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HAND-BOOK

OF

BRITISH INDIA:

A GUIDE TO

The Stranger, the Traveller, the Resident,

AND ALL WHO MAY HAVE BUSINESS WITH OR APPERTAINING TO INDIA.

Wilson
3 Holes

BY

J. H. STOCQUELER,

AUTHOR OF

"THE LIFE OF THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON," "THE MILITARY ENCYCLOPÆDIA,"
"THE MEMOIRS OF SIR WILLIAM NOTT," ETC. ETC.

Third Edition,

WITH NUMEROUS ALTERATIONS AND ADDITIONS.

LONDON:

WM. H. ALLEN AND CO.,

7, LEADENHALL STREET.

1854.

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PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION.

THE First Edition of this HAND BOOK was published exactly ten years ago. The Second rapidly followed upon the First; and the continual demand for the work has produced the Third.

The Author is exceedingly glad of the opportunity afforded him in this, the Third Edition, of introducing a great many additions and alterations, rendered necessary by the manifold and marvellous changes which have taken place in India since 1844, or suggested by the obviousness of former unavoidable omissions.

The acquisition of SCINDE, the PUNJAUB, and of more territory in BURMAH, has given occasion for considerable mention of places scarcely referred to in the former volume. The compression of matter by the use of a smaller and closer type, and the excision of superfluous, because now obsolete, views of social usages and society, has afforded the means of describing the territories subordinate to the Madras and Bombay Governments, the EASTERN ISLANDS, CEYLON, and KASHMIR,—none of which were embraced in previous editions.

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Nor are these the only new features included in the present edition: since 1844 the Government of India has undergone a material change; commerce and civilization have marched onward; population has augmented; the armies have been increased, and their rules and regulations much altered; railways and the electric telegraph have been established, and the Ganges Canal completed and opened. None of the subjects arising out of these numerous changes have been disregarded.

Appearing almost coevally with the operation of the Act which gives a new form and character to the Government of India, it is hoped that the "HAND BOOK," which records and reflects the progress of events, will continue to merit the reputation which it has enjoyed since the hour of its first appearance.

In a work of this description, reference has necessarily been had to a great many publications which treat of India; and although at least one half the volume is original, and the result of the author's own experience of India and Anglo-Indian society, he readily acknowledges his obligations to the pages of Miss Roberts' "*Scenes and Sketches in Hindostan*," Bishop Heber's "*Journal*," Mrs. Postans' "*Western India*," the late Sir William M'Naghten's "*Mahomedan Law*," the Topographical Reports of the Madras Medical Society, Milburn's "*Oriental Commerce*," Thornton's "*Countries West of the Sutlej*," the works of Orme, Mill, Wilson, Selkirk, and others.

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SEVERAL subjects of importance will be found treated fully at page 417 to 427, and in the Appendix. They could not be introduced in the body of the work, in suitable places, because they were only in progress of completion while the previous sheets passed through the press. These subjects are:—

1. The Electric Telegraph in India.
2. The course—completed and intended—of the Railways.
3. The Ganges Canal.
4. The College of Civil Engineers, &c., at Roorkee.
5. The Rules and Regulations connected with admission to, and retirement from, the Services, Furloughs, Civil and Military Funds, &c.

The reader is requested to cancel the two paragraphs at pages 80 and 81, beginning, "The foregoing suggestions, &c."—because within the last month or two, the "General Screw Steam Navigation Company" has ceased to send vessels round the Cape of Good Hope.

J. H. S.

LONDON, *July*, 1854.

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THE

HAND-BOOK OF INDIA,

&c.

SECTION I.

OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF BRITISH INDIA.

THE attempt to comprise within a few pages anything approaching to an accurate sketch of the main incidents which have distinguished the history of the British empire on the continent of Asia, would prove so perfectly futile, that the following rough outline is offered rather as an apology than a substitute for the record which should be preliminary to a picture of India as it is. By no process of condensation could the contents of the pyramids of volumes which have been written to portray the progress of our power, from the hour when the first factory was established in India, to that which placed the Punjaub, Pegu, and a portion of the Burmese empire at our feet, be reduced within the compass of a reasonable library, much less comprised in a brief chapter of a single volume. Our excuse must therefore be, in venturing upon even a very slight abstract, that we wished to form, for the benefit of the stranger who may never have bestowed any attention upon India, a connecting link between the history of the country and its remarkable position at the present moment.

The early history of the vast continent of India is veiled in obscurity. The wonderful subterranean remains of architecture which exist to this moment in the western parts of the country demonstrate that they must have been inhabited by a people not inferior to the Babylonians and the Cushites in antiquity, and a knowledge of the arts of peace; but we

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obtain no information respecting the inhabitants, although the historians of ancient Egypt have endeavoured to connect them with the victories of Sesostris. All that we know for certain is, that the Tyrians carried on a trade with India by means of the Red Sea, and that the Greeks, beginning with Alexander and ending with Antiochus, penetrated as far as the upper part of the Ganges,* taking possession of large tracts of country upon either side of the Indus; that the dominion of the Greeks was succeeded by that of the Scythian nomades, who invaded Bactria, and that these, in their turn, were driven out by the Tartars. Next came the Mahometans, under Mahmoud of Ghuzni, who, about the year 1000, carried into effect his father's project for the conquest of India, and, after a series of aggressive expeditions, established Mussulman authority from the west of the Ganges to the province of Guzerat. From this time until the middle of the eighteenth century, the power of these invaders augmented, and the whole continent gradually fell under their yoke; the government of the various provinces being vested in nawaubs, who exercised sovereign control, with a reservation of obedience or fealty to the supreme power of the Great Mogul, who reigned in absolute despotism at Delhi. But in all these conquests and political aggrandisements, no European power took the slightest share. The intercourse with India, from the time of the expulsion of the Greeks, was confined entirely to commercial operations. The Egyptians and the Romans followed the Tyrians, sending their argosies down the Red Sea to the coast of Malabar, and receiving, in exchange for their commodities, the rich stuffs, drugs, dyes, gold, silver, ivory, &c., which formed the staples of Western India. The conquest of Egypt by the Saracens threw the whole trade into the hands of the latter, who made great efforts to extend it by carrying their enterprise beyond the extreme point of the peninsula of India to the islands of the Eastern Archipelago, thence to Siam, and ultimately to China. But the Saracens held no intercourse with Europe. Closing the port of Alexandria against the Christian trader, they preferred transmitting their return cargoes to Constantinople, through Asiatic Turkey and the Black Sea.

* Embassy of Megasthenes.

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The city of the Sultan, consequently, soon became the great mart for East-India and China produce, and to it the eyes of the Venetian and Italian states were directed. For a long time, however, the antipathy which the Christians and Mahometans bore to each other formed a bar to commercial intercourse of any kind; at length, the cupidity of the califs overcame their religious hatred, and a traffic commenced, which, while it gratified the anxiety of the Europeans to possess the products and manufactures of the East, conferred wealth upon the mercantile followers of the Prophet. In this state the trade with India continued until the Crusades gave territorial possession and influence to the southern European powers, and converted the expeditions, which were originally of a holy character, into commercial and secular enterprises. Partly by means of conquest, and partly through negotiation, the whole of the East-India trade at last passed from the Saracens into the hands of the Italians, and the port of Alexandria, until then closed by Mahometan hatred, was reopened to the ships of the Mediterranean. Florence, Genoa, and Venice were the first to reap the fruits of the great monopoly; but the latter, by deputing an ambassador to India, to open a communication with ports until then not known even by name to the Europeans, obtained exclusive supplies and benefits, which soon gave them an immense preponderance over their neighbours. To these advantages were shortly to be added the diminution of the Genoese trade by the destruction of Constantinople, where they had established themselves to the entire exclusion of the Greeks. Thus, at the close of the fifteenth century, Venice supplied nearly all Europe with the products of the East, and soon raised herself, by her wealth, to an eminence that excited the jealousy and hostility of surrounding nations. Great efforts were made by several states —the Dutch, the Germans, and the Spaniards—to obtain a share in this vastly lucrative commerce; but neither intrigue nor the most tempting offers made to the rulers of Egypt and of Syria could shake the stability of Venetian power. Events, however, occurred, perfectly independent of commercial rivalry, which struck at the root of the great monopoly, and almost entirely diverted Oriental commerce into new channels. Christopher Columbus had discovered

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America, and the Portuguese had found a way to India round the Cape of Good Hope.* In 1497, the king of Portugal deputed Vasco de Gama to India, to ascertain whence the riches of the Venetians were drawn, and to endeavour to open a trade with the same sources by the route available to the ships of Portugal. The mission was successful; the key to vast wealth was now obtained, and the Portuguese lost no time in improving their opportunities. Fleet after fleet was fitted out; every port in India was visited; possession was forcibly taken of several places upon the Malabar coast, the islands lying between Madagascar and the Moluccas, and the island of Ormus, in the Persian Gulf; and a papal grant was obtained, confirming the prior discovery of the Portuguese, and thereby checking for a time the rivalry of other Catholic nations. Prodigious efforts were made by the Venetians, supported by the Mameluke government of Egypt, and subsequently by the Sultan, to counteract the advantages obtained by the Portuguese, but all was in vain. While, on the one hand, the latter defended with great skill and bravery their acquisitions in India and the Gulf of Persia from their enemies in the Red Sea and the coasts, they, on the other, continued to pour into Europe the products of the Oriental world in quantities and at a price against which the Venetians could not possibly contend. For more than a century the trade remained in the hands of the Portuguese. But the high road which

* It is worthy of remark, that almost all the European authors assign exclusively to the Portuguese the credit of having been the first nation which doubled the Cape; but according to Herodotus, Neco II., one of the Pharaohs, who lived twenty-one centuries before the era of Portuguese enterprise, caused a fleet of triremes to be fitted out, which, steering down the Red Sea, passed into the Southern Ocean, and, rounding the Cape, came up the west coast of Africa, returning to Egypt through the Straits of Gibraltar. Pliny likewise records that Hanno, a Carthaginian, circumnavigated the continent of Africa, from Gades (the modern Cadiz) to the extremity of the Arabian Gulf, and wrote all the details of the voyage in the Punic language, when Carthage was at the height of her prosperity. The principal fact relied upon as establishing the truth of the Egyptian and Carthaginian navigators is, that they severally represent the sun as rising upon their right hand when they faced the north, as they sailed along the coast of the African continent,—a circumstance which could not have happened unless they had doubled the Cape.

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they had discovered was open to all the world beside, and it was not to be supposed that they would retain exclusive right of way longer than it might suit the convenience of other nations to yield them the privilege. Accordingly, we find that as the maritime power of Holland increased, and her domestic cares diminished, the Dutch found it worth their while to turn their eyes to India. The example of Holland was speedily followed by England, who, under the reign of Elizabeth, obtained leisure from foreign quarrels and religious discord, for commercial schemes of magnitude. From the hour of the arrival of these Protestant powers, the Portuguese date the downfal of their influence in India. Through the combined efforts of religious zeal and the conscious possession of superior physical force, they had been guilty of great oppression wherever they had planted the national flag, and had consequently raised up enemies amongst the natives, who were only too glad to afford support to any other Europeans whose interest came in collision with those of the Portuguese. Contests soon ensued between the new visitors and the old settlers, and the result was the expulsion of the latter from nearly all their positions, and the perfect annihilation of their commercial relations with the East.

The English, obtaining from their own sovereign a charter* permitting them to trade to the East Indies, and securing to them a monopoly of the advantages of such commerce, directed their attention in India to the establishment of factories, under the protection, and with the consent, of the different potentates then ruling over her shores. On the Coromandel and Malabar coasts, and on the banks of the Hooghly, they planted their feet as humble traders. Bombay, which had been acquired by the Portuguese, was soon after ceded to the English, as part of the dowry of the Infanta, who became the consort of our Charles II.; and very shortly afterwards the chartered merchants commenced a trade with China, whose tea was acquiring a certain degree of popularity in Great Britain. The success of one company of merchants suggested the formation of another, to whom the British government, in its distress for money, likewise

* A.D. 1602.

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granted a charter; but as this led to disputes abroad, and materially affected the interests of the new trade, a union of the two contending companies was effected in 1702.

The prosperity of Holland and of England naturally exciting the jealousy of France, an East-India company was formed by the French, who sent out ships, and soon obtained permission to establish agencies in Pondicherry and Chandernagore. These three nations, with the Danes and the Spaniards, who had also acquired small possessions, now constituted the European trading community in India, and through their enterprise and rivalry, the whole of the Western world was supplied with everything that the rich soil of the East, and the ingenuity and industry of her inhabitants, could produce. Some little molestation to their trade was occasionally offered by the barbarous and covetous princes in whose territories they were located, and small bodies of soldiers were therefore allowed to be maintained by the home government to protect the factories, around which defences were erected. But it was not until the year 1745 that the corner-stone was laid of those occurrences which converted the humble traders, content to defend their property from outrage, and to follow their commercial pursuits in peace and security, into warriors and politicians, and finally rendered them masters of the entire empire of India. In the year 1746, the Nabob of Arcot having died, the succession of his son to the musnud was disputed by a cousin named Mirzafa Jung. This pretender, mistrusting his own strength, applied to Dupleix, who commanded the French troops in India, for assistance, which was promptly afforded, under the hope and expectation of reaping certain advantages from the connection, should the aid solicited prove effective. The legitimate heir to the musnud, and the Nabob of the Carnatic, Anaverdy Khan, on the other hand, sought the support of Major Laurence, who was in command of the British soldiery in the Carnatic, and Major Laurence did not turn a deaf ear to the appeal. Hence arose a collision, which, with only occasional intervals of peace, has continued for nearly a century, until power after power has succumbed to the British arms, and what was gained by defensive warfare has been maintained by treaty, and consolidated by good government. Every victory

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obtained from the French and the Mahometan sovereigns, in whose behalf they fought, brought with it an extension of British privileges and the cession of additional territory. The government at home, to aid the merchants in their contest, sent out reinforcements of troops and ships. The French authorities in a similar manner recruited their forces abroad, and it was not until ten years had elapsed from the date of the first outbreak, that the latter sustained a complete and decisive defeat. This took place at Plassy, in Bengal. Dupleix, the French chief, had acquired immense power through his espousal of the cause of Mirzafa Jung, and now aimed at the establishment of universal dominion in India. But Clive, a young captain, who had succeeded Laurence (now returned to England) in the command of the forces, attacked and took Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, defended it afterwards against an immense force, and established for himself a high military reputation, which he subsequently augmented by a series of successful operations. Large tracts of country in the south were gradually ceded to the English. Clive was made governor of Fort St. David's. Events however called him to Calcutta. A frightful massacre of Englishmen, merchants and factors, had taken place in that town. Surajah Dowlah, the viceroy of Bengal, who hated the English, and who coveted the wealth their industry and enterprise had enabled them to accumulate, sought a quarrel with them, and laying siege to their fort and factories, seized upon and shut them up in a small apartment, and 123 out of 146 were suffocated. Such cruelty called aloud for vengeance. Clive headed a force against the Nabob; it was small, but compact and disciplined,—the thirty-ninth regiment (*primus in Indis*) formed a part of the gallant band—and pursuing the Nabob to the vicinity of Moorshedabad, gave him battle, and defeated an army of 40,000, on the plains of Plassy. From this hour (1757) the establishment of the British empire in India may be dated.

But new and permanent enemies had arisen while Clive and his successors laboured in Bengal. The great chieftains who divided the sovereignty of the Deccan, the Carnatic, in short the whole peninsula of India not occupied by the British, beheld with dismay the growth of the new European power, and formed alliances for its destruction. Hyder Ali,

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a political adventurer and soldier of fortune, undertook the lead in these measures, and proved a formidable antagonist. He wrested several of their possessions from the English, wasted much of their territory with fire and sword, threatened Madras, and, compelling a large British force to lay down its arms, massacred nearly every man. For thirteen years were the whole resources of the British applied to resist this warrior, who, aided by the French, between whom and the British a war had arisen in Europe, vigorously prosecuted his operations, now gaining certain advantages, and anon suffering severe defeats. Hyder Ali died in 1782, but his son, Tippoo Saib, continued to wage war with the English, and they likewise found abundant employment in a contest which had arisen with the Mahrattas, on whom, for certain considerations, it was deemed expedient to attempt to force a rajah that they had expelled. It would be vain to attempt to follow the course of history through the multitudinous wars which were dovetailed into each other from the hour when Lord Cornwallis, in 1792, deprived Tippoo Saib of half his territory. Scarcely was the sword sheathed in one quarter, than it was drawn from the scabbard to chastise a new enemy in another direction. Sir John Shore (afterwards Lord Teignmouth), who succeeded Lord Cornwallis as Governor-General of India, was engaged in a war with the Rohillas. The Marquis Wellesley, in 1798, found Tippoo Saib actively employed in new intrigues against the British, while the confederated Mahratta chiefs directed their hostility to our power in the west and north of India. Aided by his brother the great Duke of Wellington, and General Lord Lake, the marquis applied his energies and the resources at his command to the destruction of these formidable opponents, and although their operations were guided and directed by able officers, engineers, and artillerists, he entirely destroyed the power of Tippoo, annexed his dominions to those of the East-India Company, broke the Mahratta confederacy, and added 33,000 square miles to the British possessions.

The Marquis Wellesley was succeeded in his government by Sir George Barlow and Lord Minto, whose rule was more distinguished by domestic dissensions, intrigues, and the settlement of the provinces acquired, than by campaigns against external foes. The Marquis of Hastings assumed

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the reins of government in 1813, and during his administration found it necessary to take the field against the Pindarries, the kingdom of Nepaul, and a host of Mahratta chieftains, whose restless spirit had induced them to violate the engagements they had entered into, and to endeavour to re-establish themselves in independent authority. After a long campaign, the Pindarries were exterminated, an advantageous peace was made with the Nepaulese, and many states, hitherto independent, were compelled to become tributary to the Company. The effect of the policy of the Marquis of Hastings was to spread peace throughout India, and the attention of the government was now turned to the means of consolidating the vast empire which had been won by the sword. The army which had proved strong enough for conquest in detail, was not of sufficient extent to preserve the territory intact and suppress fresh attempts at insurrection. It was therefore largely augmented (in 1824), and as the close of the long war which had devastated Europe for a quarter of a century now placed many experienced soldiers at the disposal of the government for employment in the colonies and elsewhere, advantage was taken of the circumstance to put the troops in India under the command of some of those generals who had most distinguished themselves in the field against Napoleon and his generals. The result of this arrangement was soon obvious in the conversion of a somewhat irregular, but brave and devoted force, into a large, well-organized, and admirably disciplined army, capable of bearing a comparison with the most effective troops on the continent of Europe. Scarcely, however, had the country rested from the turbulence of war, and the troops been dispersed over the empire to occupy posts which best protected the people in their peaceful pursuits, and held in check the quarrelsome disposition of neighbours, when the trumpet again sounded the alarm. In 1820 an expedition was despatched to the Persian Gulf, under Sir W. Keir Grant, to put down the pirates who infested its shores. In 1821, another force, under Sir Lionel Smith, proceeded thither to avenge the treachery under which a garrison belonging to the first had been put to the sword. In 1824, the Burmese obliged the government of Lord Amherst to despatch an armament

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against them, to punish their invasion of British territory; whence ensued a contest which lasted for two years, terminating in the surrender by the Burmese of 50,000 square miles of territory, and their agreement to pay ten crores of rupees towards the expenses of the campaign. In 1826, Lord Combermere, then commander-in-chief in India, reduced the fortress of Bhurtpore, and took prisoner its intriguing possessor, whose machinations threatened to disturb the peace of Upper India. From this time, and for twelve years subsequently, the operations of the military were confined to petty warfare in the country of the Coles (Bengal), in the rajahship of Coorg, in Rajpootana, and the unsettled districts in the south of India; but in 1838, events arose which gave employment to nearly every soldier in the service, and led to a campaign attended with disasters to which a British army had hitherto been strangers. The designs of Russia upon the English possessions in India had for a long time been a subject of suspicion and of discussion. Excepting, however, in the instance of her advances upon the Persian frontier, nothing had occurred to awaken particular alarm, or render any measures, beyond those of the commonest precaution, at all necessary. But in 1837 it became apparent that her emissaries and agents were at work in Affghanistan, to foment and keep alive disputes between the Ameer ruling in Cabul and the government of the Punjaub, with which we were on terms of amity; and there was good reason to suppose that if we did not interfere to check the progress of the quarrel, the Affghans would approach, by force of conquest, near enough to India to precipitate a dangerous collision between the British and the power that was suspected of instigating them to aggression. Overtures of friendship were consequently made to the Ameer of Cabul, Dost Mahomed; but failing of effect, it was resolved to send an army to dethrone him, and to place on the musnud, in his room, an exiled sovereign (Shah Soojah), who would be more favourable to our views, and in whose kingdom we might be permitted to retain a force that should at once protect him in his seat and oppose a barrier to advances from the north. Accordingly, an army of 15,000 men, under Sir John Keane, was despatched, during the government of Lord Auckland, to place Shah Soojah upon the

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throne, and to enter into alliance or friendly arrangements with the people occupying the large tracts of country lying between India and Affghanistan. Sir John Keane went, saw, and conquered, and returned to England to enjoy, in a peerage and a pension, the reward of his easy victory. Shah Soojah maintained his sovereignty for three years, with the continual help of British bayonets; but at the end of that time, the chieftains, whose power had terminated with his restoration, combined to dethrone him and expel his allies; a measure which they were enabled to effect, partly through the division of counsels in the British camp, and partly through the extreme severity of the season. Our troops were driven to capitulate, and marching out of Affghanistan in the depth of winter, destitute of supplies and ammunition, were assailed in the mountains and massacred almost to a man. This sad blow to our arms was avenged a year afterwards by a fresh body of troops under Generals Pollock and Nott, acting under the directions of Lord Ellenborough, who had now become Governor-General of India; but the original purposes of the first expedition having been frustrated, and further interference in the affairs of Affghanistan offering no compensation, either in present or prospective security, for the great expense of occupation, the country was desolated and then abandoned.

While these events were taking place to the north-west of India, occupation was found for a considerable proportion of the army in China. The Chinese government had insulted a British envoy, imprisoned British subjects, and sequestrated and destroyed British property. To chastise these outrages, obtain indemnification for the pecuniary injury, and security for future commercial dealings, expeditions were fitted out, and after a contest of two or three years' duration, a peace was obtained, under circumstances as honourable to the arms of Great Britain as it has proved fruitful of advantage to her trade.

Here, it was supposed, strife and bloodshed had reached a termination, and in the confidence of this belief the Governor-General proclaimed perpetual peace in Asia, declaring his purpose of abstaining from all intervention in foreign affairs. Hardly, however, had the pacific declaration been published in every corner of the empire, when it was found necessary

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to punish the Scindians for alleged treacherous conspiracies against a part of the force retiring from Southern Affghanistan, and for certain overt acts of hostility subsequent to our evacuation of that country. The ameers of Scinde refused the satisfaction demanded at their hands, took arms, attacked the British residency at Hydrabad while negotiations were yet on foot, gave battle to the small army under Sir Charles Napier, which had been employed to sustain the demand for reparation, were defeated, and their territory became a part of the British empire! Subsequently, towards the close of the year 1843, the British government found it necessary to interfere with the state of Gwalior to enforce the fulfilment of that portion of the treaty which regulated the succession to the musnud.

The death of the Maharajah, and the serious disruption which resulted therefrom, rendered this state the scene of hostilities, and caused a complete alteration in the government. The Baee, the widow of the late prince, herself a girl of thirteen, belonging to a family of historical distinction in Mahratta annals, had adopted a boy of eight as her son. An application was made, as usual, to the British government, as standing in the position of the Mogul emperors, and enjoying the paramount authority in India, for the confirmation of this choice. Lord Ellenborough gave his sanction both to the adoption and to the appointment of the Mama Saib as vizier. Soon after, the Dada Khasgee obtained the confidence of the young Baee, by a seraglio intrigue, and ignominiously expelled the minister of our approval, and placed the country in a hostile attitude towards the British government. Remonstrances were offered, but to no purpose. Our government was set at open defiance in the face of India, and we had but two alternatives before us: that of vindicating our authority, by whatever means the obstinacy of the durbar might render necessary, or of relinquishing our paramount influence from the mountains to the sea. An army of exercise was assembled on the Gwalior frontier, to give weight to the representations of our minister; but his efforts to restore pacific relations entirely failed. The Gwalior army of 20,000 disciplined troops, with 200 pieces of ordnance, animated with the recollection of former triumphs, had meanwhile

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become unmanageable by the durbar. Our own neighbouring province of Bundlekund had been for nearly two years in an unsettled state, and the anarchy at Gwalior had tended to keep up the spirit of insurrection. It was impossible for our government, responsible as it was for the security of its own subjects and the peace of India, to remain quiescent, with a hostile durbar and a mutinous army within 100 miles of its northern capital. As the season for military operations approached, the remonstrances of the Governor-General became more urgent, but the only effect they produced was to restore harmony between the Gwalior court and army. The Governor-General proceeded to Agra, and ministers were sent from Gwalior to meet him; but there was so evident a manifestation of the usual Mahratta perfidy in all their negotiations, that our army was ordered to take the field and march towards the capital. There is every reason to believe, by a comparison of dates, that the messengers who were despatched to the Lahore durbar to urge an inroad into our territories, were sent at the same time that the envoys set out for Agra to meet Lord Ellenborough with their hollow promises.

As the army advanced, the Mahratta negotiators were instructed to assure Lord Ellenborough of the entire submission of the Baee and her councillors, and his lordship was induced to halt three entire days, in daily expectation of her coming into the camp, together with the young prince. But far different were the designs of the court. The time thus gained was devoted to the most active preparations for resistance. The young Baee appeared like an Amazon, superintending the despatch of troops, punishing the lukewarm, and animating her followers by every consideration of honour and profit to resist to the death. The Governor-General's eyes were at length opened by shots fired on Colonel Sleeman, who had called at Gwalior on his way from Bundlekund to the camp; and our troops advanced to the city. Soon afterwards they came unexpectedly on the batteries which had been erected during the night, at Maharajpore, unknown to us; and a bloody engagement ensued. It was perhaps the first time in which our troops were nearly matched in number by those of the enemy, and this was also one of the best-contested battles the natives have ever fought with us. The bodies of the enemy lay in heaps around their guns, and

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nothing but British valour carried the day. Another battle was about the same time fought at Punniar. We were victorious in both instances. The kingdom of Gwalior was prostrate at our feet; but we contented ourselves with a new treaty (for the appropriation of territory was at the moment an unpopular subject with the Home government), of which the following is an analysis. Article 1 recapitulates and confirms old and superannuated treaties, except so far as they may be altered by the present engagement. Art. 2 states that the durbar engages to appropriate the revenues of sixteen districts, to the extent of 1,300,700 rupees for the support of the British subsidiary force. Art. 3 provides, that if the revenues of these districts exceed eighteen lacs of rupees, the surplus shall be paid over to his highness; if it fall short, the deficiency shall be made good by him. Art. 4 provides that the civil administration of these districts shall be conducted by British officers. Art. 5 declares the sums due by the state of Gwalior to the British government, and provides for their payment. Art. 6 provides that the army of his highness shall be reduced to 9,000 men, thirty-two guns, and 200 gunners, and that immediate steps shall be taken to disband the rest of the troops. Art. 7 orders that his highness shall make good to the disbanded troops a gratuity of three months' pay. Art. 8 provides that the Maharajah's minority shall cease with his eighteenth year, and that the persons intrusted with the administration during his nonage shall act on the advice of the British resident on all matters whereon advice shall be offered, and that no change shall be made in the cabinet council without the consent of the British resident. Art. 9 enumerates the members of the cabinet council. Art. 10 provides that Tara Baee, the Maharajah's mother, shall receive three lacs of rupees a year for her maintenance. Art. 11 pledges the British government, as heretofore, to exert its influence and good offices to maintain the just territorial rights of the Maharajah and his subjects existing in the neighbouring or other states; and Art. 12 gives the ratification of the treaty by the respective plenipotentiaries. Such is the nature of the treaty concluded with Gwalior.

In the year 1845, Runjeet Sing, the founder of the Sikh empire in the Punjaub, having died, and his immediate suc-

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cessors having met with violent deaths, the military force of the Punjaub became greatly disorganized. Their pay being much in arrear, and their chiefs incapable of controlling them—the sovereign an infant, and the queen mother regent, an unscrupulous and intriguing woman,—the Seikhs now clamoured to be led across the river Sutledge, that they might have an opportunity of plundering the British possessions. Every effort was made to restrain so mad, audacious, and unjustifiable a step, but without avail. They assembled in great force and invaded the Cis-Sutledge provinces. Sir H. Hardinge, the then Governor-General, advanced with a small force, commanded by Sir Hugh Gough, to repel the incursion. Three severe battles were fought, in each of which the Seikhs were defeated; but it was impossible to drive them across the Sutledge without a reinforcement of troops. These were sent for. Previous to their arrival, the Seikhs had strongly intrenched themselves on the left bank of the Sutledge, near the village of Sobraon. Reinforced, the British attacked and penetrated the line, drove the Seikhs into and over the Sutledge, and pursued them to Lahore, where they submitted. A government was now established at Lahore under British surveillance, but the helplessness of the king, a minor, left the country at the mercy of the sirdars or chiefs, one of whom caused the murder of British officers at Mooltan, while others revived hostilities, and assumed a menacing posture. New operations now became necessary; Lord Gough, for then Sir Hugh had been raised to the peerage—advanced with a considerable army against the Seikhs—defeated them signally at Goozerat, dispersed and disarmed them—and the Punjaub was by the new Governor-General, the Earl of Dalhousie, at once annexed to the British dominions. In 1852, the Burmese governors of Rangoon oppressed British subjects. Redress was sought by every pacific and legitimate means, but without avail. An army and a fleet were therefore equipped for Burmah, and after a prolonged campaign a large portion of the territories of the king of Ava was confiscated, and added to the British territory.

Not including such possessions as may result from the last-mentioned contest, the total area of "British India," which comprehends also Scinde, the Punjaub, the Jullunder Doab,

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and Tenasserim, is estimated at 800,758 square miles. To this may be added the native states tributary to or protected by the British government, which are computed at 508,442 square miles; making a grand area of one million and one-third square miles.

In the foregoing sketch, we have confined ourselves entirely to a rough and hasty narrative of the progress of conquest. The outline of history, rude as it is, would, however, be still more imperfect were all mention to be omitted of the various measures which had gradually been introduced to render the tenure of the country firm, and to confer upon the people a better description of civil government than that which had been displaced. In 1784, a bill was passed by the parliament of Great Britain, placing the government of India under a Board of Control, composed of the king's ministers. This measure, while it in some degree affected the patronage of the Company, afforded a guarantee of protection to the people, and strengthened the hands of the local authorities in their quarrels with the French and the native powers. Between 1760 and 1773, charters were granted, establishing commissions for the trial of pirates at all the presidencies; and in 1774, a Supreme Court of judicature was established in Bengal, with powers co-extensive with the courts in England. Courts of justice were likewise erected at Bombay and Madras, and by 1837, each presidency, and the settlement of Penang, had its Supreme Court. In 1813, the trade to India was partially opened to the public under certain restrictions; and in 1833, the trading monopoly of the East-India Company was entirely abolished; the country thrown open to European adventurers of all classes; places of trust made accessible to the natives and people of all denominations; the ecclesiastical establishment augmented, and the number of members of the Supreme Council increased. The press in India has since then been freed; education is spreading its effects over the country; the glorious principle of religious liberty is recognised; professional assassination, infanticide, and human sacrifices have been abolished; lawless and predatory tribes have been civilized; slavery is abrogated; a magnificent canal, 800 miles in length, has been nearly completed; railroads have been commenced at the three presidencies; an electric tele-

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graph has been laid down; and native empiricism has been superseded by European science taught at medical colleges. The vast products of the soil are, under the influence of useful societies and active officers, evolving and improving; and the formation of a regular steam communication between England and India by the old channel of the Red Sea, is promoting the cause of good government and general improvement, by bringing the empire nearer to its rulers, and to the people from whose intelligence and sense of justice she has derived strength and virtue, knowledge and civilization.

CLIMATE.—PRODUCTIONS.

Over so extensive a tract of country as that comprised within the limits of British India, it is not to be supposed that the climate is uniform in its temperature, or that the seasons change everywhere at the same period. The prevalence of particular winds, the existence of chains of mountains, the alternations of forests and tracts of land where vegetation is comparatively scanty, exercise material influence in India, as elsewhere; while the difference of latitude is not, of course, without its ordinary effects in yielding various degrees of heat and cold. The sun burns with equal intensity in the north and the south, but the soil and the wind determine the quality of its action. The north of Hindostan is cold, mountainous, sandy, and barren; the south is hot, level, moist, and fertile. Nevertheless, the extreme points of the country have their varieties of season—periods when the bracing hyperborean atmosphere tempers the meridional regions, and the Himalayas change their coating of snow for a rich and verdant garment. In Bengal, for example, during the months of November, December, January, and February, the days are clear and fine; the air pure and elastic; the north wind bracing; the nights are foggy, but not a drop of rain, excepting, perhaps, a partial shower at Christmas, falls during the four months. At such a season, the European constitution, harassed and broken by a long continuance of moist and oppressive weather, becomes invigorated; the appetite and strength, which had pre-

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viously failed, return, and the whole frame becomes light and springy. Vegetable nature partakes of the generally salubrious effects of the season, and garden plants now shoot up with freshness and vigour. In March, the weather begins to grow warm; the sun is powerful, but is prevented from being oppressive by strong and steady southerly winds and occasional storms, known by the name of *north-westers*. April resembles March, excepting towards the close of the month, when the wind gets warmer, and the thermometer ranges between 75° and 90°. May brings with it burning winds, alternated by close, still, and oppressive weather, trying alike to vegetable and animal nature. With June commence the periodical rains, which begin to fall about the middle of the second week, and continue without intermission until the end of September. At first, the relief from excessive heat and aridity is agreeable and beneficial, but after a few weeks' rain, the excessive humidity of the atmosphere, accompanied by a cold easterly wind, or undisturbed by any zephyrs, is most unpleasant, and productive of disease. In the west of India, the climate resembles that which is here described as common to Bengal, with this difference, that the cold is less bracing and the heat less oppressive. Gentle sea-breezes blow for the greater part of the year from the south and west, rendering salubrious the Malabar coast; while the level country above the Ghauts, or western chain of mountains, derives advantage from the purity of atmosphere consequent upon its elevation. In the south of India, upon the Coromandel coast, the heavy rains fall somewhat later than in Bengal and to the westward, but in all other respects the climate approximates closely to those districts. As we proceed northerly, the climate becomes more temperate. Agra, Delhi, Meerut, and Kurnaul, are all more moderate than the southern provinces, though the hot winds which blow during the months of April and May are extemely oppressive and pernicious. In Central India, those parching winds are felt in only a moderate degree; and during the rains, the range of the thermometer is very small, seldom falling below 70° at night, or rising above 75° in the daytime. In the cold season (December), it has been known as low as 28°!

The diseases most common to India are fever, dysentery,

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liver complaints, and cholera morbus. These annually sweep away their tens of thousands, the latter disease baffling the skill of the most eminent physicians, and leaving even the theory of its causes enveloped in doubt and uncertainty. But there are a multitude of other diseases peculiar to the country, though less fatal in their general results. Elephantiasis, or the swelling of the leg, is common to the natives in every province. In the hilly districts, goître is very prevalent, and opthalmia afflicts myriads in the upper provinces, where the soil is sandy, and the people careless of their persons. Leprosy is often seen in the most hideous form; and rheumatism counts its victims amongst the thinly-clad and exposed poor during the rainy season. Biles, ulcers, inflammations, and a peculiar eruption, popularly called prickly heat, are extremely prevalent, more particularly amongst Europeans, whose habits of life are less regulated by climate than consists with a proper regard for health and longevity. Influenza and diseases of the lungs sometimes make demands upon the leech's skill, but they do not present themselves in the formidable guise which distinguishes their appearance in more northerly regions; neither do hooping-cough, the measles, or other complaints, afflict infants so severely as the same maladies in England. Still the mortality amongst the newly-born is considerable, arising in some measure from convulsions, teething, fever, &c., but more commonly from the ignorance of midwives, and the carelessness, if nothing worse, of native nurses. Small-pox was a terrible scourge to the population of Hindostan; but its ravages are now diminishing, thanks to the philanthropic exertions of the medical officers in the East-India Company's service, who have zealously laboured to introduce vaccination.

It is the custom to speak of India as a country of great wealth in respect to its natural produce. There is no doubt that the soil is susceptible of vast powers of production, if properly fertilized and cultivated, but it is perfectly preposterous to call that country rich which is only partially visited by the hand of the husbandman, and which is so capricious in its fruitfulness, even where the labour of tillage has been bestowed upon it, that scarcely a year elapses in which a part of the land is not desolated by famine. Deduct the immense tracts overrun with noxious jungle, or occupied by

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swamps, or composed entirely of sandy and sterile land, or unavoidably left waste, and the residue scarcely suffices to support the assertion that India is moderately wealthy, much less that she is generous and abundant. The great staple of the lower and southerly parts of India is rice, which constitutes the food of a vast majority of the population. In the upper country, wheat is the principal article of produce to the same useful end. Barley, gram, and other pulses, are likewise grown in large quantities, and are consumed indifferently by man and the beasts of the field. Following these in importance are the cotton and the mulberry tree; the indigo and tobacco plants; the sugar-cane and the cocoa-tree; for their produce is convertible to purposes of commerce, and composes the true riches of the country. The poppy is largely cultivated in the province of Behar, and in Central India, whence is manufactured the opium of which the East-India Company preserve a monopoly, as they do also of the immense quantities of salt manufactured for common consumption. Of the fruits and vegetables grown in India, the principal are the mango, the pine-apple, the plantain, pomegranates, lemons, oranges, pumplenosas, grapes, tamarinds, plums, figs, almonds, guavas, loquats, leechees, custard-apples, citrons, melons, jacks, sour sops, potatoes, cabbages, cucumbers, yams, brinjalls; a great variety of vegetables, compounded of the cucumber and the melon tribes; and where climate assists the labours of the agricultural and horticultural societies, all the produce of the kitchen-gardens of Europe. The *Flora* of India is gay but scentless; the flowers opening at dawn of day are robbed by the sun of their fragrance at the moment that he drinks the dew-drops which bespangle them. In the forests we find the teak-tree, the mighty banian, whose branches spread over acres, yielding a grateful shade to the traveller, and a rendezvous for the wild denizens of the woods; the bamboo, the saul, the palm, and a vast affluence of timber, convertible to building purposes, fuel, and the construction of boats, all connected, covered, choked, by masses of vegetation, in the form of high grasses, gigantic shrubs, and luxuriant creepers. These, and a countless variety of roots, herbs, and small trees, bearing spices and drugs, constitute the sum of the Indian vegetable kingdom.

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The animal creation partakes of the exuberance of the sister world. Of tame and domestic beasts, India possesses the elephant, the camel, the horse, the ox, the ass, the mule, the dog, the cat, the goat, the sheep, the hog, the buffalo, the ichneumon, the rabbit—all, however, inferior in size to the animals of Europe, consecrated to the service of man. Of wild beasts, the jungle produce an immense number, and of different species. The principal are the tiger, lion, leopard, panther, rhinoceros, boar, bison, deer, wolves, jackals, bears, foxes, wild cats, hyenas, &c. Reptiles are likewise extremely numerous, from the enormons boa-constrictor, which makes a single meal of a heifer, to the scorpion and the centipede, which infest alike the houses of the rich and poor, in populous town or in wretched hamlet. The rivers of India, and the seas which wash her shores, abound with fish, which afford cheap and nutritive food to her millions. The delicious pomphret, the delicate bummelow, the seer and rock fish, the prawn and the sole, are found upon the coasts; the hilsa, the bekhtee, the mullet, the whiting, the delicate mango-fish, the oyster, the lobster, craw-fish, and shoals of the most minute members of the piscatorial creation, swarm in the great rivers. But they are not without other enemies than man. The alligator and the porpoise assist the gull and the stork to destroy countless myriads; the former animal, which often grows to the length of fifteen feet, occasionally visiting the banks of rivers likewise, to bear off a stray cow, a human being incautiously bathing near his haunts, or any smaller living object that offers meat for his capacious maw. The feathered part of the creation is of corresponding magnitude, in point of numbers and diversity, with the rest of the wonderful offspring of Nature's hand; from the eagle, exercising sovereign sway in the mountains of the north, to the solemn and stately hargillah (adjutant), which aids the vulture to perform the useful office of scavenger in the south. The ornithological inhabitants of Hindostan comprise almost every known variety: to name them all would be an impossibility, within the prescribed limits of this section, comprehending as they do the domestic fowls of Europe, the birds of prey common to all climates, a prodigious number of game-birds, and innumerable tenants of the grove, whose plumage is as unrivalled

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for its splendour as their song is unparalleled by the sweetest notes of the warblers of the West.

The mineral world has scarcely been explored—that is a labour which is reserved for the present, or mayhap the next generation. Coal, and iron, and tin, have been found, and the mines containing them are being worked; but gold, and silver, and copper, are believed to exist in many districts, and when capital has been brought to bear upon the excavations, countless wealth may be found deposited.

POPULATION.—MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

THE estimated population of India is 152,000,000. This, however, is a very rough computation, for no census has ever been taken of the inhabitants, nor, if a judgment may be formed from the extreme difficulty of ascertaining the number of residents in towns which have for the longest period formed part of the British possessions, could a fair census by any possibility be prepared. The estimate is probably offered as the aggregate of returns from the local officers of the different districts, who have hazarded a guess founded upon the rough calculations of their native subordinates.

The natives of India may be divided into two classes—the Hindoos and the Mussulmans; the former of whom are the pure and legitimate descendants of the aborigines, and the latter the offspring of the successive generations of Mahometan conquerors. In addition to these great classes, of which the Hindoos are in the proportion of four to one of the Mussulmans, there are many tribes who have established themselves in India originally as traders, or who have found shelter from foreign persecution, and are now become part and parcel of the gross population. Such are the Parsees, descendants of the ancient Guebres, or fire-worshippers; the Armenians, formerly refugees from Persian persecution; the Arabs, Jews, Persians, chiefly traders from the Red Sea and Persian Gulf; the Portuguese, coloured descendants of the early conquerors; the Eurasians, or East-Indians, offspring of English, Dutch, French, and Danish connection with Hindoo, Mussulman, or Portuguese females; the Chinese, settlers

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from the Celestial empire; Burmese, chiefly employed in menial pursuits; Seikhs and Affghans, merchants from the neighbouring states; the English, soldiers, civil officers, merchants, agriculturists, lawyers, seamen, ecclesiastics, &c.; French, merchants and agriculturists; a few Americans, and others from the Western world.

The Hindoos are separated into four great castes, or religious divisions—Brahmins, Katries or Rajpoots, Bhyses, and Soudras. Of these, the former occupy the highest place in the esteem of their countrymen. To them are intrusted the performance of religious ceremonies and the instruction of the people, and they alone are permitted to read the Vedas, or sacred books. Extraordinary privileges are accorded to them; and when they are detected in crime, a milder punishment is inflicted than would fall to the lot of any other caste. The *Katries* are of royal and military descent. *Bhyses*, or *Banians*, are the trading class, and the *Soudras* comprehend the labourers and artificers. These four castes are subdivided into an infinite number of smaller tribes or sects, differing in some degree from the highest and most orthodox in matters of religion and in domestic usage; while a fifth great class, called Pariahs, or Chandalas, comprehends all who have violated some leading principle in the religion of the other four, and have been banished the society of the faithful; and all who follow the lowest professions in the scale of Indian society. The religion of the Hindoos, which indicates these distinctions and regulates the actions of their lives, is contained in certain books, called the Vedas, or Shasters, written in the Sanscrit language. It is pretended that these volumes are the work of an inferior deity, named Brimha, descended from Bramha, the supreme god. They inculcate certain moral precepts, but are more precise in describing the forms and ceremonies, the charities and regimen, of the Hindoo, and constitute, in fact, the foundation of a system of idolatry and superstition, transcending in extravagance the worship of the ancient Greeks, Romans, and Egyptians.

The Mussulmans, who are for the most part traders, soldiers, police-officers, menial servants, seamen, &c., profess the religion of Mahomet, and observe the ceremonies of the Ramazan, the Buckra Eed, the Mohurrim, &c.; but the great

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fisherman, &c., divest themselves of all their upper clothing and a great proportion of the lower, as soon as they commence their diurnal toils. Returning to their homes at the close of the day, the ceremony of prayer and ablution is repeated, preparatory to the evening meal, and the hours, until bedtime, are passed in the zenana, or, in other words, in the pleasure of domestic intercourse; for though the laws of polygamy obtain among the Mussulmans and a proportion of the Brahmins, and concubinage is tolerated by all classes of Hindoos, the great majority are satisfied with the affections of one wife and the caresses of a family of children. In truth, there are few people in the world over whom the paternal affections exercise more potent sway than the inhabitants of British India. The young men pass much of their leisure in the interchange of visits, gambling, and the society of the fair. There are few public entertainments amongst the natives. They do not worship Terpsichore; they do not sing, but regale themselves with the performances of a certain class of dancing, or nautch girls, who go through a series of pantomimic evolutions to the accompaniment of their own songs and a trio of *sitars*, or rude violins, played by bearded auxiliaries. A more monotonous exhibition can scarcely be imagined; but it suits the drowsy and inactive genius of the Hindoo, and is therefore much patronized, especially upon the occasion of great religious festivals, marriage ceremonies, &c. These *bayadères*, with the jugglers, who are wonderfully expert; snake-charmers, wrestlers, tumblers, fireworks, kite-flying, illuminations, puppet-shows, and occasional dramas, of which mythological subjects, or the ridicule of the English, constitute the *matériel*, form the whole of the out-door amusements of the natives, excepting at the presidencies, where the educated people share in the entertainments peculiar to Europeans.

The dwellings of the better order of the natives are spacious, but, excepting in the infrequent instances of a partiality for the European style of decoration, their furniture is simple. The mat, the carpet, and the cushion, cover the floors; mirrors, a few framed prints, and some wall-shades decorate the walls. Their beds consist of a simple mat, or mattress, spread upon the floor, or upon a raised pallet, termed a charpoy, over which gauze curtains are

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sometimes hung, to protect the sleeper from the musquitoes. Their domestic utensils are chiefly of copper or of silver. In vessels of such material, or in earthen pots, the meals are prepared, and served up on circular flat dishes, placed upon the ground, over a cloth of the commonest texture. The cook (where the food is not dressed by the females of the house) is a person of the same caste as the master, and the greatest care is used, that, while the culinary operations are going on, no person of an inferior sect touches, or even approaches, the utensils. Water is drunk from small copper vessels, but the lips are not permitted to touch the edge of the cup, which is accordingly held an inch or two above the mouth, while the liquid is poured, as it were, into the throat. After each refection, the hookah is brought, and smoked with the gusto which distinguishes the Turkish use of the chibouque, or the European indulgence in the cigar. Nor is it merely at meal-times that smoking is resorted to by the native. He will quit his business to enjoy an occasional whiff, and seldom repairs to his couch until the fumes of tobacco have made the tour of the chambers of his brain.

If patriotism is not a principle with the Hindoo—and when was patriotism ever co-existent with foreign government?—he is at all events sufficiently attached to his home to be averse to locomotion on a grand scale. Curiosity seldom leads him beyond the district in which the accident of birth or the nature of his vocation has established him. He has no passion for travel, and rarely even allows the most pressing suggestions of self-interest to carry him beyond the seas; for such peregrinations would involve, by throwing him amongst the impure, the possible forfeiture of caste.* In the fulfilment of a sacred vow, or in the hope of propitiating the Deity, pilgrimages will occasionally be performed to places remarkable for their sanctity; and in prosecution of these enterprises, neither fatigue, privation, nor expense is

* Moor, in his "Pantheon," records an instance of the re-admission among the faithful of certain Hindoos who had paid a visit to England, but the indulgence was purchased at a heavy pecuniary sacrifice, and by a degrading process figurative of regeneration. More recently, the voyage of the enlightened Dwarkanath Tagore was visited by the penalty of expulsion from his family circle; and a Nepaulese chief who came over on a mission to the Queen, was, upon his return, denounced as one who had lived among the unclean, and forfeited his caste.

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regarded for a single moment,. Nay, where a powerful religious fervour operates, the Hindoo will set aside every worldly consideration, and either become an ascetic, or, covering his person with ashes, and suffering his hair and nails to grow, wander over the vast continent, depending for a scanty subsistence upon the alms vouchsafed to him by the pious and superstitious.

Whatever may once have been the state of the arts and sciences amongst the natives of India, they are now confessedly at a very low ebb. Their architecture is tame, monotonous, mixed, and irregular, though the carving of the ornamental parts may be exquisitely beautiful; their carts, carriages, boats, and agricultural machinery are all rude, cumbrous, and rickety; their drawing and painting set at defiance form, perspective, light, shade, and harmony; their astronomy is a puzzle; their notions of geography crude and limited, and their medicine a quackery. On the other hand, they are ingenious as workers in gold, silver, and ivory; and their achievements in ship-building, under the guidance and tutorage of the intelligent Parsee, have elicited the admiration of the European shipwright. For his skill in embroidery, and the fabrication of the finest muslins, the native of India has likewise obtained a name; but his reputation in this respect, and as a fabricator of rattan and osier basket-work, is more than counterbalanced by the worthlessness of his attempts at the manufacture of every description of hardware, leather, glass, the implements of trade, crockery, and common cloths.

And if in the cultivation of the arts of peace the native of Hindostan has failed to occupy high ground, still more limited is his knowledge of the art of war. With the lance, the matchlock, the sword, the bow and arrow, for his weapons, he has never been capable, unaided by Europeans, of organizing a system of tactics, or of introducing into his armies a controlling discipline, at once the source of strength in the peaceful garrison, and formidableness in the field of battle. Trusting to the crushing effect of the fierce onslaught of numbers, he has disregarded alike the importance of a series of complicated manœuvres and the virtue of calm and steady resistance, and as a natural consequence, he has, in all his wars, been overcome by small and compact

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bodies, who relied upon union, moral courage, and the lights of science. That he is deficient in personal courage it were a scandal to pronounce, for while the history of the conflicts during the past century, which have followed the first dissensions between the European and the native in the south, records innumerable instances of personal intrepidity upon the part of the hordes opposed to the British, our own experience of the sepoys, through whom we have won the country, supplies us with hundreds of thousands of reasons for testifying to their valour, constancy, and fidelity.

The condition of the women of India is deplorable, if judged by European views of the right of the sex to at least a moral equality with the lords of the creation. Debarred the advantages of even the most elementary branches of education, the upper classes are held captive in the harem, passing their hours in personal adornment, idle chat, or (if mothers) in performing the duties of nurses; while on the lower classes are imposed menial offices, household drudgery, and labour in the fields and markets. In no grade of society are the women permitted to eat with their husbands, or to enjoy the society of other males, or to marry again, if left widows. Until recently, and even now, where British rule does not extend, conjugal slavery went beyond the grave, or rather the funeral pile (for the Hindoos burn their dead), and the widow had no alternative but to immolate herself with the dead body of her husband, or sink in the estimation of her caste, and become the family drudge.

In the foregoing crude and imperfect outline, the usages of the two great classes of which the population of India is composed, have been sketched. The other races are, for the most part, too insignificant, numerically, or approach in many instances too nearly to the Hindoo and Mussulman, to merit special description in this volume. There are, however, three—the Portuguese, the Eurasians, and the Europeans—who are worth particular notice.

The Portuguese may be known by his sallow countenance, slovenly gait, and mimicry of European fashion. His garments are the worst-shaped things imaginable, and where colour is admitted, it is of the gaudiest tint; he affects a swagger, and desires to pass as a man of style and taste. Nothing can be more dirty and despicable than the Portu-

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guese of the lower order; nothing more absurd and comical than the affected beau of the upper. The Portuguese love society and music, dancing and festivity. Among the natives of India generally, the Portuguese are held in contempt. All that energy and talent which originated the Portuguese government in India is wholly lost. The Portuguese encourage priestcraft, while their religious teachers place their foot upon the necks of the laymen, and constraining a very sufficient contribution, live in great content and comfort. The Portuguese seat of government, Goa, is beautifully situated, and adorned with palaces and churches, worthy the great city founded by the noble-hearted Albuquerque; but the towns which once equally marked their conquests are overgrown with brambles, while the glossy snake glides among their tombs, and the timid songster of the wood shelters its bright plumage among the rich foliage tangled alike round hall and bower.

The Portuguese woman, pretty when young, becomes coarse both in form and nature when advanced in age. She loves gaudy colours, the glare of feasts, the incense of admiration.

The Portuguese is yet admirable as a *cook*; and although his deficiency in cleanliness and his love of potent liquors detract somewhat from his merits, yet it must be admitted that the European gastronomist in India is materially a debtor to the Portuguese.

The Eurasians, a term invented by the late Marquis of Hastings, conventionally accepted as embracing all the progeny of *white* fathers and Hindoo or Mahometan mothers, are as much between the Europeans and natives in their habits and pursuits as in their genealogy, and interfere but little with either in the pursuit of sustentation. They are an orderly and intelligent, and in one line, an industrious race of people; but they are generally devoid of both mental and personal energy, and are unlikely, therefore, to constitute a political class in the state of any weight or importance. Perhaps there is no class of men, with their educational advantages, and their other facilities for acquiring local superiority (supposing the true mental vigour to exist), who have produced so few men of note in any of the departments from which such men spring in Europe. In painting,

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in sculpture, in navigation, in law, in arms, in agriculture, in eloquence, in literature, in science, they have not only not acquired the slightest reputation in Europe or in India (with the two or three exceptions of a Skinner* in war, a Kyd† in the higher mechanics, a Hutchinson‡ in executive qualities, and a Sundt§ in surveying), but they have not even endeavoured to acquire it, because their constitutional temperament is, by nature's own decree, a bar to the endeavour. Clerkships in the public offices is the line of employment which the body of them *look to*, and which is manifestly the one best suited to their quiet and unambitious turn of mind. We are aware that they have laboured, and do still labour, under difficulties of position which might have repressed the advancement of a more aspiring race, and this has shallowly been urged in refutation of the opinion that they are incapable of achieving greatness. But has it ever been observed that they have been incessantly *trying* to elevate themselves in the social scale, or have they not been quiescent, and apparently attached to the sub-official employment which so easily gives them food?‖ It is nothing, in the way of argument, to point to a few individual instances of activity of mind, and successful striving against obstacles to advance-

* Colonel Skinner, commanding a body of irregular horse, raised by himself, and stationed at Delhi. The corps rendered important services in the Mahratta and Pindarree campaigns.

† Mr. James Kyd, the son of General Kyd, constructed dockyards of some extent, and gave great attention to the mechanical arts.

‡ Mr. Frederick Hutchinson has lately been appointed collector of Bombay, a highly important and lucrative post.

§ Mr. Sundt was a *protégé* of Sir J. Malcolm's. He was a beautiful draughtsman, and a highly scientific man.

‖ In reply to this, we may be reminded of their having petitioned Parliament to open to them new paths of distinction; but what *were* those paths? Why, the easy and sure ones (for livelihood) of the Company's regular service, which incur no speculative risk, and render *necessary* no greater average of daily labour than they had always performed, and still do perform. The army is in general an indolent life for all who choose to be indolent; but how came it that the Eurasians, *if* a naturally energetic and vigorous-minded race, did not enter the more arduous lines of life, which were always open to them in their several grades? The reason is obvious; and it is no refutation of our argument to show that they made an effort to be rendered eligible for the Company's service, when they have never as a body been found to be active mechanics, industrious agriculturists, enterprising seamen, or daring politicians.

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ment. The character of the body at large is to be estimated by the conduct and propensities of the body at large; and it would be as true to assert that Englishmen were neither enterprising nor intrepid, because individuals there are among them who are neither the one nor the other, as to maintain that Eurasians are energetic, or laudably ambitious of that distinction which energy and genius can alone acquire, because a few out of the whole class have evinced those qualities,—but even those few not in a degree which would have attracted wonder in England.

The European, by which we more particularly mean the native of Great Britain, may not change his soul with his skies, but his manners assuredly undergo, in India, a remarkable metamorphosis. Accustomed in youth to habits of obedience to authority, deference to superiors, and civility to equals, he cannot support with becoming equanimity the comparatively elevated position in which he finds himself placed. Invested at once with authority, or treated by his personal domestics, and the traders with whom he may traffic, with abject humility, he naturally conceives a much higher opinion of his own merits than he ever entertained before, and hence is begotten an overweening *amour propre*, which thenceforth, more or less, influences his character through life. With this difference, however, and the adoption of a costume and habits peculiar to the climate, the European is much the same as we find him elsewhere. Energetic and active, courageous and speculative, he performs the duties intrusted to him, or carries out his own plans of personal advantage, in a manner which excites the admiration and confidence of the people around him, and serves the country of his adoption. He is the upright and inflexible judge, the brave and adventurous soldier, the dauntless and skilful navigator, and the calculating and enterprising merchant. Even his pastimes partake of the loftiness of his character, for he fearlessly encounters the tiger in his lair, does battle with the wild boar, the bison, and even the untamed elephant, and, "witching the world with noble" equitation, ardently encourages every pursuit that serves to improve the horse, and render him more serviceable to the purposes of man. All that the Englishman might do, or might have done, for the benefit and advance-

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ment of the people who have fallen under British rule, has not, however, been accomplished. For more than one half of the period of our dominion, the natives were treated as a people who existed only as ministrants to temporary British interests; we drained the country of its wealth, and offered no compensation for the heavy appropriation. But a better spirit has arisen of late years, and a sound and liberal policy is gradually taking the place of the narrow system of government which erst rendered British rule in the East a bye-word and reproach. We have only now to express a hope that every man whose fortune may carry him to India will consider it personally incumbent upon him to return, in some degree, the blessings of ease and competence, which the residence in the country may ultimately confer upon him, by an endeavour to improve the condition of its interesting population.

COMMERCE.

THE external trade of India comprehends not only the commercial intercourse between the various ports in Europe and America with the three presidencies of British India, but the trade carried on by the people of the western coasts, from Scinde to Cape Comorin, and thence to the mouth of the Ganges, and by the people of the Eastern Archipelago and the Burmese coasts, China, Siam, Sumatra, the Dutch settlement of Java, &c., with each other.

England sends to India a large proportion of her manufactures—iron, piece-goods, copper, lead, mule-twist, hardware, wines, malt liquors, stationery, haberdashery, books, saddlery, jewellery, glass, cheeses, hams, preserves,—in fact, every sort of production adapted to the wants of civilized life, and to the temperature of the country.

France furnishes wines, preserved meats, millinery, porcelain, and, in a lesser degree, the manufactures of her brilliant metropolis.

From America, India receives timber, sheeting, spermaceti, candles, ice, fruits, furniture.

In exchange for these commodities, Europe and America receive such of the vast and various productions of India as

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are convertible to useful purposes in more northern and western climates. The ports to which their vessels speed are not in themselves sources of merchantable commodity, so much as emporiums for the fruits of other parts of the East, and channels of transit trade, for which their positions so particularly qualify them. It will facilitate the description to place under their respective heads the articles which each is thus enabled to export, instead of enumerating the various sources of supply.

BOMBAY, as the recipient of the trade of the gulfs of Persia and Arabia, and the northern parts of Western India, supplies cotton and piece-goods from Guzerat; opium from Malwa; tea, ivory, silk, lac, gold and silver filigree-work, from China; cornelians, from Cambay; ghee, grain, oils, putchock, seeds, tobacco, and soap, from the northern coast; shawls, drugs, and horses, from Scinde, the Red Sea, and Bussorah. From the coast of Canara, Bombay derives rice, pepper, betel and cocoa nuts, sarda, cassia, and turmeric; from the Malabar coast, coir, ginger, ambergris, pepper, teak timber, cowries, cardamoms, *coculus Indicus*, colombo-root, elephants' teeth, fish maws, sandal-wood, tamarinds, turmeric, wax, zedoary, coffee, coarse white piece-goods, nankeen; and from the Maldives, dried fruits, tortoise-shell, and some rude and trifling manufactures.

CEYLON yields cinnamon, coffee, cocoa-nuts, coir, oil, wild honey, arrack, areca-nuts, cotton, tobacco, timber, ornamental woods, precious stones, ivory, drugs, dye-stuffs, oleaginous seeds, copperas, pearls, and precious stones of an inferior quality.

MADRAS is the emporium of the trade from Cape Comorin and the whole of the Coromandel coast. Thence we derive piece-goods, called calamaganzies, aunniketches, &c., made of a hard long-grained cotton; long cloths, palampores (light counterpanes of printed cotton), coarse plain cloths dyed with the chaya root, Chicacole muslins, Ellore woollen carpets, Jehapoor salt, Masulipatam tobacco, Vizagapatam ivory, rice, dholl, wax-oil, and a proportion of the produce of the Straits of Malacca.

CALCUTTA, the head-quarters of the trade of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, and of the provinces east, north, and north-west of those extensive districts, exports indigo, saltpetre, sugar,

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rice, annatto, arrow-root, opium (chiefly sent to China), wheat, *terra Japonica*, tamarinds, talc, sugar-candy, raw silk, silk piece-goods, flax, ghee, hemp, ginger, hides, horns, lac, lac-dye, oil of roses, rum, safflower, dried fruits, munjeet, black salt (*bit nober*), borax, castor-oil, chillies, cochineal, coriander, and piece-goods, such as baftas, cossas, dorias, mamoodies, &c., from Patna, Allahabad, Lucknow, Central India, and Lower Bengal.

At the four above-mentioned ports the external trade of all India may be said to be concentrated. We have enumerated the productions of the continent, but every part of the coasts and islands to the eastward and the south are also tributary to their stores in a greater or lesser degree. For example, she receives from—

Arracan—Rice, elephants' teeth, wax, wood-oil, and coarse piece-goods.

Pegu—Teak timber, in balks; keel-pieces, mast fishes, planks, and sheathing boards (all from Rangoon); precious stones, iron, copper, tin, lead, wood-oil, earth-oil, wax, dammer, elephants' teeth, cutch, silver, naphtha and asphaltum.

Andaman and Nicobar Islands—Timber for building purposes, masts of ships, dyes, cocoa-nuts, oil, birds' nests, tortoise-shell, ambergris, &c.

Malay Peninsula and the Islands of Singapore and Penang—Tin, *biche de mer*, bees-wax, birds-nests, fish maws, rice, rattans, shark fins, areca and pepper, gold dust, camphor, and all the produce of China, Cochin China, and Siam.

At the last-named islands, also, the produce of the Eastern Archipelago may be obtained; but as this is for the most part transmitted either to India or to China, for consumption there, it is scarcely necessary to include it in the commerce with Europe. To complete the description of the productions of the gorgeous and wealthy East, the main items of this local trade from port to port may be enumerated, but the reader is requested to bear in mind, that, to avoid repetition, many articles are omitted which may be found in common at each of the islands:—

Agal, argus feathers, balacharry or agapi (shrimp caviar), gourd-seed, gum benjamin, black wood, kyapootee oil, canes, clove bark, copper, cossumba, ejoo, gambia, shells, lignum aloes, rattans, sago, wood-oil, dragons' blood, patch leaf, brim-

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stone, silks, sugars, ivory, salt, betel-nut, tobacco, indigo, from Java and Manilla; nutmegs, oil of nutmegs, and mace, all from Banda; cloves and oil of cloves, from Amboyna; birds of paradise, missoy bark, pearls, pearl-shells, tortoise-shells, and many curious birds, which the Papuans (of Mysol, New Guinea, &c.) have a particular way of drying; diamonds, gum copal, civet, and timber, from Ternate, Timor, Borneo, &c.; sapan wood, precious stones, copper, and tutenague, from Siam.

The value of the exports of merchandise from India to the United Kingdom, France, and America, the gulfs of Persia and Arabia, and different parts to the eastward, not including China, is about 11,000,000*l.* from Calcutta alone. In addition to this, treasure to the amount of a third of a million sterling is annually exported. The declared annual value of British produce and manufactures imported in that quarter, including China, is about 6,000,000*l.* sterling. It has increased progressively to that amount since 1833, when the trading privileges of the East-India Company were abolished. At that time, the value was not more than three millions and a half.

The trade with India is carried on in various descriptions of craft. The French and Americans employ vessels of from 300 to 600 tons burthen. Liverpool and the Clyde send out vessels of similar tonnage, while those built and employed by the London merchants range from 400 to 1,200 tons. The trade between Bombay and China employs teak-built ships of 500 to 700 tons measurement; that from Calcutta to China is carried on in a small description of vessel, ordinarily denominated a clipper, and constructed for the reception of chests of opium and tea. They are, for the most part, very fast-sailing craft, well manned, and skilfully commanded. The coasting trade between Cambay, on the shores of Guzerat, to the termination of the Malabar coast, is carried on in rude, ill-fashioned native boats, called *pattamars*, with high poops; and a similar description of vessel, called a *dhony*, voyages between Madras and the points of the Coromandel coast. The vessel in chief use in the straits of the Eastern Archipelago is called a *proa*, and much of the trade with the Persian and Arabian gulfs is borne in buggalows and dows.

The number of vessels employed in the carrying trade

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between the United Kingdom and the ports in the East Indies is about 700. Of this number there were entered inwards from—

Calcutta, in 1852	293
Madras	53
Bombay	91
Ceylon	53
Singapore and Penang	39

The number of vessels which sailed in the same period *to* India was—

Calcutta	174
Madras	30
Bombay	89
Ceylon	23
Singapore and Penang	34

The inland trade of India comprehends the intercourse between one portion of the British dominions and another; the trade of the latter with the tributary and independent states of Hindostan, and the commerce along a land frontier of 2,000 miles in length. The neighbouring states can obtain few foreign or tropical productions but through their commercial connection with us. Corn, cotton, oil-producing plants, and sugar, are the principal articles of this inland trade. Rice, which is grown in such vast abundance up to the twenty-fifth degree of latitude, and the millet and pulses cultivated beyond those limits, are chiefly consumed upon the spot. The cotton-plant, which is of almost universal production in India, from Ceylon to the Himalaya Mountains, furnishes material for a prodigious variety of fabrics; and the sugar-cane, which for the most part is grown in the valley of the Ganges, supplies a sugar which is consumed in very considerable quantities in the form of sweetmeats. Besides these main articles, there are a great number of others, such as indigo, salt, opium, silk, tobacco, saltpetre, oils, and oil-skins, drugs, hides, lime, timber, &c., which are objects of the inland trade. These various commodities are paid for by the productions of the coasts, such as spices, teak-timber, sandal-wood, and coarse piece-goods; in the productions of foreign tropical countries of Asia, and in the produce and manufactures of Europe and China. The tropical or

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foreign commodities which are obtained in exchange for the Indian produce consist of the areca-nut, spices, metals—iron, zinc, tin, copper, and lead—woollens and cottons. The extent of the inland trade, in other words, the amount of home manufacture and home consumption, it is extremely difficult to ascertain. The odious tax which formerly existed, under the denomination of transit-duty, and which furnished a clue to the computation, has been abolished, and nothing now remains to check the spirit of industry, and bring forth the choicest fruits of the soil of India. There is no doubt, however, that, in proportion as facilities for the transport of goods from one part of the vast country to another are augmented, and the charges of trade thereby lessened, an additional impulse will be given to enterprise. At present, excepting the rivers Ganges, Berampooter, Jumna, Gunduk, Casi, Gagra, Goomtee, Soane, Betwah, Chumbul, Taptee, Nerbuddah, Mahe, Sabrematta, Godavery, Krishna, Cavery, the Indus, and the Irrawaddy, the greater part of which, by the way, are only suited to canal-navigation, few effective channels of inter-communication exist. There are not many good carriage-roads in any part of India;* the bridges are generally small, and few in number, though the rivers or streams over which they are thrown are very numerous; the ferries are rude, unsafe, and by no means common.† The carriage of the inland trade is as imperfect, slow, and expensive as the ground over which it traverses is rough and impracticable. Uncouth and primitive carts, drawn by oxen, the strength of eight of which animals is only equivalent to that of a good English cart-horse; pack-bullocks, camels, pack-horses (in the north-west), small horses and

* Mr. Marshman, in a pamphlet recently published, states that in the south of India are districts with 700 miles of roads, and that the district of Cawnpore is intersected by 500 miles of road in excellent repair. The great trunk road from Calcutta to Peshawur will be 1,430 miles in length; but these roads are more adapted to military than commercial purposes. They do not run through the great cotton-producing districts.

† Railways are only just now being introduced into India. Twenty-three miles of railway, from Bombay to Tannah, have recently been opened. On the 9th of June, 1853, the first sod of the Madras Railway was turned. The East-India Railway is in course of construction from Calcutta to the coal districts of Rajmahal, with the intention of carrying it to Upper India; but this will be the work of many years.

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jackasses (in the hills), comprise the means of land transport; and on the rivers, large boats, of a burthen varying from fifteen to 150 tons, with rude and coarse sails, oars, and track-ropes (when wind and tide are adverse), constitute the ordinary craft. On the Ganges, iron steamers, the property of the Government and of private associations, ply between Calcutta and Allahabad, but the rate of freight is so high, and so large a proportion of the space appropriated to cargo is occupied by baggage and special supplies for the Europeans in the interior, that they can scarcely be included in an enumeration of the river trading-vessels.

The standard currency of continental India consists of silver, in coins of the value of about two shillings, and called the rupee. There are copper coins, called *pice* (four of which represent the anna, the sixteenth part of a rupee), and *four-anna pieces*, which constitute the quarter of a rupee. Of gold, there is scarcely a single coin in circulation. The *mohur*, which is represented by sixteen rupees, may occasionally be obtained, and certain coins in existence in the southern parts of India, called pagodas and fanams, may also be seen from time to time, but the exceeding rarity of all these moneys authorizes the assertion that in India gold forms no part of the currency. In native transactions, use is made of the cowrie, an exceedingly small shell of the *Cyprea* species, imported as an article of trade from the Maldive and Laccadive islands. Five thousand one hundred and twenty cowries go to the rupee, whence an inference may be drawn of the extreme poverty of the natives. Paper-money forms a very small proportion of the Indian circulation. Bills of exchange, termed hoondees, are employed as a means of remittance, and are obtained from the native bankers, or shroffs, who are to be found in all the large towns. They are generally written upon small pieces of glazed yellow paper, in a character not easily decipherable by any but the parties whom they more immediately concern, namely, the agents and correspondents on whom they are drawn, and who are scattered in every part of India, the Punjaub, Affghanistan, and Persia. The rest of the paper-money consists of Treasury notes, bills which the Government permits its civil officers to issue, for an equivalent, to facilitate the remittable operations of their own servants and

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others who may wish to avail themselves of the accommodation. The paper-money which circulates in India in the form of bank-notes amounts to a very inconsiderable sum. The banks at the several presidencies are permitted to issue notes, but as they are not all regarded as legal tenders in payment of revenue, the great channel into which, if generally current and recognised by the government, they would ultimately flow, their circulation (comparatively small under any circumstances) is materially restrained.

The vast capital employed upon the commerce of India is drawn from a variety of sources. England contributes a very large proportion; her merchants depute parties to establish mercantile houses at the several presidencies and ports, and supply them with the means of purchasing produce, encouraging agriculture and local manufactures. The natives, as banians or dubashes (a species of broker to the European houses), or as merchants on their own account, furnish the remainder of the resources. Formerly, all these parties added the business of banking to their other pursuits, and thus derived immense appliances for commerce from the aggregate deposits of their constituents; but the rashness of speculation, the prodigality of personal expenditure, and the incautiousness with which loans were afforded to parties in all classes of society, and involved in every description of business, led to a bankruptcy that was almost universal, scattering injury far and wide, and striking a fearful blow at the credit of the Indian merchant. Banking, therefore, is now, with comparatively insignificant exceptions, confined to institutions established exclusively for the operations understood by that term. There are now eight banks in India,—the Bank of Bengal (chartered), the Madras Bank (chartered), the Agra and United Service Bank, the Bombay Bank, the Delhi Bank, the Simlah Bank, the Dacca Bank, and the North-West Bank of India. These, for the most part, have branches and agencies at Calcutta, and in other parts of India. There is besides the Oriental Bank, whose headquarters are in London, but which has branches at the several presidencies, and at Ceylon, China, and Mauritius. The chartered banks are, to a certain degree, connected with the state, and are, in part, managed by government officers; the joint-stock banks rest their claim to support upon the

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ground of a wealthy co-partnership, each member of which is liable, to the full extent of his means, for the claims upon the institution.

BRITISH INDIAN WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

The unit of the British Indian ponderary system* is called the tola. It weighs 180 grains English troy weight. From it, upwards, are derived the heavy weights, viz. *chitak*, *seer*, and *mun*, or *maund;* and by its subdivision the small, or jeweller's weights, called *mashas*, *ruttees*, and *dhans*.

The *mun* (or that weight to which it closely accords in value, and to which it is legally equivalent in the new scale) has been hitherto better known among Europeans by the name of *bazaar maund;* but upon its general adoption, for all transactions of the British government, it should have been denominated the *British maund* (in Hindee, *Ungrezee mun*), to distinguish it at once from all other weights in use throughout the country.

The *pusseree* is, as its name denotes, a five-seer weight, and therefore should not form an integrant point of the scale; but, as its use is very general, it has been introduced for the convenience of reference.

The *seer* (weighing 2 lbs. 6 ozs. troy) being the commonest weight in use in the retail business of the bazaars in India, and being liable, according to the pernicious system hitherto prevalent, to vary in weight for every article sold, as well as for every market, is generally referred to the common unit in native mercantile dealings, as "the seer of so many *tolas*" (or siccas, barees, takas, &c.); the standard, or *bazaar seer*, being always eighty *tolas*.

The *chitak*, (weighing 1 oz. 17 drs. 12 grs.) is the lowest denomination of the gross weights, and is commonly divided into halves and quarters (called, in Bengalee, *kacha*); thus

* The advantages of this system are—

1. That the maund formed from the modified weight would be precisely equal to 100 English troy pounds; and

2. That thirty-five seers would also be precisely equal to seventy-two pounds avoirdupois; thus establishing a simple connection, void of fractions, between the two English metrical scales and that of India.

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marking the line between the two series, which are otherwise connected by the relation of the seer, &c., to the tola.

The *tola* is chiefly used in the weighing of the precious metals and coin; all bullion at the mints is received in this denomination, and the tables of bullion-produce (as seen in the foregoing pages) are calculated per 100 tolas. It is also usual at the mints to make the subdivisions of the tola into annas (sixteenth) and pie, in lieu of mashas and ruttees.

Mashas (weighing fifteen grains), *ruttees* (1·875 grains), and *dhans*, are used chiefly by native goldsmiths and jewellers. They are also employed in the native evaluation by assay of the precious metals; thus ten mashas fine signifies ten-twelfths pure, and corresponds to "ten-ounce touch" of the English assay report or silver. There is a closer accordance with the English gold assay scale, inasmuch as the ninety-six ruttees in a tola exactly represent the ninety-six carat grains in the gold assay pound, and the *dhan*, the quarter grain.

The accordance of a *mun* weight with the 100 lbs. troy of England affords a ready means of ascertaining its relative value in the standards of other countries employed in weighing the precious metals, since tables of the latter are generally expressed in pounds troy.

LINEAR AND SQUARE MEASURES OF INDIA.

Place.	Denomination.	Value in Eng. mea.
Agra, Presidency,	Standard Ilahy guz, assumed at	33 inches.
	Standard Beega of Western Provinces = 60 × 60 guz. = 3,600 *guz.*	3,025 sq. yds. (⅝ acres).
	Local *guz.* varies from 32·8 to 33·25, aver.	32·625 inches.
Batavia,	*Ell* = 27¾ inches, *foot* = ..	12·36 ditto.
Bombay,	*Hath* = 18 inches, the *guz* =	27 ditto.
Calcutta,	*Beega* = 20 cottahs of 16 chittaks	1,600 sq. yds.
	Cottah	720 sq. ft. = 80 sq. yds.
	Chittak	45 sq. ft. = 5 sq. yds.
Goa,	Portuguese *covado*	26·66 inches.
Madras,	*Mauney*, 60 × 40 feet	2,400 sq. ft.
	Cawney = 24 mauney	1·3223 acres.
Malwa,	*Guz* (from 28 to 32)	30·00 ditto.
	Beega, of 20 wusas	2 roods nearly.

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SECTION II.

THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

THE jealousy with which the legislature watches over the exercise of political power when delegated to British subjects in distant dependencies, and the extreme difficulty of managing an immense extent of territory abroad through a single secretary of state, have created a mass of gubernatorial machinery for British India, which is as costly as it is unwieldy. That it moves at all, is rather owing to the boldness of the local governors, who often act as emergencies dictate, preferring future obloquy to the evils of present delay, than to any particular harmony in the arrangement of the component parts of the complex mechanism.

The political government and patronage of India are placed by act of parliament in the hands of the directors of the East-India Company. There are eighteen directors of the East-India Company, ten or more of whom constitute a "court." Of this number, six are appointed by the Crown, three from among persons who have *served* in India for ten years at least; of the remaining twelve, six must be individuals who have *resided* in India for ten years. The possession of the sum of 1,000*l.* in East-India stock is the sole money qualification of a director, and he may also be a member of parliament. These directors receive each a salary of 500*l.*, per annum, the chairman and deputy-chairman, 1,000*l.* each, per annum.

The East-India directors are controlled by a Board of Commissioners in England, composed of her Majesty's Ministers, the President receiving a salary of 5,000*l.*, per annum. The nature of the control exercised by the President is very arbitrary. He can at any time send a despatch of an authoritative character to the local governments of India, with or without the consent of the directors, and is absolute on questions of peace or war.

A survey of the map of the British possessions in India will satisfy the most cursory observer that it would be perfectly impossible to govern so vast a tract of country from any single point, however advantageously situated such a

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position might be. From Cape Comorin in the south, to Peshawur on the Indus in the north—from Kurrachee, the chief port of Scinde in the west, to Prome, in Burmah, in the east,—every inch of ground acknowledges British rule, or is, directly or indirectly, subject to British influence. Hence the necessity for placing the territory under several distinct governments, all, however, subordinate to one supreme ruler or governor-general, aided by a council, who in their turn are checked and controlled by the home powers.

These local governments are five in number:—the Governor-General of India; the Governor of Madras (or Fort St. George); the Governor of Bombay; the Lieutenant-Governor, or Governor of the Presidency of Fort William in Bengal; the Lieutenant-Governor of the North Western Provinces. Each of the governors of presidencies is assisted by a council of two civil members, in addition to a military member, who is also Commander-in-Chief. There is likewise a Legislative Council, for the making of laws, which consists of a member from each Presidency and Lieutenant-Governorship, who may have been ten years in the civil service; the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Judicature at Fort William; one of the other Judges of the Supreme Court,—and, when necessary, two extra councillors, who, however, only sit and vote at the meetings of the council convened for making laws and regulations.

The salaries of the Lieutenant-Governors of Bengal and the North Western Provinces are 10,000*l.* per annum each; of the ordinary members of Council, 8,000*l.* each; and of the Legislative Councillors, 5,000*l.* each.

The armies of the three presidencies have distinct Commanders-in-Chief; but the officer who commands the Bengal army, is called "Commander-in-Chief of the Forces *in India*," and when necessary, exercises supreme and exclusive control over the troops at each presidency. His salary is 10,000*l.* per annum, in lieu of all other pay and allowances.

To assist the Supreme Government of India in fulfilling its important trust, a highly-educated civil service, consisting of some hundreds of members, is placed at its disposal by the home administration, and an army of about 250,000 men, principally natives of India, commanded by European officers, and divided into regular infantry, irregular and local horse

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and foot, and a due proportion of artillery, engineers, and sappers. The police duties are performed by large and well-trained bodies of natives, guided and directed by British officers, selected from those most remarkable for courage, intelligence, and a knowledge of the native character.

The manner in which the business of government is carried on will appear to those who are familiar with the method of proceeding in England tedious and changeable, almost all transactions being conducted through the medium of official correspondence, carried through a variety of channels. But this is the unavoidable result of the responsibility of the local administration to the two supervising authorities in England. When every thing has to be formally reported to the controlling power, every thing must necessarily be placed on record; and, as reference may continually have to be made to the official communications on the spot, the original documents are retained, and copies, in duplicate, forwarded to the Court of Directors and the Board of Commissioners for the Affairs of India. The voluminous correspondence between the Government and its officers is, therefore, multiplied by four, and sometimes oftener, thus rendering the machinery of the *secrétariat* extremely cumbrous and costly.

The method of transacting public affairs in India may be thus briefly described. Every officer of Government charged with the management of political, financial, military, municipal, revenue, police, ecclesiastical, judicial, marine, medical, or other matters, either addresses the authorities direct (advising, reporting, or soliciting instructions and assistance), or through the functionaries and boards intrusted with the immediate control of the several departments of the executive. These communications, amounting to many scores per diem, are laid by the respective secretaries to the Government before the Council Board, and they are duly discussed, and orders issued thereupon, in conformity with the sentiments of the majority of the members. The initials of the Council on the back of the letter of the authority addressing them *direct*, are, in the majority of instances, a sufficient guide to the secretarial officers; but where the question discussed is of importance enough to elicit elaborate or precise expressions of opinion, the members of the Government place on record separate minutes, from the aggregate of which the

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decision or ultimate resolution is deduced. On these latter occasions, where the council is much divided, the governor-general, or governor, has power to adopt his own views, even though they may be at variance with those of the whole body of his colleagues; but this is a prerogative exercised only in cases of great emergency, the more ordinary course in such circumstances being, to refer the disputed question to the arbitrement of the home authorities.

It will be obvious, from this concentration of the government of so vast an empire, that the members of the administration must be men of very considerable and varied attainments; for though they may not originate the multitudinous measures carried into effect almost daily for the good of the country and the integrity of the British possessions, they must possess a capacity for determining upon the propriety of yielding assent to propositions submitted for their consideration. Care, therefore, is taken to select for the functions of government as great a variety of ability as so small a council is susceptible of containing. The governors are generally chosen from the statesmen in the mother-country who have manifested a taste and capacity for public business, and to whom Indian affairs are not entirely caviare, or from the public servants of the East-India Company, whose high character, long services, and extensive local experience, point them out as peculiarly fitted for the important trust. The commanders-in-chief, in almost every instance, have earned distinction in the wars of Europe, Asia, or Africa, and are familiar with the science of organizing and disciplining large forces. They carry with them to India a thorough knowledge of the principles of civilized warfare, and an acquaintance with the interior economy of an army—qualities which, combined with a stern sense of duty and a lofty chivalry, atone for the temporary absence of local knowledge, and enable them, while acquiring requisite information, to impart a wholesome spirit to the legions intrusted to their command. The other members of the Council are gentlemen of the civil service, who have served for many years in revenue, judicial, political, or secretarial offices,—or in all of those branches,—and acquired therein a high official reputation. In the Supreme Council there are two additional members, one of whom is selected from the senior officers,

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for his superior acquaintance with the affairs of the Indian army, and his regard for its interests, and the other for his legal attainments and familiarity with the principles of British polity. The salaries of all these officers are liberal, but not more than sufficient for the degree of state which is almost inseparable from exalted life in India, and for the annual contribution to useful and charitable public objects. The Governor-General receives 25,000*l.* per annum, and is provided with a splendid palace at Calcutta, and a rural residence at Barrackpore, sixteen miles from the presidency. The governors of the other presidencies (Madras and Bombay) receive 12,000*l.* a year, and are similarly domiciled.

The Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces and the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal each receive 10,000*l.* The ordinary members of the Supreme Council receive each 8,000*l.* per annum; the Legislative Councillors each 5,000*l.*; of Madras and Bombay, each 6,000*l.*; the Commander-in-Chief, 10,000*l.*, and very often the off-reckonings of a regiment of which he may be the colonel.

For a considerable number of years after the East-India Company had acquired large territorial possessions in India, the gentlemen sent out to fill the various civil offices of the government were selected without any peculiar references to qualification. A writership was considered a provision for life, if not a source of large ultimate fortune; for if the salary was not liberal, the opportunities of gain, by means of trade and other less honourable proceedings, were numerous; while a knowledge of languages and of official business would, it was considered, be acquired in due course of time. The evil working of this loose system, however, at all times partially obvious, was the more apparent as the demand for talent augmented, and rigid integrity and an independence of native connection became a *sine quâ non* of good government. It was then that the Company began to devise plans of home education for parties aspiring to serve them in the civil departments abroad. Character, connections, and a certain stock of knowledge, were declared the essential concomitants of a writership, though merely preparative to other qualifications, of which the candidate was to possess himself in India. This declaration was a material step towards the improvement of the service; but it was not

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until the year 1809, when the college of Haileybury, in Hertford, was founded, that the education of the future civilian resolved itself into a system, the adherence to which has since been uniform. A few years ago some exceptions to a collegiate education were made in favour of young men who had earned much distinction at some of the other great public schools or colleges, and who were honoured with presentations of Indian appointments by Presidents of the Board of Control, or Chairmen of the Direction, anxious to promote individual merit; but until the present year *all* the civil officers in the service of the East-India Company were obliged to receive instruction at the Haileybury College, the nomination to which was dependent upon regulations and preparatory instructions. By the Act passed in last year, the civil service has been thrown open to public competition, under rules and regulations which will be found in the Appendix.

On the arrival of a writer at either of the presidencies, he is allowed a twelvemonth to master one of the languages principally required in the transaction of public business. During this interval he draws the unemployed salary of three hundred rupees per mensem, and a small sum for a moonshee. When the period allotted, or supposed to be allotted, to special Oriental studies has expired, the student presents himself to a local board of examination. If he passes with tolerable credit, he is pronounced qualified for the public service, and is at once "attached," in a subordinate capacity, to the establishment of a judge, a collector, or a magistrate, or, in remarkable instances of *great interest*, to the *secrétariat*, customs, or accountant-general's department, at the presidency to which he may be nominated. Should the candidate, however, fail to obtain a certificate of qualification from the examiners; in other words, should he, through natural incapacity or indolence, be unsuccessful in displaying the requisite amount of Oriental learning, he is sent back to his studies for six weeks, at the end of which period he must either establish the possession of the requisite qualifications, or he is shipped to England, as a hopeless subject, and deprived of his appointment in the Company's service.

When we consider the immense extent of the territorial

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dependencies of the East-India Company, and the circumstances of the vast population by which they are occupied, it is not difficult to conjecture that the civil officer who desires to acquire honour for himself and his masters, and to make his native fellow-subjects participate in the blessings of good government, has an awful and an arduous task imposed upon him. He has frequently to exercise authority over a district comprising an area not inferior in extent to three or four of the largest provinces in Great Britain (in some instances a space as large as the whole of Ireland has been under the control of one man); and as he has only two or three European assistants, and a body of native functionaries—on the trustworthiness and activity of which latter, by the way, perfect reliance cannot always be placed—his heavy responsibility and severe labour may be tolerably well understood. It is true that he has his head-quarters at some central station, whither suitors, land-rent payers, applicants for redress, &c., repair in crowds; but the importance of personal investigation into the affairs of a district begets the necessity for locomotion, and as India does not as yet offer the same facilities for rapidity of movement as Great Britain or the United States, the judge, magistrate, or collector, is compelled periodically to travel into remote, and often unhealthy parts of the country; living in tents, and regaling on such fare as the neighbouring villages can supply, or he may have been enabled to transport from his permanent domicile.

But the civil service has its *agrémens*, as well as its inconveniences. The salaries are large, varying from 500*l.* to 10,000*l.* per annum; and the furlough allowance and retiring annuity handsome and all-sufficient. The leading civilian is the acknowledged head of the society of whatever place he may be stationed at, while the juniors are regarded, as much from their position as their generally superior attainments, with deference and respect. The sports and pastimes peculiar to the country (hunting, shooting, racing, &c.) are accessible to him upon a scale of magnificence and affluence unknown to the English sportsman, who ranges the fields with his gun and a brace of pointers, and seeks no nobler game than the partridge or the hare. If he is in the political line, occupying the office of resident at a native court, he holds a position neither less honourable, less

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responsible, nor less associated with the elegancies of life (rendered accessible by his large salary), than a British ambassador on the continent of Europe. In this, and indeed in all the other offices of trust, he acquires a fitness for serious avocations elsewhere; and this capacity, supported by the renown he has earned, frequently recommends him for responsible offices upon his return to England.* But of all the advantages of the position of the civilian, none are so enviable as the opportunities afforded him of spreading happiness amongst the thousands of human beings placed under his protection. Through his instrumentality, the cause of education, and, therefore, of Christian enlightenment, may be advanced—his charities, judiciously dispensed, will save myriads from starvation—and the encouragement he has it in his power to give to the labourer by building bridges, constructing roads, and draining lands, will confer the blessing of employment upon the industriously disposed, while it gives an impulse to the internal commerce of the country, and diffuses health in regions of disease.

A vague allusion has been made above to the furlough and retiring advantages of the civil service. A more particular description of them seems called for. At each presidency there are funds to which civilians contribute a per centage upon their salaries, and other public emoluments, to entitle them to retire after twenty-two years' actual service in India, upon an annuity of 1,000*l.* Should they be compelled by ill health to quit the service before the expiry of that period, they receive lesser sums, 250*l.* per annum for more than ten and less than fifteen years' service; 500*l.* for upwards of fifteen years, and less than the full regulated period. And if sickness drives them permanently to England before they have even completed ten years' service, they are paid a donation of 500*l.* After ten years' service, a civilian is allowed a furlough to Europe for three years, receiving during that interval, 500*l.* per annum—always supposing that the number of gentlemen who may avail

* The appointment of Sir C. Metcalfe to the government, successively, of Jamaica and Canada, of Sir H. Pottinger to the office of envoy extraordinary to the Chinese court, and of Sir C. Trevelyan to the secretaryship of the Treasury, are the best illustrations of the fact.

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themselves of the privilege does not exceed a prescribed limit (seventeen annually from Bengal, nine from Madras, six from Bombay); but should he be obliged to seek a restoration to health before the expiry of the specified period, he then receives only 250*l.* per annum, and 200*l.* on account of passage-money. Some changes in the furlough rules are in contemplation, and should they have been carried out before this volume issues from the press, they will be found in the Appendix.

In addition to these provisions, all of which, it should be remembered, are accompanied by conditions duly set forth in sundry codes of regulations, there are funds which particularly provide for the widows and children of deceased civil functionaries, upon a scale sufficiently liberal to remove all scruples concerning settlements from the minds of hesitating spinsters, in the first instance, and to relieve husbands and fathers from any anxiety upon the subject of their widows and orphans, in the second.

In conclusion, it may be mentioned, that any civil servant who, on proceeding to England on leave of absence, shall fail to return to India before the expiry of five years, is disqualified for further service, unless it be found that such continued absence was the result of sickness or infirmity, or unless his return is sanctioned by a vote or resolution passed at a meeting of the Proprietors of East-India Stock.

Another circumstance which involves the penalty of dismissal at any period during the service of a civil officer is, the discovery that his appointment in the first instance was obtained by any pecuniary or other corrupt arrangement with the party in whom the presentation lay. The only exception to the penalty is, the free and voluntary disclosure of the transaction when a Director of the Company has been implicated therein.

THE ARMY.

It has been contended of late years, by some public writers, that we hold India entirely by the force of opinion; that is to say, that we are permitted to rule simply because the principles of justice and equity, and a respect for the

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religious usages of the thousands under our sway, are carried out to the fullest extent compatible with human frailty. On the other hand, it has been argued that our empire is held entirely by the sword; and our wars, victories, and their political results, have been pointed at as evidence of the soundness of the theory. Truth lies, in most cases, between extremes, and there seems little reason to doubt that such is its proper position in the present instance. The highest opinion that might be entertained of our character as governors, would of itself, we apprehend, avail but little in the retention of the country against the schemes of disaffected or designing men, if it were not backed by a well-organized and judiciously-distributed physical force. If there were no descendants of the countless chieftains who once held possession of the country, eager, upon any pretext supported by opportunity, to assert fanciful claims to territory or to privileges; if there were no frontier foes, whose incursions it were necessary to resist or prevent, as much for the sake of the peace and happiness of the people as for the maintenance of British supremacy; there would still be evil powers within the heart of the empire against whose machinations the greatest amount of political integrity could not successfully contend. The Hindoo and the Mussulman are priest-ridden; the Hindoo and the Mussulman are alike avaricious. What elements more potent than priestcraft and avarice to excite a populace to rebellion? While the zemindar's disinclination to pay his rent ignited the spark of insurrection, on the one hand, there would not be wanting the ambition and the self-interest of the Brahmin, and the savage religious fervour of the Moollah, to fan the flame, upon the other. The sword, therefore, is an indispensable agent in the retention of India; and it is a happy thing for the populace of that empire, that the mercy and humanity which distinguish the administration of the civil government attemper the steel by which the sedition of the disaffected and the incursion of the foreign foe are invariably chastised.

A rough statement has been given above of the strength of the armies of the several presidencies. A more precise estimate is essential in a work of this description.

THE INDIAN ARMY, the most remarkable phenomenon in the history of the world, since conquerors thought of making the vanquished the means of their own perpetual

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subjugation—consists, in round numbers, of three hundred thousand men, of all arms, thus divided :—

Regiments in her Majesty's service, lent to the East-India Company, infantry and light dragoons, comprising (men and officers)	20,000
Bengal Presidency—	
Three brigades of horse artillery	1,100
Seven battalions of foot ditto	2,250
Ten regiments of native cavalry	5,150
Three regiments of European infantry	3,000
Seventy-four regiments of native infantry (sepoys) ..	88,600
Six extra regiments..	6,000
Sappers and miners, and engineer officers	890
Surgeons..	120
Assistant surgeons	230
Veterinary surgeons	18
Native doctors	222
Ordnance and commissariat warrant officers	46
Madras—	
One brigade of horse artillery	400
Four battalions of foot ditto	1,420
Eight regiments of native cavalry	4,160
Three regiments of European infantry	2,800
Fifty-two regiments of native ditto	44,200
Engineers and sappers	500
Surgeons	73
Assistant surgeons	160
Veterinary surgeons	10
Bombay—	
One brigade of horse artillery	400
Two battalions of foot ditto	750
Three regiments of native cavalry	1,500
Three regiments of European infantry	2,800
Twenty-six regiments of native ditto	30,000
Engineers and sappers	400
Surgeons	50
Assistant surgeons	105
Veterinary ditto	6

The remainder of the army consists of eighty-nine irregular and local corps, body-guards, militia, &c., officered from the line, and amounting to some 60,000 men. The officers are 215 in number. There is a considerable body, also, of invalids and veterans; but as they cannot, in fairness, be included in the physical strength of the government, there is no necessity for taking particular account of them.

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Out of the 300,000 men who compose the East-India Company's troops in India, not more than 7,800 are European officers; and, of this number, at least 700 are generally absent on furlough, and a great many are on the staff, or in charge of local corps, or otherwise employed. The proportion of regimental effective officers is therefore extremely small; and although they are aided in the ordinary routine duties of a garrison by the native commissioned officers, and experience little trouble in managing the happy and tractable sepoy in cantonments, their numerical deficiency has exposed armies to serious risks in the field, where the example of European intrepidity has been of the last consequence in rallying native troops at a critical juncture. At the battle of Meanee, fought in 1843, it was remarked by the commander of the forces engaged (Sir C. Napier), that the fall of a European officer was invariably the signal for sepoy-faltering, and that if others had not been at hand to at once supply the place of the stricken leaders, the action must have had a different and far less glorious termination.

Situations on the general staff, to which officers are eligible after four years of actual service in India, and a passage through the ordeal of an examination in one of the native languages, are handsomely endowed, the salaries varying from two hundred to forty thousand rupees (4,000*l.*) per annum; the incumbent, however, in some cases relinquishing a proportion of his regimental emoluments. In former times, and especially upon the settlement of a newly-conquered country, military men were frequently selected to fill the important civil offices of revenue collectors, magistrates, superintendents of police, political agents, &c.; but the very natural jealousy of the civil servants, and the demand for the professional services of soldiers, caused the selection to be discontinued as a system. The government, however, still finds it necessary to avail itself of the aid of military officers in the civil branch, more particularly in the departments of police, in tracts of country recently evacuated by regular troops. But apart from these offices, the staff provides honourable and lucrative employment in a variety of ways. The departments of the adjutant, auditor, quartermaster, surveyor, paymaster, judge-advocate, and commissary general; the offices of brigade-major, aide-de-camp, barrackmaster, secretary to the Military Board, clothing-agent, superintendent of studs, &c.,

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are all filled by officers withdrawn from regimental duty; and it is very rare (excepting in instances of field service, when every officer is required to join his corps), that the appointment passes from the hands of the fortunate possessor until his promotion to exalted regimental rank disqualifies him for a subordinate occupation on the staff. No officer can hold a staff appointment until he has been two years in the army. Regimental advantages are likewise dependent on qualification. No officer can obtain the command of a troop or company until he has attained a sufficient knowledge of the colloquial and written language of the country, and of the duties of the superior step. Candidates are required to read and translate correctly the Bagho Buhar, and the Bytal Pucheesee, the former in Persian, the latter in the Deva Nagree character, and to translate into Hindoostanee in an easy narrative style some passages from English; the translation to be written legibly both in Persian and Deva Nagree. The colloquial knowledge of the language is tested by the examiners. The same rules apply to assistant surgeons, who cannot draw the staff salary annexed to the charge of native troops unless they have passed an examination.

For the guidance of all candidates for military service in India, under the auspices of the East-India Company, we have given in an Appendix to this book, such rules and regulations as may at once aid them in obtaining admission into the army, and in acquiring a knowledge of some of the conditions and advantages of their future profession. It should be premised, that for the infantry and cavalry branches of the service, education at the Military College is not indispensable; it is enough if they have been prepared by competent tutors to undergo an examination in Latin, French, or Hindoostanee, algebra, six books of Euclid, history, geography, &c.; while, for the artillery and engineers, it is a condition of the presentation of a cadetship that the candidate should have gone through a regular course of instruction at Addiscombe.

The rules of the Military and Retiring Funds will be found in the Appendix.

The emoluments of the officers of the Indian Army doing regimental duty are accurately set forth in the annexed table:—

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TABLE OF PAY AND ALLOWANCES, FOR A MONTH OF 30 DAYS.

	IN GARRISON OR CANTONMENT.							IN THE FIELD.					
	Pay.	Gratuity.	Tent allowance.	House Rent, if only in Receipt of Half Batta, and not provided with Quarters.	HorseAllowance.	Half Batta.	TOTAL.	Pay.	Gratuity.	Tent allowance.	Horseallowance.	Full Batta.	TOTAL.
European Infantry.													
Colonel, not a general officer on the staff..	Rs. a. p. *a*300 0 0	Rs. —	Rs. a. 100 0	Rs. —	Rs. *d*30	*a* Rs. *c*750	Rs. a. p. 1180 0 0	Rs. a. p. *a*300 0 0	Rs. —	Rs. 200	Rs. *d*30	Rs. *a*750	Rs. a. p. 1280 0 0
Lieutenant-colonel	240 0 0	—	75 0	100	30	300	745 0 0	240 0 0	—	150	30	600	1020 0 0
Major	180 0 0	—	60 0	80	30	225	575 0 0	180 0 0	—	120	30	450	780 0 0
Captain.....	120 0 0	36	37 8	50	—	90	333 8 0	120 0 0	36	75	—	180	411 0 0
Lieutenant.....	60 0 0	24	25 0	30	—	60	199 0 0	60 0 0	24	50	—	120	254 0 0
Ensign	48 0 0	12	25 0	25	—	45	155 0 0	48 0 0	12	50	—	90	200 0 0
Surgeon, as captain ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	333 8 0	—	—	—	—	—	411 0 0
Assistant-surgeon, as lieutenant	—	—	—	—	—	—	199 0 0	—	—	—	—	—	254 0 0
European Artillery.													
Colonel of a battalion	300 0 0	—	100 0	—	30	*c*750	1180 0 0	300 0 0	—	200	30	750	1280 0 0
Lieutenant-colonel	240 0 0	—	75 0	100	30	300	745 0 0	240 0 0	—	150	30	600	1020 0 0
Major	180 0 0	—	60 0	80	30	225	575 0 0	180 0 0	—	120	30	450	780 0 0
Captain	*b*140 0 0	36	37 8	50	—	90	353 8 0	*b*140 0 0	36	75	—	180	431 0 0
1st lieutenant	*b* 70 0 0	24	25 0	30	—	60	209 0 0	*b* 70 0 0	24	50	—	120	264 0 0
2nd lieutenant	*b* 60 0 0	12	25 0	25	—	45	167 0 0	*b* 60 0 0	12	50	—	90	212 0 0
Surgeon and assistant-surgeon.....	As in the European Infantry.												
Engineers (the same as the Artillery).													

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Native Cavalry.																		
Colonel	*b*397	8	0	—	200	0	—	120	*c*750	1467	8	0	*b*397	8	0	—	200	120	750	1467	8	0
Lieutenant-colonel	*b*278	4	0	—	150	0	100	120	300	948	4	0	*b*278	4	0	—	150	120	600	1148	4	0
Major	*b*232	13	4	—	120	0	80	120	225	777	13	4	*b*232	13	4	—	120	120	450	922	13	4
Captain	*b*179	6	4	36	75	0	50	90	90	520	6	4	*b*179	6	4	36	75	90	180	560	6	4
Lieutenant	*b*109	8	0	24	50	0	30	60	60	333	8	0	*b*109	8	0	24	50	60	120	363	8	0
Cornet	*b* 97	5	4	12	50	0	25	60	45	289	5	4	*b* 97	5	4	12	50	60	90	309	5	4
Surgeon, as captain	—			—	—		—	—	—	520	6	4	—			—	—	—	—	560	6	4
Assistant-surgeon, as lieutenant	—			—	—		—	—	—	333	8	0	—			—	—	—	—	363	8	0
Veterinary surgeon	—			—	—		—	—	—	—			97	0	0	24	50	48	122	341	0	0
Native Infantry.	—																					
Colonel, not a general officer on the staff	300	0	0	—	200	0	—	30	*c*750	1280	0	0	300	0	0	—	200	30	750	1280	0	0
Lieutenant-colonel	240	0	0	—	150	0	100	30	800	820	0	0	240	0	0	—	150	30	600	1020	0	0
Major	180	0	0	—	120	0	80	30	225	635	0	0	180	0	0	—	120	30	450	780	0	0
Captain	120	0	0	36	75	0	50	—	90	371	0	0	120	0	0	36	75	—	180	411	0	0
Lieutenant	60	0	0	24	50	0	30	—	60	224	0	0	60	0	0	24	50	—	120	254	0	0
Ensign	48	0	0	12	50	0	25	—	45	180	0	0	48	0	0	12	50	—	90	200	0	0
Surgeon, as captain	—			—	—		—	—	—	371	0	0	—			—	—	—	—	411	0	0
Assistant-surgeon, as lieutenant	—			—	—		—	—	—	224	0	0	—			—	—	—	—	254	0	0

(*a*) Pay and batta are per diem allowances.

(*b*) The same for any month.

(*c*) Colonels in regimental rank are allowed full batta at any station.

(*d*) Horse allowance only granted to field officers of artillery, engineers, and infantry, while in the actual performance of regimental duty. Officers of inferior rank, when actually commanding corps of infantry, will continue to draw horse allowance, as heretofore sanctioned.

N.B.—Tent allowance is not allowed to the chief engineer, or adjutant of engineers.

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INDIAN NAVY AND MARINE DEPARTMENT.

ABOUT half a century ago, when the Coromandel and Malabar coasts were visited by pirates and French privateers, and the trade between the Persian and Arabian gulfs and India was interrupted by rovers who hoisted the black signal of the professional freebooter, or the scarcely less suspicious blood-red flag of the ostensible Arab trader, the East-India Company kept up a flotilla of gun-brigs. They were called, for the most part, cruisers; and their officers and crew composed a body, then known by the name of *The Bombay Marine.* The men were, for the most part, drawn from the merchant-vessels in the harbour—the officers were sent out by the Court of Directors as midshipmen, whence they rose by gradation to the rank of captains.

The history of our trade in India, and of our political occupation of the country, presents many brilliant proofs of the skill and prowess of the Bombay Marine, whether in conflict with hordes of desperate pirates, or in more organized operations, in conjunction with other sea and land forces, against the strongholds of enemies on the shores of India, Persia, or Burmah. But there is no question that the state of discipline on board those cruisers was low; the rank of the officers, relatively with that of the members of other warlike professions, was undetermined; the pay and allowances were insignificant; and altogether there was a deficiency of that pride and self-respect, without which no service can acquire the esteem of the rest of civilized mankind, or advance its own consequence amongst contemporary professions. To remedy this state of things, an effort was made, and with complete success, during his late Majesty William the Fourth's occupancy of the office of Lord High Admiral, to exalt the character of the marine by giving it the title of *The Indian Navy,* and honouring it with the control of an experienced officer of the British navy. In all respects—uniform, emoluments, rank—it was placed upon a just level with the royal service; and although this salutary change came at a time when maritime war in the East had ceased, and steam had begun to facilitate the communication of the eastern with the western world, and therefore to demand of the naval

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officer science and moral courage, in addition to, if not in substitution of, prowess, there is no doubt that the service very largely benefited by the experiment.

The Indian navy now consists of 150 officers, of whom six are captains, twelve commanders, forty-eight lieutenants, and the remainder mates, midshipmen, and pursers. The staff-offices, and the situation of superintendent, are filled, at the pleasure of the home government, by experienced members of the British navy, or retired officers of the famous mercantile marine of the East-India Company *of Merchants*. The fleet, officered and commanded by the Indian navy, amounts to forty vessels, of which more than one-half are armed steamers variously employed in keeping up the communication between India and China, India, the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulf, China and the Red Sea, Bombay and Sinde, and in the navigation of the Indus. The remainder of the vessels are sailing sloops, brigs, and schooners, employed on surveys, or in the protection of trade in the western gulfs and the Straits of Malacca. Great and important service has been rendered in the survey department by officers of the Indian navy; amongst the most illustrious of whom stand the names of Captain Lloyd and Captain Moresby; to the former, the merchant service is indebted for some invaluable charts of the dangerous approaches to the shores of Bengal, and of the intricacies of the mighty Ganges; while to the latter belongs the honour of having ascertained and proclaimed the full extent of the perils of the Red Sea, the Maldives, and the Malabar Coast, and rendered that plain sailing which had previously been avoided as difficult and hazardous navigation.

The pay and allowances of the Indian navy are subjoined; the rules which regulate their furloughs, retirement, &c., will be found in the Appendix.

[TABLE.

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Table of Salaries to Officers in the Indian Navy and Marine Department, under the Presidency of Bombay.

APPOINTMENT.	SALARIES. Rs. a. p.	REMARKS.
Superintendent	2500 0 0	In addition to the net pay of his rank.
Assistant Superintendent ...	450 0 0	
Master Attendant	1250 9 0	
1st Assistant do.	600 0 0	
2nd do do.	570 0 0	
3rd do. do.	400 0 0	
Pilot, Senior	200 0 0	The pilots residing in the Fort are allowed, in addition, Rs. 80 per month house-rent, and those at Colaba, Rs. 50 per month, if not occupying public quarters.
Do. 2nd Class, each	120 0 0	
Do. 3rd and 4th do. each ...	108 0 0	
Store Receiver & Accountant	380 0 0	In addition to the pay of purser, Rs. 120
Inspector	250 0 0	
Master Builder	800 0 0	
2nd do.	680 0 0	Includes an allowance of Rs. 80 as draughtsman of the Dockyard.
1st Assistant	130 0 0	
2nd do.	110 0 0	
3rd do.	75 0 0	
Asst. Scy. Milty. Board (Marine Branch)	650 0 0	Inclusive of naval pay and allowances.
Draughtsmen...	300 0 0	
Indian Naval Storekeeper...	1285 12 11	
Assistant Storekeeper ...	330 0 0	Draws in addition to net pay of purser, Rs. 120.
Signal Officer at Light-house	120 9 0	
Sup. of Dockyd. St.-engine	200 0 0	Rs. 4 per day, in addition to the pay of an invalid lieut.
Assistant ditto	100 0 0	
Surgeon Indian Navy ...	467 0 0	
Commodore at Surat ...	1390 0 0	Includes Rs. 90 house-rent, and Rs. 20 palankeen allowance.
		Pay... ... ... Rs. 900
		Table allowance 400
		House-rent 90
		—— 1390
Commodore in Persian Gulf	1300 0 0	Pay... 900
		Table allowance 400
		—— 1300
Persian Interpreter to do ...	200 0 0	In addition to the net pay of his rank.
Commodore's Clerk... ...	90 0 0	
Superintendent of Pattemars	60 0 0	

[TABLE.

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Table of Pay to Officers of the Indian Navy.

RANK.		AMOUNT.			RANK.		AMOUNT.		
When employed afloat.		Rs.	a.	p.	When employed afloat.		Rs.	a.	p.
Captain, 1st rate } ...	A.	900	0	0	Asst. Surgeon in charge of ship ... ... }		306	10	0
Do. 2nd do. }					Servants' wages		12	0	0
Com. 3rd do. } ...	B. {	800	0	0	Do. when unemployed ...		206	10	0
Do. 4th do. }		600	0	0					
Do. 5th do.		400	0	0					
Lieut. 1st fifteen ...		175	0	0					
Do. all other		145	0	0					
Pursers, 2nd rate		270	0	0	When unemployed.				
Do. 3rd do.		250	0	0	Captain		400	0	0
Clerk in charge, pay Rs. 50					Commander		300	0	0
Allowance ... 50					Senior Lieut. first fifteen on the list ... ... }		150	0	0
		100*							
Mates...	C.	50	0	0	Junior ditto		120	0	0
Midshipmen		50	0	0	Pursers		120	0	0
Captain's Clerks		50	0	0	Midshipmen...		50	0	0

Iron Steamers.

	Rs.	a.	p.		Rs.	a.	p.
Indus Flotilla.				Second-class Vessels.			
Commander...	600	0	0	Acting Master	225	0	0
† Lieutenant	145	0	0	Second	100	0	0
†Assistant Surgeon ...	306	10	0				
†Purser	250	0	0				
First-class Vessels.				Third-class Vessels.			
Acting Master	250	0	0	Acting Master	200	0	0
Second	100	0	0	Second	100	0	0

NOTE.—Officers sick on shore allowed house-rent as follows :—
Lieutenant and Purser ... ... 90 | Rs. 3 per day.
Midshipmen ... ... 60 | 2 do.
A. If employed on shore... ... Rs. 600
B. Ditto 422
C. In addition to the net pay of their rank.
* With additional half batta. † In addition to full batta.

The remainder of the maritime establishment of the East-India Company consists of a body of pilots employed to navigate the Hooghly, a master attendant's establishment at Calcutta, and another at Madras (with subordinates on the coasts), whose business it is to preserve beacons and landmarks for navigators, assist vessels in distress, regulate transports in government service, control the pilots, &c. ; and a few steam-vessels which ply between China, Arracan, Moulmein, the Malacca Straits, Madras, and Calcutta, for the occasional rapid conveyance of packets, treasure, stores, troops, or great state officers.

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THE PROTESTANT ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENT.

As good morals are an essential ingredient in good government, and a well-endowed, active, and pious body of Christian ministers necessary to the maintenance and encouragement of sound morality, the ecclesiastical establishment of British India is properly regarded as one of the most important arms and instruments of the executive. The principle of protection to the Protestant church, so long recognised by the government of Great Britain as indispensable to the common weal, is therefore carried out in India to the fullest possible extent. While the British legislature limits itself to the preservation of Protestantism in the person of the sovereign, the endowment of Protestant institutions, the selection of members of the Protestant persuasion to fill great public offices, and the enforcement of taxes for the partial support of the church, the government of India builds churches at its own expense, and takes upon itself the *entire* support of the English and Scotch (established) clergy. Three bishops, as many archdeacons, and upwards of one hundred Protestant chaplains, are spread over British India; and their several incomes, varying from 600*l.* to 2,000*l.* per annum (the bishop of Calcutta receiving as much as 4,000*l.* per annum), are paid monthly from the state coffers. The chaplains generally receive their appointments at the hands of the Court of Directors in England, but it is within the competency of the bishop of Calcutta to admit to holy orders young men who have studied at the college on the banks of the Hooghly, founded by Bishop Middleton in 1820, and to nominate them to share in the duties which devolve on the chaplains generally. The number who have been thus admitted is, however, small, as the college scarcely supplies enough to fulfil its own original purpose, namely, the propagation of the gospel among the heathen by means of missionaries.

The duties of the British clergy in India are by no means light: excepting at the chief towns of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, and the great military cantonments of Lahore, Cawnpore, Meerut, Poonah, Secunderabad, and Bangalore, but one chaplain officiates at each station; on him, consequently, de-

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volves not merely the performance of all the parts of divine service, but the ceremonies of baptism, marriage, and burial; the duties of visiting the hospital and the chamber of the sick man at places very remote from head-quarters; the superintendence of schools and charitable institutions; the assisting missionaries of the Church of England in the translation and diffusion of the Scriptures (but this is not a compulsory duty); and generally affording co-operation in every description of good work within his sphere. These combined offices severely tax the time of the Christian minister, leaving him but little space for reflection or recreation; but it does not appear that temperate and systematic men sink under the accumulation, even in so fierce a climate as that of India; and there is this comfort in store for the district clergyman, that every vacancy in the senior ranks places him higher on the list, and brings him nearer to the enviable possession of a chaplaincy at the presidency, with comparative leisure, and a harvest of marriage, burial, and christening fees.

The regulations for the admission of chaplains into the service of the East-India Company are as follow:—

Candidates for appointments as assistant chaplains must have been two years in orders, and must not exceed forty years of age; and at the time of appointment are required to produce their letters of orders, deacon and priest, as well as a testimonial, signed by three beneficed clergymen, and a medical certificate; the appointments are made subject to the approval of the archbishop of Canterbury or the bishop of London.

Chaplains are required to enter into covenant, and to give a bond for 500*l.*, jointly with two sureties, for the due fulfilment of the same.

Under the deed of covenant, chaplains are required to subscribe to the Military Fund at the presidency to which they may be attached.

Chaplains must proceed to their destination within six months from the date of the Court's resolution by which they were nominated; and in failure thereof, without leave obtained from the Court, their appointments will lapse.

The salary of an assistant-chaplain, which position is generally retained for about seven years, does not exceed 600*l.* per annum; and for the first year several deductions

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are made on account of donations and subscriptions to certain funds from which he, or his surviving family, should he die die prematurely, will ultimately derive particular benefit. After eighteen years' service, including a furlough on sick certificate, and on private affairs, a chaplain is permitted to retire upon the pay of a major, viz. 292*l.* per annum; after ten years' service (if compelled by ill health to quit the service), on the half-pay of a major, viz. 173*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* per annum; and after seven years (by a recent decision), on 63*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* per annum; and their widows to one-half that sum. When a chaplain has served seven years, he is allowed a furlough to England, receiving during such absence the pay of captain, viz. 191*l.* 12*s.* per annum. The widows of chaplains who have actually served fifteen years in India receive pensions as widows of majors. The Military Funds allow to subscribers a sum for their passage-money and equipment, if they are not in a position to incur expenses on these accounts from their own purses, or entitled to draw upon the government treasury; and to the widow of a chaplain, who is not in possession of a certain specified sum, they allow passage-money, and a pension, varying according to the presidency to which the chaplain may have belonged, from 120*l.* to 205*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.* per annum.

LAWS, POLICE, THE PRESS.

WHILE a body of experienced lawyers and well-informed civil servants are engaged in the preparation of a code of laws applicable to India, and, pending the completion of their labours, procure from time to time the passage of enactments which provide for temporary difficulties, we must consider the system of judicial administration in our Eastern possessions as in a partial state of transition. Enough of the intentions of the law commissioners has, however, been shadowed forth, to warrant the impression that the great framework of the laws will be left intact; that the sytem of jurisprudence now extant will only be modified to suit the improved state of society, and that simplification will supersede the complexity which at present obtains.

The laws which prevail at this moment in India are based

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upon the Mahomedan code, excepting at the three presidencies and the islands of Penang and Ceylon, where, within certain narrow limits, the British laws are administered upon precisely the same principles, and regulated by the same statutes as govern our courts in England. Much of the ancient Hindoo law having reference to questions of title, inheritance, succession, marriage, adoption, and caste, has entered into the Mahomedan system, but no separate and well-defined Hindoo code has existed from the date of the consolidation of the Moslem power. But two distinct systems of laws are therefore current throughout the length and breadth of British India.

The Supreme, or Queen's Courts, at the three presidencies and the islands, consist each of three judges,* selected by ministers from the practising barristers in England. The selection has often been eminently judicious. Sir William Jones and Sir James Mackintosh have a European reputation. The advocates of the courts consist of men who, having been called to the bar in England, are induced, by the hope of realizing an independence, to transport themselves to India. They are, for the most part, men of average capacity; but there have been instances of great talent adorning the courts, especially that of Calcutta; and it is to the honour of the profession that when public questions have arisen, in which the government and the governed were antagonistic, the Bar have almost invariably been found ranged on the weaker side, employing their eloquence and their energy to baffle oppression, and wring from the executive the concession of great privileges. To the brilliant exertions of the Calcutta bar, the Indian community are indebted for effective resistance to an iniquitous stamp act, for the liberty of the press, for the free ingress of intelligent and independent Europeans; and, in point of fact, for very many advantages, unconnected with the laws, which have inspired the natives with a greater degree of self-respect, and rendered Englishmen as secure of their birthrights in India as they are in their native land. The attorneys, like the

* There are but two judges at present sitting in the Bombay Court, and as no disposition has for some time past been shown by the home authorities to appoint a third, it is supposed that the number will henceforth be permanently limited to two.

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barristers, have, for the most part, received their education and served their apprenticeship in London; but of late years a good many have been admitted who began as articled clerks in local offices; and it must be confessed, that if they are deficient in the higher qualities which distinguish a solicitor, their familiarity with the character and language of the natives gives them advantages which their competitors are many years in acquiring.

The extent of the jurisdiction of the Supreme Courts is not so exactly defined as to silence all discussion upon the point, but, generally speaking, their respective charters have settled their powers as to the nature of the law they are at liberty to administer. These are extensive. Every case, which in London would be heard either in the Court of Queen's Bench or Common Pleas, Admiralty or Ecclesiastical Courts, Courts of Chancery, Exchequer, or Insolvency, comes under the cognizance of the Supreme Courts in India, and from their decision there is no appeal but to the Queen in Council. Unlike the judges of the Company's courts, the administrators of the law in the Queen's courts are totally independent of the local government. Brute force might, in extreme cases, be opposed to the execution of their decrees; but their offices cannot be taken from them, on the one hand, as a punishment for the stern and upright execution of their duty; nor, on the other hand, could they be tempted by anything the highest authorities have it in their power to bestow, to deviate from the straight path chalked out to them by the dictates of conscience and the obligation of their oath.

The Company's judicial establishments in the interior of Hindostan consist of a great number of courts, of various degrees of power and responsibility. At each presidency are Supreme *Native* Courts, consisting of four judges each, chosen from the most experienced officers in the judicial line. At the principal stations are courts of circuit. In every zillah, or district, and in each great and populous city, there is a single judge. Besides these, there are assistant judges, registers of zillahs, who hold courts; and many native petty judges, under the appellations of sudder ameens and moonsiffs, the former term signifying "chief arbitrator," and the latter "a justice," or one who distributes justice.

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From the inferior courts lie appeals to the courts of circuit, and from the courts of circuit to the presidency courts, in all civil causes of any considerable amount, in questions of real property, and even in personal actions involving a certain sum of money; and from the courts of circuit references are necessary to the superior tribunal, in criminal convictions involving life or transportation. The Mahomedan law (as we have said above), modified by innumerable regulations, rules, and ordinances, passed by the government from time to time, is the law of all these courts; and if it were possible to carry out its provisions to the letter, the people would have less ground for the complaint that justice, as administered therein, exists merely in name. But the obstacles to a correct administration of the law are immense. The ignorance of the native pleaders; the corruption of the *omlah*, or native officers of the courts; the prevalence of perjury among all classes of native witnesses; the impossibility of checking oppression in the execution of decrees; the consumption of justice in the progressive system of appeal from the lowest upwards, which holds out a temptation to litigation by multiplying the chances of success; the imperfect knowledge possessed by the Anglo-Indian judges of the multitude of dialects, and of the customs, manners, and ideas of the natives—constitute so many serious impediments to the healthy course of law, that justice, to use the words of an enlightened writer upon the subject, becomes a "perfect *caput mortuum*, not worth the having."

The causes which chiefly engage the attention of the judicial officers in India arise out of failure to pay revenue, disputed succession or inheritance, breach of contract, debt, and trespass. The crimes they have principally to try are larceny, robbery on the highway, burglary, murder, forgery, piracy, and perjury. The punishments which they are competent to inflict are death, imprisonment, labour on the roads, transportation to the Straits of Malacca, and confiscation of property. Juries, composed of Europeans, Eurasians, and educated natives, are empanelled to try criminal causes only in the presidency-Queen's courts; but the institution is unknown in the interior, excepting in the form of a *punchayat*, or jury of five individuals, who are occasionally

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called in to aid the judge, as assessors, in cases of doubt and difficulty.

The police in India is probably the worst preventive or detective establishment of any in the world. The activity and zeal of magistrates and superintendents are almost entirely neutralized by the apathy, cowardice, and corruption of the *posse comitatus*. The force is sufficiently large, consisting, as it does, of thousands of thannadars, chokeedars, burkundauzes, pykes, &c. &c., with all the grades of rank and pay that can stimulate activity and preserve discipline, and armed well enough to encounter any number of brigands, and suppress any popular mutinies; but the inherent defects in the native character minimize the utility of the officers, and render them, in many parts of the country, more of a curse than a blessing to the myriads of the poorer orders. Bound by the ties of caste, apprehensive of the vengeance of a culprit's relatives, greedy of the *douceurs* which can be wrung from an offender, or a reluctant witness, unmindful of truth, constitutionally indolent, and secure, by distance, from the immediate *surveillance* of their superiors, they volunteer no steps that militate against their individual interests, and execute no imposed duty with independence, integrity, or alacrity. Thus, the difficulty experienced by the judges in administering the law is materially enhanced, and the people pay a heavy tax for the maintenance of an institution with which, under present circumstances, they could, with rare exceptions, most easily dispense. But one remedy for this state of things appears to exist, and that is, the employment of some hundreds of Europeans as inspectors and superintendents of police in all the districts. Well-disciplined and intelligent soldiers would be the fittest persons for this description of office, which would, at the same time, be a reward for good conduct, and a motive for the enlistment of young men from the respectable classes now struggling for existence in England. At the presidencies there are a few European constables and bailiffs, and their great efficiency supplies an unanswerable argument in favour of the extension of such description of control to every town and populous village in the country.

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THE LANGUAGES OF INDIA.

The earliest of the languages known to and used by the people of India is the Sanscrit, or Sunscrit. It was the language of the Brahmins, and used by them in the preparation of the Vedas or Sacred Books. The character in which it was written was called the Deva Negri. Neither the language nor the character are now in use, although traces of both are to be found to a considerable extent in the numerous languages spoken and written in the East. Between the Indus and Ceylon, no less than twenty-one distinct languages are employed in different provinces, some of them partaking of the character of those of the countries upon the frontiers, and others, especially the Hindostanee (or Moors, as it is often called), founded entirely upon the Persian, introduced by the Mahomedan conquerors. Independently of the Hindostanee, which is more or less spoken throughout the empire, there are twenty-one distinct tongues in use in India. The *Cingalese* language is spoken only in Ceylon. In Travancore *Malayalim* is in use. *Tamul* is the language of the south-eastern part of the peninsula. The *Canarese* or *Karnota* is peculiar to Mysore. In the eastern part of the Nizam's territories, to the Coromandel Coast, we find the people speaking *Teloogoo* or *Telinga*. From Bombay in the west, to Nagpore in the east, and throughout the districts lying between the Nerbudda and the Kistna, *Mahratta* is general; it is also the language of Gwalior. *Bengalee* is of course the language of Bengal—as *Cashmerar*, *Punjabee*, *Sindee*, *Colatee*, *Asamese*, and *Nepalese* are severally the languages of the States whence they derive their names. The *Cole* and *Goond* tongues are current in the tract of country lying between the 19° and 24° parallels of latitude, and 80° and 85° long; bounded on the west by the Deccan, on the north-west by Oude and Rajpootana, on the east by Cuttack, and the north-east by Bengal. In Oude, *Oordoo* and *Hindee* are the popular languages; and Hindee, with its various dialects, is likewise the language of the extensive provinces of Rajpootana and Bundlecund. The people of Burmah, of Bhotan, and Belooch, have languages of their own, deriving their appellations from the several countries

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in which they are used. Guzerat has also a separate language, called *Guzerattee*, which is the common written language of the Parsees of Bombay as well as of Surat.

For the purposes of general intercourse with the natives of India, the civil and military officers are expected to apply themselves to those tongues most common in the presidencies to which they may be appointed. Hindostanee and Persian and Arabic are, however, more generally cultivated than others, because the first is more generally spoken, and the others are the best written languages, and facilitate the acquisition of the rest. A person appointed to the Bombay presidency will, of course, acquire *Mahratta* and *Guzerattee*. A Bengal officer will find his account in Hindee, Bengalee, and Oordoo. A Madras *employé* will seek to master Canarese (often called Malabaree), Tamul, and Teloogoo.

In all these languages but the Hindostanee, the assistance of moonshees upon the spot is indispensable; but Hindostanee may profitably be studied in England. There are several professions available, and Dr. D. Forbes has prepared grammars and dictionaries, and other elementary works which will materially simplify the acquisition of the language.

THE INDIAN PRESS.

The first English newspaper published in India, made its appearance in Bengal on the 29th January, 1780. It assumed and long enjoyed a latitude of discussion scarcely paralleled by any part of the English press at the present day. This, however, the government found it necessary to check, and a censorship was established, supported by penalties, which continued in operation for nearly thirty years. The governing party, who, for a long time, were almost the only *European* party in the state, dreaded lest the communication of too much information* might place a weapon in

* Before the parliamentary committee which sat on Mr. Buckingham's claim to compensation for the sacrifice of his newspaper property by the Indian government, curious evidence was given of the nature of the orders issued to the conductors of papers from time to time during the war with Tippoo Sultaun. Even the announcement of the arrival and departure of ships at the Indian ports was at one time prohibited.

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the hands of their active foes, the struggling princes and their French allies, which might be turned to the disadvantage of British interest. The progress of conquest, however, and the complete annihilation of all European power in India, save that which the English possessed, diminished the fears arising from the general diffusion of news. Accordingly, in or about the year 1816, the propriety of freeing the press became the subject of frequent debate. But the executive opposed any alteration upon totally new grounds. It was now pretended that our dominion mainly rested upon the respect in which the government was held, and that that respect, according to the authorities of the time, could only be maintained by adding a tender regard for the infirmities of public men to the pompous displays which the revenues were employed to keep up. Regulations were therefore made, protecting from public comment the acts of bishops, judges, governors, commanders-in-chief, and numerous other functionaries; and by way of extending the shield of protection over the whole fry of *employés*, a clause was ingeniously introduced by some governments, prohibiting all discussions which were calculated to interfere with the harmony of society!—a comprehensive term, the purport of which was not misunderstood. Under the operation of these restrictions, the press of India was for a long time a mere receptacle for advertisements, innocent extracts from English papers (in which police reports and trials for *crim. con.* enjoyed a marked preference over political disquisitions), shipping arrivals, details of balls, *fêtes*, and reviews, criticisms on amateur theatricals, the government gazettes, and occasional letters deprecating some small local nuisance. About the year 1820, however, the papers began to wear a new aspect. The legitimate purposes of a public press were first asserted, it is believed, by Mr. Buckingham; and influenced by his example—though not approaching him in boldness of tone—the Calcutta press began to question the wisdom of some of the acts of government, and the immaculacy of sundry of its favoured officers. The sensation occasioned by this sudden assumption of moral and political power, in a community of whom passive obedience to orders and tacit submission to laws were from habit and necessity the chief characteristics, may be imagined. The Europeans, all at

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once reminded that freedom of opinion was an inalienable birthright, hailed Mr. Buckingham as a deliverer; and in the ecstasy of their delight at being liberated from the shackles which bound their tongues and pens, they forgot that there was scarcely one amongst them who might not sooner or later feel the inconvenience of too much publicity. Not quite so regardless of the consequences of this bold emancipation were the elderly gentlemen who held responsible offices under the government. To them, the operation of the freedom of the press presented itself in its most fearful colours, and they immediately applied the whole weight of their personal and official influence to a counteraction of the assaults of this formidable hydra. But the Marquis of Hastings, then governor-general, had publicly declared that a good government had nothing to fear from the light;—he avowed that he courted or dared investigation into his public acts; and thus, while his bearing gave no countenance to the anxious endeavours of the *bureaucracie* and staff by whom he was surrounded, it animated with fresh courage the spirited Buckingham and his now numerous and intrepid adherents.

Mr. Buckingham, and the fate of his efforts to assert the freedom of the press of India, have been so often before the public, that it is needless to recapitulate them here. Suffice to say, that, after two or three years of unexampled success as a journalist, a timid *locum tenens* of the reins of government deported him to England, and for a time checked the *adolescent* press. But the darkness that followed was not of long duration. Lord Amherst allowed the editors of his day a tolerable latitude of expression. Lord William Bentinck, his successor, permitted them, during his seven years' administration, to say or publish anything they pleased, and declared that he considered the press a valuable adjunct of the government; yet, with singular inconsistency, to the last moment of his rule he clung with unaccountable tenacity to his power of "*coming down* upon the press." Sir Charles Metcalfe, who temporarily succeeded Lord William, at once and *sans façon* freed the press; Lord Auckland, the succeeding governor-general, not only recognised the act of his predecessor (though the Court of Directors gave him, it is said, power to annul it), but, in a variety of ways, promoted

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its prosperity and enhanced its utility. From that hour (1835) to the present, the Indian press has enjoyed a freedom scarcely surpassed by that in which the press of our native country rejoices.

It is difficult to compute the exact circulation of all the papers in India, for the tendency to exaggeration on the part of proprietors is as rife in India as in England; but it may be safely asserted, that the number of subscribers of the dailies, weeklies, &c., combined, does not exceed 10,000.*

The character of these papers, with the exception of those professedly in the interests of religion, is pretty much the same. The editors are for the most part educated and independent men, who, having no interests but the cause of truth, and the welfare and entertainment of society, to promote, and being perfectly unconnected with the government, freely express their sentiments upon every public question that may arise. The contents and order of arrangement of the papers are tolerably uniform. One-fourth, or rather more, of each journal, is appropriated to advertisements; these are followed by local correspondence, extracts from contemporary publications, the government general orders, announcing appointments, promotions, &c. acts of the legislative council, &c. Next we have two or three columns devoted to editorial lucubrations upon the topics of the day; and these are succeeded by items of Indian news, or news from China, the Cape of Good Hope, New South Wales, Mauritius, &c., winding up with copious extracts from the English papers. Indeed, such is the avidity with which the Indian exile devours intelligence from his native country, that when an overland packet arrives from England, the editors find it their best policy to exclude almost everything for two or three days, in order to make room for abundant selections. The public appetite, however, is soon satiated, and the dailies then fall into the old track.

Besides the presses whence the newspapers, the weekly, monthly, and annual periodicals issue, there are several in India which limit themselves, almost exclusively, to the printing of books, pamphlets, &c.; and as they are chiefly directed by experienced Englishmen, they often turn out

* Assuming that each paper circulates among five persons, there are 50,000 readers in India.

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works equal in their topography, paper, &c., to the best offspring of the London publishers. Of these establishments the Bishop's College Press, at Calcutta, unquestionably stands at the head. It was originally set up for the purpose of reprinting the Holy Scriptures in the native languages, and other works tending to the enlightenment and conversion of the Hindoos; but as these did not occupy the entire time of the printers, an extension of its business was suggested, and it now prints books and periodicals, provided their tendency be not immoral.

The native papers constitute a remarkable feature of the Calcutta press. They owe their origin to Mr. Marshman, the son of the celebrated Dr. Marshman, who, some thirty or forty years ago, started the *Sumachar Durpun*, a weekly paper in the vernacular language. The large support which it immediately received from the natives led to its publication in the Bengalee and English languages (each alternate column being a translation of its neighbour); and in the year 1837, the proprietor was encouraged to put it forth three times a week. But in the mean while other native papers had started into existence. Some attacks upon the Hindoos, in the columns of the *Durpun*, originated the *Cowmoody*, of which the late Rajah Rammohun Roy was one of the editors. It defended the Hindoos, while it endeavoured to instruct them. But the Rajah was not sufficiently orthodox for his colleagues: he soon began to oppose himself to some of the rites and ceremonies of the Hindoo religion, which, if not actually enjoined by the shasters, or sacred books, had been hallowed by custom. Amongst other usages, he assailed the suttee, or self-immolation of widows upon the funeral pile. This led to the withdrawal of one of the stanchest of his *collaborateurs*, who immediately established a third paper, the *Chundrika*, having for its object that pure conservatism which resists the progress of intelligence, and maintains the worst absurdities and most odious tyrannies in all their time-honoured integrity. The *Cowmoody* expired on the departure of Rammohun Roy for England. The impulse, however, had been given to the native press, and a multitude of journals were consequently soon ushered into existence, some of them originating with the ex-students of the Hindoo college, who

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had been imbued with rather extravagant notions of political freedom; and others springing from the orthodox party, or from sycophants who had learnt that something was to be gained by publicly chanting the praises of sundry rajahs; or from libellers, who panted for a channel of vituperation; or from the necessitous, who found, in the circulation of a paper, the means of subsistence and the opportunity of literary distinction. About thirty papers, which sprung into existence under such auspices, have since expired, after a brief and unsatisfactory career. Five only are now before the public, circulating, weekly, about 2,000 copies altogether. This is, indeed, but a very small drop of civilization in the vast ocean of ignorance and superstition, but it is idle to suppose that it is altogether without its beneficial effects. From the extreme parsimony of the natives, it may be conjectured that all these papers are subscribed for by clubs, and that, consequently, the 2,000 copies have, on an average, 20,000 readers. To inoculate this number with habits of reflection, to draw their attention to higher objects than the accumulation of money, the indulgence in sensual pleasures, or the study of the superstitions and ceremonials of a misguiding religion, is something gained to the cause of humanity. The character of the native press, setting aside the heats and personalities of controversy, is creditable to its conductors. There is an evident anxiety on the part of each journalist to render service to the cause of good government. The honest, and active, and philanthropic civil functionary receives his due meed of praise, while the iniquities of the unjust steward, and his crowd of corrupt omlah,* are boldly exposed and animadverted upon in the strongest terms permitted by the law of libel. That more of the purposes of a press are not fulfilled by the native editors, is owing principally to the poverty of the young men who have embarked in the journalist's profession. There can be no doubt, however, that, in process of time, the wealthier classes will become alive to the great importance of supporting the press; and we shall find large capitalists yielding the means of establishing correspondence with all the districts in India, of translating large propor-

* The native officers of the courts of law and revenue.

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tions of the best English journals for transference to the columns of the native papers, and of maintaining the integrity and independence of the editors.

There are a considerable number of native presses extant, which are limited to the printing of almanacs, books, catalogues, handbills, &c. Of these no particular account is necessary.

There are also several lithographic presses, one of which belongs to the government, and is used to multiply copies of official correspondence, maps, &c. The others are private property, and are kept in constant employ.

The native papers at Madras and Bombay are very few in number, and insignificant in circulation and influence.

SECTION III.

THE ROUTES TO INDIA—EQUIPMENTS—TRAVELLING IN INDIA—PREPARATIONS FOR THE OUTWARD VOYAGE IN A SAILING VESSEL, VIA THE CAPE.

As a person unacquainted with Indian shipping, that is to say, with the vessels which habitually sail between England and India, will have considerable difficulty in making a good selection, and may, moreover, be too much occupied with bidding farewell to friends, to be able to spare time for the superintendence of all the details connected with the embarkation of baggage, fitting-up a cabin, &c., it is advisable that he should at once betake himself to an East-India agent's house. This proceeding will save him a world of trouble. The agents are often personally acquainted, not only with the qualities of each desirable vessel, but with the characters, tempers, and *savoir faire* of their respective commanders. We would, however, earnestly recommend passengers desirous of quiet and comfort, to give injunctions to the agent to select a cabin on the *lower* deck of a ship; for though not so light and airy as the upper cabins, especially in bad weather, there is no disturbance from the continual walking and shuffling over-head, the dropping coils of rope, &c.; and, besides, the cost of the lower cabins

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is somewhat less. On the *homeward* voyage the upper cabins are preferable in every way, as the vessels are then deeply laden, and it is scarcely safe to open the port-holes of the lower deck for the admission of air and light.

The passage being engaged, and the average price, eighty pounds,* duly paid, the next object which engages attention is the purchase of cabin furniture and the outfit. In the selection of these, the passenger will be prudent always to keep in mind the possibility of converting them to useful purposes in India. Thus, a sofa, with drawers beneath it, is preferable to a swing-cot, because it can be rendered serviceable in a house, whereas the uses of the latter terminate with the voyage. But, perhaps, the following list, applicable to almost any condition of life, will sufficiently indicate the absolute necessities of the traveller. We will merely premise, that it will be good economy to require of the agent that the cabin furniture and fittings-up shall be procured of the upholsterers at the East-India Docks, in preference to any of the professional outfitters :—

A sofa, with mattress, pillow, and a chintz covering for the day-time ; a folding-chair or camp-stool ; a wash-hand stand complete, with ewer, basin, soap-dish, &c. ; a hanging lamp ; a looking-glass, with sliding cover ; a swing-tray ; a chest of drawers, in two pieces, the upper part having a ledge around the top, for the purpose of holding a small collection of books, or preventing articles from falling off ; a foul-clothes bag (a cylindrical cane basket is better, but it generally occupies too much room in a side-cabin) ; an oil-cloth, or carpet, for the cabin (this is merely for the sake of appearances. The bare deck is cleaner, cooler, and offers a firmer footing when the ship is rolling or pitching).

Equipment of a single man for 100 days, something above the computed duration of a voyage :—

Eight dozen shirts ; three dozen night ditto ; ten pairs of sheets (size of the sofa) ; one dozen pillow-cases ; one blanket ; one counterpane ; six dozen towels ; three dozen silk pocket-handkerchiefs ; six pairs of loose cotton drawers, for sleeping or bathing in ; a couple of brown holland blouses ; a blue camlet jacket ; two pairs of merino, camlet, or gambroon trowsers ; two dozen pairs of white jean trowsers ; two dozen white jean jackets ; two dozen white jean waistcoats ; three

* A single man in a side-cabin below seldom pays more, though 90*l.* is generally asked. An upper, or poop-cabin, costs, for one person, 120*l.* ; and the stern cabins, which accommodate a married couple and a child, pay in proportion to the number of persons.

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dozen pairs of cotton socks; cloth coats, trousers, and waistcoats, at discretion (the stock in possession of a passenger when he is leaving England will suffice); a hat, in leathern box, for Indian wear; a straw hat; a blue cloth forage-cap; two black silk stocks or cravats; a dozen pairs of white kid gloves (these articles are very dear in India: those which may be obtained for 1s. 6d. in the Strand, cost three rupees in Calcutta); a couple of morning gowns; two pairs of shoes; two pairs of boots; one pair of slippers; a dressing-case and Russian leather writing-case, suitably filled; three pounds of Windsor soap; six pounds of short wax-candles; a bucket and rope (serviceable in drawing up salt water whenever wanted); a brush-case and blacking, boot-hooks and shoe-horn; a sponge and sponge-bag; a japanned jug, basin, soap-dish, and tooth-brush tray. These are preferable to a China set, which is liable to break, or to pewter vessels, which soon look dirty, and are not easily cleaned. General instructions to the tradesman from whom the wash-hand stand may be bought, will ensure its being fitted up with every convenience.

The foregoing list embraces the *actual necessaries* of a bachelor on the voyage to India by a sailing vessel. For purposes of pastime or study numerous additions may be made, suitable to the means and inclinations of passengers. Fowling-pieces, rifles, fishing-tackle, colour-boxes, musical instruments, books, scientific instruments, telescopes, cards, chess and backgammon boards, are taken, and an outline map of the route, published by Messrs. W. H. Allen & Co., Leadenhall Street, is often added;* but were it considered expedient to enumerate all the articles that fancy, taste, artificial wants, or peculiar pursuits may suggest, our list might be swelled illimitably.

The trunks in which clothes for the voyage may be packed, should depend upon the capacity of the traveller. If he be a military or medical man, and therefore liable to march about the country, bullock-trunks, specially made and sold at the outfitters', are preferable, as they are permanently useful. But for persons in the civil service, indigo-planters, merchants, clergymen, &c., the portmanteau or tin box, eighteen inches square, would answer all purposes. The tin boxes can be carried in India by the banghy-bearers, or running-porters, who accompany palankeen travellers across the country.

Of the money which a passenger may carry with him,

* Marking the track and progress of the voyage on this map every day, after the captain has taken his observation *and made it twelve o'clock*, is a common and by no means uninstructive amusement.

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sovereigns should always be preferred. Twenty pounds will suffice; for all beyond that, if any be necessary, a letter of credit had better be taken.

Letters of introduction, to which so much importance was once attached, are now of comparatively little account in India. The establishment of hotels and boarding-houses has rendered persons on their first arrival less dependent than they formerly were upon the accommodating spirit of the resident community. Add to this, the great ease with which people of respectability get acquainted with one another at those places of entertainment, and at other public reunions; to say nothing of the *entrée* to the government-house, which is promptly accorded to all who are entitled by their rank in the social scale to leave their cards; and it will be readily understood that even for the purposes of agreeable intercourse no introductions are essential. Those who imagine that letters of recommendation will tend to their professional advancement, form an erroneous estimate of their utility. Neither governors, judges, nor commanders-in-chief, are much in the habit of paying attention to the particular requests of absent friends, unless the latter are very anxious to see their *protégés* put forward, and *have the means of reciprocating the civility of the authorities abroad.* A prime minister, perhaps, would not ask a favour of a governor in vain: nor would a wealthy merchant in the city be likely to have his injunctions disregarded by his own agent.

In the above instructions regard has only been had to the wants of a single man proceeding to India. To a certain extent the same suggestions will apply to the other sex, for there can be little variety in cabin furniture and the principal accessories to the toilette; but in regard to costume, distinct details are obviously necessary, as there is scarcely anything in the attire of one sex which corresponds with the garments of the other. The following, therefore, may be regarded as a fair and reasonable wardrobe for a lady, but can be augmented, if necessary, according to the affluence or wishes of the party:—

Six dozen chemises; four dozen night ditto; four dozen pairs of drawers; four dozen pairs of thin cotton stockings; two dozen, &c. of silk stockings; eight flannel petticoats; three pairs of stays; six white dressing-gowns; six coloured ditto; two dozen night-caps; five

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dozen pocket-handkerchiefs; one dozen of net neckerchiefs; four dozen of towels; six pairs of black silk stockings; four printed morning dresses, worn at breakfast; a black silk dress at dinner; a slight coloured silk, or any cheap material, for dress on Sundays (as these dresses generally become unfit for wear after the voyage, the less cost in the purchase the better); black silk or cotton petticoat for every day's wear; an ordinary cloak, and common straw bonnet, to wear on deck; shoes and dressing slippers: small silk neckerchiefs; collars, caps, gloves, and mittens, according to taste; quilling-net and piece-net; ribbons of low price and different colours; hair powder; pins of various sizes; needles, buttons, hooks and eyes, tape and bodkins, cotton-reels, scissors; a good supply of papillote paper; Windsor soap and wax-candles, pomatum, smelling-bottle, hartshorn, aromatic vinegar, aperients, and a case of Cologne water; a dressing-case and writing-desk, both properly furnished.

The pastimes and employments of ladies depend so much upon taste, that it is impossible to offer any but general hints regarding the implements of entertainment most suitable to the leisure of a voyage. Knitting and netting,* carpet and crochet work, drawing, books, and music, constitute the ordinary occupations, which, however, may be varied *ad libitum*. Musical practice will much depend upon the presence of a piano-forte. If there be not one in the vessel, belonging to the captain, we do not recommend a female passenger to allow of her own, supposing her to possess one, being unpacked for cabin use. The damp sea air and the motion of the vessel are calculated to seriously damage the delicate machinery of a Broadwood or Zeitte, even though it be clamped and fastened and *clothed*, to suit the climate of the tropics.

The foregoing suggestions apply to persons proceeding round the Cape by sailing vessels. Should they prefer going to India in one of the screw-steamers, which now take the same route, they will only require the same amount of equipment as the passenger by the Overland Route. The screw-steamers leave Southampton, for Calcutta, on the 13th of each month, and reach the latter place, after stopping at several places (including the Cape, Mauritius, Ceylon, and Madras) *en route*, in sixty days. The terms are as follow:—

	To Ceylon.	To Madras.	To Calcutta.
One person	81*l.*	82*l.* 10*s.*	90*l.*
Ditto, occupying a double cabin..	161*l.*	102*l.*	115*l.*
Two persons in a treble cabin ..	192*l.*	205*l.*	220*l.*

* For these purposes silver needles are recommended, as the moisture of the fingers at a high temperature is calculated to rust the implement.

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Writers, cadets, and other young persons going to India for the first time, are charged eighty pounds each in a general cabin, where two others are berthed. Wines, beer, and spirits are not included. A fee of two pounds for each adult, and one pound for each child, is payable to the steward. All particulars regarding baggage, &c., may be obtained at the Screw-steam Company's Offices, No. 2, Royal Exchange Buildings, City.

THE VOYAGE TO INDIA.

The prospect of an imprisonment on board a ship for three or four months, with no more agreeable view, externally, than a vast expanse of sea and sky, is to many minds perfectly appalling. Those who have been accustomed to much confinement in town or country, from the nature of their business or the inclemency of the season, have still found time pass lightly in the midst of profitable occupation, the companionship of books, or the centre of a happy family circle; but in the narrow limits of a trading vessel, cast amongst strangers, deprived of the necessity for labour, and oppressed with the painful feelings attending a separation from home and valued friends and relatives, they anticipate a wearisome and monotonous existence. The picture which fancy draws is, however, found, on close inspection, to be much less charged with gloomy objects than it appears to be in the distance. The excitement and bustle ever attendant upon the business of a ship, the common interest and sympathy which draw people together who, otherwise, would maintain towards each other the characteristic reserve of Englishmen, the evanescent nature of the griefs which assail the youth of both sexes at the commencement of a career replete with hope and novelty, rapidly create a favourable change in the views of the outward-bound, and prepare the mind for a cheerful endurance of the inconvenience of a protracted voyage. Few, indeed, are the men and women, who in their after-life do not look back upon the voyage to India as one of the greenest spots in memory's waste. For the devotee of science, there is perpetual entertainment in tracing the progress of the vessel, in observing the practical use of the compass, in

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taking lunar and solar observations, marking the changes of climate, the phenomena of the sea's phosphorescence, the uses of the complex machinery of a ship, &c. The sportsman will find ample employment for his gun when the gigantic albatross and the sportive Cape pigeon career around and about the vessel in search of prey; and the fish-hook and the harpoon may not unprofitably be brought into requisition to snare the monster shark or slay the brilliant dolphin. He who is neither a votary of science nor of sport will resort to books, cards, music, and the various games which exercise ingenuity and produce gentle excitement. These will pleasantly while away many hours of the day; and a walk on the quarter-deck, or a merry polka, when the presence of a band and of a sufficient number of lady passengers admits of such an enjoyment, will often consume a long evening in the tropics, and stimulate health while they promote good fellowship. Meals, on board ship, are also more a matter of entertainment than of business, and are prolonged beyond the ordinary duration, because they contribute to the exhaustion of leisure. Then amateur theatricals serve occasionally to diversify existence; and the accidental rencontre of a vessel homeward bound awakens family recollections and associations, and sends the passenger to his writing-desk to report progress, and proclaim all's well. It sometimes happens that either from previous arrangements, connected with the landing of passengers and cargo, or with the embarkation of fresh accessions of both, or from stress of weather, deficiency of water or provisions, the vessel puts into the port of Madeira, the Cape of Good Hope, or any of the islands which stud the route between the Azores (inclusive) and the Indian coast. These are pleasant breaks in the voyage which may be turned to profitable account by an observant traveller, and at all events serve as a brief recreation and an agreeable souvenir for the irreflective. At Cape Town, Cape of Good Hope, there are hotels and boarding-houses, where accommodation may be obtained at the rate of about a guinea a day, including the expense of a carriage to the villages and vintages within a few hours' drive of the town. There are no "lions," so to speak, at the Cape. A public library offers the means of whiling away an hour; and a ramble about the streets, amidst a motley population of Dutch colonists, British officers,

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Negroes, and Indians, affords entertainment to the eye unaccustomed to diversified costumes and complexions. The ascent of Table Mountain is a feat which some adventurous visitors take pleasure in accomplishing; and if a fine view of the bay and surrounding country is deemed an object of interest, it is certainly to be obtained by the mere trouble of the ascent.

THE OVERLAND PASSAGE TO INDIA.

The passage to India, *viâ* the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, has been rendered so facile of late years by the construction of magnificent steamers, the property of the Oriental and Peninsular Steam Navigation Company, that great numbers of persons give it a preference to the route round the Cape of Good Hope. It has the advantage of being an infinitely more expeditious method of reaching India, and of being less wearisome by reason of the perpetual change of scene which it presents between England, passing the coast of Spain and Portugal, Gibraltar, Malta, Egypt, Aden (and if bound to Madras or Calcutta), Ceylon and the continent of India. In point of expense, there is but little difference in the two routes, for what is saved in passage-money *viâ* the Cape, is spent in the additional outfit rendered necessary by the length of the voyage. *One hundred and five pounds* (105*l.*) is the lowest sum paid for a single berth in a cabin in any of the great steamers to Alexandria, for a passage across the desert to Suez in one of the vans, and thence in another magnificent vessel to Calcutta. The same passage to Ceylon costs 95*l.*, and to Madras 100*l.* If the party is proceeding to Bombay, a passage is secured (including the trip over the desert) to Aden, and there a Government steamer is monthly in waiting to proceed directly to Bombay. The cost of this partial voyage is 70*l.*; and 30*l.* more, payable at Aden, is the charge of the Bombay steamers for the remaining portion of the trip. The steamers of the Oriental and Peninsular Company leave Southampton upon the 4th and 20th of each month, and passages may be engaged on application at their office. The passage money includes an excellent table, wines, liquors, servants' fees, and the carriage of three hundred-weight of

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personal baggage. For personal use on board the steamer, very little baggage is really necessary. Under the present arrangements in the large steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, there is *no occasion* for bed or table linen, a sofa, washhand-stand, looking-glass, boot-hooks, jugs, tumbler, blacking and brushes, writing-desk, or books: all these are provided in the steamers. Take with you only six dozen shirts, three dozen pairs of socks, a couple of brown Holland blouses, two dozen pairs of white pantaloons, a couple of pair of merino or gambroon trousers, six dozen pocket handkerchiefs, two dozen pairs of long drawers, a forage-cap, a straw hat, shoes, slippers, and your razors and tooth-brushes. We say nothing of waistcoats, boots, cloth coats and trousers, cloak or great coat, because the stock which a man may have with him when he engages his passage will generally suffice; but it will be prudent to be provided with a mat or rug, a pillow, and a quilted counterpane (or *resai*), for it is very probable that, when the passenger gets into a warm climate he will prefer sleeping on deck, and the steamer bedding is not allowed to be used for that purpose. The best packages are, beyond all question, portmanteaus and a carpet bag; for besides being more easily stowable in a cabin (*one* may generally be kept there), they can bear a good deal of tumbling about in holds and baggage-rooms, on camels' backs, and in river-steamers, while the wooden chest or trunk is very liable to get knocked to pieces or wetted through.

Ladies who may proceed by the Southampton steamers, to Alexandria, *en route* to India, will proportion their equipment accordingly. If they will go back a few pages to the list of articles suggested for the sea voyage, and divide that list by two, they will arrive at something like a reasonable conclusion as to what may be really necessary for them.

Some parties prefer going through France and Italy on their way to India. There is no doubt that the pleasure of the trip is greatly heightened by taking such a route, if the countries have not been visited upon any previous occasion, though it is not unattended by inconvenience. In the event of the adoption of such a route, all the baggage requisite for the sea trip, upon the Red-sea side of the isthmus of Suez, should be sent previously by the Southampton steamer,

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consigned to some reputable house at Alexandria. There is a material difference in the charge for luggage, if it is understood that the Indian half of the journey will be accomplished in one of the Oriental and Peninsular Steam Navigation Company's vessels. After going through France, if the traveller purposes terminating his land journey at Marseilles, he will find the steamers of the Company leaving on the 10th and 26th of each month for Malta, whither he can proceed to await the Southampton steamer, or go on at once in the French vessel to Alexandria. In the event of a possible detention at either place, and he has his option, we would recommend his proceeding to Egypt without delay, as the time of detention there may be more profitably spent, though possibly not more agreeably, for an introduction to any respectable parties at Malta insures the visitor much hospitality. Should the outward-bound traveller extend his journey to Italy, he may calculate on finding Neapolitan steamers either at Genoa, Leghorn, or Naples, once, or oftener, every ten days, and in one of these he will obtain a quick and comfortable passage to Malta, touching at one or more of the ports in Sicily. The cost of the passage for a single man from Marseilles to Malta is 7*l.* 10*s.*; from Naples to Malta about 4*l.*; a French steamer charges 11*l.* more, independently of the table, from Malta to Alexandria; and the Oriental and Peninsular Company 10*l.* for the latter trip, or 17*l.* from Marseilles to Alexandria; the English vessel supplying a liberal table and wines without further charge.

The charges for second-class passengers are considerably lower; but we assume that all for whom this book is written are not likely to be satisfied with a secondary class of accommodation.

If persons who are on their way to India, having at some previous time seen Italy and France, are now desirous of extending their knowledge of Europe in another direction, it will be competent for them, on paying the whole amount of their passage to India to the Oriental and Peninsular Steam Navigation Company, to proceed free of charge in the Company's Peninsular steamers, to the coast of Spain and Portugal, visiting Vigo, Oporto, Lisbon, Cadiz, &c., joining the Alexandria steamer at Gibraltar.

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Very little opportunity is presented to a passenger in one of the vessels bound direct to Alexandria, for seeing anything of the interior of Malta or Gibraltar. The stay at either place seldom exceeds thirteen hours, nor is there much time to inspect the lions of Alexandria and Cairo; for as the vessel from India has probably arrived at Suez, and awaits the mails and passengers from Europe, the transit from Alexandria by the steamers on the Mahmoudie canal and the Nile, and from Cairo, across the desert in carriages, is accelerated by the agents of the Company. As, however, it may happen that some little detentions will take place, we refer the reader to the "Overland Companion," published by Messrs. W. H. Allen and Co., for full particulars regarding all the places *en route*. Our baggage having been sent forward to Suez on camels, we prepare to cross the desert. The uninitiated reader will doubtless picture to himself a complete Oriental *cortège*, such as we find in the illustrations of the works of Buckingham and Burckhardt, turbaned travellers, long strings of camels, rude tents, guards bristling with arms, a flaring sun, drought, privation, a single palm-tree, and the apex of a pyramid in the distance. Ah, *nous avons changé tout cela!* Thanks to the exertions of the British agents and associations, who make it their business to promote the intercourse with India, there is little difference now between travelling seventy miles over a post-road in England, and going over the same space of ground on the isthmus of Suez. Forty vans, each drawn by four good horses, and driven by an Egyptian jehu, carrying from four to six inside and none out, transport the living contents of two crowded steamers across the arid and desolate plain which divides Cairo from the Red Sea. Some of the vans have arched roofs, like those of common waggons, waterproof and painted green. They are all light, but very strong, and capable of bearing, without damage, the violent collisions with lumps of stone and rock, to which they are exposed in some parts of the road. The passengers sit, omnibus-fashion, at the sides of the vehicles, entering at the back; an arrangement that is unavoidable, from the height of the wheels (a single pair), which reach half-way up the body of the van. The seats are carpeted, and the whole thing is roomy and commodious. At the

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end of every ten or twelve miles, horses are changed at a sort of road-side inn, erected for the purpose; at two or three of which the traveller will get a capital dinner, or breakfast, or luncheon, of eggs, mutton-chops, roast pigeons, stewed fowls, potatoes, bread, and good bottled ale, with tea or coffee, if he prefer them. Midway, at the hotel, there are divans, or sofas, all round the chief apartment, and bed-rooms for ladies and married people. Here, it is as well to sleep for a few hours, for sixteen hours' continual travelling in the vans will be found *de trop* by people unaccustomed to great fatigue. From all this it is obvious that the day has gone by for grand desert, or, as they call it, overland preparations. Let the traveller, therefore, shun the tempting advertisements of outfitters and guide-books. All the urgent recommendations, that people should provide themselves with camel-saddles, canteens, bottles of water, parasols, braces of pistols, green veils, carpets, &c., are superfluous. Dress yourself lightly for the day, carrying a cloak or great-coat for the night. Put a tooth-brush, a clean shirt, and a couple of dollars into your pocket, and you are completely equipped for the trip.

Suez is not very inviting externally, and when you get fairly within its walls you are satisfied that its exterior has not deceived you. Everything, excepting the court-yard of the caravanserai, which does duty for a custom-house, and contains numerous bales of silks, drugs, grain, &c., denotes poverty and wretchedness. The houses, built of rough-hewn lumps of rocks cemented by mud, or a clay composed of sand, water, and coarse lime, have a dun-coloured exterior, in capital keeping with the dirty faces of the people and the soil on which the town is built. Still there is enough in Suez to interest, at the first view, a traveller who has never before beheld a purely Mahomedan town. The place is thickly inhabited by Arabs, Egyptians, Copts, and a few Turks; caravans of camels, which have just arrived, laden with merchandise from Cairo, or awaiting recumbent their loads of wealth from the farther East; mules and donkeys saddled for travellers; an occasional horse covered with gay trappings; the long dark bazaar and the lofty minaret; the veiled and masked female, and the swarthy, bearded male,

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present a picture nearly new even to the man who has just left Cairo.

A six days' trip from Suez, with fine weather and pleasant breezes, carries you to Aden, and you have now had a good opportunity of judging of the accommodation and capabilities of the steamer. Say, she is one of the finest steamers, of nearly 2,000 tons burthen, with engines of 500-horse power. She has a magnificent saloon, or cuddy, where 100 persons can dine with comfort in cool weather. The cabins are numerous, and in each of these are two berths and a horse-hair sofa (convertible into a third berth), a wash-hand stand, a mirror, and a pair of boot-hooks. When one person has a cabin to himself, it is only very disagreeably warm and confined; but when two are located in the same closet, it is unspeakably hot and inconvenient; and when there are three "cribbed and confined" in the same *endroit*, it is—but the thing may be conceived by persons who have been accustomed to dwell upon the sufferings of the captives in the Black Hole. There is a shower-bath and a plunge-bath on the starboard side of the vessel, and you may stand upon the grating near the paddle-boxes and be deluged with buckets of salt-water by an obliging seaman. The two former are the most agreeable methods of performing an ablution, but when you have sixty male fellow-passengers all equally anxious with yourself to dabble and splash in the cool fluid, it is sometimes unavoidably necessary to have recourse to the third process. The larboard side of the steamer, from the end of the cuddy to the gangway, is appropriated to the ladies, who have cabins, baths, and a small saloon to themselves. The library on board is select, and well adapted to the instruction and entertainment of the traveller in Egypt, Syria, India, &c. And as for the table!—I have here transcribed the bill of fare on one single day, and will trouble the greatest *gourmet* of the City of London Corporation to say if he could add anything to the *carte*:—

Mock turtle soup and bouilli—boiled legs of mutton—roast ditto—jugged hare—roast capons—corned pork—pigeon pies—roast geese—stewed breast of mutton and green peas—boiled and roast turkeys—ham—roast shoulder of mutton and onion sauce—haricot—boiled capons and

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tongues—stewed ducks and green peas—roast beef—curried mutton and chickens—rice—potatoes, boiled and baked—pickles and sauces of every description—jam puddings—gooseberry, plum, currant, and cherry tarts—stewed pippins—maccaroni and cheese—rice puddings. A dessert of almonds, raisins, brandy-fruits and preserves, oranges, plaintains, biscuits. At dinner, sherry, claret, champagne, ale, and porter. At dessert, port, madeira, and sherry.—The wine well iced. The breakfasts on the same scale of liberality. Then there is luncheon, and tea and coffee in the morning while decks are washing, and a fusillade of soda-water kept up from nine A.M. until nine P.M. In truth, meals are so numerous, and blended into each other so felicitously, that life on board a Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamer is one vast *monstre* refection. It may be added, that abundance of steam-water is allowed the passengers for washing purposes, and the bed-linen, towels, &c., required on board, being found by the Oriental Steam-Navigation Company, there is no occasion to take any with you.

Aden presents us with one of those phenomena which the giant "steam" is every day and everywhere achieving. Barren rocks, and a few yards of sandy shore, once tenanted only by the sea-gull and the crab, are now covered by cheerful domiciles, and animated by a small but busy and contented population, who live by unloading the fuel-ships, storing and protecting the coal, and embarking it upon the steamers. Upon the shore of a little bay, formed by a small belt of rocks, stands a spacious and commodious building, which serves the purposes of an hotel. Some enterprising Parsees from Bombay started and maintain this establishment, where the steam-boat traveller will find an excellent and (all things considered) not expensive table and cellar, clean beds, white linen, and excellent attendance. Fire-wood and sweet water, being brought from a considerable distance, must necessarily be dear; but they do not constitute special items in the bill, unless you indulge in a fresh bath, when four shillings, or two rupees, are payable. Donkeys and their attendant vagabond owners are available by scores, and it is usual to hire one for a ride to the Arab town of Aden, four miles from the anchorage, and inspect

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the scene of many a bloody strife, before our troops established their present footing on the soil of the Ishmaelite. Excellent fish, including oysters, are procurable at Aden. But, indeed, there is no deficiency of any of the necessaries of life. Everything that reasonable men can desire is obtained in abundance from the interior; and, judging from the specimens of grain and vegetables daily brought in on camels' backs, there can be no doubt of the richness and fertility of the soil of Arabia. It is singular to see every Arab in and about Aden unarmed. On the opposite coast, and on the shores of the Persian Gulf—nay, from Bussorah to Constantinople, from Bushire to Tabreez—you rarely meet a man without his matchlock, his kundjur, or his scimitar, and sometimes with all three, and a lance and pistols into the bargain; but here you would fancy that the Moslem had ceased to war with his fellow, for if his hand *be* against every body, it is at Aden an *empty* hand! This restriction upon the use of arms originated with the political agent, and was no doubt intended as a protection against treachery. There is not, however, much of that to be apprehended now. The people are evidently more than reconciled to British authority, for they flock to Aden in numbers totally unknown during the government of the Sultan. From 600 to 1,000 souls inhabited the town before our conquest and occupation: at this moment there are not less than 40,000 living there!

From Aden the steamer goes to Ceylon, *en route* to Madras and Calcutta. If, however, the traveller is bound to Bombay, he embarks in one of the smaller steamers belonging to the East-India Company, and proceeds to his destination direct. The Bombay steamers are neither so commodious nor so expeditious as those belonging to the Oriental and Peninsular Company, but they are sufficiently comfortable for a short trip, and are seldom crowded with passengers.

We now arrive in India; for a description of the principal places in which, the reader is referred to subsequent pages.

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TRAVELLING IN INDIA—LAND TRAVELLING.

There are but two methods of travelling by land in India, on horseback or in a palankeen. The former method is tedious if only one or two horses be used, and even with relays can only be safely and comfortably prosecuted during the mornings before sunrise, or in the evenings when the sun has much declined; while the latter enables the traveller to pursue his journey unintermittingly throughout the twenty-four hours. Nevertheless, the horse is very generally used for economy's sake, by officers proceeding to join their regiments, and often from the necessity of accompanying detachments of corps on duty; and in very short trips it is frequently adopted from choice, especially when the distance can be accomplished with a single halt, if relays of horses are provided by friends. In marching—as the travelling on horseback by daily stages of twelve, fifteen, or twenty miles is called—it is customary to send on your servants one march in advance, with tent, bedding, tent-furniture, canteen, &c. &c., so as to give time for your tent to be pitched and your breakfast to be prepared by the time you may reach the ground yourself. In the different villages, no difficulty is experienced in procuring fowls, eggs, milk, rice, and the common vegetables of the country; but everything else, such as tea, coffee, dried or preserved meats, sauces, spices, wine, beer, &c., must be procured at one of the principal towns in sufficient quantities to last a week, or even much longer; for though these things can be obtained on the route, they are necessarily more expensive, owing to the cost of carriage from the presidency. Food and fodder for your cattle are always available, at prices varying with the character or fertility of the country in which the halt may be made. Having arrived at your ground, and refreshed yourself with a nap or a meal, or both, you may, if the sun be not too powerful, proceed, gun in hand, to a neighbouring jheel or tank (lake or pond), or piece of stubble-land, and shoot for a few hours. Snipe, wild fowl, quail, partridges, and hares, abound (according to the season) in most parts of India, and not unfrequently the sportsman's toil is rewarded with a florican, a jungle-cock, or even a bustard. No par-

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ticular costume, differing from the dress of every-day life in India, is requisite on the march, but it will be prudent to wear a sola topee, or hat composed of the soft pulp of a tree, or a straw hat covered with white cotton cloth or feathers; and a pair of jack-boots will be serviceable as protecting the legs while riding, and also in wandering in covers or along the edges of swamps or tanks. Should the traveller possess nothing of the sportsman's ardour, he may advantageously spend a little time beyond the walls of his tent, in inspecting the temples, serais, and other works of art in the neighbourhood, or in observing the usages of the people in the surrounding villages. He must be scrupulously careful, however, of committing any act of aggression, or of violating any of the prejudices of caste or religion; for though the people are, generally speaking, civil, if not obsequious and timid, they will not scruple to assemble in a body and assault a solitary and unprotected individual, if provoked thereto by an offensive interference with their usages. Injury done to a cow, the death of a monkey or a peacock, or entrance into a temple booted and spurred, are amongst the outrages of which the Hindoo, in different parts of India, is peculiarly intolerant. Travelling by *dawk*, or post, as the trip in a palankeen is designated, involves more fatigue and expense than the method of moving across the country just described, and is by no means so independent, seeing that all the stoppages must be settled beforehand and adhered to; but it has the advantage of very superior expedition. Preparatory to setting out on a journey, a palankeen must be purchased, and fitted up so as to enable its tenant to have a few books, his shaving and washing apparatus, a canister of biscuits, a bottle and glass, a drinking-cup, a little additional night clothing—a few books and his writing materials always at hand. A good strong palankeen may be procured for less than 100 rupees (10*l.*), and can always be disposed of at the end of the journey, if the owner have no further occasion for it. The clothes of the traveller, and such articles as he does not immediately require, are carried in tin boxes, or wicker baskets, called pettarahs, by separate bearers, who run ahead or alongside of the palankeen; and these pettarahs may be procured in any number at the chief towns and stations at a very slight cost. Of money it will be necessary to carry in *silver* as much as will be required for the expenses of the

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entire journey, especially if the route lies through different territories; for the civil officers of the respective presidencies, and the residents (envoys) at native courts, have no pecuniary relations with each other. It will be also advisable to carry a considerable number of the smaller coins of eight and four annas, as gratuities to boatmen who ferry you across the small nullahs or rivers, and to the palankeen-bearers (called hammals at Bombay), at each stage; for in many parts of the country these latter people are paid so irregularly, or kept so much in arrears, that their very subsistence depends upon the bounty of the dawk traveller. Eight annas (one shilling) at each stage for the entire set of bearers, is, however, as much as is ever expected in the way of bonus. When the traveller is prepared to set out, his first business is to write to the postmaster-general, stating how many bearers he would like to have (twelve is the usual number, but it is sometimes reduced to eight when no great expedition is requisite), how many banghy-bearers for his pettarahs, where he proposes to stop, and for how many hours. The postmaster then writes to the different villages and post stations, ordering relays to be posted at the appointed hours, and intimates to you the amount to be paid to the limits of the presidency, including a deposit (afterwards refunded), on account of possible demurrage. A mussaul (called in Bengal a mussalchee), or torch-bearer, is added to the number, and his duty is to carry a flambeau during the night. The flambeau is composed of twisted hemp, fed with oil from a hollow bamboo, likewise carried by the mussaul.

A horse dawk—that is to say, a palankeen on wheels and drawn by horses—is established along the great trunk road from Calcutta to the Upper Provinces, but it has not become sufficiently general in India to be spoken of here as part of a system. The particulars, as to expense, rate of travelling, &c., may be ascertained by parties at Calcutta.

A letter of introduction will insure the traveller the hospitable attentions of any one of the residents; but failing this, or in case of the necessity or the inclination for a rapid journey, the dawk bungalow affords accommodation. A dawk, or staging bungalow, is a small house standing generally a few yards off the high road, at intervals of about fifteen miles in those parts of the country most frequently traversed, and at greater intervals in less frequented districts. It usually

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consists of a thatched or tile-roofed house of one floor, raised a few feet from the ground, and divided into two small rooms, to each of which a bathing-room is attached. A verandah runs round three sides of the building, and there are out-offices for cooking, &c. Two servants constantly reside at each bungalow, one acting in the double capacity of khitmutgar, or table servant and cook, and the other as a bearer or mussalchee. While the former prepares such a repast as his farm-yard and private stores will allow, the latter procures jars of cold water, and assists the traveller to perform his toilette. These bungalows are under the control of some government officer at a neighbouring station, and a book is kept in which the visitor (who pays one rupee for the use of a bungalow for any time short of twenty-four hours) records any complaints he may have to make of the attendance of the domestics, the state of the building, &c.

RAILWAY TRAVELLING

Is a luxury as yet but very partially enjoyed in India. The Bombay, or "Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company," is the only one that has commenced operations. The line to Tannah (twenty-one miles) was opened in the month of May, 1853; and it is believed that before this edition is in the hands of the British public, the road will have been extended to Callian (thirty-five miles), whence it is to be carried to Shahpoor, on the Tull Ghaut road, eighteen miles beyond Callian. Ultimately, it is intended to bifurcate the line, one portion proceeding in a south-easterly direction, to be united to the Madras line, and the other in a north-easterly direction, to form a junction with the East-India Railway, at Allahabad.

The Madras Railway has just been commenced. The first sod was turned up in June, 1853. It is intended to construct fifty miles of rail to Menin, in the first instance, and then to go on to Vaniembady, in the direction of Salem.

The East-Indian Railway, now actively in course of construction, will go from Calcutta to Rajmahal, thence to Allahabad, and ultimately to Lahore.

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RIVER TRAVELLING.

Although several of the rivers in India are navigable for boats of considerable burthen, those alone on which Europeans are accustomed to travel are the Ganges and its tributaries (the Hooghly, the Bhaugurattee, the Jumna), and the Indus. Running as does the first through a populous and most important section of the British dominions in India, it connects many of the principal civil and military stations with the seat of the Supreme Government; while the Indus affords an easy channel of communication between the extreme point of the north-west possessions and the island of Bombay, passing the provinces and chief towns in Scinde. The traffic on these rivers is immense. By the Ganges the entire produce of Europe, Southern India, the Eastern Archipelago, and China, is distributed upwards between Calcutta, Benares, and Allahabad, and carried from the latter town to the great north-western cities of Lucknow, Agra, Delhi, and the stations of Cawnpore and Meerut, &c., &c.; while the return boats convey to the capital and the cities on the river's banks the raw cotton, piece goods, rich stuffs, grain, horses, indigo, sugar, and the thousand smaller commodities and fabrics produced in the interior. The boats on the Indus are freighted, on their voyage from the mouth of the river to the frontier station of Ferozepore, with the commerce of the Persian and Arabian Gulfs, Cutch, Western India, and so much of the products of Europe and of China, procurable in the Bombay market, as are available to Scinde, the Punjaub, and Upper India. The downward cargoes consist of the produce of the three latter states and provinces, and of Affghanistan and Cashmere. There are two methods of travelling on the Ganges, namely, the flat-bottomed vessels towed by iron steamers, and by pinnaces or budgerows, constructed much after the fashion of the royal or civic barges which float on the Thames, but with the addition of a mast and sails, and sometimes boasting a schooner rig, or the more ambitious equipment of a Lilliputian brig. The rapidity with which the steamer-led flats effect their voyages gives them a preference over the sailing-boat, a preference which is somewhat strengthened by the attractions of society; but where great expedition is not a material object, and where it

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may be of importance, or a matter of inclination, to visit the principal stations on the river-route, or necessary to convey a family and a large quantity of baggage, the budgerow or pinnace should be selected.

The flats, or accommodation-boats, consist of sixteen cabins ranged on either side of the vessel. These are divided into three classes, and cost respectively for the entire trip from Calcutta to Allahabad (at the confluence of the Ganges and Jumna), 300, 250, and 200 rupees. The charge for the downward trip is much less, because the course of the stream assists the progress of the vessel and essentially shortens the voyage. Besides the sum paid for the cabin, the passenger is charged three rupees per diem for his table, which consists of a substantial breakfast, a luncheon, dinner, and tea. All wines, beer, spirituous liquors, &c., are paid for separately, and at rather exorbitant rates. The baggage and furniture requisite for the trip (there is none of the latter to be found in the government boats), must be carried in the cabin; the remainder is placed below in a species of hold, and is not available until the end of the voyage. The superior cabins, however, are sufficiently spacious to contain all that the traveller may require, those of the first class being between twelve and a half feet long, the second nine and a half, and both eight and a half in breadth. The third-class cabins are but five feet and a half in length, and are consequently only adapted to persons of an inferior grade of life. Every passenger is allowed to take with him one servant free of cost for his passage; his diet, if he be a Mussulman, being paid for to the master of the flat, at the rate of four annas (sixpence) per diem. Hindoo servants diet themselves, to which end they disembark every evening when the vessel comes to an anchor. The ordinary length of the entire passage of these boats is three weeks. They stop every three or four days at different stations on the river's banks to take in coal, which is carried in the steam tug only, and deliver and receive packages. This affords the passengers a brief opportunity of seeing a little of the country beyond what can be discerned from the deck of the vessel during the trip. The steam tugs attached to the accommodation or flat boats are of iron, and propelled each by two engines of thirty-horse power; they are connected with the flat by hawsers and a beam, five-and-

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twenty feet in length, and a foot in width, which answers the double purpose of a medium of communication between the two vessels at all hours, and a protection from the risk of collision when the steamer happens to ground or to slacken her speed too suddenly. The greater part of these steamers and their attendant flats are the property of the government, at the office of whose superintending officer passages should be engaged; but the great demand for conveyance to the interior by vessels of this kind, and the enormous prices charged by the government for freight and passage, has led certain private individuals to place upon the same line steamers which convey the commercial freight and passengers at a much lower rate and with far greater expedition. The success of the experiment has also induced other parties to form themselves into a company, and invest a large capital in river steamers.

Parties who, for the reasons given above, prefer effecting their voyage to their appointed station in a budgerow or pinnace, will do well to address themselves to any of the boat-agents in Calcutta, stating the number of persons requiring accommodation (more than three will be inconvenient), the distance to be travelled, the quantity of baggage to be taken. The expense varies with the number of oars required.

Two or three officers engaging the largest description of boat will find the cost of the native trip, whithersoever they may be bound, fall short of the boat-allowance granted them by the government. The clubbing together is, therefore, not merely agreeable, as ensuring social intercourse during a long and somewhat wearisome pilgrimage, but commendable as a piece of economy. In addition to the budgerow, a dinghy, or covered native row-boat, is required as an attendant kitchen; for the culinary process on board the budgerow would be both disagreeable and inconvenient.

The furniture of the boat should be of a permanently valuable quality; that is to say, it should consist of articles convertible to useful purposes after the voyage has been completed. Accordingly, the officer would do well to provide himself with a camp-table, a camp-stool or folding-chair, a charpoy or bedstead, the bottom of which consists of broad tape or sacking, laced and stretched crosswise, and therefore not only less liable to injury than a cane or wooden bottom, but more easily replaced when worn out, and at all times sus-

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ceptible of washing; a copper basin (called a guindy at Bombay, and a chillumchee in Bengal), and folding tripod for its support; a narrow carpet, or rug; a hanging lamp (that which he had on board of ship, if he had gone to India in a sailing vessel, will do); a canteen, bullock or camel trunks, a *chaise percée*, and one or two morahs, or stools. All articles beyond these, in the furniture way, are positive superfluities. Of the articles requisite for the table, the toilet, and the pastime of the *voyageur*, it is not easy to give general instructions, because, beyond the mere necessaries of life, the quantity and description of these things will so materially depend upon individual taste and means. A good head-servant, or *khitmutghar*, will take care to provide poultry, eggs, milk, rice, spices, and vegetables, as the boat reaches towns and villages on the river's banks; but everything else must be procured at the starting-place; and it should be borne in mind, by persons going upwards from Calcutta, that it is good economy to lay in store for the entire voyage, inasmuch as all articles, the produce of Europe, augment in price in proportion to the distance from the metropolis whence they are carried. Wines, malt and spirituous liquors, preserves, cheeses, pickles, &c., sealed meats, hams, tongues, pickles, &c., cost, at Benares, double the price paid at the presidency, treble when they are sold at Cawnpore, and so on. The *ennui* consequent upon the confinement on board a budgerow, during the entire day, makes the possession of certain articles, otherwise luxuries and superfluities, a matter of essential importance to the traveller. Thus, a good double-barrelled fowling-piece will be requisite to ensure a little sport on shore before sunrise and after sunset. Drawing materials will serve to while away a few hours in sketching the scenery on the banks, the costumes of the people, the boats on the river.

Books, a chess and backgammon board, and musical instruments, supply endless entertainment; and it will be no bad plan if the beginner were to apply himself to the study of the language of the country, with the help of Forbes's Grammar, Dictionary, and the Bagh-o-Behar. The boatmen and native servants do not speak the purest Hindostanee nor the least exceptionable Bengalee; but there is nothing lost by acquiring a familiarity with a *patois*, which, in the common intercourse of life, is perhaps of more importance than

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the undefiled language taught by the best philologists, and used at courts, and in the transaction of public business.

With respect to costume, money, and the attention which it is important to pay to native prejudices and customs, the same remarks hold good as have been offered in the section of hints for dawk travellers and persons on the march; it is needless, therefore, to repeat them. One word only: in the treatment of native servants on the river voyages, it is advisable to combine the greatest strictness with the most perfect forbearance. Look well into the khitmutghar's accounts; trust him with no more money than is really wanted at the different halting-places; insist upon the most deferential and respectful demeanour, neither permitting familiar speech nor a disregard of cleanliness and propriety of costume; require a correct return every evening of your plate, table-linen, and dusters, and exact payment for every piece of crockery or glass carelessly broken, and every article or other fabric alleged to be lost. The neglect of these matters at the commencement renders servants dirty, impertinent, and dishonest, and involves more serious loss than would at first thought be conceived. On the other hand, be careful of striking a servant for *any* offence he may commit; for, in the first place, it is cowardly to raise a hand to one who is incapable of physical retort; and, in the second, it places the offending servant in the advantageous position of a prosecutor for a species of assault which is always severely visited by the Company's courts of law. Another disadvantage attending a resort to the *argumentum baculinum* is the tolerable certainty of the servant's quitting the boat under cover of the night, leaving the inexperienced traveller perfectly helpless, at a great distance from any station where the services of the man can be replaced. You must bear patiently with the offending domestic on the occasion of misconduct, reserving vengeance for a suitable opportunity of appealing to a local magistrate and of supplying the place of the discarded servant.

A voyage up or down the Indus is accomplished, at present, with less comfort and facility than a trip on the Ganges, by reason of the ignorance of the boat-owners of European ideas of comfort, the comparative rarity of the trip, the destitute state of the scattered villages upon either bank, and the freebooting propensities of the people of Scinde and

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the Punjaub. Small steamers ply on the Indus; but, apart from their occasional detention on the business of the government by whom they are maintained, they are liable to get upon some of the numerous sand-banks with which the river abounds, and to remain there for a considerable time. A resort to the Sutledge boats (when the voyage is to be made downwards) is, therefore, prudent, if not unavoidable. These are long and clumsy, and are not propelled at a greater rate than one mile an hour, if so much, while the current carries them two miles per hour. A late author, who made the voyage down in one, describes their form as resembling that of a Thames coal-barge. The stern, however, is greatly elevated, and the steersman stands thereon working a broad paddle as a rudder, assisted by two men, who use oars. The passenger occupies the entire length of the boat between the stem and the stern, in a rude apartment made of bamboos and strong grass, thirteen or fourteen feet in length, and rather more than half that space in breadth. The boats carry one mast and a sail, removable at pleasure; and when the wind is foul, they are tracked along shore by the boatmen; a usage, by the way, equally common upon the Ganges. The boat hire averages five-and-forty rupees per mensem, and it is always made a condition by the owners, that the boat be engaged for a period sufficiently long to enable her to return to her starting-point: thus, a voyage of a fortnight's duration will cost as much as if it lasted three months; and if it be engaged down to the sea, it is charged for at the rate of a six months' trip. The price paid includes the charge for the crew, and, "indeed, every expense but the thatching, which costs the traveller twenty rupees in addition." In respect to the supplies requisite during the voyage, rather more foresight will be requisite than in the case of a Ganges trip, for, excepting Bhawulpore, Sukker, and Hyderabad, there is not a place on either side of the rivers Sutledge and Indus where anything can be procured. Rice, eggs, flour, oil, milk, and butter, must, in the Sutledge, form part of the traveller's original stock, as they are not to be obtained at the miserable villages of Scinde and the Punjaub. In respect to the furniture of the boats, and the articles generally requisite, the suggestions offered above may be considered entirely applicable, with

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this addition, that when on the Sutledge and Indus fire-arms are perhaps useful; on the Ganges they are by no means necessary.

TRAVELLING BY SEA.

The occasion for this mode of transit from one part of India to another is so rare that it scarcely seems necessary to offer any special advice.

It is only when gentlemen are proceeding from port to port on the Malabar and Coromandel coasts, that it becomes essential, in the absence of a steamer, or a sailing free-trader, or country ship, to engage a pattamar, or large sea-going boat. When such are resorted to, the provision to be made will resemble that which has been recommended for the river voyages, though on a much more moderate scale, as the trips along the coast seldom occupy many days. The amount of passage money will materially depend upon the circumstances of the vessel. If the pattamar be already laden with cargo for the coasts, the proportion of accommodation set apart for the passengers will not cost so much as if the boat had been specifically engaged to carry a party from one port to another. Water and fuel are always included in the charge for the passage in either case, but all else must be taken on board.

In proceeding by a sailing vessel or steamer to join a regiment or a civil employment (the only occasion on which duty will call any public servant from the continent of India), in Burmah, at Moulmein, Arracan, Penang, Malacca, or Aden, the officer will be furnished with a passage by the government, and this will include cabin, table, &c., in the same degree, and after the same manner, as in the case of a voyage from England in a sailing vessel. The sole care of the passenger will be to furnish himself with such articles as may be scarce and dear at the station to which he is ordered, more especially those which are produced in England; for the prices thereof, always high at the several presidencies, become exorbitant when the charges of further exportation and the profit of the retailer come to be added.

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SECTION IV.

SOCIETY, SOCIAL HABITS, AND DOMESTIC EXPENDITURE IN INDIA.

In the great majority of instances, it happens that those of our countrymen who go to India to seek their fortunes, do so at a period of life too early to have allowed of their seeing much society at home, and consequently with too little experience of it to have formed any judgment that can enable them to compare it with the social system which they find established in the land of promise to which they have been led. But to those who do visit India in the maturity of life, and who have been accustomed to move in the good circles of England, the contrast must be striking, and, we apprehend, unfavourable to the Anglo-Indian community.

The men and women who chiefly compose the society leave home in their immaturity. The conditions of the Company's service render this, for the most part, indispensable, as regards their own servants; and the residents, whose daughters are being educated in the parent country, have a double inducement for getting them quickly out; first, the great cost of maintaining them at home, and secondly, the fear that, if they are old when they arrive, there will be "nobody coming to marry them;" and that, consequently, the life-provision which was looked forward to, will have passed beyond their reach for ever and for ever. The men and women of Indian society, then, may be said to leave the home of their fathers as merely boys and girls, green in mind though blooming in person, and almost totally deficient in the knowledge of society, and what constitutes either its conveniences or its charms. Then, there is no such thing in India as a class of persons of easy fortune, who depend not on any kind of daily labour for their bread, and who need only concern themselves in public business as far as it suits their dispositions or their fancy so to do, but who have the means of commanding the literary and social *agrémens* of life, and the

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talent to thoroughly appreciate the former mental luxury, and even of adding to the abundance of its supply.

But in all that we have said, it must be borne in mind that we are comparing the Indian presidencies with London, and that they *must* lose most grievously in the comparison. Rarely revisiting their native land (though the power of steam is gradually obviating that disadvantage), residents in India necessarily degenerate, in an intellectual sense, and also in what are regarded as good manners and social habits in England, and their minds and judgments become contracted by a life of monotonous routine, in respect to European subjects of mental cultivation, so that they are at last not only backward, but bigoted, in many such respects; and are looked upon, whenever they do revisit their native land, as conceited and ill-informed beyond what they really are. From having long ceased to see and know the *best* of everything in sciences, arts, and the minor elegancies of life, they come to have an incompetent standard by which to estimate things in these various departments; and thus the best painter, the best singer, the best actor, the best scholar, the best horseman, the best musician, the best speaker, the best anything, in fact, in *India*, is taken to be the best of the kind respectively in the world; and we have known old Indians, by no means deficient in understanding, who, even after a visit to London, could not bring their minds to see the superiority of really superior things, because they had been so long accustomed to meaner criteria of perfection.

Another circumstance which prevents the tone of the Anglo-Indian's mind from acquiring strength, or his mind itself from preserving its elasticity, is the humdrum nature of the only society he has. Dine where you will in Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, you are sure to meet either the same people, or some of the same people, or all in all, the same description of people; so that your faculties have no new exercise, nothing to polish or to keep them keen; no new range, or species, of intellect to encounter; and thus they become either rusted, or stiffened, or worn, by one kind of constant use, into such unwhetstonable bluntness, that they are past all renewing by the time they come into collision with the better-exercised minds of England, and are bewildered, or soured, or stupified, by the too-late discovery.

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Regarding those divertisements of society which are strictly social without being strictly private. Calcutta, at least, is not without its variety. Of these, the re-unions, held during the cold season in the Town Hall, are the first in rank, as being the most exclusive. Subscribers to them must belong to the Government-House list—a range of admission which varies under every new reign—or be passed by the "Committee of Reference," which is empowered to decide upon all claims, and which is rigid in its scrutiny. Besides these, there occur in the course of every cold season some events which are deemed important enough to deserve especial celebration. Some locally great personage is going away, or some new governor is arriving, or some domestico-political anniversary is coming round, or the bachelors think the ladies should have an entertainment, or something or other there is sure to be, which will serve as a peg to hang a public dinner or a public ball upon. Then there are the races, and concerts, and fancy fairs; and as these shows are always well attended by the temporary visitors, whose new faces also serve to allure the listless residents of *pseudo* ton to the same haunts, the city may be said to be a scene of great vivacity and amusement between November and March —indemnifying people, in some measure, for the lethargic in-door lives they have led during the previous months of caloric, and re-energizing them to again sustain the same infliction during the season which is approaching. At Bombay, the pastimes of the cold weather nearly correspond with those of Calcutta, excepting that they have an amateur theatre. At Madras, the entertainments, bating the races, and an occasional equestrian circus, are purely private.

In India, almost every man is a man of business—of laborious daily business, so great, that it amounts almost to a physical miracle how in such a climate the work can be performed by the natives of other lands—and he at last becomes so mentally interwoven with his official duty, that he can think of nothing else in the hours when he is disengaged from the drudgery of his desk; thus, "the shop" forms the staple of his social converse, and virtually banishes the superior orders of intellectual recreation. At the presidencies, there are two distinct *classes* of society, though each have various intermingling branches; those are the persons having

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the right or privilege of public *entrée* to the Government Houses, and those who neither possess the right, nor are allowed the privilege. All persons in the civil and military services of the Queen or East-India Company have the *right* here mentioned, without any reference to their several ranks or salaries; and the *privilege* is more or less extensively disseminated throughout the principal merchants, the law profession, the gentlemen of the Press, the uncovenanted servants, the East Indians, and the natives themselves. This grand line of demarcation, however, has no avowed practical influence in the arrangements of the general society; where individuals constantly meet at private tables, who can never see each other at the Government-House assemblies. Again, the gentlemen of different classes meet on terms of intimacy in cases where the ladies of the higher grade will not mingle with the wives of their husbands' occasional companions in the lower—an exception which holds in London as well as in Calcutta, and which necessarily arises out of the intercourse of business. But the "trail of the serpent," which is all over Indian society, is the official *hauteur* of men who in England would be esteemed as very ordinary persons, but who have the weakness to imagine that the extrinsic circumstance of their being counsellors, secretaries, judges, magistrates, or staff officers, is sufficient to exalt them in the social scale, and to command a deference to which their intrinsic qualities would give them no extraordinary title.

But it must be confessed that, even where society is not infested by these important personages, it falls, intellectually, far below the festive or other social re-unions, which render London and continental society in various ways so charming. The labours of the day have wearied the body, and there is no new stimulus to invigorate the mind. The pursuits of the official day are uppermost in all men's minds; and opium, indigo, or banking; Government regulations, decrees, or correspondence; military orders, appointments, or allowances; or something or other immediately connected with the political or commercial proceedings of the period, form the heavy staple of after-dinner talk, bringing the honey-heavy dew of slumber on the weary lids of the new arrival, and sending him home convinced or informed of nothing but that the party had been dull, and that the intercourse of tongues had

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not added one grain of wheat to his intellectual granary. Subjects of light conversation are of great rarity. Exhibitions, operas, plays, fair *débutantes*, literary or fashionable gossip, and the encounter of wit which these topics call forth, are nearly all wanting to the Indian community, every one of whom is known to every one in such a degree as to leave nothing tellable about men in any way locally eminent which all do not know already.

Yet, with all this characteristic (for, alas! it is not merely occasional) dulness and uninstructiveness of social life, it need not appear paradoxical to the reflecting reader if we assert, that in no community of like numerical proportion, is a greater amount of general ability, strong sense, and individual cleverness to be found, than exists among the European gentry of our Eastern capital.

Almost every one who comes to India, in the rank of life to which alone our observations are to be understood to apply, soon makes himself at home. If he be an officer in the Queen's or Company's service, his sojourn at the capital will necessarily be brief—say a month at the utmost, unless his regiment be stationed there—and in that case it would be lost labour to endeavour by a round of visits to establish himself among the permanent residents on terms of equal sociality. He will soon form acquaintances among those of his own class, and will receive the hospitality of the mess in the barracks,* or of some brother sub, who will instruct him in auction and bazaar purchases, horse-flesh, dogs, and the coarser species of local scandal—in the "life," in fact, of that warm-hearted, careless, and practically philosophical section of the Anglo-Indian people. If he be of the class who are at once permanently settled at the presidencies, and who are at the same time admissible to the well-defined, yet apparently confused, circle of society to which we are adverting—if, for example, he be a member of the bar, and properly introduced as such, he will make his round of calls (for the stranger, excepting at Bombay, must call on the residents, by way of a beginning) on the principal inhabitants, and will in due course find the civility returned, and that again followed by the formal procedure of an invitation to dinner; after

* At each presidency there is a fortress containing barracks for two or three thousand men.

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which he will naturally fall into a mixed society of his own professional *kith*, and the less constantly busy, and consequently more accessible, persons of the various services, the merchants, &c., and may lead "a very merry, hey-down-derry, sort of life enough," and yet one which shall not interrupt his proper pursuits of business. Strictly speaking, there are no "idlers" at either Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, unless it be the few officers who are on leave of absence, and the young writers who are studying the language!

The Indian hospitality, in its olden phase, has almost totally disappeared, and consequently there are not now any of those sheep and bullock dinners, or *burra khanahs*, round which from forty to eighty guests assembled, and which certainly had an air of grandeur to the unaccustomed eye, and which was supported at an expense totally incompatible with the more modern system of living. Now-a-days, a party of twenty (excepting at a mess) is considered large, and the usual number varies from eight to sixteen—the medium quantity being, perhaps, the one oftenest collected.

The wane of hospitality, which introduced respectable hotels, made at the same time an opening for boarding and lodging houses—things unheard of even in Calcutta thirty years ago; while the "publics" above mentioned are, as elsewhere, the resort of the occasional visitants, who find good accommodation in them, on reasonable terms, and are thus saved "a world of woe" in establishing themselves on their own accounts for the few months, or perhaps weeks, of their oppidan existence. The interiors of the private houses are all so alike, in the arrangement of the rooms, the verandahs, and the portion of furnishing, that he who has seen two or three of the medium size and style will find scarcely any variety in an inspection of the rest. The houses of the richer classes may contain better chairs and couches than those of their less affluent fellow-citizens—mahogany instead of imitative toon, jackwood or blackwood, or the lighter-coloured but polishable and well-grained teak; and the punkahs of Dives may be more elaborately gilded than those of the poorer householder; while the silk or damask of his couches may parade it somewhat more finely than the chintz of the inferior. The wall-shades, too, may be better (probably not proportionately more numerous), by having drops to them, or

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double branches, and richer chandeliers may aid in illuminating the rooms of the wealthier inhabitant; but *the way of doing the thing* is the same in all, and the want of what in England is considered perfect elegance is as observable in the Government-Houses as in the more limited mansion of him whose monthly income (for in India all incomes, whether yearly or otherwise, are paid *by the month*) may vary from 500 to 1,000 of the Company's rupees.

Every person who keeps house has his service of plate—more or less extensive, according to his station; but well-cleaned plate is a thing not to be met with among high or low. The servants have not the method of imparting to it that brilliancy of polish which causes it in England to add so greatly to the beauty of a dinner-table; and the same remark is applicable to the glass-ware. So much for an outline sketch of the domestic economy.

In regard to apparel, a few remarks will suffice. From March till October, the European clothes himself in a white cotton jacket, like a barber's or a footman's, in the morning, and decorates himself in broad-cloth for the remainder of the twelvemonth. As to the general nature of his other habits, if he reside in town, or at one of the large stations, it is pretty accurately as follows:—He rises early—the lark having no start of him—and in the cold season proceeds to take a fresh-air gallop, or, if he be a subscriber to a hunt, he "goes to the dogs" in that way. In the warm weather, as he must return home soon after the sun is up, he usually undresses, puts on his *pajamas* (the loose Turkish trouser), drinks iced soda-water, lies down on the couch, novel or newspaper in hand, and in all human probability goes to sleep, in spite of all the cawing of crows (for India is as full of them as a rookery is of rooks), the creaking of wheels, the shrill cry of kites, and the general native bustle; rises, bathes, and dresses, so as to have breakfast over by ten—the said meal consisting, at all seasons, of rice, fried fish, eggs, omelette, preserves, tea, coffee, &c., more in the fashion of a Scotch than an English matutinal recreation—and soon after goes to the counting-house or office, and there labours assiduously till four or five o'clock in his vocation, when he returns home and undresses himself, to prepare, by a new course of bathing and toileting, for the evening drive, to see "the order of the course." Every one keeps a horse,—

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to be had of all sorts, sizes, and prices, from the pony (familiarly called *tat*—corruption of the native name for the small animal, *tattoo*), at from thirty up to two hundred rupees, to the horse, *par excellence*, of which the price varies from the last-mentioned sum up to two, five, and even ten thousand rupees, according to his qualities and the uses for which the purchaser may intend him. Also do all men keep buggies, at the least—a buggy being a one-horse vehicle, combining something of the advantages and appearance with but little of the style, of the Stanhope cabriolet (at Madras they call it a *bandy*)—and, in addition to this, a singly-blessed merchant, or government official, keeps unto himself a palankeen carriage (called, at Bombay, a *shigrampo*), which carries him to and from office, and is just a larger (not always even a larger) sort of palankeen, mounted on wheels, and drawn by one horse, or by two horses, instead of being carried upon four men's shoulders. Married persons of even minor condition keep their carriages, which are not thirty pounds per annum more expensive than the buggy, and which are constantly to be had for private sale, or at auctions, horses and all, for from about a hundred and fifty to three hundred pounds. The evening drive has no recommendation beyond that of passing the most disagreeable hour of the day in inhaling coolish air; for you meet the same faces, the same equipages, and receive and make the same formal bows, almost every evening, and the mind derives no refreshment, save what goes to it through the body. The drive is succeeded by a languid sort of dinner, and the whole community are asleep before eleven.

In England, where business of every kind—political, commercial, and miscellaneous—is in so great a measure (as is known to be the case) carried on by means of oral communications, it will excite surprise to learn how little is thus transacted in the metropolis of India; and any mercantile man arriving there and at once entering upon his vocation, would at first not comprehend the necessity for the apparently time-wasting system which we are going to describe, and which we shall denominate the CHIT-SYSTEM. The word *chit* is a corruption of the Hindee term *chit hee* (loosely pronounced *chitty*), which in English means "a letter," be the same short or long; for they have no such epistolary distinction there as corresponds with our "notes,"

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"letters," &c., all kinds of letters being indicated by the one common epithet. Throughout the British eastern territories, then, verbal messages, by servants, are almost totally unknown, and wholly so on matters of any importance; so that *chits* are flying about the town all day, and a particular class of servants, called peons, or sepoys, are kept in very constant employment as the bearers of these despatches. Written generally in haste, not commonly on matters of consequence, many having to be written every day, and the bearers being unable to master their contents, a slovenly habit has been naturally fallen into of despatching them carelessly folded, written on scraps of paper, and despatched unwafered or unsealed. The system itself is, we apprehend, inevitable, for the climate does not admit of the constant running about of Europeans themselves: their Eurasian clerks cannot go a hundred yards without incurring the cost of a palankeen. The English can rarely speak the native language well enough to enable them to intercommunicate by means of native servants; and there would be various objections to trusting a native with the purport of such communications even where some of the baboos, sircars, purvoes, and others of that genus, can converse with sufficient comprehensiveness in English for the purpose. In the cold season, more, of course, is done by personal intercourse than in the *housing* times of the year; but even shopping of all kinds is principally carried on by *chits*, and for borrowing a book, as much as for borrowing a thousand rupees, a *chit* has to be written, and a *chit* answer returned, in the event of the loan not being accorded. Where a *chit* requires no answer, or where an affirmative rejoinder needs no explanation (such as where one accepts a friendly invitation to dinner), then the word *salaam*, sent by the messenger to his master, serves the several purposes of an acknowledgment of, or a receipt for, the *chit*, and an acquiescence in the request it contained.*

We have hitherto been speaking of the gentleman *chit* affairs; those of the ladies are the same in principle, but, oh! how dissimilar in practice! We think we do not exaggerate when we say that every lady of *ton* at either presi-

* Men of business send their *chits*, for the most part, in a book, in which is written the name of the *sendee*, who puts his initials opposite thereto, and thus supplies a voucher of the safe delivery, in case he answers not the communication on the instant.

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dency has to write, on an average, two thousand *chits* per annum; but in theirs is observable none of the slovenliness which characterizes the bulk of the masculine dealings in the same industrious line.

Another usage, which cannot fail to strike a newly-arrived emigrant with surprise, but which he will find to be in many respects convenient, and scarcely at all perplexing, is the extent and variety of street-traffic which will be forced upon his notice as he lolls in his palankeen. In London, there is a species and degree of this retail trade, to be sure, in the shape of fruit-stalls, stick-exhibitions, oyster-stands, old-book temptations, and wandering Jews—but they are only tolerated by the municipality; whereas in Calcutta there is no right of interference with the out-door race, and as regards "Europe" articles, they are all perambulatory. Hats, stocks, boots, shoes, books of all descriptions—new and old, standard and ephemeral, costly and cheap; prints, boxes of every species of the Geneva writing-desk, tea-caddy, and work-box; jewellery, forest-birds, looking-glasses, toys, guinea-pigs, footstools, dogs, ivory articles, whips of all sorts, fringe-work, shells, pedlary, perfumery—in a word, almost every portable thing, after its kind, is to be had from the street venders, at rates which seem to baffle all doctrines of production-cost, and as good as the same kind of wares, &c., can be had in the native shops.

As we speak of the sporting amusements of Calcutta elsewhere, we shall in this place only mention one or two of the recreations which belong to the class called pic-nics, and which occasionally break through the business monotony of a Calcutta life. A day at Barrackpore Park, which is a lovely piece of ground, and in which the Government keep up a menagerie and aviary, allows the mind a holiday which it often stands in need of; and as the settledness of the weather between November and March is uniform, there is a great deal of cordial enjoyment derivable from such excursions, where the party is well assorted. The party can go by land and return by water, or *vice versâ*, and thus obtain a variation of travel which, in returning especially from these exciting excursions, is well adapted to keep the mind from flagging, or feeling jaded, by its long and unusual state of joyous excitation. In the opposite direction—to wit, *down* the river Hooghly—the Company's Botanic Gardens are a

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favourite resort of all classes of the community upon Saturdays and Sundays.

But what are termed the Doorga Pooja holidays, which usually commence about the middle of September, and last eight or ten days, form the period of time which admits extended excursions of almost all classes of men of business from the metropolis, and there is as much deadness then in Calcutta as there is in London at or near the same time of the year. The Hindoo natives lay aside all kind of business, save what daily necessity renders it indispensable to pursue, and shops and offices are shut up, or their tradeful hum and bustle all but stagnated, while that great religious ceremonial is in course of being observed. Then the European merchant, the clerk, the official, the lawyer, the shopkeeper, and artisan, all absent themselves; some for several days, and some for a few weeks, in the certainty that competition cannot be active while they are gone, and that the general stagnation is such, that little could be profited by their remaining at their business. Pinnaces and budgerows are then hired for trips into the Mofussil, and the planters residing contiguous to the banks of the river are glad of an opportunity of offering hospitality to those who, in the later period of the cold season, readily open their doors to them when they visit the presidency.

The holiday amusements of the residents at Bombay are more limited than those of the inhabitants of Calcutta; but they are very delightful of their kind. The island of Elephanta, and its curious subterranean temples, the islands of Salsette, Gorabunder, and Bassein, all abounding with picturesque scenery, antiquities, and remains of the Portuguese dominion, are reached in two or three hours' sail, or in a land journey of briefer duration. Livery stable-keepers supply excellent carriages and horses to those who have not cattle of their own; and beautiful roomy boats, called bunder-boats, are obtainable at the piers, by application over-night. At Madras, the cold weather brings the opportunity for rural trips into the interior, where the diversions of shooting and hunting afford the toil-worn man of business a pleasant annual relaxation.

The important question of general morals may be justly decided in favour of an Indian residence over a London one,

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as regards a young man just entering into life in search of his own subsistence. In our Oriental cities there are none of those lures and haunts which prove so attractive and fatal to the young Londoner. His Indian contemporary almost *must* spend his evenings in a decorous manner, for he would soon become marked if he frequented such scenes of debauchery as there are, which are of the very lowest description, and where common soldiers, sailors, and the absolute blackguards of the place resort. Drinking, too, is a practice not at all encouraged or countenanced in the Anglo-Indian community. On the whole, whatever bugbear-born apprehension fond parents may entertain of sending their junior offspring to India, on account of fever, liver, cholera, sunstrokes, and Thugs, we may conscientiously assure them, that, whether in the Company's service or the mercantile or miscellaneous line of adventure, their morals are in infinitely less danger of contamination than they are in life in England.

Although we shall now lay down a full establishment, such as is kept up by a person of local rank or mercantile affluence at the presidencies, yet our details will be designed for the information and guidance of those who go to India to seek their fortunes, and whose mode of living must, or in prudence should, be in accordance with their immediate means and near prospects.

The few persons who are sent to India at years of discretion, and with their fortunes, rank, and stations ready cut out for them—such as members of council, commanders-in-chief, bishops, judges, law commissioners—are at no loss about their domestic settlements; nor will it inchoate *their* ruin to expend a few rupees more than an accurate calculation of comforts might allow; whereas if the cadet, the merchant's clerk, or the tradesman were to *begin* imprudently, the consequences to them would be the "bread of sorrow" in after-days, when reflection, coming too late, could only serve for punishment. Young men who enter the civil service, and cadets, have a fixed and regularly-paid monthly salary from the day of their landing—the former having Rs. 300 and the latter nearly Rs. 200 *per mensem*; with this farther difference, that the former, if a diligent student of the native languages, may in two years, or even less,

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acquire a material addition to his original income; while the latter may, and usually does, remain from six to twelve years in rank and emolument exactly where he started. They who come out in a good mercantile connection are also generally provided for at once, as clerks or assistants; but the tradesman or mechanic has to rely on the produce of his brow's sweat from the beginning.

With reference to the mention of the local coin which the nature of this section will render it necessary for us to make, we may state at once that, although the rupee fluctuates in exchangeable value (in remittances to England) from 1*s.* 11*d.* to 2*s.* 1*d.*, and is sometimes lower and higher than these two points, respectively; yet it will give the reader a sufficiently correct estimate of our price-current observations, to consider it, in round numbers, as representing two shillings sterling. This scale will keep him, commercially and arithmetically speaking, very nearly right; but it will not (and nothing but local experience will) make him accurately acquainted with the great difference in what we may call the moral value of money in England and in India. A rupee is constantly given where even one shilling would be hesitated about by the better home economist, and is very frequently expended where even a sixpence would serve the turn in England; but the grounding of the adventurer in this description of unconveyable knowledge must be the work of experience and observation on the spot. Book learning will not assist him. If the "young gentleman" get into a Mess, or to *chum* with an old hand, it will be financially much the better for him at the outset, if he have common sense and ordinary prudence; but if circumstances so shape his lot that he shall have to keep house for himself, he will then find some benefit from remembering the information we design to supply. We proceed to set out a list of the expenses attending an Anglo-Indian establishment upon an entire scale, and shall point out the reductions in it which are applicable to inferior conditions of white mankind in the East. The cost named is the monthly cost.

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ANGLO-INDIAN ESTABLISHMENT.

BOMBAY.	CALCUTTA.	MADRAS.	
House	House	House	Rs. 30 to Rs. 600.
Butler	Khansama	Dobash	Rs. 10 to Rs. 50.
Boy	Khidmutgar	Boy	Rs. 6 to Rs. 8.
Mussal	Musalchee	Musalchee	Rs. 4.
	Cook		Rs. 7 to Rs. 20.
Bearer	Sirdar-bearer	Head-bearer	Rs. 6.
	Mate-bearer	Bearer	Rs. 5.
Hammals	Palkee-bearers		Rs. 4 each.
Puckaulie	Bheesty	Puckally	Rs. 5.
Jaroo-wallah	Mihtur		Rs. 3 to Rs. 4.
	Dhobee	Washerman	Rs. 6.
	Tailor	Durzee	Rs. 6.
Sepoy	Peon or chupprassy	Peon	Rs. 5.
Gora-wallah	Syce	Ghirawallah	Rs. 5.
	Grasscutter		Rs. 3.
	Coachman		Rs. 8 to Rs. 20.
	Ayah		Rs. 7 to Rs. 16.
	Mihturanee	Tarrycatch	Rs. 5.
	Abdar		Rs. 8 to Rs. 12.
	Hookahburdar		Rs. 8.
Purvoe	Sircar or baboo	Dobash	Rs. 10 up to anything.

Now we shall endeavour to give such a description of each of these human items as shall convey to the tyro an intelligible, if not a very vivid, notion of their several duties and peculiarities; but before entering upon the "humanities," let us offer two or three hints concerning the domicile. At the presidencies, there are houses in great variety, in size, situation, and rent-charge, and, of course, in this variety of dwelling-places, the purse may be suited even at the lowest ebb which will allow its possessor a roof over his unhappy head at all; but it is not easy for any respectably-situated person to procure a tenement which will insure him the lowest degree of comfort, with reference to the skyey influences, for a less rentage than fifty rupees a month; and such a house will probably be deficient as to convenience of site for any one whose daily business requires his presence in the town. Certainly, two, or even more, young men may take a house among them, even if circumstances should not allow of their living together throughout; but the adventurer who comes to India in a state of double-blessedness, or who imprudently gets into such a state too soon, financially speaking, afterwards will find himself compelled to put up with but sorry

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accommodation, compared with what the lowest Calcutta or Madras rent for a decent European—say thirty rupees a month, or nearly forty pounds per annum—would obtain for him in most parts of England. Houses, in fact, are very dear at each presidency, the higher class letting, without an atom of furnishing, at from 400*l.* to 800*l.* per annum, and no really respectable abode being to be had, in a convenient position, under 250*l.* or 300*l.* per annum (paid, like everything else connected with the "domicile," in rupees, monthly), though without the addition, to the *renter*, of any description of municipal taxes. And now for the menials.

The khansama, or butler, acts the part which, in a moderate English establishment, is acted by the mistress and the cook together; that is to say, he markets, prepares the pastry and the made dishes, makes preserves, superintends the whole kitchen arrangement, and in general leaves nothing to the cook but the actual cooking. The khansamas are always intelligent, respectful, and well-mannered men—Mussulmans, or Parsees—and have much influence in the house, being treated very familiarly (within perfectly becoming bounds) by their masters and mistresses, of whose interests they are usually watchful against all depredators but themselves.

The khidmutgar, or boy, is of the khansama genus, and often assumes the title, where no regular one is kept. His own business, however, is (in a full establishment) solely to lay the table, bring up the dinner, and wait during the meal. A couple "well to do" would probably keep three or four of these menials, and more than that if the domestic quiver were full, for the children of such magnates have servants of their own. General honesty, amid much temptation and many facilities for a lapse from virtue, cannot but be conceded to them; for they have constant access to the plate, wines, tea, table linen, and similar valuables, and might decamp with various spoons under all reasonable chances of impunity, as the police is rather inferior to that of Paris when Fouché had its management. The khidmutgar is a clean and smart-looking servant, not at all *mal-adroit* in the practice of waiting. Small people, if bachelors, are for the most part content with one khidmutgar, and dream not of a khansama; but whether there be one or half a dozen, the breakfast and dinner table exhibits the same fanciful

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neatness of arrangement. All the spoons in the house are displayed in the centre of the table, in various tasteful ways, and are interspersed with wine-glasses, flowers, silver forks, &c., while in the midst rises the butter-pot—of cut glass or silver, as the case may be—in which the butter appears like a piece of beautiful carved work, and, with the appliance of sparkling ice, is really tempting to behold. Indeed, the khidmutgar contrives to lay out a very enchanting breakfast with sufficiently simple means. The snowy whiteness of the daily-clean cloth, the green chillies floating in the clean water of the half-filled wine-glass, the eye-refreshing mustard and cress, the silver (which might be brighter), the pots or glass-ware recipients of various preserves, and lastly, the substantials—the omelette, the rice, the fish, the muffins, the *chitnee*, the cold meats, and the fresh and fragrant tea—all have a tendency to create an appetite beneath the ribs of death, and to render gaunt famine, or penurious scarcity, quite impossible visitants.

Next in descent to the above-described "obedient humble servant" comes the musalchee (at Bombay called a mussal), who is like unto the scullion in British households. The analogy between the musalchee and the scullion, indeed, is not complete in all its parts; for the former cleans knives, plates, spoons, glasses, &c., and does, in a word, the under-work of the butler's pantry, which is somewhat above the performances of the nymph of the scullery.

The cook, or *bawurchee*, called *bobberjee* by the English, who are the vilest corrupters on earth of both foreign languages and their own, is in a rank by himself, and composed of himself solely, unless he has a *mate* (not meaning a wife), as in large houses he has. To the establishments of the smaller orders he is not essential, for the khidmutgar and musalchee will there manage that business very creditably between them; and where he is kept, he is paid according to his excellence.

Leaving the culinary precincts, let us proceed into the body of the house, and there we meet, at Calcutta at least, with the dignitary called the sirdar, or chief of the bearers. The sirdar-bearer, called *sirdar* in brevity, is, among other things, the valet-de-chambre. He prepares the evening lights, a duty which naturally involves the furbishment of the candle-

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sticks, glass shades, and snuffers, and which, at Bombay, is performed by the mussal, and at Madras by the matee. He also polishes the shoes, boots, straps, and so forth, of his master. Moreover, he rubs tables into brightness, with cocoa-nut shell and wax-cloth, makes the beds (for housemaids are things unknown), and performs a variety of little nameless items, which need not to be enumerated.

Among the upper classes (the upper in point of salary we mean), there are four or six palankeen-bearers retained, besides the sirdar and mate; but the two latter are to be found in almost every house, and may be considered indispensable.

The bheesty (properly *bihishtee*) provides the water for the use of the whole establishment; hanging a sheepskin on his recreant *hip*, and carrying it along with apparent awkwardness, though with real ease. The duty, at Bombay, devolves on a puckalee, who carries the water in copper vessels, attached to a bamboo slung across the shoulders.

The mihtur is the pariah of the establishment, and is wise enough to eat of the crumbs (a phrase including every good thing) which fall from his master's table. He sweeps the house, cleans out the bathing-room, and does all the dirty work, in fact, as well as takes care of a dog or two, if necessary.

The dhobee, or washerman, is fully explained to the English reader by his English name, though he differs in some respects from the English washerwoman, as well as in being of a different sex. For instance, while she is up to her elbows in a wash-tub, he is up to his knees in a tank, or may be in a river; while she rubs her knuckles into a shrivelled and blistery-looking skin, he bangs the linen raiment of master, mistress, and child, against a serrated log, or a roughened stone; while she is all suds, the frothy article is scarcely known to him, and yet he is well off for soap, but the *modus operandi* is unfavourable for the accumulation of the frothy pile; while she mangles, he is ironing, with an enormous brazen iron, of which the weight has an effect equivalent to mangling, on the cloth; and finally, while she brings home her linen as yellow as saffron, he brings his home as white as snow. The dhobee of a bachelor gets the pay opposite to his name in the foregoing list; but where

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there is a lady in the case, his wages are at least doubled, and increased also by a rupee or two for every child.

The durzee, or tailor, is an indispensable adjunct, his business being to mend the clothes as fast as the dhobee tears them, and for this purpose, chiefly, he works daily, from nine o'clock till five, at the presidency, but from sunrise till sunset in the upper provinces. A lady's tailor gets from eight to ten rupees per month, and has no very quiet life of it; but the scolding is systematic, and he cares little about the matter. But the bachelor's tailor hath a life of ease and pleasure, working half the time for the servants, who pay him for that same.

The peon, chuprassy, peada, sepoy, or messenger, carries letters, runs by palankeens, stands behind carriages, and is altogether a functionary of consequence. When forming part of the official establishment of a civil servant, he is feared, hated, and outwardly reverenced, by the natives of the district—for then he acts as bailiff, process-server, and all manner of hateful things; and invariably turns his power into a source of unlawful profit, from exactions and general corruption.

The syce, or groom, does what his translated name denotes, but in a way very different from his English namesake. Smart and vigorous grooming is unknown in India, and, judging from the fair condition of the horses, would not appear to be needed. He, moreover, runs behind the horse, or vehicle, as the case may be; and will keep up with the latter for miles, without any apparent effort, as also with a horse going at an easy canter. He is a good and generally trustworthy servant.

The grasscutter is, nowadays, more a mofussil appendage than a presidency one; for in the latter place, grass or hay is purchasable; whereas in the former regions the grass has to be daily rooted up for the horses, and this labour is, in the dry and hot months, especially severe.

The coachman is sufficiently expert for his vocation in the East, where crowds of carriages are almost unknown, and where all cart-drivers, &c., are forced to get out of the way. He has no great delicacy of *rein*-touch, and not the smallest pride in his harness or other appointments, which, if the

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master chooses, will go dim and dirty enough. Indeed, the best Anglo-Indian turn-out is but a poor affair compared to the second-best London one.

The abdar (literally "keeper of the water") is he who used to cool the wines, water, &c., with saltpetre, before the enterprise of the Americans afforded the delightful luxury of ice. The abdar now manages the ice, but it is only in wealthy establishments that such a servant is retained, as the khidmutgar and sirdar-bearer, between them, can manage well enough.

The hookah-burdar is a domestic fast *going out*, in consequence of the supersession of the hookah by the cigar.

The ayah, or lady's maid, has no innate taste for dressing, but can usually plait hair well, and contrives to fasten a hook, and to stick in a pin so that it shall soon come out again. She is often the wife of one of the khidmutgars, and then the double wages make the service valuable to the worthy couple. Frequently, she is an Indo-Portuguese woman, and though a sad and ugly drab, is in most respects superior to the Mussulman women.

The mithuranee is usually the sweeper's wife, is more intelligent than the ayah, and does the slop-work of "my lady's chamber;" but is often, where there are no children, the only female on the establishment; in which case her wages are raised a rupee or so, and the arrangement answers very well. Where children are, then the women of both classes are multiplied in a concatenation accordingly.

The sircar, baboo, purvoe, or whatever he may be called, is the chancellor of the exchequer, and it is not unseldom (in the olden time it was always the case) that his master is his debtor—and then the mastership is but a *vox*. They are a shrewd, intelligent race, of most respectable appearance and demeanour, talk English, and manage everything for you easily and delightfully. They are almost always honest, in the sense of never absconding with your money, even where they give no security; because their great profit is made by commissions and small surcharges upon everything you buy, and *dustooree*, or custom (per-centage, taken from the native seller), upon every payment you have to make. All men in business have sircars, but a mere private family, such as that of a military man, for example, seldom retains and does not

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require them. They are a strange compound of easiness and strictness, usuriousness and liberality, honesty and fraudulence, patience and importunity.

Such is an Indian household; a motley assemblage, and yet harmoniously enough conducted. Hindoo and Mussulman pull well together, and where good service is not done, it is oftener the fault of the employers than the employed.

SECTION V.

THE GOVERNMENTAL DIVISIONS OF INDIA.

To facilitate the operations of government, the whole of the country is separated into four great divisions, namely:—the presidency of Bengal, the presidency of Madras, the presidency of Bombay, and the north-western provinces. The presidency of Bengal is ruled by "the supreme government of India," consisting of—

A Governor-General, and President of the Council;

Two members of the Council, drawn from the Civil Service;

One member from the Military Service;

One Military member, who is likewise Commander-in-Chief of the army of India, and especially of the troops of the royal service, to which he invariably belongs;

One Ordinary member who is not in any particular service, and generally selected for his legal attainments;

A Lieutenant-Governor for the administration of the affairs of Bengal Proper;

A due proportion of Secretaries and Assistants, and a Legislative Council.

The presidency of Bengal is divided into sixteen provinces, in seven of which (having been for some time under British rule) certain regulations prevail which have no operation in the districts which have only become part of the British dominions of late years. These former are called *regulation districts*: they are comprised in the Jessore, Bhaugulpore, Cuttack, Moorshedabad, Dacca, Patna, and Chittagong divisions, and contain a population of 36,848,981 persons.

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The non-regulation provinces include Saugor and Nerbudda, the Cis-Sutledge districts, the Assam or north-eastern frontier, Gowalpore, Arracan, Tenasserim, the south-west frontier provinces, the Punjaub and the Sunderbund. Of these the total population is no fewer than 11,109,339 ; and the whole of the provinces, *regulation* and *non-regulation*, cover 325,652 square miles.

In addition to these provinces, the authority of the Bengal government extends, to a certain degree, over the native states of Hyderabad in the Deccan, belonging to the court of the Nizam ; of Oude, Nepaul, Nagpore, Scindiah's dominions, Indore, Bhopul, Rajpootana, Rohilcund ; various petty hill states ; chieftains in the Cis-Sutledge provinces ; in the south-west frontier, Sikkim, Bhawulpore, Kashmere, Munnipore, Tipperah, the Cuttack Mehals, &c.

These states cover 583,404 square miles, and have a population of 43 millions and upwards.

The presidency of Madras is governed by—

A Governor, and President of the Council ;

Two Civil members of the Council ;

A Commander-in-Chief, who is likewise a member of the Council ;

For revenue purposes, the territory is divided into twenty-one divisions or collectorates, of which eighteen are under the regulations, viz :—Rajahmundry, Masulipatam, Guntoor, Nellore, Madras, Chingleput, Arcot, north and south Bellary, Cuddapah, Salem, Coimbatore, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, Madura, Tinnevelly, Malabar, and Canara. The area of these divisions comprehends 119,946 square miles, with a population of 14,612,296 persons. The three non-regulation provinces, Ganjam, Vizagapatam, and Kurnoul, contain an area of 3,243 square miles, with a population of 241,632.

The native states subordinate to the Madras government, are Cochin, Mysore, Travancore, and Vizagapatam, covering 50,637 square miles, with a population of 4,691,230.

The Bombay presidency is under the government of—

A Governor and President of the Council ;

Two Civil members of the Council ;

A Commander-in-Chief, who is at the same time a member of the Council.

In the Bombay presidency are thirteen regulation, and

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three non-regulation provinces :—Surat, Broach, Ahmedabad, Kaira, Candeish, Tannah, Poonah, Ahmednuggur, Sholapore, Belgaum, Dharwar, Rutnagherry, and Bombay Island, constitute the regulation collectorates ; Scinde, Sattarah, and Angria's Colaba, comprise the non-regulation divisions. The former contain a population of 8,151,049 souls over an area of 57,405 square miles ; the latter have a population of 2,333,968, and an area of 62,660 square miles.

The native states subordinate to the Bombay government are Baroda, the Guicowar's dominions, Kattywar, Pahlumpore, Cambay, Ballasinore, Dhurumpore, Baroda and Suckeen, the Daung Rajahs, Peirt and Hursool, Kolapore, Sawunt Warree, Maheecaunta, and other petty states in the neighbourhood ; Cutch, Akulkote, certain states in the Sattarah dominions, and numerous jaghiredars in the Southern Mahratta country. These states are embraced in an area of 56,320 square miles, and contain 4,613,225 souls.

The north-western regulation provinces, subject to the jurisdiction of a Lieutenant-Governor, comprise Delhi, Meerut, Rohilcund, Agra, Allahabad, and Benares, the area of which is 71,972 square miles, with a population of 23,199,668. The non-regulation provinces embrace the Bhattee country, including Wuttoo, the pergunnah of Kole Kasim province, the Jaunsor and Bawar province, the Dehrah Dhoon province, Kumaon (including Ghurwal) province, Ajmere province, and British Nimour province. The area covered by these is 13,599 square miles, and the population exceeds 600,000.

The Eastern Straits' settlements, managed by resident Councillors, are Penang province, Wellesley, Singapore, and Malacca. The total population of these settlements is 202,540 ; their superficies in square miles 1,575.

The Foreign settlements in India are reduced to those of the French and the Portuguese. The French consist of Pondicherry, Carical, Yanaon, Mahe, and Chandernagore ; the Portuguese only hold Goa, and the islands of Damaun and Diu.

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SECTION VI.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PRINCIPAL PLACES IN INDIA.

THE PRESIDENCY OF BENGAL.

Calcutta — Berhampore — Monghyr — Patna — Benares — Mirzapore — Allahabad — Agra — Cawnpore — Lucknow — Delhi — Meerut — Landour — Almorah, &c.

For greater convenience of reference, we will take each presidency separately, commencing with Bengal, as the most important, and following the river route to begin with—

Calcutta.—The first view of Bengal-India gives the longing voyager a dreary pang of disappointment, owing to the low, ugly, and inhospitable shores of Saugor Island, at the entrance to the Hooghly, with scarcely a sign of cheering civilization, or any tokens of a thickly-populated land. This desolate appearance, and the corresponding sensation which it excites in the stranger's breast, arise from the peculiar circumstance of there being no town at the mouth of the river, nor any mark of one as far as the eye can reach. Sail on, however, in the true hope which should always sustain adventurous spirits, and you will be richly rewarded for your primary disappointment. Viewed from the magnificent bend of the river, denominated Garden Reach, where the town first opens on the approaching vessel, the *coup d'œil* is one of various and enchanting beauty. Houses like palaces are studding the bank on the proper left of the river, and a verdure like that of an eternal summer renovates the eye, so long accustomed to the glitter of the ocean. Anon, on *your* left, appears the semi-gothic Bishop's College; and in front of you, every moment growing more distinct, are beheld a forest of stately masts, a noble and beautiful fortress, a thousand small boats, of shapes new and undreamt of by the visitant, skimming over the stream; the larger vessels of the country, pleasant to look upon even for their strange dis-symmetry and their consequent unwieldiness; the green barge or budgerow, lying idly for hire, and the airy little

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baulcahs, with their light venetian'd rooms. There cannot be a scene more beautiful, connected with the bustle and business of life, and the heart of the traveller feels light within him as he views it.

As you advance up the river, you observe architectural decorations, resembling gates, on the left or northern bank. These are ghauts, or landing-places. The first is Prinsep's Ghaut, erected to commemorate James Prinsep, one of the most eminent men of his day, who fell a sacrifice to his ardour in the pursuit of science. It is a huge and ugly pile. Not far from this is a monument of Saracenic architecture, composed of the cannon taken at the battles of Gwalior and Punniah, and designed to commemorate those events. Higher up is Rajchunder Doss's Ghaut, a large, neat, and commodious landing-place, the nearest point of convenient debarcation for persons proceeding to Chowringhee. The wealthy native at whose expense it was built, has not failed to perpetuate his own name, as well as that of the Governor-General under whose administration it was constructed, by a marble tablet placed over the entrance from the land side. Within a few yards of this ghaut stands the steam-engine which supplies with water the aqueducts, from which some of the more patrician streets of the town are watered. It is one of the most useful establishments in the City of Palaces, and the only wonder is, that in the metropolis of so great an empire, which yields a revenue of twenty crores of rupees a year, it is the only steam-engine erected for this important object; and that, of the streets which might be benefited by it, more than half are without aqueducts, and are rendered obscure by clouds of suffocating dust, during many months of the year.

We next come to the Chandpaul Ghaut—named, it is supposed, after one Chandur Pal, who once kept a little grocer's shop in its vicinity. It is here where India welcomes and bids adieu to her rulers. It is here that the Governors-General, Commanders-in-Chief, the Judges of the Supreme Court, the Bishops, &c., first set foot in the metropolis.

Moving up from Chandpaul Ghaut along a noble strand, we reach Colvin's Ghaut, and in its immediate vicinity is the Police Ghaut, now adorned by the Metcalfe Hall. The next ghaut in succession is Coelah Ghaut; and not far from that,

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the old Fort Ghaut. In the square which separates these landing-places, a fort originally stood. The space is now occupied by the Export Warehouse and the Custom House, through which merchandise to the value of fifteen millions sterling is annually passed. Just above the old Fort Ghaut stands the Bonded Warehouse, the only corporation in Calcutta besides the Bank of Bengal. Higher up are other ghauts, numerous but not very remarkable. The last of any consequence is called Beebee Ross's—named after a Mrs. Ross.

Calcutta is built on an almost dead level, which is the character of the far-surrounding country, so that it is calculated to be raised hardly so much as one foot above the mean of high water, though there is a slight fall from the bank of the river to the eastward, in the direction of the salt-water lake, which terminates the Soonder-bunds, or small estuaries, flowing from the sea to within four miles east of Calcutta. The soil is a rich alluvium, mixed with micaceous sand, and resting, at some depth below the surface, on a blackish clay; and such is its aptitude for imbibing and retaining moisture, that in spite of the heat of the climate, the earth is always damp, and the air in general humid.

The metropolis of British India, and emporium of eastern commerce, is situated in lat. 22° 33′ 54″ N., long. 88° 20′ 17″ E., on the eastern bank of the river Hooghly, which is merely a branch, being the most westerly one, of the Ganges, and is at the distance of nearly one hundred miles from the sea. The breadth of the stream, which is deep, muddy, and rapid, is about equal to that of the Thames at Gravesend; and ships of from twelve to fourteen hundred tons anchor abreast of the city, either in six or seven fathoms, near mid-channel, or at the chain moorings within a few yards of the shore, where they are fastened head and stern, so as not to swing with the tide.

We have said that the *coup d'œil* from the river impresses the beholder with an idea of magnificence in regard to the width of the streets and the splendour of the houses in external architecture; but although the bare facts which justify the inference remain, upon a nearer view of the objects, which have still the characteristic grandeur of spa-

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ciousness in their respective ways, yet the first impression, which is derived from the mind's belief in the existence of unqualified splendour, is, on the nearer view, discovered to be in a great measure illusory. The houses continue, indeed, to be justly considered by the stranger superior to the great majority of the town residences in the principal capitals of Europe; but the eye is soon offended, and that grievously, by the admixture of mean and dirty huts, which abound in some of the finest streets, and come almost into contact with the colonnaded mansions. These mean and wretched-looking buildings are occupied, principally, during the day-time only, as shops, by the native venders of commodities connected with the consumption or the petty handicrafts of the people.

For municipal purposes, the city of Calcutta is quartered out into four divisions. To each division a magistrate is appointed, who, however, does not reside, nor even hold his sittings, within the precincts of his *beat*, as the only police-office in the place is situated in the Loll Bazaar, near the north-western extremity of the English part of the town.

The conventional divisions of the city, which are but two, are tolerably well defined:—A line drawn from Beebee Ross's Ghaut, or landing-place, on the river-bank, due east, to the Upper Circular-road, and from Hastings's-bridge, on the Tolly's Nullah, in a north-easterly direction, to the Lower Circular-road, will include the whole of the space occupied by the Christian part of the community; while a similar process of demarcation, commencing at Beebee Ross's Ghaut and running eastward as above mentioned, including all the streets northward as far as Chitpore-bridge and the boundary of the Mahratta Ditch, a now useless and unseemly excavation, commenced in the middle of the eighteenth century, and encircling the city from its northern extremity to a point on its opposite boundary, will comprehend the greater portion of the city which is occupied by natives. There is, however, this material difference to be observed in the two localities, namely, that a considerable part of the European division is occupied by natives—chiefly Mussulmans and the lower castes of Hindoos—while very few Christians have their abode in the native quarter. In this latter, with but a few exceptions, the streets are, like

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those of most Oriental towns, exceedingly narrow, and the houses lofty, the lower apartments being used for shops or store-rooms, while the more strictly domiciliary parts of the building, above, are primitively garnished with loop-holes instead of windows, and the backs of the houses are for the most part to the streets. Some dwellings, indeed, there are which have the convenience of windows and balconies, but even those are, in general, most sorry imitations of the European style; and from being commonly unpainted, and never kept in good repair, present that mean and dilapidated appearance which is a characteristic of the native architectural constructions, both public and private—the dwelling-house, the temple, the ghaut, serai, and bridge. And from this sweeping condemnation of the thriftlessness and want of taste of the people of Hindostan, can be excepted only the very few houses belonging to certain opulent natives in Calcutta, who have grafted the European customs on their own, and whose residences are fitted up with considerable elegance and judgment; and there are many, also, among the native upper classes, generally, who, though they cannot totally wean themselves from the customs of their country, are ambitious of having their houses furnished and decorated in the English way, which, however, ill assimilates with the confined dimensions and dark interiors incidental to the style of Eastern architecture. Hence an incongruity which makes apartments thus bedizened, look paltry amid magnificence, and tawdry and disarranged, though every article in them may be costly and, in its individual character, free from meretriciousness.

The business part of Calcutta, or what in England would be termed "the city," and which in India is known by the designation of "the town," is comprised between Chandpaul Ghaut and the New Mint, on the river-bank, eastward; and from the former to the head of Cossitollah Street, at its junction with the Dhurrumtollah and Chowringhee roads; and in a similar direction from the New Mint to the Burra Bazaar, a line drawn from the latter to the Cossitollah completing the definement. The fashionable end is at Chowringhee; but as Calcutta is made up of an official and a mercantile community, and can boast of no exclusive circle in resemblance to the "fashionable" one of London, the

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distinctive appellation bestowed on the quarter just mentioned has originated more in the circumstance of its being locally apart, and yet near enough to the scenes of both commercial and official business, to render it a convenient residence for high functionaries and wealthy merchants, than from any difference in their social modes of life from the practice of their fellow-exiles.

A few of the streets in the European town are of great dimensions; as the Chowringhee Road, for instance, which is nearly two miles long, and in average width not less than eighty feet; but it has houses on only one (the eastern) side, facing the extensive plain, or *maidan*, which separates it from the river. The Dhurrumtollah is nearly equal, in dimensive character, to this; and being on each side bordered by a row of houses of good elevation, and many of them even splendid in their outward appearance—with but comparatively few native hut-edifices on its line—it would claim to be considered a first-rate street in any western capital. A short way down this road is the Chandny Bazaar, where the street is usually much crowded by retailers of cloth and various other articles, who seriously encroach on the public thoroughfare. Wellesley Road would be acknowledgedly a fine street, were it not lined, almost continuously, with native huts, and exposed to the greater nuisance of the Kalassee, or native seamen's quarter, which is situated about the middle of it—near the spot at which it intersects the Jaun Bazaar Street—and is inhabited by a debauched and otherwise totally demoralized mass of people. The Upper and Lower Circular Roads, which nearly encompass the city on its eastern or landward side, are long and of noble proportions; but the Mahratta Ditch, with much jungle in the back-ground, forms a drawback to perfection of the scene. In the Chowringhee quarter there are many fine though not long streets; among which the one called Russell Street, debouching at either end into Park and Middleton Streets, respectively, takes rank among the best. Camac Street is also a very good street, and towards its southern extremity has numerous huts, and much unoccupied ground; both of which circumstances are destructive of true town beauty, and give an appearance of mingled wretchedness and desolation, which detracts from the effect of even adjacent com-

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pleteness. Park Street is a somewhat long, but disproportionately narrow street, having some good houses on its line, and has always been considered an abiding-place of the first respectability. But it has one great disadvantage in being the thoroughfare for funerals to the English Protestant cemetery, which is situated at its eastern termination. Loudon Street, which is near the eastern end of that just delineated, has several good houses of recent erection; but it, too, is disfigured by unseemly and barbarous hovels.

Until within the last fifteen years, Calcutta was destitute of one architectural feature which marks all towns in England and in various other parts. We allude to the plan of regular shop-fronts, which distinguish the place of business from the private abode, and which, when tastefully designed and sample-adorned, as in London, yield an ornament to the streets, and eloquently proclaim the prosperity of the country. Calcutta is still deficient, when compared to English towns, in this pleasing and convenient system, and from climatic difficulties must probably remain so; for goods exposed to the heat and glare in a window would speedily deteriorate, and meanwhile there would be no pedestrian customers to be attracted by the display. But of late, there have been shop-fronts added to the lower stories of several of the houses in Council House Street, Cossitollah, and other streets, and the propensity towards this kind of improvement is daily increasing among the European tradesmen. Still the shops must be entered ere goods can be beheld; and thus the place, though in reality the theatre of a most extensive commerce, has not, as far as the exterior of the trades houses is concerned, anything of the bustling and busy look, which are characteristics of European seaports. To a person, however, of very ordinary power of observation, the number of vehicles, describable and indescribable, which *navigate* the streets, including very many laden bullock-carts; and the concourse of employed natives whom on every side he must perceive, would be adequate proof of the place being an emporium of first-rate consequence, even did not the abundance of shipping, and the shoals of concomitant small craft, sufficiently of themselves give assurance of the fact.

Calcutta has no walls, barriers, or other outward appli-

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ances of a fortified town—for the circumvallation, called the Mahratta Ditch, merits no such rank; nor is there need of such defences, not only in the improbability of its ever being attacked, but from the vicinity of Fort William, which commands the circumjacent country, and which, on an emergency, could contain the whole Christian population, and in the face of which no enemy could retain a footing in the town. Its principal defect, as a place besieged, would consist in its being, from internal resources, unsupplied with drinkable water, save from a tank, or pond, on the southern glacis, within only a few hundred feet of the ramparts.

Although, like other capitals, it can boast its bazaars, yet the reader who pictures these mart-places in his mind, according to any pattern taken from the Pantheon, Baker Street, Soho Square, or other similar establishments in London, will be grievously mistaken. The India Bazaar is a scene of riot, knavery, prostitution, and filthiness, exhibiting, moreover, the mercantile incongruity of the costliest manufactures in the merest dens, and the often disgusting necessaries of the native culinary department, such as rancid and uncleanly ghee,* and bad and bitter oil, attainting the air, which is at the same time impregnated by the Sabæan odours of uttur, frankincense, and aromatic spices. The City of Palaces is, with rare and recent exceptions, most wretchedly lighted by means of sordid oil-lamps, supplied with material of so inferior a description, that even the inside of the lamp is scarcely illuminated, and placed at the respectable distances of the corners of the streets, or other wide intervals, few and far between. Neither is the city watched, or paved, or efficiently regulated in its municipal relations, in all pertaining to which it is considerably behind a second-rate English provincial town.

There are no large bridges within the city, but some very neat suspension-bridges over the creeks and canals (at either end of the town) which debouch into the river Hooghly.

The city of Calcutta is supplied with good drinking-water from a considerable number of large ponds (called tanks), for the most part situated towards the Chowringhee quarter; but the one which gives the name to Tank Square

* Clarified butter.

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lies in the business part of the town, and contains a fine reservoir of water, which covers an area of about three acres, and which is twenty feet deep at the place of its greatest depth. It is, unfortunately, liable to be rendered occasionally brackish, in consequence of its vicinity to the river, from which, in dry seasons, it is now and then replenished; and this deterioration is the more to be lamented, as the tank in question forms the only local source of supply to a very thickly-peopled portion of the city. In these junctures, most of the European families, and several of them, indeed, uniformly, procure the water for their table uses from the tanks on the plain, of which there are several, and all containing water of excellent quality; but that which bears away the elemental palm from the rest of the temperance fountains, is a tank in the Free School grounds, which has the advantage of land-springs. All the tanks obtain "annual supplies" from the periodical rains; and therefore, in seasons when these happen to be scanty, much distress is endured, ere their recurrence, by the general population; and this distress is especially great during the ensuing hot months, when the ponds come to their lowest ebb, and their then remnant of water becomes turbid, in consequence of the incessant drain which is made on it at that parching period.

Calcutta has extensive, irregular, and thickly native-peopled suburbs; but the Europeans, thereabouts, are few, and their houses far apart. Of these suburbal localities, that of Garden Reach, about four miles to the south of the town, is by far the most important, and indeed, magnificent; some of the buildings being on a scale of much grandeur and elegance, and surrounded by extensive grounds, laid out in miniature representations of the beautiful parks of England. One of these houses, distinguished by the rest from its classic elegance, is the residence of the agent for the Peninsular and Oriental Company. Here is the anchorage of the magnificent steamers which ply between Suez and Calcutta.

Eastward of Garden Reach are Allipore and Balligunge, both considered healthy spots, and the latter having a few good houses round an extensive plain, in which are placed the lines of the Governor-General's body-guard. After a

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long interval, and in a northerly direction, comes Entally—a suburb branching out from the eastern side of the Circular Road, opposite its junction with the Dhurrumtollah. Still farther to the north, at the head of the Boitaconnah or Bow Bazaar Road, lies the Sealdah or Baliaghaut Road, leading to the Salt-water Lake, where there are a few good residences; and thence, stretching to a great extent to the north-west, are Simlah and other suburbs, entirely occupied by natives, and interspersed with the garden-houses, or suburban retreats of the wealthy merchants and other men of fortune among the aborigines.

To the north of the town of Calcutta, at the extremity of the Chitpore Road, and on the bank of the Hooghly, is the village of Cossipore. Here is the government foundry, some steam-engines and flour-mill, and a paper-manufactory. Here also are several villas, which are more healthily situated than any others in the vicinity of Calcutta, because they have the advantage of a large expanse of river to the south, across which the wind comes cool and refreshing, and freed from impurities.

In regard to climate, Calcutta may be described as subject to the extremity of moisture, and nearly to that of heat.

In *January* the air is serene and cold. The wind blows from the N. and N.W.; fogs prevail in the early mornings, and heavy dews fall at night. Thermometer 47° at night, to 75° at mid-day.

February is pleasant and cool until the middle of the month, when the wind changes to the S. and S.E. Thermometer 65° to 82°.

March.—The hot season sets in; the sun becomes powerful, and the days are warm. Strong and steady winds, however, blow from the south. Towards the middle and end of the month, storms, called north-westers, prevail. Violent bursts of wind, bearing clouds of dust, and followed by torrents of rain, are their characteristics. Thermometer 73° to 86°.

April.—The south wind continues to blow, mitigating the heat of the day, until about the 20th, when the wind becomes hot. Thunderstorms and rain visit the town. Thermometer 78° to 91°.

May.—A very disagreeable month—close, still, and

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oppressive. The nights especially sultry. The wind is light and from the south; but grateful storms frequently occur, accompanied by thunder and rain. The thermometer ranges from 81° to 93°; mean heat 86°.

June, *July*, *August*, and *September*, constitute the rainy months. In the second week of June the wind veers round to the east, and after several days of close, muggy weather clouds accumulating the while, and thunder occurring in the evening, the rains begin to fall, and continue to do so with little intermission until the middle of October. The atmosphere is, during this time, much cooler, and the weather is pleasant, but everything gets very damp and mouldy. The thermometer ranges from 77° to 88° or 90°, the mean being 91°.

October.—A variable month. The rains are breaking up, the winds change, the days are sultry; but the mornings and evenings begin to get cool, and the increasing clearness of the air, with the appearance of dews at night, presage the speedy accession of the cold season.

November.—The weather is now delightfully fair and pleasant. A cold sharp wind blows steadily from the north, and occasionally from the west. The air is dry, clear, pure, and serene—not a cloud to be seen. The thermometer in the shade ranges from 66° to 86°.

December.—The middle of the day continues clear and fine, but fogs now collect at night, and as they rise and form masses of vapour, the early part of the mornings is hot and disagreeable. North and west winds prevail, blowing rather sharply. The thermometer ranges from 56° to 78°.

POPULATION.—A belief had long been prevalent, that Calcutta was a thickly-populated town, and some estimates made the number of inhabitants amount to nearly half a million. Recent and accurate surveys, however, have sufficiently established the fact, that its resident population does not much exceed two hundred and twenty thousand, comprised within the proper limits of the city, which stretch for a distance of four miles along the banks of the river, and to about one mile and a half, at the greatest extension, inland. The old errors upon this subject, whence flowed so much exaggeration, arose, no doubt, from the vast influx of people from the adjacent villages, who have employment in town, or who

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attend the bazaars with the produce of their gardens or fields, and to procure for themselves those necessaries which, in the first instance, are all swept into the Calcutta markets. From this cause the place appears to be swarming with population; and as, besides, the men who happen to be unemployed are more in the habit of lounging or lying about the streets than of keeping within their houses, the observer who trusted to his eyes merely for the formation of a census, would arrive at a far higher calculation than the more systematic investigator into censual truth. The following tabular estimate exhibits at one view the number and classified description of the population:—

English	3,138
Eurasians	4,746
Portuguese	3,181
French	160
Chinese	362
Armenians	636
Jews	307
Western Mahomedans	13,677
Bengal Mahomedans	45,067
Western Hindoos	17,333
Bengal Hindoos	120,318
Moguls	527
Parsees	40
Arabs	351
Mugs	683
Madrassees	55
Native Christians	49
Low Castes	19,084
Total	229,714

Among this great variety of the human race, there is little or no collision in the important struggle for the obtainment of subsistence; and hence, in a great measure, arises the blessing of internal public tranquillity, which is uniformly experienced in this magnificent, yet motley-peopled capital. No one class interferes in any objectionable way with the pursuits of another, but, on the contrary, the course of occupation causes each class to assist the others, for the promotion of its own individual interest; and caste, climate, and prejudice, effect as true and politic a division of labour as meditation and design have been able to do in England. In India the system has its evil as well as its good. The evil is,

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the prevention of competition and improvement in the different professions to which the natives incline. In England, every man can follow any trade he pleases; but in India, the son of the tailor may not become a shoemaker; nor must the family of the blacksmith recruit the ranks of the carpenter. If a washerman were starving for want of employment, he would never dream of turning barber, though in his neighbourhood there might be a paucity of the chattering tribe; nor would a starving barber seek a livelihood by starting as a water-carrier. We have here spoken of the *classes of tribes;* but among the tribes themselves there is nearly the same separation of pursuits, and the same variation of means for attaining the one great and common end—subsistence.

The Calcutta English, who are not in the East-India Company's service, may be divided into the three main classes of the mercantile, the retail dealers, and the artisans. The numerically minor bodies belonging to the church and the law, it is not necessary to notice particularly; and the seafaring persons form, of course, properly, no portion of the residentiary British community. Of these three major divisions of our own peculiar people, the artisans are those whom the uninitiated reader might, at the first blush, suppose inevitably instrumental in causing a clash with the native artificers, and thus demonstrating the fallacy of our proposition on that subject. But the fact is, that the British mechanics in Calcutta are all in the capacities of master-workmen, and are not, in the English understanding of the term, actual labourers in their crafts at all. The tailors, shoemakers, house-builders, coach-makers, carvers and gilders, cabinet-makers, and the like, are practically no more than supervisors of the work (including instruction to some extent), in the laborious part of which, or what is literally the manufacturing department, natives are employed as journeymen; and thus, instead of being jostled out of employment by the introgression of Europeans, they have employment secured to them at a better rate of wages than their own master-manufacturers could afford to bestow. On the other hand, the native master-artisans lose little or no custom by the similar speculations of their pale-faced brethren; for the shoes and clothes of the aborigines are of a peculiar kind

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and quality, and such as the emigrants would be incapable of producing at the uniform market price; while of such articles as are suitable for European wear or other use, many are sought by our countrymen from the native on account of the immediate cheapness, as it is often more convenient to renew a cheap article at comparatively frequent intervals, than to pay largely down for such as may last you longer.

To the English trader, manufacturer, or vender, we recommend Europeans invariably to apply in preference to resorting to the natives. "Europe shops," as they are called, are so nearly on a level with those of the China Bazaar, that there is little to be gained, where there used to be much, by having recourse to native dealers, especially if we take into account the extra trouble of the process, and the higgling about the cost.

Of the entire mass of Mahomedans and Hindoos, exclusively of the degraded castes of the latter, which forms a recognised portion of the inhabitants of Calcutta, it is probable that a full moiety are in the service of the Europeans; and that of this moiety the far greater division may be ranged under the head of domestic servants, and the remainder described as employed in the government and mercantile offices, in the capacity of under-clerks, messengers, and the like inferior, yet trustworthy employments. The other half of the entire number subsist themselves by what may be termed street or river labour, in contradistinction to that which is rural, and find employment in carrying palankeens as bearers, and parcels as *coolies*, or porters. The employments are perfectly distinct, and though each is pursued by Hindoos, yet neither would interchange the *modus operandi* —it being against the prejudice of caste for a bearer to carry any weight upon his head, or for a coolie to do so on his back or shoulder. The honesty of the coolie is proverbial over India. Paid at a rate not exceeding at the utmost threepence sterling a day, and often at a lower rate than that; and employed to convey parcels of value and of easy appropriation from place to place, we are not aware of many instances of a coolie having been found guilty of a breach of trust, even in circumstances where detection was next to impossible and the temptation great. You may employ one of these men (and they constantly are employed) to carry

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packages of about half a maund—that is, forty pounds—weight, for a distance of a thousand miles, and for a six weeks or two months' journey, and they are rarely known to fail; nor even, weather and health permitting, to be otherwise than punctual to their covenanted time of arrival, calculating the average daily progress, with the burden borne on the head, at about two-and-twenty miles! As a body, they are under no sort of police regulation, being neither badged nor ticketed, nor having their hire adjusted by municipal law. The hack, or as they are called, *teeka*, palankeens, are regulated in like manner, and in principle, as are the hackney coaches and similar vehicles in London. Such as remain to be mentioned, after the deduction of these two principal classes from the aggregate, gain their livelihood as boatmen, dealers in grain, oil, cloth, and other articles of every-day consumption by the population at large; and as workmen in the various trades which are requisite to supply the household demands of their multifarious fellow-citizens.

The rest of the inhabitants of Calcutta are sufficiently described in the section appropriated to the population of India generally.

PUBLIC BUILDINGS.—From the high reputation Calcutta has acquired for the palatial character of her buildings, it might be supposed that the city boasted of many noble public edifices. This, however, is far from the fact. It is upon the number of superb private mansions that Calcutta must rely to bear out the character she enjoys, for it is only within the last half-century that her inhabitants have considered it incumbent upon them to erect buildings for particular public objects. The practice has been, when an institution has been formed, to locate it in the first instance in a spacious private dwelling, and only to give it a special habitation when the purposes of the establishment have been extended, or the funds increased to an amount that would admit of the extra outlay. Thus, there are not more than eighteen erections, not including places of worship, in the town, which deserve to be called "public," on the score of their having been originally built for the reception of a public establishment; these are:—

The Government House, the Town Hall, the Writers' Buildings, the Metcalfe Hall, the Hindoo College, the

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Madrussa or Mahomedan College, the General Assembly's Institution, the Jesuits' College, the Medical College, the Mechanics' Institute, the Orphan School, the General Hospital, the Ice House, the Ochterlony Monument, the Martinière, the Race Stand, the Asiatic Society's Rooms, and the Mint.

THE GOVERNMENT HOUSE.—The Government House was built about the year 1804, at the instance of the late Marquis of Wellesley, then Governor-General. The architect was Captain Wyatt, of the corps of engineers, and the expense of erection about thirteen lacs of rupees, or about (in those days) 150,000*l.* sterling. The building is a noble one. The external view is grand and imposing, notwithstanding its numerous windows and its want of height. The verandahs are rather mean for so large a building. The columns have angular Ionic capitals. The grand entrance is on the northern side, by a handsome flight of steps leading to the first floor. It is seldom used, owing to its being entirely exposed, an entrance underneath the stairs being preferred by those who have occasion to go to the house. The position of the dome has often been objected to, and not unjustly: it is situated between the southern wings, and excepting when seen from the south, it always appears out of place, from not being in the centre of the whole building. The wings on the southern side are surmounted by the royal arms: those on the northern are ornamented by the Honourable Company's. The greatest credit appears due to the architect for the interior accommodation. It may be considered perfect, as far as convenience is concerned, and splendid in every respect, with the exception of the staircases, as a fit and proper residence for the supreme ruler of our Indian possessions. The centre of the building consists of three large rooms. The ground-floor, being low, is chiefly occupied with offices, &c. The centre of the first-floor is a grand marble-hall, formed by the three rooms, the entrance of which has a row of columns. They are used on occasions of entertainment as the dining and supper rooms, according to the extent of the company. Above them are the ball-rooms. The floors are of varnished teak neatly laid; the ceilings are ornamented and covered, so as to conceal the beams; the gilding is tasteful and neat. From the roof are suspended numerous

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chandeliers, while the sides of the rooms and between the windows are lined with handsome mirrors.

The four wings, which may be considered as distinct houses, are connected in the centre by means of commodious galleries. They are every way convenient and comfortable, and are occupied by the Governor-General, or the Lieut.-Governor of Bengal and his suite. All the out-offices are detached, and in no way interfere with the view of the room. Upon the whole, the place is a splendid conception, and few men, forty years ago (at any rate, in India), excepting the architect himself, would have elicited from their own invention any thing so complete and satisfactory.

HINDOO COLLEGE.—This institution was projected near the close of the year 1815. It owes its origin to a most zealous advocate for native education, the late Mr. David Hare. The idea of such an establishment occurred to his mind in the course of a discussion, at the house of the celebrated Rammohun Roy, on the best means of improving the moral and intellectual condition of the people of India. Having written down his thoughts on the subject, the paper was shown to several individuals, amongst whom was a native gentleman, who without communicating his intention to Mr. Hare, handed it directly to Sir Edward Hyde East, then Chief Judge of the Supreme Court, soliciting his patronage and support of the scheme under consideration. The learned judge was so much pleased with Mr. Hare's suggestion, that he entered immediately into almost all his views, and after having proposed a few trifling alterations in that gentleman's plan for the establishment of the college, he convened a meeting of respectable natives at his own house, for the purpose of carrying the design into speedy execution. After various meetings, it was resolved "that an institution for promoting education be established, and that it be called the Hindoo College of Calcutta; and that the Governor-General, and the members of the Supreme Council for the time being, be requested to accept the office of patrons of this institution." It was also resolved, that Sir Edward Hyde East should be requested to accept the office of president. A committee was appointed, consisting of both native and European gentlemen, and to these were added an English and a native secretary.

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The primary object of the institution was the tuition of Hindoo children in the English and Indian languages, and in the literature and science of Europe and Asia. The committee hired a building as a temporary schoolhouse, and on the 20th January, 1817, the school was opened. On that day there were but twenty pupils, but a learned native who was present expressed his hopes that the Hindoo College would resemble the *bur*, the largest of trees, which yet at first was but a small seedling. In less than three months the number of boys was sixty-nine, all of whom made English their principal study. The funds of the college amounted at this time to upwards of 70,000 rupees, but notwithstanding this auspicious commencement, the expenses connected with the establishment were soon discovered to be much beyond the means at the disposal of the management, and as a consequence some appointments were abolished, and certain expenditures were reduced. Still, the school declined, and the government was appealed to for help. Pecuniary aid was immediately granted; and the Governor-General in Council having determined to found a Sanscrit College in Calcutta, for the special purpose of reviving native literature, it was deemed advisable to erect a large and handsome building, that might accommodate all the classes of both institutions. The foundation stone of this edifice was laid on the 25th of February, 1824. The present building was opened for the reception of the classes of the two institutions in the month of May, 1827. The centre part of the building was to be devoted to the Sanscrit students, and the two wings to the senior and junior departments of the Anglo-India school. A vice-president of the committee and visitor of the college was appointed, together with sundry lecturers and teachers, selecting them from the ablest men whose services were available. The government likewise presented an excellent library to the Hindoo College, and have for some years contributed largely towards the general expenses of the college. A wealthy rajah presented a donation of 20,000 rupees, which was devoted to the institution of scholarships, the object of which was, by a monthly bursary of sixteen rupees, to induce pupils of the first class, who would otherwise be obliged to quit college in search of a livelihood, to remain longer and finish their education.

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In 1831, the government authorized the appointment of a professor of law and moral philosophy.

In 1835, owing to the retirement or resignation of some of the professors, and the difficulty of filling their places satisfactorily, a new distribution of duties took place. The office of lecturer on mathematics and English literature, which had hitherto been united, was now divided. Subsequently, a principal was appointed in the person of Captain David Lester Richardson, author of "Literary Leaves," &c., who, however, was removed from the office at the instance of the President of the Council of Education, Mr. Bethune, for reasons that have not been universally held to be valid.

The Hindoo College is one of the handsomest buildings in Calcutta. It is of the plain Grecian Ionic order. The grand entrance is on the north, and a flight of stone steps leads to a portico supported by four lofty columns. The portico leads into a square open court, on the east and west sides of which are colonnades, which form the entrance into the lower apartments, devoted to the Sanscrit classes. At the south-west corner of the western colonnade is the principal staircase, which leads to the large upper hall of the centre building. This hall, as well as the one beneath it, measures eighty-four feet by twenty-six. In the upper colonnades, east and west of the court, are galleries forming passages into the several side apartments, one of which is devoted to the college library, which contains a large supply of the best works on the literature and science of Europe, with many of the most approved translations from the Greek and Roman classics. A book, in which the titles of the works borrowed and the names of the borrowers are kept, affords an interesting illustration of the taste and acquirements of the students. European visitors are often greatly surprised, on inspecting this record, to observe how much works demanding serious thought, the closest study, and an exertion of the highest faculties of the mind, are voluntarily sought after by these aspiring boys, most of whose parents are as ignorant as their forefathers 5,000 years ago. On the south side of the building is a large portico, supported by six columns, on a well-raised pediment. The two wings are of the same order as the centre building, but of one story only. The eastern wing is occupied with

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the junior department or lower classes of the Hindoo College, and the western wing is devoted to the upper classes. The professors deliver their lectures in the upper apartments of the centre building. The entire edifice, including numerous out-offices, stands on an area of 470 feet by 190 feet. Within the enclosure, which is defined by a handsome iron rail, is a large circular tank and neat lawn.

Thus much of the college and its purposes. It would be agreeable to follow the student from its portals, and trace the effects of the instruction he has received upon the society with which he thenceforth mingles. But it is much to be apprehended that, at present, the advantage stops short with the student himself.

Many of the students in the first and second classes of the Hindoo College are enabled to procure respectable situations under government, and all of them who require employment find a college education of most essential advantage to them. The certificate of character and acquirements which each boy obtains on quitting the institution, when very favourable, is regarded as an invaluable document, and esteemed of higher importance and utility than any private letter of introduction. Even the more wealthy students who do not seek for employment are proud of the honour of a good college certificate. It is amongst those in rather dependent circumstances that the love of learning is longest cherished. Amongst those who have to spend every entire day in official toil or the pursuits of trade, and return exhausted to the idle converse of their families, the desire for intellectual pleasure very speedily cools, and they lose all that generous ambition to distinguish themselves by their talents or their attainments, which they evince in association with their class-fellows. But those who are not doomed to a perpetual struggle for the means of existence, often continue to study very sedulously the books recommended to them when at college; and they sometimes contrive to prolong an acquaintance with their teachers by occasional visits, or even letters. They are, however, in an awkward and unencouraging position, for their parents and immediate associates rarely smile upon their studies, and the English in India are, generally speaking, even yet too aristocratic to meet the advances of the natives in a true spirit of sociality.

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There is too often a proud condescension on the one side, and a humiliation on the other. We cannot expect the natives of India to advance much in the scale of society, until we hold out the ready hand of fellowship to all who distinguish themselves by their talents or their virtues.

THE HINDOO METROPOLITAN COLLEGE.—The Council of Education having determined to admit all denominations of Hindoos to study in the Hindoo College, the orthodox Hindoos recently seceded, and have established a new college for themselves, which at this moment (July, 1853) numbers 600 pupils. On the subject of this new educational institution, the *Friend of India* has the following remarks :—

"The new college commences with many advantages in its favour, and yet we cannot but regard its institution as a fatal mistake on the part of its founders. Great care has been taken to destroy the impression which had got abroad, that it was intended to oppose the government institution. It is to be a 'sister college,' and 'there may be a zealous, but not it is hoped by any means an angry, emulation between this College and the Hindoo College.' The matter is one of exceedingly little importance, for an opposition which takes the form of building colleges, cannot but be agreeable to a civilized government. But one thing is certain. It has been established to prove the hostility of its founders to the principle of religious freedom. It has Christians for its masters, and Hindoos for its managers, but its origin is none the less hatred of all creeds except that which its founders profess. It has not been established from any dread of 'proselytism.' Even Hindoos have not yet accused the Council of Education of any such design. It is simply intended to preserve Hindoo youth from the contamination of the presence of Mahomedans or Christians. The very men who are most anxious to equalize the natives and the Europeans, who petition Parliament to set aside all distinctions of caste and colour, and who talk of religious oppression when the law declares that the Legislature is not bound to starve a convert, expend thousands of rupees to prevent a few Hindoos from learning the use of the globes with a Christian or Mahomedan. They demand perfect religious equality, while endeavouring to maintain a vexatious social persecution ; and demonstrate, by their acts, that however loud their tongues may be in favour

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of perfect liberty, they are in heart Hindoos still, the unchanged and unchangeable advocates of exclusiveness. It will not be forgotten by the British Parliament, that the community which is clamouring for an increase of legislative power, has at one time declared its intention of maintaining the law that strips the convert of the last shred of his patrimonial property; and at another, spent thousands of rupees, rather than allow the rising generation to work the fifth proposition of Euclid with Christians or Mahomedans. The English people have gradually learnt to comprehend the motives of those who oppose the "mixed schools" of Ireland, and will have little difficulty in applying their experience to the meridian of Calcutta.

"Notwithstanding the ardent zeal of its projectors, the ability of its professors, and the chorus of approval with which the new college has been received, we cannot flatter its founders with any hopes of permanent success. Too many attempts of the kind have been made within the last few years for us to repose any confidence in its stability. Unless endowed at once on a scale sufficient to create interests of its own, and to give individuals importance by the management of its funds, it must, if we may reason from analogy, gradually decline. The history of the Hindoo College is in itself an epitome of the histories of all native institutions. It was at first enthusiastically supported, and its funds appeared large enough to ensure it at least the vitality inherent in a well-endowed charity. But the enthusiasm diminished; the funds gradually decreased, and after some years of lethargy, it was compelled to apply to government for assistance. We see no reason to believe that the Metropolitan College will share a different fate from its predecessor. It begins in enthusiasm, will run the round of indifference, neglect, lethargy, and decay, and terminate in government support."

THE SANSCRIT COLLEGE.—The Sanscrit College is supported entirely by the government. This institution was established for the encouragement of Oriental learning; but a few years ago, a teacher was employed to teach the students reading and writing the English language. Little progress, however, was made in their occidental studies, and English instruction was some time discontinued. As at the Hindoo College, with the exception of a very few stipendiary scholars, all the boys

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pay for their instruction. The students at the Sanscrit and other colleges under government superintendence, at present contribute nothing towards the expenses of the education. The immediate management of the Sanscrit College is under a native secretary.

The institution next in degree to the Hindoo Colleges, as being particularly adapted to the instruction of natives in the higher branches of learning, though by no means approaching it in point of utility, is

THE MADRUSSA, or MAHOMEDAN COLLEGE.—This institution was founded in the year 1780, by Warren Hastings, who, at his own expense, erected a building for the college, and obtained from government, for the support of the establishment, a grant of land, estimated at 29,000 rupees per annum. The object of the founder was to encourage the cultivation of Arabic learning, and to prepare persons with a perfect knowledge of Mahomedan law, to act as public officers in the courts of justice. In the year 1820, government, fully convinced that such an institution would never produce any useful results while under the control of natives, appointed a committee of Company's servants, with a secretary, to direct the studies and enforce the rules which they might deem necessary to establish. From that period the college rapidly improved; learned professors were sought, and the studious were rewarded; the revenue of the college fixed at 30,000 rupees per annum, instead of the original jaghir; and a new building was erected on the north side of Wellesley Square, at the charge of 1,40,537 rupees. In 1829, an English school was attached to the Madrussa; but from the jealousy with which the Mahomedans view English literature and science, and from a belief that the school was formed to undermine their religion and render Arabic literature less pre-eminent, it was rather opposed than supported by the native influence in the college. Very few of the Arabic students availed themselves of this new source of information, and generally those that attended, did it more as a matter of form than from inclination. Out-students were admitted and dismissed as changes took place in the committee, and nothing seemed certain but that whatever was done one year would be altered the next. A radical reform was, however, introduced, yet not without violent opposition from the most celebrated Ori-

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ental scholars in the education committee. Under these and other adverse circumstances the school languished until lately, when a change of system was resolved upon. The Arabic students were no longer compelled to learn English, and any other Mahomedan youths who wished it were allowed to do so without any payment being required from them. The result has been satisfactory. The school is now filled with boys who pursue the study of English with zeal and success equal to any of their Hindoo compeers. From this period the affairs of the college proceeded without any obstruction; opposition died away gradually, and business soon flowed into the common routine. In a late report there appeared to be forty-two paid and seventy-two unpaid students in the Arabic department, and 150 unpaid scholars in the English school. In the Arabic department there are four principal preceptors and four assistants. The course of study includes, in Arabic, general literature, logic, rhetoric, philosophy, Mahomedan law, and mathematics.

In the English, there are three masters and six monitors, the course of study in English embracing grammar, geography, astronomy, history, mathematics, natural philosophy, and general literature.

THE TOWN HALL.—This edifice was raised in pursuance of a resolution passed by the inhabitants of Calcutta, in February, 1804. It is a superb building, applied to the purposes of public meetings, balls, public dinners, concerts, dramatic performances, fancy fairs, annual examinations of schools, &c.

The plan was formed principally from the consideration that such a fabric required a grand double staircase to admit numbers at the same time. The stairs are so placed as not to obstruct the air in the hot season. They are therefore situated to the north, a point from which the wind seldom blows, except in the cold weather. In their construction they are spacious, easy of ascent, and well lighted, so that the projection of these stairs serves as a measure, in a certain degree, to determine the proportions of all the other parts of the building. The whole effectually answers, affording every accommodation likely to be required on a liberal and extensive scale, but nothing useless or superfluous.

The vestibule or entrance, together with the two flights of

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stairs (which commodiously admit 200 persons to pass at one time), occupy the space of 100 feet in length by twenty-seven feet in breadth, forty of which are given to the entrance, and thirty to each of the stairs. The breadth is divided into three parts, two for the steps of the ascent, and one in the centre between for music, affording ample space for two large bands. On the side walls ascending the stairs, there are places for two large pictures, meant to afford a choice situation and good light.

To the northern front is added an open portico, under which carriages may drive and set down their company in rainy weather. Over it is contrived an open verandah or colonnade, which would render the principal apartments dark if it were closed.

On each side of the stairs are two rooms of twenty-one by twenty feet, and adjoining each of them a bath. At the north-west corner, a spiral staircase to the music gallery renders it unnecessary for the musicians to enter any other part of the house.

Near the western end, at about five feet distant from the centre window of the large dining-room, is the statue of Marquis Cornwallis, and at the opposite end that of the Marquis Wellesley.

The great saloon, being 162 feet in length and sixty-five in breadth, will conveniently dine 800 persons in the lower floor, and accommodate the same number at public entertainments for ladies, on the other story.

The southern front consists of two corner rooms, each very nearly a double cube, being forty-three feet in length by twenty-one in width; and a centre portico, eighty-two feet by thirty. The first-mentioned apartments serve as committee rooms below, and as card-rooms above. The centre forms the grand entrance for those who use palankeens, carriages passing round to the northern front: above-stairs it affords a spacious roomy promenade, with a beautiful view of the river, fort, &c. The building is raised six feet in the southern front, and flued throughout. An almost imperceptible slope from the outer gates leads to the northern front, in order to facilitate the entrance into the vestibule of the great staircase. On the south it is formed by twelve stone stairs leading into the lower verandah. The height of

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the rooms from this level is twenty-three feet under the beam, and paved with marble. The upper apartments are boarded with a teak floor throughout, and twenty-seven feet in height. The ceiling is covered, and all the woodwork is of teak.

The order of the architecture is Doric. It may be observed that the style is very simple, the parts of which it is composed few, but large, and particularly calculated to strike at a distance, and to ornament the town. The plan was not copied from any other edifice, but was composed expressly for the purpose mentioned. The amount which was set apart to build the Town Hall appears to have been seven lacs of rupees.

WRITERS' BUILDINGS form a handsome row of houses, connected, as in England. They are of two stories high, with one room on a floor, a kitchen, and entrance yard. They were applied, until very late years, to the reception of the writers in the East-India Company's civil service during the first year after their arrival in England, but they are at present let as lodgings or counting-houses to private individuals.

THE METCALFE HALL.—When Sir Charles (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe was about to return from India to reside permanently in Europe, the numerous members of the Calcutta community, who had long benefited by his boundless liberalities, his munificent hospitality, and the wisdom and mildness of his rule as temporary Governor-General of India, determined to pay a tribute of gratitude to their benefactor, by raising a monument that should perpetuate the recollection of his many public and private virtues, and more particularly signalize the last great act of his Indo-political life —the emancipation of the Indian press. Various methods of effecting this great object suggested themselves—the erection of a statue, the foundation of scholarships, the placing a bust, or a picture, with a mural inscription in letters of gold, in some conspicuous public building, &c.; but all gave way to the happier conceit of erecting an edifice which, while it subserved purposes of great utility, should, by its title, commemorate the worth of the excellent Sir Charles. A public library had been for some time in existence, but it had no better local habitation than the lower

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rooms of the private residence of a friend to the institution. The Agricultural and Horticultural Society was equally destitute of a building adapted to the purposes of official meetings, and the depository of curious models of agricultural implements, seeds, specimens of produce, &c. To combine the objects of these institutions under one edifice, and to give to it the name of the statesman who had long patronised both, appeared to be a rational proceeding, acceptable alike to the public who were interested in them, and to Sir Charles Metcalfe himself. A larger sum of money was, however, necessary, for the erection of a building of fitting dimensions and external beauty, than that subscribed exclusively for commemorative purposes. The deficiency was accordingly made up from the funds of the Agricultural Society and the Public Library, and a piece of ground for the Metcalfe Hall having been applied for, the government granted a site fronting the Strand Road and river on the west, Hare Street on the north, and opposite to the Bankshall, Master Attendants' Office, and Post Office.

The order of architecture is from the portico of the Temple or Tower of the Winds, at Athens, which was chosen for its lightness and durability. A broad flight of steps leads to the portico or colonnade on the west or river front, and there is a covered colonnade entrance on the east, with another and similar flight of steps, which lead up to the lobby and internal staircase.

The building is raised on a solid but ornamented basement of ten feet in height, in which there are no openings, and the columns, thirty in number and thirty-six feet high, rise from this basement and support the general entablature of the building, giving it, externally, much the appearance of a Grecian temple of one lofty story.

The columns and colonnade nearly surround the whole building. They would have been carried entirely round, and a more temple-like form thereby given to the building, but the funds would not admit of it; indeed, the limited amount of the subscription, and the necessity for so much internal accommodation, rendered curtailment of the ornament and outward decoration necessary.

Internally there are two stories; the lower one is occupied by the Agricultural Society, and consists of a hall, sixty-

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three feet by thirty feet; a seed and specimen-room, thirty-six feet by twenty-four; a museum, or room for agricultural and horticultural implements, thirty-six feet by twenty-four; a secretary's room, twenty-four feet by twenty-four; and a corridor, or passage leading to the main hall, thirty-six feet by twelve. All these rooms are twenty-two feet high in the roof.

The upper floor, occupied by the Calcutta Public Library, is reached by a handsome teak-wood flight of stairs, in a staircase seven feet wide; and opposite to the secretary's room there are the same rooms above as below, only they are more thrown into one by arches; and the roof is twenty-six instead of twenty-two feet high, which admits of galleries and side-lights above.

The lower story, or portion appropriated to the Agricultural Society, has a colonnaded verandah nearly all round, and in the principal hall above is an iron rail on the river-side, inside the pillars.

In the interior of the building there is placed a bust of Lord Metcalfe, which, with an appropriate inscription, intimates the reasons for the erection of the hall, and perpetuates the recollection of the many noble qualities which distinguished the Indian career of the worthy peer.

THE MEDICAL COLLEGE.—This institution was founded in February, 1834, by Lord William Bentinck. It was one of the last acts of that nobleman's administration in India, and one of the most useful. For some years previous to the establishment of the Medical College, a school of instruction for native doctors, as it was termed, had existed, under the superintendence of gentlemen of great ability, and much distinguished as Oriental scholars. In that school a number of young men were educated for the service of the government in the capacity of native doctors, a very subordinate and inferior grade of medical assistants. The institution was carried on entirely in the Hindostanee language, aided by a few translations in Arabic. Besides this school, an attempt was made to convey some instruction in medicine to a few students in the Hindoo and Mahomedan colleges, in the shape of a lecture twice a week. No great progress could be expected to occur from such desultory instruction, although the teachers were gentlemen of great eminence.

The inefficiency of these native schools soon became appa-

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rent, and Lord William Bentinck appointed a committee to inquire into the subject and report to him upon the feasibility of establishing a more improved method of instruction in the medical department of knowledge. After considerable labour and very patient investigation, a most masterly report upon the subject was presented, and urged upon the government to establish, forthwith, a college of medicine, formed upon a very extended basis, wherein instruction might be conveyed, in the English language, by a number of lecturers having each a separate branch of study under his charge; and it suggested that these teachers should be directed to make their instruction as practical as possible, after the model of similar establishments in Europe, more especially with reference to anatomy and the treatment of diseases.

The report also recommended that a superior class of pupils should be selected who had previously received a good English education, and that the scale of remuneration for government appointments should be increased, so as to offer encouragement to these young men to exert themselves. It was urged that such an institution would not only supply the government with well-educated medical assistants, but would be the means of improving the wretched state of medicine among the natives generally, by distributing over the country skilful practitioners in lieu of the miserable quacks who had previously formed the physicians of the native community.

The government, gratified with this report, determined upon adopting its principles. Suitable rules and regulations for the qualification and reception of pupils, the establishment of professors, &c., were drawn up and adopted, and the college formally opened.

The establishment was at first placed in a house adjoining the Hindoo College, but in the mean time, the present commodious building was preparing for its reception, and the institution, in May, 1835, was located on the site it now occupies. This is situated in the centre of the native town, and covers a considerable space of ground.

The buildings comprise a very spacious and handsome theatre, capable of containing 500 persons—apartments for the purpose of practical anatomy, a laboratory, museum, and a library and hospital. The grounds are extensive, and

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afford a fine site for additional buildings, for the reception of midwifery patients, and for the general enlargement of the hospital.

THE MUSEUM is now tolerably extensive. The department of pathology may, perhaps, be regarded as the best-furnished portion of this museum. Amongst the rest are some preparations and casts of enormous tumours, which have been removed from natives of the country. There are many magnificent specimens of neurosis and eustosis, and a collection of urinary calculi, almost unrivalled in any country. There are many remarkable examples of tropical diseases of the viscera, ulcerations of the intestines, alterations and derangements of the biliary organs, &c., together with a large number of aneurisms, diseases of arteries, and some fine preparations of monstrosities, more particularly one of a complete double fœtus, which lived for some hours after its birth. There is a fine collection of wax models, and numerous full-sized figures of dissected parts of Auzoun, &c., &c. The osteological branch of this department is well furnished, and it is especially rich in skulls of various nations and characters; amongst others, two crania of Suttee women are very interesting to the stranger.

THE LABORATORY contains, among numerous interesting articles, a magnificent series of galvanic batteries, an enormous electro-magnet, the bars of which are three inches in diameter, by six feet long; and some very curious models illustrative of the application of electro-magnetic forces to the movements of machinery, propulsion of boats and carriages, and effecting of telegraphic communications.

The pupils are maintained on monthly stipends, ranging according to their seniority and deserts. Besides these youths, there is a numerous supplementary class of candidate pupils —natives, East Indians, and members of the subordinate medical department.

On leaving college, the native graduates are employed as sub-assistant surgeons, on salaries ranging from sixty to 100 rupees per month, in the discharge of the duties of medical attendants in large dispensaries, established in different parts of the country.

That the institution is well calculated to fulfil the objects proposed at its formation, and that the labour of the teachers

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has not been thrown away upon the undeserving, have been amply proved by the result of the examinations which have annually taken place since November, 1838, for the purpose of granting diplomas. Practical proofs of the advantage and capabilities of the college have been given on each occasion, and it can now be no longer doubtful that Hindoos are as able to master the difficulties of medical science as their European brethren. We might even go the length of saying that they possess capabilities superior to the European; for the government having sent some of the students to England to study at the London University, one or two of them actually carried away the prizes from their English competitors.

The complete success which has crowned the efforts of the professors must be a source of high gratification to them. Theirs is, indeed, a situation of which they may be proud. By the triumphal result of their exertions in developing the resources thus placed at their disposal, a new era in the science of medicine has commenced in India. The blessings of European medical knowledge are gradually extending over the land; and the ignorant, chicaning empirics, who for so many years served the office of physicians in India, will be supplanted by a race of men who possess the requisite ability and scientific acquirement to treat disease with a reasonable prospect of success. At the same time, some of the most deeply-rooted prejudices of the native mind have been completely overthrown, and a new road has thus been opened for the progress of civilization in India.

NEW MEDICAL COLLEGE HOSPITAL.—This magnificent building, completed at a cost of 20,000*l.*, is one of the finest architectural ornaments of the City of Palaces, as it is, beyond all comparison, the finest hospital in India. It is calculated to contain 500 beds, and with it will be incorporated the old Police Hospital and Infirmary for Eye Diseases, which have hitherto been conducted as separate establishments. One wing of the hospital will be appropriated to sick women and children, including the midwifery ward of the college; and the most complete arrangements have been made for the comfort and accommodation of this class of patients. The building is divided into twenty-four wards, each capable of containing twenty-one patients. The wards are spacious and lofty, and arranged with due regard to the most complete

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and thorough ventilation. On the north side of the building, over the portico, is situated the council-room, a noble apartment, of large dimensions; and on the opposite or south side is the operating theatre, a room of nearly equal size, beautifully lighted from above by a large circular skylight of plate-glass. Immediately below the theatre, on the second-floor, is the dispensary, another lofty and spacious apartment, with every convenience necessary for the pharmaceutical operations of the hospital. Every room in the building is plentifully supplied with water, by means of cast-iron pipes connected with four large iron cisterns on the roof, which are kept filled by a powerful forcing-pump, communicating with a tank in the vicinity. At the four corners of the building are constructed a series of closets and bathing-rooms, admirably adapted for the convenience of the sick. The wards are appropriately named after the principal donors and friends of the institution, including the members of the old Calcutta Municipal Committee, originated by Dr. J. R. Martin, Surgeon of the Native Hospital, in 1835, by whose zealous exertions a subscription was raised for the establishment of a great central hospital in the city, and which has since served to form a nucleus for the funds necessary to the erection of the present building. A large flight of stone steps leads to the great entrance on the second-floor, where there are two rooms, on either side, for the first reception of the sick. At the head of the staircase is a handsome stone tablet bearing an inscription.

LA MARTINIÈRE.—This magnificent institution was erected and is maintained by means of property bequeathed for the purpose by Major-General Claude Martine, whose name it bears. (See LUCKNOW.)

The sum which General Martine set apart for endowing this noble charity was, as appears from the published extract of his will, 3,50,000 sicca rupees, but this having been placed at interest, had, in October, 1832, reached the amount of 9,62,825 sicca rupees, or nearly 100,000*l.* sterling. The precise objects of the charity were only indistinctly defined by the founder, while no attempt whatever was made by him to fix its internal economy. He acknowledges, indeed, in his will, that "he is little able to make any arrangement for such an institution," and expresses a hope that either the govern-

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ment or the Supreme Court will devise the best institution for the public good. The chief and almost the only points specified by him in his brief reference to the subject are, that it shall be for the good of the town of Calcutta; that children of either sex shall be admissible to it, and, after having been educated, shall be apprenticed to some trade, or married; that it shall bear the title of La Martinière; and that an inscription in large legible characters, bearing that it was established by him, shall be fixed on some part of the building. This vagueness of specification was probably the principal reason why thirty-two years were allowed to elapse before any steps were taken to carry his benevolent design into effect. It ought to be mentioned to the honour of Sir Edward Ryan, formerly chief justice of the Supreme Court, that he, when second puisne judge, was the first who seriously grappled with the difficulty, and that he drew up the decree, bearing date the 22nd October, 1832, in accordance with which the rules and regulations of the institution were afterwards framed. In terms of this decree, the building was erected. It was completed on the 31st December, 1835, and thrown open for the reception of the wards on the 1st of March, 1836.

The objects of La Martinière, as appears from the published rules, are twofold, viz. :—To provide gratuitous board, education, &c., to a certain number of indigent children of both sexes, and to furnish a superior education to boys in more favoured circumstances, who may be admitted either as boarders, day boarders, or day scholars, on the payment of a fixed monthly fee.

The foundation children, fifty in number, are elected from the Christian population of Calcutta without respect to the religious denomination with which they are connected. They are selected on account of their indigent circumstances; but the selection is made from those who are above the *lowest* class of the population, both because children of this class are amply provided for in the charitable institutions which already exist, and because, as is apprehended, the boarders and other scholars would not so readily or so harmoniously associate with them. The boys are eligible between the ages of four and ten years, and are allowed to remain till they reach the age of sixteen, though they may be apprenticed before that time with the approbation of the acting gover-

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nors; the girls are eligible between the ages of four and twelve years, and unless they are apprenticed or married, they may remain for life. The education given to the foundation children is of the most liberal and comprehensive character. The boys are taught English, English grammar, writing, arithmetic, geography, the general outlines of history, particularly of the histories of Great Britain and British India, the Hindustani and Bengali languages, and the elements of mathematics, natural history, mechanical philosophy; and, in the case of any of them who discover superior talents, it is competent for the head master to instruct them in such additional branches as shall fit them for holding in after life a higher situation than that of apprentice to a trade. The girls, again, are educated in all the branches which have been specified, with the exception of mathematics and mechanical philosophy, and are besides taught plain and ornamental needlework, knitting, and straw-plaiting.

The boarders, day boarders, and day scholars are numerous. The inducements for parents to place their children there are partly the superior character of the education imparted, and partly the comparatively cheap rate at which it is afforded. The greatest care is taken to avoid everything like an invidious distinction between them and the foundation children. They take their meals at the same table and share the same fare, are taught in the same classes, when they have reached the same rate of progress, and associate in their play-hours. The only difference between them is, that they occupy separate dormitories, though these are equally spacious, well-aired, and commodious.

The most distinctive circumstance connected with the internal arrangements of La Martinière is the system of religious instruction which prevails in it. A general idea of this system may be gathered from the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted by the governors—as a compromise, it is understood, between two other views which almost equally divided them;—"that the public religious instruction given to the children of the school be in conformity with the principles held in common by the English, Scotch, Roman, Greek, and Armenian churches; but that the school be not placed under any particular denomination of Christians, and that no points which are in

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controversy between the said churches be touched upon in the course of public instruction." A course of religious instruction and a form of prayer for family devotional exercises were framed in conformity with these principles by the Protestant Bishop of Calcutta, the Roman Catholic prelate, and the principal Presbyterian minister. The plan recommended by them and carried into operation consists of two parts, viz., the public religious instruction and the private supplementary. In the former are embraced the fundamental truths of Christianity, as they are held by the five great existing divisions of Christendom enumerated in the resolution just cited.

The private or supplementary religious instruction relates to discipline, church government, the sacraments, and other matters on which differences more or less important exist, and is communicated by the ministers of different denominations, whom the parents or guardians of the respective children may select, and who attend at the school for the purpose. The fullest latitude is given to them in regard to the catechisms to be used by their respective classes, and doctrines, or tenets, to be imparted to them.

The building of the institution, which is near the Circular Road, was commenced in June, 1833, and the entire edifice was completed in 1835. It cost about two lacs and Rs. 30,000, and is two-storied, with a large dome, which is employed as a library. Immediately under this—that is, in the centre of the building—is the chapel, on each side of which are the following accommodations for the children, viz., four large halls on each floor, making in all sixteen, employed as class-rooms, dormitory, and refectory. In addition to these, there are apartments (viz., two rooms on each floor, with an antechamber and conveniences) at each extremity or wing of the building intended for the teachers. There are two porticos, north and south, both leading into the chapel. There are besides three rooms on the ground-floor running the whole length of the south portico, the middle of which is the antechamber of the chapel, and the other two the domicile of one of the masters. Lastly, there are three rooms above these, two of which form the residence of one of the masters, and the third is the office of the secretary.

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THE JESUITS' COLLEGE, in Park Street, was built for a theatre in 1841, but the dispersal of the company of *artistes* by death and departure for England, and the pecuniary embarrassments of the theatre, caused the sale of the building to the Jesuits, who converted it into a college.

MECHANICS' INSTITUTION.—This is a small edifice of an oblong form, with a frontage resembling an Egyptian sarcophagus. It was built by subscription, with the view of inoculating the natives and the East Indians with a taste for mechanics. A few lectures were given by different gentlemen, but the means of insuring a continuance of such services have latterly been wanting, and the institution now exists simply as a drawing-school.

THE OCHTERLONY MONUMENT.—A column one hundred and sixty feet in height, with a Turkish capital and an Egyptian base. It stands on the esplanade in front of the town, and was erected to commemorate the public worth of Major-General Sir David Ochterlony, who distinguished himself by his political and military services. The pillar is by no means an ornament to the town; but it furnishes an opportunity to him who will be at the trouble of ascending by the circular staircase, of beholding from the summit an interesting panorama of Calcutta. The cost of the edifice was £3,500.

THE BENGAL MILITARY ORPHAN INSTITUTION at Kidderpore, about two miles from Calcutta, is an ornament to the place, as much from the excellent and benevolent intentions of its founders, as from the beauty of its architecture. It was established to afford a home to the orphan children of officers and soldiers; and as its affairs have always been managed by a select committee of officers, who have a brotherly interest in its success, it has been most prosperous. Children are not, however, merely housed, clothed, and educated; their advancement in life is cared for, and sums varying according to circumstances are assigned as portions to girls marrying, or as *premia* to set boys forth in the world.

THE PRESIDENCY GENERAL HOSPITAL.—The premises now denominated the General Hospital, were, in their original state, occupied as a garden-house by an individual, from whom they were purchased by the government in the year

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1768, and converted into an hospital. They were subsequently enlarged and surrounded by a wall, and now afford ample accommodation, in separate buildings, for patients and for the medical officers and establishment attached to the institution. The situation of the hospital is airy and healthy, and it is sufficiently far from the city without being inconveniently distant from Fort William, the soldiers from which are its principal inmates.

Strictly speaking, the General Hospital is a military establishment, it having been transferred to the military department in the year 1786, when the medical board was instituted; but besides the sick of the European corps in garrison, on their first arrival from Europe, who are received until their own regimental hospitals are prepared for them, the sick of European recruits, supernumeraries, and invalids of the Queen's and Company's army, the hospital is open for the reception of seamen belonging to her Majesty's or the Company's service, or to private and foreign ships, and also to European paupers. Nor, indeed, are Europeans in any other class of life refused admittance. To those who can afford to defray their own expenses, and for sick men belonging to her Majesty's or the Company's ships or other vessels, a charge of one rupee per diem is made on account of each patient.

The management of the hospital is conducted under the fixed military regulations. The immediate charge of it is intrusted to a surgeon of the establishment, and two assistant surgeons, who are permanently attached to it, and which latter reside on the spot.

THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY'S INSTITUTION, which stands on the outskirts of the city, on the road to Barrackpore, was, as its title imports, founded at the instance of the General Assembly of the Kirk of Scotland, for the education and consequent conversion of the Hindoos. It is a plain but spacious and well-contrived building, arranged as a school, having large apartments for the purposes of instruction, illustration, &c., and quarters for the teachers. The missionaries of the Church of Scotland have the superintendence of the establishment, and their system is deservedly so popular, that there are seldom less than one

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thousand youths receiving education at one and the same time.

THE GREAT JAIL is a large, airy, and healthy building, situated upon the eastern side of the race-ground. The debtors are accommodated in lofty apartments, and the prisoners on the criminal side in apartments upon a ground-floor in the centre of a walled inclosure, sufficiently wide to afford the means of healthful exercise. There is a neat little chapel within the jail, where service is performed by one of the government chaplains.

THE ASIATIC SOCIETY'S ROOMS, PARK-STREET.—The Asiatic Society of Bengal was instituted by Sir William Jones, on the 15th January, 1784, during the administration of Mr. Warren Hastings, who became its first patron.

The objects of inquiry, for which this noble society was created, were (to use the words of its distinguished founder) "man and nature," or whatever is performed by the one or produced by the other, confined within the geographical limits of Asia.

On the 19th August, 1796, the first proposition was made to provide an edifice, the expenses of which were to be defrayed by entrance-fees of members, and by a quarterly subscription; also by voluntary contributions; and as the estimates for the present building are dated in 1806, it is probable that it was about that period erected. In 1839, the apartments being found too small for the proper display of the greatly-accumulating objects of natural history and other curiosities, two wings were added to it. A third outer apartment has since been added. There are now ten rooms of various sizes on the ground-floor, including the entrance-hall, in which are the stairs, and five on the upper. The grand or assembly-room extends from end to end of the building, which is very wide, with a fine verandah on its southern face. The museum contains many beautiful objects of natural history, chiefly birds, reptiles, and fishes. There are but few specimens of quadrupeds. There is a fine collection of prepared skeletons of various animals; such as the elephant, rhinoceros, camel, horse, ox, ass, tiger, bear, hog, &c. The largest or centre hall of the lower floor being too dark and damp for other purposes, is devoted to the osteological collection. The mu-

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seum is particularly rich in both minerals and fossils, all of which have their particular gallery.

There is a great collection of fragments of sculpture found in India, of various ages, the most remarkable objects amongst which are Budhist fragments, and some of Grecian origin. One in particular represents Silenus, supported by a group of well-executed figures, male and female, but much mutilated. It was discovered at Muttra by Colonel Stacy. The sculpture is divided into classes, viz. the Budhist, and Brahminical or Hindoo. In addition to the foregoing are various inscribed slabs, some of very great antiquity; amongst these is a fragment of one of Asoka's pillars, brought from Delhi, which is upwards of two thousand years old, the deciphering of which will immortalize the name of James Prinsep, the late secretary to the society.

In the upper apartments is a great variety of weapons of all Indian nations, and of the South-Sea Islander; also many curious relics, musical instruments, &c. There is a fine gallery of pictures; but few of these, however, belong to the society: they are merely deposited for exhibition and security's sake.

The library is considered very valuable. Besides many hundred volumes of European publications in all languages, both modern and ancient, there is a fine collection of Oriental works, both printed and in manuscript: some of the latter are rare and of great value. There are also numerous volumes of Thibetan, Chinese, and Burman manuscripts; the former are very curious, and chiefly printed in large characters with wooden blocks. In the hall are the portraits of Sir W. Jones, Mr. Colebrooke, and Mr. H. H. Wilson, the works of Chantrey.

The society holds its meetings every month.

The foregoing comprise all the public edifices, excepting the Mint and the churches, which have been raised for the purposes which they now fulfil. But they do not comprehend a tithe of the institutions which the philanthropy, the policy, the taste, and the ambition of Englishmen in India have, at different times, founded, and which now flourish, to the honour of the city of Calcutta, and the great advantage of India at large. We will present a list of them, and

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afterwards describe such as are not sufficiently indicated by their titles.

RELIGIOUS.—Diocesan Committee of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, Diocesan Committee of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, Diocesan Additional Clergy Society, the Bible Association, Auxiliary Bible Society, Church Missionary Association, Christian Institution of the London Missionary Society, Auxiliary Church Missionary Societies, Corresponding Committee of the Church Missionary Society, Bengal Auxiliary Missionary Society, Seamen's Friend or Bethel Society, Christian Instruction Society, Christian School-book Society, Baptist Female School Society, Juvenile Society, Christian Tract and Book Society, Baptist Missionary Society, Ladies' Baptist Missionary Society, Native Christian Protection Society.

CHARITABLE.—The Native Hospital, the European Female Orphan Institution, the Sailor's Home, the Leper Asylum, the Howrah Native Hospital, the District Charitable Society, the Dwarkanauth Fund for the Poor Blind.

COLLEGES, SCHOOLS, &c.—*Established either by Government or the Voluntary Contributions of Charitable Individuals.*—Bishop's College, the College of Fort William, St. Paul's School, Calcutta High School, the Parental Academic Institution, the Armenian Philanthropic Institution, the Free School-Institution, St. Xavier's College, St. James's Schools, the Benevolent Institution, the Free Church of Scotland's Institution, the Principal Catholic Free School, the Branch Catholic School, the Oriental Seminary, the Union Schools, the Upper and Lower Orphan Schools, the Indian Academy, the Hindoo Benevolent Institution, the Infant School, the Entally Native Institution, the Loretto Convent and its Branch School.

LITERARY, SCIENTIFIC, &c. SOCIETIES.—The Medical and Physical Society, the Agricultural and Horticultural Society, the Public Library, the Phrenological Society.

COMMERCIAL, &c.—The Chamber of Commerce, the Indigo Planters' Association, the Bank of Bengal, the Agencies of the Oriental, the Delhi, the Simla, and Agra and United Service Banks, the North-West Bank of India, the Assam

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Tea Company, the Calcutta Docking Company, the Union Steam-Tug Association, the Inland Transit Company, the India General Steam Navigation Company, the Landholders' Society, the Ganges Steam Navigation Company, the Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association, the Trade Association, the Eastern Steam Company for the Conveyance of Goods and Passengers between Calcutta and the Straits of Malacca.

FUNDS, INSURANCE SOCIETIES, &c.—The Civil Fund, the Civil Service Annuity Fund, the Medical Retiring Fund, the Uncovenanted Service Family Pension Fund, the Universal Life Assurance Society, the Oriental Life Assurance Society, the Indian Laudable and Mutual Assurance Society, Indian Branch of the Church of England Assurance Institution, the Bengal Mariners and General Widows' Fund, the Bengal Provident Society, and about twelve Marine Insurance Societies.

Considering the extent of the commercial community, the precarious tenure of human existence in Calcutta, and the necessity which a large proportion of the public is under of providing creditors with security against casualties, the number of Insurance Societies, though considerable, is not too great for the demand. There are but four whose operations are confined to life assurance. They are all profitable and substantial institutions, owing in a great measure to the diminished decadence of human life among the Europeans, and to what has been done to render the presidency of Bengal more salubrious, and to regulate diet and habits by climate.

The Marine Insurance societies are about twelve in number; two of these, the *Union* and the *Alliance*, confining themselves entirely to the assurance of boats and goods proceeding up the river Hooghly; the remainder taking risks upon vessels and cargoes proceeding to all parts of the world. To most, if not to all of these latter offices, a marine surveyor is attached, whose report of the condition of a vessel is generally taken before a policy is granted. The affairs of the societies are conducted by four or five directors, with a secretary, the latter office being generally held by a commercial firm, who render accounts half-yearly.

There is not a single Fire Insurance Office in Calcutta;

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but there are branches of the Phœnix and London Alliance Offices.

LAW.—The Supreme Court of Judicature; the Sudder Dewany Adawlut; the Allipore Magistracy; the Calcutta Police Office; the Court of Requests.

MASONIC LODGES.—The Grand Lodge of Bengal; Star in the East; Industry and Perseverance; True Friendship; Humility with Fortitude; Kilwinning in the East; and Saint John's. At Dum Dum, six miles from Calcutta, the Artillery have a Lodge—Courage with Humanity.

We proceed to notice the most prominent of the institutions named above.

THE COLLEGE OF FORT WILLIAM comprehends a class of examiners only, for it has ceased to offer a residence to the civil servants, who commence the study of the Persian and Bengalee languages on their arrival. The schools are for the most part devoted to the education of Eurasian, Armenian, and English children, but three or four, conducted by natives, assisted by English masters, receive only Hindoo pupils. St. Xavier's College and the Loretto House are appropriated to the instruction of the Portuguese and Eurasian children of the Roman Catholic persuasion, though Protestants and others are admitted, and no attempt is made at proselytism. These last-named institutions are conducted by Jesuits and nuns, imported direct from the mother-country.

BISHOP'S COLLEGE.—The first stone of Bishop's College was laid by Bishop Middleton, on the 15th of December, 1820, on a spot of ground presented by the government for the purpose, at the distance of about four miles from Calcutta, on the opposite bank of the river, and immediately to the eastern extremity of the Honourable Company's Botanic Garden. Bishop's College is an elegant Gothic structure, of a quadrangular form, like most of the buildings of the same character in Oxford and Cambridge, but not joined at the angles, the southern side of the square being also open towards the river; thus exhibiting the buildings of the northern side as the most conspicuous objects from the opposite bank. The northern side of the building is composed of a central tower, which is in height sixty-five feet; in depth from east to west, thirty feet; in depth from north to

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south, twenty-four feet. The right or western side of this tower is occupied by a building of equal depth, but whose height is but forty feet, and its length from east to west sixty feet, the ground floor of which is the hall. The upper floor is the library of the college. The left, or eastern side of the central tower, is occupied by the chapel, a building of the same dimensions with the preceding, but in every other respect altogether dissimilar; being, of course, a single compartment, with an arched roof, in its exterior figure and decorations approaching to a miniature resemblance of that superb structure King's College Chapel, in Cambridge. The ground-floor of the central tower forms an entrance both to the chapel and the hall; the first floor is the vestibule of the library, communicating also with the organ-loft of the chapel; the second floor is the council-room, or visitors' chamber, and opens to the terraced roof of the library. The two wings, extending from north to south to the length of 150 feet (equal to that of the northern side described above), are allotted to the residence of professors, pupils, and domiciliaries. The edifice cost about 13,000*l*.

The college is founded for a principal and two other professors from the English universities, and as many students as can be maintained, either on the proper foundation of the Incorporated Society, or on the endowment of any other religious society of the Established Church, or of the local governments, or individuals. The students are educated either as missionaries for the extension of Christianity in its present form, and in the mode of ancient discipline and order which is alone recognised by the Church of England, or as schoolmasters for the dissemination of general and useful knowledge.

THE DISTRICT CHARITABLE SOCIETY is a noble institution. It owes its origin to the benevolent and zealous exertions of the late Bishop Turner. At the period of its organization, the distribution of the public charitable funds was chiefly intrusted to the select vestry of St. John's Cathedral; but as the city had greatly enlarged its dimensions, and much difficulty was experienced in determining who were proper objects of public bounty, committees were formed in the different districts, with power to form sub-committees and

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appoint visitors and inspectors. The system has worked admirably. Many hundreds of destitute people of all classes, colours, and castes, are now liberally relieved from the ample resources of the society, which have progressively augmented through the spontaneous bounty of many individuals of rank and worth; at the head, however, of whom long stood the well-known and esteemed Dwarkanauth Tagore. Almshouses and the leper establishment have been formed from the funds of the District Charitable Society.

THE AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF INDIA.—This institution was founded by the late Rev. W. Carey, D.D., who directed attention to the benefits likely to arise from the united efforts of a society, in an address from Mission-House, Serampore, dated 15th April, 1820, which was circulated, and followed up by a meeting at the Town-Hall on the 14th September of the same year.

On that occasion the names of thirty-two individuals were enrolled as members, under the patronage of the Marquis of Hastings and Lady Hastings; and the following among other resolutions were passed:—

"That a society be formed, to be denominated 'The Agricultural Society of India,' of which the following rules should form the basis:

"That the promotion of horticulture in India be considered as a branch of its main object.

"That gentlemen of every nation be eligible as members; and that all members, after the formation of the society, be admitted by ballot of a majority of the members then present.

"That gentlemen in every part of India be requested to communicate their observations upon the cultivation of the different districts in which they reside, pointing out their merits or defects, and suggesting those improvements which may occur to them.

"That the transactions of the society be published in English, and in two, at least, of the languages of India, as often as a sufficient quantity of information be collected."

The society in its primitive state, devoted its attention and means almost exclusively to *horticulture*, by awarding medals and high pecuniary rewards to the most successful native gardeners, who were required to give evidence of the

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locality of their ground, and the extent of cultivation. As a further encouragement, seeds were imported from England and other parts, at the expense of the society, and distributed gratis to those who undertook to cultivate vegetables for the Calcutta market.

These measures were attended with very successful results; the natives zealously competed for the prizes, and a surprising improvement soon became visible in cauliflower, cabbage, pease, and most of the principal vegetables of England.

From that period to the present, amidst many changes and vicissitudes, the society has gone on increasing its utility, the number of its members, and the amount of its funds, and India owes to its exertions the introduction of many of the staples of other countries, and the evolvement of the products of a soil unrivalled for its richness. Cotton from American seed, flax from New Zealand seed, sugar-cane from Otaheitan plantations, tobacco, silk, &c., have been largely produced under the auspices of the society; and in many parts of India it has conduced to the improvement of the machinery and implements in use among planters and husbandmen.

In connection with the Agricultural and Horticultural Society, we may notice

THE BOTANICAL GARDENS.—It is now about half a century since the late General Kyd, of the Bengal Engineers, who chanced to be a great personal favourite of the then Soobadar of Bengal, that "Paradise of Nations," as one of the emperors entitled it, was presented by his highness with the extensive ground on the right bank of the Hooghly, about four miles seaward from the city, which now forms the gardens. Kyd was a man of refined taste and scientific acquirement, and especially delighted in horticultural and agricultural pursuits; an inclination which he encouraged, not merely because of his innate love for the study, but in the philanthropic anxiety to improve a country of which he beheld the great capabilities very much neglected. In this spirited and laudable excitement, he began by expending large sums of money in laying out and clearing the jungly and obstructed ground; hiring and (which required both skill and patience) instructing native gardeners, and procuring plants from all parts of India, China, and other immediately accessible countries;

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and in the year 1793, having advanced his project sufficiently to demonstrate its feasibility, he recommended the Company's government (Sir John Shore being Governor-General) to occupy the ground as a public botanical garden, and disinterestedly offered it to them, on condition that it should be accepted as a free gift from himself, and perpetually appropriated to the purposes in question. He farther stipulated for the introduction and cultivation of everything that could tend to the agricultural improvement of the land, as distinct from what is implied in the mere botanical branch of the general undertaking; and his offer was accepted by the Government on the terms and in the spirit in which it was laid before them. They immediately sent round to Madras for Dr. Roxburgh, then high in the medical service of that presidency, and justly celebrated for his acquirements as a botanist, and placed him in charge, as "superintendent" of the gardens, on a munificent, but not an extravagant, salary of 1,500 rupees per mensem, and built for him a magnificent residence, such as the climate and situation required, which, originally of but two stories high, though covering what in England would be deemed a very large surface, he was eventually authorized to raise another story, as it was considered of importance that he should constantly reside there, and as the locality was deemed unhealthy in the rainy season, especially when there was no such advantage as a high and airy dwelling. Dr. Roxburgh forthwith set to work (with the skill and diligence of one who understood and took pleasure in his vocation), cutting, grafting, planting, and otherwise furthering and perfecting the object had in view by his appointment, and in a short time laid the foundation of what may be termed the richest garden in the world, spoken with reference to such of the produce of the earth as does not require artificial cultivation. In Europe, the deficiencies, and even positive hostility of climate, are supplied or baffled, as the case demands, by buildings, of which the temperature is, without much difficulty, regulated, by scientific appliances, throughout the year; whereas, in India there are no adequate means of overcoming similar difficulties; and hence a greater degree of credit is due to the successful endeavours of the practical Indian botanist.

The Supreme Government allowed for the general pur-

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poses of the establishment about 1,600 rupees (then equal to 200*l.* sterling) a month; and continued that rate down to the year 1830, when it fell, like many other efficient and creditable establishments, under the indiscriminating and most injurious economical fervour of Lord William Bentinck, and was reduced to within 1,100, which has crippled it exceedingly. Dr. Roxburgh died in 1813, and his friends erected a monument to his memory about ten years subsequently—in 1823. This memorial is composed of Chunar stone, a very durable material, and bears an elegant Latin inscription, and is in the form of a truncated column, surmounted by an urn, a favourite monumental ornament of Anglo-Indians. In 1837, his son, Captain Roxburgh, of the Company's military service, with filial piety, caused a very chaste and elegant structure, somewhat in the style of a Grecian temple, to be erected over it, so as to at once protect and adorn the monument; and the whole now forms an object of great beauty, and attracting ornament in the gardens—its very appropriate locality.

On the death of Dr. Roxburgh, the celebrated H. T. Colebrooke was nominated to the temporary charge of the post, till Dr. Francis Hamilton should be enabled to assume the office. This justly-celebrated naturalist and extraordinary man (Hamilton) remained but a few years in a situation which his genius so well qualified him to improve and to adorn, when he was necessitated by an impaired constitution to return to England; and was succeeded by Dr. Nathaniel Wallich, of whom it is but bare justice to say, that he was a worthy successor of those great precursors.

General Kyd died soon after the munificent donation which he made of the garden to the state. A monument to his memory stands opposite the principal river-entrance to the garden, at the termination of an avenue of sissoo-trees (one of the staple timbers of India) which leads through a plantation of teak, the extremity of which, reaching the river, is faced by the famous dockyard, on the opposite bank, built and for a series of years conducted by his son, the excellent and accomplished James Kyd. This monument, the work of Bacon, is of marble, and typifies the agricultural taste and philanthropic purposes of him whom it is designed to commemorate.

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The Botanical Garden, although by no means as liberally sustained by the government as its importance deserves, is nevertheless of great utility in multiplying the higher classes of vegetable produce, and in supplying a nursery for exotics of all descriptions. The natives of India have of late years directed their attention most assiduously to the practice of English agriculture as illustrated by the garden system. They constantly apply for plants and seeds, which are furnished gratis; and we have it on the best authority, that in one year only (not selected as a remarkable one), 16,000 plants were distributed among 300 applicants, of all classes, and in all parts of the country; besides 42,000 tea-plants raised in the garden for Assam. But for the existence of the garden, Indian horticulture would know no advancement; for there could be no private nurseries of efficiency formed in India as there are in England, and therefore, if the government did not uphold a public one, the art of cultivation would remain almost barbaric.

To the new arriver in India, male or female, the Botanic Gardens will afford unalloyed pleasure, as often as they can be visited, and especially between the months of October and April; but at any time of the year, rather than they should not be visited at all. The beauty of their site, the grandeur of their extent, the perfectness of their order, the magnificence of their trees, the very *life* that is in them, and which English gardeners encourage not, birds, squirrels, and so forth—and the feeling of buoyant pleasure in the escape from the town, with a delightful party; all these elements of pleasure combine to make a day passed *there*, but especially a day in December, January, or February, a day to be always remembered in an exile's life, when he shall be far out of the reach of a repetition of the enjoyment.

THE SAILOR'S HOME.—This institution has been in existence since July, 1837. Its object was to suppress crimping, and all the evils arising from it, to which owners, commanders, officers, and crews of vessels, were subject in the port of Calcutta. This object was sought to be attained, by providing board and lodging for the officers and crews, cashing their advance-notes, supplying slops of the best materials, and at the lowest rate, and affording a safe place of deposit for the savings of seamen during their stay in

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Calcutta. We believe that the institution has in many instances realized the purposes for which it was formed.

THE MEDICAL AND PHYSICAL SOCIETY was formed for the purpose of promoting intercourse among medical men. Meetings are held once a month, where questions interesting to the faculty are discussed, and papers on remarkable cases read and recorded. The papers are afterwards published in a volume.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY was established at the instance of the author of this "HAND-BOOK," with the view of affording to the town the advantages of a library of reference and a circulating library. Numerous donations of books, maps, &c. formed a nucleus, and regular subscriptions and proprietary *præmia* have since contributed to enrich the institution.

THE NATIVE HOSPITAL, as its title imports, affords relief to indigent natives afflicted with disease or encountering accidents. About one hundred patients, male and female, are generally found within its walls. The establishment is supported partly by government, and partly by the interest upon bequests, and charitable donations.

THE POLICE HOSPITAL is somewhat of the same character.

THE GENERAL HOSPITAL AND THE HOWRAH SEAMEN'S HOSPITAL afford medical treatment and an asylum to sick seamen of the navy or merchant service; but the former, as the larger establishment, and enjoying government support, receives soldiers whose regiments are not part of the garrison of Fort William, and poor Europeans of all descriptions.

THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE is a sort of court of arbitration, when disputes arise among mercantile men. It likewise forms a channel of communication between the government and the trading community, and otherwise aids the merchants to act in concert upon points involving a common interest.

THE TRADE ASSOCIATION serves, among tradesmen and shopkeepers, the purposes which the Chamber of Commerce effects for the higher classes of commercial men. The Trade Association was originally formed to check the system of unlimited credit which had filled the books of shopkeepers

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with bad debts; and it is only just to say that it has worked to a good and useful end.

Besides the public establishments mentioned above, there are several of vast importance which belong exclusively to the government, and others the property of private companies; but as they have no peculiarly attractive exterior, they have not been classed with the buildings. These are—the Arsenal of Fort William and the Cossipore Foundry, the Docks of Kidderpore and Howrah, the Gloster Mills, &c.

THE ARSENAL.—The foundations of Fort William, as we have elsewhere said, were laid during Lord Clive's government, immediately after the battle of Plassy, in the year 1757. We cannot tell when the fortifications were actually completed.

The Fort mounts 619 guns of various calibres, from twelve to thirty-two-pounders, exclusive of mortars, viz.:—the bastions and redans, 205; flanks of bastions, eighty-nine; redoubts, ravelins, and counter-guards, 197; lunettes, 122; and faussebraie, six.

The area within the Arsenal buildings is nearly a square, being 234 feet by 232. The dimensions of the room set apart for the armoury are 315 feet long by sixty feet wide, and it contains about 60,000 stand of fire-arms and 20,000 swords. The store-rooms are extensive, and contain large quantities of camp equipage, intrenching-tools, saddlery for cavalry, horse-artillery harness, elephant harness, small-arm equipments, together with different descriptions of stores required for engineering, fitting out ordnance for land and sea service, &c., as well as various descriptions of tools and materials required by artificers in the different departments, and for the supply of field-magazines and depôts at out-posts; besides which there are sheds containing a supply of field and siege gun-carriages, which are ready for service at a moment's notice. Attached to the Arsenal there is a work-yard, called the Artificer's Bankshall, in which there are at present thirty forges constantly at work. The gunpowder-magazines of Fort William are all bomb-proof, and, independent of the Grand Magazine, are made to contain some-

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thing more than 5,000 barrels, or 500,000 pounds of powder. There are, also, branch or expense magazines in the outworks, also bomb-proof, to hold 200 barrels each. So large a quantity, however, is not deposited within the Fort, the principal depôts being at Duckinsore and Pultah, situated on the left bank of the river, above Calcutta; the former at the distance of eight and the latter seventeen miles. The Grand Magazine is appropriated entirely to the reception of small-arm ammunition, and, as before stated, is not included among those (four in number) intended for powder in barrels. The proportion of ready-made small-arm ammunition lodged in the Grand Magazine is 1,200,000 rounds.

The ordnance-yards generally contain, independent of the guns mounted on the works, between 3,000 and 4,000 pieces of iron and brass ordnance, including many heavy mortars. The quantity of shot and shell for the different calibres seldom falls short of 1,800,000 rounds, ready-prepared grape and case shot included, but *exclusive* of *more* than 14,000,000 loose shot, of various diameters, for grape and canister.

THE COSSIPORE FOUNDRY.—This large and important establishment—one of the most complete and perfect to be seen in any country, erected some years since by Colonel Hutchinson of the Engineers, after he had ransacked England and Europe for the best models—is situated upon the banks of the Hooghly, at Cossipore, about four miles above Calcutta, and presents a chaste and simple *façade* of the Tuscan order, 178 feet in length. On ascending a flight of steps, the entry is into the instrument-room, in which are arranged the various boring-bars, bits, and knives, &c., used in the process of boring and turning the ordnance. Here is also preserved a model of the old boring machinery of four lathes, wrought by bullocks, forming a striking contrast with the present extensive and beautiful steam machinery. Right and left of the instrument-room is a suite of rooms for the office, model, and pattern department, &c.

Adjoining and extending along the whole length of those rooms is a magnificent boring-room, 170 feet long by fifty feet wide, and forty feet high, lighted by numerous elevated windows, throwing a strong and steady light upon the work to be executed. The roof of this room has been much admired for its lightness and novelty, being formed of iron

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trusses, covered with planks and copper sheathing. Down the east side of the room is arranged the beautiful mill-work and machinery, sent out by the Hon. Court, consisting of twelve boring and turning lathes for ordnance, divided into two parts, which can be worked either together or separately by two small steam-engines in adjoining rooms. Down the west side a range of lighter lathes has been put up for all the small miscellaneous work which the foundry has now to execute.

The ordnance boring and twining lathes are of an entirely novel self-acting principle, by which the piece of ordnance is turned as well as bored by the machinery itself; an invention which reduces the amount of manual labour two-thirds, whilst it insures a greater accuracy of the line of metal. On the north and south of the boring-room are the rooms for the vice-men, carpenters, and finishing departments.

The water for the supply of the steam-engines is brought from a tank in another yard, at a distance of more than 200 feet, by means of a siphon of five-inch bore made in the foundry, which is believed to be the first instance known of a siphon having been successfully used upon so large a scale.

At a short distance from the boring-room, connected by a covered passage, is situated the casting or smelting-house, furnished with cupola blast-furnaces for the smelting of iron, of which a good deal is now manufactured in the foundry, and the large reverberatory furnaces for the smelting of the gun-metal, in the construction of which a great improvement has been made, the metal being now smelted in about half the time formerly required in the usual description of air-furnaces. Adjoining the smelting-house are the moulding sheds and blacksmiths' department, together with other store-rooms, forming a spacious square inclosure around the principal building.

THE DOCKS, SHIP-BUILDING, &c.—In India, ship-building for foreign voyages was scarcely known until the settlement in it of Europeans, under whom it made great progress; the architectural parts being supplied by them, and the principal part of the manual labour performed by native artificers, under the instructions of the former, as in the present day.

Prior to the year 1780, Bengal was almost entirely dependent on Surat, Bombay, Demaun, and Pegue, for shipping,

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The earliest specimen of a regular Calcutta-built ship was produced in the year 1781, and named the *Nonsuch*, measuring 483 tons, and so constructed as to answer as a vessel of war, or a merchant ship: she was lost while heaving into dock at Sulkea, in 1802.

From 1781 to 1800, twenty-seven ships, measuring 14,714 tons, were built at Calcutta. From 1801 to 1821, there were built at Calcutta and adjacent to it, 223 ships, measuring 101,908 tons.

Since the last-mentioned period, ship-building has greatly declined in Bengal. This is accounted for by an increased influx of ships from Great Britain, in consequence of the free trade; which ships are for the most part constructed and sailed at a cheaper rate than ships built in India, and manned with lascars.

The first dry dock constructed at Calcutta was a small one at the Bankshall, in 1790, for the government pilot vessels; subsequent to which, several large docks were built at Howrah and Sulkea; in 1803, the Kidderpore dock was founded. Previous to the construction of these dry docks, ships were hove down at Calcutta when their bottoms required repair.

Since the formation of the Strand Road, shipbuilding has been confined, with the exception of the extensive dockyard at Kidderpore, belonging to the Joint Stock Company, to the western side of the river, at Howrah and Sulkea; at either of these places ships and vessels, of different descriptions and magnitude, may at all times be seen in the various stages of completion, and others in dock undergoing repair.

RELIGIOUS EDIFICES.—With the list of these we shall complete the enumeration of all the public establishments and edifices in Calcutta.

THE CATHEDRAL (St. Paul's), erected at an expense of 50,000*l.*, at the instance of Bishop Wilson—(opened in October, 1847), the Old Cathedral (St. John's), the Scotch Church, the Old (mission) Church, St. James's Church, the Free School, or St. Thomas's Church, the Scotch Free Church, St. Peter's Church (Fort William), a pretty Gothic building, with a beautiful painted window, St. Thomas's Church, Howrah, the Catholic Cathedral, the Roman Catholic Church (Durrumtollah), the Roman Catholic Church (Boitaconnah),

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the Greek Church, the Armenian Church of Calcutta, the Loll Bazaar Baptist Chapel, the Circular-road Baptist Chapel, the Independent Union Chapel (Durrumtollah), the Hindostanee Church, the Simlah Church (about two miles from Calcutta, where a converted and ordained Hindoo officiates), the Mahomedan Mosque (in Durrumtollah), the Orphan Refuge Church, on the left bank of the Hooghly.

Such is an outline of the prominent public features of the metropolis of British India. Of what concerns the private life of the resident, much has been said in the portion of this work appropriated to a description of society, social habits, and domestic expenditure; but much remains to be told of the minor features of Calcutta, which have more or less a bearing upon civilized existence. It is difficult to classify them, or arrange them in any particular natural order; they are, therefore, given in the sequence in which they occur to us.

TRADERS, SHOPKEEPERS, &c.—Some idea may be formed of the quantity of business done in Calcutta, and of the extent to which the wants of civilized residents are supplied, from the following list of people in trade, &c., within the town:—

Of houses of agency there are 128. Commission-agents, eighteen. Corn and oil millers, three. Greek merchants, four. Jew merchants, sixteen. Mogul merchants, eighteen. Armenian merchants, fifteen. Arab merchants, eleven. Parsee merchants, seven. Banian merchants, eight. Principal Hindostanee shroffs, twenty-eight. Principal Bengalee shroffs, fourteen. Native agents and ship captains' Banians, twenty-five. There are fifteen presses (English), besides others of inferior note, with five native presses. There are, also, six English lithographic presses, not including those worked by natives. Almost all the presses execute copper-plate printing. There are two circulating libraries. Of booksellers, six, with many native. Of bookbinders, four, with many native. Of seal and gem engravers, two. Of paper-manufactories, three. Of public auctions, seven. Of house and land registry offices, one. Of silk and indigo marts, three. Of bakers, eight, with many native. Of surgeons (unconnected with the service), two. Of surgeon-apothecaries, three. Of surgeon-dentists, seven. Of chemists

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and druggists, eight. Of midwives, eight, with numerous native. Of soda-water manufactories, thirteen, with a few native. Of artists, ten. Of musical instrument repairers, fourteen. Of professors of music (violin), seven; guitar teachers, four; violoncello ditto, three; pianoforte ditto, eight. Of dancing-masters, three. Of band suppliers, seven, with several others of an inferior grade. Of music warehouses, three. Of ship-builders, six. Of engineers, millwrights, &c., two (civil). Of ship-chandlers and rope-manufactories, four. Of house-builders, thirteen, with numerous native. Of coach-makers, fourteen, with many native. Of cabinet-makers, six, with many native and Chinese. Of general shopkeepers, twelve, with a host of native. Of general hardware-stores, one, very many native. Of wine-merchants, twenty-two, with a very great many native. Of bakers, provisioners, oilmen, &c., eleven, with numerous native. Of cigar-manufacturers, seven, with very many native. Of boarding-houses and hotel-keepers, twenty-four, besides several private, and those of inferior note. Of chop-houses, four. Of jewellers, silversmiths, &c., four, with very many native. Of watchmakers, nine, with several native. Of gun-makers, three. Of carvers and gilders, nine, with a few native. Of milliners and dress-makers, nine. Of tailors and habit-makers, nine, with many native. Of hair-dressers and perfumers, three, with very many native. Of boat-agents, three, with a few native. Of veterinary surgeons and stable-keepers, eleven, with many native of the latter. Of boot, shoe, and harness makers, seventeen, with very many Christian, Chinese, and native. Of leather-manufacturers, five. Of undertakers and stonemasons, eight.

STEAM MACHINERY.—Formerly the exportation of machinery from Great Britain was prohibited; but for some years past, artioles of this nature have been freely imported into India. Steam-engines of different powers, with all their appurtenances, and various other machinery imported from Great Britain, for the manufacture of sugar, oil, saltpetre, paper, and other purposes, are now procurable in Calcutta at reasonable prices. The Bengal government set the first example of introducing extensive machinery, in the erection of the New Mint at Calcutta, which is filled with the best specimens of the skill and genius of Watt.

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The first steam-engine set up in Bengal (it is believed) was that on the bank of the river, at Chaundpaul ghaut, for the purpose of raising water from the Hooghly, to lay the dust of some of the principal streets of the city contiguous to the Government-House. The fluid passes from the engine-well into a large brick-built reservoir, and from it into aqueducts constructed on one side of the road. On approaching Calcutta, the smoking chimneys of steam-engines are now seen in every direction, on either side of the river, presenting the gratifying appearance of a set of numerous extensive manufactories, vying with those in many British cities.

THE ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH has lately been introduced into Calcutta, and keeps up communication between that city and Diamond Harbour. It will soon be spread over India, for forty Europeans have been sent out to assist Professor O'Shaughnessy, the superintendent, in laying down lines throughout the Presidency.

THE SPORTS OF CALCUTTA.—The English have been famous throughout the civilized world for carrying with them, as the snail does his shell, their own country sports and amusements; nor does the City of Palaces, despite all obstacles of climate, form an exception to the general rule. Accordingly, Calcutta can boast of its race-course and its hunt; cricket, archery, and rackets also have their votaries; and regattas occasionally enliven the banks of the Hooghly.

The first record of the existence of racing in Calcutta may be dated from the origin of the Bengal Jockey Club, in 1808, from which time, until the cessation, caused by the general stagnation of everything, owing to the great failures in the year 1832, there were annual race-meetings in December of each year, a continuation of which was held at Barrackpore, in January following. In 1832, however, they entirely ceased, until their regeneration in 1836, since which period one, and in some instances a second, meeting has been held annually. The race-course itself forms part of the esplanade surrounding the glacis of Fort William, and is adorned with a handsome race-stand, where, on a cold race-morning in January, the beauty and fashion of Calcutta delight to congregate, and around which the motley groups may vie in point of singularity, though not in number, with Epsom on a Derby day. The wealthy Hindoos in their carriages, and the stately,

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sedate-looking Mussulmaun, are alike present to view the *tumasha*, as it is called: strange contrasts indeed are there, as in one corner may be seen the slim, wasted form of a Newmarket jockey, elbowing a fat ghee-fed Baboo; in another, the grandson of Tippoo Saib conversing familiarly with the owner of a favourite.

The races, like other amusements in the East, commence at sunrise; and unless retarded by the fogs, which occasionally during the cold season envelope the whole plain until dispersed by the sun's rays, are usually over by ten o'clock; thus enabling all classes, from the Governor-General to the sircar, to attend and enjoy the sport without trenching upon their daily avocations,—a circumstance which, in a place where none are idle, contributes mainly to the support of the turf. In former years, racing was discountenanced by the higher authorities, even to such an extent that any servant of government engaged in the turf was compelled to adopt a *nom de guerre*, to prevent his being a marked man; and so it remained until the administration of Sir Charles Metcalfe, who, with that liberality extended alike to all classes, took off the ban, and in the year 1835-36 the handsome gift of a piece of plate by the Governor-General was announced. This example was annually followed by Sir Charles's successor, Lord Auckland, who, with his family, made a point of attending the races. Since 1842, however, when Lord Auckland returned to England, the races have enjoyed but little of the patronage of the Governor-General. Lords Ellenborough, Hardinge, and Dalhousie seldom remained for any length of time in Calcutta—and they were, during their stay in India, chiefly engrossed by the wars of Scinde, Gwalior, the Punjab, and Burmah.

The class of horses most generally employed on the turf is the Arab, of which numbers are annually imported from the Persian Gulf to Bombay, and thence to Madras and Calcutta. Their chief characteristic as race-horses is their bottom and powers of endurance, rather than actual speed, rendering them peculiarly adapted for the description of races in vogue in Calcutta, which are seldom less than two miles, and often extend to three-mile heats. Of imported English cattle, there are but few specimens, but little encouragement being held out for their importation, as a

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succession of years has proved them so superior with any weights or distances to any other class of horse in the country, that competition with the slightest chance of success is nearly useless. From the Cape of Good Hope, horses are also occasionally imported, though very rarely with sufficient success to warrant repetition of the experiment. New South Wales has also furnished a few competitors, and from the general *progression* of all matters in that colony, it appears probable that India will be indebted to it for horses inferior only to the imported English.

The breeding of horses in an Indian climate for turf purposes has been attempted in various instances by private individuals, though with very rare success; the transitory nature of the residence of gentlemen in that country being obviously opposed to the success of an undertaking which, to bring it to perfection in the Indian climate, would consume many years; the necessity also for constant renewal of the blood, whether English or Arab, without which the breed degenerates into weeds, renders the affair expensive, while its necessary tediousness forbids hope of reimbursement within a reasonable time. From the government studs of Haupper, Ghazeepore, &c., horses occasionally make their appearance on the turf, though from the impurity of the blood, which is never pure through more than three generations, they generally fail in endurance, though instances have been seen of extraordinary speed, for short distances. The uncertainty of temper, of which all horses bred in the country more or less partake, is also against them. Maugre all these obstacles, a large breeding-stud was maintained for a considerable period by Mr. Sawers (a gentleman of the medical service), though not with the success so enthusiastic a votary of the sport of the turf deserved; this gentleman having regularly run horses both at Calcutta and in the provinces for thirty years.

Hunting, properly so called, on the footing of fox-hunting in England, is, though a complete exotic in the East, extensively pursued throughout India. Every large station, whether in Bengal itself or the Upper Provinces, usually boasts its pack of hounds. To the "Calcutta hunt," however, the palm of superiority has been awarded, both from the better adaptation of the country about Calcutta for hunting,

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and from the style in which the hunt-club is maintained. The hunt itself has existed since the year 1820, and is composed and managed, like the turf, exclusively by amateurs. The kennels, situated at Alipore, the southern suburb of Calcutta, both in convenience, extent, and appearance, might vie with the best in the mother-country: thirty couples of hounds, selected from the draughts of the best kennels in England, are annually imported at a cost of 200 to 250 rupees (twenty to twenty-five pounds) per couple; the management is vested in a committee of three gentlemen, with the usual adjuncts of huntsmen, a gentleman selected from the club, and secretary. The hunting season commences in November, and is considered to end in April; but during the first month of the rainy season, June, the pack regularly meet. It would surprise the denizens of the chase in England, who proceed leisurely to the eleven o'clock meet, to hear that their brethren in the East conclude their day's sport ere theirs is begun. Such, however, is the fact: the chase-loving Anglo-Indian rises by candlelight, drives himself to cover, either at Dum Dum or Gowripore, a distance of eight or nine miles, where the hounds having also performed their journey in a spring van, throw off at sunrise, half-past five, and probably finish their second jackal by nine o'clock, returning home to breakfast by ten. The substitute for the English fox is the jackal—somewhat larger in size, and when fairly put to it stretch, nowise inferior in speed; his nature too is similar, as he partakes of the love for poultry so strongly displayed in his English prototype. The country, technically so called, consists of plains or generally cultivated gardens, raised to avoid the inundation consequent on the rainy season; jungles of bamboos densely planted, in which the Indian village is situated, and which require no small skill on the part of the rider to hounds to thread when going the pace. The fences chiefly comprise bank, or rather mud-wall,—a kind of raised embankment usually from three to four feet high, with large ditches on either side,—being the boundaries of the respective gardens,—or bamboo-rails, about the height of an English sheep-hurdle; and almost the only drawback to Eastern hunting is the frequency of patches of jungle, which occasion either a check or a change of jackal; and the difficulties of pushing the jackal through the villages, unless the

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hounds be close at his brush, frequently mar the best prospects of a run.

Horses of all descriptions make their appearance at the course side, from the little wiry Arab to the imported hunter; and it is frequently found that the former is the better adapted to a country where the ground is occasionally of the consistency of baked bricks, than the latter, whose feet were never meant to be battered; for this reason, the light weights usually have the best of it, and the pluck of the little Arab, which carries him over ditches large enough to engulf himself, rider and all, cannot be too much admired. The breeding of hounds, though attended with some success on the hills, has been found quite impracticable in Calcutta; and indeed there would appear to be something in the climate inimical to the very constitution of the English fox-hound, as it is with difficulty their lives are preserved through the hot and rainy season; and it seldom happens that out of the previous years' importation nine or ten couples remain to greet their new brethren on their arrival. That terrible scourge the dil-i-baz, or palpitation of the heart, makes great havoc; diseased liver is also among the frequent curses of the kennel, insomuch that those hounds which may, by dint of the apothecary's shop, bring their blue-pilled carcases to the cover side, after the second season in India, never manifest the dash and eagerness by which the English fox-hound is so pre-eminently distinguished.

All field sports, with the exception, of course, of tiger-hunting, &c., may be attained easily at a short distance from Calcutta—hog-hunting parties frequently beset the jungles at Budge Budge. Capital snipe-shooting may be had by crossing the Hooghly, at almost any time of the year; and by going a couple of days' journey into the country, the determined sportsman may meet with plenty of buffaloes, and taste the sweets of an encounter with a leopard. Fishing, save angling in the tanks preserved by wealthy natives, exists not in or about Calcutta:—no purling streams contain trout, and the best fish, the "rooe," is caught much in the same fashion as carp and tench in England. The cricket and racket clubs are both most popular in Calcutta; the former amusement is pursued regularly throughout the cold season, *i.e.* from October to April—and a very promising

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eleven can be mustered when the duties of office will permit; indeed, such as would do no discredit to Lord's and the Marylebone. The ground appropriated to cricket is also part of the esplanade, parallel with the river Hooghly, and is kept in excellent order. Every cold-weather evening, during the drive, may be seen the practice going on, *i. e.* master hitting and bowling, and blackey fagging. The native holidays afford time to the amateurs for playing matches, which constantly take place with the Dum Dum and Chinsurah elevens: they are usually well contested, the rival eleven chiefly consisting of officers and private soldiers of the artillery or Queen's regiments; and it must be a poor regiment that cannot muster an eleven: failing these adversaries, the Civil Service or the Etonians *versus* the Calcutta Club furnish materials for a contest. The Racket Club, as may be supposed, consists but of a limited number of members, and the game is played the whole year round, during the hot season and rains (when dry enough) in the afternoon, and during the cold season, early in the morning. The court is situated at the end of the Chowringhee Road, and is divided into two separate courts to the east and west, commodious and in good order. Regattas, or other rowing matches, between the boats' crews of the different vessels in the port, frequently take place during the cold weather, and the monotony of the evening drive is varied by the contest. The immense strength of the current in the Hooghly renders it unfitted for rowing-parties, notwithstanding there have been crews formed both for pulling and sailing, though the amusement has never attained general popularity.

HOTELS AND HOTEL CHARGES.—There are several hotels in Calcutta, the first of which are SPENCE'S and THE AUCKLAND. The charges in all are pretty much alike, the difference in economy being generally attended by a material difference in comfort. The expense of living does not exceed ten pounds (100 rupees) per mensem, which includes a bed-room, and three meals per diem at the *table d'hôte*, not including wines, &c.

BENGAL CLUB-HOUSE.—There is a handsome establishment under this denomination in the Chowringhee-road. Gentlemen are elected by ballot; and the entrance and annual subscription entitle them to occupy rooms, to take their meals, play

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cards or billiards, read newspapers, &c. Of course, separate payments are made for the use of the apartments and for the different refections. The subscriptions, &c., cover house-rent, furniture, servants' wages, breakage, purchase of books, periodicals, newspapers, &c. The house is elegantly furnished, and the best male society is met within its walls.

PUBLIC CONVEYANCES.—The public conveyances of Calcutta consist of palankeens, barouches, chariots, britskas, buggies, palankeen carriages, &c., all of which may be had for hire. The Teeka (or public) palankeens are under the control of the magistracy, who have regulated the rates of hire and settle all disputes. The other vehicles are procurable from the various livery-stable keepers, and cost from one to two guineas (ten to twenty rupees) per day.

BOATS.—Wherries, or *dinghees*, manned by two rowers and a steersman, are to be found in numbers at all the wharfs; they are of a slight construction, spoon-bottomed, with a circular awning of bamboo-work, under which a person can sit; and though in general well managed, are by no means to be considered safe conveyances. They are used for going off to the shipping or across the river, and the usual fare for a European is an anna, equal to three-halfpence; but if to return or wait for the party, from two to four annas are considered reasonable; all depending on time. For trips up and down the river, within a day or two's journey of Calcutta, *bauleahs* and *budgerows* are to be had at all times. These have been elsewhere described.

COOLIES.—In every street are to be found *coolies*, or porters, who carry burdens on their *heads*, however light or heavy the load may be, provided it do not exceed one *maund*, or eighty-two pounds weight avoirdupois. Their rates of remuneration would make one of the "fellowships" in London stare, being about one anna, or three-halfpence, per mile; for short distances, half that sum.

For the conveyance of heavy goods, *hackries*, or bullock-carts are available. The rate of hire, for short trips within the town, is about four annas, or sixpence; for longer ones, from six to eight annas. These vehicles do not usually carry above half a ton, except of commercial produce, when they are limited to fifteen hundred-weight, the utmost they can safely bear.

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BAZAARS.—There are two markets in Calcutta for the supply of butchers' meat, poultry, fish, vegetables, and fruits, chiefly for the consumption of Europeans and other Christians. The oldest is Tiretta's Bazaar (now the property of the Rajah of Burdwan), situated on the east side of Chitpore-road, near the northern extremity of that part of the city occupied by Christians, and, consequently, in an inconvenient situation. It is kept in bad condition, and very dirty; so that few respectable persons ever visit it, servants being deputed to make purchases; indeed, few people in Calcutta attend personally to such matters. The other bazaar is situated at the south-west corner of Dhurrumtollah-street, the northern extremity of the Chowringhee-road, an eligible site for the purpose. This bazaar has of late years been remodelled and enlarged at considerable expense. The stalls for meat, fish, and vegetables are well built, with square brick pillars, supporting lofty and substantial raftered and tiled roofs, the whole well drained and kept clean; the pathways with which it is intersected being somewhat convex, they are dry, so that people traverse this market with a degree of comfort not met with in other Calcutta bazaars; and, consequently, many respectable persons are seen there every morning. There are a great number of other bazaars in different parts of the city, for edibles for the native population, and the streets abound with petty shops of a similar nature, to the great disfigurement of many of the otherwise best parts of the city.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT—POLICE.—It has already been stated, that there are four magistrates and a superintendent of police, to detect, investigate, and punish, such crimes as lie within their competency. Offences beyond their cognizance are sent up to the Supreme Court. For the suburbs there is a separate magistracy, whose power corresponds with that of the city officers. The *posse comitatus*, under the orders of these gentlemen, consists of a few European constables and some hundreds of native police, whose duties correspond with those of police officers in other parts of the world; but these duties are discharged in a manner peculiar to India. Serious crimes are fortunately not rife in Calcutta; about two thousand cases per annum are heard by the

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magistracy, and these are chiefly larcenies, burglaries, and petty assaults. To the chief magistrate, some native gentlemen, and the members of the Military Board, the conservancy of the town is intrusted; and this conservancy duty comprises the charge of everything which relates to the cleanliness and health of the population, the watering and lighting of the town. The funds whence the means of the conservancy department are derived consist of the assessment on houses, the liquor licenses, &c. It is a mistake, therefore, to pretend that the inhabitants are exempt from taxation, for no one can occupy a house without feeling, in the rent he pays, that his landlord is a large contributor to the coffers of the state.

A VOYAGE FROM CALCUTTA TO ALLAHABAD.

THE hints offered in the section headed "RIVER TRAVELLING" having been taken, the traveller sets forth in a budgerow, or steamer, as the case may be.

A curious and interesting scene is that which the right bank of the Hooghly, between Calcutta and Cossipore, presents to the river traveller. It is well worth the passage against the tide, to mark the strange dioramic sights which are to be seen, instinct with life and motion, and telling a history of past Indian grandeur, as well as of present desolation. Embarking at Bankshall or Prinsep's ghaut, you are instantly among the shipping, which crowds the river before Calcutta. Passing beneath the tall sides of the unladen vessels, the boat threads its way, now coming alongside of a British craft, now passing under the stern of an American, and now of an Arab trader; whilst the curious eye will observe the various crews at work on board—the clean and healthy-looking British seamen, the uncouth-looking lascars, and here and there, sitting at the stern-windows of some empty vessel from Bombay, a little group of Parsees, high-turbaned and white-vested.

But the lofty masts of the shipping are soon left behind, and the boat passes the wide-ranging buildings of the Mint,

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with their tall chimneys, "grand against the sky." Steering through a forest of shapeless pariah brigs, and large unwieldy salt-boats, we soon come to a spot suggestive of more painful thoughts, for there are the ghauts, where the dying are left to die—the Puttarah Ghaut, the Jora Bagan Ghaut—where the last ceremonies of the Gunga are performed, and then the Shussan, or place of cremation, where the bodies of the dead are burnt.

A strange, wild scene is this! Standing back at some distance from the river is a high blackened wall, with flanks of masonry at either end, abutting upon the bank, which slopes, in a gentle descent, towards the river. In the centre of this wide black wall is an aperture, with a screen of masonry on the hither side, which shuts out the revolting scene from the road on the other side of the wall; and at each angle of the curtain which we have described, is built up a shapeless hut of mats, to receive the poorer class of dying Hindoos, who cannot afford to pay the tax of the neighbouring ghauts. But turn you from the building, which is in itself, indeed, scarcely more than a great screen, erected to shut out the hideous scene of cremation from the road which passes it to the bank which slopes towards the river, black with the burnt ashes of the dead. Two or three fires are burning there, sending forth a dim red flame, whilst the spiral smoke ascends slowly, and one or two almost naked men crouch over the scanty pyres. There, too, are the charpoys, or rude native beds, on which the corpses have been brought forth; and hovering above are countless vultures, eager to glut themselves on the half-burnt corpses. Scores of these insatiate birds of prey are perched upon the abutting walls of the death-screen, waiting their opportunity to descend, whilst others, temporarily repulsed by the guardians of the funeral fires, fly heavily across the river, passing across the native boats, through the tattered sails of which you might mark their flight. Others again are feasting, a little way apart from the human death-place, upon the carcase of an animal there exposed, and contending eagerly with the huge adjutant-birds and ravenous pariah-dogs. Altogether, it is a sickening sight, rendered infinitely more sickening by the abominable effluvia which issue from the bank of death.

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But these are soon passed. The bank again is densely lined with native boats, their rude sterns arranged in thick serried lines, and their strange oar-rudders far-projecting. These, you may see, are the homes of hundreds of human beings, who spend their lives there; in each boat some ten or more strong men may be seen lying lazily about, cooking or eating their dinners, whilst on the banks which these shapeless vessels skirt, are numberless natives, men and women, the inhabitants of the far-spreading suburbs of Calcutta. Motley and inconsistent rows of dwelling-houses stretch along the river-bank, cottage and palace strangely commingled. Here a small group of miserable mat huts, there a stately but somewhat dilapidated edifice, with lofty pillars and wide colonnades—remains of a former state of grandeur—towering above a line of salt-golahs, shapeless, matted structures, erected on scarp-walls of masonry, which form, in some places, the embankment of the river. Then you see a crowded ghaut, perhaps of recent erection, or, far more probably, one fallen into decay, the lower steps of which have sunk into the bed of the river, whilst numberless chasms, as though made by an earthquake, are discernible in the upper flights. Here, again, is a large rambling house, overhanging the stream, with a long verandah above, and beneath an arched passage, through which the inhabitants of these strange abodes communicate with the river; and there a Mahommedan mosque, with its domed cupolas, rising in a picturesque manner above a group of more humble edifices. Among these variform buildings, strangely interspersed, are here and there huge masses of heavy foliage, thick-leaved trees overhanging the water, with, in some places, their bare roots exposed to view, projecting beyond the bank. Everywhere the margin of the water is studded with human beings, some coming down to the river to bathe, others to fill their vessels with water, whilst many boys and men are sitting on the banks, fishing with the rude tackle of the country. It is altogether a strange and interesting scene.

Eastward of the left bank, and distant four miles from it, is Dum Dum, the large station for artillery. It is a spacious cantonment, with an extensive *maidaun*, or esplanade, for purposes of parade, artillery practice, and review. 2,000

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men can here be accommodated. There is an arsenal and laboratory, where the gunners are taught their duty, and where the ammunition, stores, implements, &c., required by the service, are prepared. The church is an elegant building, and contains the monuments of some officers who have distinguished themselves. The mess-house, to which is attached a spacious library and ball-room, is the finest building of the kind in India. The officers frequently entertain their Calcutta and Barrackpore friends here in unexampled good style. All artillery cadets, on their arrival in Bengal, proceed to Dum Dum, and undergo a certain amount of drill before they are detached to the Mofussil.

At a distance of about twenty miles from Calcutta, after passing Cossipore, its villas, foundries, and factories, the village of Ishera, where there is a sugar and rum manufactory, the Orphan Refuge and its pretty church, Tittaghur and its sylvan dwellings, we reach the park of Barrackpore on the right, and the town of Serampore on the left.

BARRACKPORE, called by the natives *Achanuck* (corrupted from *Charnock*, the founder of Calcutta, who abided here), consists of a large park and a military cantonment, in the former of which is the spacious country-house of the Governor-General, while the latter affords accommodation to six regiments of native infantry, and the full proportion of officers. There is nothing remarkable about the Government-House; it is a plain edifice of one story in height, with lofty rooms and very ordinary furniture. Its accessories are the best features it can boast of: an aviary and a menagerie, though neither are very thickly tenanted; a garden and a pleasant promenade, where the society of the station assemble, while one of the regimental bands plays upon the green sward, constitute the chief *agrémens* of the place. Lord Auckland established a native school at Barrackpore, and left funds for its support. The regiments here, with the artillery at Dum Dum (seven miles from Calcutta), and the troops in Fort William, constitute the presidency division of the army, which is commanded by a general officer, who resides at Barrackpore. A brigadier immediately under him commands the station. The position of the troops is convenient for immediate service to the east-

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ward of Bengal, and for the performance of military duties at Calcutta, where a large guard mounts, and is relieved once a month. There is a race-ground at Barrackpore, but races have not taken place there for some years. The sports of the place are confined to an occasional steeple-chase, a run with the Calcutta hounds, and a few balls and public dinners.

SERAMPORE.—This little settlement belonged until the last few years to the crown of Denmark. A governor, with a secretary, a judge, a magistrate, and a small detachment of troops, formed the administrative and protective force of the place, which is now only remarkable as the residence of a body of missionaries, the site of the printing establishment of the best newspaper in India, and of an excellent paper-manufactory, conducted by Mr. John Marshman. The college founded here by the celebrated missionary Carey, has fallen to decay, though it still presents, as seen from the river, remains of architectural beauty. Many old gentlemen, pensioners of the East-India Company's government, reside at Serampore, as do several widows and poor families, from motives of economy.

After passing Serampore, the banks of the river again present the varied scene described above, dotted here and there with small towns and factories, now in a partial state of decay. Among the towns, in the following order, are—

CHANDERNAGORE.—A small French settlement, with a governor, staff, and a judicial administration.

CHINSURAH.—Formerly one of the Dutch settlements, and now a barrack for a single European regiment. In the immediate neighbourhood is the village of Hooghly, the station of a collector and magistrate. Here, too, is a college, containing, with its subordinate institutions, 1,500 students, nearly 1,200 of whom are Hindoos, and all learning English.

In the vicinity of Chinsurah is the civil station of Hooghly, where persons proceeding up the country by dawk usually commence their trip. The country between Hooghly and Burdwan is level and extensively cultivated; the roads are good; the small rivers are crossed at Satgaon and Muggra ghauts by suspension-bridges; and there are bungalows at convenient intervals, and bazaars, where supplies are plentiful. Burdwan is another civil station, where abide a

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revenue collector, a judge, and magistrate, with their assistants; a surgeon, two or three indigo-planters, and a couple of missionaries. The town and surrounding zemindaree (or estate) were formerly governed by a rajah; but the title only of the sovereignty has descended to his heirs, who for some years past have lived under the British Government as simple landholders.

At Burdwan are extensive collieries. Coal abounds in the plains that border the Damuda, but, owing to the want of good rail or tram roads, the price which it bears in the Calcutta market does not enable it to compete with English coal. The latter, including carriage, costs nine annas a maund—the Burdwan coal six annas—of which five annas are consumed in the expense of carriage; and as one ton of English coal is equal to two tons of Burdwan coal, it follows that the English is three annas a maund cheaper than the Burdwan. The establishment of the rail will go far to remedy this.

From Burdwan to Benares, soon after entering the Bancoorah* district (Bograh), the road runs for upwards of 200 miles through a jungle, skirted by a chain of hills of no great altitude, which constitute the country and the fastnesses of the Coles. Scarcely a building, beyond the occasional bungalow, is to be seen. The places whence the stages take their name are, for the most part, either invisible villages, solitary chowkies (post-houses), or little temples. The bearers stand out upon the road or at its edge, awaiting the arrival of the palankeen at the appointed hour, and receive it upon their shoulders from the others, whom they relieve without depositing it upon the ground, unless desired to do so by the party within.

BANDEL.—Once a Portuguese settlement, and still famous for a Roman Catholic church.

BERHAMPORE AND MOORSHEDABAD.—In its outward aspect, there is no European station which can bear any comparison with Berhampore: it is situated on the left bank of

* West of Burdwan, at a distance of thirty miles, is Bancoorah, a small military station. It is exactly 102 miles from Calcutta; and continuing the same road, parallel with the present route to Benares, we reach, at a distance of 240 miles, the salubrious hill-station of Huzareebagh, which has barracks for an European regiment.

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the Hooghly, and is arrayed with the utmost splendour of foliage; the flowering trees attaining a gigantic size, and the more common offspring of the forest occurring in great profusion, and seeming to riot in rich luxuriance.

The cantonments of Berhampore are well laid out and handsomely built; the quarters of the officers being of brick, covered with cement, like the *puckah* palaces of Calcutta, and forming uniform ranges of considerable extent. The grand square, a spacious quadrangle, incloses an excellent parade-ground; and stately houses, belonging to civilians and other permanent residents, arise in convenient spots in the neighbourhood, giving to the whole station an air of importance not usually found in garrisons, where the pompous array of fortresses and bristling bulwarks is wanting. To contrast with all this beauty, and to show the deceitfulness of outward appearances, a large arena, filled with monumental stones, gives mournful evidence of the unhealthiness of the atmosphere, and of the grim dominion of death in the midst of the most lavish productions of nature. Berhampore lies low, and had not been sufficiently drained before its occupation by European troops.

There is a manufactory of silk at Berhampore, which furnishes the bandana handkerchiefs so much prized in England, together with taffetas and washing silks. Beautiful pieces of workmanship of various kinds in carved ivory are also brought for sale from the neighbouring city of Moorshedabad. Though the artisans of the native capital of the province of Bengal cannot support any comparison with the delicate performances of the Chinese, they exhibit considerable skill in the delineations of men and animals. The common kinds of chessmen, boards furnished with richly-cut pegs for the game of *solitaire*, paper-presses, and wafer-seals, are exceedingly well executed, and cheap, compared with the European prices for similar articles.

The amusements of Berhampore are considerably increased by its proximity to Moorshedabad, a city which was once the capital of Bengal, and which is still the residence of the pensioned descendant of its former rulers. The princes of the present day are content to support an outward show of magnificence upon an income of sixteen lacs (160,000*l.*) a year, allowed them by the East-India Company. The city

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of Moorshedabad is well situated, and forms a pleasing object from the river, but contains nothing worthy of notice, except the modern palace of the Nawab, which is a splendid building in the European style, of dazzling whiteness, and rising in glittering splendour amid stately groves of flowering trees.

There is abundance of sport in the neighbourhood of Berhampore. The Rajmuhal hills upon the opposite side swarm with larger game, and the low lands around are alive with partridge, wild fowl, and hares, according to the season.

The scenery now resumes the aspect which it wore at the earlier part of the trip—ghauts, temples, villages, alternately decorate the banks. The villages in Rajmuhal have been thus described :—"I was greatly struck with the 'exceeding density,' with the 'boundless contiguity of shade,' in which the natives appeared to reside with such comfort. Place the rankest weeds—the most filthy, green, fat-scummed pools—the most umbrageous clumps of low, spreading bamboos, sprouting pollards, towering palms, tall feathery dates, and low dead or high living fences together—'mingle, mingle, all that mingle may'—and through them cast a stench the most villanous and nauseating, whether proceeding from decomposition of substances, animal or vegetable—put all these together in your imagination, and you will have a slight idea of the *agrémens* of the shady suburbs and village of Rajmuhal! But enter the village as an artist, and how massive, rich, and varied is the foliage! What exquisite foregrounds for Ruysdael or Hobbima! What splendid lights and solemn murky shades for Rembrandt! What brutal, filthy clowns for Teniers! And what villanous, hairy faqueers, rugged stumps, mouldering ruins, and shocking old women, for Salvator! Large masses of the palace are now lying in the river. The Hindoo has not here left a vestige of his political power. The Mussulman is to be traced by his noble ruins."

A little to the eastward of Rajmuhal is Malda, a civil station, where also reside a few planters. A few miles to the south of Malda, the antiquary will find matter of interest in the ruins of Gour, once the capital of Bengal. Its decline and abandonment were caused by the desertion of the Ganges which formerly flowed beside its walls. About 200 years

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ago, the course of the river took a new direction, turning off to a considerable distance from the place to which it had brought wealth and sanctity. To no part of the city, occupying a space of twenty square miles, does the Ganges now approach nearer than four miles and a half, and places formerly navigable are now twelve miles from the stream, which so unaccountably and capriciously forsook its ancient bed. The wild luxuriance of vegetation which characterizes Bengal has nearly choked up the magnificent remains of Gour; and the splendour of the city can only be estimated by a few majestic remains of mosques, towers, and gateways, which still exist to show how deeply it was indebted to architectural taste and skill. The buildings of Gour were very solidly constructed of brick and stone. Vast quantities of the materials have been carried away and sold for building in the neighbouring towns and villages; but there are still masses of strong masonry scattered over the surface of the ground, which have been so completely covered with brushwood, and so intermixed with the gigantic roots of trees, forcing themselves through the rifts made by time and the elements, as more to resemble huge mounds of earth than the remains of human habitations.

SIKRIGULLEE.—Eighteen miles above Rajmuhal we come to Sikrigullee, a village at the base of a high rocky eminence, commanding a fine view of two ranges of hills. There is at this place the tomb of a celebrated Mahomedan saint, Peer Pointie, and a cave in a limestone rock, both of which are worthy inspection. Higher up is a place called Peer Pointie, now a mass of ruins, where another tomb of the saint is found.

COLGONG.—Three picturesque rocks covered with verdure. A few Hindoo devotees reside upon them, in wretched huts, surrounded by, and almost embedded in, vegetation as noxious as it is picturesque.

BHAUGULPORE.—The Ganges is here of great breadth. In the rainy season, when the waters have risen, the river is not less than eight miles across! The situation of Bhaugulpore is pretty and healthy. It commands a distant view of Mount Mandar, an insulated conical hill, renowned as a place of Hindoo pilgrimage. There are some silk manufactories here, which produce a coarse stuff, called baftah, and a

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lighter silk, termed tusser, much used, when stretched upon a frame, for room-punkahs, and also for gentlemen's blouses and ladies' morning-dresses. The station is a civil one; but a corps of hill rangers, composed of the Puharees, or hill men, is kept up in an excellent state of discipline, to protect the country from banditti, and otherwise to act as the magistrate may occasionally require. The Puharees, who inhabit the neighbouring hills, are not many degrees removed from the savage race. They live chiefly by the chase, and always go armed. They are hospitable and honest in their intercourse with one another, though accustomed to make predatory inroads upon their neighbours or hereditary foes. Their probity is remarkable, and they are faithful when employed as servants. They believe in a Supreme Being, to whom they offer up sacrifices, and have adopted the doctrine of metempsychosis.

JUNGHEERA.—Of the interesting places which lie between Rajmuhal and Monghyr, the most celebrated is the rock of Jungheera. It consists of several masses of grey granite, rising boldly from the river. It is supposed to have formerly been a point of land projecting from the shore, but it is now completely isolated by the violence of the current. Trees have imbedded their roots amid the crevices of this picturesque rock, and on its terraces several small temples are erected. It has been, during many ages, considered one of the most sacred places on the Ganges, and is a great resort of Hindoo devotees, who crowd to it, not only on account of its reputed sanctity, but to offer their homage at the shrine of Narayan, an idol of great celebrity at this place, whose figure is preserved in one of the pagodas, and sculptured upon several parts of the rock, together with those of Vishnu, Suree, and Sirooj. Jungheera is inhabited by Hindoo fakeers, who are not above asking charity of the European voyagers on the river.

Between the two rocks there is a ghaut, or landing-place, gently sloping into the water. From this ghaut the ascent to the summit is by flights of steps cut out of the solid rock. In the temple which crowns this height, the principal fakeer is usually to be seen sitting on a tiger-skin, by way of carpet, and having the skull of one of these animals by his side.

MONGHYR, when our possessions were more limited than

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they now are, formed one of the principal military stations of the British army. When it was selected for the depôt for ammunition, it enjoyed all the honours of a frontier fortress; but, in consequence of the immense portion of territory which now divides it from the boundaries of our possessions, it has been suffered to fall into decay. A few invalided soldiers garrison the dismantled citadel, and several invalid officers have selected it as a residence, on account of its cheapness and salubrity.

Monghyr is situated upon a rocky promontory abutting into the Ganges; and the walls of the fort, raised upon a sharp angle, have a fine effect, although they are rapidly wearing away. The Ganges at this place is extremely wide, and vessels being often detained by contrary winds at the ghauts of Monghyr, when a change takes place, the whole surface of the water is covered with barks of every description. The remains of the fort are very striking; the plain is diversified by ridges of rock richly wooded; and upon some of the most favourable sites, the European residents have erected those palace-like houses, which give a regal air to the splendid landscapes of Bengal; some of the residences are painted a bright orange relieved with white. The native town is irregular, and in many parts extremely picturesque, several of the bazaars stretching in long lines beneath the umbrageous shelter of magnificent groves. The place of worship in most repute amongst the Mahomedans is the monument of Peer Shah Lohouni, which is held in great reverence by all classes of the people; the Hindoos making frequent offerings at the shrine of this saint, so highly is his memory venerated throughout the district.

A considerable trade is carried on at Monghyr from the manufactories of the place; the workmen possess considerable skill, and construct palankeens, European carriages, and furniture, in a very creditable manner. Under the inspection of persons well acquainted with these arts, they can produce goods of a very good description, and at an astonishingly low price. The most famous of its manufactories is that of the blacksmith, who works up steel and iron into a great variety of forms; these goods are coarse, but they are useful, especially to the natives, and remarkably cheap. Double-barrelled guns are sold for thirty-two rupees each,

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rifles at thirty, and table knives and forks at six rupees per dozen. Upon the arrival of a budgerow at Monghyr, the native vendors of almost innumerable commodities repair to the water-side in crowds, establishing a sort of fair upon the spot. Cages filled with specimens of rare birds from the hills, or with the more interesting of the reptiles, small deer, Seetakoond spring water, chairs, tables, work-boxes, baskets, and cutlery of all kinds, are brought down to tempt the new arrivals. It is perhaps safest to confine the purchases to iron goods of native construction; spears, which are necessary articles in the upper country, are of the best kind, and are sold at a rupee and a quarter each; and the *ungeetahs*, iron tripods in which charcoal is burned, are excellent. The guns and rifles constructed here are dangerous implements, from the worthlessness of the screws and brittleness of the barrels. Since the importation of European fashions, a vast number of new articles have been introduced into the shops of the natives; tea-kettles, tea-trays, toasting-forks, saucepans, and other culinary vessels, unknown in the kitchens of the Moslem or Hindoo, are exhibited for sale.

The fort of Monghyr occupies a large portion of ground, and, though no longer affording any idea of a place of defence, is both striking and ornamental. It has not, like Allahabad, been ever modernized, or adapted to the prevailing system of warfare, but retains all its Asiatic character. Within the walls there is a plain of considerable extent, sprinkled with some majestic trees, and having two large tanks of water.

The European society at Monghyr is rather limited; and in consequence of the major part being composed of persons belonging to the invalid establishment, who seek it as a place of retirement, the station is never a scene of gaiety; there are, however, appointments which are held by civil and military servants of the Company, who form a little circle amongst themselves, which is enlivened, occasionally, by the visits of strangers passing up and down, and officers upon military duties, surveys, &c., from Dinapore, which is situated at an easy distance. The attractions of Monghyr, as a residence, are confined to the scenery, which combines every beauty that the rich and fertile provinces on either side can produce. About five miles from Monghyr, there are some

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hot springs, which few people fail to visit who touch at the town. They are situated at Seeta-coond, "well of Seeta," and though not possessing any medicinal properties, the water is much sought after on account of its great purity. The springs are inclosed in a cistern of brick, eighteen feet square. The temperature is so hot (maximum, 163°), that the hand cannot be retained in it for many seconds. Large quantities of gas are continually disengaged from the basin. Rice, when thrown in, swells, and floats on the surface. The well is sacred, and several Brahmins are established in its neighbourhood, who are not above receiving a few copper coins for regenerating the pilgrims, who resort hither to bathe in a neighbouring pool.

The ground in the neighbourhood of these springs is exceedingly rocky, and furnishes many curious geological specimens; fluor and mica are plentiful, and *ubrue*, talc, or *lapis specularis*, also is very common. It is found in large masses, which divide easily into tough, thin laminæ, perfectly transparent. Formerly this substance was in much request with Europeans as a substiute for window-glass, but it is not now ever used for that purpose. It still forms the decorations at native festivals; and when painted with a variety of colours, and illuminated, it is often employed in the construction of mimic palaces, rivalling that of Aladdin in splendour. The hills in the distance are chiefly composed of limestone, far advanced in decomposition; they are exceedingly wild in their appearance, and inhabited by numerous tribes of savage animals.

Agriculture, as well as manufactures, flourishes in the neighbourhood of Monghyr; grain of all kinds, sugar, and indigo, are in great abundance, and the country is celebrated for its opium. Immense fields of poppies, which, though they have been not unjustly described as all glare and stalk, have a gay appearance—their flowers varying in colours, like the tulip or the anemone, and changing with every breeze that sweeps across them—render part of the cultivated district one wide parterre. Cotton plantations abound; the paths are strewed with pods full to bursting, which disclose the soft treasure within, appearing like a lump of wool intermixed with a few black seeds. There are also large tracts of indigo. Cocos are not supposed to grow luxuriantly except

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in the vicinity of the coast; but their cultivation in many inland situations in India shows that a little care alone is necessary for their introduction into the most remote parts of Hindostan.

The natives of Monghyr are a quiet, industrious race, rarely participating in the crimes which are so frequently perpetrated in the upper and lower country. Like all other natives, however, they are exceedingly litigious, and the attention of the public courts is taken up by suits of the most frivolous nature.

Above Monghyr, on the opposite bank of the Ganges, is a bund (in its average dimensions forty-five feet wide at the base, ten in width at the top, and nine feet in height), forming an elevated road, on which carriages of any description may safely be driven. It was constructed to check the incursions of the river, which threatened to inundate the province. Another cross bund, supplied with sixteen sluices for the purpose of irrigation, is constructed in the same neighbourhood.

From Monghyr to Patna there is little of any interest upon the banks, in the shape of picturesque scenery or busy town. The places successively passed are Rassalpore, Soorajgurra, Deeriapore, Bar, Phoolbarrea, and Futwa. Much grain grows upon and in the vicinity of the banks, but the major part of the country is meadow land, interspersed with villages and trees. Fruit-trees are cultivated in the gardens of the village, especially the mango, the walnut, and the tarea palm. Numerous oxen (buffaloes) and cows—so sacred in the estimation of the Hindoo—are seen grazing near the river; and the lanky black pig of the country likewise contributes his presence to enliven the scene. At Bar there are a good many boats, and the appearance of an active trade. Beggars also swarm there, and are troublesomely importunate in their demands for alms. Futwa, a little beyond which the Pompon falls into the Ganges, is celebrated for the good quality and cheapness of the table-linen manufactured there. About ten miles higher up we come upon the suburbs of Patna, where remains of old walls, towers, and bastions, attest the original importance of this celebrated town.

PATNA is the first native city of wealth and importance on

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the Ganges. It stands on the right bank of the river, and here the marshy soil of Bengal is exchanged for the arid sands of Hindostan : camels seldom penetrate farther, and from this point the hot winds cease to be felt.

Patna, though it does not contain any single building of great celebrity or peculiar beauty, is rich in the remains of Mussulman splendour, and its appearance from the river is highly picturesque. The houses of the wealthy classes are handsome buildings, flat-roofed, and surrounded by carved balustrades. The intermixture of these residences with perfect, broad ghauts, the remains of Gothic gateways of dark red stone, and the numerous temples devoted to Hindoo and Mussulman worship, produces a striking effect.

Upon the first subjection of the upper country to the Company, the city of Patna became the residence of the civilians employed by the government ; but they have now established themselves at Bankipore, a convenient spot by the river side, a short distance beyond the suburbs. The houses of the civil servants who belong to the Behar district are built in the style of those of Calcutta, and are chiefly *puckah ;* many are very stately edifices, having broad terraces overlooking the Ganges, and being surrounded with luxuriant plantations.

The situation of Patna possesses many advantages. Being placed on the border of Bengal, it commands an easy communication with the upper and lower provinces ; supplies are rapidly procured from Calcutta by the river, and the earliest choice of articles may be obtained from the cargoes.

The military cantonments of Dinapore are only a few miles distant, and at favourable periods contribute not a little to the gaiety of the district. The cantonments are handsome and well laid out ; and the performances of the military bands in the evening, upon the parade-ground, attract the whole population to the spot.

Dinapore has the advantage of its neighbour in the beauty of the surrounding country ; it is better wooded, and more picturesque ; but it may be said with truth of almost every part of Hindostan, that the face of the country bears two aspects, being exceedingly ugly in the dry season, and very beautiful in the rains.

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Patna is a stronghold of Mahomedanism, and the disciples of the prophet who dwell within its walls are far more fanatic and intolerant than their brethren of Bengal. The riches of the city enable it to celebrate the obsequies of the young martyrs, Hossein and Houssien, in a very splendid manner; and their noble square is selected for the final depository of the tazuhs, or tombs, which are carried about in commemoration of the funeral honours paid by the followers of Ali to his slaughtered sons.

Patna carries on an extensive trade, and is famous for its manufactories of table-linen, wax candles, lackered toys, and talc pictures. It also possesses very expert workmen in every department of mechanical art. Amongst the minor branches are bird-cages, constructed with great ingenuity and even elegance, the frames of some being delicately inlaid with ivory, while the wires of others are strung with coloured beads. The natives of India are fond of keeping birds as domestic pets. The beautiful little *avadavats*, or *lolls*, as they are commonly called by the natives, on account of their bright ruby colour, are in great request; these, together with many other kinds, are easily procurable at Patna. This city is a grand mart for opium.* The soil is also favourable to the growth of potatoes, a vegetable which is much cultivated for native consumption in India.

The streets of Patna can only be traversed on horseback, or upon an elephant, being too narrow to admit of any wheel-carriage superior to the native *rhut*, a creaking vehicle composed of wood and rope, in which the ladies of the country, concealed from public view by thick curtains, huddle themselves when they travel or pay visits; and the *ecka*, a light pony-gig, on two wheels, covered with cloth. The best houses

* The poppy is cultivated to a very considerable extent in the vicinity, and the opium thence extracted, is the property of the East-India Company. Including the opium manufactured in Malwa, the Company derives a revenue of scarcely less than 3,000,000*l.* sterling from the opium monopoly. This is nearly equal to one-seventh of the entire revenue of India! This great source of income has the peculiarity of being paid, not by our own subjects, but by strangers, consisting of Chinese, Malays, and Javanese. The principal consumers of opium are the Chinese. The opium transmitted to Calcutta in chests is sold by auction, and shipped by merchants to the Chinese ports. As many as 50,000 chests of 140 lbs. each are annually exported.

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face the river; many of these have a dismal appearance on the side of the street, showing only a high blank wall, perforated with a few small windows in the upper story. Other mansions are enclosed in large walled courts; and in passing along the principal street, many porticoes are visible peeping out of recesses, or small quadrangles, which seem to be the entrances to buildings belonging to people of rank. The houses tenanted by the middling classes are exceedingly crazy, and have somewhat of a Chinese air, each story lessening in size, and standing in the verandah of the one below. They are removed a little from the public path, crowded during the day with men and animals, by being raised upon a platform about a foot high from the street. The houses occupy the centre of this platform, a margin being left all round, which sometimes stretches beyond the verandah, and forms a shelf, or counter, on which the goods of the inferior shopkeepers are displayed in baskets, none of the richer and more elegant articles being exposed to public view in India. The shop of the *hukeems*, or apothecaries, make the best appearance: they are furnished in the primitive style, with herbs of various kinds neatly arranged.

Amidst much that is unsightly, there is a something to admire in the long avenue which stretches from gate to gate of the city, every few yards bringing some picturesque object to view; lofty open cupolas, in the most elegant style of Mogul architecture, surmounting mosques, or contrasted with solid towers of the dark red stone, which seems to have been the favourite material in former times. One of these latter is a singular building, somewhat resembling a glass-house; it was intended for a granary, but has never been used for that or any other public purpose, excepting as an occasional powder magazine.

On the opposite bank of the river, at Hadjeepore, or in its neighbourhood, at Sonepore, a fair is held annually, which attracts a vast concourse of people, both native and European, to its festivities. The period is regulated by the changes of the moon. The natives come in thousands to bathe at the confluence of the Ganges and the Gunduck, which of course possesses a *double* virtue. Duty carries some of the civil servants to the scene of action, and others proceed thither in order to recreate themselves, during a brief

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period, with the amusements which the assemblage of families from various parts of the country seldom fails to occasion. The fair takes place at a convenient season—the commencement of the cold weather. The visitors pitch their tents on the plain, and, when there is a full attendance, form extensive camps. Horse-races, balls, dinner-parties, concerts, and private theatricals, constitute the principal amusements of the Europeans.

The actual fair is, of course, a very secondary object; they, however, who have enough cash to make extensive purchases, may provide themselves with the richest productions of the East—shawls, pearls, gold ornaments, and precious stones. Elephants, horses, singing-birds, &c., are likewise obtainable in numbers. Many of the tents are extremely splendid, those of the wealthy natives, in particular, being bordered with scarlet cloth, cut into fanciful patters. The double-poled tents of the civilians are scarcely, if at all, inferior in their external decoration, and the interiors are furnished with great elegance. Rich carpets are spread over the *settringees* which cover the floor, and small chandeliers are suspended from the roof. The walls are hung with some gay-patterned chintz, and the sideboards glitter with plate. No privations are felt by the dwellers under canvas: the repasts being equally well served in the midst of a sandy waste as in the kitchen attached to a magnificent mansion.

The Mahomedans, who consist of Syuds, Sheikhs, Moguls, and Patans, form a large part of the population of the city of Patna, which embraces about 300,000 souls. The Syuds and Sheikhs intermarry, but no other castes do. All marriages are contracted through the parents, and they are usually celebrated in the months of January and February. There are many mosques or musjids in Patna, but the principal place of actual worship is the monument of Shah Arzani, about the middle of the western suburb. Adjacent to the tank is an Imaumbarah, where 100,000 people assemble, with the pageantry used in celebrating the Mohurrum, in commemoration of the grandsons of the prophet. The only places of worship at all remarkable among the followers of the Brahmins, are the temples of the great and little Patana-devi, Pataneswari, or the guardian of Patana, *i. e.* the city.

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The building is small, but avowedly recent, and has been erected at the expense of the priests.

Passing Dinapore and Deegah, once an extensive farm, but now a provisioner's store, where every variety of cured pork and beef may be had in great abundance and of good quality, we see the embouchure of the river Soane, or golden river, which rises in the distant mountainous country of Gundava. This river affords millions of beautiful pebbles and petrefactions, which are cut and sold for bracelets, &c. Above the mouth of this river are many Moslem and Hindoo ruins, but they are not visible unless the traveller lands.

CHUPRAH.—This is a civil station, the capital of Sarun. The town, which consists of one large and several small streets, contains a great many native houses, and some mosques and pagodas. It extends for about a mile or more along the bank of the Ganges. The district of Sarun is one of the healthiest in India, but the roads are bad, and there is little or no game to reward the toil of the sportsman. The town of Chuprah contains 50,000 souls, which is about a twentieth part of the entire population of the district.

To the east of Chuprah lies the district of Tirhoot, where immense quantities of indigo are grown. The civil station of Tirhoot is Mozufferpore. This district is separated from the kingdom of Nepaul by a jungly swamp, called the Terai, which affords excellent cover for game, but is so unhealthy as to be impassable at certain seasons.

The climate of the province of Behar, which we have now entered, is, in some respects, superior to that of Bengal. The nights are generally much cooler; but the province is more subject to great droughts and heat, and to parching winds from the west. Tirhoot, the north-western quarter of the province, is more elevated and healthier than the districts to the south.

After passing Revelgunge, famous for the number of boats built there, and the villages of Boujpore and Bhulea, we reach Buxar, where the river runs rather narrow.

BUXAR.—This place, celebrated in the history of British India as the scene of the battle which confirmed us in possession of Bengal and Behar, is a large Mussulman town. A few invalid soldiers reside in the fort, but the circumstance

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which chiefly imparts importance to the place, is the Company's stud which is kept up here and at Koruntadhee, on the opposite side of the river. These studs produce the finest horses for cavalry and artillery purposes in India. The country round about is rich in grain, wheat, oats, and barley. Here the thatched houses of the natives begin to disappear, and the tiled roofs, common to the upper provinces, to make their appearance.

Nothing further of interest presents itself on either bank beyond a ruined fort or two, and some indigo factories (where the river traveller always finds a welcome), until we get to

GHAZEEPORE.—A military cantonment where one royal regiment is generally quartered, a civil station, another stud depôt, and a celebrated place for the manufacture of rose-water. The appearance of the town, as seen from the river, is rather pleasing than otherwise. The houses are chiefly built of a flesh-coloured stone, procurable at the neighbouring station of Chunar, which gives them an imposing exterior. The most remarkable edifices are the palace of Cossim Ali Kahn, a new fort, crumbling to decay, and the cenotaph to the memory of the Marquis of Cornwallis. This latter stands about 100 paces from the banks of the Ganges, in the rear of the barracks, and is built in imitation of the Sibyl's temple. At the end of a grove is a circular enclosure, fenced by handsome iron railings eight feet high. In the centre of this is the tomb. On the face fronting the main entrance (or rather the only one, for the doorway farthest from the river opens only into the colonnade, there being no steps on that side for descending to the ground), between two natives, a Hindoo to the right and a Mahomedan to the left—in attitudes of lamentation, is a large medallion charged with a profile of Lord Cornwallis in bas relief. Beneath this, is the following legend :—

Sacred to the Memory of
CHARLES MARQUIS CORNWALLIS,
Knight of the Most Noble Order of the Garter,
General in His Majesty's army,
Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief in India,
&c. &c. &c.
His first administration,
Commencing in September, 1786, and terminating in October, 1793,
Was not less distinguished, by the successful operations of war,

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And by the forbearance and moderation with which he dictated the terms of peace,
Than by the just and liberal principle, which marked his internal government;
He regulated the remuneration of the servants of the State
On a scale calculated to ensure the purity of their conduct,
He laid the foundation of a system of revenue
Which, while it limited and defined the claims of government,
Was intended to confirm hereditary rights to the proprietors,
And to give security to the cultivators of the soil.
He framed a system of judicature
Which restrained within strict bounds the powers of public functionaries,
And extended to the population of India the effective protection of laws
Adapted to their usages, and promulgated in their own languages.
Invited, in December, 1804, to resume the same important station,
He did not hesitate, though in advanced age, to obey the call of his country.
During the short term of his last administration,
He was occupied in forming a plan for the pacification of India,
Which, having the sanction of his high authority, was carried into effect
By his successor.
He died near this spot, where his remains are deposited,
On the 5th day of October, 1805, in the 67th year of his age.
This monument, erected by the British Inhabitants of Calcutta,
Attests their sense of those virtues,
Which will live in the remembrance of grateful millions,
Long after it shall have mouldered in the dust.

The reverse side of the monument is occupied by a shield emblazoned with the Company's arms, on one side of which is a British grenadier, and on the other a native sepoy, both resting on their arms reversed. Below, is a long inscription in the Persian character, and on each side of the monument is a large wreath of laurel.

The palace of Cossim Ali Kaĥn will, on inspection, repay the admirer of Saracenic architecture for the time he may bestow upon it. The English church is also a fine building, and the school and the jail are worth a brief visit. The celebrity of Ghazeepore for its rose-water justifies our giving some minute particulars of its manufacture, from a popular authoress who has spoken of it at large.

"The precious incense of the rose, the *atta-gool*, so celebrated throughout all the civilized parts of the world, is produced in considerable quantities in the gardens round

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Ghazeepore. The Indian rose, though its very name seems to imply distinction, can only sustain a comparison with its European sisters in the fragrance which it yields. It is beautiful, but excepting at Agra, it does not attain to the magnificent size common in England, nor does it present the infinite varieties which adorn our gardens. The cultivators of India are content to take what the hand of nature has given them, and resort to few aids for the improvement of her lavish beauties; to a large majority, the rose appears to be too valuable a plant to be made the mere embellishment of a bouquet, and for commercial purposes, that which they have found indigenous to the soil proves quite sufficient.* * * The roses of Ghazeepore are planted formally in large fields, occupying many hundred acres of the adjacent country.

"The first process which they undergo when convertible into a fragrant liquid is that of distillation. They are put into the alembic with nearly double their weight of water. The *goolāābee pāānee* (rose-water) thus obtained is poured into large shallow vessels, which are exposed uncovered to the open air during the night. The *navnes*, or jars, are skimmed occasionally; the essential oil floating on the surface, being the precious concentration of *aroma* so highly prized by the worshippers of the rose. It takes 200,000 flowers to produce the weight of a rupee in *atta*. This small quantity, when pure and unadulterated with sandal-oil, sells upon the spot at 100 rupees (ten pounds), an enormous price, which, it is said, does not yield very large profits. A civilian having made the experiment, found that the rent of land producing the above-named quantity of *atta*, and the purchase of the utensils, alone, came to five pounds; to this sum the hire of labourers remained still to be added, to say nothing of the risk of an unproductive season. The Damascus, or rose of Sharon, is the flower in most esteem in some parts of India; in others, the common cabbage or hundred-leaved rose is the favourite. The oil produced by the above-mentioned process is not always of the same colour, being sometimes green, sometimes bright amber, and frequently of a reddish hue. When skimmed, the produce is carefully bottled, each vessel being hermetically sealed with wax, and the bottles are then exposed to the strongest heat of the sun during several days.

"Rose-water which has been skimmed is reckoned inferior

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to that which retains its essential oil, and is sold at Ghazeepore at a lower price; though, according to the opinion of many persons, there is scarcely, if any, perceptible difference in the quality. A *seer* (a full quart) of the best may be obtained for eight *annas* (about one shilling). Rose-water enters into almost every part of the domestic economy of the natives of India; it is used for ablutions in medicine, and in cookery. Before the abolition of *nuzzurs* (presents), it made a part of the offering of persons who were not rich enough to load the trays with gifts of greater value. It is poured over the hands after meals; and at the festival of the *Hoolee*, all the guests are profusely sprinkled with it. Europeans, suffering under attacks of prickly heat, find the use of rose-water a great alleviation. Natives like it internally for all sorts of complaints; they consider it to be the sovereignest thing on earth for an inward bruise, and *eau de Cologne* cannot be more popular in France than the *goolāābee pāānee* in India. Rose-water, also, when bottled, is exposed to the sun for a fortnight at least.

The environs of Ghazeepore are planted with fine forest trees. Birds abound, the branches are loaded with the pendulous nests of the crested sparrow, and the blue jay sports in dangerous proximity to the Ganges, being selected at a barbarous Hindoo festival as a victim to the cruel Doorga. There are some fine old banian-trees in the neighbourhood of Ghazeepore; one in particular, which overshadows a *ghaut* in an adjacent village, may be styled the monarch of the Ganges. This tree, as well as the peepul, is sacred; and when a Brahmin takes up his abode under its boughs, it becomes an asylum for all sorts of animals; the fine old patriarch of the woods near Ghazeepore is the haunt of innumerable monkeys, which actually crowd the branches, and gambol along the steps of the *ghaut*, perch upon its balustrades, and play their antics with the bathers in perfect security, and in multitudes which remind the gazer of rabbits in a warren. Snakes are very numerous in this part of the country, and their deadly enemy, the mungoose, is frequently seen on the watch for his victims, which he pursues with unrelenting animosity.

Village and cultivated field, temple and factory, ghauts

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and stately trees, now greet the eye until the boat approaches the holy city of

BENARES (399 miles from Calcutta by land). — Here Hindoo superstition has its chosen abode. Rank intolerance to this moment characterises the bearing of its inhabitants towards people of all persuasions.* In external appearance, Benares is a miniature Naples, being built upon a curve washed by the Ganges, which thus resembles a little bay. The city rises from the river; spires, temples, ghauts, with long flights of steps, balconies, lofty houses, intermixed with trees, walls, minarets, &c., all in close contiguity, giving it the air of a populous and densely-built town. The aspect within verifies the view from without. The streets are so narrow, that wheeled carriages cannot pass; an elephant will occupy the entire width, and make sad havoc with the wares placed a foot or two from the shop fronts. The most remarkable building is an observatory, originally erected for the use of the Hindoo astronomer, but now completely disused. The view from its summit is most striking. Oriental learning flourishes at Benares, and its wealth, considerable from the operations of commerce, is much enhanced by the frequent visits of pilgrims of the highest rank, who not only make propitiatory offerings, but spend considerable sums in their own pleasures. The trade of the town consists chiefly in shawls, precious stones, gold and silver brocades, called *Kincaubs*, gold and silver tissue, lace, and fringes. There is a military cantonment here, at Secrole, four miles distant, where three infantry regiments and a proportion of artillery are quartered. At Secrole there is a church, pretty theatre, and a racket-ground. The bungalows of the European officers are commodious buildings, and as the society of the station consists of some forty or fifty individuals, life glides away pleasantly enough, especially if the general officer who commands the division and the judge of the district are

* Benares is one of the most unsafe and rebellious cities in Hindostan. It once successfully opposed a house-tax imposed on the people by the British Government. There was also recently a strong commotion when the magistrate attempted to equalize the weights and measures. To show the hostility of the Hindoos of Benares to the English, it may be mentioned that when we lay before Bhurtpore in 1826, no less than 30,000 sabres were sharpened at the cutlers' in expectation of our repulse.

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on harmonious terms, and set a good example of hospitality. The population of the district consists of nearly 520,000 souls, 174,000 of whom reside in the city.

The Hindoo population may be divided into the four great divisions of the Hindoo Shasters. The present rajahs of Benares claim to be "Bhoomijas Brahmins," or Brahmins cultivating the soil. They represent themselves to be of the higher castes of pure descent.

Among the higher classes of the Hindoos, the strictest appearance of morality is maintained; and infidelity involves the penalty of loss of caste, ruin, and disgrace to the female —the husband being, likewise, an outcast, till he has performed certain religious atonements, and purchased restoration to his caste by feeding his brethren, or Brahmins. The lower classes wear the marriage tie lightly; but they are faithful, for the time, to the persons with whom they may be united, whether he be a husband or protector. Among these, the Dornes, Passees, and Bhurs, are apparently the aboriginal possessors of the country; but they now perform the lowest offices, being burners of the dead, watchmen, and scavengers. They are regarded as most impure by the higher classes of the Hindoos, and to touch or approach them is defilement. They are much given to theft and pilfering.

The Pagans may be considered as amounting to 457,417, and the Mahomedans to 62,486. In Benares and its vicinity there may be from 200 to 300 Christians, and the missionaries have many schools and chapels throughout the city. The Hindoo temples are extremely wealthy in endowments, and are in good repair, while the Mahomedan mosques are in many instances ruinous and deserted. This town has been described by the late Colonel Davidson as the "Jerusalem of Hindostan." "It," he says, "swarms with orthodox and heretodox teachers of the worship of all the gods. It also swarms with Brahminee bulls; devout, rich, corpulent, active, and anchylosed mendicants. It is sacred ground—so very sacred that it is believed that if a Feringee (or a European) should die within its holy precincts, although he had even killed cows, he would go to heaven." Most of the Hindoo princes possessed houses here, and visited it occasionally

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in barbaric pomp, during the period of their purification from sins contracted in less holy habitations.

A few miles higher up the river stands CHUNAR, a fortress and a station, the latter composed of pretty villas within their separate compounds, and the former built in the native style, and kept up as a place of confinement for state prisoners. The garrison consists of some native invalids, a detachment of artillery and native infantry. Chunar is celebrated for its tobacco and its quarries of free-stone, which form an article of commerce throughout Bengal and Behar.

MIRZAPORE (401 miles from Calcutta), a trading town of considerable consequence, is next reached. It is large and populous, not unlike Benares in its general aspect as well as in its position upon the river. The Mirzapore carpets are famous all over India; but the importance of the town is chiefly derived from its position as the emporium of all the cotton grown in the interior. Many hundred boats are employed to convey this staple, in its raw condition, to Calcutta, whence it is shipped to Europe and China, or worked up for consumption in the country. There is an establishment of civil officers here, and a regiment occupies the cantonment.

The river now winds considerably; the high lands, called the Bingie Hills, hitherto in view, are entirely lost sight of, and the banks become uninteresting as far up as the Dooab, where the junction of the waters of the rivers Jumna and Ganges takes place, and at the extremity of which stands Allahabad.

ALLAHABAD (402 miles *by land* from Calcutta), or "the abode of God," acquired this name from the Mussulman conquerors of India, who have left memorials of their splendour in a fortress once unequalled in beauty, and now gaining in strength what it has lost in external appearance. The city itself does not display those remains of magnificence which might have been expected in a place once favoured by the presence of royalty. It now retains few vestiges of the Mogul conquest, save the appellation and the buildings before mentioned, its Mussulman inhabitants being limited in numbers, and of little importance as regards their wealth, rank, or talent. The city is almost wholly given up to idolatry, and has ever been celebrated for the pilgrimage of pious

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Hindoos, attracted to a spot blessed by the junction of two sacred rivers.

The principal object of curiosity and attraction at Allahabad is the fort, which is erected upon the point of land stretching into the waters of the Ganges and Jumna, whose broad currents are united beneath its walls. Though injured in its appearance by the alterations and additions necessary to transform an ancient Mogul castle into a place of strength, according to the modern art of fortification, it still retains somewhat of its Oriental and feudal air, rising in majestic grandeur from the river, whence it may be espied at a very considerable distance.

There are low posterns leading to the glacis facing the river; but the principal entrance of the Fort of Allahabad is landward, and is not to be paralleled in magnificence by any building intended for a similar purpose. A noble arched hall, in the Gothic style, surmounted by a dome, and enriched with "arabesques of gold and flowers," appears beyond the ample portal, an entrance worthy of the finest citadel in the world. The interior, containing ranges of buildings not entirely divested of the beauty of their original architecture, affords, at least during two seasons of the year, some of the most delightful residences to be found in India. A suite of apartments, intended for the use of the Governor, but which is sometimes occupied by an inferior officer, commands a splendid view of the Jumna, with its craggy heights and wild sandy shores. From a balcony perched near the summit of a tower on which the windows of one of the chambers open, a prospect of singular beauty is obtained. The spectator looks down upon a grove of mango-trees, flanking a fine esplanade, and peopled with innumerable ring-necked paroquets. Above, upon pediment and pinnacle, other inhabitants of the air erect their nests, and plume their wings. Along the thickly-wooded shores of the Allahabad bank, buildings of various degrees of interest are interspersed on the small islands which rear their sandy platforms above the surface of the river; and the opposite shore of Bundelkund, rising in towering cliffs, crowned with pagodas or the remnants of hill forts, forms a noble background.

The cantonments of Allahabad are beautifully picturesque, having a greater diversity of hill and dale than is usually

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seen upon the plains of India, and being finely wooded in every direction. Two or three regiments of native infantry and some artillery, commanded by an officer of rank, form the garrison of Allahabad.

The undulating surface of the country round Allahabad affords numerous advantageous sites for bungalows, many of which are erected in very excellent situations, commanding views of great beauty.

The station has never been remarkable for its festivities; yet its balls and parties sometimes attract visitors from the smaller and duller military posts of Chunar, Mirzapore, and Pertaubghur in Oude. There is a theatre at Allahabad, where amateurs occasionally perform; but the chief resource for the gentlemen appears to be the billiard-table. A tolerably well-supported book-club furnishes the floating literature of the day, to the many who seek for amusement only in the pages of a book. The rocky character of the bed of the Jumna affords to geologists a field for their pursuits, which they would seek in vain in the muddy alluvial soil watered by the Ganges. Amidst pebbles of little value, interesting and curious specimens of cornelians, and stones even more precious, are occasionally found. The opposite district of Bundelkund is famous for diamonds, equalling in value and splendour those of the Golconda mines, and in some particular spots they are found in considerable quantities. All below a certain weight are the property of the persons who may chance to gather them; the larger sort belong to a rajah, who is bound to give a certain price in the event of his claiming the privilege of purchase. The native method of gathering diamonds, which is the least expensive, and perhaps, on that account, the best, is very simple. A few labourers clear a convenient space on a rocky surface, and when it is laid bare, they bring buckets of earth from the places supposed to be the most thickly sown with the gems, and sifting it through their hands, easily find the diamonds, which, even in their rough state, are extremely luminous. The hire of the workman comprises the whole of the outlay, and diligent seekers frequently gather a rich harvest.

The situation of Allahabad is healthy; but either from its proximity to the two rivers, or the quantity of wood, which gives the surrounding country so luxuriant an appearance, it

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is more humid than any other place in the Dooab, and possesses a peculiar character of its own, the hot winds being considerably mitigated, and rain falling at seasons when other parts of the country are dry. The gardens are, in consequence, very productive; in those belonging to the British residents, artichokes in particular flourish, attaining a size unknown in less favourable soils in the neighbourhood. The rich tapestry of the jungles, those splendid creepers, which hang their fantastic wreaths upon every adjacent bough, are the great ornament of the pleasure-grounds of Allahabad. The native gardeners train them somewhat formally upon erect bamboos, whence they trail their magnificent garlands down to the ground, forming huge conical mounds.

Allahabad affords a mournful example of the want of public spirit in the Mussulman population of its neighbourhood. A noble caravanserai, built by Sultan Khosroo, which forms a superb quadrangle, entered by four Gothic gateways, and surrounded by cloisters running along the four sides of a battlemented wall, the usual accommodation for travellers offered by an Indian hostel, has been permitted to fall into a state of deplorable decay. The garden adjoining, finely planted with mango-trees, is also in a neglected and deteriorated state. Three tombs, erected according to the fine taste displayed by the Mahomedans in the selection of the site of their mausoleums, in this garden, have, from the extraordinary solidity of their construction, escaped the destroying hand of Time.

Allahabad, or at least the confluence of the rivers which belong to it, is held in high estimation by the Hindoos, being a place of pilgrim-resort. When a pilgrim arrives here, he sits down on the brink of the river, and has his head and body shaved, so that each hair may fall into the water; the sacred writings promising him one million of years' residence in heaven for every hair thus deposited. After shaving, he bathes, and the same day, or the next, performs the obsequies, or *shraad*, of his deceased ancestors. Many persons renounce life at this holy confluence, by going in a boat, after performing certain solemnities, to the exact spot where the rivers unite, when the devotee plunges into the stream, with three pots of water tied to his body. Occasionally, also, some lose their lives by the eagerness of the devotees to rush in and

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bathe at the most sanctified spot, at a precise period of the moon, when the expiation possesses the highest efficacy. The Bengalees usually perform the pilgrimage of Gya, Benares, and Allahabad, in one journey, and thereby acquire great merit in the estimation of their countrymen. Allahabad is the permanent station of a court composed of a body of judges, whose office is the same, with regard to these provinces, as that of the Sudder Dewanny Adawlut, in Calcutta, is for the more eastern portions of the empire. This court makes circuits during the months which permit travelling, generally pitching their tents near towns, and holding their courts under trees; an arrangement extremely agreeable to native prejudices, especially those of the lower classes, who always feel afraid, and are under a constraint in a house, particularly if furnished after the European fashion, where they can neither tell their story well, nor attend to what is going on.

The steam-vessels which navigate the Ganges from Calcutta terminate their voyage at Allahabad, as there is not at all times sufficient water for a protracted trip. Since their establishment, the commerce of Allahabad has much increased, and establishments have sprung up which expressly provide for the comfort of the traveller about to proceed downward in the steamer, or higher up the country by boats (on the Jumna) or land conveyance. We close the river sketch here, and carry the traveller to other points by land. It is right however to say that, in sailing boats, one may go as far as Delhi, but the process is very tedious, occupying nearly three months from Allahabad.

The road from Allahabad to Cawnpore is as monotonous as that to Allahabad, which, in all that respects scenery, it much resembles, with probably somewhat less of picturesque effect. At the town of Futtehpore, however, the curious in old buildings, of no very great antiquity, will be interested by the numerous remains of mosques, houses, serais of the Mussulman era, and of the severest kind of Mahomedan architecture. Futtehpore is a civil station, where two or three judicial and revenue functionaries reside, any one of whom will be glad to receive the passer-by if he prefers social intercourse to the solitude of the bungalow. Four stages

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from Futtehpore, one night's journey, lies Cawnpore, a large civil and military station.

The description given by the late Miss Emma Roberts of this station is so exact, and applies, with slight variation, to so great a number of military stations throughout India, that we cannot do better than quote a portion from her interesting work on Hindostan.* It will save the necessity for much repetition, inasmuch as the "bungalow," the "compound," and the "encampment," described by her, are nearly the same in every cantonment.

"Cawnpore is one of the principal stations of the mofussil, and is situated upon the right bank of the Ganges, about 600 miles from Calcutta.

"Nature has done little for Cawnpore; but the sandy plain, broken occasionally into ravines, which forms its site, has been so much embellished by the hand of man, that any one but a soldier, not subjected to the miseries of field days, will say that it possesses much picturesque beauty.

"The great objection to the station is its want of concentration; the lines of the various regiments straggle to the distance of five miles along the river's bank, but the scene is thereby agreeably diversified, and the compounds (a corruption of the Portuguese word *compania*), which surround the bungalows, are larger than could be the case if its limits were more circumscribed. Many of those compounds are beautifully planted, and have a very park-like appearance, particularly during the rainy season, when the cultivated parts of the plain have put on their green mantle. The prickly pear is greatly in request for fences; and the tall aloe, frequently intervening, forms a magnificent embellishment to the plantations. The houses at Cawnpore are, with very few exceptions, *cutcha*, that is, built of unbaked mud, and either *choppered* (thatched) or tiled; but they are, generally speaking, extremely large and commodious. The plans of bungalows are various, but the most common consist of three centre rooms; those opening on the front and back verandah being smaller than the one occupying the interior, which is called the hall. These rooms communicate with

* "Scenes and Characteristics of Hindostan." 2 vols.

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three others much narrower, on each side; and at the four corners are bathing-rooms, taken off the verandah, which stretches all round. The centre and largest room has only the borrowed light permitted by eight, ten, or twelve doors, leading out of the surrounding apartments; these doors are always open, but some degree of privacy is obtained by a curtain attached to each, of a sort of gauze-work, formed of bamboo split very fine, coloured green, and called *chick*; these also serve to keep out the flies, while they admit air and all the light considered necessary by an Anglo-Indian, who excludes glare, on the principle that it communicates heat to the apartment. Many of the Cawnpore houses are handsomely furnished, the chairs, tables, and sofas being of valuable wood, richly carved, with cushions and coverings of damask, or of Bareilly manufacture, black with gold flowers, resembling the japanned chairs, fashionable in England forty years ago. The floors, which are of *chunam* (finely tempered lime), are covered in the first instance with a matting, and in the second with a *settringee*, a peculiar manufacture of the country, of an exceeding thick texture, and usually worn in shaded blue stripes; or with calico printed in Brussels patterns, and so closely resembling a carpet, as to deceive all our practised eyes. This forms the general decoration of houses in the upper provinces. The exterior of a bungalow is usually very unpicturesque, bearing a strong resemblance to an overgrown barn; the roof slopes down from an immense height to the verandah, and whatever be the covering, whether of tiles or thatch, it is equally ugly. In many places the cantonments present to the eye a succession of large conical roofs resting upon low pillars; but in Cawnpore the addition of stone fronts to some of the houses, and of bowed ends to others, gives somewhat of architectural ornament to the station.

"The gardens rank amongst the finest in India. In consequence of there being so many settled residents, they are much cultivated and improved; all the European vegetables, with the exception of broad beans, come to great perfection during the cold season, and the grapes and peaches, which are not common to other stations, are particularly fine. The pine-apple does not grow in the upper provinces, but the mangoes, plaintains, melons, oranges, shaddocks, custard-apples,

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limes, and guavas, are of the finest quality. These gardens, intermixed with forest trees, give Cawnpore a very luxuriant appearance; it is an oasis reclaimed from the desert, for all around wastes of sand extend to a considerable distance.

"In the centre of the cantonments, and on the highest ground, are two stone buildings—the assembly-rooms and the theatre; the latter a long oval, surrounded by a colonnade of pillars of the Roman Doric order, ornamental to the station, though not very well adapted to the purpose for which it was intended.

"Beyond the theatre, the road leads to the race-course, which is approached by an avenue well planted on either side and watered during the dry season. This avenue forms the evening drive, and at sunset it is thronged with the society of the station.

"The course, as it is termed, skirts a wide plain, bounded to the right by the native city. The plain also affords a busy and interesting scene. Groups of natives are to be seen seated round their fires, cooking, eating, or singing after a repast; and elephants and strings of home-bound camels, loaded with forage, likewise occupy the ground.

"Cawnpore, though usually a gay station, is, of course, subject to the vicissitudes produced by the fluctuating state of Indian society. It cannot, however, be so much affected by party spirit, or the indisposition of leading residents to enter into amusements, as smaller places; and amongst so many families, an agreeable circle must always be found.

"During the cold season, all the infantry corps forming the garrison of Cawnpore usually encamp upon a wide plain in the vicinity, for the convenience of better ground for the performance of military evolutions than is to be found in the cantonments. An Indian camp affords a very striking and curious spectacle, and though the admixture of trees adds much to its beauty and heightens its effect, yet when, as at Cawnpore, it arises in the midst of an uncultivated desert, the singularity of the scene it presents compensates for the loss of the more pleasing features of the landscape.

"Regular streets and squares of canvas stretch over an immense tract; each regiment is provided with its bazaar in the rear, and far beyond the lines, the almost innumerable camp-followers of every description form their bivouacs,

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The tents of the commanding officers are indicated by small red flags. All the mofussilites are accustomed to spend a large portion of their time under canvas; and in consequence of the necessity of providing a moveable habitation, there are few tents which do not boast more comfort than can be easily imagined by those who are only acquainted with a European marquee. All are double, the interior and exterior covering being about a foot and a half apart; those which are double-poled contain several commodious apartments, and are furnished with glass doors to fit into the openings. They are usually lined with some gaily-coloured chintz; the floors are well covered with *settringes* (carpets), and they have a convenient space enclosed at the rear by *kanauts* (a wall of canvas), for out-offices and bathing-rooms. Moveable stoves are sometimes provided for the cold weather, but there is a better contrivance, inasmuch as smoke is thereby avoided, in an imitation of the Spanish *brassora*. A large brass or copper basin, in common use, called a *chillumchee*, mounted on an iron tripod, is filled with red wood embers, and fuel thus prepared, without having the deleterious effect of charcoal, diffuses a general warmth throughout the tent, and is very necessary in the evening; for though, during the cold season, the sun is still too fierce at noon-day to confront without shelter, as soon as its rays are withdrawn, intense cold succeeds, a sharp piercing wind sweeps along the plain, and the thermometer sinks below the freezing point.

"Cawnpore is well supplied with every article of European manufacture necessary for comfort, or even luxury, though it must be confessed that things are frequently too high-priced to suit subalterns' allowances. The bazaars are second to none in India, beef, mutton, fish, and poultry being of the finest quality. Vegetables of all kinds may be purchased by those who have not gardens of their own, there being a sufficient demand to induce the natives to cultivate exotics for the market. In addition to the shops kept by Europeans, there are many warehouses fitted with English and French goods, belonging to Hindoo and Mussulman merchants; and the jewellers are scarcely inferior to those of Delhi.

"Cawnpore is celebrated for the manufacture of saddlery, harness, and gloves; though less durable than those of English make, the cheapness and beauty of the two former

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articles recommend them to the purchaser; and the gloves offer a very respectable substitute for the importations from France. Prints of fashions supply the mantua-makers and tailors with ideas, and as there is no lack of materials, the ladies of Cawnpore are distinguished in the mofussil for a more accurate imitation of the toilettes of London and Paris than can be achieved at more remote stations."

To the eastward of Cawnpore, distant 30 miles, is the principality of Oude, the capital of which is Lucknow.

LUCKNOW (649 miles from Calcutta) is an old Mahomedan town, where some vestiges of ancient pomp may still be traced, and when the king sits in state, a scene is presented not unlike that which occurs at Delhi. The streets of Lucknow are long and mostly narrow, heaped with filth and abominations of all kinds; but in the vicinity of the British residency, the streets are wider, the mosques and pagodas numerous and often handsome, and the roadway well kept and watered. There are some striking edifices in and about Lucknow. The chief is the Imaumbarra or cathedral, erected to the memory of Azooph ud Dowlah. It consists of a series of buildings of great extent. There are two courts, one rising above the other. The outer court is divided from the inner one by three archways. In the latter is the tomb of the founder,—his turban and sword being placed upon it. The shrine is always covered with a cloth, and is railed round with a brass enclosure, while a guard of native soldiers keep constant watch over the sacred spot, and four or five moollahs sit in the adjacent verandah perpetually reading the Koran. The whole of the external architecture of the Imaumbarra is of the Eastern Gothic style, and would present an idea of richness and variety, corresponding with the Kremlin of Moscow, were the materials of a superior quality to brick and chunam. Connected with this building, is the Rounee Durwaza, or Gate of Constantinople. According to some authors, it is a copy of a gate in the city of Sultan; but the truth is, that in all Mahomedan towns, there are compliments to *Room* or Constantinople, and a gate supposed to face the direction of the Turkish metropolis is one of the most usual. The arch of the gate is of the Saracenic order. The tomb of Saadut Ali, a Nawaub of Lucknow, is another striking edifice. It

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is remarkable for a lofty dome seen from all parts of the city. Galleries within command a view of the shrine, and terraces without afford a prospect of the city and surrounding country. About three miles from Lucknow, at Constalia, on the banks of the Goomtee, is the house and tomb of Claude Martine, a French adventurer, who, from the condition of a private, rose to the rank of general, and acquired wealth and influence in Oude. The house, though built in questionable taste, is of vast extent and good material. The floors are of marble, the rooms large and lofty, the whole of the exterior wall of the inner rooms worked beautifully in mezzo relievo, with sculptured images tastefully disposed. The whole of the outer part of the erection is of stone, and numerous statues ornament it on either side. On the topmost story is the tomb of Martine, adorned with figures of soldiers with their arms reversed, and bearing a very simple inscription. The ground surrounding the mansion is well laid out. Another of the suburban attractions of Lucknow, is the Dil Koosha, or "Hearts' Delight." It is a palace belonging to the king, of some magnitude and beauty, richly furnished; and attached to it, is an extensive park filled with game. There is a menagerie also within the park. The Nawaubs of Oude had always had a passion for wild beasts and their sports. Visitors to the palace of Lucknow are invariably regaled with elephant and rhinoceros fights, quail combats, cocking, &c.

A resident, or ambassador, here represents British interests, and a force is kept up, officered from the line of the Bengal army, which is charged upon the revenues of the Oude territory. There are very few made roads in the country, excepting a military road which connects Cawnpore with Lucknow. The natives of Oude are naturally humane, and exhibit a love of justice and forbearance; but the principle of government, both in its protective and judicial functions, gives scope for cupidity, personal dislike, envy, vindictiveness, and all the worst passions of human nature. The administration of the country is as bad as it is possible to conceive.

The condition of Oude is yearly becoming worse. The revenue is gradually lessening. There are not less than 100,000 soldiers in the service of Zemindars. The revenue is collected by half that number in the king's pay. The Amils

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and other public officers, are men of no character, who obtain and retain their position by court bribery. Only the weak pay their revenue; those who have forts, or who, by combinations, can withstand the Amil, make their own revenue arrangements. Throughout the country, nothing exists deserving the name of a judicial or magisterial court. Not less than one hundred Dacoities, or other acts of violence, attended with loss of life, are annually reported, and hundreds take place which the corrupt news-writers are paid by the Amils never to report. The government dawk is sometimes attacked; the British cantonment in the neighbourhood is attacked. In short, the government of the country is utterly falsified; its constitution is altogether destroyed; no hope remains. All that can be done, is for the British to take the government in their own hands, preserving the king's rights and nominal authority, but placing the administration in the hands of British officers.

On the road from Cawnpore to Mynpooree we proceed through a level country, dotted with jheels or lakes, in which wild fowl abound. In this district many remains of magnificent serais (caravanserais) attest the splendour of the Mahomedan dynasty. They are capacious, and chiefly of red brick, but have fallen into decay, the British government having taken no pains to repair and preserve them for the uses of native travellers, who are obliged to resort to very small modern serais, constructed of earth and bamboos. A methranee, or female sweeper, generally has the custody of these serais; and a bunneeah, or grain seller, within the building, or in close vicinity thereto, disposes of pulse, atta, tobacco, and firewood to the applicant. The well-water at these rude hostelries is sweet and good; and if the edifices themselves are not inviting, there are usually a few neem and peepul trees about them which afford an agreeable shade. At all the stages mentioned above there are small bazaars, well supplied, and good water. The road through the country is indifferent, owing to the sandy nature of the soil.

MYNPOOREE.—A civil station of limited dimensions. On to

COEL.—The station of Coel is exceedingly like all other civil stations, but derives interest from its contiguity to the once famous fortress of Allyghur, which fell to Lord Lake's

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arms during the wars with Holkar, for whom the fort was held by a French officer, named Pedron. Our troops took it, by a vigorous assault, at daybreak. Great numbers were killed in the attack, and the names of the officers of the 76th foot, which bore the brunt of the action, are engraven on the entablature of a small monument erected to the memory of the slain.

CAWNPORE TO AGRA.—*Etawah.*—Going westerly from Cawnpore to Secundra, about forty miles, and then north-westerly for fifty more, Etawah is reached. This was once a flourishing place, the abode of omras and grandees of the Mogul empire, but it is now a mass of ruin and decay. Standing upon the banks of the Jumna, it possesses a splendid ghaut, which rather serves, by contrast with all else, to indicate the present poverty, than to illustrate the ancient importance of the place. A few bungalows scattered over a wide sandy plain nearly destitute of trees, intermixed with other buildings of an inferior kind, announce the presence of civil and military residents. These are, however, few in number—the one being limited to a collector and magistrate, with their subordinate officers, and the other to the wing of a corps of Native Infantry; and as the civilians are only here occasionally, and the military detachment is frequently relieved, no one appears to have a motive for rendering the houses comfortable. Nothing can be imagined more dreary and desolate than this place as a residence; but for the naturalist it possesses attractions of no common order, the result, in a great measure, of the abundance of vegetation, arising from the absence of a large European population.

In no other part of India, with the exception of the hill-districts, are more brilliant and interesting specimens of birds and insects to be seen; extremely small brown doves, with pink breasts, appear amid every variety of the common colour; green pigeons, blue jays, crested woodpeckers, together with an infinite number of richly-plumed birds, glowing in purple, scarlet, and yellow, less familiar to unscientific persons, flock around. The tailor-bird and the fly-catcher are also inhabitants of the gardens, which are visited by miniature birds resembling those of Paradise. Nothing can be more beautiful than the effect produced by the brilliant

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colours of these birds, which congregate in large flocks; and by the flight of the ring-necked paroquets, and the byahs, or crested sparrows. Numbers of aquatic birds, too, feed upon the shores of the neighbouring Jumna.

The roads round Etawah are bad; they are the highways leading to the neighbouring stations, Mynpooree, Futtyghur, Agra, and Cawnpore, and afford no picturesque views. A few mango-groves, skirting villages surrounded by high walls of mud, probably as a security against the incursions of wild beasts, alone diversify the bare and arid plains, while the ruts threaten dislocation, and the dust is nearly suffocating. The gardens afford a more agreeable method of passing the short period of daylight which the climate will permit to be spent in the open air. They are large and well planted; but the *mallees* (gardeners) are extremely ignorant of the European methods of cultivation, not having the same opportunity of acquiring knowledge as at larger stations. The pomegranate is of little value, except for its rich red flowers; for the fruit, when ripe, is crude and bitter. Sweet lemons, limes, oranges, and citrons, offer fruit of the finest quality; and grapes afford a grateful banquet, at a period of the year (the hot winds) in which they are most acceptable. The melons, which grow to a large size, and are abundant in the season, are chiefly procured from native gardens on the banks of the Jumna, as they flourish on the sands which border that river. Mangoes and jacks occupy extensive plantations, exclusive of the gardens, and are left, as well as custard-apples, plantains, guavas, to the cultivation of the natives, the ground in the neighbourhood of a bungalow being chiefly appropriated to foreign productions. The seeds of European vegetables are sown after the rainy season, and come to perfection during the cold weather. Green peas, cauliflowers, and cos lettuce appear at Christmas, sustaining, without injury, night-frosts which would kill them in their native climes; but celery, beet-root, and carrots never attain to their proper size, and are frequently deficient in flavour. The oleanders, common all over India, are the pride of the jungles, spreading into large shrubs, and giving out their delicate perfume from clusters of pink and white flowers. The *baubool* also boast scent of the most exquisite nature.

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The sensitive plant grows in great abundance in the gardens of Etawah, spreading itself over whole borders.

Other flowers of great beauty and variety bespangle the plains and decorate the jungles. Butterflies of singular brilliancy, grasshoppers, beetles, with golden coats; insects, in short, of almost all the species known to the entomologist, swarm in the district. The jackal and the wolf prowl at night, and afford sport to the huntsman during the early part of day. Game of all kinds is likewise abundant. The river Jumna is well stocked with fish, and these, with excellent beef and mutton, leave the Etawah residents without excuse for an ill-furnished table.

AGRA (830 miles from Calcutta).—The city of Agra, once the capital of the renowned Akbar, is situated on the left bank of the Jumna, in north latitude 27° 12′, and east longitude 78° 17′. The appearance of the city from the river is picturesque, without being imposing; the houses on the banks having a mean appearance, whilst their regularity is broken by trees and jutting banks. A fine strand road was constructed by the labour of the destitute poor during a famine that prevailed in 1838. It is eighty feet wide, and affords a noble promenade for crowds of pedestrians, who resort there in the evening, and is very convenient also for the landing of goods, &c. Several of the more opulent natives have adorned it with stone ghauts, which in the rainy season afford the inhabitants an easy access to the stream, and enable them to enjoy the luxury of bathing, offering libations, &c. &c. During the hot months, however, the bed of the river, next the town, is entirely dry; the channel being on the opposite bank, distant nearly half a mile. The city extends about four miles in length, and about three in depth; the houses are built chiefly of the red sandstone, which is procured in abundance from some neighbouring hills to the south. There is one fine broad street, which runs through the middle of the city, extending from the fort to the Padree tank: several of the houses in it are three and four stories high; most of the other streets are very narrow, but they are for the most part kept very clean. During the day the main street is thronged with passengers, and there is an appearance of much bustle and business, but, with the exception of a few merchants and bankers, the inhabitants are generally very poor. The

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shops contain very few articles; many of them are small cabins of about eight feet square, and contain goods in proportion. In the centre of the city is the *cutwallee*, police-office, which is in a very efficient state, so that there are rarely any disturbances, whilst order, safety, and a cheerful tranquillity appear to prevail. From the fort there is a good road, though somewhat steep, leading to the cantonment, both considerably elevated above the level of the river. Here the military and the greater proportion of the Christian residents are located, whilst the civilians and writers in the public offices are in an opposite direction, with an intervening space of at least three miles, and in some instances five. Very few Europeans choose to live in the city, on account of its closeness and insalubrity. The cantonments on the other hand are very open, and the bungalows are situated in the midst of extensive compounds, some of which are converted into beautiful gardens; these gardens, however, are rendered as useful as they are ornamental, for almost all the vegetables obtainable in the place are of our own produce. There is no regular market for the sale of these necessaries. A few greens (*turai*), melons, cucumbers, and occasionally cauliflowers, are produced, but there is no dependence upon regular supplies; and as for peas, asparagus, turnips, beans, and other table vegetables, they are scarcely ever cultivated by the native mallees (gardeners). The great obstacle, however, to the more general culture of gardens is the scarcity of good water. With but few exceptions, the wells in Agra contain brackish water, and this proves fatal to all but a very few vegetable productions. But even when good water is procurable, the expense of watering and gardening is very considerable. A pair of bullocks and their keepers cost ten or twelve rupees a month; three or four mallees cost as much more. There is a want at Agra of farm produce, such as poultry, eggs, butter, butcher's meat; the latter article is generally so inferior, that almost every individual kills his own mutton.

The roads of Agra have been much improved within the last few years—limestone, instead of pounded brick, being now used. It makes a hard and durable road, which resists the pressure of carriage wheels, and becomes more compact by rain. There are large beds of this material found in the

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neighbourhood; in fact, it is largely distributed over a considerable portion of the Dooab. Agra abounds in noble ruins. The old walls, which still remain, define the extent of the ancient city, which must have occupied at least ten times the space which it now does; portions, which are now productive fields, were formerly crowded with houses; remains of hammaums, or baths, and subterraneous rooms are often to be met with in the midst of ravines; the whole space opposite the river from the fort to the Taj was occupied by a series of noble palaces. Amidst these stupendous ruins a road has been cut to the Taj: the walls are sometimes eight and ten feet of solid masonry, and the cement by which they are held together is so firm that they resist the ordinary means of disintegration. Another fine range of buildings, including tombs, mosques, and Hindoo temples, extended from the present civil lines to Secundra. Two of the tombs being large and commodious, and not much decayed, have been appropriated as receptacles for orphan boys and girls—whilst a once beautiful villa adjacent to the girls' school is occupied by the superintendents of the female branch. It has two stories with balconies in the upper one, the whole of one side elaborately carved, and inlaid with slips of white marble and variegated stones. The cupolas surmounting the balustrades have still remains of that beautiful mazarin blue enamel which decks all the principal ruins, but the composition of which is now unknown. On the same road, a little to the right, is a spacious tank, now dry. It measures at least between 300 and 400 feet square, and in the centre of each of the sides, a flight of steps leads to the bed; over these piazzas are constructed, and at each corner, small towers of an octagonal form. The style of architecture of the generality of the Agra buildings is very heavy and destitute of grace. There is often exquisite beauty and elaboration in the details, but a sombre massiveness in the *tout ensemble* which would seem to insinuate that their design was less for comfort than durability,—less for enjoyment than for fame.

The trees, although not numerous, are many of them truly venerable, and the cool shade which they offer to the passing traveller renders them objects of peculiar interest. The tamarind-tree is particularly admired, not only for its shade, but for the beauty and delicacy of its foliage; whilst under

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the broad covering of the peepul leaves, which, whilst they effectually screen the fiery rays of the King of Day, also produce, by their motion, a most refreshing coolness. The baubool is abundant, and is much used for hackery wheels, carts, and sometimes for rough furniture, as it is not liable to split. A species of wine is also made from its bark, which is much drunk by Kaiths and some other castes. The sissoo is a highly valuable wood for doors and windows, but is very scarce, and yields to the more abundant saul. The climate of Agra, during the hot winds which prevail from April to July, is truly distressing; but the rains which fall, and which in regular seasons continue till October, cool the air most refreshingly. From the 1st of October, the misty mornings usher in, though by slow degrees, the cold season. In December, fires are lighted, and afford to cold subjects, not only comfortable warmth, but still more grateful reminiscences of home. Every one at this season of the year seems cheerful and revived. The scenery of nature is also irradiated with brightness and verdure. The holyoak, the balsam, and the refulgent marigold, enliven the gardens, whilst beds of mignonette and rows of the Indian myrtle perfume the atmosphere. Vegetables are now nearly fit for the table. Early peas, carrots, turnips, asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, French beans, are all in season, but in January they become more abundant. In February the air is most bland and balmy; it is the spring weather of England, and the lovely peach and apple blossoms unfold their delicate petals to the breeze. There are very few birds remarkable for the beauty of their plumage or the sweetness of their song. Parrots, minas, pigeons, doves, swallows, avadavats, piddis (a little bird similar to the last), kites, crows, and sparrows, adjutants, vultures, and the petted peafowls, nearly make up the whole of the specimens of the winged tribe.

PUBLIC EDIFICES.—The desire of posthumous fame seems to be quite a passion among the inhabitants of the East. This feeling is chiefly gratified in the structure of magnificent tombs and temples. India abounds with them, and in the district of Agra there are some of the choicest specimens. Amongst these, surpassingly pre-eminent is the Taj Mehal, built by Shah Jehan, the King of the World, for his beautiful Queen, Moomtaza Zumanee, the Light of the World.

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Every peer has his tomb, and they are numerous in and about Agra; they are often found in the compounds of our bungalows, and any attempt to remove them would be followed by a remonstrance from the Emaums.

The taj seems as fresh and almost as perfect as when it was just finished. The joinings of the marble slabs of which the exterior is composed are so close and compact, that not a fibre of vegetation is to be seen pressing from between them, nor does the rain or atmosphere have any effect in staining its polished surface. Another striking feature in this building is the admirable *finish* with which everything about it is executed: every device is chaste and appropriate. The arches of the doors are neither pure Saxon nor Gothic, but allow of greater breadth than either, and are yet equally susceptible of strength. Under the central dome is a kind of octagonal palisade richly fretted, and within this are the tombs of the emperor and his empress; both exceedingly beautiful, and covered with a profusion of flowers—ornaments composed of various coloured stones let in;—they are chiefly agates, cornelians, and blood-stone. Underneath these tombs is a vault where there are two other tombs of a plainer construction—on these garlands of flowers are constantly placed, and generally a light burning: on the panels or lower parts of the walls, flowers are carved in alto relievo. Nothing can be more graceful or perfect than the forms of these flowers; all is waving and natural, there is not the slightest degree of stiffness or bad drawing in them. The natives are, with good reason, proud of this unique specimen of the fine arts, but it is scarcely a matter of doubt that the entire design and superintendence were those of Italian artists. Bishop Heber immediately recognised, in the fretwork especially, pure Florentine art; and that there were Italians at Agra at the time, and even long before, is evident from their tombs being still extant in the Roman Catholic burying-ground: the dates of some, still legible, are within 1600 and 1650.

The beauty of this mausoleum has attracted the attention of many visitors, but none have done it such perfect justice as the author of the following sketch:—

"I have been to visit the taj. I have returned, full of emotion. My mind enriched with visions of ideal beauty. When first I approached the taj, eleven years ago, I was dis-

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appointed. In after days, when my admiration for the loveliness of this building had grown into a passion, I have often inquired, why this should have been? And the only answer I can find is, that the symmetry is too perfect to strike at first. It meets you as the most natural of objects. It therefore does not startle, and you return from it disappointed that you have not been startled. But it grows upon you in all the harmony of its proportions, in all the exquisite delicacy of its adornment; and at each glance, some fresh beauty or grace is developed. And, besides, it stands so alone in the world of beauty. Imagination has never conceived a second taj, nor had anything similar ever before occurred to it.

"View the taj at a distance! It is as the spirit of some happy dream, dwelling dim, but pure, upon the horizon of your hope, and reigning in virgin supremacy over the visible circle of the earth and sky. Approach it nearer, and its grandeur appears unlessened by the acuteness of its fabric, and swelling in all its fresh and fairy harmony, until you are at a loss for feelings worthy of its presence. Approach still nearer, and that which, as a whole, has proved so charming, is found to be equally exquisite in the minutest detail. Here are no mere touches for distant effect. Here is no need to place the beholder in a particular spot to cast a partial light upon the performance,—the work which dazzles with its elegance at the *coup d'œil* will bear the scrutiny of the microscope. The sculpture of the panels, the fretwork and mosaic of the screen, the elegance of the marble pavement, the perfect finish of every jot and iota, as if the meanest architect had been one of those potent Genii, who were of yore compelled to adorn the palaces of necromancers and kings.

"We feel, as our eye wanders around this hallowed space, that we have hitherto lavished our admiration and our language in vain. We dread to think of it with feelings which workmanship less exquisite has awakened, and we dare not use, in its praise, language hackneyed in the service of every-day minds. We seek for it a new train of associations, a fresher range of ideas, a greener and more sacred corner in the repository of our heart. And yet, wherefore should this be, since no terms applying to other works of beauty, excepting the most general, can be appropriated here? For those,

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there be phrases, established by usage, which their several classifications of style render intelligible to all acquainted with similar works of art. But in the taj, we fall upon a new and separate creation ; which never *can* become a style, since it never can be imitated. It is like some bright and newly-discovered winged thing, all beauteous in a beauty peculiar to itself, and referable to no class or order on the roll of zoology, which the whole world flocks to gaze upon with silent delight—none presuming to designate the lovely stranger, nor to conjecture a kindred for it with the winged things of the earth. Suffice it—Love was its author,—Beauty its inspiration.

"Now take your seat upon the marble pavement, beside the upper tombs. Lie at full length upon your back, and send your companion to the vault underneath, to run slowly over the notes of his flute or guitar. Was ever melody like this? It haunts the air above and around. It distils in showers from the polished marble. It condenses into the mild shadows, and sublimes into the softened hallowed light of the dome. It rises, it falls ; it swims mockingly, meltingly, around. It is the very element with which sweet dreams are builded. It is the melancholy echo of the past, —it is the bright delicate harping of the future. It is the atmosphere breathed by Ariel, and playing around the fountain of Chindara. It is the spirit of the taj, the voice of inspired love, which called into being this peerless wonder of the world, and elaborated its symmetry and composed its harmony, and eddying around its young minarets and domes, blended them without a line into the azure of immensity."

The garden of the taj is also an object of great attraction; it is intersected by wide paths, paved with flagstones, and even those are arranged in fanciful devices. The avenue of cypress-trees, with a row of fountains between them, which still play on Sundays, is particularly fine ; there is besides, in the centre of this avenue, a marble reservoir about forty feet square, in which there are five additional fountains, one in the centre and one at each corner. There are but few flowers in the garden, and but a scanty supply of fruit-trees, the vine being the principal; but there is a collection of noble trees of gigantic size, which afford a delightful shade, and admit of a pleasant walk even in the middle of the day.

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The Rham Bhag garden, which is across the water (and which is said once to have contained a tomb similar to the taj, for the ashes of Shah Jehan himself), is nearly of the same size as that of the taj, but it is not so regular nor elaborate. Many, however, prefer it on this account, and on account also of the greater variety of fruit and flowers, and particularly of groves of orange-trees, with which it abounds. At both these public gardens there are plain accommodations for invalids, and such as are in search of the picturesque. Parties often spend an agreeable week at these places.

The fort of Agra is one of the grandest in India. It occupies a large space of ground on the banks of the river, and within its lofty embattled walls are the palace, the Motee Musjid, the arsenal, and numerous compartments for all the paraphernalia of war. The fort, however, is far from being strong, and would soon fall under an assault from a few long sixteen-pounders.

The remains of the palace, with its gilded cupolas, and the rich tracery in gold and blue enamel on the walls and roofs of the principal rooms, show what they must have been when occupied by royalty. The arsenal is very tastefully adorned with warlike instruments. There is a broad wet ditch with drawbridges at convenient stations around the outer wall. There are also two terraces of considerable breadth, where a large body of troops might be paraded. The Motee Musjid, or Pearl Sanctuary, is one of the most unique things of the kind ever witnessed. It is made of pure marble, and has a dazzling white appearance: the floor of the musjid is paved with rows of slabs, each of which constitutes an altar, on which the faithful sons of the Prophet present their offerings of praise. Just outside of the fort, there is another immense pile called the *Jumma Musjid*, whither also the Moslems resort for prayer. The architecture of this building is described as possessing much merit. It has three domes of nearly the same size, and the terrace is surmounted with towers and minarets at the centres and corners; but the whole building is rapidly decaying, and immense pieces of stone appear ready to fall from their giddy heights.

Secundra is a part of the suburbs of Agra, and derives its name from the celebrated Alexander. In this spot is the mausoleum of the most celebrated of the Mahomedan kings,

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the great Akbar. This remarkable edifice is still in a high state of preservation; the foundation is supported on large massive arches twelve feet thick. The ground-floor rests on a plinth of immense area, and a piazza of prodigious strength runs all round the building: here in the cold season parties frequently resort to enjoy the salubrious air, and the pleasures of an English garden.

There are at Agra very few modern public buildings of any note; the only ones that have been built for public purposes are two extensive offices for the political and revenue departments, and two wings to the Government House. To the above works of the executive officer may be added a handsome new steeple to the church, the conversion of the Nya Kee Mondee Hospital, an old native building, into a decent modern-looking house, and last, though not least, the Metcalfe Testimonial, which, although deficient in many architectural points, possesses considerable beauty of exterior.

The most striking of all the public buildings is the College, situated in the civil lines, and at a short distance from the town. It is a noble quadrangle, and in the Gothic style, with jutting corners, having four turrets at each of the corners, and two loftier ones flanking the two principal entrances. There are arched verandahs on each side, four handsome entrances, and four corner quadrangular rooms. A passage runs from north to south through the building, and on either side there are seven spacious rooms, including the centre hall, which is divided into two parts. The southern side of the building is appropriated to the vernacular department, and the northern to the English. The number of pupils attached to the former exclusively is about 120, to the latter 140. The Oriental languages taught are Sanscrit and Hindee, Arabic, Persian, Urdú; and arithmetic. The English instruction embraces history, poetry, morals, political economy, natural philosophy, mathematics, &c. The funds for the support of the college are derived from a number of villages bequeathed by a wealthy Zemindar, and yield about 2,000 rupees a month, or near 25,000 rupees a year; the monthly expenditure, independently of the principal's salary, is about 1,200 rupees.

The Government House is about three miles and a half from the cantonments, but conveniently situated in the

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vicinity of the principal public offices, such as the Political and Revenue departments, the Civil Auditor's, the Judge's cutcherry, and that necessary appendage to social existence, the jail. The magistrate's cutcherry is situated between the civil lines and cantonments. Nearly opposite is the Agra press. One of the most useful and most prosperous institutions in Agra is the bank. For a considerable time its operations were very limited, and confined chiefly to loans to the military; but its transactions have since been much extended, and it is now called the Agra and United Service Bank.

The Metcalfe Testimonial, in honour of Sir Charles (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe, who was for some time Lieut.-Governor of Agra, is but one of the many tributes that have been paid to one of the most experienced and popular governors of India. There are two long and beautiful halls for dancing and supper, and a library intervening.

The Church is a spacious and handsome building, calculated to hold from 800 to 1,000 persons. There is also a Baptist chapel, which is generally well attended, but chiefly among the East-Indian community, and a chapel of ease is building.

Agra boasts of several charitable institutions. The BENEVOLENT INSTITUTION supports and educates nearly three hundred native children, who are taught various arts, such as carpet-making, weaving, sewing, carpentry, smithery, shoemaking, gardening, &c. The RELIEF SOCIETY affords alms to the blind, lame, and indigent poor. The GOVERNMENT DISPENSARY supplies medical aid to the native sick. There is a Church Missionary Society at the station, supported by the Parent society in England. It has originated several native schools, in and about the town, where instruction is given in the vernacular languages, the Bible being the principal class-book.

Seventy-four miles due south of Agra, stands Gwalior, a fortified town, forming the seat of Scirdar's government.

GWALIOR (805 *miles from Calcutta*) is approached by a footpath, over some trifling clay and sandstone heights, from which it is seen to advantage, lying under the wing of the giant stronghold, which rises in a complete precipice from its very bosom; and interspersed with trees and minarets, after the usual fashion of native cities. The suburbs are somewhat

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scanty, and there is no wall of defence to the town ; which, however, by means of strong portals connecting the parallel streets, and opening or closing the communication at the pleasure of the inhabitants, as well as by the aid of the external gates, is capable of making a brief defence against any irregular attack. These gateways are singularly elegant, although a jumble of modern and Hindoo architecture. They are built of sandstone. The gateway itself is an architrave of stone, supported upon ornamented columns of the same. Above this rises the pointed Saracenic arch, and above that are elegant arabesque bas-reliefs, the roof of the structure being flat.

The Jumma Musjid is a handsome building, in the style of those at Lucknow. On turning the flank of the defences, we come upon the grandest and most imposing exhibition of military architecture ever beheld. We doubt if the world contains anything so magnificent as this long line of Gothic towers, scarped by an overhanging precipice ; poised in mid-air, dignified by the impress of the ages that have passed over their heads, yet unimpaired in strength and beauty, and presenting, not the blind aspect of mere holds of power, in which a garrison is pent up and excluded from the outer world, but that of the fittest possible residence for a mighty sovereign.

It is not possible to give anything like an adequate idea of this surpassing fortress without the aid of the pencil and colours. The cliff upon which it stands is perfectly perpendicular, formed, apparently, of sandstone, and it extends round the entire circuit of the fortified height. The defences, which, on the other sides, though adequate to their object, are dwindled into comparative insignificance by immediate contrast with the massive hill on which they stand, are here of the noblest dimensions and the most graceful form, being a series of circular towers, closely connected by curtains of nearly similar height, and roofed-in with small domes of masonry ; the whole having, in addition to shot-holes, embrasures, &c., an abundance of glazed windows, betokening the dwelling of rational creatures ; while the masonry itself is adorned with glazed tiles, which, whatever their effect when recent, retain at present only those tints which become a venerable fabric, and that fabric of the

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Gothic style. The entire circuit of these defences is about three miles, their form an oblong rectangle. The summit of the height, as is usual in the sand formation, is nearly flat. The height of the precipice is about 200 feet, and the height from the foot of the precipice to the level of the town about 200 feet more, making a total height of about 400 feet.

In the steepest face of the cliff, at the north aspect and north-east angle, are several caves, probably communicating by subterranean galleries with the interior. One, in particular, contains a gigantic image of Pars Nath, distinctly visible from beneath. These caves may be convenient to the garrison during a siege, but are extremely dangerous to the safety of the place, as a single ten-inch shell would, by exploding within the cavity, in all probability, bring down the whole of the north-east angle, which is, even now, overhanging the perpendicular. They appear, however, to be intended as temples rather than posts of observation.

Of the city of Gwalior little need be said. With every facility for building at hand, it possesses few edifices that can attract the attention, and, for the capital of a large state, is very far below mediocrity in every respect, whether we regard the narrowness of its limits, the poverty of its streets and buildings, or the almost entire want of that appearance of busy traffic which characterises all important towns under the British government. Indeed, there is little temptation to the import of merchandise into a country so infested with open robbers, and with every species of extortion under the plea of customs.

The residency at Gwalior is a mean building, and scarcely any sort of state has been kept up by the British representative. It has only been on the occasion of a visit of ceremony from the Governor-General to the Maharajah, that the place has presented any scenes of pomp.

BHURTPORE, JEYPORE, AND AJMEER.—In a direct line west of Agra lie the small native states of Bhurtpore, Jeypore, and Ajmeer. Ajmeer is somewhat to the south of the Shekawattee country, an extensive desert, divided into several chieftainships, which have sworn allegiance to the British government, but which invariably exhibit a "moody frontier" when the time arrives for the payment of the usual tribute. The Shekawattee country extends to Bhutseer, which borders the Cis-Sutledge provinces.

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AJMEER (1,030 miles from Calcutta) was once a large and populous city, and occasionally the residence of the emperor of Delhi. It was nearly ruined during the disorders which followed on the rise of the Mahratta power, but since its transfer to the British, it has greatly improved.

There are political officers at Ajmeer, Jeypore, &c., and a brigade of irregular troops, to act against the Shekawattee chieftains when occasion calls for the exercise of force; but we have no regular troops nearer to the country than at Nusserabad, a large cantonment south-east of Ajmeer, where a regiment of cavalry and three or four infantry corps are quartered.

BHURTPORE (878 miles from Calcutta) is the capital of one of the Jhat chieftainships. Its reputation is considerable, for Lord Lake was baffled in his attempt to capture the fort in 1805; but it fell to the British arms, when assailed by Lord Combermere in 1826, and was restored by our government to its lawful chief, from whom it had been wrested.

Proceeding from Agra to Delhi, the route runs parallel with the right or western bank of the river Jumna. The distance is 134 miles, through a flat, cultivated country, over which the *débris* of Mahomedan greatness are scattered.

JEYPORE is the capital of the principality of Ajmeer. It is one of the handsomest and most regularly built towns in India, many of its streets being equal in appearance to those of European cities.

MUTTRA (875 miles from Calcutta) was once a military cantonment, but of late years it has been abandoned by the government, to the infinite loss of the officers, who had built or purchased houses there, and were, consequently, obliged to sacrifice them (no successors appearing), the government making them no compensation for the loss.

DELHI (976 miles from Calcutta).—As the ancient seat of the Mogul empire, and the modern residence of the pensioner who still rejoices in the empty title of king, this is one of the most interesting towns in India. It stands in the middle of a plain, surrounded on every side with the ruins of the ancient metropolis, and the tasteful villas of the Europeans, who now exercise the business of local government. The site of these latter was once occupied by the famed gardens of Shalimar. Couched under a ridge of sandstone rocks,

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called the *Mijnoon Pahar*, lie the military cantonments—an alternation of bungalows, huts, and groups of gaudy trees. The city of Delhi is enclosed by a wall or rampart of red granite, battlemented and turreted, and wearing, in the distance, a more formidable appearance than is borne out by closer inspection. Mosques, minarets, and cupolas, enamelled and gilded, intermingle with clusters of cypresses, and present a pleasing and perfectly Oriental aspect, when the town is contemplated from the distance. Within the city, the magnificence of the ancient edifices realizes the conception formed from the view without. The spacious regal palace—the marble hall of audience (now stripped of its former gilding and the peacock throne), bearing the inscription immortalized in Moore's "Lalla Rookh"*—the Jumma Musjid, or principal mosque, &c.,—all vouch for the splendid conceptions and exquisite taste of the emperors of the olden time.

The principal street, or Chandney Choke, is a Regent Street in its way; it is broad and handsome; the architecture of the houses is varied, and fronted by trees, which form a beautiful avenue. As the king keeps up a certain degree of state, and maintains the royal privilege of conferring *khillauts*, or dresses of honour, the wealthier natives affect the airs of an aristocracy, and attempt, by gaiety of costume and a swaggering indifference, to impress people with an idea of their importance. They are also active in their endeavours to imitate the chiefs and Omrah of old by the practice of petty political intrigues, in which they find active participators amongst the corrupt inhabitants of the imperial palace. His majesty, the pensioner, sometimes emerges from his residence on his elephant, attended by a rabble of retainers; and on these occasions largesse is distributed to the crowd, and his name and titles are shouted by those who precede and surround him.

The works of the Europeans at Delhi are confined to a magnificent canal, an arsenal, where the implements and munitions of war are prepared, when occasion requires, on a grand scale; a church, a college, and a printing-press. The principal political officer is a sort of envoy or resident, osten-

* And, oh, if there be an Elysium on earth,
It is this—it is this!
Not quite an accurate translation, by the way.

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sibly representing the British government at the court of the Mogul; but, in point of fact, his business is rather to watch the straw sovereign, pay him his pension, and regulate his intercourse with strangers who may visit the city. There is a collector, a magistrate, and other lesser officers, at the station; and two or three regiments of infantry and a park of artillery compose the usual military force.

The manufactures of Delhi, for the most part, refer to the ornaments of life. Gay scarfs, embroidered shawls, pictures of buildings, jewellery, miniature paintings in ivory of the various Mahomedan emperors, swords, shields, ivory chessmen, horse and elephant trappings, &c., are obtainable in any quantity and at reasonable prices. Carriages of the European fashion are seen about the streets; and the contents of the shops, with their English placards and boards, indicate the introduction of articles of western manufacture.

The great objection to a residence at Delhi is the dust, which, from the exposed position of the town and the sand which covers the flat country for many miles around, renders the visitation of a gust of wind a most unpleasant affair. The accomplished tourist, to whom we are indebted for several passages in other parts of this volume, has felicitously described the effect of this and other climatic visitations; and as the same may be written of almost every other station in Upper or Lower India, similarly exposed to the hot winds and temporary dry storms, we may appropriately quote her sketch in this place:—

"The hot winds prevail between the middle of March and the whole of April and May. The wind usually rises about eight o'clock in the morning, and if coming from the right point (the west), and strong enough to cause sufficient evaporation, the *tatties* are put up—thick mats, made of the roots of a fragrant grass (*cuscus*), upon bamboo frames, fitting into the doors or windows; all the apertures in the contrary direction being closely shut. These *tatties* are kept constantly wet by men employed to throw water upon them on the outside, and the wind which comes through them is changed into a rush of cold air—so cold, sometimes, as to oblige the party within to put on additional clothing. While the wind continues steady, the only inconveniences to be borne are the darkness, common to Indian houses, and the confinement;

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for those who venture abroad pay dearly for their temerity. Exhaustion speedily follows, the breath and limbs fail, and, if long exposed to the scorching air, the skin will peel off. Yet this is the period chosen by the natives for their journeys and revelries; they cover their faces with a cloth, and with this simple precaution brave the fiercest blasts of the simoom. These winds usually subside at sunset, though they sometimes blow to a later hour, and are known to continue all night. If they should change to the eastward, the *tatties* are useless, producing only a hot damp steam. In this event, the only means of mitigating the heat is to exclude the wind by filling up the crevices, hanging thick curtains (*purdahs*) over the doors, and setting all the *punkahs* in motion: inefficient expedients, for, in despite of all, the atmosphere is scarcely bearable, excessive and continual thirst, languor of the most painful nature, and irritability produced by the prickly heat, render existence almost insupportable. Every article of furniture is burning to touch; the hardest wood, if not well covered with blankets, will split with a report like that of a pistol, and linen taken from the drawers appears as if just removed from a kitchen fire. The nights are terrible, every apartment being heated to excess. Gentlemen usually have their beds placed in the verandahs, or on the *chubootiar*, or terrace on the top of the house, as they incur little risk in sleeping in the open air at a season in which no dews fall, and there is scarcely any variation in the thermometer. Tornadoes are frequent during the hot winds; while they last, the skies, though cloudless, are darkened with dust, the sun is obscured, and a London fog cannot more effectually exclude the prospect. The birds are dreadful sufferers at this season; their wings droop, and their bills are open as if gasping for breath; all animals are more or less affected. The breaking-up of the hot winds affords a magnificent spectacle; they depart in wrath, after a tremendous conflict with opposing elements. The approaching strife is made known by a cloud, or rather a wall of dust, which appears at the extremity of the horizon, becoming more lofty as it advances. The air is sultry and still, for the wind which is tearing up the sand as it rushes along, is not felt in front of the billowy masses, whose mighty ramparts gather strength as they spread. At length the plain is surrounded, and the

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sky becomes as murky as midnight. Then the unchained thunder breaks forth, but its most awful peals are scarcely heard in the deep roar of the tempest; burst succeeds to burst, each more wild and furious than the former; the forked lightnings flash in vain, for the dust, which is as thick as snow, flings an impenetrable veil around them. The wind having spent itself in a final effort, suddenly subsides, and the dust is as speedily dispersed by torrents of rain, which in a very short time flood the whole country. The *tatties* are immediately thrown down, and though they may have previously rendered shawls necessary, the relief experienced when breathing the fresh air of heaven, instead of that produced by artificial means, is indescribable. All the animal creation appear to be endued with fresh life and vigour, as they inhale the cooling breezes; the songs of the birds are heard again, and flocks and herds come forth rejoicing. Before the watery pools have penetrated into the parched earth, so rapid is the growth of vegetation, patches of green appear along the plain, and those who take up their posts in the verandah for an hour or two may literally see the grass grow. In the course of a single day the sandy hillocks will be covered with verdure, and in a very short time the grass becomes high and rank."

The chief buildings in the neighbourhood of Delhi, remnants of Moslem antiquity, are the Khotub Minar, a lofty column of red granite; the tomb of the Emperor Humayoon; the remains of a gigantic astronomical observatory; and the Path'an fortress, a place of resort for the amateurs of picnics, as well as for the curious in Saracenic architecture. North-eastward of Delhi is Meerut.

MEERUT (871 miles from Calcutta) is a large station for civil and military establishments; it is the residence of a civil commissioner, a judge, a magistrate, a collector of land revenue, and all their assistants. A regiment of European cavalry, one of infantry, one of native cavalry, and three of native infantry, besides horse and foot artillery, are cantoned here; and as the parading ground is extensive and level, good opportunities are afforded for working the three arms of the service together. Meerut is a particularly healthy station. Close to Meerut is Sirdanah. formerly the residence of the celebrated Begum Sumroo, who bequeathed her wealth

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to the son of her late husband (Dyce Sombre as he was called). Here also is a Catholic cathedral.

Between Meerut and Delhi and the river Sutledge, are the military stations of Umballah, Loodiana, and Ferozepore, differing from each other only in the scenery of their respective localities. They have the characteristics of all military stations in common, and the country which lies between them corresponds essentially with that on the routes between Allahabad and Allyghur. Level land, mud villages, ruined serais, decayed mosques and temples, plots of cultivation, groves, &c., occur at frequent intervals; while strings of laden camels, howda-burdened elephants, gaily-caparisoned horses, detachments of troops, mark an activity of life peculiar to a military state, where the arts of peace have not been extensively cultivated.

Due north of Meerut stands Seharunpore, a station for a collector and magistrate, a judge and a regiment of infantry. Here is a Botanic Garden, where the hardier plants, the productions of Europe, and the tea of China are, cultivated with much skill and good effect. Forty miles from Seharunpore, north-east, is the valley of the Dhoon.

DEHRA (992 miles from Calcutta) is the principal place in the valley. It is one of the most salubrious spots in India. Cultivation of the staples of India is here carried on upon an extensive scale; and many retired and invalid officers make it their place of residence, in preference to returning to England. The Sirmoor battalion of Goorka sepoys generally has its head-quarters here.

One hundred and fifty miles eastward of Seharunpore is Almorah, in the province of Kumaon.

ALMORAH is the principal military station in this part of the Himalayan range. It is 5,400 feet above the level of the sea. When we first took these hills, a considerable force was stationed at Almorah, with a permanent commandant and a major of brigade; but it is now much diminished. There are good and numerous roads here, one from the foot of the hills at Bhamaurie (four marches) to Almorah; another to Havil Bagh, the cantonment of the Kumaon (civil) local battalion, which is about six miles from Almorah; another to Lohooghat, four marches, and on, through that

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place, three more to Petora-Ghur; also one from Lohooghat to Birmdeo, the pass by which the hills are entered from Pillibheet, three marches, besides roads for taking air and exercise about Almorah.

At each of the military stations in these hills, are forts, one at Almorah, called "Fort Moira;" one at Lohooghat, "Fort Hastings;" and one at Petora-Ghur, denominated "Fort London," as, likewise, at the latter place, a small fortified house, or tower, designated "Wilkie-Ghur," after Major James Wilkie, who had the building of the forts at Petora and Lohooghat. In a military point of view, however, these forts are all worthless, none of them containing water, or even commanding that near them.

There are stage-bungalows all the way from Bhamaurie to Almorah, for the use of which travellers pay one rupee per diem.

The Kumaon local corps stationed at Havil-Bagh is, as well as all the other hill-corps, armed with fuzils, and dressed in green, with black facings.

At Almorah there are five bungalows, called sick bungalows, belonging to government; these are kept in good repair, and are exclusively for the use of such officers as may come up on sick leave, who are furnished with one to live in, free of all cost, on application, through the executive officer, in whose charge they are, to the officer commanding. It is only surprising, considering this, that more officers do not go there for their health, where they not only get a house (and that a good one) to live in, and medical attendance gratis, but also everything else they can require very much cheaper than at Simla. The sick-houses are, of course, totally unfurnished. As to climate, though not so cold as at Simla, Almorah is sufficiently cool and pleasant, and it is, unquestionably, a very healthy, renovating one. In regard to society, likewise, there is a sufficiency.

The military cantonments are at the western extremity of, and close to, the city of Almorah, which is the capital of the province, and, in fact, the only place in the hills that can be called a city. Prior to our invasion and conquest of Kumaon, Almorah was the place of residence of the Goorka viceroy, who was appointed from Katmandoo; and previous to the Goorka invasion, it was the seat of government of the Rajahs of Kumaon. From the nature of its situation, the

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city is principally composed of one long street, of nearly a mile in length, though there are suburbs which extend down a long way on both sides of the hill. It is paved with stone throughout, and the houses are generally very good, none being under two stories, and many three and four stories high; the houses, even of the poorest people, in this part of the hills, are all built of stone, and have slated roofs, so that they are remarkably substantial. Indeed, those in the town of Almorah are unlike anything seen in the plains of India, and remind one somewhat of England, to a small town in which country Almorah has altogether a greater resemblance than to one in Hindostan. The officer commanding at Almorah has, also, the general command of all the troops in the district.

THE HIMALAYAS.—The range of the Himalaya, of which Almorah forms a link, embraces an area of 500,000 to 600,000 square miles. It consists of numerous ridges running parallel to the direction of the whole range from south-east to north-west, which are connected in many places by transverse ridges, and in others separated by deep and narrow ravines and glens, in which the different branches and tributary rivers of the Indus and Ganges run. The entire chain, from the Hindoo Koosh, near Cabul, to the easternmost valleys of Assam, is overtopped by an elevated range covered with eternal snow. The lowest chain of the mountains, immediately skirting the plains of India, is extremely picturesque and diversified. The sides of the mountains are covered with dwarf trees, or cultivation on small patches of tableland, formed by cutting the sloping earth into a series of terraces, resembling vast flights of steps. The valleys are extremely narrow, consisting of little else than the bed of a rivulet, or a rude road, and the habitations of the people, generally on elevated ground, few and far between. As we advance, by roads cut in the mountain sides, the hills assume a bolder and severer aspect. Steep sides, sometimes wooded by the pine and the oak, but more frequently composed only of vast faces of naked rock, dip down abruptly, forming huge chasms and ravines, through which the torrent forces itself over rude fragments, which have toppled from the summits to the deep abyss. The roads now become narrow paths, winding along the edges of precipices, and the rustic bridge is supplanted by rude *sangas*,

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or planks, or by *jhulas*, formed by ropes stretched across, constituting a species of loose parapet, and supporting a light ladder for the feet to rest upon. These mountains are seldom crossed by Europeans. The Tibetan traders visit Upper India by the northern passes, and intercourse takes place with the valley of Nepal, and the countries of Assam and Bootan; but in all other respects, the mountains are regarded as the natural frontier of the British possessions, and are only penetrated as far, or as high, as may be requisite for purposes of health.

Next to Mussoorie, spoken of above, the favourite places of resort are Simla, not many miles from Rampore, the chief town in the valley of the Upper Sutledge; and Darjeeling to the south-east, in the vicinity of the Nepalese territory.

SIMLA.—The climate of Simla is considered one of the finest in the world. The thermometer, within doors, seldom ranges higher than 62° Fahrt. except in the months of May, June, and July, when it rarely exceeds 72°. June, July, and August, comprise the rainy months; and during the remaining portion of the year the climate is delightful. Snow seldom falls until January, and except on the north side of the hills, does not lie above two or three days on the ground. The sudden changes of temperature which are occasioned by the alternate winds of the plains and of the snowy ranges, are not of frequent occurrence; hot winds are unknown; and the weather is not so variable as elsewhere on the Himalaya range. On the hills of Simla there are upwards of one hundred residences, built after the fashion of English cottages. As the chosen retreat of Governors-General and Commanders-in-Chief, from the burning plains of India, the place has enjoyed for some years past many considerable advantages. The roads to the residences, and for some distance beyond them, are spacious and elegant, Shopkeepers have been induced to establish themselves and form emporiums of all the creature comforts. There is a reading-room and billiard-table, an amateur theatre, a church, a school, an observatory, and a pretty valley called Annandale, whose beauty owes something to the taste of a late resident; fancy fairs and races are held, and contribute to the embellishment of existence. As Simla and the neighbouring hills are the property of certain small chieftains,

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who reside in small townships, a political agent is stationed at the former place to regulate the respective responsibilities, and do the honours in behalf of the British government. The people of the hills are poor, simple and tractable, subsisting entirely by the produce of their lands. They are Hindoos, and 400,000 in number. Though polygamy prevails in some parts, polyandry is a more common institution, for the insufficiency of the products of the soil renders it advisable to check the increase of the human race. It is by no means uncommon for one woman to reside in the same house with four or five men, and to fulfil the duties of a wife towards all. The women are good-looking and strong; they wear a slight cloth covering for the head, *not* concealing the face as in the plains, a chemise of coarse cloth, and trousers. The commercial products of these hills are iron, wax, honey, borax, musk, wool, ginger, and opium. The fruits are apricots, walnuts, strawberries, raspberries, quinces, greengages, red and black currants, rhubarb, wheat, grain, barley, rice, &c.; and in the kitchen garden may be found peas, beans, potatoes, cabbages, lettuces, parsnips, &c.

Access to Simla from the plains is very easy. A palankeen dawk from the stations of Loodianah or Umballa, brings the traveller to Bhar, at the foot of the hills, which is distant about thirty miles from Simla; there are three stage bungalows situated at Chumbul, Hurreepore, and Syree, which lead to Simla. The ascent from Bhar to the first of these stages is considerable; the road winds up the face of an immense mountain, and brings the traveller to the summit, where he finds the first bungalow. From Chumbul to the Khutwar river, the descent is steep but not dangerous; the course of the traveller is for some miles along its banks through a well-cultivated valley, when by a sharp turn of the road he is suddenly brought to a chasm, flanked by perpendicular rocks about 800 or 1,000 feet in height, through which the river Gumber rolls. Passing through this gap along the banks of the Gumber, the traveller at length advances half a mile up a gentle ascent to the Hurreepore bungalow, and thence continuing gradually the ascent by a barren but good road, he reaches Syree, whence he proceeds to Simla. The roads are excellent and well fenced in.

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Previous to ascending the hills, the traveller, as is usual, deposits his carriage, palankeen, or tent, &c. &c., in godowns belonging to a Simla firm at Bhar, and proceeds upwards with such articles of furniture only as are absolutely necessary. The usual mode of travelling is by "*jampauns*"—a conveyance not unlike a large clumsy chair, having a top from which curtains are suspended. They are carried by four men by means of poles fixed to the sides, and are supplied by the agents of the firm, together with bearers and porters.

At about one-third the ascent we reach Subatoo, a tolerably extensive piece of level land, where the head-quarters of the Nusseree battalion of Goorka sepoys are situated.

Immediately above Dehra, on a ridge of the outer Himalaya, stands the cantonment, or depôt, of Landour. It was established in 1827, as a sanatarium for European troops, and the consequences have been most beneficial. Sick officers and soldiers sent there are speedily renovated, the climate in the winter and the hot months being remarkably salubrious.

Near Landour is Mussooree, another elevated spot, studded with bungalows, and all appliances of comfort. Many of the officers stationed in the upper provinces resort to it in the warm weather.

HURDWAR.—975 miles from Calcutta, due south of Deyra, on the western bank of the Ganges, and a little below the spot where, receiving tribute from another stream, it enters upon the level of Hindostan, lies Hurdwar, a place of great sanctity, whither Hindoo pilgrims resort in prodigious numbers. During the first fortnight in April of each year, a fair is held which attracts many thousands of people, who contrive to render their visit subservient, at one and the same time, to business and to devotion. Above Hurdwar is Khunkhul, a teerut, or place of Hindoo pilgrimage. The town consists of a very handsome principal street, running north and south, parallel with the course of the river, and is composed of a number of magnificent houses (for Hindoos) belonging to rich Brahmins and merchants from all parts of India. To have a house at Khunkhul, is at once a mark of the proprietor's piety and wealth, or importance. Most of them are built of brick and mortar, and the road front is

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