being as white as snow, and formed of pure quartz sand. The soils of Ceylon are stated to be in general derived from

* The coral of the Pamban banks is not the zoophite of the Mediterranean and the South Seas, but a light, porous, crumbling substance, sometimes cut and shaped into bricks by the Dutch; and more frequently burnt into lime. Of this species of lime the late fort of Negapatam was built; and so great is the hardness which it acquires by long exposure to the weather, that when Major De Haviland, some years ago, requested a specimen of the masonry of the fort to be procured and sent up to him, the iron crow and other instruments used in detaching the blocks, were blunted and bent in all directions by the solidity of the chunam, which is far more adhesive than that obtained from shells. A stone capable of being converted into so valuable a cement would almost pay the expense of its excavation.

the decomposition of gneis, granite, or clay, ironstone, the principal ingredient being quartz in the form of sand or gravel, decomposed felspar in the state of clay combined with different proportions of the oxide of iron, quartz in most instances being the predominating substance, and in many places, forming nine-tenths of the whole, the natural soils seldom containing more than three per cent. vegetable matter. The most productive earths are a brown loam resulting from the decomposition of gneis, or granite, exceeding in felspar, or a reddish loam originating from the decomposition of clay ironstone: the worst soils are those where quartz predominate, proceeding from the disintegration of quartz rock, or of granite and gneis, containing a very large proportion of quartz.

CLIMATE.—Ceylon is under the complete influence of the monsoons, the N.E. prevailing from November to February, and the S.W. from April to September; the intervening or equinoctial months having variable winds or calms. The eastern side of the island is hot and dry like the Coromandel coast, occasioned by the N.E. monsoon; the opposite division of the isle is temperate and humid like the southern Malabar shore under the influence of the S.W. monsoon; the climate, however, of the southern coast is more congenial to Europeans than perhaps any part of the continent of India. On the whole the N. and N.E. may be said to be dry, and the S.W. moist. The S.W. wind is more general all over the island, as both at Columbo and Trincomalee it blows for five months in succession, whereas the N.E. blows at Columbo only in the months of December and January, seldom beyond them. Among the mountains of the interior, the winds are modified by local circumstances, according to their proximity to the E. or W. coast: and the highest and most central land have peculiarities of their own. Thus, at Badulla, in Upper Ouva (where there is an excellent hospital and military station), the wind for three-fourths of the year is from the N.E., and in June, July, and August variable.

Owing to its intertropical position the quantity of rain that

falls in Ceylon is very great, probably about three times that of England. Being less frequent, the showers are much heavier while they last, a fall of two or three inches being not uncommon in 24 hours; the average of the alpine region is about 84 inches; on an average, however, less rain falls on the E. than on the W. side of the island; a lofty mountainous ridge often acting as a line of demarcation, one side of which is drenched with rain, while the other is broiling under an unclouded sun. Colonel Colebrook, in his valuable report on this lovely island, justly remarks that, the climate and seasons of the N. and S. districts are strikingly contrasted. On one side of the island, and even on one side of a mountain the rain may fall in torrents, while on the other, the earth is parched and the herbage withered; the inhabitants may be securing themselves from inundations, while in another they are carefully husbanding the little water of a former season which may be retained in their wells and tanks. Thus, throughout the southern division, where the rains are copious (owing, probably, to its exposure to the Southern Ocean) canals are not less useful in draining the lowlands, than in the conveyance of produce; and embankments are much required to secure the crops from destruction during the rainy season; while in the N. division of the island, tanks and water-courses are in the greatest request, to secure the inhabitants against the frequent droughts to which those districts are liable.

Owing, also, to its insular position, no climate is more favoured than Ceylon, its temperature being moderate when compared with the scorching plains of India. Along the sea-coast the mean annual temperature may be taken at 80. Fahrenheit; the extreme range line from 68. to 90., and the medium from 75. to 85. The climate of the mountains is of course cooler, but its vicissitudes greater. At Kandy, which is 1,467 feet above the sea, the mean annual temperature is 78.; at the top of Mamini Cooli Kandi 5,900 feet high, Dr. Davy found the temperature at eight A.M. 57. At Colombo (the capital) the mean daily variation of the temperature does not exceed 3., while the annual range of the thermometer is from 76. to 86½. F. At Galle the mean daily variation is 4., and the annual range 71. to 87. Jaffnapatam, mean daily variation 5., annual range 70. to 90. Trincomalee, *greatest* daily variation 17., annual range 74. to 91. At Kandy (the capital of the mountain, or table land in the interior), mean daily variation 6., annual range 66. to 86. At Newera Ellia, a military convalescent station, mean daily variations as high as 11., and annual variation from 35. to 80.

CEYLON METEOROLOGY.

CEYLON METEOROLOGY.															
COLOMBO (SEA SHORE) REGISTER.					BADULLA (2,107 feet above the sea).†										
	THERMOMETER.				Barometer.	Wind.	Rain Gauge, inches.	THERMOMETER.				Remarks by a Kandyan Chief, the result of 60 Year's Observations.			
	Mean, Morning.	Mean, Mid-day.	Mean, Night.	Highest.				Lowest.	Maximum.	Minimum.	8 A. M.		Noon.	3 P. M.	Highest.
January	78	81	79	82½	76	29.85	29.89	N.	1.8	63	73	66	74	55	Heavy rains, and very cold nights. No rain; hot. A little rain, and warm. No rain; very warm. Light rain; windy. No rain; hot and dry. Ditto; very hot. Ditto; hot. Ditto; ditto. Heavy rains, and cool. Ditto, ditto. Hot and dry; very cold nights.
February	79	83	81	85	76	29.85	29.85	N. to N.E.	0.4	63	74	68	77	55	
March	80	84	82	86½	77	29.86	29.86	} N. to N.E. and S.W.	8.1	62	76	67	80	50	
April	81	84	82	86	78	29.87	29.85	S.W.	11.7	66	78	70	80	56	
May	82	86	82	86	79	29.83	29.80	Ditto.	6.6	66	78	71	83	64	
June	82	86	82	86	79	29.83	29.80	Ditto.	2.3	64	77	72	80	66	
July	81	83	81	84	79	29.83	29.80	Ditto.	10.7	65	74	71	81	60	
August	81	83	82	85	80	29.80	29.80	Ditto.	3.5	66	79	71	83	60	
September	82	83	82	85	81	29.80	29.80	Ditto.	8.3	66	79	72	83	62	
October	80	83	81	83	78	29.80	29.80	} S.W. to N. and N.E.	7.1	66	79	73	83	62	
November	80	83	81	83	79	29.80	29.80		7.1	67	75	71	83	62	
December	80	83	80	84	78	29.80	29.80		18.6	67½	73	71	75	62	

* The Rain Gauge, showing a total of 84.3 inches, is for Kandy (in 1019), in the interior, which shows the average of the mountain districts; on the sea-shore, as at Colombo, the average annual fall of rain is from 75 to 80 inches.

† Badulla is situate on a plain, surrounded by hills from 1 to 3,000 feet, in a mountainous country, in the S. extremity of Ceylon, having the sea at 40 to 50 miles distant on the E. S. and W. sides; the elevation above the ocean level of 2,107 feet.

The climate of Ceylon, where the soil is not cleared, is undoubtedly subject to pernicious miasmata, arising from stagnant marshes, and dank and noisome jungles, and even when the jungles are cleared, it requires the sun to act on them for some time before the unhealthy miasmata are dissipated; at certain seasons, therefore, endemic fevers appear in situations favourable to their propagation, but the whole island is becoming more uniformly salubrious as it becomes cleared, and cultivated. The environs of Trincomalee, which were formerly very unhealthy have become much less so by clearing the jungles in the environs, and if the salt-water lake ('Snake Island' I think it is termed) to the northward of Columbo were cleared, the maritime capital of Ceylon, though within 8. of the equator, would be one of the healthiest and pleasantest residences in India.

It is true that our troops have suffered much in Ceylon, but it should be recollected, that as compared with the Indian army, their wear and tear of duty is much more severe than the latter, and they have not the facilities of water communication which the Ganges and its tributaries afford; the one country is in many parts quite unpeopled, and the other comparatively civilized; add to which a pernicious system prevails in Ceylon, of making the troops commence marches at midnight, than which, nothing can be more injurious. A late intelligent Deputy Inspector General of the hospitals in Ceylon (H. Marshall, Esq.) has drawn up the following comparative table of the health and mortality of troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius, but it must be remembered, in the first place, that the data for Ceylon were made some time ago, since which period the country is materially improved, and in order to judge more correctly, we should know the ages of the deceased and invalided, and the tropical servitude endured. I give, however, the table, in the hope that it may induce further inquiry based on more extensive facts; there are no class of persons better qualified for topographical details than the medical officers of the British army, who

have contributed so much to extend the literature and science of England throughout her colonies.

Health of Troops in India, Ceylon, and Mauritius.

Stations.	Period.		Total No. Years.	Strength.	Ar. mean No. of Deaths.	Mean ratio of Deaths.	Ar. mean No. of Men Invalided.	Mean ratio of Men Invalided.	Total loss by Death and Invaliding.
	From	To							
INDIA:									
Bengal Army	1825	1826	1	7,076	774	9.7	379	4.7	14.5
Madras Army	1808	1809	2	8,717	713	8.1	379	4.7	14.5
Ditto ditto	1816	1821	6	12,592	794	6.3	486	3.7	10.1
17th Dragoons	1809	1833	24	730	87	7.8	37	3.1	10.8
Royal Regiment, 2d battalion	1807	1831	24	1,067	92	7.6	37	3.1	10.8
15th Regiment*	1823	1829	7	764	138	10.6	37	3.1	10.8
34th ditto	1803	1823	20	895	69	7.7	37	3.1	10.8
45th ditto	1819	1830	12	738	63	8.5	23	3.	11.5
59th ditto	1806	1818	13	901	69	7.9	21	2.3	10.
65th ditto	1801	1822	22	971	64	6.5	18	1.8	8.4
69th ditto	1805	1820	15	844	68	8.5	37	3.1	10.8
78th ditto	1797	1815	19	846	96	11.3	37	3.1	10.8
CEYLON:									
19th Regiment	1796	1819	24	837	62	7.4	24	2.8	10.2
73d ditto†	1818	1820	3	64	184	28.1	35	5.3	33.4
63d ditto	1818	1820	3	871	78	8.9	55	6.3	16.2
MAURITIUS:									
82d Regiment	1820	1831	12	60	20	3.7	24	4.5	8.3

When Ceylon is cleared and cultivated all over, as our West India Islands are, it will be as healthy as England. I have known Europeans and the descendants of Europeans, in Columbo, nearly 100 years of age, without scarcely ever suffering pain or sickness. Fogs and mists are rare, except in some of the deep densely foliaged vallies of the interior, and all round the sea-coast there is an unvarying alternation of sea and land breezes, twice in the 24 hours, which are felt nearly across the island in every direction.

A delightful station has been formed at Newera Ellia, S.W. from Kandy 60 miles, 14 from Fort M'Donald, 15 from Maturatte, and 122 from Columbo. The road between Newera Ellia and Kandy leads through a wild and mountainous

* This gallant regiment suffered much during the Burmese war, and the disproportionate mortality was owing to the unhealthiness of Rangoon, &c.

† The mortality of this regiment was owing to its great fatigue and exposure during the Kandyan war, and subsequent rebellion in the mountain and jungly districts.

country, the scenery always picturesque, sometimes magnificent in the extreme; at one time, the traveller is surrounded by steep and inaccessible mountains, whose sides are clothed with dense forests; rocks of an enormous size, deep and precipitate ravines, and cataracts rushing with foaming velocity from the heights, diversify the scene. The height of Newera Ellia plain (four miles long, and one and a half broad) is nearly 6,000 feet above the sea, and it is surrounded by steep mountains of irregular height (covered with wood to the very summit), one in particular—rising almost 2,000 feet above the level of Newera Ellia River, which meanders through lovely banks across the plain. The climate is delicious, never approaching tropical heat in summer, and yielding ice in winter; the mean temperature, by day and night, for the entire year 55° F. The water is so pure as to form a transparent solution with nitrate of silver; several chalybeate springs have been met with. The daisy, buttercup, violet, ribwort, dandelion, barbery, briar, &c. flourish indigenously; the rose, pink, mignonette, and carnation, are as fragrant as in England; delicious strawberries are abundant; and potatoes, carrots, artichokes, peas, beans, salads, cabbages, turnips, parsnips, and in fact every British culinary vegetable thrive luxuriantly. The soil (in which limestone has been found) is of a deep black mould, resting on a stratum of yellow clay and gravel, numerous varieties of beautiful quartz exist; and the frequenters of the climate within a few degrees of the equator, will learn, with astonishment, that a fire is *always* enjoyed by *night*, and *frequently* in the *day*.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—No island on the face of the earth is richer in vegetable productions, than is this famed isle of palm and spices; I need scarcely allude to *cinnamon*, of which, it may be said, to have a monopoly, as China has of tea. This delightful spice grows wild as well as cultivated, in every southern part of the island, whether in the white quartz soil of the lens on the sea-shore at Columbo, or in the red Cabool hills of Kandy, wherever in fact, there is sufficient moisture.

The *laurus cinnamomum*, although cultivated in many tropical places, has its principal habitation at Ceylon, which is capable of yielding a sufficient supply for every country in Europe; the tree whence the cinnamon bark is derived grows to the height of from 15 to 20 feet, with an irregular and knotty stem, branchy and ligneous roots, fibrous and inodorous wood, external bark, rough, thick, scabrous, and of an ash colour, inner bark reddish, (the young shoots are often delicately speckled with dark green and light orange colours); branches umbrageous inclining horizontally and downwards; leaves oblong and in pairs, from six to nine inches in length and three broad, petiolated, colour dark green; flowers clustered on one peduncle, white, wanting calyx, smell resembling a mixture of rose and lilac; fruit an oval berry, larger than a black currant, receptacle thick, green and hexangular. The roots have the pungent smell of camphor, and the delicious odour of cinnamon, yielding camphor by distillation, the leaves have the pungent taste of cloves; the berries, by boiling, yield an unctuous substance like wax, emitting an agreeable odour, and formerly used as candles for the exclusive use of the Kandian Court. Cattle of every kind eagerly feed on the luxuriant foliage, while pigeons, crows, and other birds, devour the berries with avidity. To the industry of man belongs the bark, the varieties of which are dependent on the nature of the soil, on the skill in cultivating and peeling, and on the age and healthiness of the plant. About 2,000 acres of land are laid out in regular cinnamon plantations in Ceylon, and about 30,000 persons employed thereon. The peeling of the bark begins with May and ends with October: the peelers (chalias, a distinct caste in Ceylon) commence the process by striking a sharp bill-hook into a shoot which seems fit for peeling; if on opening the gash the bark separates gently, it is fit for decortication; if otherwise, the shoot is unhealthy, the gash is carefully closed, and the sucker left for future examination; shoots thus found fit (generally from three to five feet long, and three-quarters of an inch in diameter) are then cut down, conveyed to sheds, and there cleared of leaves and twigs; by means of two longitudinal slits the bark peels off in two semi-circular slips; when a sufficient number are collected, the sections are placed in close contact (as two quill-halves would be laid one within the other) and the whole bundle is firmly pressed and bound up together for twenty-four hours, until a degree of fermentation is produced, which facilitates the removal of the cuticle; subsequently the interior side of each section of bark is placed upon a convex piece of wood fitted to its size, and the epidermis, together with the green succulent matter carefully scraped off (if any of the outer pulpy substance be allowed to remain, the cinnamon has an unpleasant bitterness); a few hours after the removal of the cuticle, the pieces are again placed in each other, and the bark in drying gradually contracts and rolls itself into a quill-like form. During the first day it is placed under shelter on open platforms, subse-

quently it is finally dried in the sun, and made up into bundles of about 30 pounds weight. A plantation requires seven or eight years' growth before yielding produce, the tree is least advantageously propagated by seeds,—layers and shoots, or transplanted stumps, are the best means of extending the growth. The following are the quantities of cinnamon recently imported, exported, and consumed in England:—

	Imported.	Exported.	Consumed.		Imported.	Exported.	Consumed.
1827, lbs.	267,444	359,602	14,451	1832, lbs.	36,762	524,277	15,271
1828, ..	337,483	354,336	15,696	1833, ..	102,402	447,853	11,073
1829, ..	544,225	386,108	20,720	1834, ..	221,222	222,493	11,660
1830, ..	464,175	535,223	Nil.	1835,			
1831, ..	325,969	504,643	23,172	1836,			

The duty on importation is 6d. per lb.

From Columbo to Tangalle, a distance of 100 miles along the sea-shore, plantations of cinnamon amidst groves of cocoa nut trees, skirt the whole coast for 10 miles from the bordering of the tide, which laves the very roots of those graceful and indispensable palms, the cocoa nut, being in reality the most valuable product of the island;* I recollect hearing in Ceylon an enumeration of 99 distinct articles made from this tree, among the principal were:—1. *Arrack* (the spirit under this name, made from the cocoa nut blossom, is far superior to the Batavian arrack, made from rice) which is distilled from the sweet juice of the incised flower-stock, termed—2. '*Toddy*,' in itself a delicious wholesome beverage, when drank fresh drawn before the morning sun has caused fermentation to commence. 3. *Jaghery*, a coarse, strong grained, but peculiar flavoured sugar (well adapted for crystalization, or refining in England), made in abundance from toddy. 4. *Vinegar* equal to any made from white wine, also prepared from the toddy, and used in making exquisite 5. *pickles* from the young shoots. 6. *Coir*, or ropes, strong and elastic, and having the peculiar property of being best preserved for use in sea-water (hence their adaption for mooring, and other purposes, to which they are now applied in Mauritius harbour and elsewhere, as also for running rigging in the India shipping). 7. Brushes and brooms, of

* See *Commerce*. In 1813 it was calculated that there grew along the coast between Dondrahead and Calpentyn (184 miles), ten million cocoa nut trees.

various descriptions. 8. Matting of excellent quality. 9. Rafters for houses. 10. Oil of much value, and now used in England for candles as well as lamps. 11. Gutters or water-spouts, or conveyances, for which the hollow stem or trunk is so well adapted. 12. Thatching for the peasants' cottages, the shady broad leaf being admirably suited for the purpose. 13. Alkaline ashes from the burnt leaves, and used by washermen. 14. The roots are sometimes masticated in place of areca nut. 15. Baskets of the young shoots. 16. Drums of the crust of the trunk. 17. Reticulated cloth cradles or couches for infants. 18. The terminal buds, used instead of cabbage. 19. Translucent lanterns of the young leaves. 20. Tablets for writing upon with an iron stylus or pen (after the Roman manner), from the leaflets. 21. An Æolian harp of the stripes of the leaf. 22. Stuffing (*coir*), in place of hair, for couch cushions, mattresses, saddles, &c. To particularise further, would, however, be tedious, suffice it to say, that the natives of the Maldive islands send an annual embassy to Ceylon, the boats conveying whom are entirely prepared from this tree, the persons composing the embassy, clothed and fed on its products, and the numerous presents for the Governor of Ceylon, are all manufactured from this queen of the palms.

From Tangalle to Chilaw, a distance of 135 miles, it is nearly one continued grove of cocoa-nut, bread-fruit, and jack fruit trees (the latter being scarcely inferior in importance to the natives as an article of food, &c. than the cocoa-nut). Cotton grows with the greatest facility, whether Nankin, Bourbon, or Brazil, the buds are ripe within four months after the seed is put in the ground, and the interior, particularly about Taldeina, contains immense supplies of the gigantic cotton tree, whose silky pods when bursting cover the earth around with their beautiful glossy filaments, which our manufacturers in Manchester would be so glad to obtain.

Every village, or hut, has its patch of sugar-cane and tobacco; the latter, in many parts of the island, has a delicious aroma. Coffee grows luxuriantly, and even without care, of an excellent quality; when properly attended to it is con-

sidered by many superior to Mocha.* The pepper-vine grows nearly in a state of wildness all over the island. Cardamom plants are equally plentiful. The much sought after areca-nut is of the finest species, and unsurpassed, nay, even unequalled in any part of the East. The rice of Ceylon has a richness of flavour I have never found in any other country. Teak forests abound; and excellent masts and yards, of the largest size, are everywhere procurable. Calamander, ebony, satin, rose, sappan, iron, jack, &c., and every species of the most beautiful cabinet-making woods are in rich profusion (see the Ceylon cabinet desks, dressing-cases, &c., so much and so justly admired in England). Enchanting groves of the Palmyra palms surround the villages in the northward of the island, and like the cocoa palms in the S., are of the greatest value to the peasantry in seasons of drought. The following shews the

Nature of Crop and Number of Acres in each Crop.

Years.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Indian Corn.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.	Pasture.	Total No. of Acres in Crop.	No. of Acres of Uncultivated Land.
1828	189,476	44,424	2,701	106	4	289	18	308	5,667	82248	242,200	1,706,661	
1829	165,350	49,772	3,280	95	3	441	133	396	7,405	84422	311,201	1,694,048	
1830	195,407	122,748	9,292	985	8	386	806	1,119	916	7,914	77708	418,982	1,525,264
1831	158,649	120,068	10,962	1,250	9	330	911	1,040	764	10,421	75887	381,059	1,645,594
1832	161,228	88,131	12,172	1,249	6	1448	913	1,197	1184	10,771	115818	394,229	2,136,222
1833	212,126	102,069	19,616	3,057	20	2675	512	1,322	1220	6,704	111420	456,206	1,674,126
1834													

Nature and Quantity of Produce Raised.

Years.	Paddy.	Fine Grains.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Malze.	Peas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.
	bushels.	bushels.	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	bush.	lbs.	lbs.
1828	6,048,678	876,319	4,699	290	15	6,109	17,726	..	25,715	..
1829	5,163,991	494,721	3,225	192	22	6,206	17,020	..	24,746	..
1830	5,821,177	670,122	28,928	1,321	207	5,984	104,816	2,574	66,796	..
1831	5,299,625	657,710	32,286	2,658	248	5,225	102,027	2,824	73,616	2,082,916
1832	4,590,662	769,116	61,110	3,427	1,066	16,292	56,100	2,647	224,692	1,144,140
1833	3,976,540	894,927	88,278	6,272	922	26,947	34,477	24,278	1,296,547	3,624,664
1834										

* The importation of Ceylon coffee into the united kingdom in 1832, was 2,824,998 lbs. notwithstanding a tax of 9d. per lb. being levied on it in England. Next year, however, the duty will be 6d.

Average Prices of each Description of Produce.

Year.	Rubber.	Pepper.	Mustard.	Gram.	Malze.	Teas.	Cotton.	Tobacco.
1828	per bushel 9d.	per bushel 1s. 6d.	per bushel 3s. 2d.	per bushel 3s. 4d.	per bushel 1s.	per bushel 1s. 3d.	per bushel 1s. 3d.	per lb. 4d.
1830	1s. 4d.	1s. 4d.	3s. 6d.	3s. 4d.	1s.	1s.	1s.	3d. to 6d.
1830	1s. 4d.	1s.	4s.	6s.	1s.	3s. 9d.	1s.	6d.
1831	1s. 9d.	3s. 6d.	7s. 4d.	12s.	9d.	2s. 3d.	1s. 6d.	4d.
1832	1s. 9d.	3s. 7d.	12s. 4d.	25s. 6d.	8s. 4d.	4d.	1s. 11d.	4s. 6d.
1833	5s. 6d.	3s. 7d.	6s. to 12s.	4s. to 12s.	9d.	6d. to 2s.	2s. 6d. to 1s.	1s. 6d. to 2s. 1d.
1834	3s. 6d.	6s. 2d.	22s. 6d.	22s. 6d.	5s. 10d.	4d. to 7s.	4s. 8d.	4s. 4d.

Live Stock.

Years.	Horses.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Goats.
1828	1,127	559,904	34,415	46,872
1829	1,027	550,333	29,797	31,919
1830	1,132	551,419	31,110	38,015
1831	1,146	537,303	29,510	38,336
1832	864	562,740	40,877	47,968
1833	1,128	591,769	40,172	46,756

ANIMALS.—If the vegetable kingdom be rich in Ceylon, the animated one is no less so, from the gigantic elephant to the many-coloured chamelion; indeed earth, air, and water is instinct with life. The elephants of Ceylon have long been famed for their size and docility; as regards the former, some writers have of late stated that the African elephant is the larger of the two. I have, when traversing parts of Ceylon and districts of Africa, had ample opportunities of comparing both beasts in their wild state. Often have I been obliged to sleep in a gigantic cotton or umbrageous jack tree, while a herd of those magnificent animals were grazing beneath me, or browsing off the nethermost branches of my nightly shelter; and at other times I have chosen a safe position for firing (in youthful thoughtlessness) at these sagacious and generous brutes, who have subsequently spared my life when I was at their mercy: I may, therefore, consider myself qualified to judge between the two animals.

The Asiatic elephant is considerably taller than any I ever saw in Africa; his head is not so large, nor his limbs so unwieldy as that of the latter; and, according to the accounts of those who catch and domesticate them, the former is a much more valuable animal than the latter to man. Though still extremely numerous in Ceylon (I have seen wild herds of 100 and 200 young and old elephants), this extraordinary creature will doubtlessly disappear before cultivation and civilization, particularly as his noble nature disdains to produce a breed of slaves. They have been for some time used in government works, in drawing timber and stones for bridges, and in conveying the baggage of a regiment when on the march, a duty which their sure-footedness over the mountains render them peculiarly adapted for.

The tiger of Ceylon is a formidable and destructive animal, and so bold that it has been known to come into a bazaar and snatch off some unfortunate cooley, or seize on an European soldier's child while the mother has been spreading out her washed clothes on the hedge opposite her dwelling. The buffalo in its wild state is also a very troublesome opponent, particularly if his antagonist have a *red* coat or jacket on. The elk of Ceylon assimilates in appearance with the fossil remains of those found in Ireland. Deer of every variety are plentiful, and their flesh, when preserved in honey for two or three years by the wild *Veddas*, forms a feast which a London alderman once tasting would never forget.

Snakes are numerous; but of 20 different kinds, examined by Dr. Davy, 16 were found harmless. The *tic polonga* of the *coluber* species is the most deadly in its poison; I have seen a strong dog die in 15 minutes after being bit, and a fowl in less than three minutes; the *cobra capello carawalla*, and three or four others are nearly equally fatal. The natives say that the *tic polonga* lies in wait on the road side to dart out on travellers, my observations lead me to believe such is the case. A large snake called the *pimberah* exists, the length of which is 30 feet. While travelling through Ova, and the central provinces, I have been assured by the

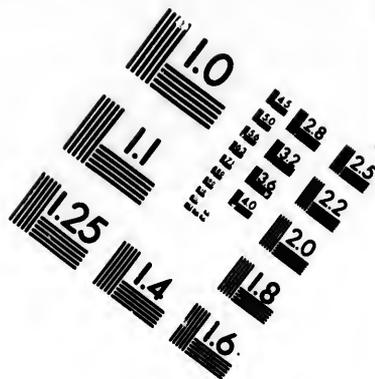
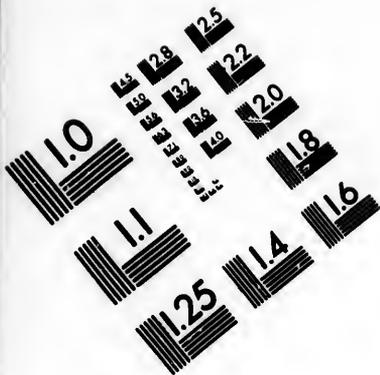
Mohanderems of the districts, particularly towards Ruan Welle, of the existence of boas of a much greater size than 30 feet, and their ovi- and vivi-parous habits distinguished. The alligator is found in most rivers, and the jackal in every tope; the mountain provinces are infested with a species of small leech, that cling with peculiar tenacity to any bare flesh, and draw much blood; their bites in diseased constitutions being productive of considerable after suffering.

Wild peacocks are abundant in the interior. The jungle cock of Ceylon is a splendid bird, equal, if not superior, in plumage to the golden pheasant. The quail, snipe, and woodcock of the upper districts would please any epicure, and a fish gourmand, whether on the coast or inland, might never feel satiety, if variety and exquisiteness of flavour could ensure appetite. The beef is small, but sweet; and the mutton of Jaffnapatam equal to South Down. Eating is a favourite pursuit with some old Europeans in Ceylon, and certes it is a good place to indulge that faculty in.

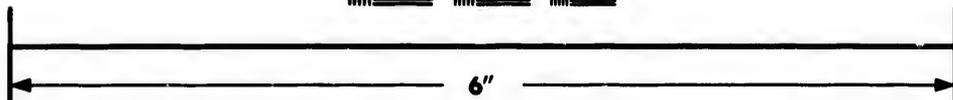
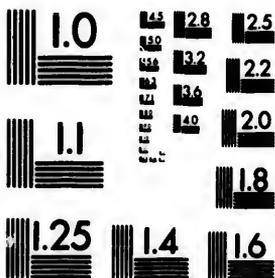
MINERAL KINGDOM.—The metallic riches of Ceylon are yet almost unknown; the island, as before observed, is principally composed of granite, with veins of quartz, hornblende and dolomite; rock and shell limestone are found near Kandy and Jaffnapatam; iron and plumbago (the latter now forms an article of considerable export) are abundant; and gold (some say also quicksilver) and silver are found in the hill-streams. Amethyst, topazes, cats-eyes, garnet, cinnamon-stone, sapphires, rock crystals, shorl, zircon, rubies, and diamonds, &c., the island has long been famed for; the celebrated pearl fishery in the Gulf of Manaar my limits forbid me here dwelling on.* Nitre caves are numerous; alum

* The natural history of the pearl oyster is imperfectly known; the banks have been found suddenly to fail when a productive fishery had been anticipated. At certain seasons the young oysters are seen floating in masses, and are carried by the current round the coast; they afterwards settle and attach themselves by a fibre or beard to the coral rocks, and on and they adhere together in clusters. When full grown they are again separated and become locomotive. The pearls enlarge during six years,





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

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is plentiful, and the coast from Chilaw to Maraas and Jaffa, on the western side, and from Tangalle, through the Mahisgampatoe, to the eastward, contains the most extensive and valuable salt formations which are to be met with in India. The Leways, or natural deposits at Hambhattottè, yield the large supply of the finest salt, owing to the peculiar dryness of the air, and the rapid evaporation at certain seasons; the salt which thus crystallizes spontaneously is of great purity, and more slowly dissolved when exposed to the moisture of the atmosphere than that which is artificially prepared.

GENERAL HISTORY. — The original *Singalees*, or *Ceylonese*, are probably descended from a colony of *Singhs*, or *Rajpooths* (to whom, in appearance, even at the present day, they bear a striking resemblance) 500 years B.C. But the *Malbars*; it is stated, several times succeeded in invading the island 200 years B.C. At an early era the island seems to have attracted the attention of the western world; thus Dionysius, the geographer, mentions *Taprobane* (its ancient and classic name) as famous for its elephants; Ovid speaks of it as a place so far distant
 and the oyster is supposed to die after seven years; they are fished at a depth of 36 feet in the calm season. The length of time which the divers remain under water is almost incredible to an European.

There are many inducements for capitalists to emigrate to Ceylon; its extensive fisheries of pearl and chank, (*colusa granis*) the manufacture of oil ropes, cocoa-nut oil, and indigo, the distillation of arrack, the preparation of plumbago, the collection of Chaya roots, (*oidenlandia umbellata* of Linnæus, used for dying red, orange and purple) Sapan wood and ivory, for the Indian and English markets, and the cultivation of cinnamon, pepper, cardamoms, tobacco, grain, ginger, cotton, silk, &c. &c.

Since the text was written I have received the *Ceylon Almanac*, containing Mr. George Turnour's erudite epitome of the history of Ceylon derived from Pali and Singhalese records; it does not, however, invalidate the statement, that we know little certain of the early colonization of Ceylon. Mr. Turnour begins his chronology 543 years before the birth of our Saviour, and names the first King, Wejaya, who landed on the island with 700 followers, and founded a government at Tannanawera; but Mr. T. does not state whether the Pali accounts remark if the island was then inhabited.

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that it could be no advantage to have his fame extended thither. Pliny thought it the commencement of another continent, and extolled it for the purity of its gold and the size of its pearls. In the reign of Claudius, a Roman, who farmed (says the Rev. Mr. Fellows) the customs in the Red Sea, was driven in his bark by a gale of wind from the coast of Arabia to Taprobane, where he received a most favourable reception, and so extolled the glory of the imperial city that the sovereign of Taprobane sent to Rome an embassy of four persons via the Red Sea. We have existing evidence that, in remote ages, Ceylon was an extensively peopled and civilized country (it has now only 58 mouths to the square mile). Near Mantotte are the ruins of a very large city, constructed of brick and mortar, and an immense artificial tank, or reservoir for water, the basin of which is 16 or 18 miles in extent; an embankment about nine miles from the tank is formed of huge stones, eight feet long, four feet broad, and three feet thick (these are cemented together by lime), the length of the dam is 600 feet, the breadth about 60, and the height from 8 to 12 feet. This gigantic work is said to have been executed by the Hindoos, who made Mantotte the capital of a kingdom which they established over the northern parts of the island. Of an antiquity, however, more remote than the foregoing, are various buildings and works towards the interior, constructed of vast stones, elegantly cut and dove-tailed-like into each other. No mortar has been used in some of the edifices which still exist (as if in defiance of the ravaging hand of time), with visible inscriptions on them, which no existing human being can understand. Among the works of this remote age is the Lake of Kandely, near Trincomalee, which is 15 miles in circumference, formed by the artificial junction of two hills, which in one part in particular exhibits a parapet formed of huge blocks of stone, 12 to 14 feet long, and broad and thick in proportion. This parapet is at the base 150 feet broad, and at the summit 30 feet. By means of this wonderful structure the adjoining high lands are connected.

It is also singular that arches are to be found in the parapet, and over them conduits, similar to those used by the Romans in Italy, and termed *condottori*.

Belonging also to this age is a gigantic pagoda (40 miles S. of Batticaloa), the base of whose cone is a *quarter of a mile* in circumference, surrounded by an enclosure *one mile* in circumference, consisting of a broad wall of brick and mortar, with numerous cells in it, and an entering colonade of stone pillars 10 feet high.

Mr. Brooke, in tracing the course of the Maha Villagunga in 1825, came on the ruined tracks of several very extensive canals, one of which he estimated to have been from five to 15 feet deep, and from 40 to 100 feet wide. The natives told him that this canal was cut by people whose stature was *forty feet high!* The largest recorded bridge was one in the southern part of the island, stated to be 280 cubits (630 feet) long; the next in size was 193 feet long, across the Kaloo-Ganga, on the road from Adam's Peak to Bentotte. The remains of a stone bridge exist near the Fort of Kalawo Oya, the stones of which are from 8 to 14 feet long, jointed into one another and laid in regular lines, the upright pillars being grooved into the rocks below; this bridge was built 15,000 years ago, and Captain Forbes demonstrates that the Singalese, at that remote period, used the wedge and chisel for splitting and shaping those huge blocks of stone, after the manner which has only been introduced into Britain in the nineteenth century.

It is recorded in ancient manuscripts that, Anorajhapoora, the ancient Cingalese capital, was surrounded by a wall 16 miles square, and indeed a list of streets of the city is still in existence. To the N. of the ruins of this place, are six pagodas of immense magnificence, the form being half a sphere with a spire built on it; the two largest are each 270 feet high, of solid brick-work, once entirely covered with chunam (lime polished like marble,) the solid contents of one of the largest is about 456,071 cubic yards, and with the materials of which it is composed, a wall of brick might be constructed

12 feet high, two feet wide, and 97 miles long; the roofs are composed of curiously carved rafters of wood, and the expense and labour employed in the whole of the structures must have been immense.*

But we must leave these remote ages and come to some later period. In the sixth century, Ceylon was the chief mart for eastern commerce; † in the thirteenth century it was visited by Marco Polo, who pretty accurately narrated the particulars of the island, which he described as 'the finest in the world.' The central situation of Ceylon had led to its port being frequented by ships from China, India, Arabia, &c. by which means Galle and Columbo, from their favourable situation, became entrepôts for the general commerce of the East. When the Portuguese first visited the island, A.D. 1505, they found it had for a long period been declining, owing to intestine wars, and invasions from Malabar and Arabia; the Cingalese King availed himself of the assistance of the Portuguese Admiral (Almeida) for the expulsion of the invaders, promising in return an annual tribute in cinnamon. In 1518, the Portuguese, under Alvarenga, began to fortify themselves in Columbo, Galle, &c., and soon after they obtained complete possession of the maritime provinces, and drove the King of Kandy to such extremities, that he was glad to retain even possession of the interior provinces.

For a century the Portuguese held their sway, when in 1603, the first Dutch fleet arrived at Trincomalee and Batticaloa, and offered to assist the King of Kandy against the Portu-

* In the ancient histories of Trincomalee it is stated by Sir Alexander Johnston that two kings of *Solamandolum*, *Manumethy Candesolan*, and his son *Kalocarta Maharasa*, reigned over the greater part of Ceylon, and over the southern peninsula of India, about the 512th year of the *Calli Yug*; or 4,400 years ago, who constructed the great buildings and tanks, the remains of which are yet extant.

† In the sixteenth year of the reign of Praakrama Bahoo the 1st, (A.D. 1153,) this Singalese monarch sent a fleet of 500 ships, with an army on board, and provisioned for 12 months, to avenge the insults offered to the Singalese ambassador and to Singalese merchants by the King of Cambodia and Arramana. This vast fleet was equipped in six months.

guese. In 1632, a strong Dutch armament, acting in conjunction with the King of Kandy's forces, commenced a series of contests with the Portuguese, and after a long and sanguinary struggle, which lasted until 1656-7, the latter were finally driven from an island of the sea coast of which they had been masters for nearly 150 years.

The Cingalese, however, soon found that they had exchanged masters to no advantage, for from 1656 to 1796, when the British in their turn came to the aid of the Kandians, the Dutch were engaged in a series of perpetual hostilities with their mountain neighbours. Nor were we more fortunate than our predecessors, for in 1798, on the elevation of a new king to the Kandian throne, we became involved in hostilities, which led to our capture of the Kandian capital in 1803.

We did not, however, long retain the capital, the Kandians attacked us with great violence, compelled our troops to a precipitate retreat, massacred 150 sick soldiers in the hospitals, and having surrounded the British force, required them to lay down their arms; the commanding officer, Major Davie, unfortunately did so, the Malay troops were picked aside, and the whole English force instantly massacred, except three European officers retained as prisoners, and one mutilated corporal, who made his escape to Columbo with the melancholy intelligence. Until 1815 we retained the maritime provinces, while the King of Kandy kept the interior, but in that year the monarch being deposed on account of his repeated acts of oppression and cruelty (one act was making the wife of his prime minister pound to death her own children in a rice mortar), General Brownrigg was invited by the Kandian chiefs to take possession of the interior, and excepting an expensive and troublesome insurrection, which lasted from 1817 to 1819, Ceylon has ever since had the British sway established over the whole island.

CAPTAINS-GENERAL AND GOVERNORS OF CEYLON, WHILST IN POSSESSION OF THE PORTUGUESE.

Pedro Lopez de Souza, Jerome de Azevedo, Francois de Menezes, Manuel Mascarenhas Homem, Nanha Alvares Pereira, Constantine de Say Noranha, D. George

d'Almeida, George d'Albuquerque, Diego de Melho, Antoine Mascarenhas, Philippe Mascarenhas, Manuel Mascarenhas Homen, François de Mello Castro, Antoine de Souza Coutinho, under whose administration Colombo was surrendered to the Dutch; (A. D. Massey Menckes, last Captain-General, (in command of Jaffna and Manar).)

GOVERNORS WHILST IN THE POSSESSION OF THE DUTCH.

AT GALLE.—William Jacobszen Coster, Commander at the surrender of that place; administration commenced 13th March, 1640. Jan Thysz, President and Governor, 1st August, 1640. Joan Matsuyker, Ordinary Councillor and Governor, 24th May, 1646. Jacob Van Kittenstein, Governor, 26th Feb. 1650. Adrian Van der Meulen, Governor, 15th Oct. 1658.

Colombo.—Adrian Van der Meysen, Governor, 12th May, 1656. Ryklot Van Goens, Governor, 12th May, 1660. Jacob Huisaar Extraordinary Councillor of India and Governor, 27th Dec. 1663. Ryklot Van Goens, Governor, from 19th Nov. 1664. Lourens Van Peel, Commander, President, Governor, and Extraordinary Councillor of India, 3rd Dec. 1680. Thomas Van Rhee, Governor, 19th June, 1693. Paulus de Rhee, appointed Governor and Director of Ceylon, 28th Jan. 1695. Gerrit de Heer, Governor, 22d Feb. 1697. The members of the Council, 26th Nov. 1702. Mr. Cornelis Johannes Simonsz, Governor, May, 1763. Hendrick Beeker, Governor, 22d Dec. 1707. Mr. Issak Augustin Rumph, Governor and Extraordinary Councillor of India, 7th Dec. 1716. Arnold Moll, Commander at Galle, 11th June, 1723. Johannes Hertenberg, Governor, 12th January, 1724. Jan Paulus Schagen, Commander at Galle, 19th Oct. 1725. Petrus Vuyt, Governor, and Extraordinary Councillor of India, 16th Sept. 1726. Stephanus Versluis, Governor, and Extraordinary Councillor of India; administration commenced 27th Aug. 1729. Gualterus Weuteras, Commander of Jaffnapatam, 26th Aug. 1732. Jacob Christian Rieksat, Extraordinary Councillor of India, and Commissary 21st Dec. 1732. Diederick Van Domburg, Governor, 21st Jan. 1734. Jan Maccara, Commander of Galle, 1st June, 1736. Gustaf Willem Baron Van Imhoff, Extraordinary Councillor of India, and Governor, 33d July, 1736. Willem Maurits Brulainck, Governor, 12th March, 1740. Daniel Overbeck, Governor, and Extraordinary Councillor of India, 3d Jan. 1748. Julius Valentyn Stein Van Gollnesse, Extraordinary Councillor of India, 11th May, 1743. Gerrard Van Vreeland, Extraordinary Councillor of India, and Governor, 6th March, 1751. Jacob de Jong, Commander of Jaffnapatam, administration commenced 26th Feb. 1751. Joan Gideon Loten, 30th Sept. 1752. Jan Schreuder, Councillor and Governor of India, 17th March, 1757. Lubbert Jan Baron Van Eck, Governor, (under whose administration Kandy was taken on the 19th Feb. 1763) 11th Nov. 1762. Anthony Mooyart, Commander of Jaffnapatam, 13th May, 1765. Iman Willem Falck, Governor, 8th Aug. 1765. Willem Jacob Van de Graaf, Governor, &c. of India, 7th Feb. 1785. Jean Gerard Van Angelbeek, Governor, &c. under whose administration Colombo surrendered to the arms of his Britannic Majesty, on the 16th Feb. 1796.

ENGLISH GOVERNORS.

The Hon. the Governor of Madras in Council; administration commenced 16th

Feb. 1796. The Hon. Frederick North, 12th Oct. 1798. Lieut.-Gen. Right Hon. Sir Thomas Maitland, G.C.B. 19th July, 1809. Major-Gen. John Wilson, Lieut.-Governor, 19th March, 1811. General Sir Robert Brownrigg, Bart. G.C.B. 11th March, 1812. Major-Gen. Sir E. Barnes, K.C.B. Lieut.-Governor, 1st Feb. 1820. Lieut.-Gen. the Hon. Sir E. Paget, K.C.B. 2d Feb. 1823. Major-Gen. Sir J. Campbell, K.C.B. Lieut. Governor, 6th Nov. 1822. Lieut.-Gen. Sir E. Barnes, G.C.B. 18th Jan. 1824. Major-Gen. Sir J. Wilson, K.S.S. Lieut.-Governor, 13th Oct. 1831. The Right Hon. Sir Robert Willmot Horton, G.C.B. 23d Oct. 1831.

POPULATION.—That Ceylon was formerly extensively populated, is evident from the works and structures before alluded to, but it would appear the number of the inhabitants had been declining for the last four or five centuries. An increase has now commenced in the maritime provinces, which had in 1814—mouths, 475,888; in 1824, 695,105; and in 1832, 698,611. Col. Colebrooke states in his report, that the population in 1824, was in the southern or Cingalese provinces 399,408; in the northern or Malabar districts, 195,697, and in the interior or Kandyan provinces, 256,835, total 852,940. The returns from the maritime provinces are doubtless correct, as the village registers of marriages, and births, and deaths are kept as punctually there as in England;* but having myself traversed the Kandyan provinces more extensively perhaps than any European, I should think the estimate of their population is under rather than over the mark: it is to be feared, however, that the decreasing of the semi-barbarous inhabitants of this splendid region, has scarcely reached its acme, perhaps, it may now be considered stationary, as the comforts of the people are on the increase.

A Colonial Office Manuscript affords me a few consecutive years of the aggregate population of the island (I derive 1831 and 1832 from the Ceylon Almanac): it appears singular that the number of slaves should be on the increase, although every child born of bond parents since 1812 has been born free according to the generous determination of the slave-owners.

* The coroner's inquests held in the Maritime Provinces for the year 1833 shewed 148 deaths, of whom 38 fell from trees, 37 were drowned, 19 fell into wells, 6 from bites of serpents, 1 alligator, 2 elephants, 8 murder, 10 natural, and among the remainder are included 8 murders.

Population of Ceylon. (Colonial Office manuscript).

Years.	White and Free Coloured People.		Slaves.		Total.		Persons employed in			Maritime Provinces.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Agriculture.	Manufacture.	Commerce.	Births.	Marriages.	Deaths.
1823	27402	24706	10500	11950	38540	35066
1824	27065	24707	11700	15100	38868	36255
1827	26747	20110	10151	9586	47498	41076
1828	27045	25023	9723	9700	46777	45645	20512	25023	20225	10750	2182	10283
1830	28416	25027	10500	9800	49710	48285	20170	20302	21210	10000	2163	12010
1830	29028	23471	12304	10023	49723	44300	20224	20023	21272
1831	29074	23023	10501	10155	50078	44017	20021	20023	20127	20023	4745	17023
1832	21207	20021	11272	11616	33402	27427	20400	20000	27710	12700	2114	17023
1833												
1834												

Census of the Maritime Districts of Ceylon in 1814.

Above the Age of Puberty.		Children.		Total Males.	Total Females.	Grand Total.
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			
156,447	142,453	95,091	21,992	251,538	224,345	475,883

The following in some respects complete view of the population is highly interesting; it shews how thinly the island is peopled, there not being in some districts more than four, five, or six mouths to a square mile!—The average for the maritime districts is 66—for the Kandyan provinces 31—and for the whole island but 40.

* I should think these years embrace only the maritime provinces. Dr. Davy estimated the population of the Kandyan districts, in 1819, at 300,000—a number I should think, from my own knowledge of the country, rather too high; but it is perhaps difficult to say whether the population be increasing or decreasing in the interior.

Consent in the Year 1897 of the Population of Ceylon, and of the Births, Marriages and Deaths.

County or District.	Area in Miles.		Whites.		Ceylonians.		Sinhalese.		Total.		Persons employed in Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Other.	Marriages.	Deaths.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.					
Colombo	1,075	1,048	1,075	1,048	11,005	11,005	1,071	100	11,076	61,000	3,000	7,000	2,000	1,000	
Galle	400	375	400	375	45,000	45,000	400	100	45,400	17,000	6,000	10,000	2,000	1,000	
Trincomalee	1,100	1,050	1,100	1,050	11,000	11,000	1,100	100	12,200	25,000	3,000	10,000	1,000	1,000	
Puttalam	1,200	1,150	1,200	1,150	12,000	12,000	1,200	100	13,300	30,000	4,000	15,000	2,000	1,000	
Kandy	1,500	1,450	1,500	1,450	15,000	15,000	1,500	100	16,300	40,000	5,000	20,000	3,000	1,000	
Other Districts	10,000	9,500	10,000	9,500	100,000	100,000	10,000	1,000	110,500	500,000	60,000	200,000	20,000	10,000	
Total	24,275	23,523	24,275	23,523	235,075	235,075	24,275	2,000	262,347	1,000,000	100,000	300,000	30,000	15,000	
Male	12,137	11,886	12,137	11,886	122,537	122,537	12,137	1,000	133,674	500,000	50,000	150,000	15,000	7,500	
Female	12,138	11,637	12,138	11,637	112,538	112,538	12,138	1,000	128,673	500,000	50,000	150,000	15,000	7,500	
Grand Total	24,275	23,523	24,275	23,523	235,075	235,075	24,275	2,000	262,347	1,000,000	100,000	300,000	30,000	15,000	

Population of Ceylon, 1,000,000.

The following table shows the number of persons employed in agriculture, manufactures, and other occupations, and the number of marriages and deaths in each district.

The following table demonstrates that in the Colombo district, at least, population is on the increase; and it will be observed that the augmentation (except in the fort and pettah) has been steady for the last five years.

Population of the District of Colombo

Town of Colombo.						
Year.	Fort.	Pettah or Native Town.		Total.	Cotters or Divisions.	Grand Total of Colombo District.
		Within.	Without.			
1816	657	4,094	21,664	27,315	161,286	188,601
1820	734	4,078	25,478	31,190	184,178	215,368
1827	514	4,796	25,916	30,126	192,589	222,714
1833	469	4,966	24,454	29,889	194,543	224,432
1839	495	4,243	24,798	29,536	196,667	226,203
1846	465	4,800	26,080	31,345	200,786	232,131
1851	433	4,760	26,327	31,520	202,242	233,762
1853						237,781

The population of the island, although comprising a variety of different nations, may be divided into four distinct classes:—first, The Singalese or Ceylonese (descended, as some say, from the Sings or Rajpoots of Hindoostan, and by others from the Siamese)* proper, who occupy Kandy, and the S. and S. W. coasts of the island from Hambantotte to Chilaw. Second, the Malabars or Hindoos, who invaded Ceylon from the opposite coast, and are in possession of the north and east coasts, and of the peninsula of Jaffnapatam. Third, the Moors or descendants of the Arabs, or perhaps, from Mahomedans of Upper India, who are dispersed all over the island (as the Moslems are over Hindoostan) and in Paltam district form the mass of population. Fourth, Veddas or Beddas the aborigines of the island, who dwell in the most untutored state (having neither habitations nor clothing) in the great forests which extend from the S. to the E. and N., and also in the most inaccessible parts of the interior, wild fruits and beasts being their sole sustenance, and the branches of large trees their resting place. There are some Malays, Caffres, and

* Is it not probable that the Jains of Upper India and Rajpoots are one and the same people with the Siamese or Buddhists of Siam?

Javanese, a few Chinese, and Parsee traders, and a good many descendants of the Portuguese and Dutch, and even of the English mixed with native blood, scattered over the island. In colour the Singalese vary from light brown or olive to black; the eyes sometimes hazel, but the hair almost always black, long and silky; in height they are from 5 ft. 4 to 5 ft. 7; clean made, with neat muscle, and small bone; the chest capacious, and the shoulders broad; and in the mountainous districts, like most other Highlanders, they have short but strong and rather muscular legs and thighs; the hands and feet, like those of the Hindoos, are uncommonly small; the head well shaped, perhaps in general longer than the European; the features often handsome, and generally intelligent and animated; the beard is unshorn, giving manliness to the youthful countenance, and dignity to that of age. The Singalese woman, particularly those of the maritime provinces, are really handsome. The beau ideal is thus described by a Kandian courtier, well versed in the attributes of an Eastern Venus:—her hair should be voluminous, like the tail of a peacock—long, reaching to the knees, and terminating in graceful curls; her eyebrows should resemble the rainbow, her eyes the blue sapphire, and the petals of the blue manilla-flower; her nose should be like the bill of the hawk; her lips should be bright and red, like coral, or the young leaf of the iron tree; her teeth should be small, regular, closely set, and like jessamine-buds; her neck should be large and round, resembling the herring-godea; her chest capacious; her breast firm and conical, like the yellow cocoonut, and her waist small—almost small enough to be clasped by the hand; her hips wide; limbs tapering; soles of feet without any hollow; and the surface of her body in general soft, delicate, smooth, and rounded, without the asperities of projecting bones and sinews. The foregoing may be considered the most general external character of the Singalese, who are rather remarkable for agility and flexibility of fibre than for strength and power of limb. Whatever may have been the extent of civilization in Ceylon at a remote period,

at present I cannot say that the Singalese are superior, if indeed equal, to the Hindoos, in the domestic and fine arts; although many branches of manufactures, such as the weaving of cotton and silk, the smelting of, and working in, gold, silver, iron, copper, &c.; the cutting and setting of precious stones, the glazing of pottery, application of lacker, preparation of gunpowder, casting of cannon, distillation of spirits, &c. &c. are carried on, it is by the most simple instruments, and with little aid from mechanics, and less from science. In the fine arts they are scarcely on a par with the Hindoos, and in their structures of a recent period certainly far behind the latter people, or even less advanced than the Burmese. They however possess great capabilities of instruction, and in the neighbourhood of the principal British stations are beginning to profit by the superior handicraft of the European artisan.

Caste, as respects the Singalese and Malabars, is scrupulously preserved, and very widely ramified, almost every occupation having its distinct caste. There are for instance, the gold and silversmith's caste, the fisher's, the barber's, the washermen, the manufacturers of jaggery (sugar), the toddy drawer's, the lime-maker's, &c. &c. &c.; but the highest and most esteemed caste is that of Vellalans, or Goyas, whose occupations are purely agricultural; however as land is assigned for the performance of every description of service, the practice of agriculture is not confined to this class, but is exercised by persons of all castes for their subsistence. By the Kandyan laws the intermarriage of the high and low castes is prohibited, and many distinctions recognized and enforced by which the latter are degraded and reduced to a servile state, now considered hereditary. While the Malabars professing the Hindu faith maintain the *religious*, as well as the *civil* distinction of caste, the Singalese or Buddhists have abolished the former and retained the latter; hence, perhaps, the hostilities which prevailed between both sects, whose sacred dogmas are both apparently based on the creed, and doctrines of Menu, the great Hindoo lawgiver, an illustration for which will be found by contemplating the parallel of the Romanists

and Lutherans, the essentials of whose religion stripped of externals are for the most part alike. The distinctions of caste in Hindoostan as well as in Siam, Birmah, and Ceylon, had their origin in a superabundant population pressing too closely on the heels of subsistence, and it was perhaps thought that the introduction of a minute division of labour would not only give more extended employment, but also enable each person to learn more carefully his business; probably, also, it was politically conjectured that the division of an immense population of so many millions into castes or sects, would render the task of government more easy, by keeping every individual in a fixed station in society. Women, as in most parts of the East, are looked on as an inferior race of beings, and not fit to be trusted, as will be seen by the following popular distich, translated from the Singalese language:—

'I've seen the udumbara tree* in flower, white plumage on the crow,
 And fishes' footsteps o'er the deep, have traced through ebb and flow;
 If man it is who thus asserts, his word you may believe,
 But all that woman says distrust—she speaks but to deceive.'

BUDDHIST OR SINGHALESE RELIGION.

The religion of the Singalese is Buddhism, the early history of which is little known. Many Hindoo writers agree, that *Budh* or *Boodh*, is supposed to be the ninth avatar or incarnation of *Vishnu* (the second person of the Hindoo Triad, and God of preservation;) having appeared for the purpose of reclaiming the Hindoos from many abominations into which they had fallen, and to teach them more benevolent forms of worship, than through the means of human and animal sacrifices which they *then* extensively (and with respect to animals *now*) practised. These doctrines, says Mr. Coleman, being too simple, and therefore interfering too strongly with the privileges of the Brahminical priests, a religious war ensued between the old and new sects, and the Buddhists were ultimately expelled from the peninsula of India.

* A species of fig-tree, which never bears flowers.

[Here we find a striking analogy to the incarnation of our Saviour.] But the Buddhists, in general, will not tolerate the idea of superior antiquity being vested in the Brahminical faith; they deny the identity of their deity with the ninth avatar of Vishnu, which they declare was a mere manifestation of his power. They do not acknowledge a *creation* of the universe, but assert that it has been destroyed many times and by some extraordinary operation as often reproduced. They enumerate twenty-two of these regenerated worlds, each of which was successively governed by Buddhas, and that the present universe has been ruled successively by four, of whom *Gautama* or *Gaudama* (whose doctrines now prevail in Ceylon, Ava, Siam, &c.) is the fourth; a fifth, *Maitree Buddha*, is yet to come, previous to which this world will be destroyed.

The commandments of Buddha, were originally *five* (necessary towards salvation) but five others were added, which were meritorious but not imperative. The first five are—1st. Not to kill a living creature of any kind; 2nd. Not to steal; 3rd. Not to commit adultery; 4th. Not to speak an untruth on any occasion; 5th. Not to use intoxicating liquors or drugs. The meritorious commands are—not to eat after mid-day; and not to sleep on costly, soft, or elevated beds, (but on clean mats) or indulge sensually. The others inculcate, generally, virtue and benevolence, and the practice of individual abstinence.

The *heavens* of the Buddhists are twenty-six, placed one above another; which together with their *hells* are thus described by Mr. Coleman; and it will be seen that there is indeed much need of the light of education and Christianity, to remove such ideas from the minds of an otherwise intelligent and fine looking race of human beings:—

THE HEAVENS of the Buddhas are 26, placed one above another. At the end of the *mada calpi*, when the world will be at an end, six of the lower of these celestial abodes will be destroyed by fire, four by storms, and six by water. The four superior heavens will escape destruction; but what will become of the six intermediate ones does not so clearly appear.

THE GREAT HELLS are 34; but besides these there are 120 smaller hells. Those

which are not immediately under the earth; which may possibly account for the many volcanoes, whirlpools, and sunry explosions and other turbulent things that it contains.

The punishment for sinners in these hells are as correspondingly degrading, as the condition of the good is in the heavens transcendently happy; with this difference, that in their amended state they contrive to forget (a thing very uncommon in this lower world of care) what they escaped from; whereas, in their degraded situation, their reminiscences are more perfect; as we are told of a priestly dignitary, who having, for practices it may be presumed partaking of the nature of the insect, been transformed into a louse, became so absolutely miserable at the idea of his goods and chattels, especially his garment, in which he took great pride (unlike the pious and patriarchal pastors of the western world, who entertain no such proud or selfish feelings, or worldly considerations for rich garments or rich chattels of any kind) being divided among the surviving priests, that his agitation was painfully obvious to his old associates, who, with the feeling common to their order towards sentient animals, applied to Gautama to know what to do. The deity desired them to wait seven days (the term of a louse's life,) in which time the miserable insect would be emancipated in some way from his then unhappy state. A louse's mental agony is, however, but as the bite of one to some of the infernal punishments of the Buddha's Tartarus. Assura Nat are their Minos and Rhadamantus, and, as it may be imagined, are not very tender in awarding to their opponents their full share of any tortures which their misdeeds may have called for. One of these is, that a man as big as three mountains, and who is always in a hungry state, is tormented by having a mouth no longer than the eye of the finest needle. The punishments attributed to the hells of the Buddha assimilate very nearly to those ascribed to the Tartar of the Hindus.

The destruction of the world will, it is imagined, take place in the following manner. A great rain will, at a future time fall, in torrents; after which not a drop will descend from the heavens for a hundred thousand years. In this period, plants, animals, and every living thing will perish, the sun and the moon will disappear, and, in their stead, two false suns will arise. The one will succeed the other, rising when it sets. There will then be no night. The heat will be intense, and small bodies of water dried up. A third sun will arise and dry up the largest rivers; a fourth, and fifth will come and dry up the different seas; a sixth will rend asunder the 1,010,000 earths, from whose rents will be emitted smoke and flames. By the seventh sun the heavenly mountains Meru, and all its celestial inhabitants, will be consumed. The destroying fire, having then nothing more to feed it, will expire of its own accord.

TO FUTURE STATE.—The Buddha alleges that every thing exists from natural causes; that virtue brings its own reward, and vice its own punishment; and that the state of man is probationary. If he be virtuous, he will after death, ascend to one of the lower heavens, but will be born again many times; and as he may each time continue virtuous, or according to the extent of his virtue, he will progressively ascend in the scale of celestial bliss, till he may finally reach the highest heaven, and obtain *Nirvani* or *absorption*, not as the Hindus believe, into a supreme being, which would not be in accordance with the doctrines of the Budd.

has, but a kind of cessation of animal suffering, and exemption from further transmigration. [In fact, nothingness.]

If he has been wicked, he will, in like manner, descend into the different hells, and will exist again in the forms of different animals, according to the nature and extent of his sins; but the duration of his punishment is not eternal, and is still supposed to depend upon himself. He may thus, according to his conduct in the various forms he may exist in, be again elevated to the probationary condition of man; and, although his crimes may have once degenerated him into a lion, or, as just noticed, into a louse, a monkey, a mammoth, or a maggot, he will still, on attaining the state of man, be in a condition to look forward, by the practice of virtue, to obtain at a future period the blissful reward of Nivani. [Or Nothingness.] If, however, he continues to be wicked in this degraded and degenerate state, he will descend still lower, and become a devil, than which nothing can be imagined more base or miserable.

Gaudama has enjoined, as a necessary qualification to obtain *Nivani* or *absorption*, the performance of *dana*, or the bestowing of alms; and of *bhavana*, which consists in pronouncing three words: *anisa*, *doccha*, and *anatta*. The first is to shew that he recollects that life is subject to vicissitudes; the second, that man is thereby liable to misfortune; and the third, that exemption from either does not depend upon himself.

PRINCEMOON.—The Buddhas do not, like the Brahmias, respect fire, and the *rahans* (or priests), never kindle one, lest they should thereby destroy the life of an animal.* They consequently do not cook any food; though they eat that which has possessed life, provided it be ready dressed; such, at least, appears to be the case in Ava, but in some places it is said to be different. They commonly subsist on provisions given as alms; to collect which they issue every morning from their convents, as early as it is sufficiently light for them to distinguish the veins on their hands. They do not beg, but they stop before every house in a street. If food be given to them, they put it into their *sabei* or baskets, and pass on without returning thanks; if none be given, they go on to the next house in silence. They are clothed in a large yellow mantle, folded becomingly round them, passing over the left shoulder, and leaving the right shoulder, and breast, uncovered. They shave their heads and beards, and go barefooted; are usually clean, but do not wear any ornaments. On receiving the sacerdotal rank, they are enjoined to live in houses built under trees in the woods; but these injunctions are qualified; so that they usually reside in convents or colleges, which in Ava are described as the best habitations in the empire, built in the most agreeable situations.

They are well-conducted, kind and hospitable to strangers, and are the best informed men in the Burman empire. Each college has a head, called *sara* or teacher; of which, according to the size of the colleges, or the estimation in which they are held, there are degrees. The head of the colleges is the *sawdo* or royal abbot. Towards the whole of them the utmost respect and attention are shown. They are the gratuitous instructors of youth, which is considered as a work of merit.

* A Buddhist priest on being shewn the animalcules in a glass of water, rather than continue to live even on water, is said to have voluntarily starved himself.

During their priesthood they must remain in a state of celibacy, and observe other strict regulations; but may, at any time leave their convent and marry, which is frequently done.

The Buddhists do not, strictly speaking, believe in a Supreme Being; the Jains, however, (one of the sects of Boodh) do, and also admit of castes, which the former deny; yet the Jains assert that the Supreme Being has no power over the universe. The dead are generally burned as among the Hindoos, where the Ganges is not contiguous.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT OF CEYLON.

The legislative administration of the island is confided to the governor, aided by a council composed from among the oldest and most distinguished European civil servants, appointed by the governor or sometimes by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in England, and comprising six unofficial members selected from the chief landed proprietors, or principal merchants: it is provided that printed copies of proposed ordinances be sent to the members ten days before the summoning of the council, and the regulations or laws of the government are published in the Official Gazette some time before their enactment, in order to elicit public discussion; when passed into law they take immediate effect in the maritime districts on their publication, and in the Kandyan districts by the governor's proclamation, subject in both to the final approval of the king in council. There is a special board for the administration of the affairs of the Kandyan Provinces, whom the governor is in the habit of consulting previous to his extension of an enactment there, which may have been ordained for the lower or maritime provinces. In the maritime provinces the governor is restricted from authorising contingent disbursements exceeding 75*l.*, without the concurrence of the council; but in the Kandyan provinces he orders expenditure on his own control. In his executive capacity the governor refers, or not to the council, as he wills, but his proceedings are recorded in the secretary for government's office or in the department charged with the execution of the measure. The regulations of the government are published with the transla-

tions, in the native languages, (Cingalese and Malabar), and widely disseminated.

Three classes of persons are employed in carrying on the business of government: first, the civil servants, who are sent out as 'writers' from England, under the patronage of the Secretary of State for the Colonies; there are twenty-five principal appointments in the island to which these gentlemen are alone eligible, the *seniors* being exclusively employed as heads of departments, in the revenue, as government agents, chief secretary, paymaster, or auditor-general, &c. &c.: as collectors of districts and provincial judges and magistrates. The *juniors* as assistants to the collectors or magistrates, and in the chief secretary's department. On its present footing the effective civil service consists of thirty-eight members; an acquirement of one or both of the native languages is indispensable previous to the holding of a responsible situation. The second class is formed of Europeans (*not of the civil service*), or their descendants, from among whom are appointed provincial magistrates, (of which rank there are sixteen), and clerks in public offices. The third class comprises the natives, who hold the situations of modeliers (or Lieuts.) or korles (or districts), interpreters to the courts of justice, and to the collectors' offices or *cutcheries*. The modeliers are still recognized according to ancient custom as commanders of the *lascoreigns* or district militia, although at present chiefly employed in the civil administration of the country, and in the execution of public works. There are, of course, gradations of native officers in authority under them; the assistants of all natives are still regulated in a great degree by caste. Independent of the numerous *government* 'headmen' and the *titular* 'headmen' who receive no emoluments, there are, in conformity to ancient usage, headmen appointed to each caste or class, some of whom receive certain perquisites as the head of fishermen do of the fish caught, &c. Since 1828 no 'headmen' have been appointed who could not read and write the English language, and the headmen form a valuable connecting link in the social fabric, as well as an intelligent

and respectable body of individuals, from among whom the government can select officers for the more immediate service of the state. The number of principal headmen in the Cingalese districts amount to 243. In the Malabar 112, and in the Kandyan to 47; these numbers do not include the headmen of villages, who are more numerous.

The fourth class consists of officers selected from the regiments serving in Ceylon, for the fulfilment of the post of government agents or sitting magistrates in the Kandyan Provinces, the duties of which are performed efficiently and creditably upon small salaries in addition to their military allowances.

PATRONAGE.—All appointments to the higher offices are provisionally made by the governor, who selects candidates from the civil service according to their seniority, when otherwise qualified; subject, however, to the confirmation of the Secretary of State in England.

The magistrates and clerks are also appointed by the government; the modelars and principal headmen hold their appointments under His Excellency's Warrant, being recommended by the Commissioner of Revenue, the provincial headmen being recommended by the Collectors of Districts. In the Kandyan Provinces appointments are similarly made by the Governor, on the recommendation of the Board of Commissioners (to whom the more immediate management of those Provinces is committed) including the chiefs or principal headmen of provinces or departments, the chiefs of temples, and the priests in the colleges or *Wihars*. In the Northern or Malabar provinces, the headmen of villages or *castles* are commonly appointed on the nomination of the inhabitants, a deputation of villagers making a return to the magistrates of the candidate approved of by them.

JUDICIAL.

Justice is administered first by a supreme court, with powers equivalent to the Court of King's Bench, and in equitable

jurisdiction to the High Court of Chancery; it is presided over by three judges, appointed from England, aided by a King's Advocate (whose functions are similar to the Lord Advocate of Scotland), Master in Equity and Registrar, also appointed from home; and thanks to the enlightened patriotism of Sir Alexander Johnson, trial by jury (with reference to Europeans or natives), is established under its supremacy.

The island has been recently divided into five provinces, the N., S., E., W. and central, each of which are again subdivided into districts.

Within each district, there is one court, called the District Court, holden before one judge, and three assessors; the district judge is appointed by the crown and removable at pleasure; the assessors are selected from amongst the inhabitants of the island, whether natives or otherwise, twenty-one years of age, possessing certain qualifications. The right of appointing, in each district court, one person to act as permanent assessor, is reserved to the crown. The officers of the district courts are appointed in like manner as those of the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court is held at Colombo (except on circuit), and the district courts at a convenient specified place in each district.

Each district court is a court of civil and criminal jurisdiction, and has cognizance of and full power to hear and determine civil suits, in which the defendant is resident, or in which the subject of action shall have occurred, within the district (where the judge is a party, the court adjoining takes cognizance of the cause); and to try all offences, short of such as are punishable with death, transportation or banishment, imprisonment for more than a year, whipping exceeding one hundred lashes, a fine exceeding 100, which shall have been committed within the district.

Each district court has the care and custody of the persons

* The chief and two puisne judges hold office during the pleasure of the crown, and may be suspended upon proof of incapacity or misconduct by the governor and council.

and estates of idiots and lunatics resident within the district, with power to appoint guardians and curators; and power to appoint administrators of intestates' effects within the district, and to determine the validity of wills and to record and grant probate thereof, and to take securities from executors and administrators, and to require accounts of such persons.

Offences against the revenue laws are cognizable before the district courts (saving the rights of the Vice Admiralty Courts), limited as in respect to criminal prosecutions.

The judgements and interlocutory and other orders of the district courts, are pronounced in open court, the judge stating, in the hearing of the assessors, the questions of law and fact, with the grounds and reasons of his opinion; and the assessors declare, in open court, their respective opinions and votes on each and every question of law or fact: in case of a difference of opinion between the judge and the majority of the assessors, the opinion of the judge prevails and is taken as the sentence of the whole court, a record being made and preserved of the vote of each.

The Supreme Court is a court of sole appellate jurisdiction for the district courts, with original criminal jurisdiction throughout the island: civil and criminal sessions of the supreme court are held by one of the judges in each circuit, twice in each year: all the judges are required to be never absent at the same time from Colombo, and also to be resident at the same time at Colombo, not less than one month, twice in each year.

At every civil sessions of the supreme court, on circuit, three assessors are associated with the judge; and every criminal sessions is held before the judge and a jury of thirteen men. In all civil suits, the judge and assessors deliver their opinions and votes as in the district courts; in appeals from the district courts, in criminal prosecutions, the appeal has not the effect of staying the execution of the sentence, unless the judge of the district court see fit. All questions of fact, upon which issue shall be joined at any criminal sessions of the supreme court, on circuit, are decided by the jury, or

major part of them; questions of law are decided by the judge in open court, with the grounds and reasons thereof.

Where a person is adjudged to die by the supreme court, at a criminal sessions, execution is respited till the case be reported by the presiding judge to the governor.

Judges on circuit holding criminal sessions, are required to direct all fiscals and keepers of prisons, within the circuit, to certify the persons committed and their offences, who may be required to be brought before the judge.

The judges of the supreme court, on circuit, examine the records of the district courts, and if it shall appear that contradictory or inconsistent decisions have been given by the same or different district courts, the judges report the same to the supreme court at Colombo, who prepare the draft of a declaratory law upon the subject, and transmit it to the governor, who submits such draft to the legislative council. The supreme court also make rules and orders for the removal of doubts.

The supreme court, or any judge of the same, at sessions or on circuit, may grant or refuse writs of *habeas corpus* and injunctions; it may require district courts to transmit to Colombo the records in any case appealed, and may hear and decide appeals, in a summary way, without argument, and may frame and establish rules and orders of the court, not repugnant to the charter, which promote the discovery of truth, economy, and expedition in business, to be drawn up in plain and succinct terms, avoiding unnecessary repetitions and obscurity.

Appeals are allowed to the King in Council, subject to the following rules and limitations:—1. The appeal must be brought, by way of review, before the judges of the supreme court collectively, holding a general sessions at Colombo, at which all the judges shall be present. 2. The matter in dispute must exceed the value of 500*l*. 3. Leave to appeal must be applied for within 14 days. 4. If the appellant be the party against whom sentence is given, the sentence shall be carried into execution, if the respondent shall give secu-

rity for the immediate performance of any sentence pronounced by the Privy Council; until which the sentence appealed from shall be stayed. 5. If the appellant shall show that real justice requires the stay of execution, pending the appeal, the supreme court may stay execution, on security, as before. 6. In all cases, the appellant shall give security to prosecute the appeal, and for costs. 7. The court appealed from shall determine the nature of the securities. 8. Where the subject of litigation is immoveable property, and the judgement appealed from shall not affect the occupancy, security is not to be required; but if the judgement do affect the occupancy, then the security shall not be of greater amount than to restore the property, and the intermediate profit accruing from the occupancy, pending the appeal. 9. Where the subject of litigation consists of chattels or personal property, the security shall, in all cases, be a bond to the amount, or mortgage. 10. The security for prosecution of appeal and for costs, shall in no case exceed 300*l*. 11. The security must be completed within three months from the date of the petition of leave to appeal. 12. Any person feeling aggrieved by any order respecting security or appeal, may petition the Privy Council.

The same laws are administered in the District Courts as in the Supreme Court, — namely the Dutch, (or Roman law with certain exceptions.)

A prisoner can only be tried in the supreme court, upon the prosecution of the king's advocate, he has the right of challenge to the jury before whom he is to be arraigned, he is entitled on his trial to the assistance of an eminent proctor or barrister, *paid by the government* (an admirable provision) and the witnesses on both sides, in criminal cases before the supreme court, are also paid by the government.

POLICE. — Crimes, except in some of the maritime provinces where the drinking of arrack leads to every species of vice, are in general rare, and the Singalese being in the aggregate a quiet, docile people, petty litigation (owing to the extended division of property) usurps the place of passion and its

attendant results. Owing to the peculiar constitution of the village communities, each of which has its "Headman" and subordinate officers, and peons or constables, the commission of an offence is speedily followed by detection; among the principal offences are rape and nose-slitting and the mutilation of the limbs, for the purpose of carrying off the gold and precious stones with which women and children are adorned; violent murders are more rare than poisonings, the latter mode of revenge being more suited to a timid people. In the Kandyan provinces crime is very unfrequent, and the village police excellent.

MILITARY.—The regular armed force maintained in the island consists at present of four King's regiments of infantry (the head-quarters of which are stationed at Colombo, Kandy and Trincomalee), two companies of the Royal Foot Artillery, a mounted body-guard for the Governor, and the 1st Ceylon regiment, composed principally of Malays, nearly 2,000 strong, and one of the finest regiments in His Majesty's service. I have never seen any native troops on the continent of India to equal the 1st Ceylon light infantry, either in appearance or manœuvring, and their conduct during the Kandyan war proved them to be inferior to no light infantry in the world. Their dress is dark green, and their arms a compact rifle, with a short strong sword attachable instead of a bayonet. They are native officered, as in the E. I. C.'s sepoy regiments, with European officers to each of the 16 companies, and their fidelity to their leaders has been evinced in every possible manner whenever an opportunity presented itself. I have seen many regiments of different nations under arms, but none ever offered to my view such a striking *coup d'œil* as H. M.'s 1st Ceylon rifle regiment.

The general as well as military reader will be gratified by the following account of military allowances, expenses, amusements, and annoyances, as detailed in a letter from Ceylon dated July, 1833:—

The barracks in Colombo fort are small detached ones, not holding more than a company, built by the Dutch so immediately under the ramparts as to exclude

the breeze which is so necessary in this climate. The mortality occasioned last year by the cholera has attracted the attention of government to the accommodation of the troops, and measures are now in progress that will add considerably to their comforts. The hospital is not good, the wards are not sufficient to allow a classification of the diseases, and there is not a proper place for convalescents. The officers hire houses in the fort; they seldom contain more than four rooms, with accommodation for servants. Bath and stabling, and very good quarters, may be got for 2*l.* 5*s.* per month, in some situations for 1*l.* 10*s.*; in the principal street, where the houses are very superior, 3*l.* 15*s.* to 6*l.* is paid. Officers find their own furniture, but that is of little importance where all the articles for comfort or luxury are to be bought on terms that would astonish a London upholsterer. Six arm-chairs, with rattanned seats, cost about 2*l.* 5*s.*; a pair of couches, 2*l.*; tables, varying from 10*s.* upwards, but a good one to dine four, may be purchased for that price; they are all made of jack wood, which is handsome, and takes a high polish. No European servants are allowed, two natives are sufficient for a bachelor,—a head servant at 1*l.* a month, a boy at 9*s.*; if you keep a horse, a servant to attend him, and accompany his master on foot when he goes out, will cost 15*s.* a month. They support and clothe themselves. To meet these extra expenses the island allowance monthly is, for a lieutenant-colonel, 32*l.*; a major, 23*l.*; a captain 13*l.* 16*s.*; a lieutenant, 8*l.* 5*s.* an ensign, 6*l.*; a surgeon, 17*l.*; assistant-surgeon, 10*l.*; quarter-master and adjutant, 10*l.*; 5*l.* extra is allowed for the commandants of corps. This is to cover all expenses of house rent, servants, fuel, candles, and marching money. The allowance of the subs should be 10*l.*, to enable them to meet the extra expenses they are put to by those who are paid more liberally. Messing is about 2*s.* a day, but 6*d.* more may be added for contingent expenses. The dinners, particularly in Colombo, are good;—every variety of poultry, excellent fish, venison and game, are to be bought reasonable. Madeira and light French claret are the usual wines, and are drunk at 3*s.* a bottle. Sherry is getting much in vogue, but many of the messes on stranger-days sport champagne, hock, and Carbonnel's or Sneyd's best claret, to the great detriment of the finances of the junior members. The duty in Colombo is a subaltern's guard. The captains assist the field-officers in doing the garrison duty. There is a garrison field-day every Monday morning, and regimental parades once a day. The society of Colombo is composed of the families of the military and the gentlemen holding the civil situations under Government. It is sociable and agreeable; there are numerous private parties, and a public ball once a month; the messes frequently invite their friends to evening parties. The style of living is good, and combines more both of comfort and luxury than is usually found in the same class of society in Europe.

There is a subscription library, supplied with a large assortment of newspapers and every publication of interest, and standard works. Each regiment (Colombo is the head-quarters of two European regiments) has its own billiard-table; it is very rare indeed to hear of high play at them: they are a source of amusement in a place where the heat will not admit of exposure during the day, and, as it is unattended with expense, has not been productive of evil consequence.

REVENUE.—The gross aggregate revenue of Ceylon has

for some years averaged somewhat more than 530,000*l.* per annum, but from the great expenses attending the realization of some of the principal branches of revenue, and from the changes which are now taking place (the cinnamon monopoly, for instance, being abolished) it is difficult to state the net or even precise revenue of the last year, it may be averaged, however at *five shillings* a head per annum.

THE FOLLOWING ITEMS FORMED THE REVENUE OF CEYLON FOR 1832.

Land Rents	21,300	Premium on Bills	3,976
Cinnamon	147,549	Post Offices	1,549
Salt	24,653	Stud of Horses' Sale	508
Pearl Fishing	3,887	Auction Duty	215
Fish Rents	6,986	Interest of various Monies	2,740
Licences	29,179	Tribute from Wedderate	104
Sea Customs	65,176	Sale of Government Gazette	437
Land ditto	4,176	Sundries	1,000
Lands and Houses	195	Receipts in aid of Revenue	25,234
Steam Engine	1,127	Arrears of Revenue in former years	12,346
Stamps	2,729	Making an aggregate income of	£ 370,000.
Judicial Receipts	10,461		
Fines and Forfeitures	979		
Commutation Tax	3,008		

The land assessment is trifling as regards the receipts of treasury, and collected under a bad system, namely, in kind, and from speculators who farm it out from the Government. The grain, when collected by Government, is stored for the use of the troops and for sale; every attempt at a permanent settlement on the land has hitherto failed; and owing to the quantity of waste land, and that held only by service tenure, the difficulties in the way of such a desirable measure have hitherto been found impracticable.

In the land-rents are included the duties levied on cocoa-nut trees, and it affords a singular view of the importance of that palm to the people, when we find that while the tax on rice-lands does not yield a larger revenue than 21,000*l.*, the revenue derived from the cocoa-nut tree amounts to 35,573*l.**

* Schedule of duties levied on cocoa-nut plantations:—

Distilling of arrack	£3,644	Exports of jaghery	£162.
Retail of ditto	24,975	Ditto of copperas	1,539.
Export of ditto	3,136	Ditto of cocoa nuts	1,551.
Ditto of coira or rope	153	Ditto of cocoa-nut oil	413.

The revenue on cinnamon is in future to be collected on the export, instead of as heretofore on a monopoly of the sale. The fish-rents are raised by a duty (generally of one-tenth) on all fish caught; the farm of each station is annually sold. The duty as levied is exceedingly vexatious, and it would indeed be desirable to raise an equal amount of revenue by some less objectionable means; for instance, by a system of licenses for boats or fishers, or, if possible, to do away with so heavy a tax on the subsistence of the people. The revenue from the pearl fishery in the Gulf of Manaar is extremely precarious; the average amount of revenue for the last 32 years is 14,662*l.* per annum. The fishery of 1829 realized a profit to the Government of 39,000*l.*; but the speculators who farmed it from the Government sustained a loss, the produce of the oysters being extremely various according to the season. Chanks, or sea-shells, which the Hindoos use as bangles, or ornaments, for the wrists and ancles, are also monopolized by the Government, and farmed out often to the pearl fishery farmers, as the divers for the latter answer for the former; in 1816, the chank fishery produced 6,700*l.*, it has now declined to 37*l.* per annum. The gross revenue derived from the sale of salt is 27,781*l.* per annum; the profit of the Government (for whom salt is made partly by voluntary, partly by compulsory labour, and in some cases by debtors, who have sold their service for life to the owners of the salt pans, in consideration of 25 or 30 rix dollars—1*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* or 2*l.* 5*s.*!) on the sale of salt varies in the different districts from 800 to 1,000 per cent. on the coast and collecting it; the amount of contingent expenses incurred on account of it exceeds 4,000*l.* per annum, and with the establishment constitute a charge of 20 or 25 per cent. on the gross

* The notice for abolishing the cinnamon monopoly is given in the Ceylon Government Gazette, 9th March, 1833; after 10th July, the general export of cinnamon was permitted from the ports of Colombo and Galle, on payment of a duty of 3*s.* per lb. on every sort without distinction. All restrictions against the cultivation, sale, or possession of cinnamon by private individuals of course has ceased.

revenue. Colonel Colebrook's report on the salt monopoly shews it to be most injurious in its operation on the morals, health, and commerce of the people; it is to be hoped that his suggestion for reducing the monopoly price, permitting the collection of salt by the people for exportation, and also for the curing and preservation of fish, will be attended to. No excise system could be possibly more destructive to a country than the mode in which the salt revenue is collected in Ceylon. Want of space forbids me here entering on it.

Sea customs, it will be perceived, form, next to cinnamon, the largest items of revenue;—63,667*l.* per annum, of which 43,169*l.* are levied on goods imported, and 20,498*l.* are produced, exported, or carried coastwise. Of the *export duties* of the year 1829, amounting to 21,021*l.*, there was levied on arrack 3,842*l.*, and on other productions of the cocoa-nut tree 3,047*l.* on tobacco 7,132*l.*, and on areka nuts 5,456*l.* Of the *import duties* of the same year, amounting to 44,815*l.*, there was levied on grain 17,042*l.*, and on cotton cloth 17,146*l.*, being together more than three-fourths of the whole amount. The duty on British cottons is 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, and on India cottons by tariff from 8 to 25 per cent. The progressive abolition of the export duties would materially improve the agriculture and commerce of this island.

The harbour duties levied in the principal ports are chiefly derived from fees on port clearances, &c. but the charges on shipping, as well as on goods exported, is too high if the prosperity of the island be desired. The stamp duties are one of the largest branches of internal revenue. The collection of stamps and fees in the provincial and magistrates' Courts amount to 9,155*l.* per annum, and the stamps sold for general purposes to 3,198. There is an auction duty of 3 per cent. on *moveable* property, which yields but 232*l.* per annum; on the sale of *immoveable* property there is a stamp duty of 2½ per cent. The judicial fines and forfeitures produce 1,338*l.*, and the toll on bridges, canals, and ferries 4,114*l.* per annum. The stamps on petitions to the Government should certainly be repealed.

The capitation tax of 1s. 6d. per head, though ceased to be levied in the Cingalese districts, owing to its great unpopularity, is still levied in the Malabar districts as a commutation for other personal taxes formerly levied—viz. a tax on toddy drawers, a tax for post carriers, a tax on the wearing of jewels, and other native ornaments, which in the year 1800, were generally imposed throughout the country. The annual revenue on spirits is, for distilling arrack 3,645*l.*, and for retail sale of ditto 24,975*l.* The revenue derived for licensing gambling-houses (446*l.*) will, it is to be hoped, be abolished, as also the licenses for honorary ceremonies of the natives, tending as they do to perpetuate caste (319*l.*), the privilege of collecting precious stones (revenue 73*l.*), and of gleaning pearls from the sands after a pearl fishery (revenue 40*l.*), are too trifling and too contemptible to need comment. The nominal revenue derived from the sale of horses bred by government, Delf Island (768*l.*) per annum, is unworthy consideration, as the cost of their production is upwards of 1,000*l.* a year. The amount realised by government by the sale of elephants has not lately exceeded 61*l.* per annum, and the amount produced by the sale of tusks, is 37*l.* per annum. The Wedderati tribute of 78*l.* per annum, is derived from an annual tribute of wax, &c. from the 'Weddahs' or 'Beddas' wild tribes, inhabiting the forests of the interior. The premium upon bills drawn by the Colonial Government upon its agent in London amounting to 4,800*l.* a year is included in the colonial receipts, though it can scarcely be considered a source of revenue. As the whole of the revenue system of Ceylon is now under the consideration and modification of the government, it would be unnecessary to particularize further.

EXPENDITURE.—From the time of our acquisition of this island, its revenue has been inadequate to meet the expenditure, whether wisely or unnecessarily incurred. Certainly much of the expenditure arose from causes which now cease to operate—namely, internal war with the Kandyans, and, in consequences of hostilities in Europe or British India: even

NET REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF CEYLON FOR 14 YEARS. 551

at this moment, a larger military force is kept up at Ceylon than is required for the mere protection of the island, in consequence of its being the Malta or Gibraltar of our eastern possessions. The following abstract was laid before the finance committee of parliament in 1828.

Net Revenue and Expenditure of Ceylon for Fourteen Years.

Years.	Net Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Expenditure.	Years.	Net Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Expenditure.
1811	301,768	411,249	109,491	1818	359,595	454,496	94,901
1812	371,310	370,301	99,991	1819	343,375	478,940	135,565
1813	320,806	401,776	179,970	1820	404,123	476,084	71,961
1814	358,416	409,369	150,953	1821	379,497	410,136	39,639
1815	370,787	511,434	134,677	1822	313,142	369,038	55,896
1816	344,646	450,592	105,946	1823	286,863	404,480	117,618
1817	340,930	416,491	76,471	1824	307,945	393,548	95,603
	2,377,813	3,061,122	750,409		3,374,339	3,966,692	612,113

We perceive from the foregoing, that notwithstanding the heavy expenses incurred by the Kandyan war, and the necessity for occupying a large extent of the interior, which, for several years could not be expected to meet the charges requisite for its maintenance and peace; yet the excess of expenditure in the latter years had considerably diminished; but a more agreeable prospect of the finances of the colony is presented to us in the Ceylon Almanac for 1834, which gives the revenue and expenditure from 1821 to 1832, thus—

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue.	Excess of Expenditure.	Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue.	Excess of Expenditure.
1821	459,699	481,864	..	22,165	1827	364,788	411,648	..	146,913
1822	478,669	438,340	18,398	..	1828	363,712	339,310	..	38,894
1823	586,406	476,348	..	130,056	1829	389,584	344,757	44,777	..
1824	387,239	441,028	..	54,333	1830	408,473	347,899	86,440	..
1825	355,320	495,339	..	140,209	1831	420,170	366,563	73,606	..
1826	376,368	394,399	..	118,879	1832	369,427	326,100	31,327	..
Total	2,309,711	2,747,793	18,398	458,419	Total	2,183,113	2,197,618	206,166	188,307

In 1832, the principal items of expenditure of the colony were:—*Civil Charges*.—Ordinary, 44,233*l.*; extraordinary, 41,737*l.*; *Judicial*, ordinary, 26,664*l.*; extraordinary, 2,125*l.*; *Revenue*, ordinary, 31,165*l.*; extraordinary, 32,270*l.*; *Miscellaneous*, 1,582*l.*.—Total, *Civil, Revenue and Judicial*, 186,696*l.*, (exclusive of arrears of past years.)

Military Expenditure.—Pay and Allowances to European and native troops, 46,959*l.*; Do. Staff, 18,903*l.*; Do. Engineer's department, 66,973*l.*; Extra for Contingent Charges, 5,672*l.*

Commissariat.—Provisions, 25,955*l.*; Barracks, 1,290*l.*; Engineers, 3,736*l.*; Contingencies, 5,778*l.*.—Total Commissariat, 36,059*l.*

The charges for the 1st Ceylon Light Infantry, (1600 rank and 81, and 1623 strong) as voted in the army estimates for 1835-36 are—pay and daily allowances, 33,974*l.*; annual allowances to officers, &c. 6244*l.*; clothing, 1,500*l.*;—total, 36,098*l.* There is also a charge for the Ceylon invalids (the remnant of disbanded corps, rank and file 163, and 165 strong) of 1,959*l.* The staff charges in the Army estimates, in the same year, under the head of Ceylon are—*General Staff*, 1,737*l.*; *Medical*, 1,967*l.*.—Total, 3,704*l.* There is no garrison charge. The Ordnance estimates for 1833-34 give the following for Ceylon:—*Ordinary* 2,268*l.*; *Extraordinary*, 3,614*l.*

Fixed Establishment in Ceylon, 4,196*l.*; Contingent Expenses, 21,175*l.*; Insurance, 2,989*l.*; London Charges, 10,776*l.*; Freight to London, 5,164*l.* Total, 42,300*l.*

Total Military Expenditure, 108,705*l.*.—Total Civil ditto, 184,696*l.*

To the foregoing is to be added the Agent's expenses in England, 27,735*l.*; Military Arrears of former years, 6,734*l.*;—making a grand total of for 1832, 328,860*l.*

A return to the House of Commons, dated 26th April, 1833, gives under Ceylon (in the Army Colonial disbursements)—*Ordinary*, 78,502*l.*; *Extraordinary*, 18,168*l.*;—total, 96,660*l.*, with an addition of 150*l.* colonial establishments.

The ordinary expense of the revenue department is thus stated by Colonel Colebrooke:—Commissioner of Revenue, 4,235*l.*; Collectors of Revenue, 23,243*l.*; Collectors of Maritime Districts (1,000*l.* to 1,600*l.*) 20,245*l.*; Revenue Commissioner of Kandy, 3,118*l.*; Government Agents of Kandyan Provinces, 5,839*l.*; Fixed and unfixed Contingencies, 6,910*l.* Total, 40,415*l.*

† Estimate of Colonial Agent's expenditure in England for 1832:—Civil Fund, 11,800*l.*; Judge's Pension, 4,200*l.*; Board of Colonial Audit, 2,500*l.*; Agent's Salary and Establishment, 1,150*l.*; Stores, Supplies, and Contingencies, 8,085*l.*;—Total 27,735*l.*

expenses; and by another Parliamentary return of the military and naval disbursements, defrayed from the several military chests in the Colonies, Ceylon is marked down at 96,818*l.*, the military expenditure, may, therefore, be taken at 100,000*l.* a year.

Mr. Cameron, the late commissioner of inquiry, at Ceylon, thus detailed the judicial expenditure for about 1,000,000 people.

Supreme Court.	13,030	Provincial Courts	8,987
Magistrates	6,008	Judicial Comm. Kandy	2,443
Independent Agent Kurnegalle	272	Magistrate ditto	845
Agents of Government (half)	2,919	Contingencies fixed	528
Circuits of Supreme Courts	872	Ditto unfixd	831
Total Expendes 36,245 <i>l.</i> per annum.			

Under a recent revision of the government offices and retrenchment, the following scale of salaries has been established:—

*Civil Offices, of the yearly value of 300*l.* and above.*—Governor 7,000*l.*; Colonial Secretary, 2,000*l.*; Assistant ditto, and Clerk to the Executive and Legislative Councils, 600*l.*; Treasurer and Commissioner of Stamps, 1,500*l.*; Auditor General, and Comptroller of Revenue, 1,500*l.*; Civil Engineer and Surveyor General, 800*l.*; Postmaster General, 300*l.*; Harbour Maater at Colombo, 700*l.*; Ditto Galle, 500*l.*; Collector of Customs, 1,000*l.*; Government Agent at Colombo, 1,200*l.*; Assistant Do. at Do. 300*l.*; Do. Do. at Caltura, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Galle, 1,000*l.*; Assistant to Do. at Matura, 400*l.*; Do. at Batticaloa, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Trincomalee, 1,000*l.*; Do. at Jaffna, 1,200*l.*; Assistant Do. at Do. 300*l.*; Do. at Manaar, 400*l.*; Do. at Chilaw, 400*l.*; Government Agent at Kandy, 1,200*l.*; Assistant Do. at Kurunegalle, 400*l.*; Do. at Ratnapoora, 400*l.*;—24,900*l.* Being an average decrease of 22,33 per cent. upon the existing establishments, and 38,87 per cent. including the offices established.

*Civil Offices of the yearly value of 500*l.* and under, per annum.*—Superintendent General of Vaccinatop, 450*l.*; Five Assistants at 90*l.* each, 450*l.*; Harbour Master of Trincomalee, 400*l.*; Assistant Engineer and Surveyor, 300*l.*; Superintendent of the Botanical Gardens, 250*l.*; Supervisor of the Pearl Banks, 500*l.*; Assistant Agent at Badulla, 400*l.*; Do. Alipoot, 400*l.*; Do. Ruanwelle, 400*l.*; Do. Matelle, 400*l.*; Do. Fort King, 400*l.*; Do. Madawalatenne, 400*l.*—4,750*l.*; being an average increase of 14,63 per cent. (exclusive of the six last mentioned officers.)

*Judicial Offices of the yearly value of 500*l.*, and above.*—Chief Justice, 2,500*l.*; Senior Puisne Do., 1,500*l.*; King's Advocate, 1,200*l.*; Deputy Do. 1,000*l.*; Registrar of the Supreme Court, 600*l.*; District Judge of Colombo, 1,000*l.*; Do. Galle, 1,000*l.*; Do. Trincomalee, 1,000*l.*; Do. Jaffna, 1,000*l.*; Do. Chilaw and Putlam, 500*l.*; Do. Kandy, 1,000*l.*; Do. Ratnapoora, 150*l.*;—Total, 12,450*l.*; being an average decrease of 29,56 per cent.

*Judicial Offices under 500*l.* per annum*—Fiscal of the Western Province, 350*l.*; Private Secretary to the Chief Justice, 270*l.*; Do. Senior Puisne Do. 180*l.*; District Judge of Batticaloa, 250*l.*; Do. Manaar, 200*l.*; Sitting Magistrates of Caltura, 135*l.*; Do. Pantura, 225*l.*; Do. Negombo, 225*l.*; Do. Amblaugodde, 225*l.*; Do. Matura, 225*l.*; Do. Hambantotte, 135*l.*; Do. Mulletivoë, 225*l.*; Do. Point Pedro, 157*l.*; Do. Mallagam, 225*l.*; Do. Kaits, 157*l.*; Do. Chavagacherry 225*l.*; Do. Kurnegalle, 150*l.*; Do. Badulla, 150*l.*; Do. Alipoot, 150*l.*; Do. Ruanwelle, 150*l.*; Do. Matele, 150*l.*; Fort King, 150*l.* Nuwera Ellia, 150*l.*—4,460*l.* Being an increase of 26,76 per cent. (exclusive of the seven last mentioned offices.)

OFFICES NEWLY CREATED.—*Civil.*—Assistant Agent at Negombo, 400*l.*; Do. at Galle, 300*l.*; Do. at Hambantotte, 400*l.*; Do. at Kandy, 300*l.*

Judicial.—Second Puisne Justice, 1,500*l.*; Private Secretary to Do., 180*l.*; District Judge of Nuwera Ellia, 150*l.*

Ecclesiastical.—College Professor (deferred), 300*l.*—Total, £3,530.

These salaries are not high, compared with those of the other functionaries of the island, nor in reference to the tropical nature of the climate, and the necessity of paying dignitaries vested with high authority, salaries placing them above the reach of temptation, for no policy can be more short-sighted than inadequately remunerating the servants of the State. When the Dutch had Ceylon, for instance, the salaries of their officers from the Governor downwards, were not one-fifth of our servants, but amends were made by the former plundering the people in every possible shape, and by the institution of trading monopolies in the hands of Government, from the melancholy effects of which the island is still suffering.*

* By an important document presented to Parliament near the close of the last Session, shewing a reduction in Colonial expenditure, prospective and immediate, Ceylon is thus therein noted down—*Charge when reduction commenced, £190,570; immediate saving, £30,732; prospective saving, £27,378; Total retrenchment, £58,110.*

There is a civil pension fund in Ceylon, by the rules of which the subscribers are entitled to pensions after 12 years actual service and subscription; the amount of pension being regulated according to the salary received by the officer during the last two years previous to his retirement: the pensions now paid by the fund amount to 12,000*l.* a year;— it would be well if Great Britain had a similar institution, or institutions, for the different departments of the service, by which the future dead weight of the expenditure would be materially relieved, and it would be most desirable that every colony had a pension fund formed after the plan of Ceylon.

EDUCATION.—*Government and other schools*—The Government schools are in number about 100, of which the far greater part are in the Singalese or maritime districts; they were originally established by the Dutch,* and, according to

* According to Baldæus, when the Dutch obtained possession of this island, they pursued the plan of enlightening its inhabitants by education, as a means of Christianizing the natives. The following most interesting statement of the churches and schools established in Jaffnapatam and Manaar in Ceylon, is given by Baldæus, in his account of Malabar and Ceylon, printed at Amsterdam, in 1672:—

Jelipole, August, 1658, church established.

January 12th, 1661, sacrament first administered to 12 communicants of the natives.

1665. 1,000 scholars, 2,000 auditors; *Mallagam*, 200 scholars, 600 auditors; *Mayletti*, 750 scholars, 1,600 auditors; *Achiavelli*, 500 scholars, 2,000 auditors; *Oudewill*, 600 scholars, 1,000 auditors; *Batecotte*, 900 scholars, 2,000 auditors; *Paneteripore*, 600 scholars, 1,300 auditors; *Changane*, 700 scholars, church filled; *Manipay*, 560 scholars, 700 auditors; *Yanarpone*, 200 scholars, 600 auditors; *Nalour*, 590 scholars (the people here still incline to Paganism); *Sundecouli*, 450 scholars, 400 auditors.

Thus far of the Province Belligame and its churches, unto which belong *Copay* and *Pontour*, containing about 800 scholars and 2,000 souls.

The second Province of Jaffnapatam is Tenmarache, containing five churches and the villages thereto belonging:—

1st, *Navacouli*, 400 scholars, 800 auditors; *Chavagatzery*, 1,000 scholars, 2,500 auditors; *Cathay*, 550 scholars, 1,200 auditors; *Haranni*, 800 scholars, 2,500 auditors; *Illondi Matual*, 650 scholars, 1,200 auditors.

The third Province is called Waddemarache, having three churches:—

Col. Colebrooke's report, the numbers educated have been as follows:

Protestants	83,756	Mahomedans	11,847
Roman Catholics	38,155	Boodhists	78,602
Total	121,911	Total	93,449

The expenditure amounts to about 3,600% per annum; and it is to be hoped it will be extended to the Malabar and Kandyan districts. The schoolmasters receive a small stipend of 6% 6s. per annum, and they derive further emolument from fees received for registering native marriages, a duty which the Government are very properly careful in attending to.

The following return for 1831 gives the statistics of the state of education, of the churches, chapels, and goals in Ceylon.

EDUCATION.					CHURCHES AND CHAPELS.				
Year.	Number of Schools.	Public or Free Schools.			Expense of Schools.	Number of Places of Worship.	Number of Persons they are capable of containing.	Number of Persons who usually attend.	Expense of the Establishment.
		Male.	Female.	Total.					
1831	356	12671	1728	14699	3686	300	118800	6883	24184

Year.	No. of Prisons they are capable of containing.	Number confined for Debt.		Number confined for Misdemeanours.		Number confined for Felonies.		Total Number of Criminals.		Total Number of Prisoners.		No. of Persons who are employed.	No. of Persons who are unemployed.	Total of the Year.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.				
17	1763	68	8	230	26	630	16	660	44	1073	56	850	325	2655	14

1st, *Catavelli*, 600 scholars, 1,200 auditors; *Ureputti*, 690 scholars; 900 auditors; *Panettiers*, 1,000 scholars, 3,000 auditors.

The last and furthestmost Province called *Palchiarapalle* has four churches and as many schools:—

1st, *Poolepolay*, 300 scholars, 600 auditors; *Mogommale*, 450 scholars, 500 auditors; *Jambamme*, 500 scholars, 900 auditors; *Mulipatto*, 215 scholars, 350 auditors.

Several of these schools continue; others have been discontinued, or have merged in similar establishments formed in their neighbourhood.

A more detailed account of the present state and progress of education is afforded by the following tabular view of schools in 1831, separated into stations and establishments, &c. The number of missionary institutions (among which those of the American missionaries are highly deserving commendation) will be examined with much gratification.

The following table is a return of the number of Schools in Ceylon in 1831.

Districts.	Divisions.	No. of Govern- ment Schools.	No. of Missionary Schools.				Total Number.	Of the foregoing under the Regulation of the B. C. Missionaries.	B. C. Missionaries.	
			Church Mission.	Wesleyan.	American.	Baptist.				Private Schools.
Colombo	Gravets of Colombo	12						3	1	
	Aloetkoer Korle	1						1	1	
	Salpette Korle	7						1	1	
	Hisa Korle	5						1	1	
	Hapitigam Korle	1	12	35		16	419	537	30	1
	Hewagam Korle	5							1	1
	Raygam Korle	9							1	1
	Padaem Korle	7							1	1
	Walalawity Korle	3							1	1
	4 Gravets of Galle	2							1	1
Pt. de Galle	Walalawity Korle	4						3	1	1
	Gangebodde Pattoo	4	14	10				3	1	1
	Talpe Pattoo	5							1	1
	Wellabodde Pattoo	5							1	1
Matura	4 Gravets of Matura	2							1	1
	Belligam Korle	7							1	1
	Moruwa Korle	1		12					31	1
	Girreway Pattoo	4							1	1
	Gangebodde Pattoo	3							1	1
Batticaloa	Batticaloa	1		4				2	7	1
	Trincomalee	2		5				4	12	1
	Jafna	19	12	100			188	270	30	1
	Manaar			1			28	29	8	1
	Chilaw	1					56	58	1	1
	Delft	1					1	1	1	1
Total		99	46	80	100	16	649	1,099	63	17
Kandyan Provinces	Kandy, &c.		10					10		1
	Kornegalle, &c.			6				6		
Grand Total		99	56	86	100	16	649	1,065	63	17

CHURCH MISSION.—(Schools established in 1818, and occupying four stations) has schools 53, containing 1,554 boys, 284 girls, and 61 adults—total 1,869; employs 83 native teachers and assistants, and has printing and bookbinding establishments at Cotta and Nellore: the number of boys in the Cotta institution is 16, of whom 11 are Singalese, and five Tamulians.

Included in the Private Schools.

WESLEYAN MISSION, established in 1814, and occupying seven stations, has 65 schools in Singalese, or southern, and 21 in Tamul, or northern, districts, thus:—

	SINGALESE.				TAMULIANS.		
	Schools.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Schools.	Scholars.	
Colombo	7	384	39	413	Jaffna	6	238
Negombo	13	376	63	459	Point Pedro..	5	401
Seven Kories	6	152	4	156	Trincomalee	4	110
Caltura	16	806	111	917	Batticaloa ..	6	189
Galle	11	514	124	638			
Matura	13	545	35	583	Total	21	938
Morawa	1	30	..	30			
Total	65	2810	396	3196			

The return for 1832 shews, in the S. Ceylon district an aggregate of 69 schools, with 2,896 boys, 427 girls, and 104 male and female teachers; in addition to which, the Wesleyans employ 15 salaried catechists, who assist in the superintendence of the schools, and conduct public worship on the sabbath days. The Mission has a printing establishment: and two presses at Colombo since its formation.

AMERICAN MISSION, has five stations and a high school, or college, at Batticaloa, containing 10 students in Christian theology, and 110 students in English and the elements of sciences; and 22 in Tamul; all on the charity foundation: besides six day scholars. A female central school at Oodoville, with 52 girls on the foundation, and 76 native free schools with 2,200 boys and 400 girls.

BAPTIST MISSION, instituted in 1812, has two stations and 16 schools, containing about 800 children, instructed in English, Portuguese, Tamul, and Singalese, by 20 teachers: four are female schools; the annual expense of this mission (160*l.* per annum) is almost exclusively borne by the Parent Society in England.

ROMAN CATHOLIC MISSION, established in 1687, occupies 12 stations, presided over by 12 pastors: of its schools or progress I could learn no information, either in Ceylon or in England.

THE PRESS.—Little can yet be said on this important subject; until lately there was only a Government Gazette in

Imports and Exports of Ceylon.

Year.	IMPORTS FROM				EXPORTS TO			
	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Imports.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.	Total Exports.
1825	25,440	204,400	3,362	206,301	97,537	122,966	2,695	224,398
1826	21,263	256,319	38,266	309,747	177,323	79,499	6,661	262,933
1827	16,800	309,074	26,535	343,399	233,452	82,015	2,225	317,693
1828	26,984	309,518	24,431	353,333	149,551	66,189	1,631	215,971
1829	30,320	273,634	38,226	340,300	196,539	82,225	1,330	280,144
1830	46,777	274,676	34,229	346,361	166,670	80,675	1,856	250,797
1831	26,599	227,180	27,378	283,936	59,505	60,503	740	120,293
1832	47,792	268,972	40,968	311,333	96,685	84,192	2,329	184,006
1833	60,812	229,922	30,148	320,991	42,403	55,100	3,966	132,529
1834								
1835								

Return of the quantities of Cocoa-nut Oil, Coffee, and Coir Rope, exported since 1827.

Years.	Cinnamon.	Cocoa-nut OIL.	Coffee.	Coir Rope.	Arrack.
	Bales.	Gallons.	cwts.	cwts.	Leaguers.
1827	45,289	94,588	16,008	6,775	2,188
1828	48,618	173,429	7,072	10,064	4,200
1829	35,031	126,401	20,038	9,108	4,438
1830	15,761	118,511	16,090	14,530	4,001
1831	86,800	96,803	23,683	7,804	
1832	82,600	137,731	38,127	12,695	
1833	77,580	112,671		4,928	2,266
1834					
1835					

Return of the Quantity of Grain, and estimated Value of Cloth, imported since 1825, distinguishing the Cloth from the Coast and from Great Britain.

Years.	Grain in Quantities.				Cloth in Value.	
	Rice.	Paddy.	Wheat.	Gram, and sundry dry Grains.	From the Coast.	From Great Britain.
	Parrabs.	Parrabs.	Parrabs.	Parrabs.	£	£
1825	532,431	714,396	12,680	11,881	75,982	4,027
1826	592,244	696,169	30,620	9,965	106,163	3,207
1827	785,170	708,246	13,531	12,628	164,498	562
1828	492,712	535,844	19,416	10,145	143,956	4,665
1829	581,913	673,303	32,203	10,592	132,282	3,409
1830	607,395	940,404	35,423	10,588	117,911	5,948
1831	720,469	783,872	27,819	12,222	96,626	5,226
1832	803,767	968,212	32,225	8,906	97,625	12,220
1833	775,698	436,617	24,979	10,168	62,619	18,675
1834						
1835						

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WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The *Singalese*, or dry measure is 4 cut chundroons = 1 cut measure or seer; $\frac{1}{4}$ = 1 coornie; $2\frac{1}{2}$ = 1 marcal; 2 = 1 parrah; 8 = 1 amuconam, $9\frac{3}{8}$ = 1 last.

The internal measure of a *standard parrah* is a perfect cube of 11.57.100 inches: the *seer* is a perfect cylinder—depth 4.35 inches, diameter 4.35 inches; the weight of the parrah measure, according to the custom-house account is, for coffee, from 50 to 35 lbs.; pepper, 27 to 30 lbs.; salt, 52 to 55 lbs.; Paddy (unhusked rice) 30 to 33 lbs.; rice 42 to 46 lbs.; the Candy or Bahar = 500 lbs. avoidupois, or 461 lbs. Dutch troy weight.

KANDYAN MEASURE OF SURFACE.—8 lahas = 1 coornie (10 $\frac{1}{4}$ square perches) 10 = 1 peyla (2 square roods, 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ square perches) 4 = 1 ammonam (2 acres, 2 square roods, 37 $\frac{1}{2}$ square perches). But although the average extent of one *ammonam* is found to be 2 acres, 2 roods, and 2 perches; the measurement of land is not calculated from the specific area, but from the quantity of seed required to be sown on it, and consequently according to its fertility.

Weights of ozs. lbs. &c. are used also throughout the island, British standard. The bale of cinnamon consists of nearly 92 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs.

LIQUID MEASURE.—Gallons and their multiples and sub-multiples: 150 gallon = 1 *leaguer* or *legger*.

Monetary System.—The circulation of late is £. s. and d. as in England, and accounts are becoming more generally kept in the same: the rixdollar is equal to 1s. 6d.—it is divided into 12 fanams (a thick copper coin) and each fanam into 4 pice. There is a government bank at Colombo, but I can obtain no returns of its circulation or deposits; notes are issued by government, but no annual returns are published of the amount, nor is there any information within the reach of the Colonial Office in Downing Street, as to the real state of the paper and metallic circulation in the island. It is proposed to establish a private bank at Colombo, of which in-

deed the island stands much in need; saving banks is now in full operation.

It may readily be imagined how valuable the trade of this island may become under a freedom from restriction within, and justice in England on its products.* At present, its most valuable articles, sugar, coffee, tobacco, pepper, &c. labour under the same disadvantages in the English markets as those of India. The Cingalese might make cotton cloth enough for their own consumption, but the present legislature compels them to receive the steam wrought manufactures of Manchester and Glasgow at five per cent. *ad valorem* duty. While we put a duty on their sugar, when imported into England of *one hundred and fifty per cent.* On their coffee, *three hundred per cent.* On their pepper, *four hundred per cent.* On their arrack, *one thousand (!)* and so on. Mr. Poulet Thompson's Custom Bill, in which the duty on several tropical articles have been materially reduced, is I trust the prelude to a sounder colonial commercial system.

GENERAL VIEW OF CEYLON.

The magnificent island inadequately described in the foregoing pages, and which language indeed would fail to do justice to, may not inaptly be termed the Malta of the Indian Ocean; its commercial Capital Colombo, is situate on the S. W. coast. lat 6.57. N. long. 80.0. E. defended by a strong fort (built on a peninsula projecting into the ocean) measuring *one mile and a quarter* in circumference, having seven principal bastions of different sizes, connected by intervening curtains, and defended by *three hundred* pieces of cannon. The fortress is nearly insulated, two thirds of the work being almost laved by the sea, and with the exception of two very narrow and strongly guarded causeways, the remainder protected by a fresh water lake and a broad and deep ditch with

* Mr. Stuart has exerted himself much in England to obtain justice for Ceylon, and, as regards the cinnamon, he has been successful.

an extensive glacis. Four strong bastions are seaward, and three face the lake and command the narrow approach from the Pettah, or native town, outside the walls. The sea itself is additional strength for the fortress, for on the extensive southern side the surf runs so high on a rocky shore that any attempt at landing troops would be attended with certain destruction, and on the W. side where the sea is smoother the approach is completely commanded by the batteries, and a projecting rock on which two compact batteries are placed, entirely protect the roadstead.* in fact the fortress of Co-

* As it is my desire to render the *History of the British Colonies* useful to every navigator, I beg to subjoin the following sailing directions and remarks on the Port of Colombo, as drawn up by the present master attendant, J. Stuart, Esq.

Colombo, lat. 6.57 N., long. 80. E. is low near the sea, with some hills to the eastward, at a distance in the country. The high mountain having on it a sharp cone, called Adam's Peak, bears from Colombo E. 7° S. distance twelve and a half leagues; its height above the level of the sea is estimated at about 7,000 feet. When the atmosphere is clear it may be seen at 30 leagues. During the prevalence of the N. E. monsoon, Adam's Peak is generally visible in the morning, and frequently the whole of the day, but it is rarely seen in the S. W. monsoon, dense vapours generally prevailing over the island at this season. Ships approaching Colombo in the night have a brilliant light to direct them, which is exhibited every night from a lighthouse in the fort; the height of the light above the level of the sea is 97 feet, and may be seen in clear weather as far as the light appears above the horizon. A steep bank of coral about half a mile broad, with fifteen fathoms water on it, lies seven miles W. from Colombo, extending northwards towards Negombo, (when its surface is sand), and a few miles to the southward of Colombo; outside the bank the water deepens at once to 23 fathoms, and in two miles to 28 fathoms, greenish sand, which is not far from the edge of soundings. Within the bank there are 25 fathoms gradually shoaling towards the shore. The coast between Colombo and Negombo affords good anchorage, but the shore should not be approached under 8 fathoms; as within that depth the ground is in places foul; a bed of sunken rocks, called the Drunken Sailor, lies S. W. by W. 4 W. from Colombo lighthouse, distance 1,000 yards, the length of the ledge may be estimated at 100 yards, and the breadth 20 yards, on its north end, a small spot about the size of the hull of a 20 ton boat, is said to have only 3 feet water on it at low water, but during several recent visits, when some of the coral from its surface was

lombo properly defended may be deemed impregnable against any force likely to be brought against it. brought up, there did not appear to be less than 7 feet 6 inches water on the shallowest part, on the other parts of the ledge there is 4, 5, and 6 fathoms. The sea breaks on the shallow part of these rocks almost constantly during the S. W. monsoon, but this is very seldom the case during the N. E. monsoon. There appears to be no doubt that the Drunken Sailor is granite, or stone of the same description as the rocks on the shore, with its surface incrustated with coral; if there ever was so little water as three feet on it, it may be supposed to be sinking. The Drunken Sailor should not be approached under nine fathoms during the night, as there are eight fathoms very near to it; and in its stream to the southward, in the N. E. monsoon of 1826, the Hon. Company's brig of war, *Thetis*, Captain Jerrel, touched on the Drunken Sailor, having stood too close to the land in beating up to the anchorage to the southward; but, with common attention to the depth of water approaching the rock, it may be easily avoided. The passage within the Drunken Sailor is clear, and some ships have sailed through; but no advantage can be gained by approaching the shore so very near at this point. The Drunken Sailor lies so very near the land, and so far to the southward of the anchorage on Colombo Road, as scarcely to form any impediment to ships bound to or from Colombo. The coast between Mount Lavinia and Colombo is bounded by a reef, lying off the mount about one-third of a mile, inclining to the shore as it approaches within a mile S. of Colombo fort. As there are six fathoms close to this reef, shipping should not approach this part of the coast in the night under nine fathoms, and may safely anchor when necessary.

The currents off Colombo are subject to considerable variations; but they are never so strong as to cause inconvenience to ships which may have to communicate with the shore in either monsoon, without coming to anchor. Colombo road affords good anchorage, free from foul ground, and is frequented at all seasons of the year. The best anchorage during the prevalence of the S. W. winds from April to October, is in from seven to eight fathoms with the lighthouse, bearing S. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E., and the Dutch church E. by S. In the east monsoon, from November to April, it is more convenient to anchor in six and a half fathoms, with the lighthouse bearing S. half E., and the Dutch church E. S. E. Ships requiring pilots to conduct them to the anchorage, should make the usual signal; the charge for pilotage is fifteen shillings. The bar is a bank with seven feet of water on its shallowest part, the northern extremity being about 400 yards N. W. of the Custom House point; small vessels that draw less than 10 feet water ride within the bar protected from the S. W. wind and sea. When the sea is high, it breaks with great force on the bar, and renders

TRINCOMALEE.—The maritime capital of the Island, (Colombo is the seat of Government) is, in a political point of view, of the most importance, not merely as regards Ceylon, but from being, as Nelson justly described it from personal knowledge, *'the finest harbour in the world.'* It is situated on the E. shore, lat 8.32. N. long. 81. 17. E. 150 N. E. from Colombo, (to which a fine road has just been opened) 128 miles, travelling distance from Kandy, and within *two* days sail of Madras.*

Its physical aspect may be described as a narrow neck of the passage from the shipping to the outer road dangerous for small boats. The native boats generally pass out to the southward of the bar, close to the breakers on the rocky point of the Custom House; but as the passage is narrow, it should not be attempted by strangers when the sea breaks on the bar: it is better to proceed round to the northward of the bar, which may be easily distinguished by the breakers. What is strictly understood by a gale of wind, is a rare occurrence at Colombo; this may be owing to the vicinity of the equator, the strong gales which blow on the Malabar coast are felt in smart squalls, and a high sea, but there is scarcely wind to endanger vessels properly found in ground tackling; it is true, ships have sometimes required the aid of a second anchor, but in most cases, the cause has been attributable to some defect in the first anchor or cable, a light anchor, an anchor breaking, a short chain, or the chain coming unshackled. An instance occurred in Colombo road of two ships receiving cargo during the S.W. monsoon, whose chain cables came unshackled twice; twice did it occur to each ship.

On the 2d of June, 1831, the *Hector* drove in a squall, having about 80 fathoms of chain a head: they let go the second anchor; but finding the ship did not immediately bring up, they made sail and slipped their cables. This ship stood out of the anchorage under double-reefed fore and mizen top sails, and from its size, a single-reefed main top sail, fore sail, fore and main try sails, and driver, and returned to the anchorage on the 4th. Instances of ships putting to sea are rare; and it is considered, that although the sea is high the wind is not violent, and at these times, the rain having fallen in the interior, strong freshes escape to the S.W. from the Kalany Ganga, it is by no means surprising that Colombo road proves a safe anchorage.

* Trincomalee is the port of refuge to ships obliged to put to sea when the stormy monsoon commences on the Coromandel coast and western side of the bay of Bengal; the port can be made in any season.

land or isthmus, connecting the peninsula on which the fort of Trindomalee is built, (which juts out a considerable distance into the sea), to the main land; towards the W. this isthmus gradually expands itself into a plain of considerable extent, which is bounded on the S. E. by a ridge of lofty mountains, on the N. W. by low wooded hills, and on the W. at the distance of about a mile from the fort, by the inner harbour. As far as the eye can reach from the fort, excepting in the immediate neighbourhood of the bazaar, the country is covered with wood.

The scenery of the spot has been compared to Loch Katrine on a gigantic scale, (the vast harbour appearing land-locked) the grandeur of which cannot be surpassed; the fortifications sweep along the rocky coast upwards of a mile in length, encompassing the base of a steep hill on the sides connected with the adjacent land. The town and fort are placed at the bottom of a rock, and joined to a narrow neck of land running out towards the sea, and separating the inner harbours from two outside bays, which lie on either shore of a three sided or cornered promontory.

'Dutch' and 'Back' bays are entirely commanded by the artillery on the south and north side of the fortified rock, and the mouth of the harbour is protected by Fort Ostenburg, situate on a mount three miles west of Trindomalee. No communication can take place with the promontory (the part that projects into the sea being protected by steep rocky cliffs) except through the well-covered gates of the fortress, and the best engineers have pronounced their opinion of its impregnability if the place be well garrisoned.

Fort Frederick, where the European troops (consisting generally of four companies of a European regiment, a company of royal engineers and artillery, and detachments of the Ceylon rifles) are stationed, is a fortified neck of land projecting into the sea, separating Back Bay from Dutch Bay. The ground rises gradually from the glads to the flag-staff, a height of about 300 feet, and then slopes towards the sea, till abruptly terminated by a perpendicular cliff, from which a

plummet may be dropped to the water, a distance of 240 feet. The depth at the base is so great, that a line-of-battle ship may pass close to it. None but military reside within the works. The prospect from the barracks towards the sea is only bounded by the horizon, whilst towards the land, the eye ranges over the splendid scenery of the inner harbour, fort Ostenberg, and a long extent of wooded country.

Fort Ostenberg is near three miles from Fort Frederick, and is built on the termination of a ridge of hills that partly form the boundary of the inner harbour. The fort commands the entrance, and its base is washed by the sea on three sides; it also protects the dock-yard, which is immediately below it. A detachment of Royal Artillery are quartered there, and a company of Europeans.

The vicinity of Trincomalee is a wild uncultivated country, abounding with game of all kinds, from a snipe to an elephant. Quail, jungle fowl, moose-deer, and monkeys, are found on the Fort Ostenberg ridge. The Mahavilla Ganga, which runs past Kandy, empties itself into the sea not far from Trincomalee. It has lately been surveyed by Mr. Brooks, the master attendant, who reports favourably of its capabilities. It is navigable for some distance, and he is of opinion, that with a little expense it might be made so to within 40 miles of Kandy, and thereby open a water-communication by which the coffee, timber, and other produce of the interior could be brought to the sea-coast.

The harbour, beautifully diversified with islands covered with a luxuriant vegetation, is spacious enough for holding all the ships in the world, accessible at all seasons, and the depth of water within the bay of Trincomalee is so great, that in many places, not far from the shore, it is unfathomable, and vessels may lie close alongside the rocks in perfect safety.

* The rise and fall of tide is not sufficient for wet docks; mariners prefer Back Bay to Dutch Bay, and from its being easier of egress for one half the year. The rates of pilotage payable by all square rigged vessels, sloops and schooners, is—

POINT DE GALLE is another strong fortress and excellent harbour, situate at the very southern extremity of the island, in Lat. 6.1 N. Long. 80.10 E. distant seventy-eight miles along the sea shore, S. S. E. from Colombo; the road, shaded the whole way by magnificent groups of cocoa nut trees, forming a belt from the water's edge to some distance inland. The fort is a mile and a quarter in circumference, on a low rocky promontory, commanding the narrow and intricate entrance leading to the inner harbour; the extensive and substantial works are like those of Colombo, surrounded for the greater part by the ocean, and there is every convenience of water, &c. capable of enabling the fortress to stand an extended siege. The outer and inner harbours are spacious,* and the inner secure at all seasons of the year.†

But if the sea-coast be well defended, not less so is the interior, every hill is a redoubt, and the passes in the mountains might be defended by a resolute enemy, by rolling the stones off the summits of the heights. Kandy (in 7.18 N.

Tons.	Back Bay.	Inner Harbour.
600	£2 0 0	£4 0 0
400, and under 600	1 10 0	3 0 0
200, ditto 400	1 1 1	2 2 0
100, ditto 200	0 10 6	1 1 0
Under 100	0 6 0	0 15 0

These rates of pilotage to all vessels going into the inner harbour, whether they make a signal for a pilot or not; but the pilotage charge for Back Bay, as in the same manner for Colombo, will only be made if the vessel make a signal and the pilot actually repair on board.

* The pilotage charges for Point De Galle Harbour to any vessel entering, whether making a signal for a pilot or otherwise, are—

600 tons	£3 0 0	400 and under 600	£2 5 0
200, and under 400	1 10 0	100, and under 200	1 2 6
Under 100 tons			15s. sterling.

The fees or port clearances payable at Galle, as also at the other harbours of the island, are, for ships, sloops, or schooners—

600 tons, and upwards	£8 0 0	400, and under 600	£5 10 0
200 ditto, and under 400	4 0 0	100, ditto 200	2 15 0
Under 100 tons			£1 10 0

† Both Monsoons here influence the winds and rains.

Lat. 80.47 E. Long.*) the capital of the interior (eighty-five miles from, and 1,600 feet above Colombo) is situate at the head of an extensive valley, in an amphitheatre commanded by forts on the surrounding hills; the vale has but two accessible entrances well guarded, and the city within four miles is nearly surrounded by a broad and rapid river, (the Maha-Villa Gunga) filled with alligators.

The roads in the maritime country are through groves of cocoa-nut trees along the sea coast; carriage roads extend from Colombo as far as Chilaw to the northward, and from Colombo through Gallee as far as Matura to the southward. The main road from Colombo to Kandy (the Simplon of the East on which there is now a 'mail coach and four') is a work of stupendous magnitude, hills have been cut away, vallies filled up, and (near Kandy) a tunnel *five hundred feet long cut through the mountain*, while rapid and unfordable torrents and rivers have had elegant iron and wooden bridges†

* Latitude and Longitude of the principal Places:—Basses (Great) lat. 6.13.0; long. 81.46.0. Ditto, (Little) lat. 6.24.30; long. 81.55.0. Batticoia Road, lat. 7.44.0; long. 81.52.0. Belligam Bay, lat. 5.57.30; long. 80.33.20. Calamatta Bay, lat. 6.47; long. 81.2.58. Colombo, lat. 6.57.0 long. 86.0.0. Dodandowé Bay, lat. 6.6.47; long. 80.14.24. Dondra Head, lat. 5.55.15; long. 80.42.50. Foul Point, lat. 8.30.27; long. 81.30.12. Galle, lat. 6.1.46; long. 80.20.0. Gandore, lat. 5.55.42; long. 80.44.30. Hambantolle, lat. 6.6.58; long. 81.14.44. Kandy, lat. 7.18.0; long. 80.49.0. Thahawelle Bay, lat. 5.59.30; long. 80.52.15. Thattura, lat. 5.56.26; long. 80.40.7. Nillewelle Bay, lat. 5.7.37; long. 80.50.21. Point Pedro, lat. 9.49.30; long. 80.24.0. Jangalle, lat. 6.1.16; long. 80.54.48. Trincomalee, lat. 8.33.0; long. 81.24.0. Vendelo's Inlet, lat. 75.70; long. 81.44.0.

† Paradeinia bridge, which, during the past year has been thrown over the rapid and unfordable river Maha-Villa Gunga, consists of a single arch with a span of 205 feet, principally composed of satin wood; its height above the river at low water mark is 67 feet, and the roadway is 22 feet wide. The arch is composed of 4 treble ribs, transversely distant from each other five feet from centre to centre; the sum of the depth of these ribs is 4 feet, which, with two intervals of two feet each, makes the whole depth of the arch 8 feet; the arch beams, with the exception of those next the abutments, are 16 to 17 feet long and 12 inches thick, abutting

thrown across them, a capital road has been opened between Trincomalee and Colombo, and before a few more years have elapsed, every town in the island will be connected by roads passable at all seasons.

In fine, this rich and beautiful isle of spices—so thinly populated yet so capable of supporting twenty times its present population,—so impoverished yet so bountifully blessed by nature with every thing which can conduce to the happiness of man,—so admirably situate at the extremity of the Asiatic Peninsula, from which it is separated yet connected,—and so well adapted as an entrepôt for Eastern commerce, requires only to be seen to be appreciated. I have visited every quarter of the globe—but have seen no place so lovely—romantic—so admirably situate—whether as regards the poet, the painter, the merchant or the statesman as Ceylon;—that its intrinsic worth may be appreciated in England is the Author's fondest wish, not less on account of the fascinating spot to which these remarks have reference, than for the sake of England herself. A time will come (may the day be distant) when Great Britain will cease to hold her empire on the continent of India,* and when the nations of Europe will contend for maritime superiority in the East;—we have before us the examples of the Portuguese and Dutch,—they neglected Ceylon; the one made it the cradle of idolatrous superstitions, the other the temple of trading cupidity. We are now in the fair course

against each other with an unbroken section, secured at the joints by the notched pieces which support the road-way, the latter being held in their position by means of cross ties below and above the arch, and immediately under the road-way: these cross ties, with the aid of diagonal braces, which are also locked into them, serve to give stability and firmness to the whole structure, which has no other material but timber in its construction.

* It is on this account that I deem the *insular* possessions of Britain of such great importance; for instance, an extensive revolt throughout India, or its successful invasion by Russia, might annihilate our dominion on the Continent, while our possession of Ceylon would remain unshaken, and thus enable us to preserve, at least, a portion of commerce. (*See my Colonial Policy.*)

to shun both extremes;—our missionaries (the pioneers of civilization) are extending the beatitude of the gospel among the dark, benighted heathen,—our merchants freeing themselves from the pernicious shackles of monopolies, are making peaceful commerce, as she ought to be, the companion of religion; under both these influences Ceylon bids fair to be one of the most important colonies of the British empire. That to England may belong the glory of, re-peopling, civilizing and Christianizing this romantic isle, is earnestly hoped by one whose earliest days were spent in exploring paths where no white man's foot before trod—and where the untutored savage and the beast of the forest now dispute for pre-eminence.

Monthly Post-Office Steam Packets between England and India, via the Cape of Good Hope, &c., and Computation of Annual Receipts for Postage, &c.

Letters, Newspapers, Periodicals, Law Papers, and Accounts; Bullion, Specie, and Jewels; Home Annually, and Passengers Out and Home	Madras.		Cape of Good Hope.		Isle of France.		Seyan River, V. Diemen's Land, N. E. Whols.		Ceylon.		Penang, Malacca, Singapore, and China.		Bombay.		Madras.		Calcutta.		Grand Total Letters, Postage, &c.
	Annual No. of Letters, News-papers, &c.	Office Receipts	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts	Annual No. of Letters, &c.	Annual Receipts	
Letters (Single and Double) average	600	£. 200	2000	£. 2000	1200	£. 1200	4000	£. 4000	1200	£. 1200	1000	£. 1000	6000	£. 6000	10000	£. 10000	10000	£. 10000	No. 40000
At an average Postage each	11.64	400	200	200	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	£. 100000
Newspapers (daily and weekly) average	200	£. 200	1000	£. 1000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	No. 50000
At an average Postage each	24	28	25	24	125	37	65	44	100	64	313	64	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	£. 7500
Monthly, Quarterly, and Annual Journals, &c.	200	£. 200	1000	£. 1000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	No. 6000
At an average Postage each	11	10	7	11	150	150	120	20	200	64	313	64	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	£. 3750
Law Papers, Commercial Accounts, &c.	200	£. 200	1000	£. 1000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	No. 6000
At an average rate per oz.	100	£. 100	500	£. 500	200	£. 200	1000	£. 1000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	No. 6000
Bullion, Specie, and Jewels, &c. per freight	200	£. 200	1000	£. 1000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	No. 6000
Packages not exceeding 10 lbs. weight &c.	200	£. 200	1000	£. 1000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	400	£. 400	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	No. 6000
Passengers Out and Home, annually	50	£. 50	15	£. 15	100	£. 100	500	£. 500	200	£. 200	1000	£. 1000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	No. 20000
Rate of Passage Money	250	£. 250	750	£. 750	250	£. 250	1250	£. 1250	250	£. 250	1000	£. 1000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	2000	£. 2000	£. 20000

Total Post-Office Receipts (exclusive of Passengers) on a monthly computation. £. 211,448

† We ought to have mentioned the Cape Verde Islands, as links in our Indian route; they are now merely haunts for Pirates and slave ships.

‡ The No. of Letters here given are taken from the Returns in the Parliamentary Papers on East India Affairs, Appendix to "Finance and Commercially," page 999. The scale of Postage is that proposed by the Anglo-Indians.

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CHAPTER IX.

STEAM NAVIGATION WITH INDIA; PROPOSED PLAN OF POST OFFICE STEAM PACKETS VIA MADEIRA, ST. HELENA, CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, ISLE OF FRANCE, CEYLON, &c.; ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF THE RED SEA AND CAPE OF GOOD HOPE ROUTE BALANCED; COMPUTATION OF THE EXPENSE OF TWELVE STEAM PACKETS, &c.

THE facilitating and accelerating of the communication between Europe and Asia will be equivalent to the annihilation of space, or the application of a lever which would have the power of bringing into closer approximation two distant continents. The public mind in both hemispheres is now being directed to so highly important an object, and private munificence and liberality appealed to for the accomplishing a national good: this is obviously improper, for the Governments both in India and in England have made the post-office department a monopoly in the hands of the executive authorities; with those should the opening of a post-office system originate, and by those only indeed can it be efficiently executed. That the Governments of India and of England may not only without pecuniary loss, but with considerable profit, open a steam-packet post-office communication with India, is demonstrated by the Table on the opposite page, in which I have taken the lowest calculation for letters, newspapers, parcels, passengers, &c. passing between both countries, without allowing for the impulse which rapidity of communication gives to commerce and social intercourse, or to the recent changes in the respective relations of the Eastern and Western hemisphere. My reasons for advocating the Cape of Good Hope route in preference to that *vid* the Red Sea, or the Euphrates, are—1st. That we would bring into closer and speedier communication the *whole* of our Asiatic and African colonies, whereas by the Red Sea route, even if cer-

tain difficulties (to be hereafter noticed) could be overcome, only a *part* of our Eastern possessions would be benefited:—

2nd. That therefore the prospect of remuneration for the large expenditure requisite is more secure by the Cape than by the Red Sea or Euphrates route.

3rd. That the commercial, political, and social advantages to England and her colonies would be infinitely superior.

4th. That whereas we are mistress of the ocean and have our route by the Cape open so long as the British trident rules; but we are not masters of Egypt or Persia; on the contrary we are not only at the mercy of Mehemet Ali's successors, but subject to the caprice of the French and Russian Governments in their intrigues with the Porte or the Pacha. [This paragraph stands as it was printed in the first edition—my anticipations have been verified for intelligence has this moment reached me from Constantinople, under date 13th May, 1835, that Mehmed Ali Pacha, influenced by Russia, has forcibly prevented the landing and passage through Syria of the Euphrates expedition, fitted out by Col. Chesney, under the authority of Government: this fact is strikingly corroborative of the fact that the Cape of Good Hope route is the practicable plan.]

5th. In the event of war the Red and Mediterranean Seas' narrow route would be (particularly in Europe) very hazardous both for letters and passengers, and much less secure than on the highway of the ocean, independent of the liability to *complete* interruption for years, and the consequent loss of the capital embarked in the undertaking.

6th. That although the travelling distance is greater by the Cape than by Egypt, yet, owing to *quarantines* and numerous impediments, it is in reality shorter, and would be practically found so by comparing twelve voyages by either route, even under the *now* most favourable prospect which Egypt or Persia presents, but which would be entirely reversed on the breaking out of hostilities.

7th. That the delay* (if it be admitted for argument sake) of a few days by the Cape route as compared with the Red Sea, or Euphrates, is far more than counterbalanced by the numerous British possessions it brings into close contact, and by the route being much healthier for Indians or Europeans over the health invigorating ocean, than over the burning sands of Egypt, and plague infested delta of the Nile. [Plague is now (June 1835) raging furiously at Alexandria.]

8th. That depots of coal can be more expeditiously, and cheaply provided from England, from Calcutta, and New South Wales, where coal mines are now in full work, and from Ceylon, and the Cape of Good Hope, where they exist, but have not yet been worked, than by the tedious shipments of fuel from England to Alexandria, and from Calcutta to Bombay and the isthmus of Suez.†

* Mr. Perkins proposed to build a steam ship of 1,000 tons, carrying 800 tons of coal, to make no stop between London and Calcutta, and to perform the voyage (13,700 miles) in 60 days! The following was the run of the *Enterprise* under the various disadvantages attendant on a first experiment, with the very limited powers of an 120 horse engine, and with only *one depot* of coal at the Cape of Good Hope. She left the land on the 16th of August, 1825; reached Calcutta on the 7th of December, 1825; that was 113 days (of which she was 103 actually under weigh) from the land to Diamond Harbour. She used both sail and steam. The greatest run by sail in 24 hours was 211 miles; the least, 39: the greatest by steam assisted by sail, 225; the least, 80: the greatest heat in the engine-room during the voyage was 105 degrees, the air at the same time being 84 degrees and a half. The total distance was 13,700 miles; and the consumption 580 chaldrons of coal, being nine chaldrons per day for 64 days; the rest being under sail. The speed of the engine in calm weather was eight knots an hour, the log giving nine, from the wash of the paddles.

† Mr. T. L. Peacock states that coals burnt in the Red Sea cost £7. per ton. Lieutenant Johnson states that there should be depôts of coal at Lisbon, at Madeira, at one of the Canary Islands, at Cape Verd, Cape Palmas, Ascension, St. Helena, the island of St. Thomas, at St. Philip de Benquill, at the Cape of Good Hope, in Algoa Bay, Port Dauphin, Isle of France, at Diego Garcia, Pono Molubque, if anchorage for a hulk can be found at that place, Point de Galle, at Trincomalee, at one of the Andaman or Nicobar Islands, at Madras, and at Calcutta; and, in the passage to

9th. The voyage may be, as *safely* performed *viâ* the Cape (if not more so than against the monsoon in the Red Sea) as by the Mediterranean and Red Sea, as demonstrated by Captain Johnson, in the Enterprize Steamer, while the improvements which have taken place in steam navigation since 1825, and the experience derived from the voyage, demonstrate the certainty and despatch with which the Cape route may now be effected.*

I now come to consider the mode in which the project may be efficiently put into execution. It would be necessary that a packet start on the 1st and 15th of every month, from Falmouth, or Port Valentia, on the West Coast of Ireland,† and Bombay, it would be necessary to have one at Delagoa Bay, at Joanna, at the Seychelles, Cochin, and at Bombay. By this means, says Lieut. J., the average voyage to India would be 80 days, while the fair average for sailing vessels is 120 or 130 days. Another plan proposed for speedy communication with India *via* the Cape of Good Hope, is to fit a steam engine of 30 horse power into a fast vessel of 600 tons, to use it only as an auxiliary, to move the vessel through calms, &c. Vessels thus constructed would be applicable to commercial purposes, the sacrifice required would not exceed from 100 to 130 tons, and the average voyages to Calcutta would be from 85 to 95 days.

I have doubled the Cape of Good Hope 15 times, have crossed the Irish Channel as often, but the weather and danger of the former was nothing almost compared with that of the latter. It is now well known that a steamer is more buoyant and better adapted to ride out a gale than a mere sailing ship.

A grand national undertaking,—viz. the connecting Dublin and Valentia harbour by a rail-road, and making the latter the starting station for the American, West India, Mediterranean, and Portugal packets, is now in contemplation by Pierce Mahony, Esq., whose public spirited efforts have already conferred so much good on Ireland. Port Valentia is the most western port in Europe, and vessels sailing thence are not merely free from the dangerous and often tedious navigation of the channel, but they are so far to the westward as to be better situated for beating to windward against the prevalent westerly gales. The project would be of the utmost benefit in a political point of view, by enabling Government, at a given moment, to despatch troops or ships of war to any point; in a commercial light, it would facilitate trade, by a speedier, cheaper, and more certain packet intercourse with all our colonies, and with the United

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from Calcutta, for the maintaining of which communication, twelve steam and sailing boats of 300 tons each (including the branch packets) would be necessary; the packets to be of a stable and buoyant nature, with Gurney's improved engines; tanks* to hold the coals, in order that they may be filled with water, to serve as ballast, according as the fuel is consumed (the water to be shipped and emptied by means of the lately invented pumps.) The vessels to be schooner rigged, and the masts, chimnies and paddles to strike or ship as occasion demands (in the trade winds and monsoons, the packets would sail when not opposing those periodical breezes, consequently the steam engines would be at rest, and the consumption of fuel saved)† and a tube to be attached to the engine for the conversion of steam into fresh water. The packets to carry each four 18 lb. carronades of a side, with two long nine pounders; to be commanded by an officer of the British Navy (salary 500*l.*) with a First Lieutenant (300*l.*); two mid-

States and foreign countries it would also make the British isles the highway for travellers between the Old and New World—between the eastern and western hemispheres; above all, it would secure to England her maritime supremacy, by affording a constant oceanic ingress and egress, which she was too often denied during the war, by her fleets being wind-bound in the Channel, and even at the Cove of Cork, for three months. There are many other important considerations which ought to stimulate Government to give every possible aid towards the completion of such a national undertaking.

* Lieutenant Johnson says, the *Enterprise* was capable of stowing 35 days' consumption of coal; for 11 days after leaving England he steamed without intermission, and then found himself to the S. of the Canary Islands. Lieutenant J. states that he experienced some very rough weather off Cape Palmas; that the steamer behaved very well, and that while a steam vessel's engines remain in order she is less exposed to danger than a sailing vessel. On opening the Mozambique channel, the *Enterprise* experienced a heavy gale; the fires were then put out, the wheels disconnected from the engine, and the ship scudded under her main-top and foresails 10 knots per hour. 'She steered admirably, answered her helm as well as a ship could possibly do, and behaved in every way like an admirable sea-boat.'—(Evidence before Parliament.)

† There was no depôt for coal but the Cape of Good Hope.

shipmen or mates (100*l.* each); a purser, (300*l.*); a surgeon, (300*l.*); two engineers, (250*l.* each); an assistant ditto (100*l.*); one gunner and armourer (100*l.*); one carpenter (100*l.*) and mate (60*l.* each); eight stokers, (60*l.* each); four fire men, (50*l.* each); twelve able seamen, (50*l.* each); and four boys as apprentices (20*l.* each), making a complement of forty hands, and an expenditure in wages and provisioning under 4,000*l.* sterling, which for twelve packets would give the cost of wages and provisions at 60,000*l.* a year, and this sum deducted from the Post Office's *lowest* computed receipts, would leave nearly £400,000. sterling, to provide vessels, engine and fuel. Let us now examine the expense for fuel and as I have on the one hand estimated the income at the *lowest*, so on the other, I would desire to compute the expenditure at the *highest*. The twelve packets would on an average be employed each, two hundred days during the year in *steaming* (thus scarcely allowing any thing for performing half the voyages to and from India by means of the monsoons, trade, and other favourable winds) making in all two thousand, four hundred days, which at *ten tons* of coal per day at *forty shillings* per ton (on an average, allowing for freight to some depôts) would cost £48,000.; thus we see the expense of *wages, provisions and fuel*, would on an extreme calculation, be scarcely more than £100,000. a year, not *one fourth* of the Post Office income; but there is another item to be provided for, and that is the wear and tear of the vessels, and the interest of money on their first cost. Twelve steam vessels of 300 tons each, with engines of 160 horse power, may be constructed in England, and amply provided with every requisite store at £20,000. each = £240,000.; allowing 10 per cent. interest, and insurance on the capital thus employed, the annual cost would be £24,000. to which add £26,000. a year for wear and tear, and we have a further charge of £50,000. making a *grand total* of £150,000. per annum, as the amount of the whole Post Office establishment, to defray which there is an almost certain income of full £450,000. a year, thus yielding at the very outset, a revenue of upwards of a quarter of a million to the state. The facts here brought

forward, are submitted to the examination of the Government, in the firm belief that on mature reflection it will be found deserving of adoption, not less for the sake of India and the colonies, than for the welfare of England, for what ever promotes the prosperity of the one enhances in a corresponding ratio the weal of the other. If the regular transmission even of letters to India, *via* Egypt be adopted, I shall hail it with much satisfaction, as the prelude to a far more important and beneficial undertaking,—namely, the annihilating of at least 5,000 out of the 13,000 miles between India and England, and removing our numerous and valuable Eastern Colonies by several thousand miles nearer to the parent state, thus connecting and consolidating our maritime empire.*

* Several persons, namely, Capt. Chesney, Mr. Bowater, &c. are sanguine as to the facilities and speed with which the passage to India can be made, *via* the Euphrates and Persian Gulf; and Mr. Peacock thinks that, by making the best possible use of every circumstance, the passage to Bombay from an English port may be made in *five* weeks. The course would be across France to Marseilles or Trieste, thence by *steam* to Lathce, thence by *land* to Beles, thence by *steam* down the Euphrates to Bussorah, thence by *steam* again to Bombay. A great deal of trade is, at present, carried on from Bagdad to Damascus, by a line which crosses the Euphrates at Hillah, and from Hillah to Bussorah on the Euphrates, and from Bussorah to Bagdad on the Tigris. Over-land despatches from Bombay principally—1st, Bussorah, Great Desert, Aleppo, Constantinople, Venice, London, 4,804 miles; 2nd, Bussorah, Bagdad, Mosul, Diarbekir, Constantinople, London, 5,116 miles; 3rd, Red Sea, Suez, Alexandria, Venice, London, 5,492 miles. The distance from Bombay to Bussorah is 1,600 miles, and thence to Aleppo 718 miles by land; from Bombay to Suez 3,000 miles; from Suez to Cairo 70 miles; from Cairo to Alexandria by land 140 miles by the river. Russia, in fact, is at present planning her route to India, still extending the facilities to this purpose. It is a doubtful point whether by adopting a line of communication with India *via* the Euphrates or Red Sea, we would not be smoothing the road for the Autocrat's troops. It is in evidence before parliament, that the Russians have been recently surveying the river Oxus and all the country to India, with great care; they prefer this route to India rather than Alexander's through Persia, as in the latter, a large army would suffer by want of water. The projected Russian route to India is by the Wolga into the Caspian Sea (on which, as well as

on the Wolga, they have steam navigation) across the Caspian to the Gulf of Mervoy. Then there are 100 miles of land to the sea of Aral, where there is abundance of coal; then there is the navigation of the Oxus, on which there is now a great deal of traffic, by Khiva, where a Russian military colony is now being established. Or the Russians may come down the Euphrates or the Tigris on rafts, which could be put together with great rapidity to any extent: then might they so establish themselves at Busorah, that it would not be easy to dislodge them; and they could build sufficient shipping at Busorah with timber floated down from Armenia. Is it then wise or prudent of England, on the one hand, to facilitate the progress of Russia to India via the Euphrates; or of the French via Egypt? These considerations in a political point of view, ought to prompt the British Government to give every facility to the route to India via the Cape of Good Hope; and as to cutting a ship canal from Cairo to Suez (the difference in the height of the Mediterranean and Red Sea (10 feet) being surmounted by locks), at an expense of 700,000*l.*, the route would be thrown into the entire possession of the British, and the hands of the French and other foreign parts in the Mediterranean. In a political and commercial point of view, the establishment of steam navigation with India via the Cape of Good Hope is of the utmost value without any of the drawbacks as detailed above.

It is a tribute to justice that I should here state the efforts made by Lord William Bentinck, while Governor-General of India, for the promotion of a regular line of steam packet communication between Europe and Asia,—his Lordship has in this, as in numerous other instances, evinced the workings of a comprehensive mind whose great object has ever been the welfare of his fellow-creatures.

PENANG OR PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND

LOCALITY AND AREA.—This picturesque island (so well adapted for a commercial entrepôt) is situated on the W coast of the Malayan peninsula, in lat. from 5.15 to 5.35 N. and long. 100 E.; its greatest length is 16 statute miles from N. to S. and its greatest breadth 12 miles at the north, and decreasing to eight miles at the south, thus forming an irregular four sided shape, with a range of lofty hills in the centre, the whole computed to contain 100 square miles.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The valley of Penang, about three miles in breadth is the level part of the island on its eastern side.

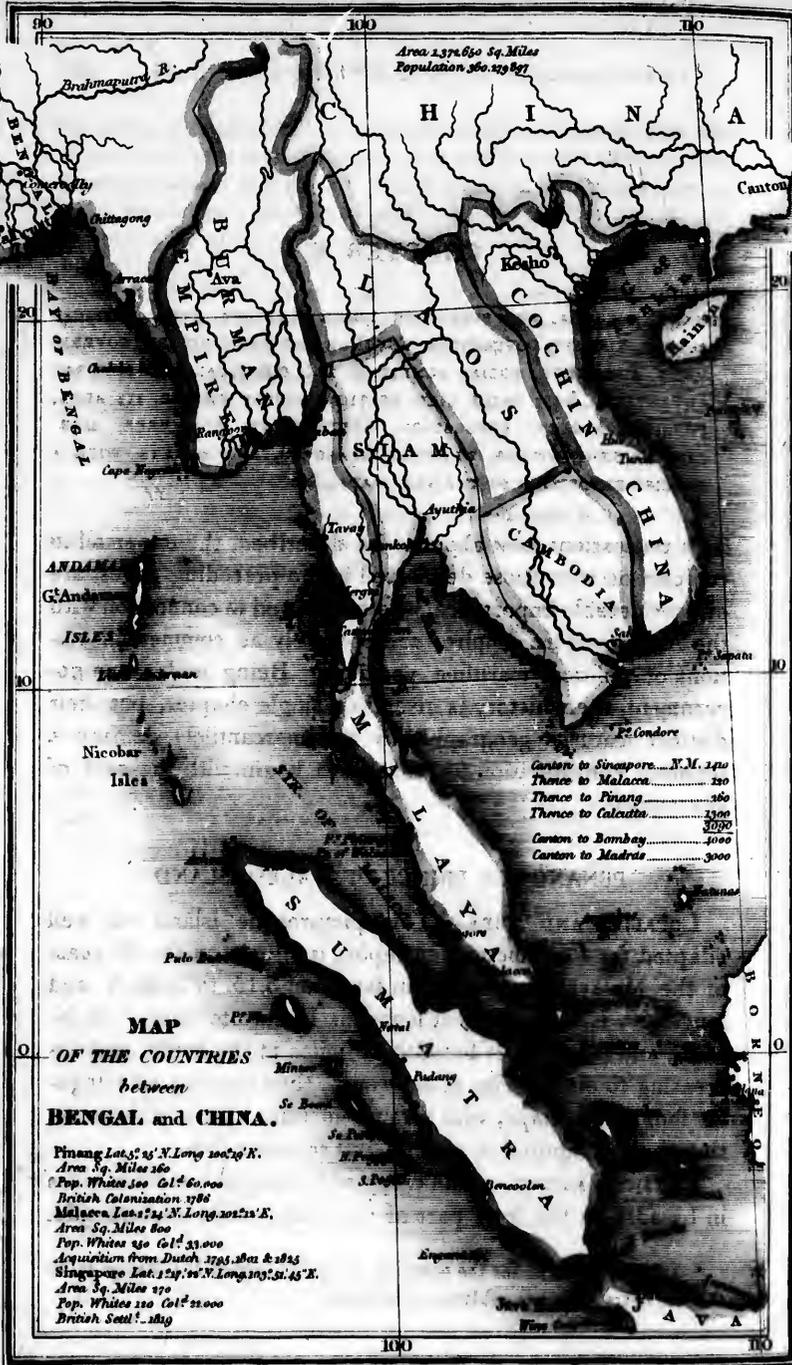
The Malay term for the area on which the Malays dwell is *Penang*, which bears some resemblance to the name of the island.

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J. & C. Walker, Sculp^r

on the Woloys, they have steam navigation) across the Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico? Then there are 100 miles of land to the sea of Asia, where there is abundance of coal; then there is the navigation of the Ocean, on which there is now a great deal of traffic; by India, where a Russian military colony is now being established; and by the East India Company, which has a great number of ships on the coast of India, and a great number of ships on the coast of China.

CHAPTER X.

PENANG, MALACCA, AND SINGAPORE, THEIR LOCALITY, AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, HISTORY, POPULATION, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, SOCIAL CONDITION AND POLITICAL AND GENERAL ADVANCEMENT; BRIEF VIEW OF THE CHINESE EMPIRE, ITS AREA, PHYSICAL ASPECT, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, COMMERCE, MERCANTILE REGULATIONS, WEIGHTS, MEASURES, AND MONIES, WITH A CONCISE EXPOSITION OF THE TEA TRADE, &c.

The possessions now about to be described, though small in comparison with those delineated in the preceding pages, are of considerable importance, whether viewed in connection with the Anglo-eastern empire, or separately as commercial stations or political maritime positions. Being under one government, their history is given in a single chapter, but their distinct features geographically and mercantilely demand a separate consideration for each;—to begin with the seat of government.

PENANG* OR PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND.

LOCALITY AND AREA.—This picturesque island (so well adapted for a commercial entrepôt), is situate on the W. coast of the Malayan peninsula, in lat. from 5.15. to 5.29. N. and long. 100. E.; its greatest length is 16 statute miles from N. to S., and its greatest breadth 12 miles at the north, and decreasing to eight miles at the south, thus forming an irregular four sided shape, with a range of lofty hills in the centre, the whole computed to contain 160 square miles.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The valley of Penang, about three miles in breadth, is the level part of the island on its eastern side,

* The Malay term for the areca or betel nut, which the Malays think the isle bears some resemblance to in shape.



extending from the hills to the sea, of a triangular shape, the ranges of mountains forming the base and the apex, called *Tanjong*, jutting into the harbour, and having George Town (the capital) and the Fort of Penang built on it, on which, for three miles in every direction from the point, private houses extend. Almost the whole of the northern shore is mountainous, and through the centre of the island runs a range of hills, decreasing in height and magnitude as they reach towards the south. On the west and south of the mountains there is a considerable quantity of level ground of good quality for every species of cultivation (as is now demonstrated by the general culture thereof). Indeed two-thirds of Penang is of level or gentle inclination. The east owing to its moistness is covered with rice fields. The south and west valleys though partly cultivated for the same purpose, are chiefly laid out in pepper gardens and spice plantations. Everywhere close to the coast, as in Ceylon, runs an extensive belt of cocoa nut trees, and scattered over the island (in various groups) appear groves of the graceful areca palm (or Penang) from which the isle takes its Malay name. The hills and low grounds, where not cultivated, are thickly covered with wood. Vegetation is splendidly luxuriant and for miles and miles the eye rests on one dense mass of mountain forest. Besides George town (the capital) above alluded to, there is only one large collection of houses entitled *James town*, situated on the sea shore, four miles to the south of the capital, amidst a grove of the lovely palm tribe. Numerous small villages and Malay topes are scattered over the island (especially on the south side,) often beautifully and romantically situated on the coast or amidst spice groves in the vales.

The hill called the '*Highlands of Scotland*,' is 1428 feet above the sea, (and like the other stations) the situation and climate of which are delightful. The whole of the valley is of alluvial formation, and it would appear, that the sea once washed the base of the mountains; for on the opposite shore of *Quedah*, successive deposits of alluvial matter have been traced for several miles inland, indicating the gradual retire-

ments of the ocean, by ridges being seen running parallel with this present line of coast. A recent visitor thus describes his ideas on approaching Penang:—'The island, with the exception of two plains of inconsiderable extent on the eastern and western shores, consists of one range of lofty hills, with towering peaks. The entrance to the harbour leading between the island and the Quedah coast, on which side the view is arrested by a noble chain of mountains, whose lofty summits terminate in a majestic outline, is picturesque and beautiful; the neat bungalows ranged round the bay, close to the water's edge, the fort projecting into the sea, the town lining the beach, and the distant islands shutting the passage to the south, form a panoramic view of great interest.'

The harbour of George Town, the capital, is capacious with good anchorage and well defended; it is formed by a strait about two miles wide, that separates Penang from the opposite Quedah coast on the Malayan peninsula. The sea is placid throughout the year, and the periodical effects of the monsoons little felt, the winds partaking more of the character of land and sea breezes.

When storms rage at sea the tides are affected by being irregular in their flow through the islands, sometimes running in one direction for several days with great rapidity, and then changing to another. The town is one of the neatest in India,—the streets wide, straight and at right angles,—the buildings are respectable, and the Chinese shopkeepers (who are the principal tradesmen) lay out their godowns tastefully. The roads are among the finest in India, their beauty being enhanced by the strength and luxuriance of the vegetation which continues the whole year round.

History.—When first known to Europeans the island appeared quite untenanted, covered with forests and considered as a part of the possessions of the King of Quedah on the

* Many interesting details of this picturesque island have been printed by Dr. Ward, of the Madras service, in the *Singapore Chronicle* of July, 1839.

contiguous coast. In 1785 Capt. Light, the commander of a country ship in India, having married the King of Quedah's daughter, received a gift of the island as a marriage portion. Capt. Light transferred it to the E. I. Company, who having entered into a treaty with his Quedah majesty (which was to last as long as the sun and moon gave light) agreed to pay 6,000 dollars annually to the King, which in 1800 was raised to 10,000, in consideration of the Company receiving the Wellesley province on the main land opposite Penang, a territory extending 35 miles along the coast, four miles inland from the S. bank of the Quaila Mudda to the N. bank of the Krian river, lat. 5.20. N.

CLIMATE.—January and February are the dry and hot months, and November and December the rainy ones, but excepting the two former the island is seldom a week without refreshing showers. The thermometer on Flag-staff hill (2248 feet high) never rises beyond 78° F. (seldom to 74°) and falls to 66°, on the plain it ranges from 76° to 90°. The island is considered remarkably healthy. The climate of the high land of Penang resembles that of Funchal at Madeira, possessing the advantage of a very limited range of thermometer, the greatest range in 24 hours being 11°, and generally only three or four. The lightness and purity of the atmosphere elevate the spirits and render the step free and buoyant, while the splendid and varied scenery, the island itself with its hills and dales, the calm ocean around studded with verdant isles, and the opposite coast of Quedah with chains of mountains towering chain over chain, combined with the health-inspiring breezes, render a residence among the gardens of Penang of much value to the invalid.

GEOLOGY.—The mountains are entirely composed of fine grey granite, and the smaller hills are of the same material, excepting some hills near the coast formed of *laterite*, as is also Saddle Island on the S. W. angle of Penang. A tin mine was worked some year ago in the hills, and doubtless many valuable minerals exist in the mountains, which are probably equal in quality to those of the contiguous Malayan peninsula.

The soil is generally a light black mould mixed with gravel and clay, and in some parts there is a rich vegetable ground, formed by the decayed leaves of the forests, with which the island had for ages been covered; the coast soil is sandy but fertile.

VEGETABLE KINGDOM.—The botany of the island is rich and varied. On the mountains grow the poon, bitanger, rangat, red poon, dammerlaut, wood oil tree, the cypress and some superb species of arborescent ferns. The caoutchouc or elastic gum winds round all the trees in a spiral form. All the Malacca fruits, with the exception of the *duta*, grow in great abundance, the sugar cane and pepper vine are extensively cultivated (the quantity of pepper annually produced averages lbs. 2,095,000 avoirdupois); cloves and nutmegs thrive well, (the former cover the tops of the cleared summits, the latter are found in every part of the valley, one plantation alone occupying a space of several square miles) coffee yields abundantly, extensive fields of pine apples of delicious godd are found at the foot of the mountains, the tea plant grows wild; ginger, cinnamon, cotton, tobacco, and in fact every intertropical production is capable of being brought to the highest state of perfection.

ZOOLOGY, &c.—The Malayan elk (*cervus equinus*) is found in the deep forests; the mouse and spotted deer are both very abundant. Monkeys, the lemur volans, the wild cat, otter and bat form the only indigenous animals; and the snakes, as in all tropical isles, are numerous; a species of boa (the python of Cuvier) 18 to 20 feet long, is found in the hills. Beef, mutton and pork are of excellent flavour; and a great variety of fish furnish the bazaar.

POPULATION.—When the Company's Establishment was formed at Penang in 1786, the only inhabitants were a few miserable fishermen on the sea coast. In consequence of the disturbances in the Malayan principalities, and the encouragement given to settlers by the E. I. Company, a native population of various descriptions arose. The population of

the Settlement according to all the returns before me has been as follows during the year 1800. The population had increased 3000.

1821 number 38,057. 1822 number 41,907. 1824 number 53,669. 1826 number 55,116. 1827 number 57,986. 1828 number 60,551.

The following Official Return shows the native population of Penang—

1828	1827	1826	1825	1824	1823	1822	1821	1820
Chinese	12,284	12,284	12,284	12,284	12,284	12,284	12,284	12,284
Malay	1,383	1,383	1,383	1,383	1,383	1,383	1,383	1,383
Arabs	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
Indians	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
Others	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
Total	14,018							

This Table, as also every other in the Volume now presented, have never before been printed, either by the E. I. Company or by Parliament; and I am indebted for them to the well known urbanity of the Court of Directors of the E. I. Company.

Report of the Lords of Trade, gives the following table of the population of Penang, and the several Provinces of the Kingdom of Siam, and their Descendants, about the year 1828, and their classification in several of various classification.

The population of Penang, and the several Provinces of the Kingdom of Siam, and their Descendants, about the year 1828, and their classification in several of various classification.

Between October 1828, and December 1829, the population had increased 3000. The number of mouths may now be calculated at upwards of 60,000.

COMMERCE.—The trade of Penang is carried on with Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, England, China, Java, Ceylon, Siam, Tenasserim Coast, Acheen, Delhi, Quedah, and a few petty native ports. In Mr. Fullarton's elaborate paper on the trade of our eastern islands, printed in the East India papers in 1833, (II. Trade, part 2, Commercial, page 878) it appears that the total value of imports into Penang were—

In 1828-29	S. Rupees	52,23,872
Exports from ditto		36,00,900
	Excess—S. R.	16,22,972

The imports and exports of specie for the same year were

Imports—S. R.	8,10,232	
Exports	7,10,876	
	Excess	1,12,356

The value of imports in S. Rupees from Calcutta, was 10,94,986; from Madras, 16,95,850; Bombay, 2,65,290; England, 1,67,670; China, 2,18,440; Siam, 1,77,610; Tenasserim, 1,77,010; Acheen, 8,08,513; Delhi (a petty state on the Sumatra shore) 2,04,905; and Quedah, 2,21,200 the exports value to the same places in succession were 3,57,126; 2,38,765; 2,30,146; 50,668; 9,65,834; 96,093; 1,55,152; 10,75,842; 1,58,930; and to Quedah, 1,35,930.

Of the imports, opium alone consists of upwards of seven lac of rupees: the other items are comprized of the various produce of the Straits or of India and British goods, the trade being one of transit. Birds' nests for Chinese soups is one of the most important articles.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—The Appendix to the Select Report of the House of Lords, gives the following table of revenue and expenditure (exclusive of commercial charges) for nineteen years; it will be observed that Singapore and

588 REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE OF PENANG, MALACCA, &c.

Malacca are included in the two last years; the reductions ordered in the Court of Directors' Despatch, 7th April, 1826, will ere long enable Penang to meet its expenditure with its own revenues.

Years.	CHARGES.				Interest on Debts.	Total Charges and Interest.	Revenues and Customs.	Net Charge.	
	Civil.	Military.	Buildings and Fortifications.	Total Charges.					
1800-06	99,494	15,895	16,486	131,877	..	70,373	61,445	84,809	
1810-11	88,200	16,274	18,447	123,020	..	86,449	42,580	23,832	
1811-12	76,973	23,238	14,315	107,117	..	66,467	33,650	31,212	
1812-13	83,630	16,045	17,740	113,315	..	46,691	64,424	33,414	
1813-14	91,031	16,199	18,478	115,709	..	67,073	66,664	36,844	
1814-15	94,563	16,861	6,347	117,711	..	117,711	67,388	37,388	
1815-16	91,399	19,088	2,337	112,824	64	120,339	66,069	56,663	
1816-17	96,819	13,481	9,392	109,592	..	54,861	54,791	36,974	
1817-18	73,663	12,669	15,080	100,327	..	56,365	66,029	34,532	
1818-19	66,323	11,073	4,116	81,412	..	57,037	24,385	27,361	
1819-20	66,633	7,728	4,141	76,502	..	49,938	106,563	23,810	
1820-21	71,667	8,383	1,510	81,412	..	53,032	39,390	23,094	
1821-22	66,934	12,754	4,381	83,969	..	61,000	44,273	23,387	
1822-23	72,369	13,389	3,308	89,057	..	44,076	44,981	24,035	
1823-24	91,761	14,478	2,063	108,299	..	38,996	60,266	24,164	
1824-25	96,237	17,338	2,309	113,331	..	38,236	76,111	34,798	
1825-26	113,663	14,543	7,069	135,275	283	124,547	104,125	39,375	
1826-27	121,168	23,968	4,991	149,317	1,272	156,469	83,744	94,745	37,330
1827-28									
1828-29									
1829-30									
1830-31									
1831-32									
1832-33									
1833-34									
1834-35									

• The accounts of Singapore and Malacca are included in these years; but for nine months only in the year 1826-27, and for the whole year in 1827-28.

The sale of opium is a monopoly in the hands of government, who derive a revenue from it of about 40,000 Spanish dollars a year; land, licenses, and customs, are the remaining chief sources of revenue.

The government of Penang, Malacca, and Singapore, is subordinate to the Presidency of Bengal, and the civil establishment recently fixed as follows:—

Chief Resident at Singapore, Rupees 36,000; First Assistant, 24,000; Second ditto, 7,200; Deputy Resident at Malacca, 24,000; Assistant, 7,200; Deputy Resident, Prince of Wales's Island, 30,000; Assistant, 7,200; Assistant, Province Wellesley (exclusive of military pay), 3,600; one Surgeon 9,600, and three Assistant Surgeons at 4,800, 14,400, 24,000; two Chaplains at 8,500 each; and one Missionary 2,500; 20,000; Office Establishment, 12,000. Total S. Ra. 1,95,200.

As a commercial and maritime station Penang has many advantages; it serves as an entrepôt for the various produce of China, the eastern islands and straits, the native merchants from which take back in return British and India goods. It was at one time contemplated to form an extensive arsenal and ship-building depôt at Penang, and indeed several fine ships were built there, but the object was ultimately abandoned. At present Penang serves as rendezvous for our naval squadron in the Indian seas, for which its position, healthiness, and abundance of provisions admirably qualify it; during the Burmese war Penang was found a most valuable station, as it would again be in the event of renewed hostilities. When, perhaps, the British dominion in Hindostan shall have terminated, or if a violent convulsion should occur to drive us temporarily from its territory, (circumstances which are not beyond the range of possibilities), the possession of such insular stations as Penang, Ceylon, &c. will be found of incalculable worth. Their value now even is vast, and it may be expected will be appreciated more and more every day, as a spirit of enterprize leads our fellow subjects to a more intimate connexion with the fertile regions of the eastern hemisphere.

The accounts of Malacca and Malacca are included in these years, but for nine months only in the year 1860-61, and for the whole year in 1861-62.

The sale of opium in the hands of government, who derive a revenue from it of about 40,000 Spanish dollars.

LOCALITY AND AREA.—Near the southern extremity of the long Malayan peninsula* in Lat. 2.14 N. Long. 102.12 E., is situated the British settlement of Malacca, extending about 40 miles along shore by 30 inland, and containing an area of 800 square miles; bounded on the N. by Salengore at Cape Rochado, on the S. Johore, at the river Muar, on the E. by the Rumbo Country, and on the W. by the straits of Malacca.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The sea coast is rocky and barren, and the interior is a low plain. The length of the Peninsula is 775 miles, with an average breadth of 125 miles.

with detached islets of cavernous rocks, which the Chinese used as places of sepulture. The interior is mountainous, (being a continuation of the Alpine chain, which runs from the Brahmaputra river in Assam to the extremity of the peninsula); with several picturesque vallies, the highest mountain (named by the natives Lealdang, by the Portuguese *Mount Ophir*), has an elevation of 4,000 feet above the sea. Colonel Farquhar was nearly six hours ascending to the highest part of *Mount Ophir*, the table surface on the top of which does not exceed forty yards square; the whole mountain appears to be a solid block of granite, here and there thinly covered with decayed vegetable soil. Stunted firs are found near the summit, and the vegetation of the mountain was quite different from that met with on the plains and vallies. The principal rivers are the Muar and Linguan, and the small streams and rivulets from the mountain are very numerous. The extreme point of the peninsula is a cluster of small islands; the roadstead is safe, and in the S. W. monsoon vessels not drawing more than 16 feet of water are secure in a harbour under the lee of the fort. Colonel Farquhar (who has made Malacca his study), observes, that violent tempests never occur at its excellent anchoring ground, that the Sumatra squalls which are common to the straits seldom last above an hour or two, and that for upwards of 25 years while the English had possession of the place no ship had been lost.

HISTORY.—The Malayan peninsula, although the great majority of the inhabitants are Malays (whence it derives its name), is not the original country of that active, restless, courageous, vindictive and ferocious people.

The present possessors (or Malayan princes and their subjects) emigrated in the twelfth century, from Palembang in Sumatra (the original country of the Malays) about A. D. 1252, and founded the city of Malacca. As they extended their colonization, the aborigines of the country, who are oriental negroes with woolly hair, jet black skin, (the Malays are copper coloured) thick lips, and flat nose, like the African, and of

diminutive stature were driven inland to the mountains, where some of their unfortunate posterity still exist.

The Malayan chiefs soon became involved in hostilities with their neighbours, partly, perhaps, because their sultan Mahomed Shah, adopted the Mahomedan religion from the Arabs; then great traders in the East. Although the Malacca people were able to resist the attacks of the Siamese on their chief city, they were compelled to yield to the conquering Portuguese, who in 1511, compelled Sultan Mohammed Shah the twelfth of his line, and the seventh of the city of Malacca, to fly, after an obstinate resistance, to the extremity of the peninsula, where he founded the principality of Johore, which still exists. The Portuguese held Malacca until 1640, though with great difficulty, against the repeated assaults of the Sultans of Acheen, when it was assailed by the Dutch, who captured it after six months' siege. In 1795 it was seized by the British, but restored to the Dutch at the peace of Amiens in 1801. On the breaking out of the European war in 1807, it was again taken by the English, but again restored at the peace of 1815; however, in 1825 it was received by England, together with the Fort of Chinturah on the river Hooghly, 20 miles from Calcutta, in exchange for the British settlements on the island of Sumatra.

CLIMATE.—The climate is reckoned one of the healthiest in India, the temperature being uniform, the thermometer ranging from 72 to 85 the whole year round. The mornings and evenings are cool and refreshing, and the sultry nights of Hindostan rarely occur. There is no regular monsoon, but the rainiest months are September, October, and November. The fluctuation of the barometer throughout the year is trifling, the range being 30.3 to 29.83, giving an annual variation of only one-fifth of an inch. The average of casualties in the garrison for seven years was two in 100, a fact which attests the salubrity of the climate.

	No. of Houses.		Adults.				Children		Births.		Deaths.		Malays Debtors.				Malays Slaves.				Quantity of Seed of Paddy planted.		No. of Bullocks and Chinese Debtors.		Servants in Pay.									
	Male.	Female.	Married.	Unmarried.	Married.	Unmarried.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Chinese Debtors.	Bullocks.	Chinese Debtors.	Malays.	Malays.	Malays.	Malays.	Malays.	Malays.		
Europ. and their Descendants	32	25	32	29	42	42	333		5	4	17	14	9	7	47	70	89	54	31	224	409	73	23	88	20	6	16							
Sceamans, Div. of Portuguese	415	340	405	340	57	372	259		60	38	3	3	4	1	9	50	38	16	7	111	40		
Chinese	468	468	478	478	497	3592	318	374	379	258	21	23	5	6	67	182	164	86	40	233	2685	475		
Chinese	929	728	1418	648	693	732	578	2603	88	83	77	78	239	172	56	56	528	594	47	
Malays	174	289	268	291	223	244	242	1692	45	41	23	4	32	32	65	40	29	216	100	
Malays	101	129	142	174	164	158	121	850	21	15	11	14	3	2	9	32	48	35	11	5	91	100
Malays	640	616	491	480	565	657	508	3316	148	480	449	391	65	34	19	164	638	601	213	170	1819	4527	6001	53	88	20	6	16						

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS. — The staple of the settlement is tin mines (which are all within a circuit of 25 miles round Malacca), which produce, generally, 4,000 peculs (a pecul is 133 pounds avoirdupoise) a year. In the vallies vegetation is extremely luxuriant; rice yields from 200 to 300 fold; the sugar cane is equal to any produced in any part of the globe; coffee, cotton, indigo, chocolate, pepper, and spices, have all been tried, and thrive remarkably well. The spontaneous productions of the soil are very numerous, consisting of an almost endless variety of the richest and most delicious fruits and vegetables. The country is covered with very fine and durable timber for ships and house building; the *Murbon* tree, which is nearly equal to teak, is extremely abundant. Canes and rattans form a considerable branch of the exports; the forests yield gums, resins, and oils in great plenty; the camphor tree grows near the S.E. extremity of the peninsula; a great variety of medicinal plants and drugs are common in the woods; the nutmeg grows wild. If the gold and tin

mines in the vicinity of Malacca were scientifically worked, they would prove of great value; at present, the Malay and Chinese miners seldom dig below six or ten feet, and, as the veins become thin, remove from place to place. The gold from *Hoolo Pahang*, 100 miles inland from Malacca, is of the purest quality; and there are some small mines of gold at the foot of Mount Ophir, called Battang Moring, about 36 miles from Malacca.

Birds' nests, wax, cutch, dammeer, fish maws and sharks' fins (for Chinese soups) rattans, camphor, betelnuts, gold dust, sago, dragon's blood, ivory, hides, aguilla and sappan woods, &c. are among the principal productions. Captains of ships will be glad to hear that fruit and vegetables of every variety are abundant and low priced, and that poultry, hogs, buffaloes, and fish are plentiful and cheap. During the progress of the expedition against Java in 1811, 30,000 troops, and their followers were abundantly supplied with fresh provisions of every variety daily.

COMMERCE.—Malacca, being situate between the two great emporiums of trade in the eastern archipelago, Penang, and Singapore, the one at the N.W. and the other at the S.E. of the straits, has necessarily a trade limited to its own consumption and produce. Before the establishment of the two latter named settlements, and during the monopolizing and sway of the Dutch there, it was a place of considerable traffic.

Tin forms one of the principal items of export, and as the free trade captains may perhaps enter into the trade, it may be well to caution them of the adulterations practised by the Chinese and Malay miners. Lead is the metal usually alloyed with tin, and in order to detect adulterations, buyers may readily ascertain (with sufficient approximation to correctness) the extent of fraud endeavoured to be practised by melting a standard muster of pure tin in a large sized bullet mould with a small orifice, and then compare a mould of the tin under examination, with that of the pure metal, if the former be heavier, the proportion of adulteration may readily

be calculated. Antimony has the effect of hardening the admixture with lead, thereby increasing the difficulty of detection, as regards external appearances.

The tin mines are thus described in the Singapore Chronicle.

The whole number of Chinamen connected with the mines at Sungie Hujung is probably 600, divided into 10 Kung Se's or companies. They appeared more respectable, and have a greater command of capital, than those at Lookut. There they are much fettered by the rajah, and are not allowed to sell an ounce of tin themselves; but here there is no such restriction. The mode of working the mines is much alike in both places, except at Sungie Hujung they have the advantage of the Chinese chain-pump, which is used for raising the water out of the mine pit. The apparatus is simple, consisting of a common water-wheel, a circular wooden chain about 40 feet in circumference, and a long square box or trough, through which it runs in ascending. The wheel and chain, I think, revolve on a common axis, so that the motion of the former necessarily puts the latter into action. The chain consists of square wooden floats, a foot distant from each other, and strung as it were upon a continuous flexible axis, having a moveable joint between each pair. As the float-boards of the chain successively enter the lower part of the box or trough (immersed in water), a portion of water is constantly forced up by each, and discharged at the top. At one of the mines we were much struck with the simple but efficient mode of its application. There were three distinct planes, or terraces, rising above each other. On the middle one was the wheel; the lower was the pit of the mine: from the higher a stream of water fell and turned the wheel, which, putting the whole machine into motion, brought up another stream from the pit; these two streams, from above and below, uniting on the middle plane, run off in a sluice, by which the ore was washed.

The total value of imports in 1828-29, was S. R. 10, 81, 782, of exports, S. R. 6, 72, 211. The imports of specie amounted to S. R. 4, 19, 717; and the exports amounted to S. R. 2, 65, 239. The value of imports from Calcutta is S. R. 1, 12, 565; from Madras 2, 43, 178; from England 1, 01, 664; and from small native ports 2, 98, 591.

The accounts, however, of this government, as stated by Mr. Fullerton are extremely defective.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—Throughout the Straits of Malacca the common weights are the *pecul*, *catty*, and *tael*. The

Malay pecul three of which make a *bahar* is heavier than the common or Chinese pecul, which is = $133\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Rice and salt are usually sold by the *coyan* of forty pecula nearly, and gold dust by the *bunkal* = 832 grs. troy. The *gantang* (by which grain, fruit, and liquids are sold) = $1\frac{1}{4}$ Eng. gallon is divided into two bamboos. Twenty *gantanes* of rice make a bag, and forty bags a *coyan*. Cloth is measured by the *astah* or *covid* of eighteen inches nearly. Land, by the *orlong* of twenty jumbas = $1\frac{1}{4}$ acre.

CURRENCY.—The currency of the straits is Spanish dollars divided into 100 cents. The Dutch rix dollar and guilder (divided into fanams and doits) are also used, chiefly at Malacca. One guilder = 12 fanams = 120 doits. The rix dollar is a nominal coin of about 20 fanams, 31 or 32 of which make a Spanish dollar. The *silver* coins comprise dollars of all descriptions, guilders and half guilders. The *copper*, the cent, half and quarter cent; there are also doits, stivers, and wangs, including a great variety of copper coins, of different countries.

REVENUE.—When acquired by the British government, the whole revenue of the settlement was but 20,000 dollars; its revenue accounts are now incorporated with those of the other settlement (Vide Penang).

EDUCATION.—One of the most valuable British institutions in the east, is the Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca, established in 1818, by the joint efforts of the late Rev. Drs. Morrison and Milne. The object in view is the reciprocal cultivation of Chinese and European literature, and the instruction of native youths in the principles of Christianity. The native Chinese students in the college, generally average from 25 to 30, all of whom are on the foundation of the college, receiving each a monthly allowance. Several valuable and interesting translations have been made from Chinese books, and English standard works have been translated into Chinese: a foundry for types has been established, paper manufactured, and a periodical commenced. The college is indebted for existence to private contribution, and it is to be hoped that so useful

an institution will not be allowed to languish for want of support. Attached to the college at Malacca are several schools the whole of which are supported by the London Missionary Society; the Chinese schools alone contain nearly 300 boys, and the Tamul schools are increasing. The female schools at Malacca are doing well, and three schools have been established by the Malays for the instruction of their countrymen in the English language. Schools are also established at Tavoy, Moulmein, and Rangoon. At the latter place, the headmaster is a Chinaman, who has been brought up in the Anglo-Chinese college at Malacca.

GENERAL VIEW.—The important geographical position of the settlement as commanding the straits which form the direct passage from India to China, &c.; its healthiness, and cheapness render it a fitting place for the establishment of a seat of government, for the eastern settlements; the advantage of which would be more and more appreciated in our new commercial arrangements with China. Both Singapore and Malacca are too distant to be kept as mere Residences of Bengal; and the Governor General has quite enough to do already, without attending to those places, although therefore a general control might be kept up from the supreme Government, it would be better to make Malacca head quarters for our stations in the eastern archipelago.

SINGAPORE (SINGHAPURA.)

LOCALITY AND AREA.—This rapidly rising emporium of trade, is situated on the southern extremity of the peninsula of Malacca just described, in lat. 1.17.22. N. long. 103.51.45. E.* of an elliptical form, about from 25 to 27 miles in its greatest length from E. to W.; to 15 miles in its greatest breadth from N. to S.; and containing an estimated area of 270 square miles, with about 50 small desert isles within 10 miles around it, in the adjacent straits whose area is about

* This is the position of the town.

60 miles, the whole settlement embracing a maritime and insular dominion of about 100 miles in circumference.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—The island is on the N., separated from the main land of the Malayan peninsula, by a very small strait, which in its narrowest part is not more than one quarter of a mile wide. On the front, and distant about nine miles, is an extensive chain of almost desert isles, the channel between which and Singapore is the grand route of commerce between E. and W. Asia. The aspect is low and level, with an extensive chain of saline and fresh water marshes, in several parts covered with lofty timber and luxuriant vegetation,—here and there, low rounded sand hills interspersed with spots of level ground, formed of a ferruginous clay with a sandy substratum.

The town stands on the S. coast, on a point of land near the W. end of a bay where there is a salt creek or river navigable for lighters nearly a mile from the sea; on the E. side of the town is a deep inlet for the shelter of native boats. The town consists generally of stone houses of two story high, but in the suburbs called *Campong-glam*, *Campong-Malacca*, and *Campong-China*, bamboo huts are erected on posts, most of them standing in the stagnant water. On the E. side of the harbour enterprising British merchants are erecting substantial and ornamental houses fronting the sea, presenting a strange contrast to the wretched tenements of the Malays. The ground is generally raised three feet, and the mansions have a superb entrance by an ascent of granite stairs, then an elegant portico supported by magnificent Grecian columns of every order of architecture: the rooms are lofty with Venetian windows down to the floor, and furnished in a luxurious manner; each tenement provided with its baths, billiard tables, &c. while the grounds are tastily laid out with shrubs of beautiful foliage, the *tout ensemble* affording a most picturesque prospect from the shipping in the roadstead.

GEOLOGY.—The principal rock is red sand-stone, which changes in some parts to a breccia or conglomerate, containing large fragment and crystals of quartz. The whole conti-

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guous group of isles, about 30 in number, as well as Singapore, are apparently of a submarine origin, and their evolution probably of no very distant date.

CLIMATE.—Notwithstanding its lowness, marshiness, inter-tropical position and consequent high temperature, with a rapid and constant evaporation by a nearly vertical sun, from a rank and luxuriant vegetation, and a profusion of animal and vegetable matter in every stage of putrefaction, Singapore has hitherto proved exceedingly healthy, owing perhaps to its maritime position. Being so near the equator there is of course little variety of seasons, neither summer nor winter; Fahrenheit ranges from 71° to 89°: the periodical rains are brief, indistinctly marked, and extending over about 150 days of the year.

Climate of Singapore.

	BAROMETER.						THERMOMETER.					
	Greatest Range.			Least Range.			Greatest Range.			Least Range.		
	Six A. M.	Noon.	Six P. M.	Six A. M.	Noon.	Six P. M.	Six A. M.	Noon.	Six P. M.	Six A. M.	Noon.	Six P. M.
January	30.63	30.05	30.09	30.00	30.00	30.87	77	86	83	72	75	74
Feb.	30.02	30.04	30.00	30.33	30.21	30.87	70	87	85	74	82	78
March	30.07	30.08	30.07	30.33	30.35	30.85	80	89	86	73	76	79
April	30.09	30.39	30.05	30.35	30.37	30.83	81	87	87	73	80	79
May	30.04	30.39	30.01	30.33	30.34	30.82	81	87	86	75	78	80
June	30.08	30.07	30.07	30.30	30.36	30.82	84	88	87	75	77	77
July	30.05	30.06	30.03	30.33	30.33	30.83	82	88	85	73	78	77
August	30.05	30.09	30.05	30.35	30.38	30.84	81	87	85	75	78	78
Sept.	30.09	30.03	30.08	30.35	30.37	30.83	82	87	85	74	76	77
October	30.06	30.07	30.05	30.33	30.36	30.80	79	88	86	75	76	79
Nov.	30.01	30.05	30.03	30.30	30.33	30.80	79	86	86	71	80	79
Dec.	30.04	30.00	30.08	30.32	30.35	30.82	78	85	86	73	75	75
Annual Average	30.07	30.09	30.05	30.34	30.36	30.83	80.2	87	85.6	73.6	77.6	77.6

HISTORY.—The Malay annals relate that in 1252, A. D. Sri Iscandar Shah, the last Malay prince of Singapore, being hard pressed by the king of Majopahit, in Java, returned to the main land, where he founded the city of Malacca. That the Dutch or Portuguese may have settled on the island is probable from the remains of religious buildings and other

structures, which indicate its having been very thickly inhabited. On the design of Sir Stamford Raffles the settlement of Singapore was first formed in February 1819, and its sovereignty in its present extent confirmed to Great Britain in 1823, by a convention with the King of Holland and the Malay Princes of Johore.

POPULATION.—When taken possession of by our establishment in 1820, it had been inhabited for eight years by about one hundred and fifty Malays, half fishermen and half pirates. Within the brief space of time from 1820 to 1832, its population has thus rapidly progressed, (we have no correct data previous to the end of 1823.)

Population of Singapore from the end of 1823 to beginning of 1833.

	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829
Europeans	74	84	111	97	108	158	119
Native Christians	74	123	306	198	193	373	306
Armenians	10	0	12	10	25	34	25
Arabs	15	10	17	18	17	33	90
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	390	690	665	777	1,095	1,440	1,619
Natives of Bengal and other parts of Hindostan	366	332	384	344	304	455	400
Indo-Britons	—	—	—	—	—	—	95
Bugs, Balinese, &c.	1,851	1,704	1,442	1,243	1,252	1,266	1,720
Malays	6,486	5,190	5,007	4,790	5,326	5,756	7,121
Javanese	—	28	146	287	355	624	698
Chinese	3,317	3,258	4,279	6,000	6,310	7,275	8,217
African Negroes	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	10,668	11,831	13,005	13,726	14,885	17,064	20,917

The following Census of the Population (with its divisions) of the settlement has been furnished me from the India House, and as it has not before been published, its printing may now be useful.

Class	1823	1824	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829
Europeans	74	84	111	97	108	158	119
Native Christians	74	123	306	198	193	373	306
Armenians	10	0	12	10	25	34	25
Arabs	15	10	17	18	17	33	90
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	390	690	665	777	1,095	1,440	1,619
Natives of Bengal and other parts of Hindostan	366	332	384	344	304	455	400
Indo-Britons	—	—	—	—	—	—	95
Bugs, Balinese, &c.	1,851	1,704	1,442	1,243	1,252	1,266	1,720
Malays	6,486	5,190	5,007	4,790	5,326	5,756	7,121
Javanese	—	28	146	287	355	624	698
Chinese	3,317	3,258	4,279	6,000	6,310	7,275	8,217
African Negroes	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	10,668	11,831	13,005	13,726	14,885	17,064	20,917

* There is, I believe, a pension of 24,000 Spanish dollars a year paid by the E. I. Company to this Rajah, as an equivalent for the cession.

of the Population at Singapore on the 1st of January, 1833. On the basis of the Census of 1818, and the

SINGAPORE TOWN.			CAMPONG CHINA.				
Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	34	3	37	Europeans	33	4	37
Native Christians	17	7	24	Armenians	19	0	19
Malays	356	304	660	Native Christians	90	71	161
Chinese	94	8	102	Malays	393	343	736
Natives of Bengal	194	3	197	Chinese	4,135	341	4,476
Do. of the Coast of				Natives of Bengal	48	17	65
Coromandel	7	1	8	Do. of the Coast of	1,150	4	1,154
Arabs	7	1	8	Coromandel	3	0	3
Javanese	7	0	7	Buggies, Balinese, &c.	31	55	86
				Arabs	33	3	36
Total	1,081	337	1,418	Total	5,960	1,921	7,881

CAMPONG GLAM.			COUNTRY AND PLANTATIONS.				
Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	27	16	43	Europeans	13	3	16
Native Christians	19	10	29	Native Christians	47	15	62
Malays	673	797	1,470	Malays	997	779	1,776
Chinese	617	23	640	Chinese	3,083	39	3,122
Natives of Bengal	38	7	45	Natives of Bengal	179	47	226
Do. of the Coast of				Do. of the Coast of			
Coromandel	97	7	104	Coromandel	104	5	109
Buggies, Balinese, &c.	316	67	383	Buggies, Balinese, &c.	445	365	810
Javanese	95	84	179	Javanese	276	23	301
Total	1,983	1,018	2,999	Total	4,973	1,276	6,249

ISLANDS.			SUMMARY.				
Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	1	—	1	Singapore	661	335	1,016
Native Christians	6	—	6	Campong China	5,950	1,921	7,871
Malays	568	590	1,063	Campong Glam	1,983	1,016	2,999
Chinese	48	2	50	Country and Plantations	4,973	1,276	6,249
Natives of Bengal	4	—	4	Islands	746	59	805
Buggies, Balinese, &c.	127	66	193				
Javanese	1	—	1				
Total	746	590	1,336	Grand Total	13,432	4,239	17,671

Census of Singapore, 1st January, 1833, shewing the proportion of Males to Females.

Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Classes.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Europeans	91	38	119	Jews	2	0	2
Indo Britons	56	40	96	Siamese	5	3	8
Native Christians	167	133	300	Buggies, Balinese, &c.	794	933	1,727
Armenians	27	8	35	Malays	3,763	3,368	7,131
Arabs	96	0	96	Javanese	361	234	595
Natives of Coromandel and Malabar	1,763	57	1,819	Chinese	7,680	867	8,547
Do. of Bengal and other parts	389	11	400	Caffres	23	14	37
Total	13,191	4,797	17,988				

To the the foregoing must be added 553 convicts, and military and their followers 600, making a grand total of 22,000 mouths, where a few short years ago there was not 109! The leading merchants, agents, shopkeepers, and auctioneers are Englishmen. There are several wealthy Chinese merchants, and the bulk of the shopkeepers and most valuable part of the citizens are Chinese, nearly 5,000 of whom arrive annually from China by the yearly trading junks, about 1,000 of whom remain at Singapore, and the remainder disperse themselves over the neighbouring islands. The Malays are chiefly fishermen, and the natives of the Coromandel coast boat-men.

Society is divided as at Presidencies, into four distinct castes—1st. The civilians of the Company. 2d. The military. 3d. First class merchants. 4th. Second class merchants, shopkeepers, &c.; and, as in all small communities, they are exclusive in their coteries.

There are an American Missionary and two Roman Catholics, but as yet no house of worship. A Romish chapel is in progress, and near its completion; and some who would not give a farthing for their own religion, are liberal enough to contribute handsomely in aid of a church for others. The humbler classes are uneducated, but honest and faithful to their employers.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—From the foregoing description it will be seen that the island can as yet have few indigenous productions; it is in fact a commercial emporium, and probably will never be much more. Its chief staple is the agaragar of the Malays, (*fucus saccharinus*), a plant like fern, which abounds on the coral shoals around Singapore, and produces in China from six to eight dollars per pecul, in its dry bulky state. By the Chinese it is converted into glue, paint, &c. &c., for glazing their cottons, and sacrifice paper; the finest portion is made into a rich jelly, which makes a delicious sweetmeat when preserved in syrup. The harvest of this sea-weed is from 6,000 to 12,000 peculs annually.

There are about 10 sago manufactories at Singapore, giving

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employment to 200 Chinese manufacturers; the quantity of pearl sago exported from the island during 1834 was—to England, peculs 17,030; Calcutta, 1,700; Bombay, 970; China, 300; Cape, 150; Hamburgh, 1,870; America, 300; Madras, &c. 780;—total, 23,100 peculs. The sago is not grown in the island, but brought in its rough state from Borneo, &c.

COMMERCE.—No accounts of the trade of the island were kept prior to 1824, since then the value of the imports and exports have been as follows:—

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Both.	Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Both.
1824	1,435,509 £	1,390,366 £	2,845,717 £	1829	2,121,559 £	1,876,266 £	3,997,825 £
1825	1,325,917 ..	1,326,786 ..	2,652,703 ..	1830	1,875,390 ..	1,836,634 ..	3,712,024 ..
1826	1,361,978 ..	1,388,306 ..	2,750,284 ..	1831	1,799,994 ..	1,565,167 ..	3,365,161 ..
1827	1,468,599 ..	1,387,301 ..	2,855,900 ..	1832			
1828	1,951,129 ..	1,804,660 ..	3,755,789 ..	1833			

The account of its trade with different countries will be seen by the following return of the comparative statement of the trade of Singapore, (imports and exports), with the different countries in 1830-31 and 1831-32, &c.

Comparative Statement of the Imports and Exports of Singapore for 1830-31 and 1831-32.

Countries.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1830-31	1831-32	1830-31	1831-32
England	1,161,945	1,514,664	3,535,576	3,037,926
Foreign Europe	75,301	81,302	96,697	20,076
South America	31,563	6,016	—	—
Mauritius, &c.....	5,997	7,068	18,484	12,661
Calcutta	1,215,988	1,073,832	1,001,026	879,539
Madras	48,733	141,049	135,714	149,570
Bombay	108,623	91,575	193,125	173,561
China	2,857,303	2,433,959	699,396	735,412
Java	1,135,928	978,978	342,399	389,693
Rhio	84,913	98,210	61,648	75,039
Siam	266,907	343,960	149,449	312,189
Cochin China	37,717	126,403	46,778	222,496
Ceylon	13,724	7,841	14,849	—
Acheen and N. Pepp. Ports ..	77	28,300	788	—
Sumatra	187,366	151,589	167,511	166,288
E. C. Peninsula	875,595	320,371	410,695	319,145
Straits	48,424	87,004	30,583	24,844
Celebes	234,346	175,617	258,024	187,716
Borneo	244,176	399,637	192,599	178,616
Italy	71,143	33,471	102,539	59,596
Manilla	204,168	48,303	164,700	32,339
Cambaja	17,638	9,655	14,624	7,799
Other Ports, &c.....	119,971	118,135	174,875	194,784
Total Sp. D.	8,468,731	7,996,974	8,271,323	6,941,542
Difference	531,757		1,329,661	

Imports from		Exports to	
Malacca.. Square Rigged, V. Sp. D. 66,186		Square Rigged, 104,735	
Ditto... Native Craft..... 61,978		Native Craft.... 61,999	
Penang.. Square Rigged..... 318,367		Square Rigged.. 336,730	
Ditto... Native Craft..... 36,376		Native Craft.... 79,411	

Shipping at Singapore, 1833-34. Statement of the Number and Tonnage of square-rigged Vessels which have Imported into and Exported from Singapore, during the official year 1833-34, compared with the preceding year.

	IMPORTS.						EXPORTS.					
	1833-1834.		1832-1833.		1834-1835.		1833-1834.		1832-1833.		1834-1835.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Great Britain	18	6226	28	7754			30	9800	26	8023		
Continental Europe	3	651	7	1001			3	581	5	1150		
America	3	676	3	613			1	231	1	200		
Mauritius	3	819			1	256		
Bourbon	3	451			78	43780	103	50645		
China	47	19166	27	24743			16	1740	11	2379		
Manila	21	3294	20	6002			33	2448	33	9734		
Calcutta	38	16317	40	17104			7	2180	14	4921		
Madras	10	3455	10	2602			23	12327	26	14010		
Bombay	22	22668	51	89052			1	300	3	1245		
Arabia	3	742			2	200	4	540		
Moulmein	1	76			1	110	3	362		
Ceylon	3	380	4	830			106	14426	34	3507		
Malacca	67	9002	64	4850			18	3661	66	9018		
Penang	54	9572	46	6447			44	10085	74	14960		
Java	21	17025	73	12224			12	1406	20	3565		
Sumatra	3	590	16	3174			31	2706	9	927		
Rhio	10	1847	6	732			4	960	8	2573		
Siam	4	628	3	1664			4	1260	6	1544		
Cochin China	4	967	3	770			3	550	3	301		
N. S. Wales	9	3000	15	5228			1	231		
Cape of Good Hope	1	203		
Borneo	3	327	13	1781			2	374	14	1567		
Tringanu & other Native Ports	8	803	7	745			7	873	7	704		
Aracan, Rangoon and Chittagong			1	450	2	320		
Pegu			1	158		
Bali and Eastern Islands		
	420	120445	478	127298			420	119625	474	126240		

The number of vessels under each flag is thus shewn:—

Import Tonnage 1833-34, by square-rigged Vessels; under what Flags.—
 From Great Britain, 28 vessels under British flag; Continental Europe, 2 French, 2 Hamburg, 2 Danish, 1 Portuguese; Isle of France, 2 British, 1 French; China, 42 British, 1 Hamburg, 1 Danish, 4 Dutch, 9 Portuguese; Manila, 15 British, 1 Danish, 4 Spanish; Calcutta, 38 British, 2 Portuguese; Madras and Coast, 9 British, 1 French; Bombay and Coast, 41 British, 1 French, 9 Portuguese; Arabia, 2 Arab; Moulmein, 1 British; Ceylon, 4 British; Malacca, 56 British, 8 Portuguese; Penang, 43 British, 1 Danish, 1 Portuguese, 1 Malay; Java, 3 British, 1 Hamburg, 67 Dutch, 2 Cochin Chinese; Sumatra, 8 British, 1 Hamburg, 1 Danish, 5 Dutch, 2 Malay; Rhio, 4 British, 1 French, 1 American; Siam, 5 British; Borneo, 5 British, 7 Dutch; Cochin China, 1 French, 2 Cochin Chinese; Tringanu, 6 British, 1 Dutch; N. S. Wales, 15 British; Bali and Eastern

Islands; 1 Portuguese; Bourbon, 2 French; U. S. America, 2 American. Totals—325 under British flag, 9 French, 5 Hamburg, 6 Danish, 3 American, 92 Dutch, 23 Portuguese, 4 Spanish, 2 Arab, 4 Cochin Chinese, 3 Malay. Grand Total—475 vessels, tonnage, 137,298.

Native craft:—

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Native Vessels, Prahus, and Junks, which have Imported into and Exported from Singapore during the official year 1833-34, compared with the preceding year.

	IMPORTS						EXPORTS					
	1833-1834.		1834-1835.		1833-1834.		1834-1835.		1833-1834.		1834-1835.	
	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons	No.	Tons
China	7	1247	27	4642			13	2675	9	1447		
Cochinchina and Camboja	17	998	49	3010			26	2307	27	1966		
Siam	37	4397	24	3702			37	3990	17	2537		
East side of the Peninsula	143	3937	72	1089			111	2557	70	1563		
Borneo	98	2891	138	3696			75	1704	148	3231		
Celebes	81	1812	55	1345			97	1985	102	2441		
Bally	46	964	69	1566			37	1215	73	2043		
Java	48	2347	72	2986			3	467	44	2126		
Sumatra	518	8531	514	3744			470	3432	397	3809		
Penang	3	473	8	420			3	725	5	447		
Malacca	79	2276	60	2608			82	2181	68	3003		
West side of the Peninsula	55	474	40	341			50	487	36	250		
Rho	251	3182	251	3613			362	4532	264	3663		
Neighbour Islands	186	1623	230	2675			187	2015	214	2056		
	1466	26714	1599	34927			1495	30178	1480	29877		

GOLD forms one of the most valuable imports of Singapore. The principal portion is from Pahang on the coast of the peninsula, and it is considered superior to the metal brought from other places. The various places whence this important product is shipped for Singapore will be seen by the returns for 1831.

From Ports on E. Coast of Peninsula:

Pahang—bunkals—4,285. Calantan—ditto—300.

From Borneo:

Lembac—bunkals—1,508. Pontiana—ditto—633. Soonga Rayeo—417
 Papas ditto 58. Bintool—ditto—20. Banjar, &c. 32
 Sumatra—Jambie—bunkals—104. Campar—ditto—160.
 Celebes island ditto 550. Other islands 31. Total—8,103.

Or Cattie*—405—bunkals—3.

The greater part of this immense quantity is sent to Calcutta for opium, &c.

* A cattie is 1 lb. and 1-3rd avoirdupois.

GENERAL VIEW.—As a commercial mart, and key to the navigation of the seas, in which it is situate, this settlement is of incalculable importance; we have seen by the foregoing accounts, that it has sprung up within the short space of ten or twelve years from a desert isle to a rich and flourishing settlement, exporting annually 3,000,000*l.* worth of goods. It has two periodical journals well conducted; its inhabitants are imbued with a manly and independent spirit, and its trade is as yet but in its infancy. The opening of the Chinese market will not diminish its resort, but on the contrary, increase it; situate as it is in the centre of myriads of active and industrious nations, inhabiting rich and fertile lands, abounding in every species of tropical produce, of which Europe, America, or China has need, ready to receive in return the manufactures of Britain to an almost illimitable extent, and being unmolested in its progress by harbour duties, dues, or charges of any description, it requires nothing but a withdrawal of England from her narrow minded and miserable commercial policy of excluding eastern produce, to make our trade with the Asiatic Archipelago (of which Singapore is now the entrepôt) one of the most valuable branches of our mercantile connexions.

[In the preceding edition a complete view was given of the Chinese Empire, which it was necessary to omit in the present, owing to the large quantity of additional and important matter furnished from the India House; and which was of course more intrinsically valuable than that portion relating to China.]

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CHAPTER XI.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA, IN A CHRISTIAN, POLITICAL, AND
COMMERCIAL POINT OF VIEW.

THE Christian and the moralist who is accustomed to trace in the records of past ages the beneficent dispensations of the Supreme Disposer of events, as regards man in his collective as well as individual state, will not fail to perceive, that since the time of Elizabeth, England has risen from a small insulated kingdom to a vast maritime empire totally different in formation, and in constitution from any dominion that has heretofore been established on earth, and it will also be seen (by the subsequent volumes of this work) that no part of this unparalleled empire is more deserving of deep consideration in a philanthropic, political or commercial point of view, than the British possessions in Asia. As travellers are wont, when ascending a lofty eminence, to pause and contemplate the scene above and beneath, let me entreat the reader, who has accompanied the author through the foregoing unavoidably monotonous detail of facts, to reflect on by-gone events. I will suppose him a Christian (and of course a philanthropist) intensely solicitous for the dissemination of the pure and mild precepts of religion, and desirous of extending the blessings of education among untaught millions, and of rescuing the land of the heathen from the dark and degrading idolatry in which it was unhappily plunged, amidst a sea of misery and vice: to such an individual I would say, how rapid, how strange, how incredible almost has been the rise and progress of the British power in the east. We first visited its picturesque and fertile shores as a race of needy adventurers, thirsting for gain, and perhaps but little scrupulous as to the means by which it was to be acquired; in a brief space of time we rose from petty traders to be sovereigns over

100,000,000 of intelligent and comparatively civilized human beings; in our progress reducing the elements of chaos, of rapine, and of murder into social order, security and peace. Will any reflecting person say that all this was the work of blind chance? Will he have the hardihood to assert, that no overruling Providence swayed the destiny of Britain, giving victory to the few, strength to the weak, and power to the merciful?

To him who now writes, the finger of the Almighty is over all his works—in the mineral, in the vegetable, in the animal kingdoms; on the earth and in the sea, and throughout the heavens. Conscious of this as of existence, can he deny to the creator and preserver of the universe a complete governing control over the actions of His creatures, especially in those of such momentous importance, as the dynasty of nations, and the temporal as well as spiritual welfare of millions?

Human agency, it is true, has been the only *visible* means of accomplishing the formation of the British power in Asia, but how multitudinous are the occurrences of everyday life, which teach that the battle is not to the strong, nor the race to the swift? Let us search the recesses of our own hearts, and we will find that in hours of sickness and sorrow, we involuntarily turn our thoughts to the contemplation of a supreme regulator of our actions; and shall we in prosperity deride and deny that unseen, yet omniscient Being, whose favours we are so ready to solicit in affliction and in adversity?

To contend, therefore, against the interposition and aid of the Deity, in the British acquisition of India, would be as impious as it would be untenable in argument. *Why do I advert to it?* To point out the best course which, as Christians, we are bound to adopt towards the myriads of fellow-creatures so mysteriously subjected to our sway, being assured, that unless our conduct be regulated by the precepts of Christianity, all human power and human efforts will be like unto tinkling cymbals and sounding brass.

When the British Government became masters of India, their first duty was the establishment of general tranquillity;

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a lovely and beautiful land, which for ages had been a stranger to social concord, now for the first time, within the memory of man enjoys the inestimable blessings of peace. What became of the second Christian duty of the government? The diffusion of education, the implanting of light where there had been heretofore darkness, the inculcation of knowledge among the ignorant. For a view of the efforts now in progress to accomplish this holy object—this stepping stone to Christianity, I refer to the preceding pages, and in doing so, I would call on all who have the worldly means at their disposal, to aid by their contributions those good and pious men, who, forsaking the comforts of civilized life, and all the nameless endearments of home, devote their very existence to promoting the weal of their dark brethren.

Let it not be thought, that in a blind and mistaken zeal, the *compulsory* introduction of Christianity among our eastern brethren, is advocated: had I not the example of the Portuguese Roman Catholic fanaticism and its fatal consequences before me; yet would I abstain from inculcating such a course; knowing that that which is acquired by violence is transient as the passing breeze, and that a faith on which the exercise of reason is denied, can only be maintained by fraud propagated by force.

The British authorities in the east have set a wise example to rulers. Among their earliest decrees, was the *permission of the free and peaceable observance of all forms of worship, which were regarded as religious by the worshippers, and the recognition of all rights and the protection of all property connected with the religion of persons resident within their jurisdiction*: thus securing to their subjects the laws, religious institutions and distinctions, which the antiquity of ages had consecrated, yet at the same time, leaving that which was objectionable in a moral sense, open to the cautious, progressive, and permanent amelioration which the instruction of the Hindoos would undoubtedly suggest. Warned by the fate of their predecessors (the Mahomedans and Portuguese) no religion was engrafted on the State, (even the pro-

testant bishops in India have never had a seat at the council board as is the case in some of our colonies), and every communion was not merely tolerated but protected and auxili-
 arized.* In return for this toleration and protection, human sacrifices, infanticide (in 1802), maritime and internal traffic in slaves, witchcraft (in 1789), cruelties, widow burning (finally in 1829) &c. were successively prohibited. Mutilations for offences, and in a great degree capital punishments abolished. Equal rights accorded to all from the nabob to the peasant, and every possible means taken for making our government of India one of moral rather than physical force. That much has been done in India to gladden the christian's heart is indisputable, all that remains is to follow up with temperate and steady perseverance the course of instruction now in progress throughout our Eastern possessions, and the adjacent territories, whether by government or by Church, Wesleyan, Baptist, American or Moravian missionaries, for it is only by such proceedings we can effectually prepare the natives of British India for the government of their own country at some future period, and make them, whether politically separated from—or connected with—England, bound to us in the deepest ties of human affection. We found 100,000,000 Hindoos parcelled out like cattle, beneath the sway of an hundred despots, exhibiting amidst their myriads of diversified population, no grandeur of intellect—no capaciousness of soul—all one groveling mass of mortality, reduced for the greater part to a state of domestic servitude, and under the debasing influence of a superstition, for which nothing was too gross and revolting, while their country was periodically ravaged by fire, famine, pestilence and the sword; it would be a libel on human nature to say that there was no gratitude among the Hindoos to England, for rescuing them from their past misery; we have it now in our power to convert that gratitude into a deep—a permanent affection; away then with the ignoble, the selfish, the degrading idea, that

* Regulations of the Bengal Government in 1793, to protect the natives in the exercise of their religion.

by educating the Hindoos, we shall the sooner enable them to expel our dominion from Hindostan; would a parent refuse to educate his child, lest the latter should become wise as its father, and thus dispute his paternal authority—an authority, which in a well regulated mind is based on love? No!—I will not demean my country by supposing that such unworthy thoughts are to any extent entertained, and let those who fear for the breaking up of the integrity of the empire, remember that the Ruler, who in his infinite wisdom, thought fit to sever the N. American provinces from Britain, and almost immediately raised up in the East, a dominion greater than that lost in the West, will find a substitute for the Anglo-Eastern Empire, should He at a future period decree the separation of Hindostan from England.

Having now demonstrated concisely, but it is to be hoped satisfactorily, the manifold advantages which have accrued to a very large portion of the human race on a retrospection of the British occupation of India, let me next be permitted to address the statesman with reference to the said occupation in a—

POLITICAL ASPECT. Territory (and most especially *maritime* possessions) wisely governed is power. When the nations of Europe, at the commencement of the seventeenth century, started into active competition for dominion, and nearly half the globe was divided by treaty between two of England's most violent religious and political opponents;—England must either have been content to remain as a petty island; or enter into the strong contest for power which then arose between Spain, France, Holland, Portugal, &c. Happily for England, the wise Elizabeth then swayed its destinies, her prophetic mind foresaw the coming events of ages, and with a noble patriotism rarely equalled, seldom or never

* The first stipulation of this extravagant agreement was, that *all new found* countries to the north of the Canaries should belong to Spain, and all southward to Portugal. A treaty was subsequently signed and sanctioned by Pope Julius II. by which the meridian of demarcation was removed 270 leagues farther west, in favour of Portugal!

excelled, the whole energies of this highly gifted woman, were turned to the acquisition of maritime dominion for England; suffice it here to say, that the first East India Company charter was not merely granted by Elizabeth, but its success promoted by every means in her power; on the demise of one of England's greatest sovereigns—her colonial policy and principles (with few omissions) were continued down to the present generation, and as Britain's maritime empire extended, whether in the east, or in the west, in the north, or in the south, her power and her glory, and I trust her wisdom became wonderfully enlarged. The opposition of Portugal, of Spain, of Holland, of France, of indeed all our enemies successively sunk—diminished—became to us as nought, as we rose in maritime possessions; the balance of power in—as well as the battles of—Europe, were regulated, and fought in our colonies and on the ocean; and England after contending against all Europe single handed, not for pre-eminence, but for her very existence as an independent kingdom, became the arbitress of the destinies of the world.

COMMERCIAL PROSPECTS.—If the two foregoing reasons be in favour of our occupation of the Eastern Colonies, what shall we say with reference to them in a mere *mercantile* point of view? Let the reader place the map of Asia before him; at the central extremity of that splendid continent, most admirably situate for maritime or internal commerce, he will find the Anglo-Indian Empire, and around it several million square miles of the richest territory, teeming with upwards of FIVE HUNDRED MILLION of industrious and comparatively civilized human beings! What a prospect for English commerce—for British industry and capital—does such a scene present; nations of various colours, creeds and languages, rich to overflowing with every tropical product;—for whose advantage earth, air and ocean seem combined to pour forth their inexhaustible treasures, and who offer in ex-

* The connection of England with her transmarine possessions—political, social, and commercial, will be amply developed in my 'Colonial Policy.'

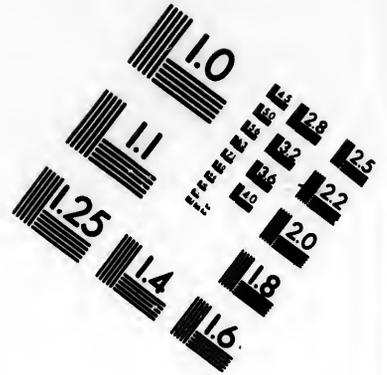
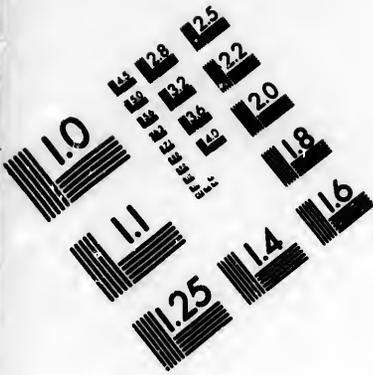
change, for the manufactures and productions of our temperate zone—silk, cotton, sugar, tea, coffee, tobacco, spices, fruits, timber, corn, oils, colours, drugs, dyes, wool, iron, tin, copper, gold, silver, &c. &c., in boundless profusion—in limitless quantities!

Heretofore we have almost spurned the bounteous offerings of an ever-beneficent Providence;—by fiscal laws we have nearly shut out from England the productions of half the earth, and thus madly increased domestic poverty; but it is to be hoped that a better system is now commencing; we have *reduced the import duty* on some Colonial articles, and if the principle be just in regard to minors, how much more so is it in reference to the great articles of traffic which enter into the consumption of the bulk of the people.

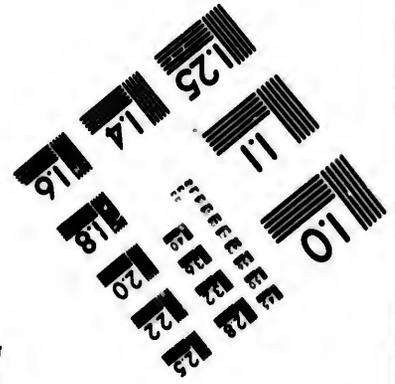
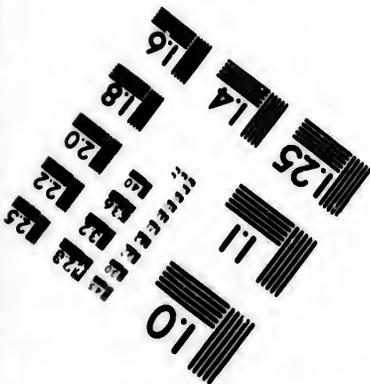
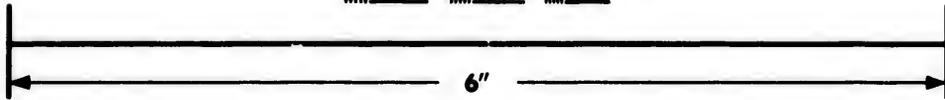
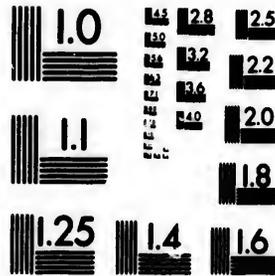
That this great step (*the reduction of import duties on Colonial produce*) will ere long be accomplished I have every hope of; I look not despairingly on the present commercial position of England, on the contrary, I see every thing around me to cheer and excite the most languid spirit; I witness a great and glorious moral revolution in Britain,—I behold the only security for the maintenance of an Empire—popular representation, aided by a free press—renovated and extended;* I view with inexpressible delight the spread of education, which, though primarily superficial, will become ultimately profound;—I exult in the liberal principles which are being established in our maritime possessions, the invigorating shout of which is re-echoed across the Atlantic, and I glory in the prospects of freedom for our colonial commerce, so capable of rendering us independent of the whole world,—of giving profitable employment to our half-starved population, thus renovating the social fabric at its base, and making England more secure in her dominion over the ocean,—more

* Let me be understood as hoping, that if on the one hand democratic principles are being extended, so on the other the Kingly office should be strengthened; a balance must be maintained between the Crown and the people, and for the sake of the latter it is absolutely necessary to preserve the former efficient.





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powerful for the protection of the oppressed,—more wealthy for the relief of the poor,—more thoroughly efficient for disseminating the boundless blessings of the gospel.

Babylon—Nineveh—and Rome—fell from their high estate, leaving no traces of their past glory but in their name:—*their* empire was TERRITORIAL,—their government that of the *few*,—their knowledge unaided by the press, their precepts unguided by Christianity; not thus is it with the British Empire,—her dominion is MARITIME,—her Government that of the *many*,—her people's voice heard in every corner of the earth through the press,—and her endeavours for the spread of religion every where crowned with propitious prospects. Have we then cause to think the British Empire has passed its meridian, and now hastens towards the twilight of existence? No! unless freedom,—unless knowledge,—unless Christianity be the stepping stones to annihilation. On our empire the sable curtain of night is never complete, for while the bright luminary of the heavens is temporarily unilluminating the skies of Albion, it is but to shed light and life on another section of our wondrous social frame; may this astronomical phenomenon be typically that of our national history,—may the sun of Britain's glory never set in eternity until the great globe itself shall have passed away,—and may our maritime dominion (under the auspices of Him alone to whom power and dominion belong) become more and more consolidated, forming unto futurity that prophesied kingdom, whose branches and roots will extend over the habitable earth for the exaltation and happiness of man.

more wealthy for the relief of the poor, more thoroughly efficient for disseminating the priceless blessings of the gospel.

APPENDIX A.

OFFICIAL AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS TO VOL. I.

HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COLONIES [SECOND EDITION.]

No. 114. Names of Zemindars and their Estates, and of Pergunnas, under the Khass Management of the Rajah of Singbhoom.

Names of Zemindars, and of Pergunnas.	Number of Zemindaries and Pergunnas.	Total No. of Villages in each Estate and Pergunnah.	Chiefly Inhabited by.	Estimated No. of Armed Force on each Estate or Pergunnah.	Amount of Malguzari payable to the Rajah.	Local situation with reference to rest of Districts.
Ahlu Sing Rajepoot.	Samajhur or Anundpoor.	84	Chiefly Coles.	600		N. E. Pergunnah of Singbhoom. These 9 Pergunnas extend in order pat down from W. to E. along the northern face of the Singbhoom. Karawa continues the line of the northern face, and Deojala of Serickis form the north-eastern face of Singbhoom.
Rajah's Khass management.	Giergo.	84	Almost exclusively Coles.	700		
Ditto ditto.	Freruhah.	84	Great majority of Inhabitants Coles.	500		
Rajah Koomkum Sing Booyas no.	Budogaun.	84	Some Booyas, but the majority Coles.	700		
Kimelon Peter Booyas.	Koria, Pala.	84	Majority of Inhabitants Booyas, but amongst them some Coles.	600		
Locknath Sing Rajah's relation of Rajah.	Kara.	84	Chiefly Cole Inhabitants.	600		
A part of this estate belongs to the Rajah, and he has a share in Ghassie, King Rajah's relation.	Goomb.	84	Inhabited by Coles exclusively.	600		Goomb with Sira Kela Gora Sing and part of Jayatgurh, form the Eastern face of Singbhoom.
Rajah's Khass management.	Jayapoor.	100	With the exception of 700 of itself all the Villages are inhabited by Coles.	5000		The two Pergunnas form the S. E. S. and S. W. face of Singbhoom.
Oostang Rajah.	Smadha.	250 reported	Cole Inhabitants alone.	Little or nothing almost known of this Estate.		
Chucker Dee Sing.	Koteghar.	13	Cole Inhabitants only.	500		These Talooks with Sumyghan make the Western face of Singbhoom.
Under Rajah's Khass management.	Kelenora.	13	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Gomera.	40	Ditto ditto.	700		
Ditto ditto.	Gopinathpore.	13	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Adjodea.	13	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Natona.	13	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Jandba.	13	Ditto ditto.	500		
Ditto ditto.	Jaggannath.	60	Ditto ditto.	3500		
Ditto ditto.	Chuckerdepore.	60	Bramins Koomist Coles.	500		These with Accombers of Karawa, the central Pergunnah of Singbhoom.
Bulbudder Dandpal.	Choric.	13	Coles generally, and a few Booyas.	400		
Rajah's Khass management.	Gorindpoor.	13	Cole Inhabitants	400		
Cheynt Chunder Mahapatra.	Chirrepore.	94	With exception of a few Booyas, Cole Inhabitants.	500		

The Coles of the Rajahs and other Pergunnas entered into engagements to pay a certain sum per year by a written engagement given to Major Bogle. Their payments are very irregular. A trading post near the Singbhoom, but not his relations, but it is collected with great irregularity.

These with Accombers of Karawa, the central Pergunnah of Singbhoom.

No. 2.—List of Zemindars and their Estates of the Kingdom of Sambhal paying Rent to the Rajah.

Names of Zemindars	Names of Estates	Number of Villages Inhabited held by each	Amount of Malguzari payable by each to Rajah.
Alapat Singh	Mari Koi	71, Right bank of, Aban	S. R. 500 A. P. 0
Treshnar Das	Fahar Bagaria	6, Do. Do. Do.	50 75 ..
Balabadar Das	Lachanpora Benda, An.	34, Do. Do. Do.	300 300 ..
Loha Singh	Korwa	9, Do. Do. Do.	150 261 ..
Medala Barua	Khemsoonda	6, Do. Do. Do.	150 178 9
Bree Ram Singh	Bocora and Bahapora	18, Do. Do. Do.	300 75 ..
Bhowani Singh	Borpallie	46, Do. Do. Do.	400 250 ..
Ramanath Ghossein	Cotman	48, Left bank, Bog	300 325 ..
Bylansath Do.	Lera	12, Do. Do. Do.	100 225 ..
Narhari	Rampora	43, Do. Do. Do.	150 225 ..
Durgawon Roud	Banpara	30, Do. Do. Do.	300 30 ..
Arjona Ghurrotia	Ghur Lohli Singh	9, Do. Do. Do.	100 115 ..
Soanath Das	Rooribagga and Bunes-	11, Do. Do. Do.	300 78 ..
			2,077 1/2

The remaining Villages of Rajah are under the Rhamnie Khass Management.

No. 3.—Zemindars of Gangpore.

Names of Zemindars	Names of Estates	Number of Villages Inhabited held by each	Amount of Malguzari Payable to Gangpore Rajah.
Waharrie Ghossein	Surrat Ghur Rajah Bahal	18	S. R. 10 A. P. ..
Anjloo Gurrotia	Surrat Ghur	30	30 ..
Mooro Manjee	Hemjee	19	200 20 ..
Ghasse Ghossein	Banagur	13	20 20 ..
Ghoorrie Manjee	Nija	11	20 20 ..
Joojar Manjee	Sudya	3	15 20 ..
Bangwan Manjee	Moorkya and Tilla	17	150 100 ..
Dava Sing Manjee	Mohalgaon	1	10 20 ..
			500 ..

The rest of the Villages are divided amongst the Rajah's Relations, and under the Rajah's Khass Management.

No. 4.—A List of Zemindars of Autmullick.

Names of Zemindars and Mallicks	Number of Villages held by each
Zemindar Nemoo Roonnie and Mallick Mudoo	Ooroda
Zemindar Sedasee Ghurrotia and Mallick Dergoo	Banar
Zemindar Kushoo Deroo Mallick Fingoo	Banjumore
Zemindar Karrya Fardhan Mallick Sama	Mandool
Zemindar Ruttie Deroo Mallick Mudoo	Tamsahl
Zemindar Soanath Baga Mallick Gaudupoo	Dola Singo
Zemindar Mahindoo Bawal Mallick Numloo	Bannia Band
Zemindar Ruttie Ball and Kadassie Serwal Mallick Luchie	Pyee and Cool

No. 5.—List of Estates and Zamindari under the Superintendence of the Agent of the S. W. Frontier.

A. P.	Names of Chief formerly dependent of the Rajah of Sambhalpoor, Patna, Bhoom and Singpoor, now independent of them, owing obedience only to the Hon. Company.	Names of Estates or Zamindari.	Number of Villages on each Estate.		Estimated extent of Country.		Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.			Military Strength.		Tribute payable to the Hon. Company's Treasury.
			Length.	Breadth.	Length.	Breadth.		Supposed Revenue.	Cavalry.	Infantry.	Militia.		
2	Rajah Mohun Coor Rajpoot.	Sambhalpoor	707	80	80	25000	30	400	3000	2000	4000	..	
..	Formerly dependencies of Sambhalpoor.	Rajah Prithoo Sing Rajpoot.	Schunpoor	423	80	40	10000	
..	Formerly dependencies of Sambhalpoor.	Rajah Juger Deo Bicker Rajpoot.	Gangpoor	246	100	30	4000	10	55	462	
..	Formerly dependencies of Sambhalpoor.	Raja Sing Ron Sing Goud.	Saringhur	194	80	24	7000	12	1300	1312	
..	Formerly dependencies of Sambhalpoor.	Rajah Jader deo Rajpoot.	Boule	84	40	300	3000	400	37	
..		Rajah Lovai deo Rajpoot.	Bomra	400	150	50	5000	100	310	
..		Bihenchundee Jye Rajpoot, not pure.	Reracole	250	35	14	6000	3000	363	
..		Taje Koor Dew. Anse Goudan.	Suetee	50	25	15	1000	300	225	
..		Rajah Ajeit Sing Goud.	Burger	75	24	10	3000	400	300	
..		Rajah Dewath Sub Goud.	Ryeghur	400	60	25	1500	3000	150	
..		Rajah Bhepanl Deo Rajpoot.	Patna	
..		Rajah Rutting Sing Rajpoot.	K. Jgar	
..		Rajah Prithis Shah Goud.	Bholger	300	60	40	1500	300	412	
..		Rajah Achbee Sah Goud.	Nowaghur	84	120	40	3000	300	372	
..	Rajah Chunder Bicker Rajpoot.	Borasambes Boad	271	40	30	3000	1500	150		
..	Formerly a dependency of Bond.	Suahander Saw-act Rajpoot.	Antwallick	150	60	12	4000	1000	450	
..	Rajah Achait Sing Rajpoot.	Singthoom	1200	64	64	100	100		
..	Formerly dependencies of Singbhoom.	Ajumber Sing Koor Rajpoot.	Sirrickela	300	40	10	7000	10	3000	Pays Tribute to some	
..	Ammaal Sing Rajpoot.	Korea	370	..	34	1200	25	400	362	
..	Gomes Sing Rajah Rajpoot.	Surgoojah	370	100	100	11100	10	100	3000	
..	This Zemindar pays tribute to Surgoojah Rajah, but is otherwise independent, Jushpoor 200 Rs.	Ram Sing.	Jushpoor	250	70	60	6000	50	2000	..
..	This Zemindar pays tribute to Surgoojah Rajah, but is otherwise independent, Dadepoor 300 Rs.	Deagrah Sing.	Oodeypoor	131	70	45	3000	25	1000	..

* Number not ascertained.

No. 6.—Zemindars of Korea.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindarics and Pergunahs.	No. of Villages held by each.	Amount of Malgozari payable to the Rajah.
Ratten Sing Goud	Kurgaon	54	230
Durgoo Sing	Patna	53	102
Securat	Jeggalpoor	6	43
Almasah Goud	Barbespoor	6	42
Deersah Poo	Surrowlie	6	35
Palhad Poo	Harrie Muttee	6	30
Brithanet Sing Goud	Marrou	12	60
Farman Sing Goud	Kuchoor	8	25
Lallah Poo	Kullarie	11	100
Sunherath Rajepoot	Kusgaon	25	100
Adjest Sing Dewan	Addadarie	23	25
Mohipet Sing Laloo	Amru	8	20
Rajah Ram	Buggowlie	8	20
			1,050

No. 7.—Names of Zemindars, Jagheerders, and their Estates of Surgoojah paying Rent and subject to Rajah Oomer Sing.

Names of Zemindars and Jagheerders.	Names of Estates.	Number of inhabited Villages held by each.	Estimated Armed Forces on each Estate.	Amount of Malgozari paid by each to Oomer Sing.
Lall Bisahween Bukah, Brother of the Rajah.	Rampoore	96	300	It is not known how much, if anything, is paid by the brother to the Rajah.
Bace Sing	Rameola	57	400	Rs. 500
Dripnath Sah, Zemindar	Jellmilla	54	400	401
Runnie Kemechen Koal, Wife of Rajah's Cousin.	Puharbarilla	76	300	302
Paddennath Sing, relation of Rajah.	Kundoo	84	400	401
Prithee Pab Sing, Zemindar	Poil	6	500	575
Dewan Engoober Sing, ditto	Falka	53	600	100
Gojroop Sing, ditto	Kotesarree	11	100	51
Govindnath Sah, ditto	Loondra	27	200	401
Heimath Sah, Uncle of Rajah, ditto	Sarwa, Fatta	27	200	301
Bowany Bukah, Brother of Rajah, ditto.	Chitgalla	97	400	301
Ram Sing, Rajah's Uncle	Mungulpoor			
Balram Bartra, Zemindar	Belaspoor	100	100	not known.
Ordernath Sing, relation of Rajah.	Chano, &c	31	100	110
Ogar Sing, Zemindar	Murwa	11	50	100
	Rajiketa	22	100	103
				4,973

[I am induced to give these details because they have never before been printed, and have recently arrived from India;—and 2ndly, because they show the exceedingly complicated nature of the British sway in the East.]

No. 8.—List of the **Rodwan Estates** under the Agency, specifying the Names of their Estates and Number of Villages therein.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindaries.	Number of Villages on each Estate.	What authority acknowledged by them.
Khullyan Bhoosra Jogsohia Manjee	Kodoorka Tjork	12 15	Sonepore Rajah. This man acknowledges no superior, and pays no rent to any one.
Not ascertained	Boorghur	15	This man obeys Ruttoo Mullick of Panchora, but pays nothing to one.
Darta Kooar	Mullick Pudda of Balwenada	15	Obeys Ruttoo, Mullick's orders, but pays nothing; and formerly used to perform services for Sonepore Rajah.
Chuttoo Deree and Mungioi Mullick	Armool	10	Obeys Ruttoo Mullick, but pays to none, Armool is in the Boad Raje, but formerly obeyed the Sonepore Rajah.
Thanoo Mullick	Chunmakoor	8	Obeys Ruttoo Mullick, but pays nothing, Estate in Boad Raje.
Ramdoo Manjee	Surmoonda	10	Obeys Ruttoo Mullick, but pays nothing, Estate in Boad Raje.
Rattoo Mullick	Panchora	30	The Zemindar was long deprived of this Estate by Sonepore Rajah, but it has been restored to him; he engaged to pay tribute to Sonepore Rajah, but he has a great dread of him until the fear is mutual.
Damodar Kooar	Barrapallee	10	Sonepore Rajah, and under complete control.
Ahla Manjee	Kamsurra	20	Ditto Ditto
Dooder Manjee	Glowka	12	Under Patna Rajah.
Seeroo Pater Manjee	Tbopa	15	Ditto Ditto
Sabboo Manjee	Sboa	12	Ditto Ditto
Dickson Bhowee	Boorka	15	Ditto Ditto
Alam Bovee	Boorboocha	7	Ditto Ditto
Ditto	Suder Kallie	2	Ditto Ditto
Arjoon Kooar	Mohoorra	10	This is in Patna, and forms part of the Appanage of Joograje Sing, the Rajah's brother.
Gunga Bhoosra	Pardonnie	5	Ditto Ditto
Burkral Manjee	Kutunga	8	Ditto Ditto
Bubnoo Mullick	Oordoo	10	This man will obey no one.
Gudda Mullick	Baghye	10	Under the Boad Rajah.
Coeta Mullick	Suth Mullick	7	Ditto Ditto
Bugwan Sahoo	Burra Mullick	12	Ditto Ditto

No. 9.—Names of Zemindars of Oodeypoor and their Estates.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Zemindaries.	Number of Villages on each Estate Inhabited.	Amount of Mulgoozarie.	S. R.	A.	P.
Achber Sah	Chal	19	120
Bhowany Sing	Kundeya	15	126
Ram Sing	Jumooraya	9	126	12
Sobah Sing	Byraghur	4	72
Gowind Sing	Saiga	4	72
Domund Rase	Pattergaun	2	34
Jyamungul Sing	Ginda	5	72
Dome Sah	Fohree	7	48	6
Mangal Sah	Gotee	5	60
Chundua Sing	Chundahur	8	61

No. 10.—Names of Zemindars of Jushpore and of their Estates.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Estates.	Number of Villages in each District.	Authority by whom acknowledged.
Lall Sah Mailee	Ashah	0	To South of Boad.
Kees Sah Mailee	Sukutseah	18	Ditto.
Hulmudah Gatooc	Pookmra	14	Ditto.
Hri Kahl Sah	Pootinga	14	Ditto.
Gees Sattara	Pera	10	Ditto.
Agan Sah	Kond Para	4	Ditto.
Dhurnardem Doree	Koondro	4	Ditto.
Goodoo Damaah	Bookerra	4	Ditto.
Bechoo Sah and Chanda Sah	Kuchee	14	Ditto.
Berryah Sing	Kerpochee	23	Ditto.
Anand Bam Doodya	Pohree	0	Ditto.
Bode Sing Hooak	Jummudeekoe	20	Ditto.
Mennyah Sing	Koorya	73	Ditto.

No. 11.—The following are the more savage Class of Koords.

Names of Zemindars.	Names of Estates.	Number of Villages in each District.	Authority by whom acknowledged.
Servie Mullick	Bunoo	40	To South of Boad.
Bishee Bessoe	Buadhur	100	Ditto.
Saha Naick	Bales Koopra	125	Ditto.
Muttra Naick	Dum Sing	50	Ditto.
Ghaasie Mullick	Puttabar	13	To East of Boad.
Govinda Mullick and Poma Mullick	Burgoocha	25	Ditto.
Madoo Kooar and Nubgan Kooar	Armsiegar	50	Ditto.
Sulta Mullick and Punde Kooar	Kolabagh	15	To South of Boad.
Dyotee Naick	Doopte Sugar	25	Ditto.

APPENDIX B.

LIST OF BIRDARS AND PROPRIETORS IN THE PROTECTED SIKH STATES WHOSE AGENTS OR VAKHEELS RESIDE PERMANENTLY AT THE AMBALCH OFFICE.

Rajah of Puteela.
 Bhece of Rythut.
 Rajah of Nabah.
 Rajah of Hund.
 Rajah of Memnee Muzra.
 Rajah of Sirmoor.
 Rajah of Buhlow.
 Rajah of Nalle Gurh.
 Sirdar Sheer Sing of Shhabad.
 Sirdar Sheer Sing of Shealbeh.
 Races of Mulat Kotla Amcer All Khan.
 Sirdar Ajeet Sing of Sudwah.
 Sirdar Amcer Sing Singporeah.
 Soodies Ran Sing and Runjeet Sing.

Races of Roongporeh Nawal Golan.
 All Khan.
 Sirdar Nihal Sing of Indree.
 Furreh Ras Khan of Mullair Rothla.
 Duleer Khan of Ditto.
 Sadhee Dedar Sing.
 Sadhee Dewan Sing.
 Gooroo Bishee Sing.
 Bahadur Ali Shah Tushk.
 Sirdar Goolah Sing Shahah of Shahpore.
 Sirdar Sohah Sing Rulsee and Chickrowlee.
 Sirdar Reure Sing of Bussee.
 Sirdar Sahih Sing of Dunawreh.

Sirdar Goodial Sing Singpooreah.
 Malung Khan Kolelawach.
 The Kotah Khanah Singha.
 Rehmut Ali Khan of Mulair Kotla.
 Sirdar Futteh Sing of Allowitch.
 Sirdar Futteh Sing and Mit Sing of Malode.
 The Sing of Dhonse.
 Sirdar Migh Sing of Boorah.
 Sadhee Ootum Sing.
 Sirdar Goolah Sing of Rungpore.
 Sirdar Jemyit of Thanestur (his Widows.)
 Bhopal Sing Singpooreah.
 Sirdar Mehtab Sing of Sikree.
 Sirdar Ram Sing of Gadowlee.
 Sirdarnee Maun Juane of Thanestur.
 Nawab Golam Mohansun Khan of Koongporeh.
 Nooron Nissa of Raee Kote.
 Sirdarnee Frunkoner (Widow of Sirdar Punjab Sing of Thanestur.)
 Mih Sing and Jait Sing of Chdoornee.
 Meer Akber Alee Khan of Kotakee and Mornee.
 Sirdar Dral Sing Singpooreah of Kindawlee.
 Maeen Gunran of Mustafahat.
 Sirdarnee Nund Koner of Pooreah.
 Sirdar Bhoop Sing Roohet.
 Sirdar Golaub Sing of Bursaul.
 Sirdar Kacahat Sing of Bursaul.
 Sirdar Hummer Sing of Balpore.
 Sirdarnee Sahib Koner of Nunain.
 Sirdar Purtab Sing of Junpore.
 Sirdar Maun Sing of Kheira.
 Sirdar Futteh Sing of Hullahir.
 Sirdarne Latchmem Koner of Ferozepoor.
 Sirdarne Ramkoner of Chiloundee.
 Mata Raj Kone Sadhum.
 Sirdar Dun Sing of Indree.
 Sirdar Sohah Sing Nahamy (his Widow).
 Sirdarnee Sookhur of Booreah.
 Sirdar Hummum Sing of Bulkeal.
 Sirdar Jut Sing of Sudh (Lam Singha).
 Golaub Sing Ingdowit.
 Sirdar Uezier Sing of Naglee.
 Sirdar Hurdial Sing Singpooreah.
 Butwunt Khan of Mulair Kotla.
 Hummut Khan of Mulair Kotla.
 Muun Davee Sing of Ram Gurh.
 Sirdar Nehab Sing of Kurnur.
 Sultan Alee Khan (his Widow).
 Mean Narain Doss of Ram Gurh.
 Sirdars Rajah Sing Whoop Sing and the Sudhuran Singa.
 Bhaee Golaub Sing of Arrowlee.

Sirdarne Ruttum Khan of Bhore.
 Mehtamb Sing of Laloo Khoree.
 Summan Konar Metallivallee.
 Sirdar Jugrut Sing of Radhour.
 Sirdar Ram Sing of Burees.
 Sirdar Futteh Sing of Dhun.
 Putterdars of Shahabad.
 Sudhee Futteh Sing.
 Dya Sing Shurheid of Tuntore.
 Tya Futtee Khan of Kauran.
 Sirdars Bhoop Sing and Akhal Sing of Bydwan.
 The Putterdars of Burees.
 Sardarness of Kharwan.
 Sirdar Nigh Sing of Kokur.
 Mohur Sing Mun Sing and other Putterdars of Boh.
 Nizam Alee Khan of Khoonpoorah.
 Sadhee Fousdar Sing.
 Sirdar Seurin Sing of Malode.
 Sadhee Khan Sing.
 Sirdar Khan Sing of Choonee Machlie.
 Maun Koar of Budhul.
 Sirdars Hummur Sing and Futteh Sing of Jug Dowlee.
 Sadhee Burpoor Sing.
 The Bur Khan Sing.
 Sirdar Sooth Sing Nahung of Poorkhalee.
 Sirdar Oongar Sing of Seandra.
 Sholan Numbie Khan of Koongpooreah.
 Sirdar Futteh Sing of Puhbant.
 Sirdar Bhaod Sing of Balloero (his Widow).
 The Affghans of Kheserabad.
 Bustrah Sing of Tuplep.
 Sirdar Lal Sing Suspooreah of B-onjee.
 The Mahar of Kean Singa.
 Bhaee Mihr Sing of Inonseh.
 Sirdar Nadh Sing Kahur of Poawut.
 Synd Gholam Imaum of Subeh.
 Sirdar Tug Sing of Pehoura.
 Jewun Sing of Melohob.
 Futteh Singa and other Singa of Betch.
 Sultan Beebee.
 Sirdar Deva Sing of Sham Gurh.
 Maece Dhurma of Futteh Gurh.
 Sirdar Ruttum Sing of Burree.
 Sobha Sing and Soobha Sing of Dhoon.
 Hummeer Sing Booth Sing and Suntee.
 Sirdar Runjeet Sing of Shahabad.
 Purtab Sing of Buddul.
 The Jamehrun Singa.
 Sirdarne Kurzum Koner of Fundwal.
 Sirdarne Jeerun of Balchupper.
 The Jubbulbeam Singa.

The Akul Gurreah Singhs.	The Sadpendaun Singhs.	Jooth Singhs Bugwalla.	The Huhitpoor Singhs.	Bhee Goormookh Sing Bayree Wallah.	Sirdarnee Sing of Nahawnee.	Kugan Singh of Mahanuee.	Dysoo Sing of Chooraloo.	Sirdar Gopaul Sing Memarnee.	Sirdar Rahn Sing of Shahabad.	Sirdar Puhar Sing of Funeel Kote.	Sirdarnee Maun Koner of Hutteeer.	The Chandhurdeh Singhs.	The Sooteera Singhs.	The collected Sham Singhuall Singhs.	The Gorun Ghur Singhs.	Mahes Dhoofin of Etwahl.	Dewun Sing of Meanpoore.	Sholam Russool Khan of Koongpooreh.	Muta Raj Koner Dewan Sing and others of Nundpoor Muckpoowal.	Solum Mbohudee Khan and Solum Koder Khan of Kotlik.	Futteh Sing and Bhoop Sing of Keeree.
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10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000
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APPENDIX C.

Name	Amount	Description	Remarks
Maharaja Benah Row	700,000
Nawal of Banda Toolpean	400,000
Rajah Jubbens Geer	6,882
Keesho Geer	7,831
Koonwur Raj Gur	4,844
Koonwur Geesja Burch	1,543
Humespooree
Nonseporee
Koonwur Juggut Geer	7,300
Koonwur Mehandur Geer	5,000
Mum Koonwur	240
Koonwur Devijar	2,900
Loon Koonwur	2,400
Akelah Begum	3,000
Dalput Rao	1,300
Thakoordas Deo	600
Terowah	...	The son of Aharat Rao. This Pension will cease with the present incumbent.	...
Banda	...	Hereditary possession.	...
Georshabee	...	These Pensions were granted to the Representatives of Raja Humut Behadur, Kimwar Oootarow Sing, and Raja Delewar Junga.	...
Koonwur Kunchem Geer	...	Part of the Pension of Koonwur Kunchem Geer, Chollah of Hummut Behadur, Brother of Juggut Geer.	...
Koonwur Kumpta Geer	...	This Pension is the Mother of Juggut Geer, and the Pension will revert to him on her demise.	...
Koonwur Mookrend Geer	...	The wife of Koonwur Kumpta Geer. Part of Koonchem Geer's Pension, Widow of Koonwur and Mother of Mookrend Geer.	...
Koonwur Luchrum Sing	...	This pension will, on the present holder's demise, revert to Juggut Geer, Concubine of Koonchem Geer.	...
Koonwur Adjeelgur	...	Performed useful service to the Agent during the Rebellion of Luchrum Sing of Adjeelgur.	...

APPENDIX D.
List of Allied and Protected States and Jagheers connected with the
Political Agency of the N. E. Frontier.

Number.	Chief Protected States, Jagheers.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Amount of Military Force kept up, or capable of being collected.	Inclination towards the British Government, hostile or otherwise.	Population.	Amount of Contribution to the Government.
1	Munnipore	6,200 square miles.	400	Under 10,000 rupees.	3,300 regulars, capable of increase to 10,000.	Friendly.	50,000 Souls.	Nothing.
2	Synteh	3,430 square miles.	400	Equal to 1 lac of rupees.	About 300 Infantry.	Friendly.	270,000 Souls.	Nothing.

No. 3.—TIPPERAH.—In addition to his Zemindarie, in the Plains of Comillah, paying revenue of about 150,000 rupees fixed under the perpetual settlement, the Rajah of Tipperah possesses an extensive but ill-known tract of hill territory to the eastward, which may be estimated to contain 600 square miles. The information respecting this quarter is, however, much too vague and uncertain to warrant any calculations as to the population, number of villages, or revenue, arising from it. From personal observation, however, I can state that the part of Tipperah claimed as independent is not all hilly, but includes many level well-watered vallies admirably suited for agriculture; but which are, in general, neglected and wholly unoccupied, owing to the unwillingness of the low lands to subject themselves to the rapacity and tyranny of the Rajah and his officers; a few spots, however, as at Anger Collah and Killaisur, are under cultivation, and might, if assessed, yield a revenue to the state of about 5,000 rupees.

No. 4.—NORTHERN CACHAR.—Under this designation I include the mountainous country recently held by Tooleram, the chieftain whom I have found it necessary to arrest with a view to bring him to trial for the murder of two of the inhabitants of the country of Dhurumpore, now held in attachment by a Sazawul deputed for that purpose by Mr. Scott. This region does not appear of sufficient importance in any point of view to merit particular notice. Its inhabitants, I understand, belong chiefly to the Cacharee and Maree tribes, and are not more hostile than, from their relative position, it is natural to expect. Lieutenant Fisher is now engaged in forming an arrangement with them for the future government of this country, and this will, ere long, form the subject of a separate despatch.

Next to the states above detailed in the order of geographical progression, follows the confederation of petty chiefs by whom the Khoseat Mountains have hitherto been held.

These are said to be 30 in number, but it is unnecessary, with reference to the immediate object of this despatch, to enter into detail with regard to any but the following:—

Number.	Chiefs of Protected States, Jaghurars.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Military Force kept up, or capable of collecting.	Inclination towards the British Government, hostile or otherwise.	Amount of Contribution to the Government.
5	Sing Munick, Chief of Kyram.	Unascertained.	70	Precise Amount unascertained.	Unascertained.	About 3,000 armed followers.	Friendly.	Nothing.
6	Bar Munick Chief of the remaining portion of Kyram.	Do.	35	Unascertained.	Do.	400 or 500 followers.	Hostile.	Do.
7	Soba Sing, Raja of Churra.	Do.	35	Do.	About 30,000	2,000 followers.	Friendly.	Do.
8	Kala Raja, Chief of Nuspany.	Do.	About 30	Do.	Unascertained.	Unascertained.	Dubious.	Do.
9	Comar Sing, Chief of Nosing.	Do.	Unascertained.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Hostile.	Do.
10	Oolar Raja of Murruf.	Do.	25	Do.	Do.	Do.	Dubious.	Do.
11	Omas Raja of Murrum.	Do.	24	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.

Number.	Chiefs of Protected States, Jaghurs.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Military Force kept up, or capable of collecting.	Inclination toward the British Government.	Amount of Contribution to Government.
12	Singhoo Chief, Beesa Gaum.	East Manapooree, West Do. South, now Dehing.	Unascertained.	Unascertained.	9,700	2,524	Friendly	60 Men.
13	Kamptee Chief, Sudda Khoakah paye Gawn Gahya Senwa Gahayh.	Boundaries, E. Pasbrokatan, W. D. Mun Debang, N. Muryan Hills, S. Burhamputer.	Do.	Do.	4,000	1,000	Do.	100 Do.
14	Moanarya Chief Matebur Barsemputa.	E. Chonghatee, W. Booree Dehing, N. Latic River, S. Booree Dehing.	Do.	16,000	26,000	24,000	Do.	300 Do.

Number.	Chiefs of Protected States & Jaghirs.	Desc. Land	Probable extent of Country	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Military Force kept up or capable of collecting.	Inclination towards the British Government, hostile or otherwise.	Amount of Contribution to Government.
15	Raja Whaduth Sing Dooar Sookee.	Desc. Land Poona.	Rooput, 7,791 Footest, 34,349	20	Rup. 771	3,000	None.	Friendly.	4,423
16	Raja Royassar Sing Dooar Bongoe.	Desc. Land Poona.	Rooput, 4,137 Footest, 6,500	23	4,137	3,000	None.	Friendly.	2,450
17	Rajah Bullint Sing Dooar Murrapoer.	Desc. Land Poona.	Rooput, 993 Footest, 1,456	6	993	1,000	None.	Friendly.	3,000
18	Raja Nurjee Sing Dooar Chugong.	Desc. Land Poona.	Rooput, 1,002 Footest, 6,326	24	1,002	1,500	None.	Friendly.	1,000
19	Raja Bolaram Sing of Ranee.	Desc. Land Poorahs.	Rooput, 5,053 Footest, 10,355	51	5,053	3,500	10	Friendly.	3,465
20	Raja Lumbader Narain Dalsh Ballullah.	Desc. Land Poorahs.	Rooput, 3,493 Footest, 12,269	42	3,493	3,500	None.	Friendly.	1,694
21	Raja Bamsing Dalsh Mybung.	Desc. Land Poorahs.	Rooput, 883 Footest, 6,329	4	883	1,000	None.	Friendly.	504
22	Raja Boodah of Dalsh Pau-booree.	Desc. Land Poorahs.	Rooput, 454 Footest, 2,345	3	454	700	None.	Friendly.	343

No. 23.—BOOTAN.—From Chardour, in Lower Assam, to the country of the Sikkem Puttee our frontier, for an extent of about 200 miles, touches that of Bootan. Along the line a tract of the low lands, originally acquired perhaps by sufferance, has gradually become the unquestioned right of this state; on it, indeed, they appear to be entirely dependent for grain, as the population is described as being considerable, and far beyond what they could raise food for in the narrow valleys of their own hills. This circumstance places it in our power, in case of a rupture, to reduce Bootan to our terms by merely shutting the doors or passes during the cold season, and preventing its subjects from coming to the plains or receiving any supplies therefrom. Should it prove further necessary to retain the tract of low land in our own possession, the consequent expense might be met by the establishment of fairs or markets, on the principle of those in the Goulparagh district, which, on the Bootan frontier, would prove a most plentiful source of revenue.

Of the internal state of Bootan, little more is known now than may be gathered from Captain Turner's Narrative of his Embassy to Thibet, in 1783. A more recent account of the country may probably have been given to the world by Mr. Manning, who lived for a long time at Lassa; but this I have not the means of ascertaining.

I hope, while in Assam, to be able to collect much more information; but I can now add little to what is in print.

The envoys who recently visited me at Chefra were men of low rank and little intelligence. From what I could gather from them, it does not appear that the Chinese exercise a much greater influence than they did in Turner's time, either

over the undying superior, the Dhurram Rajah or Sama, or his mortal vassal, the Deb Rajah or immediate ruler of Bootan.

The Bootas are notoriously an unwarlike race, and, from the little which I have seen of their demeanour towards us, I am inclined to think that they have less of the overweening arrogance of the demi-barbarian than might be expected from their political and moral situation. A rupture with this state will only be formidable as indicating that it has the countenance of another and greater power behind it.

Number.	Chiefs of Protected States, Jagheers.	Probable extent of Country.	Number of Villages.	Supposed Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Amount of Mill & 7 Mace kept up or capable of collecting.	Inclination towards the British Government, hostile or otherwise.	Amount of Contribution to the Government.
24	Cooch Behar Rajah Huzren-dranaryan.	N. to S. 45 miles. E. to W. 40 miles.	2000	700,000 Naryna rupees.	200,000 souls.	2000 thus computed; Chief Officers & Sepoys, 200; Barkhandawazs, 1000; Shikaries, Bulwans, and Harcaries, 500.	Amicable.	Naryna Rupees 90,565 in Sicasa to 65,000.
25	Belnee Rajah Judromarwy.	N. to S. 100 miles. E. to W. 35 miles.	100	2,000 Naryna rupees.	10,000 souls.	100	Ditto.	Nothing
26	Dobingerec Hekal Lushkar.	N. to S., say 10 miles. E. to W. 12 or 14 miles.	25	Un-ascertained.	5,000	500	Ditto.	700 S. R.
27	Chepank Jobrah Lushken.	8 miles from N.E. to S.W., and 10 or 12 miles from S.E. to N.W.	10	Ditto.	5,000	250	Ditto.	200 S. R.
28	Nuzzeranah Mehal.	N. to S., 15 or 20 miles. E. to W. 10 or 12 miles.	21	Ditto.	10,000	2,500	Doubtful.	320 S. R.
29	Jurah.	N. to S. 20 or 25 miles. E. to W. 15 miles.	40	Ditto.	4,000	600	Ditto.	
30	Damrah.	N. to S. E. 40 or 45 miles. E. to W. about the same.	Un-ascertained.	Ditto.	10,000	2,500	Ditto.	

APPENDIX E.

NAMES OF THE CHIEFS IN THE PROTECTED SIKH STATES.*

- Balkhupper.* Mace Jawsan Surdarree.
Balop. Surdar Hurdiah Sing Singphoreah.
Boyree Saul. Khooshall Sing.
Bhurree. Ruttum Sing.
Bhurreeetgurh. Surdar Ameer Sing.
Boungur. Surdar Lall Sing Singpooreah.
Boorya. Surdaree Nund Kocar, Surdar Goolal Sing, and Maig Sing.
Budhour. Surdar Khurreck Sing, Khezan Sing, Nidham Sing, and Juggut Sing.

* Extract Bengal Poll. Cons. 18th Nov. 1831, part of No. 36.

- Bassea.** Surdar Dewah Sing Kuleea.
Chelowadee. Mace Ram Koonwur Surdarnee.
Chichrowlee. Surdar Sobah Sing Kuleea.
Daon. Goroo Biskeen Sing.
Dheen. Surdar Futtah Sing.
Dheenauro. Surdar Sahil Sing.
Dyal Gurh. Surdarnee Sookha.
Peerazepoor. Surdarnee Suchmen Khoonwur.
Furreed Kote. Surdar Puhar Sing.
Futteh Ghur. Mace Dhurmoo, Grandmother of Sirdar Maigh Sing.
Goorha. Nehal Sing.
Chunawlee. Sirdar Bhopaub Sing Singhpooriah.
Gudawlee. Surdar Ram Sing.
Hilahur. Futteh Sing.
Hindoor. Rajah Ram Sing, Buhadur.
Indree. Nahal Singh, South Singh, and Jowaher Singh.
Jeeandh. Rajah Sunjeet Sing Buhardure.
Judowlee. Goolab Singh, Mohur Sing, Mehy Sing, and Futy Sing Shain Singhheet.
Keythul. Bhaee Oodah Sing Buhardur.
Kharrre. Surdar Goolal Singh.
Koonjpoorah. Nawal Gholam Ullee Khan Bahadur, Gholam Mohyooddeen, Khan, Gholam Russood Khan, and Nizam Ull Khan.
Kotta. Nehung Khan, Belwut Khan, Gholum Mohyooddeen Khan, and Gholam Quadir Khan.
Kotta Mulliar. Newal Ameer Ulle Khan, Behnut Ullee Khan, Toorrehauz Khan, Feyzoolah Khan, Feezoolah Khan, Delaub Khan, Deebee Sooltan, Hummut Khan, Imam Ullee Khan.
Koetya. Seynd Jaffer Ullee Khan.
Khumdala. Surdar Dyab Sing Singhpooria.
Khurrur. Surdar Nihal Singh.
Lodooah. Surdar Ujeet Sing.
Ladoo. Surdar Jeel Sing.
Libhoonaghee. Wuzzar Sing, Humer Sing, and Sham Singhees.
Machieware. Sodhee Ootum Singh.
Majra. Surdarnee Roopa Koor, Wife of Sabala Singh Nehung, deceased.
Mecanpore. Dewan Sing.
Moulee Sohon. Surdar Bhoop Sing, and Ulbeebie Sing, Badwans.
Moostafabad. Mace Gaurau.
Muloah. Surdars Fetteh Sing, and Mrith Singh.
Muloah. Jewan Singh.
Munnee Majra. Rajah Goverdhun Sing Buhadur.
Munorly. Surdar Gopal Singh, Singhpooriah.
Nabal. Rajah Jeswunt Sing Bahadur.
Nahun (Hill States of Sirmore) Rajah Futteh purkas Rajpoot.
Nundpoor Makhabal. Mata Rajkoorun, Dewan Sing, Dudar Sing, Ruu Singh, Sunjeet Sing, Bhurpoor Sing, Ootun Sing, and Jewun Sing Soodhees.
Putiala. Maharaj Kurrum Sing, Mohundur Buhadar, and Koonwur Ujeet Sing.
Ramjurb. Means, Dhac Sing, and Narajimda.
Ray Kote. Rance Nooroonistee.
Raypoor. Roy Goodial Sing, and Natha Sing.
Rapur. Surdar Bhope Singh.
Sayallah. Surdar Deurab Singh.
Seekree. Surdar Mefaub.

Sewarrah. Surdarnee Jussa Kour, Wife of Jussa Sing Birdwan, deceased.
Shahabad. Surdar Shair Sing, Surdar Runjeet Singh, Surdar Khan Sing,
 and the Widow of Khurrut Sing.
Sham Ghur. Dewah Singh, and Futteh Sing.
Shehadpoor. Surdar Golab Singh, Sheeheed.
Tingaur. Surdar Dyah Sing, Sheeheed.
Thanneer. Surdareer Jya Koor, and Chund Koor, and Surdar Jumm-
 yeel Sing.
Toondwal. Surdarnee, Karm Koor, Widow of Metauh Sing, Shuheel.
Teera. Mall Deurmo.
Uthoo. Sudar Futteh Sing.
Umanly. Bhae Goolab Sing, and Simjeet Sing.
Ullagurh. Surdar Goordial Sing.
Zecampore. Pertaup Sing.

APPENDIX F.

List of undermentioned Protected Hill States under my superintendence with the estimated extent of Country belonging to each, supposed Revenue, Population, Armed Force, and Amount of Contribution to the Company's Treasury, agreeably to Mr. Secretary Swinton's Letter to the Address of the Agent Governor General at Dehly under date the 23d July, 1832.

Names.	Number of Pergunnahs.	Uncultivated.	Lands Cultivated.		Supposed Amount of Annual Revenue.	Supposed Population.	Supposed Number of Armed Followers.	Pays Tribute to British Government.	Well affected to the British Government.
			Regar or Irrigated Ground.	Bahal, or not irrigated Ground.					
Raj of Bahir, including Thackar wis Remartoe	22	15000	10000	..	140000	Ditto
Belartoo Nowrar Doo	150000	15000	..	Ditto
Beyonthat	11	10000	20000	..	20000	14000	1500	..	Ditto
Poondeer	1	1000	3000	..	3000	3000	400	..	Ditto
Rain	1	2000	4000	..	2000	2000	150	..	Ditto
Kortie	5	5000	5000	..	4000	3000	100	..	Ditto
Goond	1	1000	1500	..	1000	1000	40	..	Ditto
Madham	6	700	3500	..	1500	1500	500	..	Ditto
They	2	1500	4000	..	4000	3500	150	..	Ditto
Jaobal	12	2000	40000	..	20000	15000	15000	2520	Ditto
Raisum, including Barhoolce	5	2000	10000	..	6000	5000	500	1800	Ditto
Koomar Sain	11	10000	2000	..	12000	12000	1000	1440	Ditto
Budgie	10	10000	25000	..	20000	25000	1000	1440	Ditto
Bahai	12	10000	6000	..	50000	40000	2000	3000	Ditto
Thomyar	3	1000	3500	..	3500	3500	200	120	Ditto
Kothar	6	1000	500	..	7000	4000	400	1000	Ditto
Mullioog	3	2000	10000	..	10000	15000	500	1440	Ditto
Ootruck	7	5000	6000	..	3000	3500	100	200	Ditto
Begah	2	2000	2000	..	4000	3000	200	100	Ditto
Bughat	4	2000	7000	..	5000	6000	400	..	Ditto
Munghal	2	200	1000	..	1000	1000	50	72	Ditto
Bhonocce	1	200	400	..	400	200	20	..	Ditto
Bharain	7	200	2000	..	2500	2000	100	700	Ditto
Reyonthat ditto ditto	6	10000	10000	..	14000	20000	1000	..	Ditto
Potalia	0	10000	17000	..	21000	15000	1200	..	Ditto
Reyonthat ditto ditto	0	5440	5525	200	540*
Hurrowhee Sewa Subathos	3	..	1184	1398	..	4770	4457	..	1100†
Kathai	5	..	403	1042	1220	50	1042‡
Seedock	1	..	118	547
Simela	1	227	..	450	404
Total	171	265200	370642	14172	377025	326091	29200	37815	

* Retained Territory.

† Resumed Territory.
 ‡ Retained Territory.

§ Chief being pensioned.

APPENDIX G.
 Protected States, Jagirdars and others in Bundelcund, given with a view of showing
 the Nature of the Anglo-Indian Government.

No.	States.	Capital.	Extent Square Miles.	Number of Villages.	Population.	Revenue.	Military Force.	
							Cavalry.	Infantry.
1	Teary	Oorcha	2169	640	192000	1000000	1300	4000
2	Dattah	Duttiah	850	380	120000	1200000	1000	4000
3	Jhansi	Jhansi	2923	956	265000	1200000	700	2000
4	Saloun	Saloun	1480	518	180000	1000000	1500	2000
5	Samphur	Samphur	175	73	28000	500000	300	2000
6	Funnah	Funnah	688	1060	67500	800000	303	700
7	Adjugurh	Nyarhal	940	608	45000	300000	150	500
8	Jeetpoor	Jeetpoor	165	150	16000	80000	60	500
9	Chukaree	Chukaree	880	259	81000	400000	300	1000
10	Bejawur	Bejawur	920	344	90000	400000	300	600
11	Lurchlah	Lurchlah	35	11	4500	50000	15	150
12	Burounda	Putharknha	237	75	24000	45000	30	300
13	Chutterpoor	Chetterpoor	1240	354	130000	400000	300	1000
14	Bowaner	Kodnura	127	52	19000	100000	31	200
15	Jesso	Jesso	189	79	24000	12000	7	125
16	Logaal	Logaal	29	11	2500	20000	15	125
17	Sugun	Jegnee	27	6	2800	15000	5	60
18	Rehut	Rehut	15	7	2500	20000	5	60
19	Behree	Behree	30	5	2500	30000	15	45
20	Alepoora	Allpoora	65	26	9000	60000	30	200
21	Gherooll	Ghiroolle	50	18	5000	25000	40	100
22	Nowagoun	Nowagoun	16	4	1800	10000	7	40
23	Gourear	Gourear	76	19	7500	70000	30	100
24	Khuddee	Khuddee	22	5	2900	15000	7	20
25	Khampta	Rajarleh	1	1	300	1000	..	10
26	Foree Futtehpooor	Foree Futtehpooor	36	14	6000	50000	25	300
27	Chirgaon	Chirgaon	25	10	3800	25000	10	400
28	Begna	Bigna	27	6	3800	1500	7	250
29	Dhourea	Dhourea	18	8	3000	16000	8	200
30	Paharee	Paharee	4	1	500	500	..	20
31	Paldeo	Paldeo	28	14	3500	1000	..	100
32	Nyagaon	Nyagaon	20	15	2600	1000	..	100
33	Feraom	Feraom	13	6	2000	5000	..	20
34	Poorwa	Poorwa	13	6	1900	5000	..	20
35	Bhynote	Bhynote	8	3	3000	2500	..	15
36	Mukree	Mukree	10	5	1500	5000	..	20
37	Chobepoor	Chobepoor	10	5	1500	5000	..	20
Total .			12918	3728	1378400	8861200	6067	22430

Note.—The independent chieftains of Bundelcund have, during a long course of years, and at the periods when the British Government was engaged in protracted warfare with other states, invariably shown their attachment to British supremacy. During the Marhatta war of 1817-18, the protection of the numerous passes, or Ghauts, into the province, was entrusted to them. During the Burmese war, not merely were offers to assist with their forces submitted, but the commissariat department was materially aided by the voluntary assistance received from them. During the siege of Bhutpoor, supplies of grain were forwarded from the states nearest the scene of action to the army; and when the Fort of Calpee was attacked by a rebel subject of Saloun, the Sumption troops, at the request of this office, immediately proceeded to the protection of Koonah, whilst the forces of Oorcha, Thanse and Duttiah advanced, on the agent's application, to effect his reduction. In the fidelity of the Bondeah states, implicit confidence may be reposed: their attachment to British rule originates in self-interest. Under no previous government did they at any time enjoy their possessions free from all demand, either of service or tribute. Their union for the attainment of a common object, is a chimera. Between the Bondeahs and Marhattas a deeply-rooted antipathy has long existed, and time has not diminished it; Jhansi would fall an easy prey to Oorcha and Duttiah, and Jaloun could not support its existence against the aggressions of the Juggut Raj branch of the Chutterra's family. The several members against one of that family, hold each other in mutual distrust and aversion; and as the portion of the province held by the British Government is not claimed by the Bondeahs, as it formed the undisputed part of the ex-peshwa's possessions, obtained by the adoption of his ancestor by Chutterra's, they would in all probability commit an aggressive act against it, but would turn their arms against each other, if any general ferment should exist in British India: for each alleges a right to some portion of his neighbour's territory.

APPENDIX H.

Net Import or Export of Treasure into and from the Three Ports of Calcutta, Fort St. George and Bombay, in each Year, from 1813-14, to 1832-33, inclusive.

	Company's Account.				Private Account.				Total Company's and Private.				Total.			
	Bengal.		Bombay.		Bengal.		Bombay.		Bengal.		Bombay.		Bengal.		Bombay.	
	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	S. R.	
1813-14	..	22,07,000*	64,41,200	2,26,117	81,83,769	64,41,200	22,07,000
1814-15	..	4,96,500*	29,316	..	86,51,213	1,28,091	1,11,32,718	1,17,800	4,96,500
1815-16	..	1,811	1,36,068	..	2,09,16,321	1,03,000	2,24,02,533	2,09,16,321	1,811
1816-17	78,39,454	1,446	2,17,82,908	6,73,133	2,11,10,481	2,17,82,908	78,39,454
1817-18	3,21,137	1,080	2,17,46,773	9,51,134	3,24,58,487	3,21,137	3,21,137
1818-19	81,46,415	1,843	2,18,00,000	17,13,000	4,99,30,613	81,46,415	81,46,415
1819-20	1,13,14,110*	2,585	2,18,00,000	16,53,310	3,74,47,678	1,13,14,110*	1,13,14,110*
1820-21	..	2,17,000*	9,07,316	..	2,18,00,000	16,53,310	3,74,47,678	2,17,000*	2,17,000*
1821-22	..	59,12,810*	67,070	..	2,08,74,531	20,93,854	3,29,72,085	59,12,810*	59,12,810*
1822-23	..	2,810*	28,44,320*	..	1,17,34,116	9,700	1,27,18,626	2,810*	2,810*
1823-24	62,04,326*	81,28,476*	1,79,59,697	20,93,854	3,29,72,085	62,04,326*	62,04,326*
1824-25	1,57,000	17,82,000*	87,10,073	7,70,657	1,26,77,933	1,57,000	1,57,000
1825-26	42,61,076	45,09,000*	1,01,13,000	9,09,314	1,44,31,230	42,61,076	42,61,076
1826-27	18,61,322*	66,11,000	6,09,314	3,06,08,011	18,61,322*	18,61,322*
1827-28	14,82,004	28,29,000*	1,15,40,417	1,06,731	2,29,11,383	14,82,004	14,82,004
1828-29	7,02,747	46,14,000*	33,61,549	3,97,851	1,51,47,771	7,02,747	7,02,747
1829-30	4,02,323	73,77,165	3,99,415*	1,45,02,641	4,02,323	4,02,323
1830-31	73,69,515*	23,19,790	11,800	94,59,688	73,69,515*	73,69,515*
1831-32	12,89,000*	11,58,000	48,73,832	30,08,000	12,89,000*	12,89,000*
1832-33	..	2,40,000*	12,19,079*	28,98,400*	9,810	2,40,000*

*The sums marked with an Asterisk denote the Net Exports.
 Note.—In this Account, Madras and Bombay are converted into Sica Rupees, at the bullion rate of 100.00 to 100.

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