

generally painted in the *pure Hindostanee taste*. Many, if not all of the householders, rent out their lower apartments to dirty bunnias, or still filthier hulwaees, or confectioners, who project numerous grass roofs or choppers, which seem to have been attacked by the white ants, and to require, if not renewal, at least a fresh coating. Crowds of monkeys (who very soon find out a city, where they are adored) crowd all parts of the houses, playing the most diverting tricks; the females hopping about with their young ones clinging firmly to their backs, and occasionally descending with a pounce to snatch either grain or sweet-meats from the shops.

To accommodate the immense number of pilgrims who visit Khunkhul, there are long, low, brick-and-mortar serais, built in a uniform manner, in which, in one promiscuous herd, are lodged wives, bullocks, husbands, cows, calves (come to be blessed), donkeys, boys, mules, camels, and tattoos (small ponies).

The road to Khunkhul made by our government, runs direct to Hurdwar. On each side of it, for a couple of miles, are pitched the large and comfortable tents belonging to the military and civil officers who visit the fair, either on duty, to purchase horses for the Honourable Company's Service, or to pass a week in the enjoyments of this celebrated fair. Rich natives, also, have their country-seats amongst the large mango groves, with their little jungly gardens filled with marigolds, tulsa, cocks'-combs, and sunflowers. The view from Khunkhul, from any of the tops of the low hills on its west, is strikingly beautiful; the muddy streets and the filthy natives being out of sight. Hurdwar is built in a nearly similar manner, but is apparently older, and certainly even dirtier than Khunkhul. It lies close on the western bank of the Ganges, and many of the finest houses have their foundations in the bed of the sacred waters. They are generally of brick, but many have their lower stories of very fine white freestone. The bed of the river is here also intersected with low woody islands, and is a full mile broad in the rainy season. On the west bank are hills 600 feet high, covered with thick brushwood and low trees. The sides of these hills are divided with rugged ravines, which afford ample cover to the leopards, or tigers, or wolves,

who descend at night to inspect the gram-fed sheep or lambs of the English visitors. Limestone of a good quality is found in the bed of the river, both here and at Khunkhul, and is manufactured at a moderate price.

The principal bathing-ghaut is at once elegant and commodious ; and the horrid waste of human life which had so often occurred by the sudden rush of the devotees through the old and narrow ghaut to reach the water at the propitious minute, often at midnight, is, it is to be hoped, for ever prevented.

From Hurdwar towards Khunkhul, and thence to Hurdwar, for a mile on each side, with an average breadth of 400 yards, is occupied during the fair, with perhaps 10,000 horses, and nearly half a million of people.

The scene is in the highest degree interesting and diverting. The horse-merchants from Bokhara and Cabool occupy the stony central parts of the dry bed of the river, with their powerful and handsome, but generally old and blemished horses ; while those from Toorkistan squat in the small compounds behind the houses of Hurdwar, separated from each other by dry stone walls. These men bring what are well known in India by their great power, and are chiefly galloways and ponies, called toorkies ; their prices vary from 250 to as high as 800 rupees, according to their shapes, colours, and paces. They have all been previously taught to amble, a pace thoroughly unpleasant to most Englishmen, but delightful to all black men.

The elephant-dealers incline to Khunkhul for the sake of fodder, but traverse the roads of the fair with their animals during the mornings and evenings, with large bells attached to their necks, to give warning to passengers, and for the better alarming of horses. The buneas, hulwâees,* cloth, toy, and shawl merchants, occupy the road-side close to the town, and have low cotton tents with two poles, and of a roof shape. Every here and there are large heaps of barley and wheat-straw, or bhoosa (troddur), surrounded by dead thorn hedges, on sale, for the bullocks of travellers.

On the sides of the hill to the west are thousands of Seik

* *Hulwah* is the general term for sweetmeats, but there is one species of firm thick jelly sold in earthen basins, which especially bears the name, and is very delicious.

families, with their huts, tents, camels, bullocks, mules, and horses, all pell-mell in the most astonishing confusion.

The Seik women are awfully ugly, of dark-brown complexions, and wear their hair formed back into a conical shape, over which, when abroad, they throw their bhee, or white chaddurs, which give them a very picturesque and not ungraceful air. The men are hideous, and wear ear-rings. The Seiks bring only a few barren mares and mules.

The pious rajah (who first of all bargains for his absolution from some holy Brahmin), with his large train of vagabonds, and their tag-rag and bob-tail assortment of animals, has generally a couple of tents, one for a dormitory, and the other for sitting under during the heat of the day ; and also a sort of awning, supported by four poles, the fringes of both being tastefully ornamented with red khurwa, stars, crosses, and peacocks, enclosed within a compound of 100 yards square. Amongst the horse-dealers some capitalists have a few select Persian horses, which they keep warmly clothed in a most handsome manner under spacious tents, which, on inquiry, will be found valued at from 5,000 to 50,000 rupees ; but which are, if sold at all, sold for 800 to 1,000 rupees. The greatest attention is paid by a native horse-dealer in fattening his horse, till he resembles a stall-fed bullock, which is accomplished by cramming him with cordial stimulants, such as pounded ginger and sugar, or cardamums and treacle, with his boiled vetches ; a man stands on each side of the horse stuffing large balls of the composition down his throat.

Huge masses of assafoetida in bags, from the mountains beyond Cabool ; tons of raisins of various sorts ; almonds, pistachio-nuts ; sheep, with four or five horns ; Balkh cats, with long silken hair of singular beauty ; faqueers begging, and abusing the uncharitable with the grossest and most filthy language ; long strings of elderly ladies proceeding in a chant to the priests of the Lingum to bargain for bodily issue ; ghaut priests presenting their books for the presents and signatures of the European visitors ; groups of Hindoos surrounding a Brahmin, who gives each of them a certificate of his having performed the pilgrimage,—fill up various spots, and infuse liveliness and spirit into the scene.

The natives who supply the horse-dealers with grass (half of which is dried up, and half green), are a race of spurious hill people, who call themselves Brahmins and Chuttur. They are strikingly unlike the dwellers in the plains, being generally broad and lean, low and muscular. In their personal habits they are amazingly filthy. In summer and winter they wear a coarse blanket frock, which, however incredible it may appear, is never removed from their skins. But even out of this evil springs good, for this is the foundation of their personal chronology; they do not say, I am twenty or thirty years old, but, I have worn so many jackets! It is strictly true that the jackets are allowed to drop off from filth and rotteness.

HANSI.—Returning to Seharunpore, a few miles west of Hurdwar, and proceeding thence south-westerly, *via* Kurnaul, we come, at the distance of 120 miles, to Hansi, once a place of some importance. It is not a very regularly built town; the principal street leading from the gate opposite the small lake to the esplanade of the fort is wide, and is intersected by another at right angles, which forms the Chouk. The by-lanes are crooked and numerous; dusty in dry weather, and ankle deep after a heavy shower of rain. The population of the town is said to be 4,000 of all castes, Mahomedans and Hindoos, residing in houses of both brick and mud. It is surrounded by a brick wall, but of no stability, the ends of which terminate on the fort ditch. Hansi is of some antiquity; it was founded by Rajah Pethora of Delhi, and was captured by Mahomed of Ghizni, in the year 1035, 819 years ago. In recent days the celebrated adventurer George Thomas made it the capital of his short-lived independent state. The fort is an oblong, but slightly departing from the quadrangle, and is protected by a lower fort, or *fausse braye*, and a deep ditch, which can easily be filled by turning the canal into it. On the side next the town the glacis is short; but on other sides it is more prolonged. The entrance is from the town side, and is covered by bastions; at each corner of the *fausse braye*, also, there are bastions enfilading the ditch. The parapet of the upper fort is low, and the guns are fired *en barbette*. Supposing the fort in a state of siege, or blockade, the garrison would have had one well to depend on for water;

this is situated within the *fausse braye*, near the gate, and is about 120 feet deep. There are two wells in the upper fort, but one of them is dry, and the other turned out bad, the water being brackish. In the centre of the fort is a cistern for receiving rain-water, that could be filled from below ; it is tiled over, and is about forty feet long by thirty feet broad, and is more than twenty-five deep, so that it would contain a pretty good supply, about 184,000 gallons ; there is now six feet of water in the cistern, or about 44,000 gallons. The cantonment is to the south of the fort, and contains lines for the Hurriana Light Infantry, and the 1st Local Horse. Through most of the streets run channels from the canal for supplying water to the bungalows, as it is too expensive to sink wells, from the depth of soil to be cut through ere the springs rise. Hansi used to be an extremely healthy station.

Until we reach the Punjaub, there are no stations of any consequence north of Hansi. Westward and southward lie the "Great Sandy Desert," the Little Desert, the countries of Marwar (the chief town of which province is Jhodpore), Mewar (of which Oodipore is the principal town), the Gwalior State, already spoken of, and Central India.

Of Malwa, the chief province is

MHOW—(1,290 miles from Calcutta), the principal military station, where a considerable body of troops is always to be found, commanded by a general officer. To compress within the narrow compass of this work even a faint outline of Central India were impossible. We refer the reader, therefore, to Sir John Malcolm's interesting work upon a country so rich in resources,* the scene of so much strife and political intrigue, and the theatre of British triumphs over its most gallant foe.

INDORE—the seat of the political agency, lies a few miles north of Mhow. This place, the capital of the Holkar Mahrattas, is large and populous, but contains no buildings of any note. Taking an easterly direction through the territories of the Dewas chief, Scindia and the Bhopal Nawaub, we reach Ashta (a large town and fort on the right

* The poppy is extensively cultivated in Malwa. The opium thence extracted is manufactured and sold under excise licences, which are a large source of revenue to the government.

bank of the Parbuttee river), whence we incline northerly, passing across the territories of the Bhopal Nawaub, and arrive at Sehore. Between this place and

SAUGOR—(806 miles from Calcutta), where a British commissioner resides, supported by troops and a strong police force, organized to check freebooters and enforce the payment of revenue and tribute by the petty and turbulent chiefs, the distance is 135 miles. The face of the country is an alternation of rocky hill, deep jungle, nullah and cultivated country. Saugor is a desirable station for military men and young civilians, as, indeed, are most of the places in our occupation in the neighbourhood of the Nerbudda. The sports of tiger-hunting and fishing are enjoyed in great perfection there, and the number of persons congregated at Saugor afford opportunities for the various pastimes and pleasant social reunions common to civilized life.

From Saugor to the cantonment of Mirzapore, north-east, is 285 miles, through the various native territories of Dum-mow, Punnah, the rich valley of Bundlecund, Ooncheria, Sohawul, and Rewah—territories which were, until twelve years since, the scenes of much discord, calling for the armed interference of the British Government, and an alteration in some of our political relations with the chieftains. Dawk travelling along this tract of country is not difficult in times of peace and during the prevalence of good order ; but marching is rendered disagreeable by the character of the roads, of which no native governments take sufficient care, and by the occasional scarcity of water and the necessities of (sepoys) life.

At Mirzapore we have got back upon the route adopted to describe the Upper Provinces, north-west of Calcutta. We must now glance at the provinces and stations due east, west, and south of the Presidency.

The most important place to the north-east is Dacca, a town 186 miles from Calcutta.

DACCA is both a civil and a military station, and many indigo-planters likewise reside there, or in the neighbourhood.

The city, with its minarets and spacious buildings, appears, during the season of inundation, like that of Venice in the West, to rise from the surface of the water, and, like the generality of native towns, presents an irregular appearance.

The works and places of public utility, public buildings, institutions, and establishments, in the city and suburbs, consist of thannahs or police stations ; bridges across the Dallye creek, and its branch, which intersects the town ; ghauts or landing places ; ferry stations ; bazaars, in which the common articles of food are sold daily ; endaras or wells ; the Magistrate's Cutcherry ; the Judge's ditto ; Collector's ditto ; Revenue Commissioner's ditto ; Moonsiff's ditto ; Post-office (hence branch mails are sent to Calcutta, to Chittagong, Arracan ; Mymensing, Jumalpoore, and Assam ; Sylhet, Cherra Poonjee, and to Burrisaul) ; the Cotwallie ; the Jail ; Jail Hospital ; Lunatic Asylum ; Native Hospital ; Vaccine Establishment ; Charitable Fund ; St. Thomas's Church ; Baptist Mission Meeting House ; Roman Catholic Church ; Armenian Church ; Greek Church ; one hundred and nineteen Hindoo places of worship ; Government School ; Baptist Mission Schools ; Hindoo and Mahomedan Schools ; one hundred and eighty Mahomedan places of worship ; Commissariat Department ; English, Armenian, and Greek Cemeteries ; Executive officer's Establishment ; Commissariat Office ; Military Orphan Station Committee ; Cantonment ; Elephant Depôt.

Within an enclosure 200 yards square, and called the Chowra, are congregated the majority of the trades of Dacca ; and innumerable petty shop-keepers here dispose of their caps, cotton and chintz dresses, hardware, fish-hooks, betel-nut crackers, looking glasses, seetul pattee, or cool mats for sleeping on, cane petarrahs for travellers, shoes of an infinite variety of patterns, cocoa-nuts prepared for hookahs, and the usual &c. &c.

The principal part of the commerce of Dacca is confined to this square, which is perfectly surrounded by shops, and to the roads leading from it towards the southern parts of the town, occupied by the military and civilians ; a comparatively small space, running from the river backwards, not more than 350 yards.

Such is the extreme unhealthiness of the cantonments, that fever is an almost certain consequence of a residence within its boundaries ; and hence officers attached to the corps on duty at Dacca, are permitted to live within the city. The houses of the Europeans were principally, if not

wholly, built while Dacca contained the celebrated muslin factory ; and although large, commodious, and upper-roomed, can only command a rent of from sixty to 135 rupees per mansion. Pretty little gardens are attached to most of them, and such as face the river Booree are certainly most desirable and pleasant residences.

There is an Armenian church at Dacca. The floor of the interior of the building is divided into three parts : one inclosed by a railing, for the altar ; a central portion, into which two folding-doors open ; and another railed off, which is exclusively occupied by the women and children, has a gallery over it. The altar stands in a semicircle, about four feet distant from the wall, and is raised, to the height of about ten feet, by steps. These steps sustain twenty-four wax candles, each three feet long, and also a number of small crosses, of some gilt or shining metal.

The floor of the verandah contains many tombstones, in memory of departed Armenian Christians, who formerly abounded in the city of Dacca, where they are still an influential and wealthy body. Within fifteen feet of the church, but quite separated, stands a coarse square tower, having four spiracles at its summit. At the base, within the square of the four walls, a few feet from the ground, a marble tablet has been placed in the wall, with an inscription, both in the Armenian and English languages, signifying that this *superb* and *magnificent steeple* was dedicated to the honour and glory of God, &c.

Within the military cantonments are several very handsome upper and lower-roomed spacious houses, for which no tenants can be found.

Dacca was formerly a place of great importance, but it has seriously diminished since the loss of the muslin trade, which has almost entirely disappeared. It is true that, by giving a commission, an extremely delicate article may still be procured, at the rate of 150 rupees, or 15*l.* for ten yards ; but at that rate, as may be readily imagined, little can be sold, as the demand must be necessarily very small.

The working of shawl-scarfs with floss silk is carried to great perfection at Dacca, and many are despatched by banghy to Calcutta. Beautiful ear-rings and other ornaments, made of the purest silver, and of an infinite variety

of patterns, can be supplied at a very short notice, and at reasonable prices.

The suburbs of Dacca were formerly inhabited by thousands of families of muslin-weavers, who, from the extreme delicacy of their manufacture, were obliged to work in pits, sheltered from the heat of the sun and changes of the weather ; and even after that precaution, only while the dew lay on the ground, as the increasing heat destroyed the extremely delicate thread. When the manufacture ceased, these pits were wholly deserted, and they are now filled with rain after every shower, which speedily becomes putrid, and favours the production of the rankest vegetation.

The city contains a few rich and respectable indigo-planters, who, in addition to that manufacture, speculate in government lands, which they rent out to zemindars and ryots. A considerable time has elapsed since they introduced the coffee-plant ; but they meet with innumerable difficulties and unforeseen obstacles in its culture, finding it almost impossible, by any arts of persuasion, to induce the natives to pay it the requisite attention in weeding, so as to make it a paying crop. There is no fault in the soil or climate, for the plant bears very abundantly, and the berry is of fair quality.

The betel nut-trees produce very heavy crops, and they form one of the staples of the country. Many of the areas attached to native houses near the city may be seen almost choked with them. The slender elegance of the tree commands admiration.

Dacca has now but three manufactures worthy of the name, but they are very curious ones. The most important is that of violins. Great numbers are made, and sold at the low rate of two rupees, or four shillings sterling ! Few manjees, or steersmen of boats, leave the city without purchasing some, either on speculation or for their own private enjoyment during their tedious voyages. The sounds of the violin may be heard at all hours of the day and night. The Bengalees are, in fact, a highly musical people, as any one may discover by frequenting the streets of Dacca during the night ; when, if you peep into a shop where an industrious mechanic is following his trade, you will most probably find another recreating himself, after his daily labour, either with

a violin or a sarwegee, and occasionally singing to his own music, but never English airs. Groups may be also seen walking along, and singing to the utmost pitch of their voices.

The second manufacture consists in the formation of bracelets, of different diameters, both for children and women; being sections of a sea-shell, called "sunk," evidently because they are found under water! Necklaces, called *krantas*, are also formed of the thick part of the same shell, enough to furnish almost the whole of the Bengal army. The former are cut by a halfmoon-shaped saw, about three feet long, worked by the right hand, having a moveable edge, which is replaced when destroyed by long use. The shells are a species of univalve, strongly resembling, if not, the *Murax tulipa*, procured from Calcutta, where they are purchased at the cheap rate of two and a half annas per hundred. They are from four to seven inches long, vary in diameter from two inches to two inches and a half thick, are very heavy, and in whiteness far exceed ivory. More than 300 mechanics are constantly employed in this curious manufacture. The tribe occupy a whole street of the most picturesque and ancient houses in Dacca, running behind the Kotwallee, towards the area formerly the site of the Honourable Company's Presidency. The single houses in this street vary from ten to fifteen feet in breadth, and are from two to three stories. The narrow ones appear as if built of cards, and all are curiously decorated with Ionic, Doric, and Corinthian pilasters, supporting nothing, and such-like heathenish devices.

The third manufacture, in a mercantile point of view is hardly worthy of record; it is merely that of idols! They are made of a certain black stone, not quite three feet long, and very nicely polished. After receiving consecration from some priestly Brahmin, they are set up for public worship, as a rival to the living God. So accustomed are Englishmen to see such objects of worship, that they hardly ever elicit a remark. From Dacca there is a post-road to

SYLHET (325 miles from Calcutta), on the borders of Assam, where a political officer, supported by a couple of regiments, resides, for the conduct of the relations with the Munniporeans and other neighbouring chiefs. Due

east of Sylhet are Cachar and Munnipore, states taken under British protection during the Burmese war, the former now constituting part of our possessions, and the latter in close and friendly alliance with our government. Above Sylhet rise the Cossyah Hills, the chief station in which, Cherrapoonjee,* has become a sanatorium for sick people from Calcutta.

COSSYAH HILLS AND CHERRA POONJEE.

THE Cossyah Hills embrace all that tract of country which reaches from Assam to Sylhet, and from Mymensing to Cachar.

At first sight they appear to lie east and west, and exhibit various degrees of undulation in the most pleasing irregularity, and, whether viewed collectively as a finished prospect, or each particular feature examined separately, the whole is interesting to an extent more easy to feel than to describe.

Especially after a considerable fall of rain on the summits, when the verdure becomes more rich, and numerous cata-racts are formed at various points, the beholder is at once presented with a landscape combining everything that is sublime, every section replete with variety, and every particular spot prominently beautiful.

The table-land commences apparently from a line drawn horizontally midway up the hills, along which are distinguishable some bold precipices, one of which measures 600 feet in height, and is situated between the road to Cherra Poonjee from Therria ghaut and Byrong. The only peaked hill in the Cossyah range is the granite mountain near Noongkhla; its height is 1,200 feet, and the ascent to it is both difficult and accompanied with risk, which may be avoided by prudence and care.

The elevation of the station of Cherra is 4,200 feet, and that of the village of Cherra Poonjee 4,500. Towards the north of the hills, the elevation is greater than any other side, and there are deep valleys on the east and west.

* Cherrapoonjee contains a coal-mine, yielding coal superior to that of Burdwan in quality.

CLIMATE.—The situation of these hills is the nearest from Bengal, except Dorjeling, and their climate is compared to that of England, being quite as salubrious and invigorating; especially from October to the commencement of the rains it is very delightful.

The temperature of Cherra is about fourteen degrees lower than that of the plains at corresponding periods; and there is no higher ground between Cherra and the plains of Sylhet.

There are frequent showers and fogs at all seasons of the year, and the periodical rains, which commence early and terminate late, are excessively heavy. The annual fall of rain is computed at the immense quantity of 300 inches; and upwards of 100 inches have been measured in six weeks. The occurrence of very severe thunder-storms, which are often accompanied with destructive hail-showers, is frequent.

ROUTES AND APPROACHES.—A person may at any time reach this sanatorium in six days, if not less, if he choose to travel by dawk, when he would have to pass Jessore, Furreedpore, and Dacca, three civil stations, where he could not only refresh, but also, if necessary, avail himself of medical aid.

The other mode of performing the journey is by water, through the Soonderbunds, which ought not on any account to occupy more than twenty-four days.

The inhabitants of these regions are remarkable for their love of independence, and differ strikingly from Bengalees.

The nation commonly known under the term "Khasia" may be said to be divided into the Khasias, the Garrows, Hajoongs, Kokees, Kacharrees, and a race of people remarkably ferocious, not scrupling to feed on human flesh. Besides these tribes, there is a remarkably savage race who inhabit a very considerable tract of country between the Cossyahs and the Hajoongs, and maintain an exterminating hostility amongst themselves. The people in general are Hindoos; and all are pagans of some denomination.

The constitution of the government of the different tribes may be said to consist of democracy and oligarchy, whilst some of them acknowledge subjection to one individual, termed a Rajah. Their religious affairs are administered by a certain order of priesthood of limited influence, though greater respect is attached to this functionary, in consequence

of the excessive superstition of the people, than to the individual who presides over their civil and military institutions, known by the name of Noongskar. The line of succession is not only confined to the male, but it is limited also to the female part of the family.

The commerce and manufactures of the Cossyah Hills are of small importance. Cloth of a good texture, though rather coarse, and indigo, obtained from a plant not at all resembling the sort cultivated in other parts of India, but of a good quality, compose the principal manufactures. The exports are ivory, cotton, beeswax, cotton cloth, honey, and chillies ; and the imports consist of coral beads, tobacco, salt, brass pots and pans, daws, and a few other articles.

There are several quarries of limestone in Hammameea, from which lime is obtained for purposes of building ; and extensive forests of fir-trees.

Numberless sheets of water appear everywhere, and each of them larger as they extend towards the south-eastern limits. Close to the mausoleum of Shah Jalalaadeen, at Sylhet, is a beautiful spring of water, which, being the only good water in that district, is in requisition by European residents and others.

A more popular, because a more contiguous sanatorium for the people of Calcutta, is Dorjeling, in the same direction.

DORJELING is situated on one of the numerous ramifications of the Sinchul Mountains, which, rising nearly 9,000 feet, form so remarkable a feature in every view of the Sikim Hills, from the plains. This ramification takes a northern direction ; and after descending about two or three miles, rises again into a small spreading eminence, whence a second ramification of some breadth is thrown off to the westward.

This spot is the site of the village or town of Dorjeling. It is in latitude 27° N., and longitude nearly the same as Calcutta, and is situated on the southern side of a great hollow or basin, being that of the Runjeet river, which falls into the Teesta a few miles east of the place ; to the north the view is open, and exhibits the usual succession of range beyond range, all irregularly ramifying in every direction, and in apparently inextricable confusion. It terminates in the Snowy range. To the westward the view is confined by

a lofty range at the distance of about ten miles ; to the eastward appears the valley of the Teesta, and on each side of it is the same confused assemblage of mountain-ridges as to the north and to the south.

The elevation of the station of Dorjeling is 6,957 feet.

The country, in respect to natural scenery, is equal to Landour and Mussooree ; the oaks and rhododendra of greater variety and larger size. The productions are, oaks, chestnut, birch, maple, sal, sissoo, toon, mango, rhododendron, champ, magnolia, lotus-tree, sycamore, holly, olive, semul, and fig.

Dorjeling commands, probably, one of the most magnificent prospects of the Snowy range visible anywhere ; in which appears eminently conspicuous the peak Kunching Jinga, said to be 27,000 feet above the sea, and supposed by some to be a volcano.

On the mountains to the northward of the place, there had formerly been much cultivation, and on the lower part, the forest chiefly confines itself to the deep dells and ravines ; but the Lepchas rarely continue to cultivate the same spot more than three years, and the vegetation on the lower situations is so very luxuriant, that on their abandoning a spot, it is speedily covered again with jungle.

Dorjeling is about 98 hours' dawk-travelling from Calcutta ; and horses, palankeen carriages, and buggies are on hire on the whole line. Water-carriage from June to September, to a distance of only thirty miles from the foot of the hills, and during the remainder of the year Dulolgunge on the Mahanuddee, about sixty miles from the foot of the hills, is the place where boats are obliged to stop. From thence land-carriage is easy.

From all stations below Allahabad, Dorjeling will be preferred to the sanatoria in the north-western mountains, the distance of Allahabad being in a direct line from Dorjeling and Dehra, as nearly as possible equal, and about four hundred miles. Even from Allahabad, the invalid's preferable course is to Dorjeling ; for this simple reason, that he has the advantage of water-carriage as far as Malda, with the stream ; and for this same reason even to stations above Allahabad, it might admit of question whether the western or eastern station of health be the preferable. It is true, that as the invalid has also to return, it may be said he will in either case have

the stream in his favour once, and only once; but to the invalid it is often, perhaps always, of more consequence to reach his destination quickly, than to return, he having it always in his power to choose his time for the latter.

The lines of approach to Dorjeling by land, from the different parts of the country, are *viâ* Rungpore from the south-eastern part of Bengal, from the south *viâ* Dinagepore, and from the westward *viâ* Purneah and Kissengunge. By water, the route is from the Ganges, up the Mahanuddee river as far as navigable, and from the spot thus attained, the remainder of the journey must be performed by land.

All these routes unite at Titalya, and there are good and practicable roads for travellers to all those places; namely, Rungpore, Dinagepore, and Purneah; and from the latter a tolerable one to Kissengunge. From Rungpore there is an excellent road to Titalya, kept in good order; from Kissengunge to Titalya there is another road; from Dinagepore, which is the most direct line from Calcutta, there is an excellent road; and from Dinagepore to Bargatchy, on the left bank of the Ganges, opposite to Bogwonjolee, the same road is continued, equally well constructed. The road from Calcutta to Bogwonjolee passes through Dum-Dum, Barraset, Kishnaghur, and Berhampore; and this is in fact the old military road reopened.

A place situated like Dorjeling, at an elevation which secures it the temperature of a high latitude, yet within the full influence of the tropical rains, may well be supposed to possess a peculiar character of climate. Such is the case; for although at the great height of nearly 7,000 feet above the sea, yet, owing to its nearness to the tropics, the winter is not to be compared for cold to that of England; while from the fall of rain at that season the summer is much colder. Its mean temperature is thus produced, which is about, or but little exceeds, that of England, or of the north of France.

It has been ascertained, in India at least, that as we ascend in elevation, the temperature falls at the rate of about 1° for every 300 feet. The mean temperature of Dorjeling below that of Calcutta may therefore be confidently reckoned at 24° ; it might indeed be even lower, on account of its having a northern aspect, and having a higher latitude by 5° .

The following table shows that, of the several sanatoria,

Simla is the only one which has the advantage of a superior elevation, and this but of 268 feet, scarcely amounting to a single degree of temperature. As to the higher latitude of those stations, the difference is only 3° ; and it is probably more than counterbalanced by the northern aspect, which is wanting at Simla and Landour, or Mussooree.

In short, all without exception who have visited Dorjeling agree in this at least, that it is scarcely possible to speak too favourably of the climate.

Seasons.—With this tropical situation, the seasons follow the course of those of the plains; of spring there is none, about the vernal equinox a few showers of rain fall, with sometimes a little hail. They are often repeated during the months of April and May, gradually becoming heavier and more frequent, till the setting in of the rains, at the beginning of June. But these "*spring showers*" are not followed by the immediate effects of those of a higher latitude. There, herbs and flowers come forth at the first call of spring, and a few months (in some latitudes a few weeks) see the plains of ripening corn in the place of the plains of snow; while here, though vegetation takes a start, its progress is at first but slow: the brown left by the recent frosts hardly disappears till the rains have fairly begun. The signs of summer are but little, if any more, marked than those of spring. The rains cease about the end of September and beginning of October, and almost immediately afterwards the frosts begin. Thus there are but two seasons at Dorjeling,—the winter, and the rains.

The rains set in fairly at the beginning of June. The weather becomes cloudy, and the rain falls steadily; not very heavy, and, unless in much-exposed situations, straight down and even, there being little wind. Two inches in the twenty-four hours often fall; sometimes three; and, though more rarely, sometimes four. Notwithstanding this, the weather during the rains is not unpleasant to those who have, or make for themselves, occupation within doors. The rains continue unabated during the months of June, July, and August, about thirty inches on an average falling in each of those months; with September a decided change takes place: the continued fall changes into showers, which become less and less frequent, while the sun shows itself oftener, and its

gleams are of longer duration, till towards the latter end of the month, or the beginning of October, when the rains cease altogether.

During the rains the thermometer ranges from about 54° to 74° , rarely above or below either : of course it feels cool and pleasant, though the occasional sunshine is now and then very hot. As might be expected, the damp is very great, not so much so, perhaps, as in the plains ; but, being colder, the air is not so soon dried in the intervals of the rain, and it is more felt.

The cold weather is divided into three portions. The first, at the conclusion of the rains, is mild and pleasant, the atmosphere tolerably clear, the ground covered with flowers and sweet-scented herbs, and the prospect, for the most part, clear and open : this is the autumn, if autumn there be at Dorjeling. In November the hoar frost begins, and the cold weather comes on at the latter part of the month. The ground is frozen in December and January, sometimes almost all day ; the weather feels very cold, the atmosphere is cloudless, dry, and sparkling, giving a sensation like that felt on a frosty morning at home. All vegetation has now ceased, the little grass there is, the herbs, and flowers, are frost-bitten, and dried up ; ice stands in the little pools of water in the morning, and in shady places it lasts all day. At early morning it is very cold, but as the sun rises, it becomes agreeable, and at mid-day warm, with bright sunshine ; as the evening comes on, it is cold and chilly, and night is clear and starlight.

About Christmas the weather is cloudy, as in the plains at that time, and rain sometimes falls.

The mean temperature between the highest and lowest for the whole year is $54^{\circ} 06'$, which is somewhat about that of England.

The winds at Dorjeling are, for the most part, light and variable, with a general direction from the west. They are never high, except in very exposed situations, and there amounting only to a strong breeze. This, as well as the general freedom from thunder-storms, is owing to the situation of the station, on a promontory, or long hill-ridge projecting into a basin, surrounded by higher mountains. Thunder is frequently heard, but not near.

Geological Formations.—The geological structure of this country has, no doubt, its effect upon the temperature, and indeed upon the wholesomeness of the climate. The whole formation being primitive rocks, the evaporation from the surface is great, and constantly going on, while the vegetable mould and surface soil are very thin.

Another source of cold remains to be noticed in the wonderful forests which clothe the whole face of the country. On whichever side we turn, the whole road from Punkabarree, upwards of thirty miles, runs through a forest of the noblest trees, with an almost impenetrable underwood for the entire way; and the same extends over the whole of Sikim to the Snowy Mountains. To be sure, here and there, a Lepcha clearing, and now and then a mountain-slip, on the top of a hill cleared by fire or other accident, is free from trees; but they are hardly distinguishable, unless upon the very spot. Now, where there is vegetation like this, the ground is never dry, neither the wind nor the rays of the sun being able to penetrate to it; and where there is damp, there is cold. Those parts of the station which are cleared of trees are certainly drier, warmer, and more cheerful than where the jungle is still uncut.

The diseases of Dorjeling are, *affections of the head*, apparently caused by the heat of the sun. *Bowel complaints*, which have been frequent, chiefly diarrhœa, but some of dysentery. They are to be attributed to bad food, indifferent lodging, and scanty clothing, and not to the climate. They have occurred almost entirely among the poorer classes.

Fevers at Dorjeling, as in most other places, form the great bulk of Indian diseases. They are believed to be chiefly contracted below, though in some cases it is difficult to come to that conclusion. Natives proceeding from the plains in the rainy season are often, perhaps generally, attacked by fever on their arrival at Dorjeling.

Hepatic affections are very rare among the natives.

Disorders of the digestive organs occur in a slight degree, not unfrequently owing to improper food; but they have readily and speedily been cured. The worst cases, among Europeans, have been in parties coming up on that account for change of climate; and in the greater part of them the amendment has been wonderful.

Rheumatism is everywhere a tedious disorder, and it is not uncommon at Dorjeling. Its general duration is less than in Europe. When contracted below, it would be relieved by removal to this climate.

Syphilis is as severe here as in the plains, perhaps more so, but is easily relieved by proper treatment.

Bronchocoele is sometimes met with, and in very bad cases.

Debility, consequent upon fevers or other diseases in the plains, is also very speedily overcome. Almost immediately on arrival, a decided improvement takes place, the appetite is improved, and the strength daily increases. Sometimes these lead to excess, when a relapse occurs, or fevers (the most of which are probably contracted below) come on; but by prudent living, and avoidance of exposure to the weather, recovery is rapid, and lasting.

The patients most likely to derive benefit from the climate of Dorjeling are those suffering from debility after fevers, or other debilitating disorders, and unattended by organic disease; from indigestion, and its accompanying symptoms; almost all female complaints; general debility without any specific cause, beyond a long residence in the heats of the plains, and local and cutaneous disorders.

Organic Visceral disease is supposed to be aggravated by, or at least not to yield to, the influence of a hill climate, so readily as in the plains.

But the influence of the climate on persons enjoying a moderate degree of health is quite as satisfactory as it is in cases of disease. In India there are many persons who can be called neither ill nor well; who are troubled with occasional fevers, costiveness, and other symptoms of indigestion; who are obliged to take a good deal of care of themselves, and yet are able to pursue their ordinary avocations. Perhaps almost every European in India is more or less in this condition: such on arrival at Dorjeling immediately experiences the greatest benefit. The appetite becomes improved; hypochondriacal symptoms disappear, and the aptitude to exercise returns with all the activity felt at home.

Ladies who in the plains rose and took a constitutional drive by prescription, get up early in the morning, and take long walks; while gardening, and other out-of-door work, afford agreeable employment for the day.

Children, of all others, are benefited most by a change to this climate. They are not long here, before the thin, pallid, playing-on-the-carpet, peevish child, becomes fat and rosy, in fair weather running about all the day out of doors ; while the child who in the plains constantly suffered from bowel complaints, or remittent fever, comes to life again, regaining his health and strength, and playing about as merrily as an English child.

The time for invalids going to the hills must depend upon the nature of the complaint, and the constitution of the patient. In determining this, it must be remembered that the climate is cold and damp during the rains ; and to send some cases to it at this season, would, probably, be equally injurious as in Europe to send them to the sea-side in winter. Those who can bear, and are likely to derive benefit by the cold, should be sent in October, before the cold weather sets in, while it is still warm, and the atmosphere is clear and dry. This season will be found to be the very best time for going, in the great majority of cases ; especially in those who can remain, as all ought to do, for the whole year.

Supplies of grain must be necessarily drawn from the plains at first, the country itself scarcely yielding enough for its own scanty population ; but this necessity need not last long, the soil being everywhere excellent, and with the extraordinary facilities existing for irrigation, likely, with proper cultivation, to be highly productive. But even in drawing supplies from the plains, there is little inconvenience, as the distance is so small to the cultivated tract at the foot of the hills. Supplies of animal food have in like manner to be drawn from the plains at first ; but these mountains afford such advantages in this particular, that they will be soon fully sufficient, not only for the wants of the largest station likely to be established, but they might even supply all the European population of India ; and perhaps, in no part of the world are to be found such extensive tracts of superior pasturage, as proved by the fine condition of the cattle, not only in Sikkim, but in the British mountain provinces to the north-west.

A few words on ASSAM will complete the sketch of the south-eastern possessions and principalities.

ASSAM.—East and east-north-east of Rungpore, a post and banghy road leads to *Assam*, where a commissioner, with

an adequate number of assistants, a large police force, and a small body of troops, maintains the integrity of the British frontier in that direction. The usual mode, however, of proceeding to Assam from Bengal, is by water, as there is a free communication between the Berhampooter and the Ganges, and boats of the largest burthen easily pass from one into the other. The valley of Assam consists of a rich soil, covered with verdure and abundantly watered. Too much of the country, however, is still covered with jungle; and it will probably be many years before European capital and skill have cleared away the noxious vegetation and developed the wealth of the land. At present, European enterprise confines itself to the search for coal and caoutchouc, which are found in great abundance, and to the cultivation of the tea-tree. The exports of the Assam Tea Company to England have already been considerable, and the quality of the tea has been well spoken of by the London tea-brokers.

From the east and south-east we now turn to the south-west provinces of Bengal.

CUTTACK is the southernmost station under the Bengal presidency. The road, which is a continuation of the great Benares line, leads to Pooree, the seat of the Temple of Juggernaut, and a delightful place of resort for sea-bathers from Calcutta. Cuttack, from its vicinity to the sea, and the total absence of all vegetation, is one of the most agreeable and healthful stations in India. The society is small, consisting, as it does, of a few civilians and a small proportion of military; but the contiguity of Cuttack to other small stations renders a considerable reunion of visitors a matter of no great difficulty. The finest salt in India is manufactured on the coast of Cuttack, yielding the Government a revenue little short of eighteen lacs of rupees, when the East-India Company possessed a monopoly of the manufacture of that necessary of Hindoo life. The Cuttack salt, distinguished for its whiteness and purity, before it has passed into the hands of the merchant, is of the species called *pangah*, procured by boiling. The process observed by the *mohunghees*, or manufacturers, is rude and simple to the last degree. The sea-water, which is brought up by various

small channels to the neighbourhood of the manufacturing stations, or *khalaries*, is first mixed up and saturated with a quantity of the salt earth, or efflorescence which forms on the surface of the low ground all around, after it has been overflowed by the high tides, and which, being scraped off by the *molunghees*, is thrown into cylindrical receptacles of earth, having a vent underneath, and a false bottom made of twigs and straw. The strongly impregnated brine filtering through the grass, &c., is carried, by a channel dug underground, to a spot at hand, surrounded with an inclosure of mats, in the centre of which a number of oblong earthen pots, generally about two hundred, are cemented together by mud in the form of a dome, under which is a fire-place or oven. The brine is poured into this collection of pots or *choolas*, and boiled until a sufficient degree of evaporation has taken place, when the salt is taken out, as it forms, with iron ladles, and collected in heaps in the open air. The heaps are afterwards thatched with reeds, and remain in this state until sold or removed by the officers of the agency.

There is little trade carried on from Cuttack ; but in seasons of great scarcity, and on the occurrence of the furious gales and inundations to which the coast is peculiarly exposed, large importations of grain, rice, &c., take place.

The great temple of Juggernaut, at Pooree, presents, from the sea-view, an imposing appearance : it is, on a close inspection, neither remarkable for its architecture nor the materials of which it is composed, the latter being rough stone, overlaid with a coating of coarse *chunam*. The *Khek*, chief tower, and other minor buildings connected with it, are comprised within a wall surrounding a platform, raised high above the ground, and no less than 650 feet in length : the height of the tower is 200 feet. According to ancient Brahminical records preserved in the building, the Temple of Sri Jeo, or Juggernaut (some writers spell the word without the *h*), existed many centuries before Christ ; was destroyed and rebuilt sundry times, and was lastly restored A.D. 1198, by Rajah Bhim Deo, of Orissa, who is said to have expended nearly 500,000*l.* on the work ! Within its holy precincts many inferior deities are provided with lodgings and attendants ; but the most revered of the divine occupants are

Juggernaut (the Lord of the World), an *alias* of the many-named Vishnu, Buldeo (his brother), and their sister, the saffron-coloured Subhadra.

The average number of pilgrims who annually resort to Pooree is said to be 120,000 ; many of whom are destined never to return. Thousands of these poor wretches die from famine or over-fatigue during the journey. Many of these fanatics actually *crawl* from great distances to this, the Mecca of their hopes.

Immense numbers are also destroyed by the pernicious climate of the rainy season ; and their corpses, which are thrown on the sands, near the English station, are either burnt or left to be devoured by the troops of Pariah dogs, jackals, and vultures, with which this place, so rich in food for them, swarms. It is said, that in the space of half an acre of ground, as many as 150 bodies have been seen, with twice as many of the before-mentioned scavengers fighting over their horrid feast. The grand ceremony of the installation of the idol on his triumphal car (which is called Rath Jatra), takes place in June. The usual influx of pilgrims at this epoch is enormous ; but their numbers decrease yearly, and the sanctity of Juggernaut wanes in proportion to the progress of civilization in India. The mad fanaticism which formerly led hundreds of voluntary victims to immolate themselves beneath the wheels of the idol's car, is now much sobered down.

The temple is inclosed by a high stone wall, square, about 250 yards each way ; gates are in the middle of each face, which look to the cardinal points. The eastern, or lion-door, is the principal entrance, and is guarded by two stone animals, which the most depraved imagination has denominated lions. The gateways all rise in a pyramidal shape, with rude sculpture and the portraiture of hideous figures. On looking through the eastern gate, the entrance for pilgrims, the only thing to be seen is a broad flight of steps, which leads to the temple. A handsome black stone pillar, the shaft of one piece, and twenty-five feet long, stands immediately before the entrance. It is one of the most chaste and elegant pieces of art ever seen, and is said to be equal in design and proportion to any pillar of the Corinthian order.

The grand temple in which the idols are lodged is a

very high tower in the middle of the square, and, as before observed, from its great elevation, it forms a conspicuous landmark to sailors coming from different parts of the world. Its form is square for the distance of two-thirds, from whence it decreases by a slight curve to the top : thus it follows the usual configuration of Hindoo temples ; it is also fluted in this part. On the top of this is a large circular, flat black stone, cut like a melon. On the summit of this stone is the *chucker*, or wheel—the distinguishing symbol of Vishnu, and precisely resembling the wheel of a ship's rudder. The whole is surmounted by flags and pennons of the appropriate colours of the god in whose honour they are displayed.

The modes are various by which the devotees conceive they render their piety more striking and propitiatory.

The great ceremony is that of the *Rath Jatra* ; but a minor and prefatory ceremony is that of bathing the idols. Their godships are formed up in line, on an elevated terrace within the inclosure, and protected from the night dews by an extensive and gaudy canopy of many-coloured cloths. They consist of three frightful wooden faces, of the respective colours of black, brown, and yellow ; the lower portions of the figures being closely swathed in cloth wrappers.

The following day the idols are consigned to their respective niches in the temple. Upon this occasion it is the annual custom for Juggernaut to declare himself to be *en petite santé*, from the effects of a severe cold, consequent, probably, upon his bath, which continues to afflict him until the day of the grand ceremony, when, by the wise treatment of his physicians, he is restored to his usual good health !

To such a length as this is carried the blind superstition of this simple people ; and it is carefully nourished and fostered by the crafty Brahmins, who doubtless secure to themselves a large share of the offerings paid at the shrine of the idolized but helpless King Log. At the festival of the Rath Jatra, the idols are conducted in state to visit their country-seat, one mile and a half from Pooree ; a journey of three days. By all accounts, the manner of inducting their worships from the temple to their raths or cars is not remarkably ceremonious. Ropes being fastened round their throats, they are dragged “neck and heels” down the grand steps through the mud, and are finally hauled by the same gallows-like

process into their respective vehicles, where they are decorated by the priests, and welcomed by shouts of admiration and triumph from the fanatical multitude. The raths on which the monster-deities are drawn are of lofty and massive dimensions and clumsy architecture ; that of Sri Jeo is nearly forty-five feet in height, has a platform of thirty-five feet square, and moves upon sixteen wheels of solid timber.

The *Black Pagoda* is situate sixteen miles north of Pooree, near the village of Kanarac. It was built by Narsing Deo Langora, Rajah of Orissa, in A.D. 1241 ; but other writers attribute its erection to a much earlier date. In its ancient days of celebrity it was designated the Temple of the Sun, and was dedicated to his worship, under the title of Suriga, in consequence of that deity having cured the son of Vishnu of leprosy, with which he was infected as a punishment for having seen (accidentally) some young ladies of the palace (but whose palace the record saith not) during the operation of bathing. What remains of the building is the pagoda, or square building, the sides to the cardinal points ; the walls are fifty feet high, and of amazing thickness. From thence upward the roof is an exact pyramid, on the apex of which are the remains of some symbol of the god. The pyramidal part is divided into compartments, each overhanging the other, like the roof of a Chinese temple, flat and decreasing to the top. The part still most perfect is the inferior tower, and is called the Jug Mohun.

The sanctuary in which the idol was lodged is almost destroyed ; what does remain marks a freak in the operations of time, or whatever is the destroying power. The sanctuary was in the shape of a tall tower, exceeding in height the other part of the temple. From half-way down it had a slight curvature and terminated in a point. Only one quarter of this building is still erect ; the other three are prostrate in indistinguishable ruin ; it seems as if the tower had divided in half and then crosswise, cutting it into four pieces. When the three parts fell, it was difficult to account for the fourth retaining its perpendicular ; but the time is not far distant when it will soon follow the others, now at its feet. From the altitude of the Black Pagoda, and its contiguity to the sea, it is a conspicuous landmark for seamen.

The temple is chiefly formed of a stone easily affected by

time and the elements ; though about the doorways there is a remarkably hard greenish stone used. The eastern, or principal, entrance has had the greatest share of ornamental labour. There is an entablature over this gateway, sculptured in the most excellent manner, both in design and execution.

Foliage is springing up in its crevices, and will soon lay its glories in the dust. A complete shrubbery has grown upon the summit of the temple, which was once graced with the Leel Chucker, or blue wheel of Vishnu. An absurd notion prevailed among the Hindoos of the temple having a loadstone on its top, which, attracting the ships passing, drew them to destruction. Some desperate foreigners, having suffered a like catastrophe, stormed the pagoda and carried away the magnet. The sanctuary being thus defiled, the shrine was deserted by the Brahmins, and many of its ornaments removed to the temple of Juggernaut.

In the north-west of Cuttack lie certain districts inhabited by hill tribes, who were in a state of revolt against the authority of the British Government so far back as 1832-33, but who are now obedient subjects. The country is termed the Colehan—the people the Coles. A political commissioner resides in the territory, and a corps of local infantry is placed at his disposal. The upper boundary of this tract of country forms the south-west frontier of the possessions subordinate to the Supreme Government. Beyond this point, the country is directly under the Madras authorities.

There are few other places of any moment within 300 miles of Calcutta. Rungpore, Malda, Dinagapore, Purneah, and Kishnagur, are simply civil stations—the residences of collectors, judges, &c. There are many indigo factories in their immediate neighbourhood, and at Kishnaghur are manufactories of printed muslins, and clay figures representing the costumes of the people. These districts swarm with game, and afford the boar and tiger-hunter abundance of sport.

The indigo factory is quite peculiar to India. The excellent blue dye obtainable from the plant causes it to be very extensively cultivated in Bengal and Behar, and manu-

factured for the home market. The process is very simple—the soil most favourable to the culture is one that is rich and moist. After being well tilled and cleared of weeds, the seed, which resembles the gunpowder grain, is sown at the commencement of the rainy season ; in three or four days the plant appears above ground, in two months it is cut. The factory consists of a series of vats of brick-work and chunam ; into one of these the plant is thrown, and a sufficient quantity of water is let in to cover it ; in a few hours fermentation commences—after a short time the liquor is drawn off into another vat, where it is strongly agitated by means of wooden implements. This is done to separate the true dye from the salt of the plant ; the former is thus precipitated to the bottom of the vat, and the water being carried off, the indigo remains a short time to settle, after which it is taken out, and being drained in cloth bags, is dried gradually, in the shade, in shallow wooden boxes. While yet damp it is cut into small cakes of an inch square, and when in a fit state, is packed in barrels and boxes, and transmitted to Calcutta for shipment to England.

The life of the indigo planter is by no means free from anxieties. The crop is liable to a variety of contingencies before it reaches maturity. It may be washed away by premature falls of heavy rain, or inundations of the river near which it is sown. It is apt to become suddenly dry and wither away, or it may be destroyed by a peculiar species of caterpillar. Then, in the making, if the fermentation be not stopped at the precise time—or if the dye be not carefully separated from the salt of the plant, the article may be ruined. Finally, there are the risks attending the shipment to Calcutta, and the anxieties resulting from a fluctuating market in England. Large fortunes have been made by indigo manufacturers, and hundreds have been ruined. It is quite a lottery.

THE BURMESE COAST AND TENASSERIM PROVINCES.

THE results of the war with the Burmese in 1824–25 placed the coast on the upper eastern side of the Bay of Bengal entirely in our possession ; but it has not been deemed

necessary to occupy more than four stations with troops. Communication with these stations is generally effected by sea, as the land route is circuitous. The latter runs *via* Dacca, whence the traveller proceeds southerly and westerly, crossing the Megna, at Bhowanygunge, and reaching Chittagong after a journey of 144 miles and four furlongs. The road is excellent, supplies profuse, and only two nullahs intersect the way. A commissioner resides at Chittagong. The war of 1852-53 has given us possession of inland tracts as high up as Prome, and other parts of the country will, while we write, probably become British possessions.

The possession of the province of Arracan has been of the utmost importance to the British Government, in a commercial and political point of view. The exports of rice and salt to Bengal, the Coromandel Coast, and the Tenasserim provinces, give employment to seven or eight hundred small vessels annually ; while the position of the troops at Akyab and Khyouk Phoo enables us to watch and check the operations of the Burmese, when the caprice or bad faith of the sovereign of Ava threatens a descent, or other disturbance of existing relations.

The population of Arracan, which includes two millions and a half of souls, may be divided into three classes : the Mughs, or proper Arracanese, and Burmahs ; the Mussulmans and the hill tribes, the chief of which are the Koonrees ; the Tong Moos, the Keangs, and Karains. There are also a considerable number of recent settlers from Bengal, both Hindoos and Mussulmans, but chiefly the latter. The kings of the country before the Burmese invaded it, about the year 1783, were Mughs, but in 1784 the royal family were carried off to Ava, from which time the country remained subject to the Burmese, until 1825, when they were expelled by the British forces sent from Bengal.

In disposition the Mughs and Burmese are frank, manly, and straightforward ; they are also kind and hospitable, with much more of independence and good-nature than sycophancy or meanness in their bearing, and they are of an obliging and forgiving nature, but improvident and averse to labour, much given to gambling and drinking, and extremely passionate ; the Burmese are particularly so, and very sanguinary ; perhaps the greatest blemish in the character

of both races is the unmerciful manner in which, when excited, they beat their wives, not unfrequently endangering their lives; nevertheless, they are not without affection, and both sexes are very fond of their children. The women are reckoned faithful, and are allowed to go about without any restraint—they are as industrious as the men are idle. The whole labour of the house falls upon them: they go to market, fetch the food, the water, and every necessary; they beat out the rice, cook the meals, make cloth for the whole family, and even assist their husbands in the field and in looking after the cattle.

The marriage tie is, however, held in but slight respect amongst the Mughs, and divorces for trifling causes are common. The Burmese regularly court their wives, and after the consent of the parents has been obtained, a day is fixed for the wedding, and all the friends and relatives of the parties are invited to a feast at the house of the bride's father; after the dowry has been settled, they all sit down to the feast, the bride and bridegroom eat out of the same dish, which binds the contract, and they are declared to be man and wife; the son-in-law often remains a member of the family till his wife desires a house of her own and he can afford one. The Mughs go through the same ceremony, with this difference, that when young, the match is made for them by their parents, and they never see each other till the marriage day; but widowers or grown-up lads do not attend to this, but generally choose for themselves.

When a divorce is sought for by both parties, nothing more is requisite than that they should go before a village assembly, and make a declaration of their wishes. Their property is then equally divided, and they separate, probably to rejoin as soon as some little feeling of anger subsides. When the husband wishes to separate from his wife against her will, he must give up all the property, and take upon him all her debts, and leave the house with nothing on but his gombong and dhootie; but should a woman seek a divorce from her husband, she has only to tender to him, before a competent judicial authority, the sum of twenty-five rupees, which by law he is in ordinary cases bound to accept, or at the utmost she returns her husband the ornaments he may have given her, also repays the sum of money he gave

her parents on the wedding, which is usually all the cost to him of the marriage, and then the release is effected by the wife breaking a paun-leaf in two, eating one-half herself, and giving the other to her husband.

Should there be any children, they are in all cases divided according to their sexes, the boys being given to the father, the girls to the mother. They are considered far from a burthen in a country where food is abundant, and a livelihood so easily obtained.

The Mughs have no fixed method of disposing of their dead; the more orthodox plan is to burn; the poor, however, usually bury them. The coffins, which are used alike in burning and burying, of persons of any substance, are in the shape of a sarcophagus, and if the family can afford it they are often richly ornamented with tinsel and so forth: in this the corpse, dressed in a new suit of clothes, is laid face downwards, a piece of gold or silver coin, or a jewel, being put in the mouth, the great toes and the thumbs are tied together, and if a female, six pieces of wood are laid on the back, if a male, only three.

When a female dies pregnant, she is not burnt, but buried, the child being first cut out of the womb and interred alongside of the mother; lepers, temple-slaves, suicides, victims of cholera, criminals, and all those considered unclean, ought to be buried, not burnt. The chief priests and men in power are generally embalmed, and their bodies preserved for some years, after which they are burnt with great ceremony; quicksilver is the principal ingredient used in cleaning the intestines; music and dancing take place at the funerals of those who can afford to pay for it, and a feast is given to the neighbours seven days afterwards, at which, although Bhuddists are prohibited the use of liquor on any occasion, it often happens that a scene of much dissipation and riot takes place. The day after the funeral, the family repair to the spot where the body has been burnt or buried, and spread food for the deceased.

The children are usually named three or four months after their birth. The astrologers fix the name and the day, and the parents give a feast, at which there is music, dancing, and great revelry.

The people of Arracan, of whatever class or denomination,

all live in houses, built of posts and bamboo-mat walls, the flooring being raised four or five feet from the ground, and the roof made of bamboos and leaves.

Young men who are bachelors do not sleep in their fathers' houses, but each village has a separate building for the young men, where they sleep by themselves. They are fond of wrestling, dancing, and various games.

Although forbidden to take the life of any animal, the Mughhs and Burmahs pay as little attention to this commandment as to that against drinking. They are luxurious, but at the same time dirty in their eating, and there is scarcely any species of animal, from the elephant to the frog and snake, that the poorer classes will not eat, except dogs, cats, and rats, and even these the hill tribes eat readily, and it matters not whether the animal has died a natural death or been killed. Fish and the flesh of the superior animals, such as bullocks, deer, goats, &c., are much sought after; rice is the staple article of food with all classes, and the mess is rendered savoury by the addition of salt, ngapee, or bala-choung (which is a compound of decayed shrimps and other small fish), chillies, ginger, turmeric, and numerous kinds of vegetables. These are arranged around the large dish of rice, in small China cups, and give to the repast a rather refined appearance; milk, oil, or ghee, are rarely partaken of. The favourite drink of the Mughhs and Burmese is *tarree* or the juice of a species of the palm, which also furnishes the leaves used in thatching their houses. It is sweet, slightly intoxicating, but harmless; strong spirits are also distilled from rice; all classes chew the paun and betel-nut mixed up with khut, tobacco, and lime; and so universal is the habit of smoking tobacco, that even children of four years old may constantly be seen with a cigar in their mouths.

Both men and women are robust in form, but they are not a handsome race; they are, however, fond of finery. The men usually wear a head-dress, or gombong, composed of book muslin twisted round, but not over the head, and it is often gracefully entwined with their long hair, which they prize so much that it is not uncommon for them to wear false hair; a jacket which is tied at the throat and closed over the chest and reaches half-way down the thigh, and a

dhootie, often of brilliant-coloured silk, complete their costume. The women go with the head bare, but the hair is neatly braided off and tied in a knot behind; a red cloth is wrapped tightly round the bosom, from which descends a petticoat, which, in the case of Burmese, is generally very gaudily coloured, and open up one side, so that in walking, much of the leg and even thigh is often exposed. The petticoat of the Mugh women is usually less gaudy and more decent in its dimensions. They also wear a loose muslin jacket reaching to the middle, with tight sleeves and a gay cotton handkerchief thrown carelessly over the head or shoulder. The young girls are sometimes very pretty and always merry-looking.

The Mussulmans of Arracan are supposed to be the descendants of slaves imported from Bengal by the great people in early times, and one portion of them, called Kumauchees, chiefly resident in Ramree, were formerly the body-guard archers of the Rajahs of Arracan; these have no knowledge of the use of the bow, and have become dyers in indigo, merchants, &c.

The Koonrees, Taugmros, Kyengs, and Karains, are mountaineers living in a state of barbarism; they build their houses entirely of bamboos, and very high from the ground, and live in communities of from fifteen or twenty to forty or fifty families. They change the site of their village every second or third year as the soil on the hill sides in their neighbourhood becomes exhausted. They are frequently at war with each other, but such as have descended into the low country, and there occupy the isolated ranges of small hills, are very quiet and inoffensive people, though much addicted to drunkenness, for the gratification of which vice they distil a very potent liquor from rice. They are of a very roving disposition, and on the occurrence of any unusual sickness or misfortune, immediately remove the whole village to a new site. Their attachment to their native mountains is, however, very strong; and those who have been driven by the oppression of other tribes to seek a residence in the islands or the plains, even collect the ashes of their dead, and on the first opportunity, be it years afterwards, convey them back to their native country. Nothing will induce them to intermarry with any other people, or inhabit a Mugh

village. In language, and indeed in every respect, they are a distinct people : they wear scarcely any clothing beyond a rag round the loins, and another round the head, and in cold weather the rich have a cotton wrapper or chudder over the shoulders ; they have no religion, but worship nature, and perform various ceremonies to propitiate the Nats or demons ; they are not litigious, but very revengeful ; and although in some instances a compromise may be effected for any injury, yet in general the loss of life can only be satisfied by taking the life of the offender. The women appear to have formerly set a high value on chastity, for they still adhere to a singular custom of making their faces quite blue by tattooing them in a frightful manner, which is supposed to have originated in a desire to disfigure their beauty, for which they are said to have been so celebrated, that they were eagerly sought after, and seized, as slaves and concubines, by their more powerful neighbours, who greatly esteemed them. The custom is said to have much declined since the introduction of British rule, and may certainly be very safely abandoned, for the mountain population are extremely ugly and abominably dirty : they eat and drink everything that comes in their way, and are most perfect savages.

The established religion of Arracan, under the native sovereigns, was Bhuddism, and of Mughls and Burmese Bhuddists there are now about 206,000 in the province. They reject the immortality of the soul and the existence of a living God. They believe in the influence of superhuman powers, both of good and of evil, and expect after death repeated transmigrations, either for better or for worse, according to their conduct in this life, and ultimately entire absorption and cessation from all future troubles. They have no castes, and are free from bigotry ; still, were a Bhuddist to eat with some of the lower castes of Hindoos, such as Dooks, sweepers, washermen, barbers, bearers, and some particular classes of their own creed, lepers, temple-slaves, and unclean persons, he would be expelled from all society. All persons except the unclean are eligible to the priesthood. The priests, or phoongees, trust entirely to charity for their daily subsistence : they cook no food for themselves, lest in so doing they should take the life of any animal, but they will eat food dressed by others. They do not actually beg,

but they go forth daily into the streets and thoroughfares, which they traverse generally without stopping ; and if food or alms be given to them, as they expect it will be, it is put into a basket usually carried by one of their pupils, and they pass on, counting their beads, without returning thanks or inquiring what caste person gave it. They shave their heads and beards, wear no ornaments, and go barefooted. They are usually clean, remarkably civil, and well conducted, kind and hospitable to strangers, and are reputed to have more learning than any other class. They are, in fact, the gratuitous teachers of the land ; all the boys being placed under them for the purpose of being taught to read and write.

The Keoungs (Temples) are most substantially and often beautifully built, and as a mark of distinction they have two or three roofs raised one above the other. Any person may visit the interior ; they are generally well stocked with numerous images of Gautama of all sizes and materials, white and black marble, alabaster, wood, stone, elay, or copper, most of which are, either wholly or partially, gilt with gold or silver. Glass and metal vessels, with real and artificial flowers, and various other simple articles of ornament, are also seen arranged in front of the images : immediately over them there is usually a canopy of fine cloth ornamented with gold leaf and tinsel : and black wooden cases, the pannelling of which is inlaid with little squares of glass of all colours, surmounted by images of Gautama, and in which the priests keep their books and sacred records, occupy the back ground, and other parts of the hall. Hanging lamps, wall shades, crystal decanters, and such things, are also much sought after for the ornament of the Keoung.

In all the mountains and forests of Arracan, the elephant, tiger, leopard, tiger-cat, bear, deer of various kinds, and the wild hog, are to be found. The elephant is, however, scarce on the islands, and neither it nor the tiger is to be found on Cheedooba. The bos-gaurus, the wild buffalo, the sha, an animal something like the chamois, and a kind of wild dog or wolf, also a species of racoon, the wild cat, the balla soor, and a kind of civet, are found in the hills. There are no jackals, hares, or foxes, but asses and monkeys of numerous

kinds inhabit the jungles. Of birds, there are nearly all that are common to Bengal, with some beautiful kinds of pheasants, including the argus species. The snakes and other reptiles seem, also, to be much the same as in other parts of India, but are not particularly numerous or troublesome ; and of fish there is an abundance of all the kinds usually found in tropical seas and rivers—the shark, crocodile, alligator, saw-fish, turtle, sole, pomfret, mullet, rock-cod, skate, sword-fish, bumaloe, cockup, crabs, lobsters, shrimps, oysters, cockles, periwinkles, and various others, are in great perfection. The Mughs enumerate more than 200 kinds of fish.

The botanical productions of Arracan are but little known. The bamboo everywhere covers the hills and the lower ranges of mountains ; teak and a species of oak are also found amongst the hills, but both are rendered valueless, as are many other magnificent timbers, the names of which are unknown, from the distance at which they grow from good water-carriage ; the red and white jarrool, praing (a kind of iron wood), the toon, sissoc, telsur (which yields dammer), gurjun (from which oil is extracted), the semel or cotton (silk) tree, peepul, and all the common trees of India, abound ; likewise several kinds of palms, from one of which (the nippah) the liquor called tarree is extracted ; sugar, also, may be made from it, and the leaves are universally used as covering to the houses. The mangrove, which is valuable as fuel, especially for steam purposes, is most abundant, and long grass covers the waste plains. Iron is found on the island of Ramree, and so are coal and lime.

The Tenasserim provinces extend from about $17^{\circ} 30'$ to $19^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude, between the parallels $97^{\circ} 30'$ and $99^{\circ} 20'$ east longitude. Their length is about five hundred miles, varying in breadth from eighty to forty ; bounded on the north by the Thoungyeen river, on the south by the Pak-Chan, on the east by the Siamese mountains, and on the west by the sea. The superficial area is about 30,000 square miles, of which, probably, not more than one-tenth is under cultivation. The territory is divided into four provinces, viz., Amherst, Ye, Tavoy, and Mergui ; these again are divided into districts, under the superintendence of Goung-Gyaupa. The only towns are those known by the same

names as the provinces, and Moulmein, the chief civil and military station on the coast.

The appearance of the country is extremely bold and mountainous, numerous ranges of hills running through it, chiefly in a direction from north to south, except in the northern part of Amherst province, where successive ranges, rising one above the other, may be seen stretching from west to east. Extensive plains intervene usually between the rivers and the bases of the hills, and, from an elevated position, present the appearance of a dead flat, broken only by very remarkable isolated rocks of limestone formation, rising perpendicularly from the plains, in some instances to a great height. The soil in the plains is admirably adapted to paddy cultivation, to which it is almost exclusively applied; whilst the banks of the rivers and the islands above the influence of the tide, which are annually inundated, and thus receive periodical deposits of rich alluvium, present a soil suited to the growth of cotton, tobacco, indigo, and a variety of vegetables. The islands within the influence of the tides are chiefly occupied by cocoa-nut and areka trees; and the banks of the nullahs with nepah-trees.

Many of the woods in the teak-forests of Tenasserim are admirably adapted for ship and house building, but from their never having been employed, there is a prejudice against them. Of this description is the *thengan*, which might be had in any quantity, especially in the Tavoy province, and which is little, if at all, inferior to teak itself: there are also the *pema*, the *padouk*, and numerous others. The teak, however, is the only timber which attracts speculators, or is at all exported.

This timber is found only in Amherst province. The forests are chiefly situated on the banks of the Attaran, commencing about fifty miles from Moulmein, and extending perhaps 100 miles along both banks of the river: never having been surveyed, their actual extent is not known. By order of Government, these forests were thrown open to the public in 1829; since which, Europeans and natives have been vying with each other who should fell the largest quantity; every patch of forest has long since been occupied, and many of the smaller patches have been exhausted. The

only qualification required to obtain a permit to cut, has been the expression of the wish to do so, and the subscribing to a few regulations restricting the felling of trees to such as were four feet and a half in circumference, and to such as were duly seasoned ; and engaging to pay a duty of fifteen per cent. to government on the arrival of the timber at Moulmein.

The trees are usually felled by barking them all round in the months of February and March, when the sap is down. After standing in this state from one and a half to two years, they are felled and floated down during the rains ; without being thus seasoned, the timber will not float.

There are also some forests on the northern frontier river ; but there were obstacles just below the junction of that river with the Salween, which until lately deterred wood-cutters from engaging in them.

SECTION VII.

THE PRESIDENCY OF MADRAS.

This presidency, the most important in the early part of British Indian history, from the brilliant campaigns of which it was the theatre, now ranks low in the scale, for the very satisfactory reason, that the country which forms its limits is in a settled state, abundantly fertile, and making a pleasant progress towards civilization. The view of Madras, which is a place of great resort, owing to its position as the port of arrival for all those persons who are nominated to the civil and military service of the government, and to its commercial importance, is very striking. Immediately above the ridge of sand on which the surf breaks into a sparkling sheet of foam, the Custom-house, public offices, and other buildings stretch in a direct line along the beach ; and appear from the distance a street of palaces, their colonnades, verandahs, and the corniced edges of the terraced roofs all shining with the polished white chunam. Trees of different kinds raise themselves irregularly behind these buildings ; and with some scattered columns, spires, and minarets, relieve by their contrast the

glaring uniformity of the white stucco. To the right of this street lies the Black-town, partially concealed by some plantations : to the left, the esplanade, neatly planted and railed into roads, rises with a gentle ascent towards the Fort—"Fort St. George"—which presents the formidable appearance of a regular fortification, with its ramparts bristling with cannon, and overtopped by the Exchange and other lofty colonnaded structures which rise within it. The wall, with its ditch and palisades, runs some distance along the shore, and is surrounded by a ridge of sand, which separates it from the gardens of the Nabob of Arcot. The bright dome of his palace, with its minarets displaying the once triumphant crescent, appears conspicuous amidst the rich foliage of his domain, which bounds the prospect in that direction. The great eyesore in such a view, is the almost parallel succession of colours ; for instance, the green sea, white surf, red sand, the pure plaister, and deep blue sky rise one above another like hard lines in a picture. Their harshness, however, is softened by that liquid and glittering motion of the atmosphere which mellows the general character of a scene, as varnish would do that of a painting. A heavy swell rolls on to the shore, and this, as rendering the navigation of boats a matter of some difficulty and hazard, lends to the scene the only excitement of which it is susceptible. Large boats, called *mussoolahs*, and diminutive rafts, formed of two logs of wood and termed *catamarrans*, are the only objects that float upon the billows and dare the hazard of a landing. The latter, paddled by two men, stripped to the skin, usually come off to vessels arriving in the roads. The boatmen bear *chits* (or notes) in their little conical caps, and are thus the emissaries from the hospitable residents, whose doors are open to the introduced stranger. We land in the broad mussoolah boat, ingeniously rowed by a gaily-attired native crew, whose song, like that of the gondolier, keeps time to the splash of oars. As the shore is approached, they watch the action of the waves, and seizing the happy moment when a lofty billow rolls towards the stern, they pull a vigorous stroke, and the boat is borne on the bosom of the surf to the appointed landing-place, whence it is dragged high and dry before another wave can swamp or even wet the passengers.

The beach at Madras is studded with houses of business.

They are lofty and well ventilated. The hotels, to which the touters, who go off to the ships or line the shore, invite the stranger, are wretched places, affording but little accommodation, and abounding with dirt, bad viands, and worse wines. If, therefore, the newly arrived visitor is destitute of personal friends, or those credentials which ordinarily ensure an invitation to a private dwelling, he will do well to present himself at the Madras Club, and seek his election as a member. This club is an admirable institution. Without insisting upon an aristocratic exclusiveness, it is nevertheless strictly an asylum for gentlemen. It is well and liberally conducted, and the charges come within the means of most persons in the upper circle of society. If the stranger is not likely to be a permanent resident at Madras, a good word from his fellow-passengers to influential members on shore will procure him reception as a honorary member. Living at the club costs about a guinea (ten rupees) *per diem*, or something more. The accounts of honorary members are settled weekly.

FORT ST. GEORGE, Madras, is a regular fortification composed of three full-and two demi-bastions, the latter works resting on the line wall which runs en cremaillère along the beach; the curtains are covered by cavaliers and lunettes. The ditch is wet, except between the curtain and ravelin of the north face, which are connected by a strong caponnière, and the former covered by a tenaille. In this part a cunette is cut. The counterscarp is faced with a revetment and defended by a palisaded covert way, and a glacis which is mined. On the north side where Lally attacked, the bastion and demi-bastion are detached and the works near the sea covered by a tenailon. Heavy guns and mortars are mounted all round, and on the line wall they are placed en barbette as close as they can be worked; a second range from casemates defends this wall, which has more to fear from the ocean than the enemy; as the surf, which was once half a mile from it, in bad weather breaks against it, notwithstanding a vast pile of stones which has been thrown between them at the expense of eight shillings a pebble. There are provisions for years, and numerous reservoirs of water, together with an admirably supplied arsenal within the fort, so that its capture by anything but an European army is

impossible. Inside, the old Government house, on the site of the original factory, still surrounded by a wall at whose angles are diminutive bartizans or vantage coignes, forms one side of a square, which is completed by the main guard-room, public offices, and barracks; the pillars project half way from the walls, and thus preserve a sort of uniformity. A few trees in the square afford some relief to the eye from the great glare of white. All the pathways are broad and flagged, and in the centre of the place is a circular pedestal on which is sculptured the surrender of Tippoo's children. The barracks (all of the same structure) branch off from the square in streets, one of which leads to a pretty church, in which numerous slabs record the decease of the great and good men who have fallen victims to the climate. A second conducts to the arsenal, the gate of which is flanked by two of Tippoo's brass tiger guns, the muzzle representing the open mouth of that animal. Others lead to the St. George and Wallajah gates, which open to the country, and are each guarded by a subaltern's party.

In the Fort is an arsenal and several of the government offices. The Black Town, as its title imports, contains the residences of the natives, and the shops of Europeans and natives. The choice place of residence for the more respectable orders of Europeans, is the Mount Road, a magnificent road, six miles in length, bordered by trees and villas. This and the South Beach are the fashionable places of resort during the evening drive. At St. Thomas's Mount, at the end of the Mount Road, the artillery are quartered, and near this place is the race-course, where two race meetings are annually held.

We have been so precise in our descriptions of the governments of India, the Courts of Law, the usages of English society, and the manners and characters of the natives of India, that the task of describing the features of the second presidency is essentially narrowed. There is nothing to add to what has been elsewhere said of the army, the civil service, the clergy, &c. It only remains to mention the chief institutions and establishments.

The Government-house claims precedence rather from the importance of its purpose than from its magnificence. It is comparatively a poor building, not better than those

occupied by many private gentlemen ; but it contains some good suites of rooms ; and a banqueting-room, some eighty yards or so from the building, is the scene of many a brilliant ball. The College Hall consists of a library, a hall, where concerts and public meetings are held, a museum, &c., but the rooms are all in a dilapidated condition. There are barracks, hospitals, and a handsome church, within the fort, which is called Fort St. George, and a monument to the Marquis Cornwallis. On the Mount Road is another cenotaph to the memory of that nobleman, and between the Fort and the Government-house, a beautiful equestrian statue of Sir Thomas Munro, for several years the enlightened governor of Madras. These, with the Madras Medical College, where 120 students are instructed in the healing art, an ice-house and a light-house, constitute all the public edifices of any note.

CHURCHES, &c.—St. George's Church, Mount Road ; St. Mary's Church, in the Fort ; the Vepery Church ; the Black Town District Church ; the Church Mission Chapel ; the Trinity Chapel ; St. Andrew's Church (Scotch) ; the Armenian Church of St. Mary ; the Church of St. Thomé (Roman Catholic) ; the London Missionary Society's Chapels ; the Wesleyan Missionary Chapels ; the Unitarian Chapels.

RELIGIOUS SOCIETIES.—The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge ; the Incorporated Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts ; the Church Missionary Society ; the Wesleyan Missionary Society ; the London Missionary Society ; the Indian Missionary Society ; the Armenian Board of Missions ; the Armenian Baptist Missions ; the British and Foreign Bible Society ; the Madras Religious Tract Society ; the Hindoo Christian's Religious Book Society.

The titles of most of the above bespeak their uses. By some of them native schools are maintained, and there is no concealing the fact that the course of preparation therein pursued is more calculated to produce Christian converts than the most zealous efforts of missionaries bestowed upon the adult, "wedded fast to some dear falsehood."

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS, SCHOOLS, &c.—The Military Male Orphan Asylum ; the Military Female Orphan Asylum ; the Vepery Mission Institutions ; the Protestant Charity

School ; the Vepery Free School ; the Church Endowment and Building Society ; the General Assembly's School ; the Armenian Orphans' Fund ; the Armenian School ; the Infants' Schools ; the London Missionary Society's Free Schools ; the Native Education Society ; the Garrison Girls' Day School ; Bishop Corrie's Grammar School ; the Union Free School ; the Roman Catholic Seminaries ; the Ladies' Institution for the Education of the Daughters of Europeans and their descendants ; the Madras School-Book Society ; the Madras Philanthropic Association ; the Moneygar Choultry ; the Madras Friend in Need Society ; the Madras Temperance Society ; Temperance Societies ; a Young Men's Literary Society ; and a Polytechnic Institution.

We conceive it to be impossible for any Englishman to behold the above array of admirable institutions without strong emotions of pride and pleasure. They furnish magnificent evidence of the noble purposes to which various classes of our countrymen appropriate a portion of their wealth in India, and give the lie to the insinuation that they resort to the country to pluck the golden fruit from its trees, and leave it bare and miserable. The orphan, the native female, the outcast, the illiterate, the destitute, all are cared for, provided with asylums, clothed, fed, and taught. Were we to be driven out of India to-morrow, we should have left behind us, in the results of instruction and in the moral example set to successors, more enduring monuments of worthy rule than the finest productions of the sculptor's chisel or the architect's ingenuity.

Of other societies existing at Madras for useful purposes, we have only to mention the Literary, and the Agricultural and Horticultural Societies ; and of commercial institutions there are but the Madras Bank, chartered two years ago, the Savings' Bank, and the Chamber of Commerce. The Electric Telegraph has been introduced, and will probably be extended to the most remote stations.

The European and Eurasian population of Madras is considerable. Independently of those who are in the Government service, there are about 400, whose avocations are various. There are of commercial houses, thirteen ; of architects and sculptors, one ; of auctioneers and commission salesmen, eight ; of cabinet-makers, nine ; of chemists and

druggists, four ; of jewellers, six ; of wine merchants, five ; of watch and clock makers, six ; of tailors, six ; of tanners and boot-makers, seven ; of undertakers, four ; besides a number of milliners, musical instrument repairers, five coach-makers, three saddlers, numerous missionaries, merchants' clerks, booksellers, gentlemen of the press, &c.

There are several masonic lodges at Madras, to which the most distinguished men at the presidency belong.

The cost of living at Madras, the manner in which police and municipal affairs are conducted, &c., correspond materially with the charges and usages at the other presidencies. If there be any difference it is in the superior economy of a Madras domestic establishment. Servants being less bound by the rules of caste, a smaller number suffices.

The climate of Madras is less sultry than that of Bengal, being tempered by the sea-breeze which sets in at two o'clock in the afternoon ; the nights are lovely, and there is so little moisture that people may sleep in the open air with perfect safety.

The territory under the Madras government comprehends the greater part, if not the whole of the Indian peninsula.

The most southerly collectorate is Tinnevely (401 miles from Madras). It comprehends the space between $7^{\circ} 40'$, and 10° north latitude, and 77° and 78° east longitude, and is bounded on the east by the sea, and on the west by the ghauts, which skirt the coast of Malabar. The face of the country is a little undulated, but the general appearance is an extensive plain, interspersed with small hills. The inner part of the collectorate is covered with cotton and rice fields, but towards the sea-shore the land becomes sandy, and abounds in cocoa-nut groves. Between Tinnevely and Travancore is a chain of fortifications or lines which were at one time considered very formidable. The principal places in the Tinnevely district, are the populous town of Tinnevely, the capital, and Palamcottah, a military station of some importance. Palamcottah is a large fort, nearly quadrilateral, each side about 1,000 feet in length, with circular towers at the corners, but the whole thing is in a ruinous condition. Considerable manufactures are

carried on in the pettah of Palamcottah. Tuticorin is the largest village in the district. It is on the sea-coast, and derives its importance from the pearl fisheries. There are several good roads in the Tinnevelly district.

East and north of Tinnevelly lies Madura (292 miles from Madras), a district of considerable extent, famous for its handsome and richly endowed temples, and including in its boundaries the highly venerated objects of pilgrimage in the island temple of Ramisseram. Madura, may, in fact, be termed the metropolis of Hindooism in Southern India. In the north-western part of the province is a range of hills called the Kurragherry or Pylsey hills, the enclosed base of which range constitutes the valley of Dindigul. The hills are thickly wooded, and abound with elephants, tigers, leopards, deer of the largest kind, bisons, bears, jungle hog, &c. The forests are replete with botanical riches, thus at once supplying temptations to the sportsman and the scientific explorer. Madura and Dindigul are the principal towns in the collectorate. The former is celebrated for its manufactures of the quality of cloths most esteemed by the natives, and likewise for its table-cloths, towels, napkins, and similar articles required by Europeans. A great many schools have likewise been established here by the missionaries. The roads from Madura to Dindigul, and to Ramnad, are decidedly good. The population of this collectorate has been estimated in round numbers at fourteen millions.

Proceeding in a north-easterly direction we enter the province of Tanjore (206 miles from Madras), a flat, alluvial delta, formed and completely irrigated by the several branches of the Cauvery and Coleroon. The delta of Tanjore is the granary of the Madras territories. Rice cultivations extend over nearly the whole of the district. The streams branching from the Cauvery and Coleroon rivers are navigated by basket boats, which bring considerable quantities of iron, saltpetre, dry grain, oil, ghee, wax, tamarinds, &c., from the Coimbatore, Salem, and Trichinopoly districts during the freshes; but as they cannot return against the stream, the bamboo-basket work is sold as firewood, and the boatman returns on foot, taking the leathern covering with him. Several handsome and useful

bridges span the rivers in Tanjore, one of which, 320 feet in length, with five arches, was constructed by the Rajah Sevajee in 1835. On the coast of Tanjore are Negapatam and Tranquebar, each of which has filled a place in the history of the early European settlements in India. Tranquebar was, until within a very few years, a Danish settlement. Combaconum and Managoody are Hindoo towns of some extent, containing several lofty pagodas, and a large population of Hindoos. Crossing the Coleroon from Tanjore, we find ourselves in the collectorate of Trichinopoly, which occupies so distinguished a place in the history of the early British struggles in Southern India. The town of Trichinopoly (207 miles from Madras) is well fortified. It is built upon the south side of the river Cauvery, the bifurcations of which, with the Coleroon, form the island of Seringham, on which stands a magnificent pagoda, composed of seven square enclosures 350 feet distant from each other ; each enclosure having four large gates, with high towers placed, one in the centre of each side, opposite to the four cardinal points. The outer wall of this temple is not less than four miles in circumference. Near the eastern side of Seringham, is an annicut, or dyke, formed to prevent the waters of the Cauvery from descending into the Coleroon. The collectorate of Trichinopoly contains a population of nearly 700,000, and of these, 80,000 occupy the town and its environs. The people are remarkable for their manufacturing skill. Their cloths, cigars, and jewellery are greatly esteemed ; and especially their delicate silver filagree work and chains. The raw produce of the district consists chiefly of indigo, saltpetre, and cotton. The fortress of Trichinopoly is memorable for the siege in 1751-55, when Chanda Sahib, with his French auxiliaries, vainly for a length of time endeavoured to wrest it from Mahommed Ali, and would have succeeded, had not Clive dexterously diverted his attention from Trichinopoly to Arcot, of which place he had gallantly obtained possession. In a durgah, or mosque outside the town, lie the bones of Chanda Sahib. And within the fortress is a road 300 feet high, on which is built a pagoda.

Trichinopoly is a considerable military station. Its position at the confluence of rivers and at the point of

diverging roads, peculiarly suits it for rapid communication with other parts of the territories subject to the Madras presidency.

North of Tanjore and Trichinopoly lies South Arcot, in which are comprehended the towns of Cuddalore and Pondicherry. Here also on the coast is Porto Novo, celebrated for its iron mines and foundries. Much intersected by roads, rivers, and watercourses, communication across this district is singularly facile. Cuddalore (or Goodalore), the chief town (104 miles from Madras), is extensive and populous, and was at one time the seat of the government of the English possessions on the Coromandel coast. Here stood Fort St. David, the scene of more than one contest during the competition of the French and English in India for pre-eminence. At Challumbrum and Trincomallee are large and lofty Hindoo pagodas, and Trivictory is worth a visit to, behold the petrified trees with which it abounds. There are some remarkable mountains in the district, three of which at Gingee are fortified with walls cut out of the solid rock. The province is exceedingly fertile. Great quantities of rice and fruits are grown here, the latter attaining the highest degree of flavour. Pondicherry continues a French settlement. It has its governor, its judges, officers of state, engineers, and government surveyor. The society is lively, intelligent—thoroughly French.

There is a beautiful lake about four miles from the town, and a bungalow upon a hill; in its vicinity is a favourite place of resort with pic-nic parties. At one time, Pondicherry was the handsomest European settlement in India, but the loss of French political influence in the country has led to its neglect by the parent state, and everywhere the eye encounters ruins of respectable edifices. Pondicherry is ninety miles from Madras.

Northern Arcot is situated between the 12° and 14° of north longitude, and 78° and 80° east longitude. At the north-eastern extremity is the famous Pulicat lake, about thirty-three miles in length, and eleven in breadth. It apparently owes its existence to the sea's breaking through a low sandy beach, and overflowing the lands within. In the Pulicat hills, which lie to the westward of the lake, is Tripetty, a magnificent temple of stone, covered with plates

of gilt copper. It stands in a valley in the centre of the range of hills. Dedicated to Vishnu, or Ballajee, whose image, here worshipped with those of Lakshmi and the serpent, it is resorted to by Hindoo pilgrims from all parts of India, who hold it in such intense veneration, that when they behold the hills at the distance of many leagues, they prostrate themselves and call upon the idol's name. No Christian or Mussulman dare profane the temple by his tread. Even access to the hills is closed against him.

Arcot and Vellore are the principal towns in this collectorate; the former is seventy, and the latter eighty-seven miles from Madras. Arcot was the capital of the Carnatic, when that large tract of country was under Mahomedan rule. It is memorable as the scene of Clive's noble defence after he had captured the place. Vellore is to be remembered as the scene of a serious mutiny in which the sepoy's sacrificed many of their European officers.—For an account of which, see the *Military Encyclopædia*.

Due east of the Arcots is CHINGLEPUT, or the Jaghire, washed by the waters of the Bay of Bengal. It is 120 miles in length, north to south, but rarely exceeds forty-five miles in breadth. The district is low, interspersed with hills, and is far from being productive. The river Palar flows through the district, which is otherwise dotted with lakes—of which the principal are Ennore, Sadras, and Pulicat, spoken of above. The chief places on the coast are Chingleput, the ancient capital, Sadras, and Madras. Of the latter town and its vicinity, a full account has already been given.

Following our north-easterly course along the Coromandel coast, we step from North Arcot into the district of Nellore, the principal town of which collectorate and of the same name, is 100 miles from Madras. This is a considerable district, with a population of nearly 1,000,000 souls. Fertile and picturesque, Nellore likewise enjoys a high reputation for its manufactures and its breed of cattle. There is a considerable trade in salt and salt-fish, and indigo is grown to some extent. Copper mines exist in Nellore, and have for fifty years yielded a very good specimen of metal. The south-western part of Nellore is covered with mountains, the Addugherry, on which the copper mines are found.

A road from Nellore, running along the coast, leads into

the Guntoor district, which is bounded on the south by the bay of Nizampatam, and on the north by the river Kistnah, crossing which, we enter the district of MASULIPATAM, one of the Northern Circars. The town of Masulipatam, the scene of the earliest settlement of the English on the Coromandel coast, is distant from Madras 285 miles. A small commerce with the bay of Bengal and the Persian gulf is carried on from this port, the chief articles being piece-goods and snuff. This is the only port from Cape Comorin in the south, on which the sea does not beat with a strong surf. A large lake called the Colair lies in this district.

Projecting to the eastward and the northward of Masulipatam, is RAJAHMUNDRY, a district 100 miles in length, north and south, by 80 miles east to west. The river Godavery runs through the southern part of the district. Here also is a magnificent tank, 170 years old, formed by a large bund thrown across a pass by the hills ; it is not less than two miles and a half in length and one mile in breadth. At Samalcottah, a town on the coast, 350 miles from Madras, there are excellent manufactures of table-cloths, napkins, and drills ; and at Coringa, a sea-port, 343 miles from Madras, ship and boat building are carried on.

VIZAGAPATAM, stretching from 82° to 84° east longitude, and $17^{\circ} 30'$ to 19° north latitude, is approached from Nellore along the coast. This is one of the Northern Circars, the boundaries of which are, on the north, Orissa ; on the east, the sea ; on the south, the Northern Carnatic ; and on the west, the Ceded districts, Hyderabad, Gondwara, and a part of Orissa. Vizagapatam is a well-watered district, although no rivers of magnitude run through it ; the small streams and lakes are numerous. Agriculture therefore flourishes. The population exceeds 1,000,000 souls, but it is liable to fluctuations from occasional famines and epidemic disorders. The chief town is Vizagapatam, distant 498 miles from Madras. Vizeanagrum is another station to the north of the chief town. Three miles from Vizagapatam, is Wattair, a military station, the head-quarters of the divisional command.

The climate of this district is favourable to the European constitution. The north-west monsoon sets in at the beginning of June and is over by the end of August ; the north-east

monsoon sets in at the commencement of September and lasts till the end of November ; then the dew falls in December, and the weather becomes cold. It is in the hot season that the climate is most agreeable.

Crossing the limits of Vizagapatam, we are in the district of Ganjam, one of the five into which the Northern Circars are subdivided. Ganjam is 120 miles in length, north to south, and 80 miles in breadth. It embraces a population of upwards of half a million, a large proportion of whom are engaged in manufactures. The principal towns are, Ganjam, the capital, on the sea-coast, 697 miles from Madras ; Berhampore, famous for its silks ; Chicacole, renowned for its muslins. Wheat, sugar-cane, rice, oil-seeds, gram, and a variety of edible greens, are produced on the low level lands of the district. Sugar is manufactured and is in great request. North of Ganjam is the Chilka lake of thirty-five miles in length, which separates the Northern Circars from the province of Cuttack and the Bengal presidency generally. The lake is not more than eight miles in breadth, and is dotted with small islands, several of which are inhabited.

Returning to the south, and proceeding westerly from Trincomalee, we find ourselves in Travancore, a native state of considerable extent. In form, Travancore is long and narrow, shut in from the mainland by a long range of mountains terminating at Cape Comorin. It is one of the richest and most fertile countries in India. Its surface is beautifully varied with hill and dale ; and winding streams, flowing down the mountains, preserve the valleys in a constant state of verdure. The mountains are covered with lofty forests—filled with teak and other valuable trees, and abounding with elephants, buffaloes, tigers, &c. The principal towns are Cochin, 500 miles from Madras ; Quilon, a military station, 450 miles from Madras ; Aleppée, a sea-port ; and Trichoor. The inhabitants of this province are chiefly Nairs, Man-boozees or Brahmins, Syrians (Christians of the Syrian church), Romanists, Mopillas, and Jews.

North of Travancore, extending to 12° 30' latitude, and running along the western coast of India, lies Malabar, a rich province, famous for the trade carried on at the several ports of Calicut, whence the word *calico*, Tellicherry, Penang, and Cannanore, the latter a military station. The vegetable

productions of Malabar are innumerable—cocoa-nut, areca-nut, coffee, cinnamon, pepper, &c., grow in vast abundance at no great distance from the coast. There are not many towns of importance in the interior ; the country is chiefly divided into estates or farms situated in valleys, families living distinct from each other, in gardens enclosed with high banks and ditches. The population of Malabar amounts to one million and a quarter, and it is still on the increase. It may be divided into Brahmins, Namburies and Putters, Sudras, Mahomedans, Mopillas, Teirs, Chumars, and Pariahs. The chief rajahs of Malabar are descendants of the Edia caste ; the mode of succession amongst them is from the sister's sons ; the women do not marry, but form connections according to their own choice and pleasure, for a longer or shorter duration, for the most part with Malabar Brahmins—thus are propagated the heirs of all the Malabar principalities. The customs amongst the Nairs are much of the same nature ; the women indulge, with more or less freedom, with various men of their own or other higher castes. The Namburies, so called from the word Nambootery, literally meaning faithless, which appellation they obtained from forsaking their own country to reside in Malabar—rank above the Putter. The eldest member of a family is alone permitted to marry ; all the younger brothers form connections with women of the Nair caste, who consider it a great honour to receive the embraces of men of this caste. From the unhappy customs of the Namburies not permitting the junior male members of the family to marry, many of the unfortunate women are led to form illicit connexions with men of their own and other castes, which, on discovery, ensures their ejection, when they are taken by any of the lower castes, who receive them as concubines. The Teirs in their customs and habits resemble the lower castes in the Carnatic. The Mopillas (literally meaning Amma pellie, Mother's son) are the descendants of some Arabs that were stranded on the coast some centuries back, who formed connection with women of the lower castes of the country, from whom the present race have sprung up ; they are a fine, athletic, enterprising race, and are daring gang-robbers and smugglers. The Chumars of Malabar have never been considered lawful objects of sale, like Chumars in the full extent of that term, unless

they happen to be made over as a part of the stock at the time their master shall have disposed of the land on which they live. The inhabitants believe they were created by Pareshwa Rama for the use of the Brahmins : by some it is supposed they are the descendants of the aborigines who were conquered by the Cola kings and fled to the woods, but afterwards, preferring slavery to starving freedom, gave themselves up as slaves to till the soil. There is, however, another caste in this district far below the Chumars, viz., the Niadies; these poor creatures live in the woods and jungles, and are the most distressing objects of want and misery that can possibly be conceived; they live upon wild roots and what they may be able to obtain in charity from travellers, after whom they howl and cry, running at a short distance, till relieved; they are held in such utter detestation by all castes, that they are not allowed to approach the dwellings of their fellow mortals. If they happen to get any money from a passenger they deposit it on a stone at some hundred yards from a bazaar, then retire and cry out in a loud voice to the bazaarman, who brings what they require, takes the money, and deposits the articles wanted, which they carry away, leaving it to the honesty of the man to give what quantity he thinks fit, for the money received.

Notwithstanding their abject and degraded condition, they have more morality, and possess more good feeling amongst themselves, than other castes—they marry; infidelity is quite unknown; and they are strangers to theft and falsehood; the Nairs have great faith in their superhuman knowledge; they are consulted when a member of the family is sick; are said to be accurate in their predictions as to the life or death of the sufferer, predicting the very day he is to die; this superstitious belief of the Nairs induces those that have consulted them to contribute towards their support by annual donations on their birth-days, &c. The Niadies are supposed to be the descendants of an outcast Brahmin family, sentenced by one of the rajahs for some sin committed in the Devassom: the names of the present race are the same as those borne by Brahmins.

The Pariahs of Malabar are not much above the Niadies, and though free, are far below the Chumars, and are held in utter abhorrence and scorn by the Shoodras, whom they

cannot approach nearer than seventy-two paces : whilst the distance required to be kept by the Churmar is only twenty-four paces, that of the Niadies, ninety-six paces ; these customs only exist in regard to the Shoodras and Teirs ; the low castes may approach the Mopillas and enter their houses.

RELIGION AND SECTS.—The inhabitants may be divided into pagans, 844,186, and Mahometans, 282,027. In the large towns there are about 300 Protestants and 14,403 Roman Catholics. Malabar contains four Protestant churches, viz., one on the Neilgherry hills, one at Cannanore, one at Tellicherry, and the other at Cochin. Four Roman Catholic churches are also to be found at these places, and fourteen at other smaller stations ; there are also many richly endowed heathen temples.

Malabar will recall to the reader of history, the early visits of the Portuguese to the rulers upon the coast. In the extensive Roman Catholic population, amounting to at least 15,000 souls, and in the size and number of the churches, we have undoubted evidence of the firm hold which the disciples of the *propaganda fides* established upon the minds of the people ; two centuries have not sufficed to efface the traces of the industry of the Jesuits, and the zeal of the Roman Catholic missionaries.

The province of CANARA is to the north of Malabar. It is divided into south and north Canara, and possesses all the characteristics of the contiguous province. Commerce on the coast,—Canara being the outlet for the produce of the Mysore country—and sport on the mountains, form the main occupations of the people. There is, however, much poverty among them, because the institution of caste operates as a bar to the change of a profession or calling from that which has been proved to be unprofitable to that which may be advantageous. Numerous rivers flow through the province, and the principal town is MANGALORE (440 miles from Madras), a flourishing place, standing on a small peninsula, formed by a lake or backwater, separated from the sea by a beach of sand.

The northern extremity of Canara abuts upon the Portuguese possession of Goa, and of course forms the limits of the Madras government on the Malabar coast.

There remain but few provinces to note in the interior. North and west of Trichinopoly and South Arcot, flanked on the east by Coimbatore, is SALEM, remarkable for its cotton manufactures, and the fine quality of its general produce. The district is elevated, generally open, with occasional ridges and clusters of hills, mountains rising on the western boundary. The Shevary, hills in the vicinity of the town of Salem (210 miles from Madras), are much resorted to by Europeans for the advantage of change of air. The highest hill, Mootoo Naad, stands about 5,000 feet above the level of the sea. It has a table-land seven miles by three, on which coffee of a good quality is produced, together with wheat, barley, and millet. Iron ore is likewise found in abundance at Salem.

West of Salem is the elevated province of COIMBATORE, separated from the former by the river Cauvery. It is a flat open country, for the most part yielding large stores of dry grass and tobacco. The jungly part of the province affords a field for the sportsman, for the larger species of wild animals abound. The climate of Coimbatore in the lowest parts (its minimum height from the sea is 900 feet), is cooler than that of the coast, because for every 200 feet of elevation, we get one degree of reduced temperature. The thermometer in the month of December falls to 62°, and rarely rises to 80°. Iron and steel, and saltpetre, are among the productions of Coimbatore, and silk is manufactured to some extent. West of the central part of the province rise the Neilgherry Hills, which have for some years been a favourite resort with invalid Europeans.

On the north-western boundary of Coimbatore, is MYSORE, erst the kingdom of Hyder Ali and his son Tippoo Sahib. It is divided into three great districts for the purposes of revenue management. These are CHITTLEDROOG, NUGGUR or Badnore, and SERINGAPATAM. Every variety of appearance distinguishes this fertile province. Hills and level land, everywhere intersected by rivers and rivulets, the forests abounding with valuable trees, and the plains teeming with grain and fruits, render it a most inestimable possession. The total population exceeds 3,000,000, the greater portion of whom are Hindoos, notwithstanding that for a quarter of a

century the country bowed to the Mahommedan yoke. Upon a lofty part of the province is the British military station of Bangalore.

BANGALORE has always been distinguished throughout the Madras presidency for its festivities. It possesses very handsome assembly-rooms, and a theatre, in which the amateur performances are often above par.

The fancy balls are upon a grand scale ; and when the society happens to be composed of choice spirits, amusements of this nature go off with great *éclat*. The superior size and loftiness of reception-rooms in India render them much better adapted for large assemblages than those belonging to the same class of society in England ; and even in the most sultry seasons, less inconvenience is sustained from the heat, the nights being always comparatively cool, and a free circulation of air secured by the multitude of open doors. During the cold season, the European residents of Bangalore amuse themselves with pic-nic parties, as there are numerous objects of curiosity in the vicinity to attract the visitant. There is nothing throughout Hindostan to equal the remains of Southern India ; the pagodas of Benares, and even those of Bunderabund and Muttra, are mean in comparison to the splendid temples which are spread along the plains of Mysore and the Carnatic. Those in the neighbourhood of Bangalore do not yield in magnificence to the most celebrated pagodas of the peninsula, and they are the favourite resort of all who possess any taste for architectural beauty ; while, to the less intellectual portion of the community, the music, dancing, the banquet, and perhaps above all, the feats of jugglers, offer high gratification.

Though not equalling in aspect the luxuriant, though deleterious beauty of the adjacent territories, it is prettily situated in a moderately-wooded and well-watered country : there are barracks for two Royal regiments, one of cavalry and one of infantry ; and, in addition, the garrison consists of three native infantry and one cavalry regiment, with a proportionate number of battalions of artillery, the requisite staff, &c.

The Madras jugglers are famous all over the world ; and though the exhibition of similar acts of dexterity is often more extraordinary than pleasing, the display of leger-

demain in India would almost induce the belief that the age of necromancy had not passed away. The bodies of the Madras jugglers are so lithe and supple, as to resemble those of serpents, rather than men. Swallowing the sword is a common operation even by those who are not considered to be the most expert ; and they have various other exploits with naked weapons of a most frightful nature. A more agreeable display of the lightness and activity which would enable the performers to tread over flowers without bending them, is shown upon a piece of thin linen cloth stretched out slightly in the hands of four persons, which is traversed without ruffling it, or forcing it from the grasp of the holders. The lifting of heavy weights with the eyelids is another very disgusting exhibition. Some of the optical deceptions are exceedingly curious, and inquirers are to this day puzzled to guess how plants and flowers can be instantaneously produced from seeds.

The Madras jugglers travel to all parts of India ; but it is not often that the most celebrated are to be found at a distance from the theatre of their education. Snake-charmers are common everywhere ; they belong to a peculiar cast of Hindoos, and though their reputation is upon the wane, they still excite considerable curiosity in Southern India.

The *cobra capella* is the dancing-snake of the East, and the production of the snake-stone is exclusively confined to this species. There is not, it is said, much difficulty in extracting the poison of a serpent, which is contained in a very small reservoir, running along the palate of the mouth, and passing out at each fang. The natives are supposed to be very dexterous in forcing their captives to eject this venom, and are then enabled to handle them without the least danger. Some persons, however, well acquainted with the habits of snake-charmers, deny that they extract the poison, and attribute the impunity with which they handle these dangerous reptiles to their accurate knowledge of the temper and disposition of the animal, and their ready method of soothing down irritation. The natives boast the possession of various antidotes to the bite of a snake, and often pretend to have imbibed the venom and effected a cure. There is a plant which goes by the name of *choudraca*, in which considerable confidence is placed ; and arsenic,

which enters very largely into the composition of the celebrated Tanjore pill, is often employed as a counteracting power. Volatile alkalies are most generally tried by European practitioners, and very often prove successful ; but the different degrees of strength in the venom of snakes render it doubtful whether, in the worst cases, they would have any beneficial effect. Some medical men aver, that the bite of a *cobra capella* in full vigour, and in possession of all its poisonous qualities, is as surely fatal as a pistol-ball ; and that it is only when this poison is weakened by expenditure that medicine can be of any avail.

Situated on a small island in the river Cauvery is the famous fortified town of Seringapatam. The island is four miles in length, and one and a half in breadth, and is far from being a healthy place. In the neighbourhood of the town, amidst some choultries and musjeeds, is the mausoleum of Hyder Ali and his son Tippoo. The garden, house, and pavilions of Tippoo are open to Europeans, and are frequently occupied by officers whose duty or curiosity leads them to the island.

West of Mysore lies the principality of Coorg. This district is upon the summit, though occupying but a small portion of the range of mountains which formed the ancient boundary of Kerala. For the most part, the country is forest land of singular fertility, 5,000 feet above the level of the sea. To the westward of the ghauts the woods decrease in density, and cultivation becomes more apparent. There are no rivers or tanks in Coorg, but mountain streams supply abundance of water for purposes of irrigation and domestic consumption. The climate of Coorg is cool and agreeable in the vicinity of MADDAKERRY, the principal town, and in the open parts of the land to the northward. Elsewhere, the advantage of a high temperature is neutralized by the humidity arising from so considerable an accumulation of vegetation, and fever consequently is common. The arts and manufactures are in a very low state in Coorg, and the agriculture of the country still admits of considerable improvement.

BELLARY is a district covering the north-eastern extremity of Mysore. The river Kistnah separates this, the principal of the Ceded districts, from Hyderabad. It stands (at a distance of 316 miles from Madras) on the table land of

some ghauts which rise precipitously from the plains like a wall of mountains. Bellary is a military station as well as a collectorate, and is liked for the excellence of the climate. The country is fertile, and teems with an industrious Hindoo population. Captain Newbold has contributed the following observations on the soil :—

“The rock on which the fort of Bellary stands, as well as the adjacent rocks, are of granite, in some places intersected by green stone dykes. Granitoidal gneiss, sometimes imbedding garnets, constitute the prevailing rock on the plain from which, at the distance of five or six miles west from the cantonment, rises a range of hills composed chiefly of a chloritic slate, crested with angular masses of a rock composed of a jaspery clay, highly impregnated with iron and a chert-like quartz in alternate laminæ. The highest of the range is known by the name of the copper mountain, from its containing that metal. The ore, which is the green carbonate of copper, is found in the slate clay at the base of the crest of the southern epaulment of the hill. Excavations are still to be seen, said to be the remains of mines excavated here by order of Hyder Ali, but which were given up in consequence of the expense exceeding the produce. The soil in the vicinity of Bellary is, generally, Regar or the black cotton ground, based on a calcareous deposit of Kanker, except in the neighbourhood of granitic elevation or protruding beds of gneiss and large pegmatitic veins of quartz and felspar, where it is formed by the *débris* of these rocks, which decompose into a light red soil, termed Mussub, by the natives. The Regar produces two kinds of crops, known to the natives by the terms Mungari and Kingari. The Mussub is capable of producing the former only. This soil is sometimes extensively deposited in low situations by the force of streams or torrents of rain, when it becomes a *terrein de transports* or alluvial soil. The garden soil of Bellary generally consists of Regar and Mussub soil, mixed with manure of decayed animals and vegetable matter.”

CUDDAPAH, a collectorate east of Bellary, is likewise occupied by a portion of the Madras army. The town (166 miles from Madras) stands on the banks of the Cuddapah river, which rises in the hills to its south-east. Cuddapah was for many years the capital of an independent Pathan state,

which long survived the destruction of the Deccanee dynasties. It is a quiet place, of small commercial importance, but sugar and molasses (*jaggaree*) are made in the adjacent country. North of Cuddapah is Kurnool, a strongly fortified place in the Balaghaut province. Until 1839, it was the residence of a petty Pathan chief who, revolting, gave a great deal of trouble to the British government.

North of Bellary, in the centre of a valley surrounded by hills of moderate height, diversified by the bold, rugged aspect of some, and the picturesque and romantic appearance of others, stands HYDERABAD, the Mahomedan capital of the Deccan, and of the states belonging to the Nizam. The view of the city, from the hill through which the road from the military cantonment of Secunderabad leads to the British residency, is commanding and extensive. Due south, and immediately in front, is seen the city, expanded over a considerable space, and gradually losing itself in the perspective distance. From this hill appears a rich variety of mosques, palaces, houses, and other edifices, interspersed with trees, which give to the whole the character of a city built in the midst of an immense garden. The most prominent objects which engage the attention are *Char Minar*, or four minarets; the *Musjid Juma*, or great mosque; and the *Burra Dari*, or palace, with twelve gates, of a former prime minister of the Nizam. To the west, at the distance of about eight miles, stands the strong fortress of Golconda, on a rock of some eminence, in the adjacent plain of which are six or seven noble mausolea, built in the Saracenic order of architecture, the sepulchres of the Kutb Shahi dynasty of the kings of Golconda. Descending the hill and proceeding towards the city, the view becomes gradually less extensive until the traveller arrives at the suburbs, a great part of which is called, *par eminence*, "the Residency," as containing the establishment of the Company's Resident at the court of his Highness the Nizam. Between this part of the suburbs and the city runs a small stream, which, in the rainy season, however, swells to a river of considerable width and rapidity of course. Here is seen the massive stone wall which surrounds Hyderabad, supposed to have been built by Kooli Kootb Shah, the fourth monarch of that dynasty. This wall, in some places, owing to the unevenness of ground, reaches the height

of forty feet ; but its average altitude on the outside is about twenty feet, and its thickness ten feet. The height of the side within the city is much less. There is a rampart sufficiently broad for four persons to walk abreast, and a parapet, about five feet high, through which loop-holes are pierced for musketry. This, if properly defended, must have been a strong protection to the city from the attacks of a native army. The stream just mentioned is called *Músi*, by the natives, and winds its course about half round the city. From the rampart is a fine view of this river and the surrounding country, particularly on that part of the wall to the right of the *Dehli* gate on entering the city, when an interesting and picturesque sight presents itself, of elephants, with their variegated howdahs, rich caparisons, and gorgeously painted trunks ; native, Persian, Pathan, Turkoman, Affghan, and Arab horsemen, together with camels and their riders, palankeens, and foot-passengers continually passing to and from the city, and crossing the ford, as there is no bridge over this part of the river.

Within the city of Hyderabad are some extensive edifices and gardens, laid out in a tasteful and elegant manner. Of these, the most remarkable are the *burra dari*, a word applied to the palaces and mansions of the newábs and rajahs, as they were originally erected with twelve gates to them. They consist of a range of buildings of stone and wood, generally detached from each other and separated by quadrangular areas, some of which are flower-gardens ; in some are reservoirs of water, containing rare fishes, and in others a variety of playing fountains and jets-d'eau. At one end of others, again, are artificial cascades, constructed in such a manner as to be capable of having their falling waters either accelerated or retarded according to pleasure. Most of the edifices are two or three stories high, and have verandahs round the compartments of the ground-floor, with slight pillars, painted green and occasionally gilt.

The administration of the civil affairs of Hyderabad rests exclusively with the Nizam himself, and it is, therefore, needless to say that it is characterized by all the vices which distinguished native rule in the olden time. His Highness has, however, recognised the importance of some European institutions, and among them we may record with pleasure

the successful establishment of a Medical School. The Hyderabad Medical School was instituted, not for the purpose of training young East Indians for the subordinate Medical branch of the public service, but with the view of thoroughly educating a body of native private practitioners, who should extend the blessings of European medicine and surgery to their sick and maimed fellow-countrymen in the neighbouring city of Hyderabad, and thus supplant some of the many ignorant *hakeems* who impose and prey upon the dense population of that locality. How far the institution has answered the end proposed, let the following brief narrative testify.

A short time ago, at the requisition of the Resident and with the sanction of the Governor-General, a Committee of three Medical Officers, including the Superintending Surgeon of the Hyderabad Subsidiary Force as a President, was appointed to examine several students of the school, with a view to their being furnished with diplomas, authorising them to practise medicine, surgery, and midwifery. The standard of examination adopted was that of the London and Edinburgh Royal Colleges of Surgeons, and five days were occupied in testing the acquirements and qualifications of the eighteen candidates, who presented themselves before the Committee. Of the number, ten passed a highly creditable examination in anatomy, physiology, *Materia Medica*, surgery, practice of medicine, and midwifery; three in all these subjects except surgery, which they had not yet studied; and one, a Persian, acquitted himself with much distinction in the only three of the above-named branches that had engaged his time and attention:—the remaining four were rejected. An interesting and gratifying *finale* to this ordeal was the meeting, at the school, in July, 1853, of the Resident, Colonel Low, and his assistants, with several military and medical officers from Secunderabad and Bolarum, and numerous native friends of the pupils, to see the Nizam's Minister, Salar Jung, present the successful candidates with their diplomas. After the official report of the Examining Board had been read aloud, both in English and Hindoostanee, and a subsequent short but satisfactory examination of the students by three of the medical officers present, Dr. Maclean, the superintendent and sole instructor of the

school, read the *Sponsio Academica*, which each candidate signed, and then received from the minister's hands his diploma, bearing the seal of the Nizam's government.

As additional evidence of success attained by the institution, and an earnest of still greater, we may mention that some of its alumni have already established a high reputation as medical practitioners in Hyderabad—one in particular, Mahomed Ushruff, the most proficient among them, has distinguished himself by the skilful performance of several capital operations in surgery, and derives a handsome income from his practice. They will all hereafter be further encouraged in their professional labours by the smile of official approbation, for the minister, Salar Jung, highly gratified by their great attainments, has pledged himself to employ them in the public service.

Some British troops, forming a portion of the Madras army, and called the Hyderabad subsidiary force, garrison Secunderabad ; but the Nizam is also sustained by a contingent, officered from the British army. This service is composed of five regiments of cavalry, four companies of artillery, one company of sappers and miners, or engineers, as they are sometimes called, eight regiments of infantry, one garrison, and one invalid battalion.

The horse, or, as it is termed, the reformed horse, are a fine body of men (Moors, of course, in the greatest ratio), four corps of which are similar in most respects of duties, discipline, and interior economy, to the Bengal local horse corps. The remaining, or fifth, regiment is disciplined and conducted on the plan of *regular* native cavalry corps.

The arms and accoutrements of the cavalry are similar, in most respects, to the Bengal and Bombay local corps. They consist of sword, spear, and pistols ; black leathern belts and jack-boots ; dress uniform, in the native fashion, of dark green ;* a red turban generally ; but on these points the general orders are not very strict, as amongst some of the men, and in one or two of the regiments, *variety is considered*

* The rissaldar gets 500 rupees per month pay. The horses are chiefly Deccan and Arab, valued at the rate of from 300 to 450 and 500 rupees per horse. The rissaldars are generally rich, and having considerable landed property, and other sources of wealth, are incited by the glory of arms to service.

pleasing. The *regular* regiment of horse is accounted similarly to troopers of native cavalry. The Silladari and Bargheer system prevails in all the regiments. There are eight troops, and about sixty men per troop, giving a complement of 480 per corps, besides non-commissioned officers, native jemadars, the great man in each corps—the rissaldar—and European captain-commandant, adjutant, and now and then a captain and subaltern officer attached.*

The artillery consists of several companies, distributed over the country. Their strength and equipment differ according to the quantum of ordnance belonging to each. It is understood, however, that the zeal and *shoukh* (fancy) of the commandants have much to do with these departments. Every company has, nevertheless, four six-pounders and a brace of eighteens, to which are occasionally added a mortar and one or two howitzers; and when this is the case, the ordinary strength of each company is enlarged. The usual complement of a company is about sixty-five or seventy men. Two conductors and a quarter-master's serjeant assist the artillery captain-commandant, besides the soobadar and jemadar of the company. The clothing, accoutrements, and discipline are exactly similar to those adopted in the Company's service, and plenty of powder and a few rounds of ammunition balled, are allowed for practice.

The small company of sappers and miners is a most useful and efficient body, stationary at Bolarum, under a commandant and an adjutant. The companies of artillery are also stationary, and never relieve each other.

Come we next to the infantry, which are all regular, and assimilate closely in respect to duties, dress, &c., to the Madras native infantry. Each regiment has its captain-commandant, and the usual complement of officers, four in number, including the adjutant, who is allowed to hold charge of companies in turn, and according to seniority. There is likewise a serjeant-major and quarter-master-serjeant attached to

* The uniform of the four *first* corps is green, and white facings with gold lace. The style of embroidery on the officers' jackets corresponds with that of the Madras horse artillery. The *fifth* regiment, which, as has been said, is a *regular* cavalry corps, is clothed like the Hon. Company's regular cavalry, their jackets, however, being green, and their facings yellow. The officers and men wear helmets.

each regiment, upon the same footing as in the Madras native infantry corps; the former being generally considered an assistant to the adjutant in his office and not at parade duties; the latter attending chiefly to the internal economy of the regimental magazine or store-room. There is also a surgeon to each corps, assisted by dressers. Like the system in the Madras army, the chief aid to the adjutant in parade duties is afforded by a "native adjutant," selected from the jemadars. The corps are efficient and well disciplined, recruited from all quarters, but chiefly from the south. There are, however, many Hindoostan men in the ranks, and these are much prized, especially if of a good height for a grenadier. The general run of the corps in height is much the same as through the Madras army, and of comparatively small stature after looking at Bengal corps. The regiments relieve each other occasionally, and remain three years, or sometimes a shorter period, at a station. The dress of the infantry is according to the Madras regiments, and differs little from the other presidency soldiery. Coats are issued once in two years.

Musters are taken once in two months, by the major of brigade at each division head-quarters, and the intervening months have a regimental muster on the first of each. The system on this point is quite different from that of the Bengal presidency, and would appear to be of minor importance as a military duty.

Each division station has a capital mess-house and store-room attached to it, for the use of the officers. Supplies are chiefly procured from Bombay.

Misdemeanours are tried in the regimental house by Punchayet, and the other branches by courts-martial—division, line, and regimental. Furloughs (annual) are granted to the troops; and a pension establishment for soldiers wounded in the service, and meritorious servants after twenty years' service, is provided. Queen's and Company's officers are entitled to draw the "pay proper" of their grade in their own service, independent of Nizam's allowances. Officers must pass an examination in Hindoostanee before they are eligible for an adjutancy or interpretership. The allowance, however, for the latter is no great incentive to work a little harder for the latter examination, which is somewhat stricter

than that required for the former. But, thrown so much more, as is an officer in the Nizam's contingent, amongst the natives, we suspect there are very few who, as far as this qualification is considered, are not fully competent for either situation. Pure Hindostanee is, however, not generally spoken in the Hyderabad service, from the great mixture of men from both coasts and other southern districts, and the consequent jumble of Tellinghoo, Tamul, Canarese, Mahratta, and Guzrattee, with the pure northern dialect, or Oordoo. The Hindostanee of southern India is often a strange jargon, a compound of many tongues, well worthy of Babel. All patronage in the Nizam's service is in the hands of the Governor-General.

The regular portion of the service—i. e. engineers, artillery, and infantry—are directed to be guided by the regulations, standing orders, &c., for the Madras army. The pay and allowances are higher than those in the Company's service, but they are not issued with the same regularity.

The purely Oriental character of the state kept up at Hyderabad, and the hospitality of the British officers, will amply repay the traveller for a few days' stay at the cantonment.

THE NEILGHERRY HILLS.

Madras, like the other Presidencies, has its sanatoria. The chief of these are the Neilgherries.

The Neilgherries, situated in the south of India, on the confines of Coimbatore and Malabar, extend from $11^{\circ} 10'$ to $11^{\circ} 32'$ north latitude, and from $76^{\circ} 59'$ to $77^{\circ} 31'$ east longitude. Their greatest oblique extent from south-west to north-east is from thirty-eight to forty miles, and their extreme breadth fifteen. Their superficial area may be computed equal to 700 square miles. Four stations are at present occupied, viz., Ootacamund, Kotagherry, Dimhatty, and Coonoor.

OOTACAMUND is the principal station, and is situated nearly in the centre of the table-land of Mysore, about ten miles from the southern edge of the range, and seven from the northern, immediately at the base, and on the western side

of Dodabetta, and is open only towards the west-north-west, the other three sides being completely sheltered by this mountain. Its elevation is 7,400 feet above the level of the sea, and it is the best locality amongst the other stations.

It has decidedly the most perfectly European climate of any in these hills, and is less affected by the changes of monsoons, rains, &c., than any other, which arises from its forming the line of separation between the north-east Madras monsoon and the south-west Malabar monsoon.

KOTAGHERRY is situated sixteen miles distant from Ootacamund, on the eastern division, and is inferior in elevation, being 6,571 feet above the level of the sea. The climate is much milder, and the extreme and daily range less. The minimum is 43° , and the maximum 76° , a range of 5° less than the extreme of Ootacamund. The air is moister and the nights less cold. In June, July, and August, the weather is clear, bright, and fair at this station, whilst at Ootacamund there is pretty constant fog, drizzle, or rain during this time. This difference arises from the former place being less subject to the influence of the south-west monsoon. It is also reckoned a more eligible residence during the monsoons for delicate people, whereas Ootacamund is decidedly preferred for those in tolerably confirmed health.

Less rain falls at this place, and it is generally dry here when it rains at Ootacamund, from being affected by a different monsoon.

DIMHUTTY is situated on a plateau between Kotagherry and the Orange Valley, the latter of which rises at the north-east angle of Dodabetta, and is so named from the number of wild orange and lime trees found in it. The elevation of Dimhutty above the sea is 4,500 feet, and its temperature is much higher than that of the two former stations.

COONOR, which is ten miles distant from Ootacamund and the head-quarters of the pioneer corps, is situated south of the range, close to the edge of the hills, and rises 5,806 feet above the sea. Its mean temperature is probably 6° warmer than that of Ootacamund; and from its proximity to the ghaut it is subject, at particular seasons, to fogs; on

the other hand, it has the advantage of being on the direct road to Ootacamund, and is well adapted for sick travellers.

Over the whole extent of the table-land, and on the summit of the hills, the soil is exceedingly rich and of considerable depth, caused by swamps of various extent ; but situation, exposure, command of water, and other less obvious circumstances, confine the cultivation to the extremity of the hills and to the south and east of the range.

The different natural products are coarse barley, keereemow, poppies, garlic, and onions. The following have been introduced by European visitants ; viz., wheat, oats, potatoes, cabbage, cauliflower, savoys, French beans, spinage, peas, lettuces, beet-root, radishes, celery, turnips, carrots, &c., &c., sea-kale, asparagus, tomatas, plums, peaches, nectarines, apples, citrons, loquats. Oranges and limes grow wild. Brazil cherry, commonly known as the topara, gooseberry, capers, strawberry, raspberry, blackberries are likewise grown. The *Orchis mascula*, from the root of which the salpi misree is obtained, is in abundance, and several other plants, resembling the genus *Orchis Lucerne*. Tobacco is also found.

From the elevated position of the hills, the curative and restorative powers of the climate on Indian diseases must be apparent to all. An important consideration, also, connected with them, is the preventive powers of their climate, which has not yet met with the attention it deserves. A transfer at once to the climate of the hills of those suffering from various diseases and ailments is highly recommended. The following complaints, for instance, find a remedy—fever, dyspepsia, debility in every degree, constipation, cutaneous affections, pulmonary complaints, diarrhoea, dysentery, hepatic diseases, rheumatism, gout, and all the complaints to which females are peculiarly liable.

The bazaar at Ootacamund is exceedingly well supplied, and the prices are a little higher than those of the low country. There are excellent shops, containing everything in the way of liquors, and Europe supplies cheese, pickles, preserves, &c., &c., which are good, and at reasonable prices. Salt provisions of very good quality, cured on the hills, are to be had in considerable quantities in the bazaar. Cattle and swine might be procured to any extent in the low

country round the hills, and fruits and vegetables of every description have advantageously been cultivated.

In Kotagherry there is a deficiency of supplies, owing to the want of a regular bazaar, a market being held only once a week. There are not many houses, besides the quarters at Dimhutti, at the disposal of the public, whilst at Ootacamund there are upwards of 100 habitable houses. At Coonoor there is a public bungalow.

Good men-servants of every description (except, perhaps, head-servants and dressing-boys) are available at Ootacamund. Female-servants are seldom found, and should be brought up. Beds, chairs, tables, carpets, may be easily had on the hills. Crockery may be arranged for with the Parsee shopkeepers. The essential requisites to be taken are plate, bed and table linen, and warm clothing.

The following distances show the convenience of these mountains from the principal points on the south side of India, and the dawk expenses incident to a visit to them :—

			Miles.	Expenses.
From Madras <i>via</i> Trichinopoly	..	..	393	200 Rs.
Ditto ditto <i>via</i> Salem	..	..	332	150
Ditto ditto <i>via</i> Bangalore	..	..	385	150-70
From Trichinopoly	..	..	153	60
Ditto Bangalore	..	..	176	80
Ditto Calicut	..	..	156	60
Ditto Tellichery (Cananore)	..	..	130	50

In marching or travelling by stages, the expense is, of course, much less.

Warm clothing is of vital importance to invalids on the hills, and even in the low country a light flannel banian (jacket or shirt) is of service; every invalid, as he values life, should be provided with a good stock of flannel banians, flannel cummerbunds (belts, made so as to have strings to be firmly tied round the middle and double over), drawers, and worsted stockings, and a stock of stout shoes and boots. Avoid exposure to the night air, and never be out after sunset. Early rising is neither necessary nor prudent; the invalid should wait till the sun has attained sufficient height to drive away the cold and moisture of the night; care should be taken to return home before nine A.M., so as to avoid the powerful effects of the sun. Diet must, of

course, be regulated by circumstances. In general, however, adhere to light animal food, with bread or biscuit, and vegetables, pastry, cheese, &c. Port or sherry is preferable to the lighter wines; beer unnecessary. Invalids should diminish their usual quantity of these stimulants until acclimatized, and observe early hours for diet. Exercise should be taken so as to produce a gentle action on the skin and not fatigue, but avoid exposure to the sun. Riding is to be preferred to walking, because it is less exciting. When acclimatized, exercise should be gradually increased, and when fairly recovered, as much daylight in the open air as strength will permit should be passed. Those who have suffered from fever should be cautious to avoid the jungle at the foot of the hills, and if unfortunately detained there, a course of purgatives, followed by small doses of quinine, should be pursued. Cold feet (a general complaint with new comers, especially females) are remedied by adopting lambs'-wool or worsted stockings, which should form the stock of people in good or indifferent health.

Routes and Approaches.—There are three points of readiest access to the Neilgherry hills, viz. : Madras on the east coast; Calicut, Cannanore, and Tellichery on the west: but the Calicut or Cannanore route is recommended to travellers from the Bengal Presidency arriving at Madras, of course, in the first instance.

Trichinopoly Route.—Regular bearers are to be had to Cuddalore from the Madras police, thence to Trichinopoly from the post-office there; from this to Matapollium, where they are posted by the collector of Coimbatore, and from Matapollium to Ootacamund, they are to be had from the commissariat-officer on the hills. This is the most eligible though the longest road; it passes through many stations, having medical and other assistance at hand; is free from jungle or other obstructions, and may be travelled at all seasons, without risk or delay.

The Salem Route.—The route *via* Salem is the shortest, but it passes through an uninteresting and unhealthy country. There are bungalows only at certain stations. It joins the former road at Avanashy.

The third road passes through Vellore, Bangalore, and Mysore, and then ascends by the Goodaloor pass to Nedi-

wuttum and Ootacamund. Bearers are to be had as far as Arcot from the Madras police, and thence to Ootacamund from the principal offices.

Bangalore Route.—This road would be the most agreeable, but on account of the jungle between Goondlapet and Goondaloor, which, however, may be avoided by descending the Tapoor pass from Bangalore, and joining the Salem road. But this route is only had recourse to by travellers from Bangalore, which is the fourth and new military road.

Calicut Route.—From Calicut the road descends southward to Ponany, and thence striking inland, passes through a beautiful country to Paulghatcherry, seventy-eight miles. From this to Coimbatore, thirty miles, it lies partly through a jungle, not unhealthy or dangerous in any way; from Coimbatore to Matapollium, twenty-seven miles, and thence the Coonoor ghat leads to Ootacamund.

Another road from Calicut is by ascending the Beypoor river to Nellumboor, thence through a deep jungly valley (between the Neilgherries and the Tonbacherry hills) to the Karkoor pass, and finally to Ootacamund. This route is highly objectionable, from the extent and unhealthy nature of the above jungle.

Cannanore, or Tellicherry Route.—This road is recommended to such travellers from Calcutta as have no dislike to a sea-voyage, or expect to derive benefit from it. From either of these places the road strikes directly inland, and ascending the Peria pass, to Manantoddy, and passing through a wild and picturesque, though not unhealthy country, reaches Goodaloor, and thence finally enters Ootacamund.

SECTION VIII.

BOMBAY.

Although secondary to Madras in respect to the extent of territory subordinate to the local government, and consequently inferior in the magnitude of its public establishments, army, revenue, &c., Bombay has become, since the

establishment of a regular communication with England *via* the Red Sea, a more important presidency than its neighbour.

Externally, Bombay is particularly attractive. As the bay is entered, the passenger beholds on either side mountains rising apparently at no great distance marking the western boundaries of the vast continent of India. To the left, and within half a mile of the ordinary anchorage, is the island of Bombay, fronted by a fortress bristling with guns, and forming the enclosure to the town. The steeples of two churches, a Protestant cathedral and a Scotch church, are the only architectural objects that rise above the mass of buildings, but sufficient is seen of the private houses running landward to indicate the wealth and populousness of the place. Large and commodious boats resembling the famous Deal boats, and here called *bunder* (or pier) boats, quickly come off for the conveyance of passengers ashore, and if the new arrival has been expected, and his or her reception arranged, it does not unfrequently occur that a head servant, or purvoo, is the bearer of a note containing a special invitation to the house of some respectable resident. As yet, Bombay has made but little progress towards the establishment of good hotels or boarding-houses. The hospitality for which British India was at one time proverbial, therefore continues in full force on this picturesque island. It does, however, happen that a party arrives at the presidency without the introductions that will ensure him a reception within a private domicile, or, having them, he may find the spare rooms of his friend pre-occupied, or the host himself absent from town. Under such circumstances, he has only the choice of an hotel, or of a tent upon the esplanade. Between the south-westernmost point of the fort and the sea-shore, a corner of the esplanade, or plain, which stretches across the entire land-face of the fortifications, is appropriated to an encampment for the accommodation of strangers, or residents who prefer the sea-breezes and a canvas habitation to the stifling heat of the close and dusty town. A word to one of the dubashes, a superior sort of *valet de place* and cicerone, who presents himself on board most newly-arrived vessels, will ensure to the passenger, within twenty-four hours, a comfortably-furnished tent and a small retinue of servants, at an expense not greater than will be incurred at the hotel, and

with the advantage of perfect seclusion and independence. The cadet or the Queen's officer, however, whether introduced or not, is relieved of these cares for his personal comfort, as the superintending officer who has charge of the former provides immediate quarters for the newly arrived, and the latter invariably receives an invitation from the regiment quartered in the town, or Fort George Barracks, to accept the hospitalities of the mess, and is put into appropriate apartments by the barrack-master. Once landed, the stranger commences *life in India*, of which we have spoken elsewhere. The only difference in the style and order of life at the several presidencies, consists in the number and character of their respective places of public amusement.

There is a theatre but no concert-room in Bombay ; and at the former the representations, chiefly by amateurs, are rare. Still, much time might be agreeably passed, if music, as an accomplishment, were more cultivated—for it would increase sociability, and win many from less graceful pastimes ; but, unfortunately, all the machinery of the fine arts is procured with difficulty, and it is therefore only among persons of extraordinary energy that their practice is continued. Bombay, indeed, possesses shops, and they deserve notice as a portion of its physiognomy ; but the high charges and paucity of supplies, confined also to what is most commonly on demand, render them ill calculated to give a stimulus to the arts. The greater portion of the shops are kept by Parsees, who deal in every article required by a European, selling the commodities at something less than an advance of 100 per cent. on the London prime cost.

A very excellent chemist's shop is established in the fort, which disseminates the blessing of soda-water over the whole presidency. But the most important want is that of a boot and shoe maker, notwithstanding that there are well-meaning but very incapable persons, natives of the Celestial empire, who wander from house to house, with white coats, red slippers, straw-hats, flat features, and long plaited hair, holding in their hands little bundles, containing silk and satin shoes intended to fit everybody, and consequently fitting nobody. These worthy Crispins receive orders, and with bad leather, coarse linen, and paste in abundance, essay their execution,

the result being, that the public pay for their want of skill, in the penalty of uneasy or distorted feet.

Two or three Portuguese have libraries in the fort—dark, dismal places, containing a few standard and elementary works that no one ever reads, and which certainly cannot rank with either cheap or entertaining literature ; but then, for reference, there is the splendid library of the Town Hall ; and for purchase, the book agency established by Smith, Elder, & Co., and the scattered volumes of a Borah's basket, purchased at the sale of an officer's effects, or perhaps bartered by a new arrival for a packet of Windsor soap, or a new bridle for his tattoo. The Borah, like the reader of a circulating library, values books according to the lateness of their date of publication ; he learns the title-pages by rote, and sets a store upon illustrations, quite indifferent whether they are of John Gilpin or the Book of Beauty.

In olden times, before steamers brought out crowds of ladies attired in Parisian fashions, and before it was considered necessary to send to England for regular supplies of tasteful attire, the Borahs, who purchased vast quantities of goods strangely thrown together in the lots of a hurried auction, were looked to for all that was required, from a paper of pins to a ball-dress. But things have changed, and Borahs are daily becoming of less repute ; their taste is questioned, their fashions laughed at, and their self-importance shaken.

One Borah was accustomed almost daily to make his appearance in a bullock-garee (cart), well covered-in, and containing three or four parcels of rich merchandise. In one was displayed a rich pile of Cashmere shawls and Delhi scarfs ; in another, fine muslins and pretty China silks ; in a third, chintzes, calicoes, crapes, and woollens. Very probably you care not for any of these things : the fat Borah wipes his brow and beckons to a cooley, whispering a word in his ear ; the man disappears, but soon returns ; in his hand is a small mahogany box, which he hands to his master ; the Borah seeks a key, it opens, and a blaze of jewels, some of great value, glitters before the eyes of the sorely-tempted ; rubies, emeralds, sapphires, and diamonds, some well set, others in their native state. Sometimes, with humbler aim and smaller capital, laces and bobbins form the stock in trade of a simple-minded Borah ; but sometimes, again, the

itinerant trader deals largely in pearls, bringing with him a capacious box, containing thousands, loose and undrilled, large and small together, selling them by weight; you take up a handful, and the owner looks calmly on, as if they were grains of corn.

Next appears the vender of coral, jasper, and cornelian; of ivory boxes and inlaid watch-stands; but only the newly-arrived or the speedily-departing patronise them much. It is otherwise, however, with the general or "chow chow" Borah, as he is called, for his soap, pickles, whips, vinegar, cotton socks, eau-de-Cologne, essence of ginger, and orange marmalade, find ready purchasers everywhere.

As we have said, the time is at hand when the trade of the Borahs will cease. They are a distinct feature in the physiognomy of Bombay, however, and as such their loss will be regretted; for though their eau-de-Cologne is little better than spirits of wine, their calico too often rotten, and their Scotch marmalade the production of Surat, yet the Borah is a character, and one often possessing a great fund of drollery and good-nature. This is particularly displayed at times when the Borah is required to exchange, as well as to sell goods; this arrangement being also part of his calling, and commonly conducted in a way that is replete with amusement to the looker-on. The Borah will purchase anything, animate or inanimate—blankets, mathematical instruments, goats, or horses. Occasionally, an old pony is exchanged for a pair of pistols, or a much-worn copy of Byron for a new buggy whip, when a great deal of railery is frequently carried on between the buyer and seller; for public indulgence allows much latitude to the Borah among those to whom his character and calling afford constant amusement during the leisure hours of a hot day in India.

The horse-dealers are also among the characteristics of Bombay. In the centre nearly of the great bazaar, the stranger observes a long row of thatched buildings, surrounded by a mud wall; these are the Arab stables, and here is centred a considerable portion of the happiness of the male community. Lounging on benches outside the wall, are to be seen the dealers, chatting with their Persian friends, who are usually moonshees, in the employ of the European

officers, or merchants in the town ; the costume of the horse-dealers consists of under-garments of white cotton, over which are robes with hanging sleeves, in colour either pale, blue, or orange, with handsome waist-shawls and crimson slippers ; their turbans are commonly of striped silk and cotton, tasselled like the handkerchiefs of the Bedouins, and beneath these, gleam eyes radiant with the cunning which accompanies an intimate knowledge of their peculiar calling.

When a boat-load of horses arrives fresh from the Persian Gulf, nothing can exceed the excitement produced amongst the racing members of the Bombay Society, with that of the hunting portion of the world generally who may chance to be for the time at the presidency. The horses, from having been stowed closely together, with little food, less water, and no exercise, lose all their beauty of appearance, and are commonly reduced to mere bone and muscle ; the experienced eye, however, judges better of them in this state, roundness of form being quite unnecessary for showing the real power or symmetry of a high-caste Arab ; therefore, as soon as the "dow" discharges its cargo, the sporting men hurry to the stables, and make an immediate selection, frequently paying 300*l.* or 400*l.* for what, to an unskilled eye, might seem but the diseased frame-work of a horse. After this, the Arab dealers exert all their skill to pass off at the best prices the nags that are considered unworthy to contest the glories of either the turf or the "jungle-side," and this they effect with admirable jockeyship. Being all excellent riders (for clinging to a horse seems not a matter of acquirement, but of nature, with an Arab, like a sixth sense), a servant of the stables will fling himself on the bare back of the most vicious animal in his master's possession, perhaps, and with tangled locks, and garments wildly flowing, gallop him backwards and forwards, while the uninitiated and hoped-for purchaser wonderingly looks on, convinced that the heavy-shouldered, hatchet-headed, zebra-striped brute before him must be the perfection of high caste and fine temper, to be so managed with a single rope-bridle and the spur of a bare heel ; and in this spirit the dealer persuades his victim to give a large sum for a horse that runs away with him the first day he mounts him, and kicks him off the second. The deluded

purchaser seldom likes to acknowledge this, and the dealer, therefore, hears no more of him : the dupe of his skill hastens to barter the ill-conditioned animal with a friend, and, as "doing business," as it is called, is a great amusement among the young men in India, the matter is soon arranged, and the original purchaser gets rid of the horse for perhaps a clever pony, a canteen, and a dozen or two of pale ale, and, after all, when in experienced hands, the horse often turns out a valuable hunter, and earns great reputation.

The sportsman dislikes Bombay ; for, beautiful as the island is, with its rocky mountain scenery, and dense jungles along the coast, studded with the cave temples of an ancient superstition, it is not a country that can be ridden over ; and although some species of game are to be found in abundance about the underwood of Salsette, and the back of the island itself, yet the marshy character of the ground, and its ill reputation for malaria, cause shooting to be avoided, even by the most zealous sportsman. In healthy situations in Bombay, Europeans appear to retain their health better than at out-stations, which may, perhaps, be attributed to good water, and the refreshing influence of the sea-breeze ; but it is remarked, that they soon lose the healthy look which those have been able to retain who remain at the out-stations, while they have a more generally delicate and pallid appearance.

The damp, relaxing climate, and the comparatively luxurious habits of living at the presidency, may have something to do with producing this effect ; for although part of the green, near the esplanade, forms a cricket-ground, and there is a good racket-court at the entrance of the bazaar, few of the old residents avail themselves of such means of exercise, being content with that afforded by an easy palankeen or well-appointed carriage ; while, at an out-station, horse-exercise and hunting form the chief recreation of life, and tend to balance the evils of hot winds, sand-storms, and other miseries to which people are there subject.

Few things can afford more interesting or picturesque effects than the great bazaar, beginning with the gay, open esplanade, its pretty bungalows and animated groups, with the fort and bay in advance, and ending with the dark cocoa-

nut woods* in Girgaum and Mazagon, speckled with the handsome villas of the European gentry.

The beautiful Parsee women, with their gay green and orange-coloured sarrees, chatting at the wells to the graceful, handsome sepoy, whose high caste compels them to draw water for themselves; the crowded ways, peopled with professors of almost every known creed, and natives of almost every land; the open shops, filled with goods to suit all tastes, "corn, and wine, and oil," in their literal sense, with women's bracelets (a trade in itself), culinary utensils, and fair ivory work; the quaint, though barbarous, paintings that deck many of the exteriors of the houses;† the streets devoted to the cunning work of gold and silver; the richly-carved decorations; the variety of costumes that meet the eye, and the languages that fall upon the ear; the native procession that stops the way; the devotee, performing his unnatural penance; the harmonies of light and colour; the rich dresses; the contrasts of life and character—such as the stately yet half-nude Brahmin, the English sailor, the dancing-girl, and the devotee, with the intermediate shades—each, and all, to the reflecting mind, are full of interest; and although, towards twilight, the bazaar is deeply shadowed, and the fresh breeze reaches it not,—although the dust rises in clouds, the air is stagnant, and the native drivers care nothing for the right of road, pressing to either side as suits them best, causing irritation, suspense, and danger to all

* In these cocoa-nut *topes* numbers of monstrous bats or flying foxes suspend themselves by one leg to the branches of the trees by day, loosening their hold at night, and sailing about in search of fruits, insects, and small birds, which constitute their food.

† Colonel Davidson has given a most amusing and just description of these paintings:—

"The fashion of this painting is something as follows, though I fear I shall not be able to give a good idea:—An Englishman, of immense bulk ('for that,' as Dousterswivel says, 'is essential'), is impaled on the edge of an English-built chair, in a grotesque military caricature dress of black, red, and brown, with a round hat, and smart black cockade, holding a stick in both hands, in the most resolute and determined manner; or, he has a stick in one hand, and a wine-glass, half-full of red wine, in the other; with a row of three or four servants, all gradually ascending into the air, with yak (or Tartarian cow) tails in their hands, and one of them insinuating a hooka snake through the arm-chair elbows; or, a band of nautch-girls, of terrific beauty, with large black eyes, each three inches long, surrounding a well-dressed and

whom they encounter ; still, the Bombay bazaar outbalances, in interest, all its worst annoyances, and is, in its peculiarities, *unique*.

The number and variety of persons who now arrive monthly at the Bombay presidency lessen most materially the interest of new arrivals. Bachelors, weary of their state, no longer hurry down to catch the first glimpse of a new belle ; nor does the solitary officer, on outpost duty, pen an elaborate proposal of marriage to a lady he has never seen, lest some happier man anticipate his hopes. A ship may arrive from London, and some individual, who has a box of millinery or of saddlery on board, is charmed at the news, and by the same day's post writes to his agents about her ; but here it ends ; there is no general interest felt. A Liverpool brig comes into port, and no kind husband hurries on board to secure the prettiest bonnet in the captain's cargo for his wife ; nor do ladies' hearts beat more quickly at the prospect of seeing London fashions of only six months' date ; all this is changed, or changing : steam is exerting its influence on the whole character of India, and of its European society. There is now no longer a want of interest on literary or other subjects. English periodicals and newspapers arrive in Bombay almost damp from the press.

The Parsees are the most progressive and almost the most positively enlightened people among the natives of Western India, owing to their freedom from the shackles of caste, and

mustachioed rajah, over whose head are flying tremendous nondescript animals, half-carp and half-scorpion ! The rajah is seated on a large square charpoy, or bed, the fore-feet of which are on the ground, and the hind in the sky, and is evidently smitten, not only with the nautch-girls, but also with the music of a gentle swain, who discharges a torrent of sound through a fife with two holes, which he holds in his hands from right to left. The huzoor's countenance, however, is as immovably tranquil as that of Boodh ; and he appears to enjoy the most serene complacency of mind, while two of his faithful sepoys in the rear are killing an enormous tiger, with a mouth full of teeth, in the most masterly and ingenious manner ; one kneeling and covering his head with a shield, while the other, seeing the brute's attention thus happily diverted, leaps on his back, and coolly cuts him up to kabobs ! Meanwhile, peacocks, monkeys, alligators, and carps, are hovering in mid-air, with the most wasteful profusion ! The lower-story windows and gateways are painted in flowers, and compartments to resemble mosaic, and have a very lively and pretty effect. The favourite colours are bright yellow, crimson, pea-green, and blue."

the commercial zeal which brings them more acquainted with foreign habits and society ; and the effect is, that several of the Parsee gentlemen, with the exception of their costume, and some strict ideas about the seclusion of their women, differ little from Europeans in the liberality of their views and their anxiety for public good.

Of the government of Bombay, the army at its disposal, its press, ecclesiastical establishment, &c., we have already given a full account. Its police establishment, municipal laws and regulations, &c., differ in scarcely any respect from those of the metropolis of Eastern India. A few words upon the subject of the state of native education may be added.

The advantages of rapid communication between Europe and Asia do not end by merely affording with readiness the means and appliances for gratifying private tastes, or presenting materials for agreeable converse. They awaken that powerful, necessary, and mutual interest between the countries, which the enormous distance which separated them by the olden track seemed to render hopeless. Our men of science in the East are now speedily assisted and encouraged in their labours from home ; and the *savans* of Europe instructed and delighted with discoveries, the necessary energies required for which being excited and strengthened by a ready correspondence with the learned communities of Europe. Our Indian branch societies are thus nourished and protected by the parent roots ; without whose support they must long have languished in their original weakling condition. The native society is elevating itself, by means of newly-acquired intelligence, to a point which must soon lead to the desirable object of mutual appreciation between European and native talent, and a desire on the part of the most intelligent among the people, that their sons should obtain, by means of an English education, similar information to that which, through the medium of unreserved intercourse with us, they discover we possess.

The groundwork for so desirable a superstructure as the perfect civilization of the native gentry, is already laid by the college and schools which have lately been so warmly protected by the general society of Bombay.

These institutions (the Elphinstone College and Native Education Society's Schools) are at present the great foun-

tains from which the blessings of education flow for the people of Western India.

The Native Education Society's Schools are situated near the great bazaars, at the extreme end of the esplanade. Committees and examinations are held in the library, a splendid apartment fitted with a good collection of useful works, with globes, maps, and papers, and adorned at either end with full-length portraits of the great benefactors of the institution, Sir John Malcolm, and the Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone.

Many hundreds of boys have been admitted to the society's schools, and the branch and infant schools connected with the institution; the only qualification for admission being a knowledge by the applicant of the vernacular dialect. Eighteen scholarships, endowed by Lord Clare and Sir Edward West, are in the gift of the society. The regulations require that four endowed scholars should leave the school annually, when two fresh candidates are admitted. Pupils from the schools of Dharwar and Poona are eligible for scholarships, but applications for them are not frequently made.

After public examinations, prizes are annually adjudged to the best scholars. Gold medals are usually awarded to proficient in the mathematical classes. Modern times having rendered the elements of knowledge, comparatively speaking, very easy of acquirement, it is still with unmixed surprise that one first witnesses the kind and degree of information possessed by the students of the school.

The lads who now form classes in the society's schools are many of them Brahmins by caste; the descendants of men, whose tenets, religious and moral, formed the very acme of intolerance, and who would have been considered polluted for days, had the mere shadow of a European fallen across their path. Yet now, a Brahmin youth, still wearing the triple cord, his garments of a fashion similar to those worn by his forefathers some centuries since, stands with folded arms, and eyes sparkling with all the eagerness of newly-awakened curiosity, to receive instruction from his European master, and become initiated into those mysteries of science of which his fathers dreamt not.

Such changes in human feeling, all working to a particular end, as inevitable as the progress of time itself, are curious

and attractive to the intelligent observer, and few places can afford higher gratification to such, than the examination rooms of the society's schools.

A medical college has been established in Bombay, and proves a magnificent and well-chosen monument to the memory of the late Sir Robert Grant, (formerly a governor of the presidency of Bombay), whose anxiety to advance the best interests of the natives of India it is designed to commemorate.

The principal public buildings within the town of Bombay are, the Town Hall, the Docks, the Government House, now used as the office of the Secretaries to Government, the two churches before named, the Mint, the Barracks, and the Castle, which contains the Arsenal. All these are upon a large and handsome scale. The rest of the edifices devoted to public purposes were formerly private dwellings, but, like the residences at present in use, they are capacious buildings, wanting only the flat roofs, terraces, and balustrades peculiar to Calcutta, to render them ornamental. The Governor of Bombay, when at the presidency, resides either at Parell, a mansion prettily situated in the midst of gardens four miles from the fort, or at Malabar Point, a bungalow erected upon a rock projecting into the sea at the extreme westerly point of the island.

The scenery in and about the island of Bombay is extremely beautiful, because of the admixture of rice plains, gardens, handsome bungalows, and wooded hills, with occasional peeps of the sea-shore, and the open main or land-locked bays. An exception must be taken to the village of Girgaum, which is densely planted with cocoa-nut groves. The climate of Bombay is, perhaps, superior in point of salubrity to that of Bengal; but the cold season scarcely merits the name, for there is nothing like the bracing weather experienced at the same period of the year in the neighbouring presidency. One peculiarity of Bombay consists in the wind blowing hot and cold at the same time, an alternation attended with the inconvenience of afflicting with temporary rheumatism those persons who, being lightly clad to resist the one, are suddenly assailed by the other.

The year may be said to be divided into three seasons. The hot season is from February to May, during which the

thermometer ranges from 80° to 90°. Early in June the south-west monsoon commences, and continues till the full moon in October or early in November, during which period the rain falls with scarcely any intermission for several days, attended by a few days of fine weather. In October the wind shifts to the north-east. Cool land-winds now prevail till February, during the nights, but change to strong sea-breezes at noon. In March and April the weather becomes sultry and close, only relieved by occasional thunder-storms of brief duration. During the rainy season the thermometer falls to 70°, rarely rising to 80°. In December and January, when the land wind prevails, it falls to 65°.

The population of Bombay is computed at 400,000 souls, about 1,000 of whom are European and East-Indian residents.

The merchants, traders, shopkeepers, are English, Portuguese, Armenians, Jews, Arabs, Moguls, Hindoos, and Parsees. There are also several brokers, auctioneers and wine merchants, shopkeepers and wine dealers, booksellers, bakers, horse-brokers, and apothecaries and druggists. The rest of the trades are distributed amongst an infinite number of very small establishments.

The European and Parsee community of the Western Presidency have done much for the civilization of the place, and the advancement of great objects, independently of the formation of the educational institutions alluded to above. There is an excellent club (at Byculla, a mile or two from the fort), corresponding in character with that of Calcutta ; a branch of the Asiatic Society, with a capital library and museum ; two banks, several Insurance Societies, a Chamber of Commerce, a Medical and Physical Society, an Agricultural and Horticultural Association, a Geographical Society, an Exchange Room, a Benevolent Society, several Bible Auxiliary and other Religious Institutions, a Sailors' Home, a magnificent hospital, called the Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, a Dharamsala (a species of caravanserai, built by Sir Jamsetjee) &c.

The manufactures of Bombay, which, as we have elsewhere said, is rather an emporium for the products of other countries than fruitful in itself, are very few in number. Perhaps the most remarkable offspring of the ingenuity of its

inhabitants are the inlaid or Mosaic work-boxes, card-cases, writing-desks, &c.

The Mosaic is sometimes used as a sort of veneer over the whole surface of an article, and at others, simply as an inlaid bordering on cedar or ivory, being frequently enriched by the addition of silver to the varied and beautiful colours which compose the Mosaic. This art is of Sindhian origin, now, however, exercised to a very considerable extent in Bombay, the ivory-cutters pursuing their labours in the open shops of the bazaars. Two planes of ivory, silver, or whatever it is desired should form the extreme edges of the bordering, are placed, by means of a frame constructed for this purpose, one above the other, at a given distance. Small rods of variously-stained ivory are first dipped in strong colourless glue, and then placed horizontally between the planes, with such arrangements as shall hereafter form the desired pattern. The whole is submitted to heavy pressure until perfectly dry. Bordering being required, the ivory-cutter severs from either end of the prepared planes a portion of about half a quarter of an inch thick, when the most perfect pattern of Mosaic bordering is obtained. By this ingenious method, two six-inch planes of ivory will afford patterns for a considerable number of pretty articles, which are sold at a third of the price which would be required, were each strip of the Mosaic bordering arranged expressly for the purpose. The value of a handsome desk or work-box of the Bombay work is about six guineas, but an ornamented watch-stand or card-case may be obtained for a few shillings.

Mention has elsewhere been made of the holiday *agréments* of Bombay, the chief of which are a trip to the island of Elephanta and to Gora Bunder. Of the remarkable features of the former, its cavern temples, particular mention is made in Moor's Pantheon. They are curious works of art, but are now falling rapidly to decay.

The Gora Bunder river flows between lofty hills, beautifully wooded, and studded here and there with antique ruins, and huge masses of dark rock, which, fringed with luxuriant creepers, start from amid the rich and glossy underwood, while the graceful bamboo, crowned with tasselled creepers, form vegetating arches of brilliant blossoms, decorating the

river's banks. Above the landing-place, embedded among the summits of luxuriant and lofty trees, is an age-stained and many-turretted monastery, at the foot of which, reached by a narrow, wooded, and rocky pass, it is customary for the picnic visitor to pitch a tent. A double-poled tent forms a commodious dining-room ; the marching cots are placed in a smaller one beyond it, while the humble *bechoba** is laid out with bath and toilette table ; and the attendant servants, in a *routie** apart, make the necessary preparations for the approaching meal. The doors of the large tents open into each other ; carpets spread over the well-swept ground give an air of comfort to the whole ; and green checks, suspended to the outer door, shade from the eye the glare of the neighbouring soil.

The Portuguese monastery of Gora Bunder has been fitted with a Mahomedan dome. It contains several excellent apartments, lighted by large windows, barred with wood, and commanding magnificent views of the surrounding scenery. On one side may be observed the picturesque windings of the beautiful and placid river, its rocks, and trees, and mountain scenery ; while on the other, a wide plain, covered with fine plantations of rice and sugar-cane, stretches away to a considerable distance, where the river, forming a natural boundary on the one side, on the other washes the extensive walls of the city of Bassein. A Parsee tower, and trifling ruins of cloistered avenues, are scattered about the uneven ground on which the monastery stands.

The city of Bassein has been long forsaken ; a few fishermen and shikarries alone occupy a spot once replete with luxury and power, and still containing magnificent evidences of taste, in the application of great and national wealth. The market-place, cloisters, and churches, are in a state of ruin and desolation, embedded in rich verdure, and garlanded with parasitical plants, hastening their decay.

The city contains about eight churches, of considerable size and great architectural beauty ; their square towers and ruined galleries surmount the dense masses of foliage which shade the lower portions of the buildings, and from every

* *Bechoba*, a small sleeping tent.

† *Routie*, a small low tent, similar to those used by private soldiers.

point of view which the traveller can select, present exquisite studies for graphic delineation.

The most perfect and handsome churches now remaining at Bassein are those of St. Paulo and St. Francis : both have square towers, with cloisters and priestly residences attached ; but the most exquisite remnants of the past are to be found in the interiors of beautiful chapels, where, through a vista of ruined arches, the eye dwells on the richly wooded scene beyond, and nature, in her sunniest dress, contrasts with the dark and mouldering stone, which she, like a laughing child decking his gray and aged sire with summer blossoms, hangs with bright lichens and many-coloured weeds.

In strolling among the ruins of Bassein, the foot of the traveller will occasionally strike against a flat and humble block, or his eye rest on a richly-chiselled tomb, whose inscriptions afford abundant matter for philosophic meditation on the decline of the eastern power of Portugal and the changed and humbled character of her chivalrous and daring sons. Tradition and romance have shed a charm of enchanting interest around the ancient history of that singular people, which is here touchingly recalled, as the traveller's eye traces many names which he at once must recognize as claiming ancestry with the noble blood of the first amongst those who fought for and established their country's power on the Indian soil. The names of Don Lorenzo,* of Alfonso Albuquerque,† of many of the greatest and noblest heroes whom the policy of Portugal selected to fix her empire in the East, cannot be read without emotion ; the more so when, surrounded by ruin and desolation, the relics of a power itself tottering in decay. Of the immense oriental empire of Portugal, little now remains but *Goa*, its ancient capital ; still, indeed, a fine and curious city, but inhabited by a class far different from these, the early delegates of their sovereign's power. Hondura and Severndroog, with the important chain of forts once guarding the shores of the Southern Concan, look desolate and bleak, amid the dash and roar of old Ocean's surges ; while the great fortress of Diu, which the chivalrous Nuno da Cunha first gained for an ungrateful

* Don Lorenzo encountered first the Turkish armada near Diu.

† In 1515 Albuquerque took the important seaport of Goa, and established it as the seat of the Portuguese government.

master,* has become a comparatively small and unimportant spot : and the churches of St. Paulo and St. Francis, with the lovely chapels of Bassein, in whose aisles, perhaps, the descendants of the great Apostle of India† lifted up their voice in prayer for the idolatrous nation among whom they dwelt, will soon be noted but as a heap of rubbish.

Besides Gora Bunder and Bassein, the caves of Karlee, on the island of Salsette, the villas at Arnbolee, on the same island—which, by the way, is connected with Bombay by a superb causeway, built, at an expense of 17,500*l.*, by Lady Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, and over which runs the first railway opened in India—afford subjects of interest and pleasant places of resort to holiday-people and strangers.

Connected with Bombay by another causeway, at the south-westerly corner of the island, is the smaller island of Colaba, where there is a gun-carriage manufactory, an observatory, a lighthouse, and barracks for a regiment of infantry. Here also is a church built to commemorate the officers killed in Afghanistan.

The territory subject to the authority of the Bombay government comprises in the south (as far as Goa, the last remnant of the Portuguese territories), Dapoolee, Severndroog, Rutnagherry, Malwan, Vingorla (all reduced fortresses in the Southern Concan), to Belgaum in the east ; and in the north, Surat, Broach, Baroda, Kaira, and Ahmedabad, in Guzerat, as far as Palunpore, on the southern border of the Shekawuttee territory. Baroda is under the Guicowar, a native prince, long on a friendly footing with the British Government, at whose court we have a resident and a subsidiary force. East of Palunpore, distant about one hundred miles, lies Neemuch, the most westerly cantonment ; belonging to the Supreme Government, and occupied by Bengal troops. West of Baroda is the peninsula of Kattewar, where a political agent resides, with a small body of troops at his bidding, in the central cantonment of Rajcote. The treaty with the chieftain of Kattewar is offensive and defensive. He has the right to claim protection, internal and

* John III. of Portugal, 1546.

† Francis Xavier.

external, from the British, and we do not interfere in the management of his own affairs, though bound to assist him in realizing his claims from his own subjects. A similar treaty exists with the Guicowar of Baroda.

Separated from Kattewar by a gulf is the Runn and territory of Cutch, bordering upon Scinde. Cutch, governed by a Rao, who is supreme in his own territory, has long been tributary to the British authority, which has retained a resident and a proportion of troops at Bhooj. Its chief importance, as a friendly state, has arisen from the circumstance of its having formed a species of barrier between our possessions in Western India and the territory of Scinde. The latter exists now as a portion of the British empire, won by the sword, and maintained at a terrible cost of life, through sickness among the troops who occupy the principal stations of Hyderabad, Sukkur, Shikarpore, &c.

The principal stations in the Bombay Presidency are Poona, Sattarah, Belgaum, Malligaum (Kandeish), Ahmednuggur, in the Deccan ; Surat, Baroda, Ahmedabad, Kaira, Rajcote and Deesa, in Guzerat ; Booj in Cutch ; Hyderabad, Kurrachee, Sukkur, and Shikarpore, in Scinde. Those stations which lie to the east, north-east, or south-east of Bombay, are connected with the presidency by good roads ; in proceeding thither, therefore, the traveller has the choice of marching or going by dawk. With the north and south stations the communication is generally by water, in steamers, pattamars, or occasional ships.

POONA is at once the nearest and the largest military station. It is distant ninety-eight miles from Bombay, and is reached by boat and dawk, or boats and mail carriage. A boat carries you across the harbour of Bombay to Panwell, the nearest village on the continent. The traveller thence commences his journey to Poona.

The first stage to Khalapoor over a lovely country, is only interesting to the stranger from its contrast with the crowded city aspect of Bombay. The alternation of jungle with paddy (rice) fields and poor but picturesque villages constitutes the main features of the scenery for the first eighteen miles ; but when at Khalapoor, the foot of the ghaut, or mountain, is reached, the sublime begins to take precedence of the beautiful. It is advisable, if travelling in the cool season,

from October to March, to leave Panwell at about three in the morning, for the first stage is then accomplished by eight A. M., and the ascent of the ghaut can be commenced at an hour when the magnificence of the scenery can be contemplated to advantage. The varied foliage which covers the mountain's sides ; the deep, rocky ravines ; the lofty ascent by a well-constructed road ; the occasional rencontre of the laden elephant and burthened camel ; the song of birds ; the costumes of the native pedestrian traveller, or the equipment of the wealthier merchant, squatted in his singularly-constructed car ; the pensioned or tributary Mahratta chieftain, with his little band of retainers, bristling with arms, constitute a varied picture which pleasantly beguiles the wayfarer of his fatigue. At Karlee, at the top of the ghaut, one-half of the journey to Poona has been accomplished, and here it may be as well to halt and take breakfast. The bungalow, or resting-house, at Karlee is advantageously situated, commanding a superb view of a part of the western ghauts on the one side, and of the table-land to the eastward. There is a remarkable cavern in the vicinity of Karlee, hewn on the face of a precipice, about two-thirds up the sides of a steep hill, rising, with a very scarped and regular talus, to the height of about 800 feet above the level of the plain. The excavations consist of a temple, and many smaller apartments and galleries, in two stories, some of them beautifully ornamented. A ruinous temple of Siva serves as a gateway to the gore. A singular building stands on the right hand of its portico. Within the portico are colossal figures, in alto-relievo, of elephants bestridden by mahouts, and mounted with howdahs. There are many columns within the cave, with capitals resembling bulls, and surmounted each by two elephants.

Tulligaon, and the country on either side, are next passed during the night ; but it may be as well to mention, for the guidance of those who may prefer travelling in the daytime, that excepting an occasional temple, a tank constructed by devotees, there is not a single object worthy of particular inspection. The road lies through a gently-undulating country, extensively cultivated, and the atmosphere is wonderfully clear and pure, by reason of the elevation of the land. At Tulligaon there is a bungalow corresponding in

all respects with the one at Karlee. We reach Poona at the end of a nine hours' journey, and proceed at once to the dawk bungalow, or to the residence of any one to whom letters of introduction may have been previously sent.

Poona, once the capital of the dominions of the Peishwa, is one of the largest military stations in India. There are seldom less than six or seven infantry regiments cantoned there, with a brigade of horse artillery. At the distance of five or six miles from Poona is Kirkee, where are barracks for a regiment of British dragoons. The governor of Bombay frequently resides at Poona during the summer season, at a place in the neighbourhood, called Dapooree, where there is a botanic garden. The description given of the Cawnpore cantonment, in a former part of this work, applies, with little variation, to that of Poona, the only difference being that the climate of the Deccan is more salubrious than that of Cawnpore, the scenery more attractive, the dust of the station less offensive, and the buildings less scattered.

Poona, was, at the early period of the British possession of the country, most famous for field sports. The wild boar, familiarly called the hog, was then so common, that whole sounders have been known to dash through the camp in mid-day. The clearing away of jungle, the occupation of a large extent of land, and the great industry of our Nimrods, have now thinned the vicinage of the station of its ancient wild inhabitants ; but the Deccan is still very celebrated as a sporting country, and affords the resident many an opportunity of whiling away leisure in an exciting and noble pastime. The hog is pursued in India in a much more manly way than in any other country in the world. Disdaining the aid of dogs and the use of fire-arms, the Indian hog-hunter saddles his little Arab, and, vaulting into his seat, spear in hand, rides to the cover with a few companions, all equally eager for the honour of inflicting the first wound. Sometimes native rustics are employed to beat the jungle, the sugar-cane plantations, or other haunt of the grisly boar, and drive him into the plain ; but in some places this process is unnecessary, as "the pigs" come out of their own accord, to take the air or wallow in some neighbouring jheel. The moment they are seen, the hunters make for them at a killing pace. Away goes the boar, over rocky ground, swamps,

nullahs, and jungles. The chase is prolonged, over a wide extent of country, for half an hour or more : sometimes the boar gets away ; sometimes, driven to his last shifts, he turns about and gallantly charges his foes. Then comes the critical moment. If the Arab swerves, or the spear is untrue, a fearful gash in the belly or a leg of the horse assures the boar escape, at least from one opponent ; if otherwise—if the horse obeys the bridle, maintains his stand, and enables the huntsman to deliver his spear just above the shoulder of the boar, the grey monster dies, and while his tusks adorn the tent or bungalow of the victor, his fat sides furnish forth a repast with which domestic pork-chops will bear no kind of comparison. In some parts of India our sportsmen *throw* the spear—in others they thrust or *job* it. Controversies upon the relative merits of these systems were rife in the *Bombay* and *Bengal Sporting Magazines* ; but it is difficult to say which plan is admitted to be the most efficacious.

Midway between Poonah and Seroor stands the Corygaum monument, erected to the memory of the officers and men who fell in one of the most remarkable conflicts on record, during the last Mahratta war. Mr. Horace Wilson thus tells the story.—“The detachment left Seroor on the 31st of December, 1818, at six in the evening, and by ten on the following morning, had ascended some high ground about half way to Poona, overlooking the village of Korigaon, and the adjacent plains watered by the Bheema river. Beyond the river appeared the whole of the Peishwa's forces, estimated at 20,000 horse and 8,000 foot. Captain Staunton immediately determined to throw himself into Korigaon, which being surrounded by a wall, and protected on the south by the bed of the river, offered shelter against the Mahratta cavalry, and might enable him to resist any force of infantry that could be brought against him. As soon as his movement was descried, his intention was anticipated by the enemy, and a numerous body of their infantry, chiefly Arabs, pushed for the same point. Both parties reached the place nearly at the same time, and each occupied a part of the village, the British the northern and western, the Arabs the southern and eastern portions. The Arabs obtained possession of a small fort, which gave them the advantage ; but good positions were secured for the

guns, one commanding the principal street, the other the banks of the river. By noon the preparations of both parties were complete, and a desperate, and seemingly hopeless, struggle ensued. The first efforts of the British were directed to dislodge the enemy from that portion of the village which they had seized; but their superior numbers enabled them to repel the several vigorous assaults made for that purpose, and Captain Staunton was obliged to confine his objects to the defence of his own position. The Arab infantry became in their turn the assailants, and while some maintained a galling fire from the fort, and the terraced roofs of the houses, others rushed along the passages between the walls surrounding them, leading to the British posts, with desperate resolution. They were torn to pieces by the discharge from the guns, which were served with equal rapidity and precision, or they were encountered and driven back at the point of the bayonet by the equal resolution of the defenders. In these actions, the few officers commanding the troops were necessarily exposed to more than ordinary hazard. They were eight in number, including two assistant surgeons, who were more usefully employed encouraging the soldiers, than in attendance on the wounded, and who shared with their brother officers the peril and honours of the day. In addition to the dangers and trials of the engagement, the men were much distressed by want of food and water, and by the fatigues of their previous march. Towards evening, the situation of the party became critical. Lieutenant Chisholm, of the artillery, was killed; many of the artillerymen were killed or disabled; Lieutenants Pattinson, Conellan, and Swanston, and Assistant-surgeon Wingate, had been wounded, and Captain Staunton, with Lieutenant Innes, and Assistant-surgeon Wylie, were the only officers remaining effective. At this time one of the guns was captured, and the enemy penetrated to a Choultry, a building for travellers, in which many of the wounded had been deposited. The ferocity of the assailants vented itself upon the helpless men who were thus within reach, and many of them were barbarously slain. Amongst them, Mr. Wingate was cut to pieces, and Lieutenants Swanston and Conellan were about to share the same fate when the surviving officers, at the head of a party of their men, charged into the Choultry, bayoneted every one

of the enemy who was found within it, and put those without to flight. The gun was recovered by a sally, headed by Lieutenant Pattinson, although at the time mortally wounded. A second wound disabled him ; but his example had been nobly followed, and the Arabs were driven back with great slaughter. Notwithstanding their success, the loss had been so great, and the exhaustion of the troops was so excessive, that some of the men, both Europeans and natives, began to consider resistance hopeless, and expressed a desire to apply for terms of surrender.

"Their commanding officer, however, convinced them their only hope of safety lay in a protracted defence, and that to surrender would doom them to certain destruction from barbarous foes, exasperated by the loss which they had suffered. This exhortation animated the troops to persevere, and the Arabs, disheartened by the ill success of their repeated assaults, intermitted their exertions, and about nine drew off, leaving the entire village in possession of the detachment.

"During the night water was procured, and arrangements were made for the renewal of the defence. But the Peishwa, learning that General Smith was approaching, considered further delay unsafe, and at daylight of the 2nd of January, his whole force was in motion along the Poona road. Not being aware of the advance of the fourth division, Captain Staunton thought it advisable to march back to Seroor. The enemy attempted to entice him to cross the river into the more open country, by sending fictitious messages from Poona, urging him to hasten his march in that direction, and he pretended to entertain the purpose of complying with the request. Towards nightfall, however, having procured conveyance for his wounded, he set off for Seroor, which he entered the following morning, with both his guns, and all his wounded, with drums beating, and colours flying ; thus having set a memorable example of what is possible to a resolute spirit, and of the wisdom of resistance in the most desperate circumstances."

Leaving Poona, the road runs south-easterly to SHOLAPORE, nine stages, averaging sixteen miles each, through a fertile, well-governed country. Sholapore is another military station, at the eastern boundary of what were the dominions of the

Rajah of Sattara. SATTARA, a strong hill fort and town, is fifty-six miles south of Poona, and is now a British possession.

AHMEDNUGGUR (180 miles from Bombay) is a fortified city built by Aurungzebe, who made it his head-quarters during the progress of his conquest of the Deccan and Karnattee. In the vicinity is good hunting-ground. In other days, the Ahmednuggur Hunt held the highest place in the estimation of Deccan sportsmen. A regiment is generally cantoned there.

MALLIGAUM is the principal town in British Candeish—a province distinguished by its fertility, and gradually recovering from the effects of Mahratta ravages and neglects.

BELGAUM (318 miles from Bombay) is a large and flourishing town on the Dooab or Southern Mahratta country—a military and civil station.

SURAT, the principal station in the province of Guzerat, is 180 miles from Bombay, and stands on the south bank of the Taptee, twenty miles from its junction with the sea. It is a large and badly-built town, having 180,000 inhabitants, many of whom are Parsees; but after the discovery by the Portuguese of the route round the Cape, it became a place of great importance.

BROACH, 220 miles from Bombay, is situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, twenty-five miles from the sea. It is also a civil station. The population numbers 30,000, who live by the coasting trade.

BARODA, 280 miles from Bombay, is the capital of the Guicawar, at whose court is a British resident, and on whose account a "contingent" force is kept up.

AHMEDABAD, 300 miles from Bombay, is a zillah station, and likewise a cantonment for troops.

KAIRA, 384 miles from Bombay, is the principal military station in the eastern division of Guzerat. The town is large and neat, and the European society extensive and agreeable.

North-west of Bombay are the gulfs of Cambay and of Cutch, and between them, on the Guzerat peninsula, are the stations of RAJCOTE and DEESA—the former in the centre of the peninsula, and the latter more to the north and east, on the left bank of the river Bunnass, which falls into the gulf of Cutch. Deesa is the most advanced military station on

the Guzerat frontier. It is a dry, hot, intensely arid place. The sun comes down "in right earnest upon the waste, and there is need," says Lieut. Eastwick, "of many a fold of twisted muslin round the white *topees* to keep off his importunity." The soil is of fine, warm sand, into which you sink at every step. Yet there is a charm in the place for the lovers of sport. The spur, and the spear, and the deadly-grooved rifle are never idle. Lions as well as tigers abound in the jungle on the banks of the Banass. It is rare that these beasts are harboured together, but here, assuredly, is an exception to the rule.

MOUNT ABOO, a detached mountain of the Aravuli range, is situated forty miles north-east from Deesa. It towers over the neighbouring mountains, like a tall leader in the front of his line. It is worth the ascent, which has been of late years frequently made. The height is about 4,000 feet, and the summit is reached only with a great effort, for the sides are craggy and precipitous. Most travellers who have tried to reach it on foot have been beaten, and only too glad to avail themselves of the assistance of the Bheels, and their bamboo chairs. Once on the mountain's brow, and the toil of ascent is fairly recompensed. "I can imagine," writes a recent traveller, "no scene more beautiful. The far view over the unbroken plain beneath; the fantastic rocks around crowned and clustered over with the rarest plants and flowers; the strange white temples with their grotesque figures and quaint embellishments; the clear, peaceful lake, over which nod many a drowsy pinnacle, hallowed by Hindoo legend,—these are things to be gazed on—not described." Aboo has been from ancient times a place of pilgrimage to the Hindoos. Its natural advantages, and the remarkable beauty of its scenery, must have recommended it from the earliest ages to a religion which delights to sacrifice on the mountains, and to hallow any lake or stream. The highest peak is called Gooroosikur, or the "Saints' Pinnacle," because certain saints in the Hindoo mythology are said to have made the summit their abode. The temples adorning Aboo have been built within the last few centuries, by the Jains. They are of white marble, ornamented with innumerable figures and the richest tracery. The range of the thermometer at Aboo in the hottest months in the year is

fifteen degrees below the ordinary range on the plains in its immediate vicinity, and as winds are constantly blowing, the climate is altogether more favourable to a European constitution.

West of Guzerat, across the Runn, we enter the sandy province of CUTCH, which is bounded on the north by Ajmere on the south by the sea, and on the west by the Indus. The Runn is an immense morass, covering 8,000 square miles—the rest of the province consists of an irregular hilly tract. The whole face of the country near the hills is covered with volcanic matter. The province is not fertile—water is scarce and brackish. The chief production of Cutch is cotton. Iron, alum, and coal are also found. The inhabitants are chiefly Jahrajahs of Scinde origin, the most degraded of the natives of India. The pilots and mariners, however, are noted for their skill, and something is done on the coast in the way of ship-building. The chief towns in Cutch are Booj and Mandavie.

SCINDE is portioned off into three divisions, or districts,—Kurrachee, Hydrabad, and Shikarpore. The first mentioned is the favourite station, and certainly has the advantage of the sea air; but it is doubtful whether this is not counter-balanced by the scarcity of good fresh water, which must ever be experienced near the coast. This is more particularly felt if large numbers of troops are located on the spot. For a small civil station it is particularly adapted, but it is not a good site for the head-quarters of the province, from not being central. The buildings erected for the accommodation of the civil and military branches of the service are very numerous, and though a few good houses may be seen here and there, generally speaking they fall short of what are to be seen in other stations in India. The barracks are handsome buildings, and well situated; but the greatest ornament to the station is its Horticultural Garden, which does great credit to those who have taken so much trouble and care in bringing it to perfection. The right bank of the Indus forms the principal boundary line of the district, to a few miles above Sehwan.

HYDRABAD is a collectorate, or Sudder station. The city is large, and on a hill immediately to the north of the fort. When the filthy state of the town is taken into account, it

may be considered tolerably salubrious. The Hyderabad district includes all land between the left bank of the Indus and the desert, and northward as far as where the territories ceded to Ali Morad commence.

SHIKARPORE is the remaining civil station. Some of the gardens in its neighbourhood are well laid out, and though far from an enviable place, still, compared with Sukkur, the military station, it may be looked upon as a paradise.

The district extends northward to the boundaries of the foreign states both on the right and left bank of the Indus.

These several stations have more or less troops, with the usual staff; and also a collector of revenue, with one or two deputies, a superintendent of police, and a well-organized police force, both horse and foot. Several deputy collectors are in the interior stationed from thirty to fifty miles apart, who also act as magistrates.

The soil near the banks of the river is in many places of a loose sandy description; but where this does not form the principal characteristic, it consists of a fine loamy rich clay, exceedingly fertile; large tracts of land are impregnated with nitre, and of course valueless for agricultural purposes. The hills are composed of sandstone, and therefore barren; still in the distance they form a pleasing background to the view, and a relief to the eye. Some of the limestone occasionally met with, is of a variegated nature—red and green hues. Numerous fossil sea shells have been discovered in these hills, full 200 miles from the sea.

Irrigation is principally effected by river and canal water; wells are very seldom resorted to. During the height of the flow of water, which lasts about two months, little or no exertion is necessary for leading them to any approximate land. At other times the Persian wheels are used; these are of a most deplorably clumsy construction, generally worked by a camel, whose tall ungainly form looks most miserable, and even ludicrous, when harnessed to the apparatus blindfolded, and stalking round and round all day; the trough that receives the water from the pots on the wheel is so badly formed, that full a moiety returns from whence it came, thus causing double labour. When the river gets very low, and the waters have to be raised fifty or 100 feet, it is usual to have a reservoir midway; and in that case two wheels and

a double set of camels, or cattle, are required to bring the water to the desired level. Canals are constructed in every possible direction, but though necessary, they are the cause of constant expense and vexation. The canal-clearing season is the annual harvest-home to numerous people, who receive large advances for clearing the canals of the sand, &c., which settle in the beds during the past inundation. It is usual with the parties thus engaged to put off all debts and difficulties till this period, when they are liquidated instantaneously, from the advances received from government.

The cultivation in Lower Scinde consists of Joar (*Holcus Sorgum*) and Bajree (*H. spicatus*) and Dhan. This harvest, which is principally depended upon, is gathered in December and January. Dhan proves highly productive on well-flooded lands, where the river has risen to its full height; but in some seasons this crop fails, and cannot be depended on, as well as the first-mentioned grains, which are produced by artificial irrigation. The sugar-cane thrives well in many parts of Lower Scinde, is capable of vast improvement, and might be greatly extended.

Indian corn, sweet potato (*Convolvulus batatas*) and various other nutritious productions thrive well, but the cultivation is very limited indeed, scarcely sufficient for local consumption. In Upper Scinde, wheat, barley, and gram are staple grains under cultivation, and any excess of produce finds its way by easy transit to Lower Scinde, where it is retailed to great advantage, and at a high price.

The Jageer lands are far more extensive in Lower than in Upper Scinde. They comprise more than a fourth of the territories attached to the British rule. It was a wise policy, and certainly a just one, of Sir Charles Napier, to restore to the Jageerdars their rent-free lands. When lapses by death take place in any of the Jageerdars who have been confirmed in their Jageers by the English government, a fourth of the value or produce of the said rent-free lands, namely, the Jageerdar's share, is to revert to government. This is a fair provision, as it does not affect the incumbents, and may be looked upon in the light of tribute. These parties have undisputed and quiet possession of their lands, and where they derive water for irrigation from canals formed at the expense of government, there they are called

upon to pay a certain sum as their share for the benefits derived.

The waste lands are very extensive, principally situated in unfavourable localities for irrigation. Such tracts as are impregnated with carbonate of soda, nitre, and muriate of soda, are of course utterly unproductive, and the extent of such tracts is very great; the waste lands first mentioned are not however completely useless, as the shrubs and jungle found on them serve to feed large herds of camels and cattle.

Population.—The Mussulman sect predominates over the Hindoo, it is said, by three to two. The Scindians are, generally speaking, strong and hardy, many of them tall, with dark complexions. Those who are in comfortable circumstances, and not exposed, are however very fair. This is particularly the case with the women, who are secluded, and may correctly be termed of the fair caste. Very few Rajpoots, Brahmins, or ladies are to be seen. Meat and wine do not come amiss to them. They are a very industrious set, and the most wealthy as the natural consequence. All are addicted to smoking to an alarming extent: a hookah, peculiar to this part of India, is in use; the hookah bottom is of earthenware—very large, to which a nearly horizontal snake is attached, so adjusted as to enable the smoker to sit at his ease on the floor, and continue his work, smoking at the same time; the snakes are often four or five feet in length. They smoke tobacco, as also ganjah (*Cannabis Indica*), to a great extent, supplied from Candahar, Cabul, and the countries between the Indus and Herat. They use and smoke it the same way as the Egyptians. The dress of the people is unlike that of any other part of India. Their caps are extremely fanciful and pretty, but give no shade to the face; they are made of quilted cloth, and of all the colours of the rainbow; some are worked in with gold and silver thread. The turbans worn by the Hindoos are of an immense magnitude, and it puzzles the beholder to know how they can be made; these turbans are the repositories of any valuable documents they may possess, as well as jewels, or other light property.

Nearly all, whether Mussulmans or Hindoos, wear beards, which they often dye of a red colour. The women are also

fond of dyeing the hair. The better class of Scindians wear a long shirt, of fine or coarse cloth, agreeable to the circumstances of the wearer, which reaches nearly to the ankles, and is unconfined by any waistband—also loose drawers underneath. All the poor and working classes have an enormous quantity of superfluous clothes on, generally dyed blue, and they wear them round the waist. Indeed, so enveloped are they, that had they been inhabitants of a cold region, they could not have required more clothing than is now resorted to. The better class of females follow the practice of the Egyptian women, and when walking abroad are covered with an immense piece of cloth in the shape of an extinguisher, which is gathered together on the crown of the head, reaching to the soles of the feet, having small eyelet holes perforated in front, before the eyes, to enable them to see their way; these envelopes are of white cloth, and the wearers look like so many walking ghosts. The population suffers greatly occasionally from epidemic disorders, as is the case in all parts of India, and therefore must be calculated upon accordingly.

Climate.—So much prejudice exists in disfavour of the climate of Scinde, that any individual attempting to speak in its favour has a fair chance of not being credited. In the country we have seen as many sturdy, old, grey-headed men in the villages, as are to be met with in any portion of the Company's dominions. Some of the staff, and others, have resided in the province from three to seven years, and enjoy as good health as they could have done had they been in any favoured station attached to the Bombay Presidency. In a good house, well secured by glazed doors and windows, and with a single tatee, the temperature during May and June will not exceed 83°, and without the latter, 86°, or 88°. Good houses are, however, rare. A few are to be found at Kurrachee, one at Hydrabad, and one or two at Sukkur. During all the hot season, that is, from the 15th of April to the end of November, such an occurrence as a hot night is seldom known; on the contrary, the nights are cold, and officers, living in well-situated localities, find it necessary to use more covering at night than they would think it expedient to require in England in the summer months. From October to the middle of April the weather is charmingly

pleasant, and from the middle of November to the same period in February the cold is intense, morning and evening, for India. The extreme heat complained of at Sukkur, can be accounted for by the position of the cantonments. All the barracks and officers' houses are situated on barren calcareous formations—they can hardly be designated hills; these rocks become so hot at mid-day that none can walk on them barefooted with impunity. The heat is retained, more or less, the whole night; and the place never becomes cool, except for the few months of cold weather. It is not just to judge of the whole province from a residence at this awful station. A far more pleasant and agreeable locality could have been selected for a military station a few miles lower down the stream, where the banks of the river are very high and firm, and the scenery romantically pretty, with the advantage of being 10° or 15° cooler. The dust that prevails in Scinde is, perhaps, more distressing than any degree of heat. But, by artificial contrivances, and some expense, the European resident is not inconvenienced. Dust equally prevails in many of the military stations in the North-Western Provinces, particularly those on the banks of the Sutledge; but houses with every convenience and comfort have been constructed, at any expense, at those stations, to insure comfort from the external enemies, heat and dust.

Scenery.—The traveller who only penetrates a few miles on either side of the Indus would pronounce Scinde a sterile country, and devoid of all picturesque beauties. Such, however, is not the case, and though not very rich in forest scenery, still, very handsome groves of trees are to be met with. Some of the views on the banks of the small winding tributary rivers—more particularly at the season of the inundation—are charming to the eye; the foliage of the trees along the banks being rich in the extreme. In the neighbourhood of Hyderabad, for many miles along the winding Fullailee, this is the case. The river view of Sukkur, Bukkur, and Roree, with the Rocky Island, is also exceedingly imposing as you approach from the south. It would form a rich painting, if transferred to canvas at the time of the rise of the river. At Khyrpore, the residence of Meer-Ali Moorad, are numerous beautiful gardens, which would be an ornament in any part of the continent. The babool-tree

(*Mimosa Arabica*, et *Farnesiana*) attains great perfection in Scinde, such as is not to be met with in any other part of India. Occasionally the banian-tree (*Ficus Indica*) is found, but is by no means common. Some inferior specimens of the peepul (*Ficus religiosa*) are seen, and are valued according to their scarceness by the Hindoos. The elegant neem-tree (*Melia Azadirachta*) makes up, however, by its richness, for the poverty of those just enumerated, and vies with the babool in giving effect to the sylvan views. Many other shrubs are scattered about; and in orchards, the mangoe-tree thrives remarkably well, and the fruit is as well flavoured as any to be found in this country. The view of the fort and citadel of Hyderabad is also very imposing from a distance; they are well-elevated on a limestone rock.

Numerous articles of export, such as indigo, saltpetre, buffaloes' hides and horns, goat skins, &c., are procurable in large quantities, and remunerative prices, between Hyderabad and Mooltan, principally near the latter place, it is to be owned; but then, at such prices, and at such an advantageous weight, that the expense of river carriage will fall very light. The indigo is very fine, and the saltpetre very pure. The buffaloes' hides are also large, and of the best description.

With the exception of the direct road from the city of Hyderabad to Roree, there is nothing worthy of the name in Scinde. Wheeled *carriage* is unknown: indeed the face of the country is so cut up by canals and watercourses, that no wheeled conveyances could be used. Camels, bullocks, asses, &c., are the only means in use as land carriage. The former are poor weak creatures compared to those of the Punjaub and Provinces. Mules, of an excellent breed, are readily to be had, but at rather high prices. The bazaars at the principal towns are generally well-stocked, but the charges for all articles exorbitantly dear; and as nericks are not countenanced, a few wealthy men create monopolies, and keep up prices of every description of goods.

At Kurrachee, Hyderabad, Sukkur, and Shikarpore, are well-supplied Parsee shops, where almost all descriptions of European goods are to be procured.

In the way of natural curiosities, the botanist could readily fill an herbal with choice and nondescript specimens, and the

mineralogist and geologist be equally successful. For four months in the year these researches could be followed.

Fossil specimens are abundant, of a description to enchant a Cuvier.

THE MAHABALESHWUR HILLS.

We have mentioned, in connection with our sketch of Calcutta, the Sanitaria at Darjeeling and the Cossyah Hills. Bombay, too, has its Sanitarium—the Mahabaleshwur Hills, which are situated $17^{\circ} 56'$ north latitude, and in longitude $73^{\circ} 30'$ east, and are distant twenty-five miles due east from the sea, and sixty-nine miles from Bombay, which bears north 29° west. They form a portion of the extensive chain of mountains known under the name of the Western Ghats, or Syhadree mountains. On their western side they rise with an abrupt and precipitous ascent from the Concan, which separates them from the sea, while their eastern face presents a somewhat less rapid and steep descent into the table-land of the Deccan.

The general elevation of the station is 4,500 feet above the level of the sea, while its highest summit attains an altitude of 4,700 feet. It is elevated upwards of 4,000 feet above the subjacent country on the Concan side, and about 2,300 feet above the general level of the Deccan at its eastern base. Its greatest breadth at the northern extremity is about fifteen miles, and about eight at its southern boundary. The average direct length north and south does not exceed five miles, though from north-east to south-west it extends diagonally seventeen miles.

Excellent roads have been made in almost every direction. These already extend over a space of upwards of forty miles, more than one-half of which are carriage-roads, and the remainder bridle-paths, and have been so laid out as to open up to the visitor a varied succession of mountain scenery, which, for grandeur and beauty, it is believed, can be equalled in few parts of the world.

The soil consists principally of a red clay (formed by the disintegration of cellular ferruginous clay-stone, which constitutes the surface rock), intermixed with the *débris* of trap-

rock, and in many places with a considerable portion of decayed vegetable matter, forming a brown mould, which is found to be very productive. An abundant supply of excellent water is at all seasons procurable, either from wells, which vary from twenty to forty feet in depth, or from the small streamlets which traverse the hills, some of which retain their water during the whole of the hot season. An extensive artificial lake, which is now being constructed, will add materially to the supply of water already available, whether for cultivation or for domestic use.

The most striking feature in the vegetation of these hills is the profusion of the common brake (*pterio aquilina*), which serves to recall the association of a more northern clime. A species of curcuma, the root of which yields an excellent description of arrow-root, grows everywhere in the greatest abundance. There is a considerable variety of parasitic orchidaceae, some of which possess great beauty; and the trunks and branches of many of the trees are covered with a variety of lichens and musci.

Potatoes of excellent quality are cultivated very extensively, both for the consumption of the station and for the supply of the Bombay and Poona markets. A plentiful supply of all the common culinary vegetables of the best description can be procured at reasonable rates. The excessive heaviness of the rains prevents the successful cultivation of European fruits.

The village of Malcolm Peth (so named by the Rajah of Sattara in honour of the late Sir John Malcolm, the distinguished founder of the station) contains several European shops, where European supplies of almost every description are procurable at the same rates as at Poona, and very little higher than at Bombay. The station is also visited by numerous itinerant hawkers (*Borahs*) from Bombay. The Malcolm Peth Bazaar is a tolerably large one, and is well supplied with all articles of consumption, which are the produce of the country, and generally at moderate rates. The mutton, which is small, but of excellent quality, is sold at one and a half annas per pound; beef at one anna per pound; fowls at three or four annas each. Grain is principally imported from Wye (a distance of twenty miles), and is usually about eight or ten per cent. higher than in the Deccan. Fire-

wood is abundant and cheap ; grass is of rather inferior quality. A monthly *nerrik*, or price current, is circulated for the information of visitors ; but, under existing regulations, its observance cannot be enforced on the dealers, though they almost invariably conform to it.

Mahabaleshwur is easily accessible both from Bombay and from the principal stations of the Deccan and Concan. The visitor from Bombay, by sailing down the coast to Bancoote, and thence up the Sawitree river to Mhar (a distance of seventy miles by sea and thirty by river), is brought within twenty-seven miles land journey from the hills ; or, should he object to even this short sea-trip, he can cross the harbour to Nagotna (which is effected in one tide), from which the distance by land is only seventy miles, along an excellent road, with a public bungalow at each stage. The distance from Poona, by an indifferent hilly route, is seventy miles, and from Sattara only thirty miles, by a very good carriage-road. The approach, both from the Concan and from the Deccan-side, is at all times safe, as there is no intervening jungle, and no danger to be apprehended from attacks of fever or other diseases of malarious origin.

This station was ceded to the British Government, by the Rajah of Sattara, in exchange for another village, and was annexed to the Zillah of the Concan.

The public buildings consist of a sanatorium, containing eight sets of quarters, and five detached bungalows, for the accommodation of sick officers and their families ; a church, which was built by private subscription, and accommodates 180 people ; a small subsidiary gaol, containing sixty Chinese convicts, who are employed in the construction and repair of roads, a chowrie, and a Dhurumsallah for native travellers. There is a subscription library, containing many hundred volumes, and a hotel, on a very small scale, has recently been completed.

The private dwelling-houses are seventy in number ; of which fifty-three are substantially built of hewn stone and lime, and the remainder of rough stone and mortar, sun-dried bricks, or wattle-work. The greater number of them are thatched, tiles having been found not to resist the monsoon rain. Allotments of ground, for building, are granted by Government on a twenty-one years' lease.

. It remains to add a brief outline of the physical and medical qualities of the climate.

The mean annual temperature of the station is $66^{\circ} 2'$, which approximates very closely to that of the Cape of Good Hope, and of New South Wales, and is nearly identical with the estimated mean temperature of the globe. The following summary embraces the principal particulars of the climate, as deduced from ten years' meteorological observations.

Mean annual temperature	$66^{\circ} 2'$
„ daily variation of temperature.....	$9^{\circ} 8'$
„ maximum temperature	$71^{\circ} 2'$
„ minimum temperature	$61^{\circ} 3'$
„ temperature of the cold season	$65^{\circ} 1'$
„ temperature of the hot season.....	$72^{\circ} 1'$
„ temperature of the rainy season.....	$63^{\circ} 8'$
„ temperature in the sun at mid-day, in cold season ..	$97^{\circ} 1'$
„ temperature in the sun at mid-day, in hot season..	$104^{\circ} 5'$
„ annual amount of rain..... inches	229.19
„ number of days in which rain falls.....	127

The influence of the climate upon the healthy constitution, forming what may be termed its physiological action, is stimulant and tame. In addition to the effects which usually result from a change from a warm to a cold climate in all latitudes and to all elevations, an improvement of the appetite, and of the digestive and of assimilative functions, and an increase of muscular and mental energy, there are experienced, in greater or less degree, at this station, a peculiar feeling of excitement, and a sense of dryness and constriction of the skin, which appear to be solely attributable to the effect of diminished atmospheric pressure, in exciting the circulating system, and in augmentation of cutaneous evaporation. It is the presence of this latter element in the constitution of inter-tropical mountain climates which emphatically distinguishes them from all other climates whose temperature is the effect of latitude, and which will ever render them inferior in therapeutic efficacy.

The climate of this station is inapplicable, if not positively injurious, in all acute inflammatory affections, and in the greater number of organic visceral diseases. On the other hand, it has been found beneficial in uncomplicated intermittent fevers ; in the greater number of functional disorders

of the digestive organs ; in general debility ; cachexia ; and impaired general health (unaccompanied by local disease), whether the result of long-continued exposure to a tropical climate, or of close application to official duty, and the sedentary life which usually accompanies it, or of tedious convalescence from acute disease. In a few forms of diarrhoea, such as those which depend on simple relaxation of the exhalent vessels of the bowels, or which occur in persons of a cachectic or strumous diathesis ; in some of the slighter and more chronic hepatic and spleen affections, provided they be unaccompanied by any evidence of morbid vascular excitement, general or local ; in some varieties of nervous and periodical head-aches ; in chronic rheumatism, occurring in a debilitated, or in a cachectic state of the system, and unaccompanied by any feverish tendency, or by morbid irritability of the bowels ; in various scrofulous affections, and in the precursory or incipient stage of pulmonary phthisis, where there are the usual constitutional indications of the tubercular diathesis, and where the existence of tubercular deposition in the lungs is suspected rather than unequivocally announced ; in the greater number of the varying modifications of disorder arising from, or co-existent with, functional uterine derangement, and in almost all the diseases incidental to infancy and childhood.

The agency of this climate in the preservation of health, and prevention of disease, is probably greater and more beneficial than its direct therapeutic efficacy, more particularly in relation to females and children. The practice, which is now so prevalent in the Bombay presidency, of withdrawing children from the pernicious influence of the excessive heat of the low country during the hot season, and of transferring them, during these months, to this temperate and equable climate, has the incalculably beneficial effect of warding off many of the acute attacks incident to childhood, and more especially to the period of dentition ; of supporting the energies of their constitution on a nearer level with the European standard during the first years of their growth, when such constitutional invigoration is of vital importance ; and of lessening the liability to future disease and future delicacy of constitution, to which all children, born and reared for some years in India, are more or less liable.

THE EASTERN ISLANDS AND MALAYAN PENINSULA.

The islands and places belonging to the East-India Company, and over which the Crown exercises dominion, are Penang, Malacca, and Singapore.

Penang, or Pulo-Penang, or Prince of Wales's Island, is situated near the north-western entrance to the Straits of Malacca. It is separated from the Malayan peninsula by an arm of the sea, and is about sixteen miles long and eleven miles broad at the northern extremity, diminishing to six miles of breadth as it approaches the south end. Its superficies may cover 160 square miles. About two-thirds of the island are mountains; the remainder is composed of two distinct flats or plains. The former consists of two ranges of unequal height and length, which run north and south. The principal or west range stretches from one end of the island to the other, but has a deep notch running across it, which separates the range into nearly two equal parts. This western range is lofty, rising out of the sea at its northern extremity, and gradually lowering as it approaches the southern end. The whole is covered with forest wood and jungle, excepting in a few places where it has been cleared for purposes of cultivation. The highest hill on this range is called "Western Hill." It is 2,922 feet above the level of the sea, and commanding an extensive view of sixty miles to the west and north. Next in height to this is the "Great Hill," or Flagstaff Hill, which is at the north of the eastern range. It stands about 2,500 feet above the sea. Here is a signal station, whence communication is made by telegraph to the fort below; and here also is a sanatorium for invalids, consisting of a few good and comfortable bungalows, supplied with glazed windows, and all the ordinary appurtenances of Anglo-Indian life. Pleasure-walks intersect the summit of the hills in the immediate vicinity of the two government bungalows—one of which is kept up for the accommodation of the Governor of the settlement, and the other, the "Convalescent" bungalow, is let out at a moderate rent for the convenience of invalid visitors. In the gardens are a variety of kinds of the English rose, flowers, and shrubs, and a kitchen-garden yields cabbage, turnips,

peas, potatoes, and strawberries, and most of the fruits and vegetables of India. The Convalescent Bungalow is let for one month at a time—officers in the Company's service have a preference over other individuals, when there is any competition for the use of the building ; when no officer applies, private individuals may use the house upon the same terms and rent.

A road through the forest connects the Great Hill with the Western Hill. It is three miles in length,—in no part very steep—in some parts nearly flat—throughout of a good width, generally in very passable order, and nearly in every part shaded by the wood at all times of the day. The other hills are named severally, Ferne Hill, Bellevue, Strawberry Hill, the Highlands of Scotland, and Mount Elvira, Clubley's and Ibbetson's Hills, and Belmont on the Pentland chain. On the summit of most of these hills are European dwellings, and clove and other plantations. On the eastern range of mountains, are Soongy Neebong Hill, Low's Hill (named after Captain Low, who constructed some excellent pieces of road on the island), Mount Rostaling, the highest point of the range, called Bookit Gambier (1,500 feet above the sea), Kocheye's Hill, and others.

Penang offers to the invalid in India all the advantages of a mild and varied climate. The temperature of the Great Hill is from 67° to 70° in the morning, and from 76° to 80° in the middle of the day. Exercise on foot can be taken without inconvenience from the heat of the sun until eight A. M., and after four P. M. The expenses of a single individual are not great. A table-servant, a lamplighter, a waterman, a cook, a syce, a washerman, a sweeper, and a bazaar-man (who all proceed daily into the plains to market for the invalid), cost forty-two Spanish dollars per month. Provisions are moderate, and can be obtained daily by the bazaar-man. The best bungalows on the hills may be rented for eighteen to fifty dollars, but the one on the Pentlands is seldom let out for rent ; the proprietor (hitherto) has liberally lent it to visitors, who may not have been otherwise accommodated.

Penang is one of the richest islands—considering its size and the quantity of land under cultivation—in the universe. Its staple produce consists of betel-nut, cocoa-nut, nutmegs,

and cloves. There are not fewer than 250,000 nutmeg-trees on the island and in the Province Wellesley, the annual yield of which ranges between twenty and twenty-five millions of nutmegs. The clove-trees are 80,000 in number, of which 30,000 to 40,000 bear fruit. The produce averages eighty piculs annually.

The town of Penang, called by the English George Town, with a fort named Fort Cornwallis, is situated on the north-eastern corner of the island, in lat. $5^{\circ} 25' N$. The local government of the island abides here—the Governor being a civilian of the East-India Company's service, and called a Resident Councillor. His authority also extends to Province Wellesley, a tract of land on the Malayan peninsula, opposite Penang, and sold to the British by the king of Queda, in the year 1800. The island was acquired from the same authority in 1785. He gave it to one Captain Light, as the marriage-portion of his daughter, whom Light espoused, and it was by Light transferred to the British government.

PENANG is separated into districts, some of which contain sufficiently remarkable objects.

In the district of *Tanjong Tokong*, which is bounded on the east by the sea, and on the north by the district of Tulloh Teecoose and the sea, is a rock called by the Chinese Pulo Ticoose, and consecrated by them as a temple. It has occasioned frequent disputes among the different sects, even to bloodshed, and one of the congsi, or communities, a few years ago, paid 450 dollars for the rock, and an acre of ground around it, that they might have a superior claim to the place. The spot is one of the most frequented in the settlement, from the number of Chinese who proceed thither laden with fruit and sweetmeats, offerings to the Jos. In this district is the Macao-Chinese burying-ground, and beyond the beach is an extensive tract of land, 300 acres in extent, entirely covered with pine apples.

Pulo Ticoose village, or Burmah town, situated south of Tanjong Tokong, contains several public buildings or institutions, of which the General College, or Anglo-Chinese College, is one. It is under the control of French missionaries. The main object of it is to educate young natives of China, Cochin China, Siam, &c., and to qualify them for admittance to sacred orders, or for the humbler but no less

important duty of native teachers. As the inmates of the institution belong to various nations, a language common to all is required, the Latin tongue supplies the deficiency, and becomes the usual channel for exchanging ideas. The college is situated close to the sea, and about half a mile from it is a Roman Catholic church.

In *Sepoy Line* and *Dhoby Ghaut* villages is the cantonment of the troops, who are employed in the defence of Penang—generally a detachment from the Madras army. The cantonment consists of Attop huts, built in rows running parallel, and intersected at right angles by others. Adjoining the cantonment is a parade-ground, a military hospital, adapted to the accommodation of fifty soldiers; a general hospital, a leper hospital, and lunatic asylum; a poor-house for the reception and maintenance of 100 poor and destitute people, and the remains of a reservoir. Half a mile east of the jail is a cenotaph, erected to the memory of Mr. David Brown, of Glugore, who, during a residence of twenty-five years in the island, prosecuted with great success the two professions of merchant and planter. When the price of Penang pepper fell, and would no longer yield a profit, he turned his attention to the growth of the nutmeg and clove—cleared extensive tracts of jungle, and fully established the capability of the island for that kind of cultivation.

The *Ayer Trujan* district, which embraces a large extent of forest and hill, and has as many as 32,000 betel-nut trees, contains a waterfall, which is justly regarded as one of the most interesting and pretty spots on the island. The height from the plain to where the stream, formed by the rains which have accumulated on the Great Hill and Highlands of Scotland, first breaks over the rocks, is nearly 500 feet, but the fall in its progress is broken at several places. Where it commences, the water turns abruptly over masses of grey granite, and falls nearly perpendicularly for about 200 feet—after that there is a succession of smaller falls.

In the *Ayer Etam* district, on a picturesque spot near the base of the west mountain range, are some mills, erected about the year 1808 by Lowe Ammee, a very indefatigable and intelligent Canton Chinaman, who had for some time before removed from Calcutta to the island, and established himself as a baker. The ground comprising this estate is

about twenty-six furlongs in extent, and was originally planted out with pepper, and yielded abundantly ; but, in consequence of the fall in price of the article, the plantation was neglected and ultimately allowed to go to ruin. Before this, however, Lowe Ammee substituted some cocoa-nut and other fruit trees for the withering pepper vines ; and perceiving the advantages which a commodious natural basin, situated in a commanding part of the estate, held out for erecting water-mills, by which he would be enabled with more facility to supply the daily-increasing demands on his bakery, he immediately commenced operations, by excavating and opening a course from numerous rills at the foot of the hills, from which the water was successfully conveyed into the basin. With the pecuniary assistance of a European merchant, and the encouragement held out to him by Admiral Sir Edward Pellew (afterwards Lord Exmouth), Lowe Ammee built the mills and a substantial bungalow contiguous to them, at a cost, it is said, of 40,000 dollars. The bungalow was converted into a splendid tavern for the accommodation and comfort of visitors, and there was a constant succession of pleasure parties to the mills ; and nothing was wanting which could give the highest gratification—convenient and airy apartments, neat and clean furniture, substantial and good fare, excellent wines, beer, &c., at moderate prices, together with two very comfortable separate bathing-houses for male and female visitors, built on the borders of the basin, and several shower-baths. This port being then the naval depôt, Lowe Ammee soon cleared his outlay, and in the year 1811, when the expedition proceeded to the conquest of Java, and the mills were working incessantly day and night, he gained nearly a lac of dollars on the bread and other supplies he furnished. Instead, however, of returning to China, as many of his friends recommended (being then advanced in years although in robust health), he resumed pepper-planting on large tracts of land, which not only cost an enormous expense in clearing, but still larger sums in the planting-out and taking care of the vines, which commence producing about the third year. Lowe Ammee now found his resources much cramped ; and every prospect of prices falling, he leased his plantations to a company of Chinese for trifling sums, and retired from business. After

selling his mills and other landed property, he returned to China about seventeen or eighteen years ago, at the advanced age of seventy-six years, respected by all classes of the community. The mills, &c., built by Ammee, are now in a complete state of ruin, and the floors of some of the out-houses are turned into vegetable gardens. Another mill, on a smaller scale, has been more recently erected ; and cold shower-baths are still kept up, to which Chinese and others frequently resort. The place is yet well worthy of a visit.

There is also a Hindoo Temple in this district, erected by a Bengalese washerwoman originally named Luckia, who came to this island from Calcutta, under the auspices of its founder, Mr. Light, accompanied by several followers, both male and female, of the same calling, perfectly versed in their business ; and such was the extent of the patronage she enjoyed, that in a very few years she became possessed of considerable property, and amongst the Hindoos acquired the *sobriquet* of Rannee Dobin, Queen Washerwoman. She shortly afterwards retired from business, in favour of her children and relatives ; but previously thereto, made suitable provisions for them and built the temple, which she endowed with ample rents derived from a fruit-garden. Owing, however, to the mismanagement by her executors of her charity, a few years after her death, no assets remained with which to make the requisite repairs of the temple, so that it soon became much dilapidated, and is now almost in ruins. The liberality of the old Rannee towards the poorer classes of the Hindoos was extensive and unceasing, and she continued to retain the respect and esteem of her countrymen, and no doubt would have lived many years longer ; but, having been discovered to be implicated in a very daring robbery which was committed in the Honourable Company's warehouse, about the year 1811, she was tried, found guilty, and sentenced to be put in the pillory and imprisoned for two years, which preyed so much upon her mind, that she did not long survive the termination of her sentence.

The largest burial-ground in the settlement is in the Batoo Souchong Jelutong district ; it belongs to the Chin-chew or Hokeon Chinese ; the one in the Tanjong Tokong district belongs to the Macao Chinese. A grant of a portion of the present burial-ground was obtained many years ago

from government ; but on its becoming filled, about forty-eight furlongs more were purchased by general subscription amongst the Chinchew Chinese community, and it now may occupy a space of eighty acres : there are, moreover, several private cemeteries belonging to different Chinese, and altogether Batoo Souchong has obtained from these people a preference, for this purpose, over all other parts of the island. A hilly situation is generally chosen, the highest points of which are preferred, being, as they suppose, nearest to heaven ; and their practice in depositing the body is to place the head upwards, and the feet, of course, directed towards the hill : a tablet, when erected, is always fixed at the foot of the grave, so that on one side of the hill the tablets will all look to the east, on another side to the west, &c. A stone wall of a foot or eighteen inches in height encloses an oval-shaped piece of ground in front of the tablet, the surface of which is levelled and polished with chunam ; a gutter runs through the wall, and opens a little way down the hill, which serves to carry off the rain or water collected from the grave, or the surface of the tablet further up. Sometimes two or more graves are placed parallel and close to each other : in such cases there is only one oval space in front common to all ; each, however, is furnished with a tablet, but generally there is an inscription on only one of these, which indicates it to be the grave of the head of the family. A small stone will usually be observed at the left-hand side of the oval space ; this is to commemorate the Tokong of the dead, at which the relatives of the deceased annually offer prayers and sacrifices for his benefit. A Chinaman feels great concern for the comfort of his remains : these are often directed to be sent in a substantial box, made of hard planks, several inches in diameter, which he had procured for the purpose before his death, furnished with several, but always an odd number of, suits of clothes, and with articles of diet of every kind, to be deposited in a tomb, the building of which he had himself superintended. The tomb of the Che Wan, one of the first settlers in the island, and a man of considerable note in his day, is well worth looking at : he spent the last two years of his life in erecting it, and the granite of which it is built was cut into pillars under his own eye ; after it was completed, he actually lived in it as a hermit

for a few months before his death, and, after his health had suffered much, he was forcibly removed by his relatives to his house in town, where he died a few days after. The coffin is of so substantial a material, that the body, after being deposited in it, was kept in the house for several months before interment, without inconvenience or smell. Sim Wha, a wealthy Chinese merchant, who died here, was thus kept for three months and a half, and was then buried in a private piece of ground in this district, and there is a fine tomb now erected over this spot. Fickyua, a Macao Chinese, died here some years ago, and his body was kept in a coffin for upwards of twelve months, and thereafter shipped in a vessel to Macao.

In the Jelutong village in the district Zallah Jelutong, extensive piggeries have also been for some time erected; the refuse of the cocoa-nuts after the oil has been extracted, supplies food for the hogs, and the town is principally furnished with pork from this village. It is now one of the most populous villages in the settlement. The canine species are here exceedingly numerous, and most troublesome to passengers. It is scarcely possible to pass without being beset with twenty or thirty half-starved yelping curs, which have neither music in their voice, nor beauty in their form. Dog-flesh is known to form an article of food with the Chinese; the Macao Chinese are especially fond of it, and no dish is relished by them more than that made from a fat dog. There is a particular species called the *chowchow* dog, which is the only kind valued for its meat. The dogs of this breed have black tongues and long hair; the altogether black or white ones are preferred. The Chinese of the Bali Pulo district feed dogs for the purpose, which they first castrate, so as to produce in them a disposition to obesity, and by this means and good living they succeed wonderfully in producing dogs as fat as, and having much the appearance of, pigs. They form a great contrast to the miserable wretches noticed in this district.

MALACCA.—Six centuries ago Malacca was a jungle. Under the influence of the exertions of the Hindoo-Malay emigrants from Singapore, civilisation rapidly advanced, and while the country gradually assumed the aspect of antiquity, the coast for many miles was converted into one continuous

market-place, where a trading population of 200,000 persons were established, and to which vessels resorted from India, Arabia, China, and all parts of the Indian Archipelago. During the next 130 years, Portugal, in its palmyest time, impressed an European character on Malacca ; and then, for a still longer period, a more kindred nation, the Dutch, prepared it for the reception of English residents. This successive infusion of new ideas and new habits, has given to Malacca a very peculiar and very attractive character. At this day all the races who have one after another predominated, as well as many others who, without possessing authority, have played the most important part in its history, exist, not only distinct, but co-mixed. Prejudices of blood and religion have been broken down or subdued. Each tribe, more or less, cut off from the powerful segregating influences that reign in its native land, and subjugated to the fraternising force of common pursuits and constant intercourse, has found nature stronger than prejudices. Christian and heathen, Papist and heretic, men of every tongue, and race, and colour, not only live in perfect harmony, but mingle their blood without any misgivings. It would have been a sin against Nature, here so gracious and bounteous, had humanity proved more stubborn. This harmonious diversity, which marks the people themselves, extends to their architecture and all their habits of life. The great cause of this peculiar character of Malacca is the fertility and beauty of the country, and the remarkable purity and salubrity of the air. Nature has been profusely bountiful to the Malay Peninsula, in bestowing on it a climate the most agreeable and healthful—a soil luxuriantly fertilized by numerous rivers, and the face of the country diversified with hills and valleys, mountains and plains, forming the most beautiful and interesting scenery that it is possible for the imagination to figure. Yet under the Dutch government no attempt was made to evolve the rich products of the land. Through the narrow and sordid policy which marked their rule in the Straits, the country continued in a state of primitive nature, but no sooner were the restrictions of the Dutch taken off by the English, and full liberty given to every species of agriculture, than industry began to show itself very rapidly. The district produces sufficient grain for the consumption of

the settlement, and a superfluity is left for exportation. The paddy (rice in the husk) grows most luxuriantly, and yields from two to three hundred fold. The vegetation is abundant, beyond what is to be met with in any other part of India; the sugar-cane is equal to any produced in Java, and far exceeds that of Bengal; coffee, cotton, indigo, chocolate, pepper, and spices have all been tried and found to thrive remarkably well. The spontaneous productions of the soil are very numerous, consisting of an almost endless variety of the richest and most delicious fruits; amongst which the far-famed mangosteen holds the first rank, and attains a higher perfection here than probably anywhere else; indeed, Malacca stands quite unrivalled in the quantity, variety, and agreeable flavour of its fruits. The country is covered with very fine and durable timber for ship and house building, although not enriched with forests of teak. But it is from her tin mines that Malacca draws the largest portion of her wealth. Five years ago no less than forty tin mines were in operation, and from that time the number has greatly increased. The stream tin of the Malayan peninsula, however, is so abundant that ages may elapse before it will be necessary to resort to the process of mining to any larger extent. This stanniferous region is so great that, although it has long been wrought, not a single valley has been thoroughly worked, and not one valley in a thousand has probably been touched. The stream tin of Great Britain sufficed for the wants of centuries, and even with the vastly increased demand of the present age, it is impossible to predict the time when the alluvial tin of a region so many times greater than the stanniferous tracts of Great Britain will be exhausted. The capability of Malacca for the productions of superior sugar are now being tested by Sugar Companies, and a large addition to the revenue is the result of this just appreciation of the richness of the soil.

The port of Malacca is beyond all comparison the most convenient of any in the Straits for ships to touch at for refreshments, and the supplies procurable here are most abundant, and at very reasonable rates. All kinds of poultry, fish, vegetables, fruit, &c., are to be had at all seasons of the year. Oxen cannot be obtained, but buffaloes are very plentiful, and of the finest kind. Sheep are scarce—they are all

imported from Bengal'; but goats and hogs may be procured at moderate prices. Nothing can more strongly prove to what extent supplies are obtainable at Malacca than the fact of the expedition to Java having rendezvoused there in 1811, during which period not less than 30,000 men were furnished daily with fresh provisions of every kind in the greatest abundance.

The climate of Malacca is one of the best in India. The extremes of heat and cold are never experienced—the temperature is of the most agreeable uniformity. The thermometer ranges from 72° to 85° throughout the year, seldom exceeding the latter, or falling much below the former. The mornings and evenings are particularly cool and refreshing, and the nights are seldom hot and sultry. There are regular dry and rainy monsoons at Malacca as on the continent of India; the rains, however, are more constant and heavy in the months of September, October, and part of November, than during the rest of the year; and from the month of December to the middle of March, whilst the north-east wind blows the strongest, the weather is considerably drier than in the other months. Very little variation takes place in the barometer at Malacca; during the year it is found to fluctuate between 30° 3' the highest—and 29° 33' the lowest, giving an annual variation of only one-fifth of an inch.

The population of Malacca amounts to about 50,000 persons. The census in 1818 gave a population of 25,000. In 1836 it had increased to 36,700 souls; the greater portion of whom are Chinese labourers.

Malacca is under the government of one of the councillors to whom the Straits are intrusted. The Recorder of Penang administers justice here upon the principles of English law recognised throughout the Presidencies of India.

SINGAPORE is a small island at the southern extremity of Malaya. It was purchased by our government from a native chief in 1819. Commanding by its situation the navigation of the Straits, and possessing as it does a good harbour, it has become a place of great commercial importance.

The establishment of Singapore as a free port was the leading and first offspring of that enlarged and liberal policy which has practically led to a recognition of the principle of

free trade ; right well has it sustained the opinion then formed—an opinion since admitted as an axiom in tradal economy—that, to be prosperous and progressive, trade must be free. Singapore, a small island, situated in the embouchure of straits difficult of navigation, without internal resources adequate for the food of its inhabitants, limited in extent, and wholly dependent upon the advantages a free port derives from the circumstance of a total absence of commercial restriction, has risen up from a small and insignificant speck in the Straits of Malacca to be a British settlement, and to form an entrepôt for the manufactured industry of Great Britain, second only in importance to the extensive and cherished colony of Australasia.

As a spice-producing settlement, Singapore disappointed the hopes that formed the chimerical reason for its establishment ; but, as an entrepôt of trade, its commercial value has exceeded the most sanguine expectations. Happily for the colony, its institution and early growth were placed under the fostering care of a man of genius—one of a liberal mind and a man enthusiastically devoted to fully developing the resources of the colony. We refer to the amiable and accomplished Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles, Bart., whose name and memory are connected with everything calculated to advance the happiness of mankind. The settlement, notwithstanding many difficulties which would have prostrated the energies of other than English commercialists, rapidly advanced.

Commercially and politically considered, the progressive spirit of tradal enterprise, as manifested at Singapore, has been uninterrupted. It is true, causes have been in operation to restrict or retard mercantile operations ; but still, the onward progress has been one either of unexampled but temporary prosperity, or (what is far preferable) of positive stability. It is not from flitting and temporary cheerfulness, brought about by apparent prosperity, that commercial economists draw their inferences—which varies with the influences in operation and ceases with the vivacity of their action—it is the positive stability which a branch of trade assumes that forms the ground of congratulation. The position in tradal economics, just mentioned, Singapore has attained. The entire trade of the place, in 1823-24, did not amount to one crore and forty lacs of rupees ; in 1833-34,

the tradal commercial values were set down at less than two crores of rupees; in 1845-46 (a year somewhat below the average of the immediately preceding years), the returns exhibit a total value of more than four crores of rupees, and in the last year, 1853, they did not fall short of six crores.

The opening of the five ports in China, following immediately in the path of peace with the Celestial empire, raised enlarged expectations in Europe of the advantages; resulting from the intercourse which would follow the introduction of European fabrics into the heart of China.

Not to enter on the discussion of the fallacy of Utopian tradal facility which the opening of the five ports cherished throughout Europe, an impetus was given to commercial enterprise which augmented greatly the number of European merchants at China and Singapore.

At the latter place six new firms were established, whilst some of the long-established merchants opened branch houses in China, with the view of participating in the advantages offered there, and of carrying on a material portion of the trade which it was expected would be removed from Singapore thence. In China, some hundred firms, or more, have been established since 1840. The business at Singapore was formerly divided amongst twelve European houses, instead of eighteen, as at present. Some of the new firms have exhibited a spirit of commercial rivalry, so as to urge the elder ones to renewed exertions.

A very few years ago, the whole of this island was only one great jungle, which merely required capital and enterprise to convert it into one of the most lovely and productive spots on the face of the globe. Within the past ten years, however, numerous plantations of sugar and cloves have been laid out, and cocoa-nut groves have been planted, and there is good reason to believe, that under an active and fostering government the anticipations as to the beauty and prosperity of the island will be realized. A wonderful increase has taken place in the population. In 1823 it did not exceed (in round numbers) 10,000 persons, of whom 4,500 were Malays, 3,200 Chinese, and only seventy Europeans. In 1845, the census exhibited 204 Europeans, 6,000 Malays, and 32,132 Chinese, of whom 28,765 were males. A much greater number of Chinese is now to be found on

the island, owing to the sugar plantations, which have greatly increased.

Singapore being a free port, great numbers of vessels from the eastward resort to the island, landing their cargoes, which are then carried thence by other vessels trading to the westward. The Governor of the Straits' settlements has his head-quarters at Singapore, and here also reside a considerable number of merchants and planters.

Besides the sugar and spices grown here, Singapore and its vicinity yield the gutta-percha tree. Although the trees yielding gutta percha abound in the indigenous forests of Malaya, it is only ten years since the substance was discovered and its utility appreciated by Europeans. The gutta-percha tree, or gutta tubon, as it ought more properly to be called—the percha producing a spurious article—belongs to the natural family *Sapotex*, but differs so much from all described genera, having alliance with both arras and bassia, but varying in some essentials from both, that it is entitled to rank as a new genus. The tree is of large size, from sixty to seventy feet in height, and from two to three in diameter. Its general appearance resembles the genus *Durio*, or well-known Doorian, so much so as to strike the most superficial observer. The under surface of the leaf, however, is of a more reddish and decided brown than the *Durio*, and the shape is somewhat different. The range of its growth appears to be considerable; it being found all up the Malayan peninsula as far as Penang, where it is abundant, although the inhabitants were not aware of the fact for some time, several of the mercantile houses there having sent down orders to Singapore for supplies of the article, when they had the means of supply close at hand. The tree is also found in Borneo, and most of the islands adjacent.

The localities it particularly likes are the alluvial traces along the foot of hills, where it flourishes luxuriantly, forming, in many spots, the principal portion of the jungle. But notwithstanding the indigenous character of the tree, its apparent abundance, and wide-spread diffusion, the gutta will soon become a very scarce article, if some more provident means be not adopted in its collection than that at present in use by the Malays and Chinese. The mode in which the natives obtain the gutta, is by cutting down the

trees of full growth, and ringing the bark at distances of about twelve to eighteen inches apart, and placing a cocoa-nut shell, spathe of a palm, or such-like receptacle, under the fallen trunk to receive the milky sap that immediately exudes upon every fresh incision. This sap is collected in bamboos, taken to their houses, and boiled, in order to draw off the watery particles, and inspissate it to the consistence it finally assumes. Although the process of boiling appears necessary when the gutta is collected in a large quantity, if a tree be freshly wounded, a small quantity allowed to exude, and it be collected and moulded in the hand, it will consolidate perfectly in a few minutes, and have all the appearance of the prepared article. When it is quite pure the colour is of a grayish white, but as brought to market it is more ordinarily found of a reddish hue, arising from chips of bark that fall into the sap in the act of making the incisions, and which yield their colour to it. Besides these accidental chips, there is a great deal of intentional adulteration, by sawdust and other materials. Even in the purest specimens, one pound of the substance yields, on being cleaned, one ounce of impurities. Fortunately it is neither difficult to detect nor clean the gutta of foreign matter; it being only necessary to boil it in water until well softened, roll out the substance into thin sheets, and pick out all impurities, which is easily done, as the gutta does not adhere to anything, and all foreign matter is merely entangled in its fibres, not incorporated with its substance. The quantity of solid gutta obtained from each tree varies from five to twenty cotties, so that, taking the average at ten cotties, which is a tolerably liberal one, it will require the destruction of ten trees to produce one picul.

Gutta percha, when fresh and pure, is not affected by boiling alcohol, but dissolves readily in boiling spirits of turpentine, also in naptha and coal-tar. A good cement for luting bottles and other purposes, is formed by boiling together equal parts of gutta, coal-tar, and resin. When required for use, it can always be made plastic by putting the pot containing it over the fire for a few minutes. The gutta itself is highly inflammable; a strip cut off takes light, and burns with a bright flame, emitting sparks, and dropping a black residuum in the manner of sealing-wax, which in its

combustion it very much resembles. But the great peculiarity of this substance, and that which makes it so eminently useful for many purposes, is the effect of boiling water upon it. When immersed for a few minutes in water above 150 degrees of Fahr., it becomes soft and plastic, so as to be capable of being moulded to any required shape or form, which it retains upon cooling. If a strip of it be cut off and plunged into boiling water, it contracts in size, both in length and breadth. This is a very anomalous and remarkable phenomenon, apparently opposed to all the laws of heat. It is this plasticity when plunged into boiling water that has allowed of its being applied to so many useful purposes, and which first induced some Malays to fabricate it into whips, which were brought into town, and led to its further notice. The natives subsequently extended these manufactures to buckets, basins and jugs, shoes, traces, vessels for cooling wine, and several other domestic uses; it has now been for some years in universal use in Europe.

Of all the purposes, however, to which it may be adapted, none is so valuable as its applicability to the practice of surgery. Here it becomes one of the most useful auxiliaries to that branch of the healing art, which of all is the least conjectural. Its easy plasticity and power of retaining any shape given to it when cool, at once pointed it out as suitable for the manufacture of many instruments which hitherto had been made of India-rubber and leather.

CEYLON.

THIS island is called by the inhabitants *Singhala*. It is inhabited chiefly by a race of men similar in their physical characteristics to the natives of the south of India, but for the most part of the Buddhist, and not of the Brahminical species of the general religion of India; and after having been in part subdued, and for a time occupied, first by the Portuguese, and then by the Dutch, it is now wholly conquered and possessed by the British, as a colony in immediate dependence on the Queen's government. Although situated nearer to the equator than is the Indian peninsula, the meteorological position of Ceylon is a more advantageous one, so that its climate is milder and more

equable, its surface is better watered, to which also the nature of its geological formation contributes ; and in consequence of all this, and of its peculiar political condition, it affords a very favourable specimen of the most fertile and productive of the intertropical regions of Asia. Ceylon is egg-shaped, with 220 miles of extreme length by 145 of extreme breadth, and its coast is very little broken by inlets or other irregularities of outline. It presents to the eye the general aspect of a region of irregularly-disposed mountain ranges, several of the peaks being of great height, and the whole surrounded by a wide belt of more champagne country on the sea-coast, intersected by many rivers, of extremely circuitous course, and covered with vegetation, including a great variety of fruit and forest trees and shrubs, affording, for its principal agricultural productions, the cocoa, banana, and areca palms (with arrack, oil, and coir cordage, made from the cocoa tree), cinnamon, coffee, tobacco, sugar, both of the cane and the cocoa-tree, and rice, which is the principal food of the inhabitants. In addition to these agricultural productions, its land or its sea affords to commerce several varieties of building, cabinet, and dye woods, buck-horns, gems, chank shells, and pearls. It abounds in elephants ; but these are of little use in commerce, as they generally afford no ivory, and have ceased to be much in demand for war and labour, and they are slaughtered in great numbers as wild game, and to deliver the cultivators from the injury they do to the crops. Ceylon consists, with reservation of parts of the sea-coast, and of some few exceptional substances in the interior, wholly of primitive rock, as green-stone, granite, agenite, and especially gneiss ; these rocks, in every degree of combination, forming the body of the island, and the soil consisting of its disintegrated or decomposed ingredients, in which felspar and quartz greatly predominate, enriched, in some parts, though very slightly, by vegetable accretions, and by natural or artificial irrigation. Among the mineral substances, exceptional to the general substance of the interior of the island, are nitre caves, plumbago, manganese, and iron ores, and small ledges of dolomite. Gold and quicksilver are spoken of by some authors ; but Davy and other careful inquirers positively aver that no such things are to be found in Ceylon. The mountains and hills of Ceylon, according to

what is usual elsewhere, in the case of rocks of the same family, generally have rounded summits and sides, but with deep valleys and ravines, in which the rivers flow. It is a singularity of their structure here, that with scarcely a marked exception, all the valleys have outlets, and it is very rare to see in the interior a lake or a pond. All the valley bottoms and descending gorges, as well as the levels, are planted with rice, the soil, where the nature of the ground requires it, being trained into terraces, one above the other, fronted with small embankments, which retain the water, and afford the means of crossing the overflowed paddy fields. In certain parts of the island the earth is capable of being cut up into cubical lumps, of a substance called by the natives cabook, which is much used in building walls, as a substitute for brick. It is a highly felspathic granite rock, in a state of imperfect decomposition, and the great quantity of felspar occurring in parts of the island, gives to the soil of those tracts a hardish clayey structure, which is very distinguishable in the smooth and firm surface of the roadsides in the interior, wherever the disposition of the ground has given occasion for deep cuts. The circumstances of produce and manufacture, which are quite special to Ceylon, are the cinnamon culture, the cocoa culture, the chank and pearl fishery; the building, cabinet, and dye woods, and precious stones. The cinnamon culture in its perfect state is almost a monopoly of the island of Ceylon, and its growth is confined to a very narrow tract of land on the south-west side of the island, chiefly in the neighbourhood of Colombo; this does not seem to be the result of political arrangement merely, but to arise from some inappreciable virtue in the combination of climate, soil, and water, and their relation to each other in the island of Ceylon, and in this part of it. Some of these peculiarities it is easy to indicate, without its being so easy to understand why the particular consequence should follow.

The cinnamon-tree (*Laurus cinnamomum*) in its natural state grows to the height of about twenty feet; but the bark, which is the only valuable part, is found to lose much of its highly aromatic quality in the mature tree. Accordingly the trees are cut young, when the stems are only five or six feet long, and less than an inch thick at the largest end.

The bark is then stripped, or peeled off in long pieces like willow bark, scraped carefully to preserve its cuticle, and laid out to dry, in doing which it curls up in quills, as they are called, and it is then ready for the market ; but improves by keeping for a while. The wood is good for nothing but fuel. Owing to this mode of cultivation, the cinnamon garden has very much the appearance of a forest of seruk oak, the rich bright green leaves of the small trees being strikingly in contrast with the white sand of the plain in which they grow. It is possible that the fragrance of the cinnamon groves may have been sensible to voyagers along the coast of Ceylon, but there is very little of this fragrance perceptible in the gardens themselves, and the idea of its extending out to sea is laughed at in Colombo. The cocoa-tree culture is the next in order. In the moist, warm climate of Ceylon, many species of palm flourish, and they constitute a class of objects amongst the most beautiful in the landscapes of the island : they are of great and various uses in the arts of life and in commerce. The talipot, the areca, the banana, the royal cocoa, and the ordinary cocoa trees, are the most conspicuous and interesting of the trees of this class. The cocoa-tree above all is valuable, not only for its esculent nut and its milk, but for the arrack, the sugar, the oil, the cordage, the thatching, and other secondary things, which are derived from its trunk, its fruit, or its leaves—in consequence of which every cocoa-tree is a precious property, and is the subject of a tax to the government. Thirdly—the chank and pearl fisheries. All the women of India are accustomed to wear a number of rings on their ankles and arms, especially on the latter ; these are made sometimes of metal, sometimes of other materials, among which a large shell found in the waters of Ceylon, a species of *Buccinum*, is very much in request, and of which a great amount is sent to other parts of British India. But the demand for pearls is still more universal in the East ; and their adoption as an article of personal ornament in Christendom also extends the demand to Europe. The pearl oyster-beds lie in the Straits of Manaar, between Ceylon and the mainland of India. These two fisheries are held by the government, and farmed out to individuals, under very stringent regulations—the pearl oyster-beds, especially, require repose for the renovation and

growth of the oyster, without which the whole fishery would soon be exhausted by irregular divers, and thus destroyed. Accordingly, it is only at intervals of several years that pearl-fishing is permitted by the government. Fourthly,—as to the building, cabinet, and dye woods. Of these a great diversity is found in Ceylon, among which the most noticeable are—teak-wood, ebony (*Diospyrus ebenus*), calamander-wood, jack-wood (*Artocarpus integrifolia*), black-wood (*Dalbergia latifolia*), nepan-wood, satin-wood, sandal-wood (*Santalum album*); some of the foregoing woods are very beautiful, but they do not equal in beauty the mahogany, maple, black walnut, curled birch, cherry tree, and others, which are commonly employed for cabinet-work in America and Europe. Sapan-wood (*Casalpinia sapan*), to which add, though it be not a forest-tree, the dye-root called chay; this is a plant cultivated for the roots alone, which furnished the colouring matter of the durable red for which the chintzes of India are famous: the wild plant in Ceylon is considered preferable to the cultivated, and the right to dig for it is farmed out. This dye-stuff has been tried in Europe, but not with very advantageous results.

The highest mountain in Ceylon is Adam's Peak. It is about 8,000 feet above the level of the sea, and has seldom been ascended, because of the difficulty of the latter part of the ascent, which is quite perpendicular. To the followers of Buddha and Mahomet, the summit of the mountain is equally the centre of attraction, as the monument of the life and existence of an extraordinary man. The former assert that on one of Buddha's visits to the island, he left the impression of his foot, as an evidence of his power and an object of worship for his followers; the Mahomedans, on the other hand, contend that Adam, after spending his paradisaical happiness in Ceylon, endured there his penance likewise, subsequently to his fall, by standing on the summit of the peak on one foot for a long series of years, and that hence arose the impression. But were there even no traditions of the sort to hallow the mountain, its extreme height, its peculiar shape, and the distance to which it can be seen at sea, would alone render it worthy of attention to all who visit the island. The foot impression upon the summit has probably had a longer period of reputed sanctity and worship

than any other object of reverence in the East ; but, according to a late traveller, the impression, like most other natural curiosities of the same kind, is a complete deception. The summit of the mountain is rocky and surrounded by a wall about five feet high, in the shape of an irregular hexagon, by the side of which a level path has been formed, encircling the rocks, which rise to a height of about eight feet in the centre (on the top of which is the holy foot-print), and which are again overtopped by the wooden temple surmounting it. "In the rock itself," writes a recent visitor, "there is no indentation resembling a footstep, and were it not that some judicious devotees have made a good use of mortar and a trowel, the visitor would gaze for a long time before he would fancy he saw anything of the kind. Even, as it is, were the plastered separations of the toes removed, one would be much more ready to take it for the impression of a door with a semicircular top than for that of a foot; it is about four feet and a half long, by two feet and a quarter broad. During the months of visitation by the pilgrims, it is preserved, by a metal cover glittering with glass diamonds, from the too inquiring gaze of unbelieving or wavering sceptics. The border which makes the outline of the impression is about four inches broad, made of coarse lime, painted ; and the temple which surmounts *the imposition* is about six feet by five in extent. It is supported by chains running from the corners of the roof to the outside of the walls, where they are firmly fastened to the rock."

COLOMBO—the capital and seat of the British government in Ceylon, is situated on the north-west coast, in $6^{\circ} 56'$ north latitude, and $79^{\circ} 49'$ east longitude, and 368 miles south-west of Madras. It is a commonly received opinion that the name was derived from a mango-tree (of that species which the Singhalese call *colomba*) which stood conspicuous at this place in olden times. Knox adds that the Portuguese, in compliment to Columbus, the celebrated navigator, changed it to Columbo or Colombo. This etymology is, however, inadmissible, for in the Singhalese grammar, "*Sidahartha Sangraha*," the word *Colomba* is explained as signifying a "sea-port," and also "a fort ;" and in the former sense it seems to have been applied to the metropolis of the island, from its maritime situation. The fort of Colombo is situated

on a small projection of land washed by the sea, about two-thirds of its extent. Though not very extensive, it is strong both by art and nature, and embraces a circuit of nearly a mile and a quarter. The ramparts are very strong, having eight principal bastions, and a number of lesser works communicating one with the other all round. At the foot of the ramparts, on the inside, is a boundary which extends round the whole fort, and communicates with the bastions and soldiers' barracks, and also affords, at the different angles, open spaces for their private parades. The whole of the fort is surrounded (except that side which is next the sea) by a deep ditch or fosse ; and adjoining the covert-way, and at the foot of the glacis, is a lake having communication with the Mutwal river. In the interior of the fort are several straight and regular streets, with smaller ones crossing at right angles ; the former being ornamented with double rows of sooria-trees, which afford a delightful shade. The residence of the governor, the King's House, is in King Street, and behind it is the Lighthouse, a beautiful edifice, the light of which is ninety-seven feet above the level of the sea, and in clear weather may be seen as far as the light is visible above the horizon. All the Military Offices, the Commissioner of Revenue, the Vice Admiralty Court, with the General Post Office, are within the fort ; there are, besides, an English church styled St. Peter's, a library, a medical museum, a hospital, two hotels, and numerous shops. The lake at the back of the fort, before alluded to, almost insulates the town, connected as it is with the Mutwal river by canals ; and a lock having been formed at St. Sebastian's, the inland navigation is carried through the fort to the sea-beach. In the centre of the lake is a tongue of land, denominated Slave Island, from the use to which it was formerly applied by the Dutch. It is numerously covered with cocoa-nut and other trees, which afford an excellent shade. That part nearest to the fort is very cool, being only separated from the sea by an isthmus, usually called the Galle Face. Communication with this place with either the town or the fort is very easy by land, passing over a very pretty little stone bridge, which opens to the south end of the Galle Face, near the village of Colbetty, or by boats which cross the lake in all seasons.

Slave Island is the head-quarters of the Ceylon Rifle

Regiment, and there are some tolerably good houses, usually occupied by the officers of this regiment. Here also are the Ceylon and Oriental Banks, the Savings' Bank, and the Council Room, where also is the Office of the Colonial Secretary. Colombo has a small harbour in the form of a semicircle, but it is not capable of admitting vessels exceeding 200 tons ; ships therefore of larger burdens are anchored in the roads. During the prevalence of the south-west monsoon (from April to October), the best anchorage is found in from seven to eight fathoms, with the lighthouse bearing south by east, half-east, and the Dutch church east by south ; and in the north-east monsoon (from November to April), it is more convenient to anchor in six-and-a-half fathoms, the lighthouse bearing south, or south-half-east, and the Dutch church east-south-east. The town or pettah of Colombo is regularly built, and divided into fifteen streets, which run east and west, and the others cross them at right angles. Each street has its particular name, which is generally notified in a conspicuous manner at the corner. The houses are built of cabook, and neatly whitewashed with chunam ; some of them have two stories, and all are lofty, and present rather a good appearance.

Among the public buildings may be named the Supreme Court-house, the Offices of the Provincial Judge, magistrate and fiscal, a Gaol, and a Cutcherry, where the collector of the district transacts business : but none of them merit particular notice. There is also a Library belonging to the burghers, a Small-pox Hospital, a Masonic Hall, two theatres, and numbers of religious edifices. The Wolfendahl Church (usually called the Dutch Church), erected by the Dutch governor, Gollennesse, in the year 1746, is a lofty building in the form of a cross, and stands on a hill in the centre of the town. It belongs to the Presbyterians, who are chiefly descendants of the Dutch, and has an excellent organ, but there is so powerful an echo in the building, that the words of the preacher are almost unintelligible. By order, of Sir Robert Brownrigg, the remains of several Dutch governors, who had been interred in the fort, were removed, with every mark of respect, and deposited in this church. The Malabar Episcopalian Church, called St. Thomas's, stands likewise on a hill, near the Chitty's quarter, the front facing the sea. It

is a neat building, erected by Sir Robert Brownrigg ; and to this was added a commodious school-room for the use of the children belonging to that class of inhabitants. St. Paul's Church, which belongs to the Portuguese Protestants, is a neat structure, near Kayman's Gate, having been built by subscription, chiefly through the zeal of Archdeacon Twisleton.

In the quarter occupied by the washermen stands their church, and besides this, there are several other places of worship in the suburbs of the town, belonging to the established religion ; there are numerous chapels belonging to the Roman Catholics, the Wesleyan Methodists, and the Baptists ; the principal chapel for the Roman Catholics is situated in the suburbs, and is called St. Lucia ; the Vicar-general resides here, and the annual conference is held on the 15th of August, when the missionaries (who belong to the congregation of the Order of St. Philip-Nein of Goa) are changed from one station to another ; the Wesleyan Chapel is about a mile from the fort, and in form an amphitheatre (after the model of the Brunswick Chapel at Liverpool), with three rows of elevated seats nearly all round. It is furnished in that style of neatness and simplicity, suitable to a missionary place of worship, and is capable of accommodating from 500 to 600 auditors. The Hindoos have two temples, one in the Silversmith's quarter, and another in Sea-Street, but they are neither splendid nor richly endowed, as on the continent of India. The Mahomedan mosque at Marandhan presents an appearance of grandeur, but the one in the Moors' quarter greatly exceeds it in splendour, having a beautiful minaret in front. There are several bazaars, or market places, for fish, flesh, fruits, garden-herbs, &c. ; there are also two steam-engines, and several native presses, used for manufacturing cocoa-nut oil.

The commerce of Colombo, both external and internal, is very extensive and increasing :—the exports to Europe are cinnamon, pepper, coffee, cocoa-nut oil, plumbago, cordage, arrack, cardamums, elephant-tusks, deer-horns, tortoise-shells, ebony, satinwood, &c. ; and the imports are cotton piece-goods, flannel, hosiery, hats, wine, beer, brandy, hams, salt-provisions, confectionery, perfumery, chocolate, preserves, snuff, earthenware, cutlery, glassware, ironmongery, stationery, paint, oilman's stores, medicines, and, in short, everything of

European manufacture. The exports to the British colonies consist of arrack, coffee, areca-nuts, copperas, cocoa-nuts, nookah-shells, coir, nissera-laths, bêche-de-mer, shark-fins, fish-oil, &c., in return for which are imported rice, paddy, wheat, cloth, silk, sugar, spices, drugs, &c. A trade is carried on with the interior, both by land and water, the Kalain Ganga being navigable for a considerable distance from its mouth. By this source, great quantities of goods are at first received, and afterwards dispersed through the country. Some intercourse is carried on with the Maldivé islands, but the cargo of the prows which arrive from thence, chiefly consists of cublemas (fish).

The district dependent on Colombo, embraces an area of 1,472 square miles, with 203,242 inhabitants, of whom 65,193 are employed in agriculture, 6,060 in manufactures, and 10,388 in commerce. There were formerly many slaves; the greater part of them, however, have been manumitted by their masters, and the numbers of those who have not yet shared this benefit amounts only to 267. The climate of Colombo is considered very salubrious: the air is at all times pure and healthy, and the mean daily variation of the temperature is from 76° to $86\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ Fahrenheit. Rain often falls in torrents, and is generally accompanied with dreadful storms of thunder and lightning.

General Notes of the Weather at Colombo.—Mean temperature about 80° Fahr. Monthly variation never exceeding 3° Fahr. January.—This month may be conveniently taken as the commencement of the meteorological as well as of the civil year. The rains which accompany the setting in of the north-east monsoon are usually just over, the soil is moist, the sky is clear, and the nights cold, with an along-shore or land-wind blowing, which must be guarded against. February.—The along-shore wind (a strong parching wind from the north-east) often continues to blow the greater part of this month, night and day. It carries off the moisture of the ground and skin rapidly, and gives rheumatism, &c., to those who expose themselves incautiously to it. The difference between the wet bulb and the dry thermometer sometimes amounts to 12° . March.—The dry earth now receives far more heat from the sun than it parts with by evaporation or terrestrial radiation. The weather is becoming very warm; the

calmness of the ocean, however, and the alternate sea-breezes by day and land-winds by night, give a pleasing variety ; but the heat is oppressive compared with that of the rest of the year. April.—Indications of the approach of the south-west monsoon are to be observed in a ground swell in the sea, and a south-west breeze more steady than the sea-breeze of last month. The temperature, however, continues to rise, and all who can afford it, obtain leave or escape, and are among the mountains. May.—By the middle of this month, genial showers usually begin to fall. The wind is steadily in the south-west, and towards the close of the month there are usually thunder and lightning every afternoon in the south-west, with heavy showers, each preceded by a squall. June.—It now rains heavily, with squalls from the south-west ; the sky is often clouded for a fortnight, but it seldom rains twenty-four hours without intermission. July.—The rains are now over, and a steady south-west wind blows day and night, perfectly balmy and innocent, the difference between the wet and dry thermometer seldom exceeding six degrees. August.—Weather the same as July, but somewhat warmer, in consequence of the smaller amount of evaporation. September.—Weather the same as July or August, but still warmer, in consequence of the still smaller amount of evaporation. These months are usually cool, however, compared with March, April, and May ; and towards the end of this month, heavy showers usually fall, which are thankfully accepted. October.—The first half of this month is usually marked by rains, which are very heavy, though of short duration.—By these the air is cooled, and the soil refreshed, though extensive inundations often result. November.—The pleasant weather of the latter part of October is usually continued to the middle of the month, when thunder-clouds gather every afternoon in the north-east, and light rains fall, followed by land-winds. It is the north-east monsoon. December.—The rains from the north-east, of the preceding month, often continue during this, usually with much thunder and lightning, and with alternate sea-breezes and land-winds ; so that the new year usually sets in with the soil saturated with moisture, and colder than at any other time, from the enjoyment of which, however, the along-shore winds now set in, and flowing fresh, detract

not a little. The principal diseases are dysentery, affections of the liver, and intermittent fevers, whose proportionate frequency is indicated by the order in which we have placed them. Cholera and small-pox generally make their appearance epidemically once or twice a year, but the former does not assume the virulence by which it is marked in other parts of India, and even of Ceylon. Colombo, on the whole, may safely be pronounced one of the healthiest, if not the most healthy, station in the island. The space comprehended within what are called the Gravets, is about eight square miles, the limits being the Fort, Tankesalgade, Mutwal (mouth of the Kalany river), Pass Betal, Oeroe Godewatte, Maligawatte, Demettegode, Marandham Cinnamon plantation, Golfoetty, and Galle Face. The term Gravets is a corruption of a Singhalese word, Caddemette, meaning the boundaries of a city. Strictly, we are given to understand, it meant, at the ancient Kandian capital, the limits within which certain low castes, such as Rhodijas, Gahaleyas, Kinnerayas, &c., without the special consent of the prime minister, or unless the occasion of certain religious ceremonies called for their presence and services, could not approach. The Portuguese corrupted the word into Garuette, the Dutch, in their harsh language, called it Garuetten, and the British modified this into Gravets. The population may be safely estimated at from 40,000 to 45,000. Of these, about 500, perhaps, are Europeans, and 2,500 are European descendants, including the military; the latter, with their wives and families, number about 1,000 more, giving a total of about 4,000 whites. Of the coloured population, fully two-thirds are Singhalese; the larger proportion of the remaining third are Tariuls, or, as they are called at Colombo, Chetties; the rest are Moormen, Parsees, &c. Perhaps a fourth of the population profess Christianity; the vast majority of the fishermen being Romanists of the old Goa school. Within the last few years, a division has taken place, and a new and more liberal-minded sect has arisen, numbering amongst its adherents some wealthy and influential individuals. Colombo is studded by large and handsome Romish edifices, erected chiefly with funds contributed by the fishermen. By the Protestants, aided by government, Trinity Church, for Episcopalians, and St. Andrew's Church,

for Presbyterians, have been built since Casie Chitty-torote. The religionists rank, numerically, somewhat as follows :—Buddhists, Gentoos, Romanists, Mahomedans, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Wesleyans, Baptists, Fire-worshippers, &c. Strange to say, the first class have no temple within the Gravets of Colombo. The fort of Colombo mounts 126 guns, and six mortars, and is at this time garrisoned by a European force consisting of forty officers, forty-two serjeants, sixteen buglers, and 780 rank and file—Europeans. The Gun Lancers, and the Ceylon Rifles, are stationed on Slave Island. The head-quarters in Colombo at present include twenty-five officers, thirty-six serjeants, thirteen buglers, and 600 rank and file. Colombo in a state of siege would require 6,000 troops to defend it (if defended it could be), and could, in case of emergency, accommodate 10,000 persons. When the Governor is not a military man, the forces are commanded by a major-general, who usually resides at Kew House, a pleasant dwelling on the verge of the beautiful artificial lake, which adds so greatly to the appearance and health of Colombo. Kew House was formerly called “Blunker’s Garden,” having belonged to a Dutch major of that name. On this establishment being broken up, and transferred to Paradeina, the house and ground reverted to the military, and have ever since been considered as appropriated to the commander of the forces. Sir Hudson Lowe, Sir John Wilson, and Sir Robert Arbuthnot, successively occupied the house as a military quarter. The “United Service Library” contains a good selection of books and maps ; but within the last few years, the institution has lost a large body of supporters. The merchants and others not connected with “the services” could only be admitted by ballot, and as “honorary members” were deprived of a voice in the management of the institution and the disposal of the funds, the humiliation was too much to be borne. The merchants and other independent inhabitants seceded, and the new Hall of Commerce has a library sufficiently liberal in its constitution to admit all persons of respectability and intelligence. Assemblies are occasionally held in the rooms of the library. The Museum attached to the Medical Library is situated in Hospital Street, and is

well deserving of a visit. There is a large and varied collection of specimens of natural history. The department of minerals is especially rich. The Pettah Library is a very respectable institution, with a large collection of books. There are now coaches every day to and from Kandy, and a mail coach between Colombo and Galle. In addition to all this, a railway is to be formed to connect, in time, the maritime and mountain capitals. The Cutcherry, or office of the government agent, is about a mile from the fort, pleasantly situated, and looking out upon the lake. New and excellent barracks, capable of lodging 200 men, were built in the time of Governor Stewart Mackenzie, and of late years a great deal of attention has been paid to the health and comfort of the troops. There are three or four hotels within the fort—the Royal Hotel (formerly the Government House), a really splendid one. The Lighthouse, and the lock at St. Sebastian's, were constructed by Sir Edward Barnes, whose statue stands facing that chief monument of his energies, the noble road to Kandy. A number of beautiful private residences have of late years been erected along the sea-shore at Colpetty, and in the Marandhan Cinnamon Garden, on which has been mapped out the plan of a future city. The Rifle Mess House on Slave Island, at the entrance to the Cinnamon Gardens, is a very handsome building. The poor are cared for. There is a pauper hospital in the pettah, a dispensary recently established, and a Friend-in-Need Society. A school commission is energetically at work training schoolmasters, founding schools, and preparing educational works. It is intrusted with the expenditure of from 8,000*l.* to 10,000*l.* annually. The head-quarters of the Church Mission is at Cotta, a beautiful spot about seven miles out of Colombo. There is an association connected with it in Colombo, as are also auxiliaries to the societies for propagating the Gospel, and for the promotion of Christian knowledge. Colombo has recently been created a bishop's see. The scene on landing at the Custom House during business hours is one of great and incessant bustle—boats, bullocks, bandies, and coolies hurrying to and fro; coffee, cinnamon, and cocoa-nut oil being shipped,—cotton cloth from Britain and India being valued and passed, and grain from India and Arracan being landed and measured. In 1837 was the year in which

coffee-planting commenced in real earnest, and the increase in the trade of Colombo since that period has been rapid and great.

The town next in importance to Colombo is Galle, or, more generally, Point de Galle. It is situated seventy-two miles south of Colombo, at the south-western point of the island. There is an excellent harbour here, to which all the steamers bound to and from England by the Red Sea or the Cape of Good Hope resort. The harbour is protected by a fort, a mile in circumference, encircling the town, and separated from the pettah, a part of Galle inhabited by natives and government servants, by an esplanade. There are several churches, Dutch, English, and Portuguese, at Galle; also a Cutcherry and an educational establishment for the orphan children of European soldiers—the latter stationed on a hill overlooking the harbour, and three miles distant from it.

On the north-east coast of Ceylon stands Trincomalee, 180 miles from Colombo. It is the least healthy part of the island, but the excellent and protected anchorage which it possesses has led to its adoption as the naval head-quarters of the fleet serving in the Indian seas. Here also is an extensive fort, and a citadel (Osnaburg), erected on a cliff that projects into the sea. English, Dutch, and Portuguese, or more properly the descendants of the two latter, form the Christian population. Mussulmans and Tamulians make up the class of native inhabitants.

Jaffnapatam is a small fortified town on the northern part of the island. The fort is built in the form of a pentagon, and encloses the barracks, a church, and a few other public buildings. The pettah, or native town, is half a mile from the fort. It contains many broad streets, containing houses of one story with broad verandahs. The Kanda Swamy Temple, the largest and most magnificent of any in the district, stands a mile and a half from the pettah.

The town of Kandy, or Sinkala, which, before the entire subjugation of Ceylon by the English, was the capital of the Singalese kings, is situated nearly in the centre of the island, in an amphitheatre formed by the surrounding hills. The town is one of some consideration. The governor of Ceylon resides here for about half the year, occupying a

pavilion built by General Sir Edward Barnes, who was governor of the island a quarter of a century ago. All the buildings which formerly constituted the palaces, halls of audience, &c., of the Kandian kings, now do duty as government offices. There are numerous witoras or temples in Kandy, for this is the chief seat of Buddhism. The principal witora is the Dalada Maligawa, near the audience hall, containing the "most sacred relic of Buddha's canine tooth," encased in a golden dagoba, set round with jewels.

The lesser towns or villages of Ceylon are, Galkesse, Partura, Caltura, Barbareen, Bentolee, Amblangaddi, Matura, Dondra, Katragana, Ballacaloe, Point Pedro, Delft, Aripo, Manar, Calpentyn, Pullam, Chilow, and Negombo. These are all situated on the coast. Some are mere fishing-villages, others small forts with adjoining pettahs, and two or three are ports which carry on a trade with India. There are heathen temples, Dutch churches, Roman Catholic and Wesleyan chapels, in most of the towns. Aripo is contiguous to the scene of the annual pearl-fishery. Manar is an island, eighteen miles long, and two or three miles broad, separated from the main land by a gulf of the same name. On this island the Roman Catholic religion was first established by the Jesuits in 1543.

In the heart of Ceylon are the cities of Ratrapara, Nuwera Ehija, Uwa, Corregalle, Potonnarawa, and Anaradaphara. The three last were formerly cities of much importance; now they are merely heaps of ruins, attesting the grandeur of the Kandian kings, and the devotedness of the followers of Buddha. The remains of the temples are superb. Nuwera Elia (or the City of Light) is comparatively a new settlement formed in the mountainous part of the interior, fifty miles south-east of Kandy. Mr. Selkirk describes the air as pure and healthy, the thermometer in December, January, February, and part of March being sometimes at night below the freezing point, and in the day seldom higher than 66° or 68°. The plain is about four miles in length, and from half a mile to a mile and a half in breadth. Invalids and others from the coast, and even from the presidencies of India, often resort to Nuwera Elia for the benefit of their air; and several companies of the European regiments stationed in Ceylon are quartered there alternately with the

same view. The roads around the plain are good, and there is abundant accommodation for visitors.

THE PUNJAUB AND KASHMIR.

The Punjaub, or country of the five waters, from *punj*, five, and *aub*, water, came under the dominion of the British in 1849, through circumstances which have been briefly detailed in the historical section of this volume. It lies to the north-west of that part of India Proper, which is bounded by the Sutledge, and was for a long period of time exclusively the territory of the Seikhs.

There are in fact six rivers running from the north-east to the westward of the Punjaub,—the Sutledge, the Beas, the Ravee, the Chenaub, the Jailum, and the Indus ; but in naming the country, the authors of its appellation appear to have discarded the Beas, because it has a shorter course than the other five.

The Sutledge is the most easterly of the rivers of the Punjaub. It does not appear that its source has been visited by any Europeans, in consequence of their vigilant exclusion by the Chinese, within whose territory it lies. Moorcroft, the traveller, seems to have approached nearest to the source, having, about latitude 31° , longitude $80^{\circ} 40'$, come upon the Sutoodra or Sutledge. After pursuing a very tortuous course, but in general west-south-west, to Roopur, latitude $30^{\circ} 58'$, longitude $76^{\circ} 29'$, it makes its way through a low sandstone range, Jhyram, and enters the plain of the Punjaub. It is here thirty feet deep, and more than 500 yards wide in its season of greatest fulness, and is crossed either in boats, or on floats of inflated buffalo hides. Its confluence with the Beas is a little above Hurekee, and in latitude $31^{\circ} 11'$, longitude $74^{\circ} 54'$. The whole length of the Sutledge thus far is 570 miles, 440 of which lie within the mountains. Below this confluence, as far as the confluence of the Chenaub, the united stream bears the name of *Ghara*. The Sutledge is considered to be the Zaradrus, or Hesudrus of the ancients, and the Hyphasis mentioned by Strabo.

The Beas rises on the southern verge of the Ritanka Pass, in Lahoul, a Himalayan region north-east of the Pun-

jaub, and at a point 13,200 feet above the sea, in latitude $32^{\circ} 34'$, longitude $77^{\circ} 12'$. This spot is considered sacred by the Hindoos, like the other sources of their great rivers, and has its name from being consecrated to Beas or Vyasa, who is reputed to have compiled the Puranas, and arranged the Vedas of the Hindoos, about 5,000 years ago, and hence is called Beas *Rikhi*, or "the sage." The confluence of the Beas with the Sutledge takes place at Endreesa, near the village Hurekee, and in latitude $31^{\circ} 12'$, longitude $74^{\circ} 56'$, after a course by the former river of from 210 to 220 miles. The Beas is considered to be identical with the Hyphasis of Arrian, the Greek name being a corruption of *Beypasha*, given it by the natives.

The Chenaub is generally considered the largest of the five rivers by which the Punjaub is traversed. Moorcroft, who ascended, as he conjectured, to within thirty miles of its source, supposes it to rise about latitude $32^{\circ} 30'$, longitude $77^{\circ} 40'$, in Lahoul, south of Ladakh, or Middle Tibet. The source must be very elevated, as the river holds its course through the Ritanka Pass, which is 13,000 feet high. The spot from whence it proceeds is, according to Vigne, a small lake called Chandra-Bhaga, or the Garden of the Moon, and in the upper part of its course the river is called the Chandra. At Kishtawar, Vigne found the Chenaub flowing in a deep rocky channel twenty-five yards wide. The river thence proceeds south-west by a very tortuous course, through a rugged country to Rihursi, a distance of about ninety miles, where it leaves the mountains, and flows into the lower ground of the Punjaub. It is here about 200 yards wide, deep and tranquil, yet rapid. At Aknur, about fifty miles lower down, it becomes navigable, at least for timber rafts, which are despatched from it down the Punjaub. It continues a south-westerly course to Vuzeerabad, about seventy miles lower down. From this point it holds a south-west course for about thirty miles, to Ramnegurh, where, in the middle of February, and consequently the low season, it is 300 yards wide, and with a depth of nine feet where greatest, the current running a mile and a half an hour. It thence pursues a south-west course for about 150 miles to its confluence with the Jailum, a little above the ferry of Trimo, in latitude $31^{\circ} 10'$, longitude $72^{\circ} 9'$. The total length of the

course of the river to this point is about 540 miles. Below the confluence with the Jailum, the Chenaub flows south-west for about fifty miles, to its confluence with the Ravee, a much smaller river, which joins it in latitude $30^{\circ} 33'$, longitude $71^{\circ} 46'$, through three mouths close to each other from this place, it continues its course north-west for 110 miles, to the confluence of the Ghara, in latitude $29^{\circ} 21'$, longitude $71^{\circ} 6'$. The meeting of the Chenaub and Ghara is very tranquil; the water of the former is red, that of the latter pale, and these respective colours may be distinguished for some miles downwards in the united stream, the red on the right or western, the pale on the left or eastern side. The total length of course from the source to this confluence is about 700 miles. There the united stream is called Punj-nud (five rivers), a name which it bears to its fall into the Indus. The ancient name of the Chenaub is admitted unquestionably to have been Ausines.

The Ravee, or Ravi, rises in Kulu, on the declivity of a mountain called Bungall, and a short distance west of the Ritanka Pass. The source is situate about latitude $32^{\circ} 30'$, longitude 76° . At the distance of about forty miles from the source, in a south-westerly direction, the Ravee is joined by two feeders, the Nye and the Boodhill, the latter taking its rise in a lake called Munee Muhees, regarded as sacred by the superstitious Hindoos. Where surveyed, four or five miles from Burmawur, at an elevation of about 7,000 feet, and in latitude $32^{\circ} 30'$, longitude $76^{\circ} 30'$, it was found 116 feet wide. At Chumla, about sixty miles below, and south-west of this place, or 100 miles from its source, the Ravee is crossed by a bridge. It is there forty or fifty yards broad, and fordable at most seasons of the year. At Bisuli, to which the downward course is about twenty-five miles due west, it has been found, early in April, about 120 yards wide, very rapid, and unfordable. From Bisuli, the Ravee takes a south-westerly direction, which it generally holds for the rest of its course. At Meanee ferry, on the route from Amritsir to Vuzeerabad, and about 220 miles from its source, it has, at the beginning of August, and at the time of fullest water, a breadth of 513 yards, and a depth of twelve feet, where greatest. The deep channel was between thirty and forty feet in breadth, the rest of the waterway having a depth of

from three to five feet. In the cold season, when lowest, the water is in no part more than four feet deep. At Lahore, about twenty-five miles lower down, it is divided into three different streams or branches. These are separated, in the dry weather, by intervals of half a mile, but in the rainy season the two most easterly branches are united, and form an expansive and rapid stream. The boats on the Ravee are the largest and best built in that part of India. The banks of this river are precipitous, so that it deepens before it expands. Nothing can exceed the crookedness of its course, which is a great impediment to navigation. Often after half a day's sail, the traveller finds himself within two miles of the spot from which he started. The water of the Ravee is redder than that of the Chenaub. It is fordable in most places for eight months in the year. From Lahore, its course south-west, measured according to the main direction of the stream, to its confluence with the Chenaub, is about 200 miles, but along all the sinuosities, 380. This point is in latitude $30^{\circ} 33'$, longitude $71^{\circ} 46'$. The Ravee joins the Chenaub by three mouths close to each other. Its total length, measured along the main direction of its course, is about 450 miles. It is considered to be the *Hydraotes* mentioned by Arrian, and the *Travati* of Sanscrit authorities; it is still known by the name of the *Traotee*, which might easily be corrupted by the Greeks into that which they appear to have given it.

The Jailum, Jelum, Jilum, Veshau, Veyut, or Behut, is the most western of the five great rivers which intersect that region east of the Indus. It rises in Kashmir, the whole valley of which it drains, making its way to the Punjab, through the Pass of Baramula, in the lofty range of Pir Panjal. Its most remote source is the head of what is regarded by some as its principal feeder, the Sidur, which rises in the mountain range, bounding the valley on the north-east, and in lat. $34^{\circ} 21'$, long. $75^{\circ} 33'$; and having drained the small mountain lake called Shesha Nag, takes a south-westerly course of about fifty miles to its confluence with the Breng, flowing from the south-east, with nearly an equal length of course. About 220 miles from its source, the Jailum leaves the mountains, and enters on the plain of the Punjab. It is here a very great stream. At the town

of Jailum, it has a greater volume of water than the Indus at Attock. It has been found, at the same place, in the middle of October, 150 yards wide, and from twelve to sixteen feet deep; but 600 yards wide at a short distance, both above and below that point, and flows at the rate of about a mile an hour. At this place the direction of the Jailum changes from southerly to south-westerly. It abounds in fish, and is infested by great numbers of crocodiles. Below Julalpoor, it takes a direction nearly southerly, and joins the Chenaub a little above the ferry of Trimo, in lat. $31^{\circ} 10'$, long. $72^{\circ} 9'$, after a course of about 450 miles. The Jailum is, at the confluence, about 500 yards wide. After the union, the channel of the united waters is a mile broad, and twelve feet deep.

The Jailum was unquestionably the Hydaspes of the Greeks. It is still known to the Hindoos of the vicinity by the name of *Betusta*, corrupted by the Greeks according to their usage with respect to foreign names. The scene of the battle between Porus and Alexander is generally placed at Julalpoor.

The principal towns in the Punjaub are Lahore, long the capital of the Sikh sovereigns, Mooltan, Attock, Amritsir, Rawul Pindie, and Peshawur. There are a number of lesser towns or villages, several of which are occupied as military stations by the British troops.

LAHORE is a large city situate on an offset or small stream flowing from the Ravee, and about two miles east of the main stream. It is surrounded with a substantial brick wall twenty-five feet high, broad enough for a gun to traverse it, and strengthened by many circular towers and angular bastions at regular intervals. Runjeet Singh ran a good trench around the walls, and beyond this constructed a line of strong works and redoubts round the entire circumference, mounted them with heavy artillery, and cleared away such ruins and other objects as might yield shelter to assailants. The circuit of this line of fortifications exceeds seven miles. The fort or citadel occupies the north-west angle of the city, and contains extensive magazines and manufactories of warlike stores, as well as the late residence of the Maharajah. There are several large and handsome mosques. The Padshah mosque, said to have been built by Aurungzebe, or Jehangir,

is a massive lofty structure of red sandstone, of great size, and ornamented with spacious cupolas. It was converted into a barrack by Runjeet Singh. The Vizier Khan mosque is also a fine edifice, ornamented with lofty minarets, and covered with varnished tiles inscribed with Arabic sentences, which are popularly supposed to comprise the whole of the Koran. These splendid structures have been desecrated by the Sikhs, who killed swine in them, and converted their courts into stables. The Sonara mosque is another splendid building. There are besides many handsome mosques and Hindoo temples, but they for the most part exhibit striking symptoms of the decay into which the city has fallen. One of the greatest ornaments of Lahore is the Shah dura, or tomb of the Mogul emperor Jehangir. It is very extensive and beautiful, of a quadrangular figure, with a minaret at each corner, rising to the height of seventy feet. The principal material is red sandstone, but there is a profusion of ornament executed in marble, arranged in elegant mosaics, representing flowers, and texts of the Koran in Arabic and Persian.

These texts consist of a hundred repetitions of the name of God in different modes of expression. There is a tradition that Aurungzebe demolished a dome that formerly covered this mausoleum, in order that the rain might fall on the tomb of his grandfather, in reprobation of his licentious conduct; but it is believed that the building was never finished. This beautiful monument is about three miles west of Lahore. It is separated from the town by the river Ravee, which a few years ago swept away part of the wall inclosing the tomb, and threatens speedily to engulf the structure itself.

The Maharajah gave it as a residence to a French officer of the name of Amise, who caused it to be cleared out and put in repair, but died shortly afterwards. His fate was considered by the Mahometans as retributive of his impiety in desecrating the sacred pile, which has since been closed up.

Another of these huge ornamental tombs is styled that of Anarkalli; a youth, according to tradition, a favourite of one of the emperors, who, instigated by jealousy, having seen him smile at a lady of the imperial zenana, caused him to be put to death, by being built up in a brick cell, and this splendid

mausoleum to be raised over him. Unfortunately the tone of Mahometan morals is not such as to render the story incredible. Three miles north-east of Lahore is the garden of Shah Jehan, the Shalimar, or "House of Joy." It is about half a mile long, with three successive terraces, rising one above the other, and contains four hundred and fifty fountains, which throw up water, subsequently received into marble tanks. Runjeet Singh barbarously defaced this superb monument of Oriental magnificence, by removing a large portion of the marble embellishments to his new capital, Amritsir.

The streets of Lahore, which are very narrow and filthy, contain numbers of lofty but gloomy houses, inclosed within extensive dead walls. The bazaars, though numerous, and stocked with profusion of costly wares, are in general contracted and mean.

There is an abundant supply of water from wells in the town, independent of the branch of the Ravee which washes the wall. The vicinity is fertile and well cultivated, being covered with the most luxuriant gardens and orchards. The great extent and size of the ruins scattered over the adjacent country, bear evidence of the former greatness of the city. The scene presents a huge mass of serais, palaces, and ruins, which must be seen to form any notion of their multitude and extent. The population is still considerable, the streets being crowded in an extraordinary degree, yet in this respect, as well as in regard to trade, Lahore is greatly excelled by Amritsir, which, under Runjeet Singh's government grew up into a successful rival; for though Runjeet Singh resided much at Lahore, where he delighted to show his state, Amritsir was both the spiritual and commercial capital of his dominions. Still, Lahore, even in its decay, is a great city. It stretches in a semicircular form four or five miles along the branch of the Ravee, and yet if we judge from the ruins, it is not one-tenth part the size of what it once was. It is difficult to arrive at just conclusions as to its population, but from its extent and the multitudes which throng it, the number can scarcely be less than from 120,000 to 150,000. This, indeed, is a great declension from the amount in the time when it was the residence of the Mogul emperors, and was nine miles in length; the population, then, probably,

was eight or ten times the present number. Under the excellent system of government adopted since we came into possession of the country, the population will no doubt rapidly augment.

AMRITSIR is situate nearly half-way between the rivers Beas and Ravee. It owes its importance to a *Tulao*, or reservoir, which Ram Das, the fourth *Guru*, or spiritual guide of the Sikhs, caused to be made here in 1581, and named Amrita Saras, or "fount of immortality." It thenceforward became a place of pilgrimage, and bore the names Amritsir and Ramdaspoor. Nearly two centuries after, Ahmed Shah, the founder of the Durani empire, alarmed and enraged at the progress of the Sikhs, blew up the shrine with gunpowder, filled up the holy *Tulao*, and causing kine to be slaughtered upon the site, thus desecrated the spot, which was drenched with their gore. On his return to Kabul, the Sikhs repaired the shrine and reservoir, and commenced the struggle which terminated in the overthrow of Mahomedan sway in Hindostan. The *Tulao* is a square of 150 paces, containing a great body of water, pure as crystal, notwithstanding the multitudes that bathe in it, and supplied apparently by natural springs. In the middle, on a small island, is a temple of Hari, or Vishnu; and on the bank a diminutive structure, where the founder, Ram Das, is said to have spent his life in a sitting posture. The temple on the island is richly adorned with gold and other costly embellishments, and in it sits the sovereign *Guru* of the Sikhs, to receive the presents and homage of his followers. There are five or six hundred Akalees, or priests, attached to the temple, who have erected for themselves good houses from the contributions of the visitors.

Amritsir is a very populous and extensive place. The streets are narrow, but the houses in general are tolerably lofty, and built of burnt brick. The apartments, however, are small, but on the whole Amritsir may claim some little architectural superiority over the towns of Hindostan. It has spacious bazaars, furnished with the richest wares; it has also considerable manufactures of coarse cloths and inferior silks, but especially of fine shawls, made in imitation of the Kashmir fabrics, in which great quantities of goats' wool from Bokhara are consumed. There is besides a very exten-

give transit trade, as well as considerable monetary transactions with Hindostan and Central Asia, the prosperity of the place having, in these respects, resulted from the decay of Shikarpoor and Mooltan. Rock salt is brought on the backs of camels from a mine near Mundi, about 120 miles to the northward of Lahore, a large and solid lump, resembling a block of unwrought marble, being slung on each side of the animal.

Runjeet Singh constructed a canal from the Ravee, a distance of thirty-four miles, but it is a mean and inexpensive work. The most striking object in Amritsir is the huge fortress Govindghur, built by Runjeet Singh in 1809, ostensibly to protect the pilgrims, but in reality to overawe their vast and dangerous assemblage. Its great height and heavy batteries, rising one above the other, give it a very imposing appearance. At Amritsir was the mint of the Sikh government. The population of the place is probably about 120,000.

MOOLTAN, to the westward, is a great and ancient city, which, during the pre-eminence of the Sikh power, took an important part in the commercial and monetary transactions of Western India, outstripping Shikarpoor, and being inferior in this respect only to Amritsir. It is situate three miles east of the Chenaub, the inundations of which reach it. The citadel stands on a mound, and is an irregular hexagon, with its longest side, which measures six hundred yards, to the north-west. The wall, substantially built of burnt brick, is about forty feet high outside ; but only four or five feet from the ground inside, in consequence of the accumulation of the materials of older buildings. It is surmounted by thirty towers, and protected by a ditch, faced with masonry. The only buildings within it of any importance, are the battered palace of the former Khan, and a lofty Mahometan shrine.

Mooltan is the largest town in the Sikh territory, after Lahore and Amritsir. The present town is built on a mound of considerable height, formed of the ruins of more ancient cities. The bazaars are extensive, and are well supplied with all articles of traffic and consumption, and the shops amount altogether in number to 4,600. Its principal manufactures are silks, cottons, shawls, loongees, brocades, tissues.

Its merchants are considered rich, and about fifteen of them are computed, collectively, to possess 1,500,000 rupees. Banking constitutes a large proportion of the business of Mooltan, in which it has, in some measure, supplanted Shikarpoor; and the prosperity of the town is in all respects considered on the increase. It yields a revenue of 575,000 rupees. The vicinity is covered with an amazing quantity of ruins of tombs, mosques, and shrines, which show the former extent and antiquity of the city. North of the place, is the magnificent shrine of Sham Tabrezi, who, according to tradition, was flayed alive here as a martyr, and at whose prayer the sun descended from the heavens, and produced the intense heat from which Mooltan suffers, and for which it is proverbial. The adjacent country, watered by the inundation of the Chenaub, produces fruits, esculent vegetables, grain, and other crops, in great abundance and perfection. Mooltan is to this day "*Mallithan*," *the place of the Malli*, and thence it is inferred to have been that capital of the Malli taken by Alexander. The number of the entire population is estimated to be about 80,000. Lat. $30^{\circ} 8'$; long. $71^{\circ} 28'$.

PESHAWER, or PESHAWUR, the capital of the province of the same name, is situate about twelve miles east of the eastern extremity of the Khyber Pass. In the early part of the present century, when visited by Elphinstone, it was a flourishing town, about five miles in circuit, and reported to contain 100,000 inhabitants. Twenty years later Runjeet Singh, after defeating the Afghans in the decisive battle of Noushera, took Peshawer, demolished the Bala Hissar, at once the capital and state residence, destroyed the fine houses of the chief Afghans, desecrated the mosques, and, cutting down the groves and orchards about the city, laid waste the surrounding country. The subsequent exactions and oppressions have effectually prevented its revival. The houses, built of mud, or unburnt brick, have flat roofs, on which the inhabitants spend much of their time. The whole city has rather a melancholy appearance, presenting numerous ruins of great dimensions; the result, not so much of gradual decay as of sudden and recent violence. The numerous mosques, many built in a splendid style of Oriental architecture, have been intentionally polluted by the Sikhs,

and are going to ruin. A vast and magnificent caravansera has been converted into the head quarters of the Sikh governor. It is called Gorkhutru ; it has quadrangular outlines, each side measuring 250 yards, and contains extensive accommodation for all departments of government, as well as a spacious house for the governor. The fortress erected by the Sikhs on the site of the Bala Hissar, is a square of about 220 yards, and is strengthened by round towers at each angle, every curtain having in front of it, a semicircular ravelin. There is a *fausse braye* all round of substantial towers and curtains, with a wet ditch. The height of the inner walls is sixty feet, of the *fausse braye* thirty, all constructed of mud. Within, are capacious and well-constructed magazines and store-houses. The only gateway is on the northern face, which is protected by towers. The population is 80,000 ; a mixed race of Afghans, Kashmirians, and Hindoos. Peshawer was built by the Mogul emperor, Akbar, who affixed the name, signifying "advanced post," in reference to its being the frontier town of Hindostan towards Afghanistan.

Of the northern part of the Punjaub, in the valley of the Indus, contiguous to Peshawer, we have recently derived some interesting accounts from the pens of officers, whose duty has carried them against the hill tribes on the frontier. The valley is described as smooth and apparently boundless as the prairie, extending for miles around, and covered with a sort of coarse thick grass, with here and there, but few and far between, a clump of graceful looking trees, which relieve the monotony of the landscape, and look in their picturesque uniqueness as if they had straggled from out some neighbouring park in order to diversify the scenery. A large portion of the valley is under water during the annual rise of the Indus, judging from the nature of the deposits on its surface, and the fact that nearly all the villages are built on artificial mounds of earth. Speaking of the overflowings and erratic course of the Indus, Dr. Dartnell, of the 53rd foot, writes :— "It is a river of the most dashing capabilities and extensive range. To-day gliding quietly along in a time-worn bed ; to-morrow, like an independent rider, taking a new and untried line of country as its own. I have seen it, in the course of a few months, create an island of large dimensions,

cleaving, when at full water-power, with a sort of wedge-like effectiveness, a passage for itself through the soft 'alluvium,' rending, over-riding, and devacinating the incohesive soil, sweeping ancient land-marks, and shikar-ghars, or hunting-grounds, before it, to the utter consternation of its four-footed and feathery denizens, little prepared as they were for such an extensive aquatic excursion; and then again, after a few days' touring into the interior, flowing tranquilly through the artificial channel, as if it had never caused either turmoil or confusion."

RAWUL PINDEE, where a considerable body of troops is cantoned, is a large, populous town, between the Indus and the Jailum, consisting of mud houses with flat roofs. It contains what is called a palace, a wretched building of brick, constructed by Shah Soojah, on his expulsion from Kabool. There is a large bazaar, and a considerable business in the transit trade, between Hindostan and Afghanistan. The town is surrounded by a wall with bastions, and has an old fort, on which a few miserable cannon are mounted. Lat 33° 40'; long. 73°.

On the road from Rawul Pindée to Peshawur, we come upon Hoosar Abdool, renowned in song and story. It is now a paltry-looking place—a jumble of old buildings, a little apart from the road, and falling to decay. It is densely shaded, however, with trees of ancient growth, the sacred peepul, the mulberry, the vine, and the plaitain, intertwining their foliage and branches, and affording a delightful shelter. In the enclosure, is a holy tank, square, and of small dimensions, supplied from numerous rivulets, with an exhaustless supply of clear water, and crowded with multitudes of fish. Within the building, impressed in a stone, in rude bas-relief, is the hand of Nanuk, the founder of the Sikh religion. The legend connected with this singular impression is, that, once upon a time, the prophet being thirsty and faint, solicited some water to drink, which being churlishly refused by the guardian of the stream, he forthwith placed his hand upon the stone from beneath which it issued, when the waters were instantly dried up, leaving the prophet's sign-manual impressed on the rock, as it exists to this day. The stone thus marked was afterwards removed by the priests, and placed in the wall of the temple,

an object of awe and veneration to the followers of Nanuk. Amongst the ruins of Hoosar Abdool is said to be the "true and genuine" tomb of the wife of Shah Jehan. Moore has immortalized Hoosar Abdool in "Lalla Rookh"; but the stern reality of the scene at this hour presents no point in common with the glowing picture of the poet. Moore speaks of the dipping of the wings of birds in the marble basins of the place. The "waters" still remain, so true is Nature to her own exquisite relations, pure and transparent as ever; but the basins and the fountains have all crumbled to ruin.

ATTOCK,—a fortress on the road from Kabool to the Punjaub, is thus described by the same authority. Strongly, but characteristically, set amongst bare and rugged hills, this apparently impregnable, but in reality, weak, fortress occupies a precipitous slope, which overhangs the Indus, its formidable chains of battlements rising from the water's edge, and ascending in long and curving lines of irregular circumvallation to the summit of the hill, from whence you look down on the dark and impetuous torrent rushing beneath the bridge of boats, or foaming in whirlpools round the jutting rocks called Tellalia and Kemallia, the guardian genii, the Gog and Magog of the stream.

Right opposite is the small and comparatively defenceless fort of Khyrabad, on the left of which the hills, rising abruptly in naked majesty and clothed in gloom, grimly confront the opposing fort with a sort of stern and protective grandeur, with far-off gorges and watch-towers on the highest peak, looming darkly in the distance, the whole possessing a sort of wild melo-dramatic character, where outlawed bandit or disaffected chief might safely erect his standard. And here, doubtless, in the olden day, the renowned and chivalrous Runjeet *did*, from his "pride of place," survey with an exulting heart, and scan with a soldier's eye, the defensive points of this mountain barrier, or fixing his keen and glittering eye on the distant hills, mark the approach of rebellious feudatory or Afghan foe.

Visitors to Attock, some thirty years ago, speak of the splendour and opulence of the bazaars; but a more miserable poverty-stricken place *now* it is impossible to conceive, and you shoulder your way through narrow and filthy lanes, with

stalls filled with Oriental rubbish, maintaining the while a steady restraint on your olfactories, until you arrive in a comparatively open space.

On the summit of the hill a modern hospital has been built, capable of containing a hundred beds, where the sick sepoy may enjoy a comparatively pure atmosphere.

Adjoining the fort is an extensive caravanserai or serai of contemporaneous date, said to have been erected by the emperor Akbar. Within the enclosure, and immediately beneath the parapets, are small domed chambers, not unlike, but on a gigantic scale, the spherical-roofed domiciles of the wild prairie-dog, but which, nevertheless, make very comfortable quarters. An old inhabitant of Attock renowned for his hospitality and horticultural tastes, from a sterile waste has produced an abundant supply of fruits, vegetables, and flowers, causing the wilderness around the serai to blossom as a rose.

The banks of the Indus, north of the Punjaub, are destitute of attractions. Of natural beauties there are none, neither plants, trees, nor flowering shrubs; scarcely a bird, excepting an occasional flock of wild duck or coolun soaring and screaming overhead.

Of the hill-tribes, the Momunds, Kyberines, Eusoofzyes, &c., who inhabit the mountains on the north-western frontier of the British possessions in India, the following account has recently been given.

Eternally at feud with each other, it is a singular peculiarity of these hill-tribes, that on the invasion of their Highlands, all clannish animosities are at an end, the blood-feud is forgotten, and the faction-fights which, as amongst the Saravats and Shunavats of *old* Ireland, existed from generation to generation, are no more. A latent feeling of patriotism springs up, the beacon-fire is lit, and with that spontaneous and innate generosity of soul which binds man to man in times of danger, hands are crossed, and vows exchanged, which were never touched or sworn, except in deadly enmity, before. Their military resources, to be sure, are not very great. Armed only with the matchlock and jezail, and their gunpowder of an inferior kind, they are yet, from long practice, marksmen of no ordinary skill, and when nerved as they must be by a secure site, a

sheltering rock, a hillock, or a bush, they seldom fail in their aim. Add to this, the accompaniments of a formidable knife, full three feet in length, massive, keen-edged, and tapering from a three-inched hilt to the finest point, eked out in its execution by a remorseless will, and you have no despicable enemy to deal with. Arranged round their belts, the martial zone which they usually wear, are a reserve armoury as it were of smaller blades, deadly cut-and-thrust sort of instruments of a treacherous hue, with certain wavy lines suggestive of Damascus temper, and pistols or blunderbusses of unique form, with open friendly-looking mouths, patent to the day as it were, and entreative of your confidence and goodwill; and pendant from the belt, leathern pouches of suspicious aspect, which are evidently less for ornament than for use. They are a fine race, however, in some respects. Civilization has not tamed them down to the obsequiousness of air and manner which characterize a more advanced state. It is, so to speak, Nature left to herself to mould or fashion at will the character of the man uninfluenced by the conventionalities of life, and deriving its tone from the circumstances in which it is placed. Notwithstanding all this, they possess no small share of the fraud, duplicity, and deceit, which attach to more polished society, these unenviable qualities being unhappily common to man, whether found in a Momund hut or a Belgravian saloon. The expression of face and feature, particularly the eye, is altogether different from anything you have ever seen. It ranges abroad, as it were, sweeping the horizon with a comprehensiveness of vision that embraces objects the most remote, and with a fixity of gaze, and dilation of the pupil, as if in mysterious communion with some unseen but influencing power, imparting that peculiar dreaminess to the organ, so different from its vivid telegraphings when exercised on the familiar objects of every-day life; and this is accounted for by the fact, that on that grand purveyor of savage life, the eye, mainly depends their subsistence. Robbers as many of them are from their youth upwards, they will sit for hours on an eminence in search of some unguarded Kafilah or camel-herd, when swooping suddenly on the prize, they bear it with incredible rapidity to the hills.

Like most savages they are not distinguished for their

gallantry to the sex, the women being employed in the laborious occupations of the field, or drawing water from distant tanks. A traveller wandering through these wilds would imagine them unpeopled, the houses and villages being all apart, some three or four kos from the roads, and built at the foot of the hills, with a view to a more expeditious retreat into their fastnesses in the event of a foray or attack, no unusual occurrence amongst them. The insecure state of the country, and indeed of the whole of Afghanistan generally, is proved by the multitude of bourges erected within short distances of each other, sometimes so close that rival belligerents desirous to try conclusions may do so from the top of those turrets, without the supererogatory annoyance of descending to the plain, either in the form of a wordy or vituperative war, or the more serious reciprocity of spear or ball. They are not very spacious, about forty feet or so in height, and twenty or thirty in diameter at the base, gradually tapering to the top, which is covered over, and with a parapet all round; and here you can fancy the desperate robber or murderer, with the avenger of blood at his heels, fleeing for refuge and protection. An agreeable condition of society this, but like everything else to which custom appends, it is viewed with an indifference to which their predatory habits and predestinarian ideas give inveteracy and strength. No man on going out in the morning can calculate on a safe return to his house, and therefore he invariably arms to the teeth, and not unfrequently adds to his other weapons a spear of formidable size, which, however, is generally borne by the few horsemen who compose the scanty mounted retinue of a hill-chief.

The only other towns worth mentioning in a sketch of the Punjab are Jailum, Julinder, and Vuzeerabad.

VUZEERABAD, or Vazirabad, is situate about three miles from the left or eastern bank of the Chenaub, here half a mile broad. The country immediately about it is exceedingly fertile, and the view of the Himalaya probably the most extensive and magnificent anywhere. It is one of the handsomest towns in India; General Avitabile, an Italian officer in the service of Runjeet Singh, having caused it to be rebuilt in the European style, with wide streets, and a handsome and commodious bazaar. Runjeet Singh made

here a pleasure-ground, and palace of singular construction, and covered outside with rude full-length figures of the ten *Gurus*, or spiritual leaders of the Sikhs, painted in fresco. Vuzeerabad is a station for troops.

JAILUM, or Jelum, is a town on the right bank of the river. Jailum is a town of considerable extent, and though the streets are narrow and intricate, it is a clean place. It is, however, rendered unhealthy by the inundation, which extends widely over the eastern bank of the river. The principal crops in the vicinity are wheat, barley, and cotton. During the season when the river is lowest, there is a ford nearly a mile above the town. The passable part of the bed describes two sides of a triangle, the vortex of which is down the river.

JULINDER, in the Punjaub, a considerable town near the western bank of the Sutledge, was once the residence of the Lodi-Afghan dynasty. It is situate in a tract of great fertility, amidst flourishing orchards of mangoes and other trees. The vast number of large and finely-built mausoleums which are around, bear evidence of its former greatness. It has a population of about 60,000.

The climate of the Punjaub is of two kinds ; that of the mountainous regions is spoken of in the notice of Kashmir ; that of the plain is in general characterised by dryness and warmth. Little rain falls, excepting in those parts extending along the southern base of the Himalaya, and where the south-west monsoon is partially felt, diminishing in its effects in proportion as it proceeds westward. The monsoon rains, however, fall heavily at Lahore in the Midsummer. The winters of the Punjaub are cool even to the feelings of Europeans. At Mooltan the thermometer, when at the lowest has been at 28° at sun-rise. Ice forms on the water at night ; and in the middle of day in December the thermometer rises no higher than 70° . In January, the range at night is from 34° to 44° , and at mid-day it sometimes reaches 80° . February is cold, bleak, frequently rainy, and always cloudy. In summer the heat is excessive. At Lahore, the thermometer sometimes rises, in bungalows and tents artificially cooled, to 112° .

Of the system of government introduced into the Punjaub since the country became a British possession, we have the

following from the pen of one of the best informed advocates of the East-India Company.*

In Bengal great mistakes were committed in the days of inexperience, and they have unfortunately so deeply penetrated the constitution of society, that the eradication of them is a task of no easy performance. In the Punjaub we were enabled to bring the experience of the past—the experience of failure and of success—to bear upon our operations. A Board of Administration was appointed, consisting of the ablest men in the service. A body of (well-trained) civil officers was drafted into the Punjaub, and the Governor-General planted himself at Simlah, that he might be at hand to answer every reference, and to superintend the construction of this new machinery of government; and the happy result of this combination of experience, talent, and energy, has been the formation of an administration, the like of which has never been seen in India, and which looks more like a picture of the imagination than a tangible reality.

Among a nation of soldiers, whose valour seven years ago shook our empire to its centre, Government has succeeded in establishing tranquillity to such an extent, that there has not been the slightest disturbance for four years, except among the wild tribes of the mountains on the borders, who have resisted every kind of control for ages. So entirely has the British Government acquired the confidence of the military class, that the men who are covered with the scars inflicted by our troops at Ferozeshuhur, and Sobraon, and Guzerat, have freely entered our service, conquered their repugnance to crossing the sea, and have assisted in planting our banner on the battlements of Prome and Pegu. In the Punjaub our Government has succeeded in organizing a more efficient police in three years than it has been able to create in Bengal in ninety years. Dacoity and gang-robbery, which were indigenous in a country where the founder of every noble family commenced his career as a leader of banditti, have been suppressed. These crimes have ceased to appear in the calendar, and may now be considered extinct. The existence of Thuggee was discovered about two years ago, and 550 of the offenders have been tried, convicted, and

* Mr. John Marshman.

transported. A system of prison discipline has been introduced which would not disgrace Great Britain. In lieu of the ponderous, intricate, and technical code, drawn up after the most approved model of Westminster Hall, which is the legal incubus of the older provinces, the Board of Administration have compiled a short, clear, and simple code of procedure, adapted to the national habits, which has rendered justice cheap, easy, and accessible to every class. The greatest attention has been paid to public works. An engineering department has been established, consisting of 100 officers—commissioned and warrant—and it is charged with the construction of roads, canals, bridges, and viaducts; cantonments, forts, court-houses, and treasuries; jails and dispensaries. Old canals have been re-opened, existing canals repaired, and a new canal has been commenced, at a cost of half a million sterling, 466 miles in length, and adapted to afford irrigation to 650,000 acres, the rent of which is calculated to add 140,000*l.* a year to the revenue of the kingdom. A great high road, from the banks of the Sutledge to Peshawur, has been commenced and partly completed, at an expense of a quarter of a million sterling, which, considering the great engineering difficulties in the way, may be considered a monument of scientific enterprise. Other military and commercial roads have been undertaken, of which 1,350 miles have been cleared and constructed, and 853 are now under construction. The estimated cost of all these undertakings exceeds 1,000,000*l.* The revenue survey of the whole area of the country is now in progress, the rights of the various classes of landlord and tenant have been in most instances ascertained, and an assessment, more lenient than that of Runjeet Singh, has been adopted; while all the oppressive cesses which impeded industry and commerce have been swept away, and the taxation of the country has been established on the most enlightened principles.

KASHMIR.

The designation of "valley," ordinarily applied to Kashmir is by no means an appropriate term. The course of the Vitastha, or Behut does, indeed, form one principal valley, extending from the eastern to the western limits of the province; but the greater part of the country is made

up of a similar disposition of vale and mountain, as is observable in all those alpine regions, and consists of mountain ranges, running mostly in parallel lines from south-west to north and east, separated by glens, which are in general of no great breadth.

The chief peculiarity by which Kashmir is distinguished from the mountain countries on its confines is the richness of its vegetation. The mountains, although for a considerable part of the year capped in many parts with snow, are coated with rich forests, and at their base is a productive alluvial soil abounding with verdure, or, where cultivated, with plentiful harvest, especially of rice. The cause of this is no doubt to be found in the humidity of its climate, which forms a very disagreeable contrast to the dryness of the atmosphere of Ladakh.

The year in Kashmir may be divided into summer and winter seasons, of nearly equal duration, the former being in general somewhat the longest. Snow usually begins to fall in December, and disappears from the warmer valleys in March. In the pass on the frontiers it remains of considerable depth till the middle of April, and lies throughout the year on the crests of some of the loftiest of chains which surround the province. The total annual quantity is so great that it bends the branches of the wild apple-trees, on which it rests for months, into a right angle with their trunks, giving them the appearance of cypresses. The end of March and beginning of April are distinguished by the popular term of dirty spring, or mud season ; and these appellations, in regard to the mire of the surface, and the rapid succession of gusts of wind and hail, with short gleams of sunshine, are well deserved. In May scarcely a day passes without a shower, and dense clouds constantly rest upon the summits of the mountains, exhibiting an atmosphere surcharged with moisture. The remaining summer months are hot, and bring the fruits and grain to rapid maturity. The abundant supply of water from snow and rain is collected into numerous streams and lakes, the overflowing of which, with the evaporation from them, preserves both soil and atmosphere in a humid condition, more propitious to vegetable than animal life. The traditions of the country assert that the whole of Kashmir, intending thereby the principal line of

valley, was originally one large lake ; and the aspect of the province confirms the truth of the legend, the subsidence of the waters being distinctly defined by horizontal lines on the face of the mountains. It is also not at all unlikely to have been the scene of some great convulsion of nature, as indications of volcanic actions are not unfrequent. Hot springs are numerous. At particular seasons, the ground in various places is sensibly hotter than the atmosphere, and earthquakes are of common occurrence. The central and more elevated parts of the mountains consist of clay, whilst in the valley the soil is a rich vegetable mould, often more or less extensively inundated from the numerous streams and water courses by which the surface is traversed. When neglected after cultivation, it throws up a thickly-matted sod of florin, or doob grass, little mixed with rank herbage, except in the immediate vicinity of unreclaimed forests.

The chief river of Kashmir is the Vitastha, Vehut, the Hydaspes of the ancients. This rises at an angle of the mountains, chiefly from the springs of Vir Nag, in the south-east extremity of Kashmir. It is immediately joined by a stream from the south, the Kaimee river, and another from the north, the river of Branj. The Sindh, which takes its source from the Twaje La Pass, forms its own valley, and passing round the city, falls into the Behut on the northern bank, about seven kos above it ; and the Dudh Gunja comes from the south, rising, it is said, thirty kos off from the Sang-safed, and joins the Behut just above the capital. The Behut passes through the city, receiving waters from its various canals, and flows on until it reaches the Punjaub, when it becomes the Jhelum. During the whole of its course in Kashmir it is navigable, although it varies much in its depth. In December, in its course through the city, it was seventy yards broad, from one to two fathoms deep, and ran at the rate of 800 yards an hour. In May it rose twenty-five feet ; and it was said that it sometimes attained an elevation of thirty. The Weelar, Ular Lake, is of an elliptical form, and may be nearly forty miles in circumference ; it lies about twelve kos north-west of the city. Adjoining to the latter, on the east, is the Dal, a less extensive piece of water, supplied by some small streams flowing down a confined valley, interposed between the valleys of

the Behut and Sindh, and sending off its superfluous waters by different canals flowing through the city to the Behut. There are several other small lakes within the province, as the Auchar, Monas, and others.

The whole length of the valley of the Behut, constituting the greatest extent of Kashmir, from south-east to north-west, may be about fifty miles; the greatest breadth of the valley, immediately to the west of the city, is not above fifteen miles; and in many parts it is much less, or not more than five or six. The whole breadth of Kashmir may be about forty or fifty miles, the greatest portion of which, to the north of the Behut, consists of lofty mountains and narrow valleys, thinly inhabited. The province is divided into thirty-six pergunnas.

The city of Kashmir, or, as it was formerly called, Srinuggur, lies on either bank of the Behut, extending about four miles; the principal part, the north-west, lies mostly to the north of the river: on the south-east and south of the river is the suburb of Shar Gesh, attached to a fortress of no great strength or extent; at the same end, the eastern extremity of the city, is situated the hill called Harissanbat, or Kohi-Maran, at the southern foot of which is the Lake, or Dal; and immediately to the south of that rises the eminence called the Zakhti Suliman, or Throne of Solomon. The Kohi-Maran is surmounted by a long narrow fort, beneath the bastions of which, in the edge of the rock, two or three large guns are mounted, which command the city. It may be doubted if the fortress itself could be furnished with cannon, as it is entirely roofed over, and presents no appearance of embrasures. The slope of the hill is covered with houses. The Dal, or Lake, is nearly circular, but the number of floating gardens it contains prevents its outline from being distinctly made out; it may be about nine miles in circumference. Towards the Hari Parbot, the Dal breaks into several small canals, the principal of which is the Raini-War, and which, flowing to the west, and receiving several smaller canals, divides above the bridge of Naupura into two branches. The general character of the city of Kashmir is that of a confused mass of ill-favoured buildings, forming a complicated labyrinth of narrow and dirty lanes, scarcely broad enough for a single cart to pass, badly

paved, and having a small gutter in the centre full of filth, banked up on each side by a border of mire. The houses are in general two or three stories high ; they are built of unburnt bricks and timber, the former serving for nothing else than to fill up the interstices of the latter ; they are not plastered, are badly constructed, and are mostly in a neglected and ruinous condition, with broken doors, or no doors at all ; with shattered lattices, windows stopped up with boards, paper, or rags ; walls out of the perpendicular, and pitched roofs threatening to fall. The roofs are formed of layers of birch bark, covered by a coating of earth, in which seeds dropped by birds, or wafted by the wind, have vegetated, and they are constantly overrun with grass, flowers, and seeds. The houses of the better class are commonly detached, and surrounded by a wall and gardens, the latter of which often communicate with a canal : the condition of the gardens is no better than that of the buildings, and the whole presents a striking picture of wretchedness and decay. There are no public buildings in the city of Kashmir entitled to notice, for their architectural or antiquarian merits. The oldest building is the tomb of the mother of Zain-ul-abddin, who reigned in the middle of the fifteenth century, and who is said to have made use of a more ancient Hindoo temple for the purpose. It is an octagonal building of brick, surmounted by a dome of great solidity and strength, the walls being seven or eight feet thick, but of no beauty. The shrine of Sayid Ali Hamadani is constructed chiefly of the wood of the Deodar pine, and is equipped with a pyramidal steeple of timber, capped with brass. The most celebrated structure, however, is the Jama Masjid, or great mosque, which is capable of containing, it is said, 60,000 persons. The Jama Masjid consists in great part of wood, a dome, and spire of timber of rude construction, resting partly upon wooden pillows, and partly on side walls, of which the foundation and lower portion consist of roughly-hewn stones, and the upper of brick and mortar. The number of pillars is 384 ; the intervals are usually considerable. The columns are formed of an assemblage of square blocks of Deodar, about a foot in diameter, laid at right angles to each other, so that each face presents a succession of buts and sides, or, to speak more technically, a band of alternate headers and

leaders ; the blocks are probably secured together by pins, but these are not seen exteriorly. The columns are in general about ten feet high ; but some are taller than others. The peculiarity of their construction was, no doubt, suggested by the occurrence of earthquakes, which are frequent in Kashmir, though not very violent. Certain it is, that although the roof and walls have been rent and shattered in various places, not one of the pillars appears to have been seriously injured, or to have deviated from its original perpendicular. Such also is the durability of the timber of the Deodar, that in none of the columns was any vestige of decay, from exposure or insects, to be discovered, although they have been erected above a century and a half, and have received for some time past very little care or attention. The same valuable material is employed in the formation of bridges over the canals and rivers of the country. Very commonly the breadth of these requires merely a platform resting upon haunches ; but in many places it is necessary to support the roadway by piers in the stream. In this case the piers are formed of four pieces of the trunk of the Deodar, laid at right angles over each other, and leaving in the centre a hollow square of about two feet. Each pier consists of a shaft, a basement, and a capital ; the shaft is usually from twenty to twenty-five feet in breadth, the height varies with the depth of the stream. The foundation is constructed on the same principle, but extends beyond the shaft, and presents to the current a pointed extremity ; it is also filled with heavy stones, to prevent it being carried away. The capital consists of five graduated tiers of beams, crossing the water line, and forming the support of the platform, connecting them at top, which is formed of layers of Deodar timbers, crossed and fastened together by pins. This construction is so solid, that upon one of the bridges, the Zeinal-Radal, a line of shops, the best in the city, is situated. The shops are built of wood, each with a work-room and show-room, and the concourse of buyers is very considerable.

The population of the city of Kashmir, although much diminished, must be numerous. 120,000 persons, it is said, are employed in the shawl manufacture alone ; and although this is the chief employment of the population, yet the other trades and occupations essential to the support of a

large city, must, at least, double the amount : the population of the province is estimated at 800,000. Everywhere, however, the people are in the most abject condition, exorbitantly taxed by the government, and subjected to every kind of extortion and oppression by its officers. The consequences of this system are, the gradual depopulation of the country, not more than about one-sixteenth of the cultivable surface is in cultivation, and the inhabitants starving at home, are driven in great numbers to the plains of Hindostan. In like manner, the people of the city are rapidly thinning, though less from emigration than poverty and disease : the prevalence of the latter in its most aggravated forms is fearfully extensive.

According to the prevailing notions on the subject, the whole of the land in Kashmir is considered to have been, time out of mind, the property of the ruler. Of some portions of the Khalsa lands the sovereigns divested themselves by grants in Jagir for various periods ; but when the country came into the hands of the Sikhs, Runjeet Singh made a general resumption, and wrested the possessors of grants of lands of every class, thus summarily reducing thousands who had long lived in comfort, to a state of absolute destitution. The Khalsa lands are now, as heretofore, let out for cultivation. Those near the city are termed Sai Kishti, those more remote Pai Kishti, or head and foot, upper and lower cultivation. When the grain has been trodden out, a division takes place between the farmer and the government : this was formerly an equal division, but the government has advanced in its demands until it has appropriated about seven-eighths of the Sar Kishti and three-fourths of the Pai Kishti crop. The straw falls to the share of the cultivator ; but his case would be desperate if it were not practicable to bribe the overseer or watchman to let him steal a portion of his own produce. He has also a house to live in ; he can keep cattle on the mountains during summer, can cut wood, and bring in the city for sale, can sell wild greens, butter, milk, and can support himself and family upon the wild fruits of the forest. Still the cultivators of Kashmir are in a condition of extreme wretchedness, and, as if the disproportionate demand of the government was not sufficiently oppressive, the evil is aggravated by the mode

adopted of disposing of the government share. It is sent into the market at a high price, and no individual is allowed to offer the produce of his farm at a lower rate, or sometimes to dispose of it at all, until the public corn has been sold.

A much larger revenue than that which is obtained from the land, is realized from the shawl manufacture, every shawl being stamped, and the stamp-duty being twenty-six per cent. upon the estimated value. Besides this, a considerable sum is raised by duties upon the import of wool, and a charge upon every shop or workman connected with the manufacture. Nor are those imposts restricted to the artisans employed in the shawl fabric; every trade is taxed, butchers, bakers, bootmen, venders of fuel, public notaries, scavengers, prostitutes, all pay a sort of corporation tax; and even the Katwal, or chief officer of justice, pays a large gratuity of 30,000 rupees a-year for his appointment, being left to reimburse himself as he may. A portion of the Sinhara crop, to the extent annually of a lakh of rupees it is said, is claimed by the government. The revenue is farmed, and the farmer is independent of the military governor. The natives of Kashmir have been always considered as amongst the most lively and ingenious people of Asia, and deservedly so. With a liberal and wise government, they might assume an equally high scale as a moral and intellectual people, but at present a more degraded race does not exist. The complexion of the Kashmirians varies from dark to olive, and is sometimes ruddy and transparent; the eyes are large and full, the nose is well defined, and commonly of an aquiline form. The stature varies; but the Hindoos who have least intermixed with foreign races, are, in general, tall and symmetrically made. The inhabitants of the city are rather slight, but amongst the peasantry, both Hindoo and Mahometan, are to be found figures of robust and muscular make, such as might have served for models of the Farnesian Hercules. In character, the Kashmirian is selfish, superstitious, ignorant, supple, intriguing, dishonest, and false; he has great ingenuity as a mechanic, and a decided genius for manufacture and commerce; but his transactions are always conducted in a fraudulent spirit, equalled only by the effrontery with which he faces detection. The vices of the Kashmirian, however, must be regarded as the effects of his

political condition, rather than his nature; it would not be difficult to transform him into a very different being. Religious bigotry forms no part of his character, and the teachers of either faith, Mullas or Pundits, are exceedingly ignorant, and possess little influence. Since the establishment of Sikh authority, Hindooism predominates, and the country is infested by numerous and audacious bands of mendicants. They are patronised rather by the government than the people, and the latter would gladly get rid of their presence. There seems, indeed to be little attachment of either the Mahomedans or Hindoos of Kashmir, to their respective creeds. Literature of any description is almost unknown in Kashmir, and it is not easy to discover any relics of those celebrated Sanscrit compositions which originated in the patronage of the princes of the country, whilst it was a Hindoo principality. The dress of the people, both male and female, commonly consists of a large loose wrapper and trousers, the former of woollen cloth. As a further protection against the cold in winter, the Kashmirians usually carry under their tunic, an earthen pot, with a small quantity of live charcoal, a practice that invariably discolours and sears the skin, and not unfrequently occasions palsy. The Hindoo women never go veiled, and never affect concealment either at home or abroad. They had long been exempted from the cruel obligation of burning with their husbands, the custom of which, according to tradition, was never very popular in Kashmir, having been suppressed by an edict of Aurungzebe, in 1669, and never subsequently revived. The food of those who can afford it is partly of meat, mutton of goats or sheep, which sells at about threepence per pound. Beef is not procurable, as the Sikh ruler punishes the death of a cow, capitally. The chief food of the people is vegetables, turnips, cabbages, and radishes, the Sinhara, or water-nut, and rice. The turnips are purple, or reddish, and speedily become woolly; the radishes are mostly white and strong; the cabbages do not head, but the leaves are frequently stripped. Besides these, lettuces, spinach, and other common vegetables, are in extensive use, boiled into a sort of soup, with a little salt, or even the leaves of the dandelion, dock, plantain, and mallow; and the catkins of the walnut are employed as food, seasoned with a little salt, mustard, and

walnut oil. Although wheat, barley, buckwheat, millet, maize, pulse, and amaranthus are grown in Kashmir, yet the staple of cultivation is rice. This is sown in the beginning of May, and is fit to cut about the end of August. Another principal article of the food of the common people—the Sinhara, or water-nut, grows abundantly in the different lakes in the vicinity of the capital, and especially in the Walar lake, which yields an average return of 96,000 to 120,000 ass-loads a-year. It is fished up from the bottom in small nets, and affords employment to the fishermen or several months. It constitutes the almost only food of at least 30,000 persons, for five months in the year. After being extracted from the shell, the nuts are eaten raw, boiled, roasted, fried, or dressed in various ways, after being reduced to flour. The Sinhara, in the shell, is sold at about a rupee per load.

Another article of food derived from the lakes is the stem of the *Nymphæa lotus*. In the autumn, after the plate of the leaf has begun to decay, this has acquired maturity, and being boiled till tender, furnishes a wholesome and nutritious article, which supports, perhaps, 5,000 persons in the city for nearly eight months.

Another, and an important use made of the abundant water surface of Kashmir, is the formation of floating gardens. Various aquatic plants spring from the bottom of the lakes, as water-lilies, confervæ, sedges, reeds, &c.; and as the boats which traverse these waters take, generally, the shortest lines they can pursue to the place of their destination, the lakes are in some parts, cut, as it were, in avenues amongst the plants, which, in shallows, are separated by beds of sedges and of reeds. In the latter places the neighbouring farmer attempts to establish his cucumber and melon floats by cutting off the roots of the aquatic plants just mentioned, about two feet under the water, so that they completely lose all connection with the bottom of the lake, but retain their former situation in respect to each other. When thus detached from the soil, they are pressed into somewhat closer contact, and formed into beds of about two yards in breadth, and of an indefinite length. The heads of the sedges, reeds, and other plants of the float are now cut off and laid upon its surface, and covered with a thin coat of

mud, which, at first intercepted in its descent, gradually sinks into the mass of matted roots. The bed floats, but is kept in its place by a stake of willow driven through it at each end, which admits of its rising or falling in accommodation to the rise or fall of the water. By means of a long pole thrust amongst the weeds at the bottom of the lake from the side of a boat, and turned round several times in the same direction, a quantity of *confervæ*, and of other plants are torn off from the bottom, and carried in the boat to the platform, where the weeds are twisted into conical mounds, about two feet in diameter at their base, and of the same height, terminating at the top in a hollow, which is filled with fresh soft mud, drawn from the bottom of the lake, to which sometimes wood ashes are added, though much more frequently omitted. He has in preparation a large number of cucumber and melon plants, which have been raised under mats, and of these, when they have four leaves, he places three plants in the basin of every cone or mound, of which a double row runs along the edge of every bed, at about two feet distance from each other. No further care is necessary, except that of collecting the fruit, and the expense of preparing the platforms and cones is confined to the value of the labour, which altogether is trifling, as the work is very soon done. Perhaps a more economical method of raising cucumbers cannot be devised, and though the narrow beds are ordinarily almost in contact by their sides, yet, by their flexible nature, they are so separable that a small boat may be readily pushed between the lines without injuring their structure, and, for the most part, they will bear a man's weight, but generally the fruit is picked off from the boat. Abundance of fruit grows wild in Kashmir, and many thousands of acres, striking the foot of the hills, are covered with apple and pear trees, and vines in full bearing. They are also cultivated, as are apricots, peaches, cherries, and plums. An article of horticultural cultivation is the walnut, of which there are four varieties ; one, called *konak*, is wild, the others (*wontu*, *dunu*, and *kaghazi*) are cultivated. The forest walnut is diminutive, with a thick shell and scanty kernel. The *wontu* has a large nut, but the shell is thick and very hard, and the kernel deficient. The *dunu* has a larger nut still, its shell thick and very hard, but in a less

degree ; and the kernel, large and good, is easily extracted. The kaghazi is so called from its shell being nearly as thin as paper (kaghaz), so that it may readily be broken by the hand. It is the longest of the whole, and its kernel larger and easily extracted. Its superiority is said to be attributable to its having been originally engrafted. However this may be, it is now raised from seed alone, and does not degenerate. The nuts, steeped in water for eight days, are planted in the beginning of March, and the shoot generally makes its appearance in about forty days. Walnut oil is preferred to linseed oil for all the uses to which the latter is applied ; and in Kashmir, as on the continent of Europe, it is employed in cookery, and also for burning in lamps, neither much clogging the wick nor yielding much smoke. It is, however, inferior both for cooking and burning, to the oil of til (*sesamum*). This oil possesses such qualities as fairly entitle it to introduction into Europe ; and if divested of its mucilage, it might, perhaps, compete with oil of olives, at least for medicinal purposes, and could be raised in any quantity in the British-Indian provinces.

The indigenous vines are generally planted at the foot of a poplar, and run up to the height of fifty or sixty feet, bearing abundance of fruit. The grapes are commonly thick-skinned, and rather rough and astringent, but juicy. They are gathered about October, and are kept through the winter in shallow earthen vessels, till the spring, when they are applied to the fabrication of wine, vinegar, and brandy. The making of wine was discountenanced under the Afghan government, but has revived under that of the Sikhs. The manufacture is ill conducted, and the liquor is kept in bottles, which are stopped only with plugs of wood, or twisted bark, or paper. No wonder, therefore, that the beverage is indifferent ; but such as it is, it is sufficiently good to show that, with proper treatment and care, the wines of Kashmir might be made to rival many of those of Europe. The Sanjit is plentiful in Kashmir. The tree has a beautiful appearance ; its flowers are exquisitely sweet, and its fruit, by distillation, yields a beverage, which the Chinese hold to be not inferior to that of the grape. The horse-chesnut is wild in the forest, and has not been reclaimed. The hazel is abundant ; but it is so luxuriant in the production of

wood and leaf that the nuts, scarcely of the size of peas, do not come to perfection. The elder is of rapid growth, and the shoots, when the head happens to be destroyed, are straight, tall, and free from knots. The most valuable tree of Kashmir is, however, the deodar, a variety of cedar, the timber of which is extensively employed in the construction of houses, temples, and bridges. The crocus of Kashmir has long been celebrated for the excellence of its saffron. It produces freely the third year, after being planted. The greater part is exported to Hindostan. Among other useful plants occur the *Alisma plantago* and the *Carthamus hirtiorios*. The animals and birds of Kashmir are much the same as those of Hindostan. The horses are small and indifferent; sheep are plentiful, and the mutton is well-flavoured; the fat is particularly white. The cotton plant grows in Kashmir in every variety of situation: it seldom grows much above two feet high, and if taller, is said to yield an inferior article. It is sown in May, and the cotton is gathered in September and October. The cloths made from it, are in general coarse and flimsy; but one kind, called kodak, is of a texture particularly close, though not fine, and of exceeding durability. The manufacture of cotton, however, is not very extensively prosecuted in Kashmir, and the cultivation of the plant is consequently not much attended to. An attempt was made to introduce the nankin, or brown cotton, from Yarkand into Kashmir; but it was said that although the first growth was of as deep a tint as that of the Yarkand plant, yet the produce of the third sowing was white.

It was mentioned that silk was extensively raised in Khoten; and it appears that it extends from thence, through Yarkand and Balti, to Kashmir. In this latter country, the fabric languishes, and the quantity produced is insufficient for domestic consumption. It might, with due encouragement, be carried to any extent.

Honey is much cultivated and used at Kashmir.

A provision for hives is made in building the houses, by leaving appropriate cavities in the walls. These somewhat differ in size, but agree in their general form, each being cylindrical, and extending quite through the wall. This tube is lined by a plastering of clay-mortar, about an inch

in thickness ; and the mortar is worked up with the chaff or husk of rice, or with the down of thistles, which latter, is employed also for clay-mortar in general. The dimensions of a hive are, on an average, about fourteen inches in diameter ; and, when closed at both ends, about twenty or twenty-two inches in length. The walls of farm-houses and cottages differ in respect to their materials ; but are commonly constructed of rough stones, or brick, and of clay or lime-mortar, along with a large admixture of wood, in the district of Lor. That end of the cylinder nearest to the apartment is closed by a round platter of red pottery-ware, a little convex in the middle ; but the edges are made flush with the wall, by a luting of clay-mortar, and the other extremity is shut by a similar dish, having a circular hole, about a third of an inch in diameter, in its centre. It does not appear that there are any particular rules for the height of the hives from the ground, they sometimes being confined to the walls of the lower basement story, generally appropriated to cattle in the farm-houses of Kashmir, at others are inserted into those of the first floor ; but are frequently seen in both situations in the same house, as well as the walls of its out-buildings. So little of difference exists betwixt the practices ordinarily pursued in Kashmir and Europe, in respect to hiving new swarms, as not to call for notice.

The mineral productions of Kashmir have been too little investigated to admit of very exact specification. Iron is found in considerable quantity, but that used for the fabric of gun-barrels is said to be imported from the Punjaub,—a circumstance rather questionable. Copper mines are said to exist ; but their existence is kept secret, lest they should become to the government an additional subject of exaction ; the copper used is British or Russian, imported from Lahore or Yarkand. No lead mines are worked, if they exist. Sulphur is an article of import from the Punjaub.

PROGRESS OF GREAT WORKS IN INDIA.

AFTER the first 416 pages of this book had been printed, the completion of several important measures was announced ; and as they could not be incorporated in their proper places without a very extensive reprint and a derangement of the entire work, it has been deemed advisable to insert them in this place. These measures relate to the introduction of the Electric Telegraph, the progress and scheme of the Railways, the completion of a section of the Ganges Canal, and the establishment of the Roorkee College and Workshop.

ELECTRO-TELEGRAPHIC COMMUNICATION.

The rapidity with which the lines of the Electric Telegraph have been laid down in India, under the auspices of Dr. W. O'Shaughnessy, deserves to be placed at the head of the illustrations of progress. Only a few months have elapsed since the distinguished Professor left England with his staff, and already have the lines been established between Calcutta and Delhi—over Raneegunge, Shergotty, Benares, Allahabad, Mynpooree, and Allyghur—in a north-westerly direction ;—between Bombay and Delhi, embracing Dhoolia, Nassick, Indore, Oojein, Gwalior, and Agra, in a north-easterly course—and between Madras and Bombay, across the Peninsula, touching Bangalore, Bellary, Dharwar, Sattarah, Poonah, and Kallian. It is intended, at present, that the lines shall further run from Delhi to Peshawur, embracing in their course, Kurnaul, Amballah, Loodiana, Lahore, Wuzeerabad, Rawul Pindee, and Attock. When complete, there will thus be 1,453 miles of wire between Calcutta and Peshawur ; 754 miles between Madras and Bombay ; and 605 miles between Bombay and Agra. The communication between Bombay and Calcutta is, of course, *via* Agra and Allighur, as, excepting Nagpore, there are no towns or stations of any consequence lying between the two Presidency cities in a direct line.

RAILWAY COMMUNICATION.

At the present moment (July, 1854), the only Railways absolutely open are those between Calcutta and the coal district of Rajmehal, *via* Raneegunge, 190 miles; Madras and Vellore, 80 miles; and Bombay and Poonah, 85 miles. A length of line, exceeding that of the Electric Telegraph, is, however, in course of preparation, and when complete, the communication will be as follows.

	Miles.
Calcutta to Peshawur	1560
Bombay to Agra, <i>via</i> Surat, Baroda, Dholpoor, &c. .	710
Bombay to Allahabad, <i>via</i> Dhoolia, Indore, and Gwalior .	750
Bombay to Nagpore	470
Madras to Beypore, <i>via</i> Vellore, Salem, and Coimbatore .	370
Madras to Bombay, <i>via</i> Bellary, Dharwar, Sattarah, &c. .	670

THE GANGES CANAL.

The main object of this canal is to irrigate the North-western Provinces; the total length, 810 miles, carries it through Hurdwar, Allyghur, Cawnpore, and Humeerpore (530 miles), with branches to Futtehghur, Bolandshuhur, and Coel, which occupy the remainder of the space. A ridge of land rises slightly above the level of the adjacent country, and runs along the centre of the Doab, sloping down on the one side to the Jumna and on the other to the Ganges. The canal has been constructed on the top of this ridge to the vicinity of Allyghur, whence it diverges in two channels, one to Cawnpore and the other to Humeerpore, *via* Etawah. The works having been completed, the Ganges Canal was opened with due ceremony and in the presence of a large concourse of spectators, in April, 1854, and the water admitted on an aqueduct across the Solani river at Roorkee. A more important enterprise in reference to the vast blessings which it is calculated to confer upon the inhabitants of the districts, could not have been carried out. The canal has occupied thirty-seven years in completion. The Government, duly estimating the value of the services of Colonel Cautley, who, with great energy and perseverance had brought

it to a close, caused him to be honoured, on his departure from India, with a salute from the batteries of Fort William, and published a highly eulogistic order. At the same time it put forth in English and the native languages, an extremely interesting and valuable description of the canal, narrating the motives of its construction, and detailing its probable influences on the welfare of the people and the country. After describing the canals on the western and eastern banks of the Jumna, constructed during the Mahomedan rule, the document proceeds to say :—

“These two Canals are the only large works on this river that were executed during the Mahomedan Raj, of which the remains were in existence when that Raj terminated, and the British took its place as the Supreme Authority in those provinces. The Canal on the west of the Jumna during the three hundred years or more that it flowed, had been a great blessing to the country in supplying water for irrigation, but that on the east bank had been of very little use, and indeed had been abandoned very soon after its construction.

“When the British Government found time to devise measures for improving the condition of its people, it gave its attention to the restoration of these ancient canals ; it constructed a great many new works upon them, enlarged their channels, so that they could hold much more water than before ; built a great many bridges for travellers to cross over, dug Rajbhas to carry the water to distant villages, and put them altogether in a state of efficiency far superior to that in which they had ever been at any former time. Hence great tracts of country once desert and without inhabitants are now filled with people, the crops that were liable to perish every year from the want of rain, are now secure, and every man on the banks of the canals can sleep soundly, without dreaming of the loss of all his year's toil because showers do not fall ; and he knows that his family is sure of bread, even though the rains should fail altogether.

“But it was only in a small part of these extensive provinces that such a fortunate condition of security and comfort had been established. Narrow tracts east and west of the Jumna, a small area in the Dehra Dhoon, and a portion of Rohilkhund east of the Ganges, only had been protected

from the scourge of drought by the rivers having been used to supply channels of irrigation and give fertility to the thirsty land. All the rest of these rich provinces were open to devastation by an accidental failure of the monsoon, and no man could tell at what time, or under what circumstances, such a failure would occur. Thus temporary prosperity was no guarantee for continued well-doing; the abundant harvest of this year might be followed by the utter loss of that of next. From time to time terrible calamities of this class had swept over the face of these provinces, bringing in their train ruin to the prosperous and death to the poor; involving all in the common miseries of famine and pestilence, degradation and crime. A wise and beneficent Government sympathizes with its people under sufferings like these, and does not content itself with mere sympathy, but seeks out the means to relieve them while they last, and to prevent their recurrence when happily they have passed away. The great leading motive, therefore, by which the British Government was led to sanction the Ganges Canal in the first instance, and to carry it forward from its commencement to its close with all the resources in men, money, and materials that could be procured, was to secure to its people in the country between the rivers Ganges and Jumna an immunity from the pains and losses that famine brings with it. This country is inhabited by nearly six millions of souls; it is thickly covered with villages occupied by industrious agricultural communities dependent on the soil for their daily bread; Many towns and cities are scattered over its surface, and filled with active merchants, busy tradesmen, and industrious mechanics, of no mean skill in their crafts. To preserve all these people, with their wives and children, in security and comfort, it is above all things needful that the products of the soil should be secured; and under an Indian sun, and with Indian systems of culture, an abundant supply of water is the first want of the zemindar: such a supply the Ganges Canal will bring to the boundary pillars of nearly every Rukba in the provinces.

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“Again, while Government has thus thought of the zemindars, it has not forgotten the Mahajuns. Trade will share with agriculture in the benefits of the canal. The main

channel and every branch will receive boats to carry the merchandise of Calcutta and Benares and Mirzapoor to the inland towns of the Doab. The North-west Provinces will be linked for commercial purposes with Bengal. The products of Europe and other foreign countries across the ocean will find their way by a continuous water-carriage to the shops and markets of the towns along the whole valley of the Ganges from the seashore to the base of the Himalayas."

THE COLLEGE OF CIVIL ENGINEERS AT ROORKEE.

ROORKEE, situated about sixty miles north of Meerut, and contiguous to Seharunpore, is the head-quarters of the establishment of one of the greatest engineering-works of the day—the construction of the Ganges Canal. It is also centrally situated with respect to other works. It easily communicates with Calcutta; it has Rohilcund and its works on one side, the Jumna with its canals on the other; Dehra Dhoon and Mussooree are immediately to the north; and it is more accessible from the Punjaub than any other place.

The necessity having long been felt for some systematic training of Civil Engineers for the construction of roads and canals, draining and irrigations, some attempts were made in 1845 to prepare certain of the youths of the Agra and Delhi Colleges for the public service in this department. When, however, the first Punjaub war had been brought to a close, under the government of Lord Hardinge, and an opportunity was afforded of vigorously prosecuting the Ganges Canal, the Governor-General determined to place the system of instruction on a more extended basis, and he therefore directed the establishment of a college at Roorkee. The motives for selecting this spot, in addition to those given above, were, that there were large workshops and extensive structures in course of formation, a library, and a model-room, and a number of scientific and experienced engineer officers constantly assembled on the spot or occasionally resorting thither. The experiment has been perfectly successful. The earliest pupils were candidates for the appointment of Sub-Assistant Engineer, European non-commissioned officers and soldiers, intended as overseers of public works, and

native youths desirous of instruction in surveying, levelling, and plan-drawing. A certain degree of preparation was required of all; less of the third than the first or second classes. An acquaintance with arithmetic, geometry, algebra, mensuration, plane and spherical trigonometry, conic sections, and mechanics, was among the principal conditions of acceptance. The establishment was completed and the building opened in January, 1848. The second Punjaub war caused a temporary suspense of the operations of the college in 1849; but they were soon resumed, and in 1850, forty-two students had been supplied for the public service; and there were fifty in the college in 1851. - Since then, the college has become so important a nursery for civil engineers, and enjoys so high a reputation, that its means of usefulness have been largely increased, and still the demand for engineers, surveyors, and overseers, is greatly in excess of the means of supply. Highly-qualified men, on liberal salaries, fill the offices of principal and masters; and when the college is complete in all the branches suggested by Sir Charles Napier, the late Commander-in-Chief in India, it will be unrivalled. One of its features particularly deserves attention. It embraces a dépôt for the safe custody of mathematical instruments, and a workshop for their manufacture and repair. Hitherto such instruments had been obtained from England, and not always of a character suited to the exigencies of the service; and when they got broken or out of repair, there was no possibility of restoring them. Lieutenant Allen, of the 55th regiment, engineer of the Ganges Canal Workshop, organized an establishment for the repair of instruments, and its great success formed the nucleus of that branch of the college. A museum of economic geology, an observatory for instruction, lithographic and typographic printing presses also form part of the institution. In an able paper descriptive of the course and purposes of the great Ganges Canal, there occurs the following description of the workshop and college as seen from the canal:—

“The great mass of building occupying the high land on the right of the canal, and even stretching down nearly to the level of the valley of the Solani, is the Roorkee Workshop, or, as it might more properly from its magnitude and the nature of its contents be called, the Factory. The high

chimneys rising above the inclosure, and pouring out volumes of dense smoke, indicate the nature of the powers by which movement is given to the machinery within. A steam-engine is constantly at work driving saw-mills, and planing-machines, and punching-machines, and lathes, and such other pieces of mechanism as are required for the varied demands of the works. Suites of rooms are filled as with a forest of shafts and bands, and during working hours the presiding spirit is one of active energy and sustained effort. Outside the machine-shops, but within the workshop walls, the busy groups of blacksmiths and carpenters carry on their tasks ; numerous forges are blazing, and the din of many hammers is heard, while the quieter work in wood goes on with equal though less noisy vigour. The front building, with its clock and tower and sonorous bell, is the Model-room, where some beautiful pieces of intricate and delicate work may be examined, in steam pile-engines, iron roofs, bridges, &c., as proofs of the intelligent dexterity at which the Roorkee workmen have already arrived. On the lower levels, buildings for an iron-foundry, a mathematical-instrument shop, store and show rooms are rapidly advancing towards completion, and when they are finished and in full employ, the factory will be competent to supply many most important wants both for the public service and the general community.

“One grand object which Government has had in view in organizing this promising establishment is, that it should act as a school of industry for the native workmen, in whom we have an educational material to work with, at once plastic, impressionable, industrious, and skilful in manual labour. When such a material is moulded by minds highly trained and acting upon it with combined kindness, patience, and vigour, the results already attained prove how much more is yet to be done. There are old habits and old prepossessions, old methods and old means to be contended with ; but these have in some measure even now melted away beneath the influence of European science, wisely and considerably displayed ; and it is difficult to over-estimate the extent to which such progress may be stimulated hereafter.

“Such is the machinery at work for the improvement of the working artisan. On the opposite side of the station, and occupying the crest of a gentle eminence, there rises

another mass of buildings designed in excellent architectural taste, and imposing in its extent and general effect. This is the new Roorkee College of Civil Engineering, not yet quite complete, but rapidly approaching completion. Within its walls are being educated various classes of public servants, to whose efficiency high mental training is essential. Commissioned officers and soldiers, pupils of the European seminaries, of the Government Colleges and of the humble village schools, are all gathered together, and each class is receiving the instruction suited to its future destination. A library, a museum, an observatory, a printing press department, copper-engraving, wood-cutting and lithography are either in existence or in contemplation; and the educational machinery of the College will in course of time become as complete as that of like establishments in Europe."

APPENDIX.

THE CIVIL SERVICE.

RULES OF THE EAST-INDIA COLLEGE, HAILEYBURY, FOR THE EDUCATION OF CIVILIANS.

Nomination of Students.—Regulations and Preparatory Instructions.

No Candidate for the College can be nominated thereto, whose age is less than *seventeen* or above *twenty-one* years. And no person who has been dismissed from the Army or Navy, or expelled from any place of education, will be nominated to the College.

The parent or guardian of every candidate for the college will be required to address the following letter to the nominating Director:—

Sir:—I beg to assure you, on my honour, that my ———, to whom you have been so good as to give a nomination to the college, has not been dismissed from the Army or the Navy, and that he never has been expelled from any place of education.

I have the honour to be, &c.

Candidates for the college must produce the undermentioned documents, previously to their being nominated as students.

An extract from the parish register of their birth or baptism, properly signed by the minister, churchwarden, or elders; and, in addition thereto,

A certificate, agreeably to the following form, signed by the parent, guardian, or near relation.

I do hereby certify, that the foregoing extract from the register of baptisms of the parish of ———, in the county of ———, contains the date of the birth of my ———, who is the bearer of this, and presented for a nomination as a student at the East-India

College, by ———, Esq.; and I do further declare, that I received the said presentation for my ——— gratuitously, and that no money or other valuable consideration has been or is to be paid, either directly or indirectly, for the same, and that I will not pay or cause to be paid, either by myself, by my ———, or by the hands of any other person, any pecuniary or valuable consideration whatsoever, to any person or persons who have interested themselves in procuring the said presentation for my ———, from the Director above mentioned.

Witness my hand, this ——— day of ———, in the year of our Lord ———.

In the event of no parish register existing or to be found, a declaration of such circumstance is to be made before a magistrate to the following effect, viz.

I, ———, presented as a student for the East-India College by ———, do declare, that I have caused search to be made for a parish register whereby to ascertain my age, but am unable to produce the same, there being none to be found; and, further, I declare, that from the information of my parents (and other relations), which information I verily believe to be true, that I was born in the parish of ———, in the county of ———, on ———, in the year ———, and that I am not at this time under the age of sixteen, or above twenty-one years.

Witness my hand, this ——— day of ———, in the year of our Lord ———.

The parent, guardian, or near relation, must then add his certificate as to the truth of the declaration, which must be similar to that ordered to be annexed to the extract from the parish register.

The above-mentioned certificate (and declaration, in cases where a declaration shall be required) are to be annexed to the petition to be written by the candidate, and they are to sign a declaration thereon, that they have read these printed instructions. The same declaration is to be signed by the parent, guardian, or near relation of the candidates respectively.

Candidates will be interrogated in an open Committee as to their character, connections, and qualifications, conformably to the General Court's resolution of the 6th July, 1809. The nature of this interrogation may be known on application to the Clerk of the College department. And the following Rules and Regulations are to be observed with respect to the examination of Candidates:

Each candidate shall produce testimonials of good moral conduct, under the hand of the principal or superior authority of the college or public institution in which he may have been educated, or under the hand of the private instructor to whose care he may have been confided; and the said testimonials shall have reference to his conduct during the *two years immediately preceding his presentation for admission.*

Each candidate shall be examined in the Four Gospels of the

Greek Testament, and shall not be deemed duly qualified for admission to Haileybury College, unless he be found to possess a competent knowledge thereof; nor unless he be able to render into English some portion of the works of one of the following Greek authors:—Homer, Herodotus, Xenophon, Thucydides, Sophocles, and Euripides; nor unless he can render into English some portion of the works of one of the following Latin authors:—Livy, Terence, Cicero, Tacitus, Virgil, and Horace; and this part of the examination will include questions in ancient history, geography, and philosophy.

Each candidate shall also be examined in English history and geography, and in the elements of mathematical science, including the common rules of arithmetic, vulgar and decimal fractions, and the first four books of Euclid. He shall also be examined in the first part of Paley's *Evidences of Christianity*.

It is, however, to be understood, that superior attainments in one of the departments of literature or science, comprised in the foregoing plan of examination, shall, at the discretion of the Examiners, be considered to compensate for comparative deficiency in other qualifications.

The examinations are held at the East-India House, half-yearly, in the months of *January* and *July*.

A student publicly expelled the college will not be admitted into the Company's civil or military service in India, or into the Company's Military Seminary.

No person can be appointed a member of the Company's Civil Service whose age is less than eighteen or more than twenty-three years, nor until he shall have resided four terms at least in the College, and shall have obtained a certificate signed by the Principal of his having conformed himself to the statutes and regulations of the College.

On a student's appointment to be a Member of the Civil Service, he will be required to attend at the Secretary's Office, East-India House, to make the necessary arrangements for entering into covenant, and for giving a bond for 1,000*l.* jointly with two sureties for the due fulfilment of the same; and a legal instrument is to be entered into by some one person (to be approved by the Court of Directors)-binding himself to pay the sum of 3,000*l.*, as liquidated damages, to the Company, for breach of a covenant to be entered into that the student's nomination hath not been in any way bought, or sold, or exchanged for anything convertible into a pecuniary benefit.

The rank of students leaving the college is determined by the certificate of the Principal, which is granted with reference to the industry, proficiency, and general good behaviour of the students.

Such rank to take effect only in the event of the students proceeding to India within six months after they are so ranked, whether they proceed *viâ* Egypt or the Cape of Good Hope.

Terms of Admission for Students.

One hundred guineas per annum, for each student; a moiety whereof to be paid at the commencement of each term, there being two in the year, besides the expense of books and stationery.

Students to provide themselves with a table-spoon, table-knife, and silver fork; also, with not less than two pairs of sheets, two pillow-cases, and two breakfast-cloths.

Ten guineas to be paid on leaving College by each student, for the use of the library.

College Terms.

1st commences 19th Jan. and ends 30th June	} in each Year.
2nd ditto 10th Sept. and ends 15th Dec.	

N.B. The Students are to provide themselves with proper Academic Habits.

FURLOUGH RULES.

(Referred to at page 51 of the Hand-Book.)

[The regulations on the subject of furloughs have not yet been promulgated; but as it is not to be expected that these arrangements, which the Court of Directors have approved, will undergo much modification in India, the subjoined extract from a recent Despatch from the Court to the Bengal Government may be accepted, *ad interim*, as the basis, at least, of the future Rules.]

Copy Public Despatch to the Government of India, No. 23, dated 5th April, 1854.

LEAVE ON MEDICAL CERTIFICATE.

2. The present rules allow of the absence of civil servants from their stations under medical certificate, within the limits of their presidencies for a period of two years with retention of office, but subject to a deduction of one-third from the salary thereof for the whole period of absence. They allow a civil servant to proceed under medical certificate to any place beyond the limits of the presidency to which he belongs, but within the limits of the Company's charter, for any period not exceeding two years, without loss of office, but subject to deductions* from the salary thereof, to the extent specified in the margin.

* If salary exceeds Rs. 2,000 per month, for the first year, 1-6, and for the second year, 1-4. If not exceeding Rs. 2,000 per month, for the first year, 1-8, and for the 2nd year, 1-6. If not more than Rs. 500 per month, no deduction for the first year, and only so much of the 1-8 as will reduce it to Rs. 500; if above that sum, for the 2nd year, 1-8.

3. After having given our best consideration to the subject, we propose to adopt the following rules in lieu of those which have been referred to. We do not think it necessary, adverting to the increased facility of communication which has been offered by the improved means of transport, and which the construction of railroads in India will further increase, to maintain the restriction as to places and geographical limits, which are now imposed by the regulations on officers absent on sick leave. We are disposed to permit any officer of this class to proceed to any place in India, in Europe, or elsewhere, as he may consider most conducive to the restoration of his health; and we intend therefore to impose no restrictions whatever as to the places to which he may resort.

4. The following conditions must in future attach to leaves of absence granted to servants who shall have resided ten years and upwards in India, and who may be declared by a sufficient medical certificate to require such leave for the recovery of their health.

1. The total period of absence with the privileges hereinafter provided, shall not (save as specially excepted in par. 5 of this despatch) exceed eighteen months in the whole, nor shall it exceed fifteen months on any one occasion.

2. The office of the absentee will be considered to be vacated if he shall be absent beyond eighteen months altogether, or beyond fifteen months at any one time, such absence to be computed, if he shall proceed to a sanitarium within the presidency, from the date of his arrival thereat; if to any place beyond the presidency, but within the continent of India, from the date of his reaching the limits of his own presidency; and if he shall proceed to sea, from the date of the sailing of the vessel on which he may have embarked, from any port in India, which is not more distant from his station than the ports of his own presidency, to the date of his arrival at any port within the presidency to which he belongs, or at any other port which is not more distant from his station than the ports of his own presidency.

3. The absentee will be entitled to draw a moiety of his salary, and the same will be paid to him during such period of absence, provided that he shall in no case draw a larger sum than Rs. 10,000 (£1,000) per annum during that period. In cases in which the emolument of the absentee's office does not exceed Rs. 5,000 per annum, no deduction therefrom shall be made for the period of eighteen months, nor shall such a deduction be made in other cases as shall reduce the allowance below Rs. 5,000 (£500) per annum.

4. If the absentee be compelled by the state of his health, under due medical certificate, to remain absent for a longer period than eighteen months, or fifteen months at any one time, he will, as before stated, vacate his appointment, but he will be permitted to receive an allowance at the rate of £500 per annum, for such further period of absence as shall not exceed the entire term of three years in the whole. At the expiration of that term, all allowance must cease until the servant's return to India.

5. If a civil servant of more than fifteen years' service, after having been absent on sick leave for eighteen months in the whole, or for fifteen months at one time, at whatever period of his service such

sick leave shall have been taken, shall be again compelled by the same cause to apply for leave of absence, your government, and those of the subordinate presidencies, may on special grounds grant leave of absence for one further period not exceeding six months, during which the absentee may retain his office and half his salary under the limits above enjoined.

6. If a civil servant, after fifteen years' service, shall be compelled by ill health to apply for further leave of absence, he may be permitted on special grounds to obtain it, but his absence will involve the loss of office and salary; we shall however vest in your government, and in the subordinate governments respectively, a discretionary power to grant in such last-mentioned cases a sick absentee allowance not exceeding Rs. 5,000 or \$500 per annum, for a further period not exceeding twelve months.

7. With regard to junior civil servants who may be compelled by sickness, certified in a similar manner, to quit their stations before the completion of ten years' residence, we have resolved to modify the existing rule by limiting the period of absence to eighteen months, or thirteen months at any one time. They will not retain their appointments, but we shall permit them to draw during this period, an allowance at the rate of \$250 per annum, as at present; and if any junior servant absent as aforesaid be prevented by the state of his health, under due medical certificate, from returning to his duty at the end of the periods above named, he will be permitted to continue absent for a further term not exceeding eighteen months with the same allowance.

8. A junior civil servant having enjoyed either of the above-named advantages will not be entitled to the leave of absence provided for servants of more than ten years' service, after he shall have attained that standing, but if after he has attained it, he shall be compelled again by ill health to quit his station, and provided that his former periods of absence shall have fallen short of three years in the aggregate, he may be permitted, under medical certificate, to receive a further leave of absence for such a period as shall make up the entire length of absence to three years; and during that additional period he shall receive an allowance at the rate of \$500 per annum. He will however be entitled after fifteen years' service to the benefit of the special leave authorized to be granted according to pars. 5 and 6 of this despatch.

9. None of the above-mentioned rules will be applicable to members of council, each member may however, with the special sanction of the Government, be permitted to be absent, under medical certificate, for a period not exceeding six months, retaining his office and receiving half his salary, which shall be paid to him during such absence; but if his absence shall exceed six months, his office will be vacated.

10. The privilege of retaining office and a portion of salary for a limited period when on sick leave, will render it necessary that great attention should be paid to the medical certificates which may be produced by applicants for this leave. It is most essential to provide against any abuse of this privilege, and we desire that your immediate attention may be given to this subject, with the

view of such strict regulations being framed as may prevent certificates being obtained on insufficient grounds. You will forward to us the regulations that you may think requisite for this purpose.

SHORT LEAVE OF ABSENCE ON PRIVATE AFFAIRS.

11. It appearing that the existing rules with respect to the grant of leave of absence on private affairs for short periods work well on the whole, we do not propose to make any change in them. The maximum continuous period for which such leave can be granted (without loss of office) will therefore continue to be four months, viz., one month privilege leave, and three months "special leave" on sufficient cause being shown, as provided in the present rule.

12. We have on many former occasions adverted to the evils connected with the multiplication of *acting appointments*, and we rely upon your exercising the most vigilant attention that the repeated and particular instructions addressed to you from time to time upon this subject may be carried into effect, and especially those contained in our Financial Letter of the 3rd July, 1844, No. 11.

13. You will not fail also to recollect that it is to be held as a principle not to be departed from, that no expense to Government is to ensue from the absence of officers from their stations, whether on sick leave or on short furlough on private affairs, and you will therefore so regulate the sums to be paid to the persons holding acting appointments, as to ensure that the aggregate amount of official salaries and emoluments shall on the one hand be appropriated to the liberal remuneration of the acting officers, and on the other hand cover the expense of the sums paid to the absentees. We desire that an annual account may be transmitted to us, showing how this rule is carried out at each of the presidencies.

FURLOUGHS ON PRIVATE AFFAIRS.

14. In place of the period of three years (in one term) for which the furlough is now granted, we have determined to concede to our civil servants the option of taking a furlough of three years as at present, or of dividing the furlough into two periods, which may either be of one or two years respectively, or of eighteen months each, provided that in every such case the civil servant shall declare on taking his furlough, whether he intends it to be for twelve, eighteen, or twenty-four months, in order that the Government may make its arrangements accordingly. In case of such division, the first furlough to be taken after a residence of not less than ten years, and the second furlough after a further residence in India of ten years from the date of return from the first furlough. But civil servants returning on furlough to this country will continue, as at present, to vacate their offices.

15. Having thus regulated the periods of furlough, we shall continue to grant for those periods the furlough allowance at present given, namely £500 per annum.

16. We shall not encourage the grant of extensions of furlough

beyond the prescribed period, nor shall we, upon any ground whatever, permit the receipt of furlough allowance for any longer period than three years, under the rules above stated.

17. Civil servants who may have been compelled by sickness to quit their duty under medical certificate, before completing ten years' residence, will be entitled to receive during their furlough on private affairs, taken subsequently to their completion of that period of residence, the ordinary furlough allowance of £500 per annum, for three years.

18. In applying the foregoing rules in substitution of those now existing, periods of absence to the limit of three years, either on medical certificate or on furlough private affairs, will count as service in India in the twenty-five years entitling to the annuity, the present qualification of twenty-two years' residence being retained. Periods of short leave of absence on private affairs taken in India, will count as service and residence as at present.

19. In the above regulations we have endeavoured to provide for the efficiency of the public service, while we have been anxious to extend every fair and reasonable allowance to our servants; and considering the present rules for the grant of leave to the Cape, &c., to admit of much abuse which cannot fail to be disadvantageous to the public service, it is our desire that the new rules with regard to sick leave shall apply to all our servants from the date of their promulgation.

20. We entirely concur in the opinion expressed in pars. 5 and 6 of your despatch in this department dated the 3rd May, 1850, No. 21, that it is advisable to prescribe, by rule, some period of service after which civil servants shall not be appointed to any new office, nor be permitted to retain office which they may have held for a period of five years and upwards, and we have resolved to establish thirty-five years as the period of service for the purpose in question. This rule must as you suggest be subject to exceptions in special cases which are to be referred for our decision. In such cases your recommendation will not fail to receive our prompt consideration. The above rule may be applied to every civil servant appointed to office after its promulgation, and to the case of every other civil servant to whom it relates, at the close of five years from the date of its promulgation.

BENGAL CIVIL SERVICE ANNUITY FUND.

Extracts from the Regulations as sanctioned by the Hon. the Court of Directors.

1st. The subscribers to the Bengal Civil Service Annuity Fund are the covenanted civil servants upon the Bengal establishment. They shall continue, as long as they remain in the service; to contribute for the purposes of the Fund, four per cent. of their

salaries and all other public emoluments whatever (travelling allowance alone excepted).

2nd. The annuities are fixed at 10,000 sicca rupees, payable in India, or 1,000*l.* sterling, payable in England. In discharge of each annuity payable in England, the sum of 1,000*l.* sterling shall be paid to the annuitant through the Company's treasury in London, the managers of the Fund undertaking to pay over to the Government of Bengal 10,000 sicca rupees for every year's annuity so paid.

3rd. Those subscribers only shall be qualified for annuities of the amount aforesaid, who have served in the civil service twenty-five years, and actually resided twenty-two years in India.

4th. The annuities of each year shall commence with the 1st of May, and shall be payable quarterly at the close of each quarter, and to the date of the annuitant's decease.

5th. The number of annuities assignable on account of each year, from the 1st of May, 1851, shall be ten, and they shall be available, subject to the provisions of the following rule, to all qualified subscribers, according to their seniority in the gradation list of the service, as fixed by the Court of Directors. But if any subscriber having become qualified for an annuity, shall retire from the service before the option of an annuity may devolve upon him, he shall nevertheless be entitled to the same in his turn, as though his name had remained upon the gradation list of the service.

6th. On the 1st of November of every year, the ten annuities that are to become available on the following 1st of May shall be assigned to those qualified subscribers in order of seniority, from whom applications for annuities shall have been received before the said 1st of November. After the 1st of November, any of the said ten annuities which shall not have been assigned under the preceding clause, shall be assignable to all qualified subscribers in order of application.

11th. Any subscriber not having served twenty-five years, and actually resided twenty-two years, who may be compelled to retire from the Honourable Company's service by sickness, duly certified as below provided, shall be entitled to receive either a donation or an invalid pension of reduced amount as follows :—

If he shall not have completed ten years' residence, a donation of.....	sa. rs.	5,000
Or		£500
If he shall have completed ten years' residence, but less than fifteen years, a pension of.....	sa. rs.	2,500
Or		£250
If he shall have completed fifteen years' residence, a pension of	sa. rs.	5,000
Or		£500

12th. The grant of invalid pensions shall be made in all respects upon the same principles as are prescribed in articles viii. and ix. of the rules; that is to say, in order to entitle a subscriber to an inva-

lid pension of 500*l.* a year, or 250*l.* a year, as the case may be, it will be necessary for him to make good one half of the value of such pension, but it will be optional with him in the event of his subscriptions not being equal to the half value, to take a reduced pension of 250*l.* or 125*l.* a year, increased by such additional amount as his contributions may suffice to purchase according to the table of valuation in force.

13th. It will be necessary for every subscriber applying for an invalid pension, to furnish to the managers of the Fund a certificate from his usual medical attendant, countersigned either by the Medical Board in Calcutta, or by a special committee of medical officers, to consist of not fewer than three members, convened by the Honourable the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, certifying that he is, from some permanent cause or complaint, incapable of rendering service in the climate of India; and it will further be necessary that such certificate be confirmed by the examining physician of the Honourable Court of Directors, after the subscriber shall have resided one year in England.

17th. Any subscriber who may be dismissed from the Honourable Company's service, shall forfeit all right to any benefit from the Civil Service Annuity Fund.

18th. The interest in the Fund, of any subscriber who may be suspended from the Honourable Company's service, shall be in abeyance during his suspension, and shall revive upon his restoration. But this provision shall not be held to apply to civil servants out of employ (from whatever cause), who shall be permitted to draw the subsistence allowance of their rank.

* * * The periods at which the quarterly payments will be made are the first days of February, May, August, and November, in each year.

CIVIL FUND.

(Instituted October, 1804.)

Extract Regulations.

ART. I. The object of the Civil Fund is to provide for the maintenance of the widows and children of such of the subscribers as may not, at their deaths, leave property sufficient for the subsistence and education of their families.

ART. XXI. On the death of any subscriber to the Fund, who may not be possessed of property sufficient to provide for his family, and may leave a wife cohabiting with or maintained by him, or living under his protection at the period of his decease, without an adequate provision for her support as hereafter specified, if, on the information which may be submitted by her, or in her behalf, to the managers of the Fund, it shall appear to the satisfaction of a general meeting of the subscribers that she is a proper object of

the Fund, a pension shall be assigned to her from the Fund, under the provisions and with the limitations stated in the following article, provided that nothing contained therein, or in any part of the rules of this institution, shall be considered to entitle to the benefits of it, any widow who may have been separated under a legal decision from her husband for misconduct on her part, or who may be known to have been living in a state of adultery, though not divorced or separated from him by law.

ART. XXII. First. If the widow, at the time of her husband's death, be resident in India, and be left without an income exceeding one hundred Company's rupees per mensem, a pension shall be assigned to her from the Fund, of three hundred Company's rupees per mensem, during her residence in India. If the widow be not resident in India at the time of her husband's death, or shall afterwards quit India, and her income from her husband's estate, or otherwise, shall not exceed 100*l.* sterling per annum, the pension to be assigned to her from the Fund shall be 300*l.* sterling per annum.

Secondly. If the income of the widow, resident in India at the death of her husband, be more than one hundred Company's rupees per mensem, but shall not exceed four hundred per mensem during her residence in India, or if the widow be not resident in India at the time of her husband's death, or shall afterwards quit India, and her income be more than 100*l.* sterling per annum, but shall not exceed 400*l.* sterling per annum, the pension to be assigned to her from the Fund shall be such as will make up her income to four hundred Company's rupees per mensem, during her residence in India, or 400*l.* sterling per annum in Europe or elsewhere.

Thirdly. In the event of a widow to whom a pension may have been assigned from the Fund, acquiring subsequently, by inheritance, bequest, or otherwise, any property or income which, with the property left on her husband's decease, and the pension received by her from the Fund, may render her total income, including her pension from the Fund, more than four hundred Company's rupees per mensem, during her residence in India, or more than 400*l.* sterling per annum in Europe or elsewhere, her pension from the Fund shall be liable to abatement in proportion to the excess of her entire income, including the pension above the sum specified, or to be altogether discontinued in the event of her property or income, exclusive of the pension assigned to her from the Fund, being equal to the full sum of four hundred Company's rupees per mensem in India, or 400*l.* sterling per annum in Europe or elsewhere.

Fourthly. All pensions to widows shall be discontinued on their re-marriage. But in the event of their being again left in a state of widowhood without an adequate provision for their support, and of their appearing to be proper objects of this Fund, they may be again admitted to the benefits of it, under the same provisions and limitations as on their original admission.

Fifthly. The pensions to widows, who may be admitted to the

benefits of the Fund, shall be paid in advance half-yearly to themselves, or to their authorized agents; but the acknowledgment of the widow herself shall be taken for all sums paid on her behalf, and shall contain a solemn declaration that her entire income, including the pension received by her, does not exceed the sum of four hundred Company's rupees per mensem, if she be resident in India, or 400*l.* sterling per annum, if she reside in Europe or elsewhere. And it shall be incumbent on the managers to suspend the payment of the pension of any widows who may refuse to make such declaration, reporting the case for the decision of a general meeting of the subscribers.

ART. XXIII. If any subscriber to the Fund shall die without the means of providing for his family, and shall consequently leave a child or children born in wedlock, without an adequate provision for their maintenance and education, and if, on the information, documents, or evidence which may be submitted on their behalf to the managers of the Fund, it shall appear to the satisfaction of a general meeting of the subscribers that they are proper objects of the Fund, an allowance for their maintenance and education shall be assigned from the Fund, under the provisions and limitations contained in the following article.

ART. XXIV. First. If the child or children of the deceased subscriber shall be left without any provision from his estate or otherwise, the allowance for the education and maintenance of each child to be granted from the Fund in India, or in Europe, shall be according to the age of the child, as follows: viz.—till five years of age, thirty Company's rupees per mensem in India, or 30*l.* sterling per annum in Europe; from the commencement of the sixth year to the end of the eighth year, forty Company's rupees per mensem in India, or 60*l.* sterling per annum in Europe; from the commencement of the ninth year to the end of the eleventh year, fifty Company's rupees per mensem in India, or 80*l.* sterling per annum, in Europe; from the commencement of the twelfth year, sixty Company's rupees per mensem in India, or 100*l.* sterling per annum in Europe.

Secondly. If any provision be left by a subscriber for his child or children, or if after his death such child or children shall at any time become possessed of any property or income, by inheritance, bequest, or otherwise, but not such as to afford the sums specified for their education and maintenance, the allowance to be granted from the Fund shall be such as, in addition to the property or income possessed by them, will make up the several sums above specified, according to their respective ages, and as they may be resident in India or in Europe.

Thirdly. In the event of the property or income left to the child or children of a subscriber at his death, or which may subsequently devolve to, or be in any wise acquired by them, being such as to afford the amount specified for their education and maintenance, they will not be entitled to any allowance from the Fund; and any allowances which may have been granted before such accession of property or income shall be discontinued.

Fourthly. The allowances granted from the Fund, for the main-

tenance and education of children, shall be paid in advance, half-yearly, to their guardians, or relatives having the care of them, or to such persons as may be intrusted with the disbursements of the sums allotted for them, either by the managers of the Fund in India, or by the agents to the Fund in England.

Fifthly. The provision so made from the Fund for the maintenance and education of female children, shall cease on their marriage, and the provision for male children shall cease on their being settled in any profession or employment, or on their attaining the age of twenty-one years, whichever shall first happen.

ART. XXV. No family becoming hereafter dependent on the Fund shall receive from the Fund an allowance exceeding in all 600*l*. sterling per annum, or, in India, six hundred Company's rupees per mensem; and the reduction shall be made rateably.

ART. XXXIII. If a subscriber to the Fund, who has served twenty-two years in India, retires from the service, or if, having served ten years in India, he retires from ill-health, and at the time of retirement, as above stated, shall have contributed by his previous payments to the Fund, including interest, the sum of twenty-five thousand Company's rupees, or if, on his quitting the service, he shall pay to the Fund what may be wanting to complete his contribution to that amount, such contribution shall entitle the family of such subscriber on his death to the benefits of the institution, under the several provisions hereinbefore stated, or such as may hereafter be established, in like manner as if his death had taken place during his residence and actual subscription to the fund in India. The family of any subscriber to the Fund who may die during his temporary absence from India on leave, shall be considered entitled to the benefits of the Fund under the existing rules. Subscribers in India who may cease to receive any public allowances, shall be considered as having retired from the service from the date of their allowances ceasing. In all cases not expressly provided for, it shall be at the option of the subscribers at large to admit or reject the claim of any subscriber or his family; and such decision, duly passed, shall be final and conclusive.

MADRAS CIVIL SERVICE ANNUITY FUND.

The rules and regulations of this Fund are assimilated to those of the Bengal Fund.

BOMBAY CIVIL SERVICE ANNUITY FUND.

The rules and regulations of this Fund are assimilated to those of the Bengal Fund.

BOMBAY CIVIL FUND.**SECTION V.***Fund.*

Art. 1. The objects of the Institution and Fund are fourfold :

1st. To provide for those members who are obliged by ill health to leave India for a time, the means of doing so, in case their furlough allowance and passage-money, when entitled to them from Government, or their private fortunes, are inadequate to the expense.

2ndly. To provide for those members who, by unavoidable accident or misfortune, are compelled to renounce the service.

3rdly. To provide for the widows and children of deceased members. And,

4thly. To give all those members who have served in the civil service twenty-five years, and actually resided twenty-two years of that period in India, or if compelled by ill health to quit India before completing that period, after a residence of fifteen or ten years, as the case may be, annuities on their retiring from the service.

SECTION VIII.*Members Retiring from India.*

Art. 1. Annuitants of 1,000*l.* wishing to secure to their widows and children the benefits of the provident branch of the Institution, may continue their contributions at the same rates on their annuities as those levied from members in the service on their allowances, and under the same conditions in regard to minimum payments and liability to increase of rates, and option being allowed to each annuitant to pay up, at the period of resigning the service, in lieu of all claims on account of contributions to the provident branch, a sum equal to the rate of per-centage levied from the service for widow and children, calculated according to the value of an annuity on the joint lives of husband and wife, and of father and child, at eight per cent., but the settlement being open to future adjustment, in the event of the necessities of the Fund requiring an enhanced rate of contribution, and the annuitant being liable to pay up in the same manner for each child subsequently born, and the additional premium as a married member, in case of subsequent marriage.

Art. 2. These contributions are to be paid annually, at the close of each year, to the treasurer and collector to the Fund, and are not claimable on the amount due for the broken period of the year in which the annuitant may die, and for which the full premium has been paid.

Art. 3. A member, not an annuitant, retiring from India, and

ceasing to draw any allowance from the Company, or if receiving the smaller annuity of 250*l.* or 500*l.*, or if reverting to the old Fund, with the relinquishment of the subscriptions paid to the provident branch, may continue his contributions, to secure to himself and his family the benefits of the provident branch of the Institution.

Art. 4. If he die in such retirement, his widow and children shall be entitled to the benefit of the Fund, the same as those of a member continuing in India, in the event of his having paid to the Fund a monthly contribution to the provident branch of fifteen, twenty, thirty, or forty rupees, according to rank; or, in direct contribution, the sum of 5,000 rupees, inclusive of subscriptions previously paid. If he be in the receipt of the smaller annuity, he may, after paying the amount prescribed for non-annuitants in direct contribution, continue his subscription on his annuity in the manner laid down for the large annuities, the optional subscription for children being equally available to him.

Art. 5. The resumption of the payment of contributions, as provided in the preceding article, is to commence from the close of the third year from the date of the member quitting India, or from the commencement of the smaller annuity, if the latter period be earlier.

Art. 6. If a member or smaller annuitant die in such retirement, having ceased to subscribe to the Fund, and not having contributed the sum of 5,000 rupees to the provident branch, it shall be at the option of the subscribers at large to admit his family to the benefit of the Fund, or otherwise, all right and title thereto having, by such omission of payment, lapsed.

Art. 7. If the member return to the service in India, he shall be entitled to be re-admitted a member, as matter of right, on his complying with the regulations herein contained.

Art. 8. Annuitants and members removing from India, and continuing their subscriptions, must nominate an agent in India to adjust their account with the Fund, all payments and contributions being necessarily receivable in this country.

SECTION X.

Personal Privileges of Members.

Art. 1. A member of the Fund who may be compelled by sickness or infirmity to proceed to Europe for the recovery of his health, and who, having already received the furlough allowance, or not being entitled to any provision from the Government, shall not be possessed of sufficient means to pay for his passage to Europe, and to support himself and family while he is there, shall, on his making a solemn declaration to that effect, on oath, and the committee being satisfied of the facts, upon his producing a certificate of necessity from the surgeon who has attended him, countersigned by a member of the Medical Board, and the permission of the Government for him to proceed to Europe, be entitled to receive

from the Fund such aid as may appear necessary for the purpose, not exceeding the sum of 2,000 rupees, in the first instance, as a loan, to be repaid without interest, and for each year that he may be absent, not exceeding in the whole three years, absolute grant or donation not exceeding 200*l.*, if he be a writer or a factor, and an unmarried man; but if he be of higher rank in the service than a factor, or if he be married, then not exceeding 300*l.*

Art. 2. If such member shall possess property, but not amounting to the donation mentioned in the preceding article, then such allowance only shall be made as, taken together with the annual income arising from such property, shall make up the sum intended hereby to be granted for the support of a member compelled to return to Europe for the recovery of his health.

Art. 3. The first donation of 200*l.* or 300*l.*, as the case may be, shall be paid in advance before his embarkation, and each of the two subsequent donations in like manner at the commencement of each of the succeeding years.

Art. 4. Under no circumstances whatever shall such or any other donations or relief be extended beyond the third year.

Art. 5. Should any member proceeding to Europe on sick certificate, and with the furlough allowance granted by the Government, not be possessed of sufficient means to pay for his passage, he shall be entitled to receive a sum, not exceeding 2,000 rupees, from the Fund, as a loan, to be repaid without interest.

Art. 6. Should any member on returning from sick furlough in Europe to India be unable to pay for his passage out, the agents for the Fund in London, on his making oath to this effect, and on their being satisfied as to the fact, shall advance him on loan, without interest, to be repaid as provided in the following article of this section, such aid as may appear necessary for the purpose, not exceeding the sum of 250*l.* sterling.

Art. 7. All sums granted on loan under the provisions of this article shall be repaid on the return of the party to the service, by a deduction of twenty per cent., exclusive of the established monthly contribution upon his allowances, on succeeding to an office the emoluments of which amount to 700 rupees per mensem.

Art. 8. In case any member shall unhappily lose his sight, or be deprived of his mental faculties, or meet with any other personal misfortune which shall render him unable to retain his situation in the service, and he shall on that account retire and withdraw himself altogether from the service in India, such member shall, from the day of his retiring and withdrawing himself altogether from the service, be entitled to receive from the Fund, during the remainder of his life, 300*l.* sterling per annum, to be paid to him in advance yearly, and every year, in India or in England, according as he may choose his future residence.

Art. 9. But should the member requiring aid on this account possess property yielding an annual income, but not to the amount of 300*l.*, then such allowance only shall be made as, taken together with the annual income arising from such property, to be estimated according to the provisions of sections XV. and XVI., shall come up to that amount.

Art. 10. A member of the Fund who may possess an annual income of 300*l.* or upwards, is not entitled to any allowance whatever under the two preceding articles.

SECTION XI.

Privileges of Widows.

Art. 1. The widow of every member of the Annuity and Provident Fund, by whom the additional subscription, levied from the 1st January, 1830, has been paid, dying, shall be entitled to receive, subject to the deduction for the minimum payment, an allowance or pension of 300*l.* sterling per annum.

Art. 2. Her title to this pension shall not be barred, nor in any way affected, by her possession of property, to whatever amount, left by her husband, or obtained from other sources.

Art. 3. The benefit of the foregoing article shall be further extended to those widows at present on the Fund whose husbands were alive and in the service on the 1st January, 1830, provided the enhanced rate of subscription was paid by them, enforcement of the deduction for the minimum payment, prescribed by section VII., article 5, being delayed until the advantages from the withdrawal of the restriction in regard to property are claimed.

Art. 4. The claims of all widows to whom the provisions of this revised code do not extend, will be considered under the regulations which were in force on the 30th April, 1825.

Art. 10. Widows who may be in India when admitted to the benefit of this Fund, and shall be desirous of going to England, if they have no other means of defraying the expenses of their passage, shall be entitled to a grant, not to exceed 300*l.* sterling.

SECTION XII.

Privileges of Children.

Art. 1. On the death of any member of the Fund, leaving a female child, or children, born in lawful wedlock, for whom the additional subscription of one-fourth of 1 per cent. indicated in article 3, section VII., has been paid, an allowance shall be made from the Fund, to be paid in England or in India, as circumstances may require, without any reference to property, according to the following rates :—

Till such child shall have attained the age of five years, thirty rupees per mensem in India, or 30*l.* sterling in England.

From five until she shall have attained the age of eight years, forty rupees per mensem in India, or 60*l.* sterling per annum in England.

From eight until the end of her eleventh year, fifty rupees per mensem in India, or 80*l.* sterling per annum in England.

From eleven until the end of her eighteenth year, sixty rupees per mensem in India, or 100*l.* sterling per annum in England.

On attaining her eighteenth year, a sum of 500*l.* sterling shall be

appropriated to each daughter, payable to her guardian or guardians, for her setting out in life; or at the age of eighteen she may forego the donation of 500*l.*, and receive, in lieu thereof, an annuity of 100*l.* sterling, so long as she may remain unmarried. If married before she shall have attained the age of eighteen, then the donation of 500*l.* shall be payable to herself or to her husband, her claim on the Fund ceasing.

Daughters of deceased members who may have attained the age of eighteen at the time of their father's demise, if unmarried, will, in like manner, be entitled to a donation of 500*l.* sterling, or to an annuity of 100*l.* sterling, so long as they may remain unmarried.

Art. 2. On the death of any member of the Fund leaving a child or children born in lawful wedlock, for whom the additional subscription, one-eighth of 1 per cent., indicated in article 3 of section VII., has been paid, an allowance shall be made from the Fund, to be paid in England or India, as circumstances may require, without any reference to property, according to the following rates:—

Till such child shall have attained the age of five years, thirty rupees per mensem in India, or 30*l.* sterling in England.

From five until it shall have attained the age of eight years, forty rupees per mensem in India, or 60*l.* per annum in England.

From eight until the end of its eleventh year, fifty rupees per mensem in India, or 80*l.* per annum in England.

From eleven until the end of his sixteenth year, if a boy, or of her eighteenth year, if a girl, sixty rupees per mensem in India, or 100*l.* sterling per annum in England.

On attaining his sixteenth year, a sum not exceeding 500*l.* sterling shall be appropriated to each son, payable to his guardian or guardians, for his setting out in life.

On attaining her eighteenth year, a sum not exceeding 500*l.* sterling shall be appropriated to each daughter, payable to her guardian or guardians, for her setting out in life. Or, if married before she shall have attained the age of eighteen, then the donation of 500*l.* shall be payable to herself or to her husband, her claim on the Fund ceasing.

Or, at the age of sixteen, an option shall be allowed to each daughter of receiving, in lieu of all other annuity and donation, an annuity of 60*l.* sterling, so long as she may remain unmarried.

Art. 3. On the death of any member of the Fund leaving a child or children born in lawful wedlock, for whom no additional subscription has been paid, an allowance shall be made from the Fund, to be paid in England or in India, as circumstances may require, according to the following rates:—

Till such child shall have attained the age of five years, thirty rupees per mensem in India, or 30*l.* sterling in England.

From five until it shall have attained the age of eight years, forty rupees per mensem in India, or 60*l.* sterling per annum in England.

From eight until the end of its eleventh year, fifty rupees per mensem in India, or 80*l.* sterling per annum in England.

From eleven until the end of his sixteenth year, if a boy, or of her eighteenth year, if a girl, sixty rupees per mensem in India, or 100*l.* per annum in England.

On attaining his sixteenth year, a sum not exceeding 500*l.* sterling shall be appropriated to each son, payable to his guardian or guardians, for his setting out in life.

On attaining her eighteenth year, a sum not exceeding 500*l.* sterling shall be appropriated to each daughter, payable to her guardian or guardians, for her setting out in life. Or, if married before she shall have attained the age of eighteen, then the donation of 500*l.* shall be payable to herself or to her husband, her claims on the Fund ceasing.

Or, at the age of sixteen, an option shall be allowed to each daughter of receiving, in lieu of all other annuity and donation, an annuity of 60*l.* sterling, so long as she may remain unmarried.

Art. 4. In the case set forth in the two first articles of this section, the pensions and douceurs to which the children are entitled shall not be reduced by reason of any property which their parents may have possessed, or to which they may be entitled from any other source. In the case set forth in article 3, the allowance to each child is liable to be curtailed in proportion to the property left by the deceased member, or otherwise inherited, as specified in the following articles.

Art. 5. If the child or children have a mother at the time of the death of its or their father, and her income shall exceed 500*l.* sterling a year, then and in such case such allowance only shall be made as, taken together with the overplus above the income specified, shall make up the sum hereby intended to be provided for the maintenance and education of the child or children. The same deductions from the sums hereinbefore named and intended to be provided shall be made, in case the father of such child or children, or any other person, shall have made any provision for it or them, by will or otherwise, which shall not amount to the sum hereby intended to be provided for such child or children.

Art. 6. And it is specially to be understood, that no pension whatever is to be made for any child or children by whose father the additional subscription has not been paid, the amount of whose income, derived from whatever source, exceeds the allowances to be provided by this section; and if, at any time after the death of its or their father, provision shall be made for such child or children from any other source, exceeding, or not equalling, the amounts hereby intended to be given, that then and in such case the provisions hereby intended to be made shall cease, or be proportionably abated.

Art. 7. In estimating the income of a child or children,—

1st. Legacies and bequests to the widow, and her separate property, of any kind, shall not be considered as forming part of the income of the children; but the property left by a deceased member is to be considered as the property of the widow and children collectively, in settling their claims on the Fund.

2nd. In case the income shall consist wholly in annuities, for lives or for years, the value of such annuity shall be taken at the fair price such annuity would be worth if exposed for public sale.

3rd. The income shall be calculated in the manner defined in sections XV. and XVI.

Art. 10. Any child who may hereafter be a pensioner on the Fund under article 3 of this section, and subject to the restriction

in regard to property, who may from blindness, insanity, or such like infirmity, be totally incapable of earning a subsistence, shall, at the age of sixteen years, have the option of receiving a donation of 500*l.*, on accepting which, all further claim upon the Fund shall cease; or such child may, by him or herself, or guardians, waive all claim to the donation of 500*l.*, and shall then be allowed an annuity of 60*l.* during the continuance of such incapacity.

THE MILITARY SERVICE.

(Referred to at page 55 of the Hand-Book.)

MILITARY SEMINARY, ADDISCOMBE.

Terms of Admission.—Conditions and Qualifications for a Candidate.

1. No candidate can be admitted under the age of fourteen, or above the age of eighteen years.

2. No person can be admitted who has been dismissed, or obliged to retire, from the Army or Navy, the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, or from any other public institution.

3. Every candidate must produce a certificate of his birth taken from the parish register, and signed by the minister, and countersigned by the churchwardens; or, if born in Scotland, by the sessions' clerk and two elders, accompanied by a declaration from his father, mother, or nearest of kin, the forms of which may be had at the Cadet-office in the Military Department. In the event of there being no register of his birth or baptism, the candidate will be furnished with the form of a declaration to be taken by him previously to his being appointed.

4. No candidate will be admitted without a certificate that he has had the small pox, or has been vaccinated; nor without a certificate, in the prescribed form, to be given by two practising surgeons, that he has no mental or bodily defect whatever to disqualify him for military service.

5. Every candidate must produce a certificate of good conduct from the master under whom he has last studied.

6. Every candidate must deliver the names and addresses of two persons residing in London, or its vicinity, who engage to receive him if he shall be dismissed from the seminary, or removed, from sickness or any other cause.

TEST OF ADMISSION.—7. Every candidate is required to write a good legible hand; and to write English correctly from dictation. He is also required to construe and parse Cæsar's Commentaries correctly. He must likewise possess a correct knowledge of all the rules of arithmetic usually taught in schools, especially the rule of three, compound proportion, practice, interest, vulgar and decimal fractions, and the extraction of the square root. If a

candidate is deficient in any part of the preceding test, his reception into the institution will be deferred for such length of time as the head master shall report to be necessary.

8. The qualifications mentioned in the last article are all that are absolutely requisite for the admission of a cadet into the Military Seminary. Parents and guardians are however informed, that it will be of great advantage to a cadet in his future studies at this establishment, if, before being admitted, he make himself well acquainted with the following portions of the fourth edition of Cape's "Course of Mathematics," in the order in which they are given below, viz. :—

1. Algebra. Part I.
2. Geometry. Chaps. I. II. III. and VII.
3. The use of Logarithms.
4. Trigonometry. Chaps. I. II. and III.
5. Statics. Chaps. I. III. and IV.
6. Dynamics. Chaps. I. II. III. IV. and V.
7. Hydrostatics of Hydronamics.

It is also very desirable that a cadet on joining the Seminary be able to draw with facility in pencil, and shade with Indian ink.

9. Every cadet upon his admission is considered a *probationary* pupil for the first six months; at the end of which period the public examiner will be required to report to the military committee, on the probability of the cadet being able to pass for the artillery or infantry in the required period of four terms. Should this appear improbable, either from want of talent or diligence, the cadet will then be returned to his friends.

PAYMENTS, &c.—10. The parents or guardians of the gentleman cadet are required to pay 50*l.* per term (of which there are two in a year) towards defraying the expenses of his board, lodging, and education; also an entrance subscription of 2*l.* 2*s.* to the public library; which payments include every charge except for uniform clothes, books, and pocket-money, as hereafter specified.

11. The payment of the fixed charges for each term is to be made in advance; and the payment for clothes, pocket-money, and books for the preceding term, is to be made previous to the cadet's return to the seminary.

12. A cadet entering in a term, at whatever part of it, must pay the regulated sum for the whole term in which he enters, which will count as one of the four terms of his residence; and no return of any portion of the advance will be made in the event of a cadet's quitting the seminary.

13. Such articles of uniform dress* as may be considered by the military committee to be necessary, shall be provided at the cost of the cadet. The amount of pocket-money issued to him at the rates† fixed by the rules of the seminary is also to be defrayed by his parents or guardians.

* Viz., jackets, waistcoats, stocks, foraging caps, trousers, half-boots, gloves, together with a proportionate share of the expense of any other periodical supplies, and the repairs of the same. The average cost is £7 12*s.* 9*d.* per term.

† Viz., 2*s.* 6*d.* a week, with 1*s.* additional to censors, and 2*s.* 6*d.* additional to corporals.

14. The following class-books will be provided at the public expense, the mutilation or destruction of which to be chargeable to the cadets, viz., Shakespear's Hindustani Dictionary, Latin Dictionary.

15. The cadets will, on their first joining Addiscombe, be supplied with the following books, the cost of which will be charged to their parents or guardians, viz.

Cape's Mathematics, Straith's Treatise on Fortification, Shakespear's Hindustani Grammar, Shakespear's First Vol. Hindu Selections, Jackson's Military Surveying, De La Voye's French and English Lexicon, Contanseau's French Grammar, Contanseau's Guide to French Translation, Contanseau's Prosateurs et Poètes Français, Scriptores Romani, Ansted's Elementary Course of Geology, Penley's Treatises on Water Colours and Perspective.

Any books not included in the above enumeration, or which may be hereafter required at the seminary, to be paid for by the cadets.

16. Previous to the cadet's admission, his parents or guardians shall furnish him with the following articles, viz. :—

Two strong plated forks with crests or initials, two combs and a brush, twelve shirts (including three night-shirts), twelve pairs of stockings, six towels, six night-caps, eight pocket-handkerchiefs, one pair of white trowsers, a flannel jacket (to be worn when playing at football or cricket), a tooth-brush, a Bible and Prayer-book, a case of mathematical instruments of an approved pattern, to be seen at Messrs. Troughton and Simms', 138, Fleet Street; and at Messrs. Reeves and Sons', 113, Cheapside. N.B. Each article of dress must be marked with the owner's name in full.

Prohibition.—17. The cadet must not join the seminary with a greater sum in his possession than one guinea, and a further supply from any of his relations during his term may subject him to dismission from the seminary.

Vacations.—18. Midsummer commences about the middle of June, ends 31st July; Christmas commences about the middle of December, ends 31st January.

19. Before the close of every vacation, the cadet must apply at the Cadet Office for an order for his re-admission, and all sums then due to the Company must be paid up. This order will express that he is only to be re-admitted upon his returning with the books and instruments which he took home with him, that his linen is put into proper repair, and that he is in a fit state of health to renew his studies.

Notice to Parents and Guardians.

The friends of every cadet are hereby informed, that provision being made for furnishing him with every requisite, he cannot really want a supply of money to be placed at his disposal while at the seminary; and if they do notwithstanding think proper to furnish him with money, they put it in his power to commit irregularities, which must always retard his studies, and may eventually lead to his removal from the institution.

The parents and friends are further particularly desired not to

attend to any application from the cadet for money, under the pretence of his having incurred any debts at Croydon, or elsewhere, or for the purpose of subscribing to the public charities, or any other pretence whatever.

No letter or parcel is admitted into the seminary unless the postage or carriage of such letter or parcel shall have been previously fully paid for by the person sending the same. Every parcel must be opened in the presence of one of the orderly officers and the cadet to whom it is sent. Should it contain wine, or anything prohibited in the regulations, the parcel, upon the first offence, will be returned to the person sending the same; and upon the second offence, the cadet will be ordered home, and will not be re-admitted until a written apology has been sent to the Committee by the person who has committed a breach of this regulation.

No professor, master, or other person in the institution, is allowed to receive from the cadet, or the parents or friends of any cadet, any pecuniary present or consideration, on any pretence whatever.

Memoranda.

The gentlemen cadets educated at the Military Seminary are eligible for the corps of engineers, artillery, and infantry. Admission to the two first of these branches, viz. the engineers and artillery, is only to be obtained by these cadets, none others being eligible. Those who are most distinguished are selected for the engineers, according to the vacancies in that branch. Those immediately following in order of succession are promoted to the corps of horse and foot artillery.

Those cadets for whom there is no room in the engineers, but who are reported to have attained to a high degree of qualification, receive honorary certificates, and their names are announced to the governments in India, and published in general orders to the army, as meriting particular notice. They have the privilege of choosing the presidency in India to which they shall be stationed. The cadets not appointed to the engineers or artillery are, when reported qualified, posted to the infantry, and rank together according to the rank which they obtained at the seminary.

The gentlemen cadets may pass through the seminary as rapidly as their attainments and qualifications will enable them to pass after a year's residence, provided that they are of the age of sixteen years on or before the day of their final examination. Their stay at the institution is limited to four terms; and all the time passed by them at the institution after they attain the age of sixteen counts as so much time passed in India in calculating their period of service for retiring pensions on full pay.

Persons who may be nominated Direct Cadets.

A candidate must have attained the age of sixteen years. He is not eligible to be appointed a cadet after having attained the age of twenty-two years, unless he shall have been, for the space of one year at least, a commissioned officer in Her Majesty's service, or in the Militia or Fencible Corps when embodied, and hath been called into actual service, or shall have been in the Company of Cadets of the Royal Regiment of Artillery. Such persons are eligible for the appointment of Cadet in the Company's service, provided their age does not exceed twenty-five years.

A candidate who has been so employed must produce his commission, together with a certificate from the War Office or Commanding Officer of his regiment, of his having actually joined and done duty with the regiment for the full term of one year and upwards; and that he was neither dismissed nor resigned his regiment in consequence of any misconduct.

No person who has been dismissed or obliged to retire from the Army or Navy, the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, or from any other Public Institution, on account of immoral or ungentlemanly conduct, can be appointed a cadet.

The following are the points upon which Candidates are examined before they are passed as cadets:—

1. Each candidate is required to write English correctly from dictation.

2. He should possess a competent knowledge of the ordinary Rules of Arithmetic, including the Rule of Three, Compound Proportion, Simple and Compound Interest, Vulgar and Decimal Fractions, and the extraction of the Square Root. He should also have read the first three books of Euclid.

3. In languages he should be able to translate into English, passages from Cæsar's Commentaries, or from the first four Books of Virgil's *Æneid*, and he will be further expected to parse, and show his knowledge of Grammar and Syntax.

The candidate is required to translate from French into English, an extract from one of the following works, viz., *Telemachus*, *Voltaire's Charles XII.*, or *Peter the Great*. But the candidate will have the option of being examined in the Hindustani, in lieu of the French language, and in that case he will be required to translate from Hindustani into English, an extract from one of the following works, viz.: *Bagh-o-Bahar*, *Tota Kuhanee*.

4. In History he should be prepared to pass an examination in Keightley's *Histories of Greece and Rome*, in Gleig's *History of England*, and in the *History of British India*, contained in Vols. 1 and 2 of the *Edinburgh Cabinet Library*.

5. In Geography, he should possess a competent knowledge of the modern divisions of the world; the principal nations in Europe

and Asia; the names of the capital of each nation in Europe, and of the chief cities of Hindostan; and the names and situations of the principal rivers and mountains in the world.

6. In Fortification, he should have read some elementary work on the subject (Straith's Introductory Essay), and have received some instruction in drawing.

The examination of the candidates takes place before the Board of Examiners convened for that purpose at the Military Seminary at Addiscombe, near Croydon.

If the candidate has been confirmed as a member of the Church of England, he is required to make a declaration to that effect. If not so confirmed, or if not a member of the Church of England, he will be required to produce a certificate from a minister, stating that he has been well instructed in the principles of the religion in which he has been brought up.

The candidate is also required to produce testimonials of good moral conduct, under the hand of the principal or superior authority of the college or public institution in which he may have been educated, or under the hand of the private instructor to whose care he may have been confided,—and the said testimonials must have reference to his conduct during the two years immediately preceding his presentation for admission.

Any person who is nominated to a situation, either civil or military, in the service of the Company, and who shall have obtained such nomination in consequence of purchase, or agreement to purchase, or on any corrupt pretence whatever, either direct or indirect, by himself or by any other person, with or without his privity, is rejected from the service of the Company, and ordered back to England, if he shall have proceeded to India before a discovery of such corrupt practice be made: and if such situation shall have been so corruptly procured by himself, or with his privity, he is rendered incapable of holding that, or any other situation whatever, in the said service. But if a fair disclosure of any corrupt transaction or practice, of the nature before described, wherein any Director has been concerned, shall be voluntarily made by the party or parties engaged in the same with such Director, the appointment thereby procured is confirmed by the Court.

All direct cadets, appointed or sworn in between the 10th March and 10th June, or between 10th September and 10th December (or the days which may be fixed on for the public examination of the Seminary cadets) do rank after the Seminary cadets who may pass their said examinations, provided the latter sail for their respective destinations within *three* months after passing said examination.

N.B. All cadets who may be appointed between the dates of public examination at Addiscombe and the 10th of March or 10th of September, will be allowed to rank from the date of their sailing, provided this takes place within three months after their

being passed and sworn. If they fail to apply for their orders before the expiry of three months, they will forfeit their opportunity. All cadets must subscribe to the Military Fund.

The forms of certificate required to be produced are to be obtained on application to Mr. T. R. CLARKE, Cadet Office, India-House.

Unless the whole of the said certificates are delivered in by the cadet, he will not be passed.

If no parish register can be found, a declaration, pursuant to the Act passed in the 5th and 6th year of William IV., of that circumstance, shall be made by the party himself, with his information and belief, that his age is not under sixteen years, and doth not exceed twenty-two years. Forms of the declaration may be had at the Cadet Office.

When the cadet is ready to embark, he must apply to Mr. T. R. CLARKE, Clerk for passing Cadets, &c., for a certificate of his having passed, which certificate will direct him to the Secretary's Office, where he will obtain the certificate of his appointment. He will then hold himself in readiness to embark, either previous to the ship's departure from Gravesend, or at the last port from whence the vessel shall be announced to take her departure from England.

Assistant Surgeons.—*Assistant Surgeoncies are obtained by competition.—Regulations for their Admission into the Company's Service.*

Age.—The assistant surgeon must not be under twenty-two years; in proof of which he must produce an extract from the register of the parish in which he was born, or his own declaration and other certificates, agreeably to forms to be obtained in the office for cadets and assistant surgeons.

Qualification in Surgery.—The assistant surgeon, upon receiving a nomination, will be furnished with a letter to the Court of Examiners of the Royal College of Surgeons, to be examined in Surgery, and their certificate will be deemed a satisfactory testimonial of his qualification: but should the assistant surgeon be previously in possession of a diploma from the Royal College of Surgeons of London, or of the Colleges of Surgeons of Dublin or Edinburgh, or of the College and University of Glasgow, or of the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow, either of them will be deemed satisfactory as to his knowledge of Surgery, without any further examination. He is also required to produce a certificate from the Cupper of a Public Hospital in London, of having acquired and being capable of practising, with proper dexterity, the art of cupping.

Qualification in Physic.—The assistant surgeon will also be required to pass an examination by the Company's examining

physician in the practice of physic, in which examination will be included as much anatomy and physiology as is necessary for understanding the causes and treatment of internal diseases, as well as the art of prescribing and compounding medicines, and Dr. Scott will then require him to produce satisfactory proof of his having attended at least two courses of lectures on the practice of physic, and above all, that he should produce a certificate of having attended diligently the practice and clinical instruction of the physicians at some general *hospital* in London for six months; or at some general hospital in the country (within the United Kingdom) for six months, provided such provincial hospital contain at least, on an average, one hundred in-patients, and have attached to it a regular establishment of physicians as well as surgeons. It is also expected that the assistant surgeon shall produce a certificate of having diligently attended, for at least three months, the practical instruction given at one of the asylums for the treatment of the *Insane*, and at one of the institutions or wards of an hospital especially dedicated to the treatment of *Ophthalmic* disease. He will also be required to attend a course of lectures on the principles and practice of *Military Surgery*, if such a course shall be given at the place at which he has been educated. No attendance on the practice of a physician at any *dispensary* will be admitted.

All assistant surgeons are required to subscribe to the Military and Medical Funds at their respective presidencies.

All assistant surgeons who shall fail to apply for their orders within three months from the date of their being passed and sworn, or shall not actually proceed under such orders, will be considered as having forfeited their appointments, unless special circumstances shall justify the Court's departure from this regulation.

FURLOUGH REGULATIONS.

Furloughs, or leaves of absence on sick certificate, are to be granted for a term not exceeding eighteen months, whether they be to any place in Europe or elsewhere out of India. The regimental allowances of his rank for a term not exceeding six months are granted to the officer receiving such leave, from the date of his departure from his presidency; regimental pay is drawn during the period of his absence.

Extended leave may be granted on production of medical certificates, for further periods not exceeding eighteen months in the whole. During this further time regimental pay is continued, but under no circumstances for a longer period than three years altogether, from the commencement of the absence.

Furloughs on private affairs are allowed for a period of two years at the expiration of ten years' service, and for a second period of two years after twenty years' service in India. Officers who have taken the benefit of the regulation for the grant of furloughs

on sick certificate, to Europe or elsewhere beyond sea, are ineligible to a furlough on private affairs until they have served six years from the date of their last return to duty.

Pay of regimental rank is drawn whilst on furlough, but not beyond the period of two years in each furlough.

All grants of furlough on private affairs are subject to the exigencies of the public service, and to the regulations framed for the preservation of the efficiency of each regiment by limiting the number of absentees.

Officers of the Bengal and Madras establishments proceeding on furlough for Bombay must previously have received permission from their own governments.

Officers holding staff appointments have leave of absence, on sick certificate or furlough, for a period not exceeding six months, without losing their appointment, and if on sick certificate, receiving for that time half staff allowances; but on any absence beyond that period, the staff appointment and allowances cannot be retained except on special grounds, to be sanctioned by the government of the presidency. Any such special grant of leave is subject to the approbation of the Court of Directors.

No furlough or leave of absence exceeding two years in twenty years of aggregate service, three years in twenty-five years' service, and four years in thirty years' service, is allowed to count as service for the retiring pension,* and no difference is made, in this respect, between leave of absence taken in Europe or elsewhere, or whether the leave be on sick certificate or on private affairs.

All officers finding it necessary to solicit a further leave of absence on account of sickness, must, if resident in London or its vicinity, appear before the Company's examining physician, Dr. John Scott, 13, Stratton Street, who will report to the Court of Directors his opinion on the state of such officers' health. And if resident in the country in any part of the United Kingdom, they must transmit with their letter of application for such leave, a certificate according to the following form, signed by at least two gentlemen, eminent in the medical profession, viz. :—

I hereby certify, that I have carefully examined (state the nature of the case, as well as the name of the party), and I declare, upon my honour, that, according to the best of my judgment and belief, _____ is at present unfit for military duty, and that it is absolutely necessary, for the recovery of his health, that he should remain at least _____ longer in this country.

Also, previously to such extension of furlough being granted, such further proof shall be adduced by personal examination, or by such other evidence as shall be deemed satisfactory.

Officers abroad in any part of Europe, applying to remain a further time from their duty on account of sickness, are to furnish a certificate of two eminent physicians, *in the above form*, with the attestation of a magistrate that the persons who signed the certificate are physicians.

* See Indian Mail, No. 240.

Officers having obtained an extension of furlough to a given period, must at its expiration apply for permission, either to return to their duty or to reside a further time in England.

In every case in which an officer has had his furlough extended beyond the prescribed period, on the ground of his health not being sufficiently restored, and shall apply for permission to return to his duty, he shall produce a certificate from the examining physician that his health is completely re-established, and that there is every probability of his being able to perform the active duties of his profession in India.

No officer who has failed to obtain an extension of furlough will be considered eligible to return to the service after five years' absence.

Every officer upon leaving India will receive a printed copy of the General Order on this subject, published agreeably to the Court's instructions, and the plea of ignorance of the regulations will not be admitted as any justification of the breach of them; officers, therefore, who shall come home on furlough and who shall not in due time apply, so as to effect their return to the presidency to which they belong within the period stipulated, will subject themselves to the loss of the service, unless they shall be permitted by the Court to remain a further time in Europe.

Allowances after the first Six Months from the Date of the Furlough.

	Cavalry, per diem.	Artillery or Engineers, per diem.	Infantry, per diem.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Colonels	1 12 8	1 5 0	1 5 0
Lieutenant-Colonels	1 3 0	1 0 0	1 0 0
Majors	0 19 3	0 16 11	0 16 0
Captains	0 14 7	0 11 1	0 10 6
Lieutenants	0 9 0	0 6 10	0 6 6
Cornets, 2nd Lieutenants, and Ensigns	0 8 0	0 5 7	0 5 3

	£. s. d.
Members of Medical Board	1 5 0 per diem.
Superintending Surgeons	1 0 0 "
Surgeons	0 10 6 "
Assistant Surgeons	0 6 6 "

	£. s. d.
Veterinary Surgeons under 10 years' service	0 8 0 per diem.
above 10 "	0 9 0 "
above 20 "	0 14 7 "

Officers returning to India.—Regulations as to the Charge of Recruits.

It has been resolved that whenever a detachment of Company's recruits, to the extent of thirty men, shall be embarked on any one ship, they be placed in charge of the senior Company's officer, not exceeding the rank of a field officer, who shall have obtained permission to return to his duty on the ship, within at least seven days of the period fixed for embarkation:—That the officer proceed with the men from the dépôt:—That, as a remuneration for this service, he be granted the passage-money of his rank—payable to the commander of the ship.

Officers retiring from Service.—Regulations respecting Military and other Officers retiring from the Company's Service.*

Officers who have served less than three years in India, and have lost their health there, are entitled to an allowance from Lord Clive's Fund, if the Court of Directors shall adjudge them to be proper objects of that bounty, to the extent of:

	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
2d Lieuts., Cornets or Ensigns	2	0	a day, or	36	10	0 a year
Lieutenants	2	6	do.	45	12	6 do.

provided they are not possessed of, or entitled to, real or personal property, to the extent of, if an ensign, £750; if a lieutenant, £1,000.

Officers who are compelled to quit the service by wounds received in action, or by ill health contracted on duty after three years' service in India, are permitted to retire on the half-pay of their rank, viz. :—

	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
2d Lieuts., Cornet, or Ensigns	3	0	a day, or	54	15	0 a year
Lieutenants	4	0	do.	73	0	0

A subaltern officer, or assistant surgeon, having served six years in India, is permitted to retire on the *half-pay of ensign*, if his constitution should be so impaired as to prevent the possibility of his continuing in India.

A lieutenant having served thirteen, or a second lieutenant, cornet, or ensign, nine years in India (including three years for a furlough), may retire on the *half-pay* of his rank, in case his health shall not permit him to serve in India.

* When officers on furlough retire upon the pay or half-pay of their rank, they are only entitled to claim the benefit of the rank held by them at the expiration of one year from the date of their landing in the United Kingdom.

Officers retiring from the service will be considered to have retired from the date of their application for leave to retire; or from the expiration of two years and a half from their quitting India, whichever shall happen first.

Regimental captains, majors, and lieutenant-colonels, whose ill state of health renders it impossible for them to continue to serve in India, are allowed to retire on the half-pay of their rank, viz. :—

	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Captains	7	0	a day, or	127	15
Majors	9	6	do.	173	7
Lieutenant-colonels ..	11	0	do.	200	15
				0	do.

All officers who have actually served twenty-two years in India, or twenty-five years including three years for a furlough, are allowed to retire on the full pay of their respective ranks.

Officers are also allowed to retire without reference to the rank they may have attained, as follows, viz. :—

	Per diem,
	£ s. d.
After 23 years' service, 3 years' furlough included,	191 12 6
27 do. do. do.	292 0 0
31 do. do. do.	365 0 0
35 do. do. do.	456 5 0

Unattached Ensigns and Lieutenants compelled by ill health to retire from the service :—

	Per diem,
	s. d.
If under 3 years' service as commissioned officers ..	2 6
Above 3 and under 7 years do. in India as do. ..	3 0
Above 7 do. 12 do. do. as do. ..	4 0
Above 7 do. 12 do. do. as do. after 20 years' total service in India ..	5 0
Above 12 years' service in India as do. after 30 years' total service in India, with an unqualified right to retire ..	6 0

A commissary or deputy commissary of ordnance, not being a commissioned officer, is allowed to retire on full pay if he has served twenty-seven years in India, of which twelve must have been in the ordnance department; twenty-five years, fourteen of which in that department; or twenty-two years, seventeen years of which in the ordnance department.

A conductor of stores is allowed to retire on £60 per annum after twenty-five years' actual service in India.

Members of Medical Board, 2 years in that station, and not less than 20 years in India, including 3 years' furlough to retire on £500 per annum
 Superintending Surgeons, do. do. do. 300 do.

or in the event of ill health, they may retire on those pensions, after any period of service in those stations. If they have served five years, or are obliged after three years' service in those stations to retire from ill health, they are allowed £700 and £365 per annum, respectively.

Surgeons.

After 20 years' service, 3 years' furlough included, £191 a year

24	do.	do.	do.	250	do.
28	do.	do.	do.	300	do.
32	do.	do.	do.	365	do.
35	do.	do.	do.	500	do.
38	do.	do.	do.	700	do.

The present regulations by which superintending surgeons are entitled as such to retiring pensions of £300 and £365 a year, and members of the Medical Board, to pensions of £500 and £700 a year, according to period of service in those ranks respectively, will cease to be the rule of the service for medical officers, after the 16th July, 1842; but individuals then in the service, and who may be appointed to the offices of superintending surgeon and member of the board within ten years from that date, will be allowed the option of retiring upon pensions upon the old scale of length of service in those ranks, instead of the new scale of length of service in India.

Veterinary Surgeons.

After 3 years' service (if compelled by wounds received in action, or from ill health)					<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
6	do.	do.	..	..	3	0 a day
10	do.	do.	..	..	4	0 do.
17	do.	do.	..	..	6	6 do.
22	do.	do.	..	..	10	6 do.
27	do.	do.	..	..	£250	per annum
32	do.	do.	..	..	300	do.

LORD CLIVE'S FUND.

Regulations for the Admission of Pensioners.

Every petitioning officer and soldier must produce a certificate from his commanding officer of his being an invalid, and rendered incapable of further service in India, together with an approbation of such certificate by the Governor and Council of the presidency where he shall have served.

Every commissioned officer must previously make oath before the Governor and Council, viz.—A colonel, that he is not possessed of, or entitled to, real and personal property to the value of 4,000*l.*; a lieutenant-colonel, 3,000*l.*; a major, 2,500*l.*; a captain, 2,000*l.*; a lieutenant, 1,000*l.*; an ensign, 750*l.* Officers' widows must pro-

duce proof, on affidavit, that their husbands did not die possessed of property as above.

Petitioners residing in England may be admitted if the Court shall adjudge them to be proper objects.

All commissioned, staff, or warrant officers, to have half the ordinary pay they enjoyed whilst in service, viz. :—

	Per annum.	Per day.
Colonels and mem. Med. Board	£228 2 6 or	12s. 6d.
Lieut. cols. and sup. surgeons	182 10 0	10 0
Majors (and chaplains 15 years' service) ..	136 17 6	7 6
Captains and surgeons (chaplains 7 years' service), and vet. surgeons (20 years' service)	91 5 0	5 0
Chaplains under 7 years' service	63 17 6	3 6
Lieutenants, assistant surgeons, and veterinary surgeons under 20 years'	45 12 6	2 6
Ensigns	36 10 0	2 0
Conductors of ordnance	36 10 0	2 0

Their widows one-half the above, to continue during their widowhood.

Serjeants of artillery to have nine-pence per day, and those that have lost a limb one shilling per day. Gunners of the artillery sixpence per day, and those that have lost a limb nine-pence per day.

All other non-commissioned officers and bombardiers to have four-pence three farthings per day.

Officers and privates to be entitled from the period of their landing in England.

Pensioners neglecting to claim the pension for three half-years will be considered as dead, and no arrears for a larger period than two years back from the date of application for admission or readmission, as the case may be, will be allowed either to claimants or to pensioners after admission.

N.B. Officers admitted to the benefit of the Retiring Regulations are not entitled to participate in Lord Clive's Fund.

REGULATIONS OF THE BENGAL MILITARY FUND.

(Established 1st November, 1834.)

SECTION I.

Admission of Subscribers.

ART. I.—The following description of persons, and they alone, are eligible to be subscribers to the Bengal Military Fund :—

1st.—Officers or cadets in the military service of the Honourable Company under the presidency of Fort William.

2nd.—Chaplains of the Bengal Establishment.

3rd.—Officers of the Bengal Medical Establishment, and veterinary surgeons.

4th.—Officers of the Bengal Establishment on the retired list.

ART. II.—Individuals of the descriptions enumerated in the first article, who entered the service previous to the 30th August, 1826, and who hitherto have not become subscribers, shall only be admissible on the following conditions:—

1st.—That the application for admission be accompanied by the certificate of two surgeons, that the person desiring to subscribe is then, to the best of their knowledge, in good health; this certificate being confirmed by the declaration to the same effect, from the person so applying to be admitted: applications from married officers being also accompanied by a certificate of their marriage, and intimation of the correct age of the parties.

2nd.—That donation and arrears of subscription, according to the rank at the time of admission, be paid with compound interest on those sums accumulated half-yearly, at the rate of eight per cent. per annum. The arrears to commence from the date of the institution of the fund, or from the entrance of the person into the service, if subsequent to the institution of the same, and prior to 30th August, 1826. If the arrears are paid by instalments (which are not to exceed twelve monthly payments from the date of admission), interest at eight per cent. per annum to be charged on all intermediate balances.

ART. III.—A subscriber withdrawing from the fund, forfeits, *ipso facto*, all claims to its benefits, as also the amount of his donation and subscription, and all other sums which he may have paid up to the period of his secession. Should he afterwards be desirous of again becoming a subscriber, he will be admissible on the same terms as a new subscriber, as described in the second article.*

ART. IV.—Subscribers who may retire from the service on the prescribed pension of their ranks, or in ill health before entitled thereto, or who may return, permanently, or upon furlough, to Europe, shall not forfeit their title to the benefits of the fund, provided they continue the regular payments of the monthly subscription of their ranks agreeably to the rates laid down for each rank in table No. II.

ART. V.—Subscribers not in ill-health retiring from the service before they are entitled to the full pension of their rank shall not forfeit all claims on the institution, provided they continue to pay the Indian rates of subscription of their respective ranks.

ART. VI.—Officers are permitted to subscribe according to army rank, on furnishing the prescribed certificate of health, subscription and donation, as in every other case, being calculated from date of such rank. Under this rule, medical officers and veterinary surgeons may subscribe as captains, after fifteen years' service.

* This article is applicable to voluntary subscribers only.

SECTION II.

Donations and Subscriptions to be paid to the Bengal Military Fund.

ART. VII.—All subscribers to pay a donation or premium on entering the fund, agreeably to the rates specified in the accompanying table, No. I., and shall also allot for the support of the fund, as long as they shall continue subscribers, the monthly sums specified in table No. II., agreeably to their rank, whether in India or Europe; the subscriptions of cadets to be calculated at the rank of ensign. Subscription by medical officers in the several grades attached to the first, second, and third classes is compulsory, unless the privilege under Article VIII. has been embraced.

[TABLES.]

TABLE II.
*Amount of Monthly Subscriptions
of the different Ranks.*

	In India and in Europe, the latter being paid according to the cur- rent exchange.	
	Unmarried.	Married.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Colonels and 18 Sur- geons, 1st class	28 2 0	62 8 0
Lieut.-Colonels and 18 do. 2nd do.	20 4 0	45 0 0
Major, Chaplain, and 18 do. 3rd do.	15 12 0	35 0 0
Captains, Surgeons, & Assistant Chaplains	9 0 0	20 0 0
Lieutenants, Assistant Surgeons, and Veterinary Sur- geons	5 10 0	12 8 0
Cornets, 2nd Lieuten- ants, and Ensigns ..	4 8 0	10 0 0

TABLE I.
*Amount of the Premium or Donation payable by the different
Ranks.*

	MARRIED.		UNMARRIED.		
	On joining the Institution.	On Promotion.	On joining the Institution.	On Promotion.	On Marriage.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Colonel and 18 Sur- geons, 1st class	4350 0 0	723 0 0	787 8 0	157 8 0	3521 4 0
Lieut.-Colonel and 18 do. 2nd do.	2501 0 0	643 8 0	630 0 0	157 8 0	1936 2 0
Major, Chaplain, and 18 do. 3rd do.	1452 8 0	517 8 0	472 8 0	135 0 0	952 0 0
Captains, Surgeons, & Assistant Chaplains	695 0 0	455 0 0	337 8 0	135 0 0	456 12 0
Lieutenants, Assistant Surgeons, and Ve- terinary Surgeons ..	450 0 0	150 0 0	202 8 0	67 8 0	202 8 0
Cornets, 2nd Lieuten- ants, and Ensigns ..	300 0 0	0 0 0	135 0 0	0 0 0	135 0 0

ART. VIII.—The following rules have effect from 1st January, 1837 :—

1st.—All members who have served thirty-two years may subscribe as colonels; all who have served twenty-seven as lieutenant-colonels; all who have served twenty-two as majors; all who have served twelve as captains; and all junior officers as lieutenants.

2nd.—Medical and veterinary officers may subscribe as colonels after twenty-seven years' service; as lieutenant-colonels after twenty-two years; as majors after seventeen years; and as captains after ten years.

3rd.—Chaplains may subscribe after fifteen years as lieutenant-colonels; after twenty years as colonels.

4th.—Admission to subscribe in the next higher rank, to which his service may render an officer eligible, shall depend on the payment of the increased donation within the period prescribed by Regulation XI. Further, the claim must be made to the managers in India within three months, if he be in India, or if at home, within twelve months, from the completion of the qualifying service.

5th.—If the privilege to subscribe in the next higher rank be not embraced within the above periods, the application, whenever subsequently made, must be accompanied by a health certificate, and compound interest at eight per cent. per annum shall be charged upon the additional donation and arrears of subscription accumulated half-yearly (as by Article II. of the existing rules) from the date of these rules taking effect, or from the completion of the qualifying service.

6th.—Retired officers are entitled to enter the higher classes of subscription under the above conditions, on the expiration of the several periods which, had they remained in the service, would have given them the same privilege. This rule is applicable to subscribers under Article V.

N.B.—The period of service under this article is calculated by certificates of admission to be furnished from the Adjutant General's office. Officers embracing the privilege granted by this rule, must comply with all its provisions, calculated through each grade of service.

ART. IX.—Subscribers may redeem by a single payment, the periodical subscription exigible under Article VII., the equivalent sum being determined on this principle :—

1st.—Members in Europe to redeem at rates calculated by two tables of different values of an annuity, one adapted for Europe (as the Northampton tables), the other for India (as the Indian tables), receiving back, or paying the difference of premium, according to residence in one or other country. Parties visiting Europe on furlough, or for a temporary residence not exceeding three years, not to receive the difference, nor parties re-visiting India to pay it, if the temporary residence does not exceed one year. The value to be taken from tables of which the following is a specimen.

On promotion, the subscriber will be liable to pay the donation and to pay or redeem difference of subscription.

2nd.—Members who may redeem their periodical subscriptions by a single payment, are precluded the benefit of passage-money and equipment allowance.

3rd.—All subscribers who may, from this date, 1st July, 1846, redeem their periodical subscriptions by a single payment, shall be liable for the difference between existing rates of subscription and any future higher rates that it may be found necessary to adopt.

NORTHAMPTON TABLES.				INDIA COMMITTEE TABLES.			
Age.	Value of an Annuity in England.			Age.	Value of an Annuity in India.		
25	9	13	2	25	8	5	6
30	9	2	4	30	8	1	11
40	8	15	0	40	7	11	0

ART. X.—Subscribers, on promotion, shall pay the donation of their increased rank as married or unmarried, agreeably to the rates specified in table No. I., whether in India or Europe.

ART. XI.—The donation may be paid at once, or by monthly instalments not exceeding twelve, at the option of the subscriber; in failure of which all claims shall be forfeited upon the fund, either for himself or widow, unless the amount be paid with interest at eight per cent. per annum from the day of admission. Subscribers paying donation by instalments pay interest at eight per cent. per annum upon all unpaid balances until the whole is liquidated.

ART. XII.—Monthly subscriptions shall be made within four months after they become due, in default of which eight per cent. per annum will be charged on all arrears after that period.

It will be the duty of the secretary to forward a statement of his account to every subscriber, on his payments to the fund, whether subscription or donation, becoming one year in arrears.

In all cases when the above notice has been given, and payment not made, interest on the arrears will be charged for the full period.

In the event of payment, as above, being refused, the name will be struck off, if the party entered the service before subscription was compulsory.

Should this account not be furnished, subscribers will not be held liable for the payment of interest beyond the first year.

The secretary will also call on subscribers, who may fall into

arrears for three months, for the amount of such arrears, and if unsuccessful in recovering them, lay the case before the directors for their orders.

ART. XIII.—All members marrying, and who may be desirous that their widows should possess claims to the eventual benefits of the fund, are required to inform the secretary and paymaster (if in India, and the agent if in Europe) of their marriage; and unless the payment of the additional donation be made within six months after such marriage, the subscribers will be required to pay the amount with interest at eight per cent. per annum, calculated from date of marriage, and to furnish a health certificate as required by Art. II. clause 1st; and no claim for pension on the part of the widow of an officer not subscribing as a married member at the time of his decease, shall be admissible.

Arrears which may be due to the fund by a married subscriber at the time of his death, will, if not discharged by the paymaster of the corps to which the deceased was attached, or by the president of the committee of adjustment, or by his executors or agents, be deducted from the pension of the widow, and the whole donation and arrears to be paid, although the subscriber should become a widower before completing the full payment. In all cases when the difference of age of the husband exceeds that of the wife fifteen years, the donation to be increased 10 per cent.: when twenty years, 15 per cent.: when twenty-five years, 20 per cent.: when thirty years, 25 per cent.: when thirty-five years, 30 per cent.: when forty years, 35 per cent.; and thereafter in a similar proportion in every grade of promotion.

All members re-marrying, to pay the prescribed married donation of their rank, as on their first marriage. A subscriber withdrawing his name from the married list during the lifetime of his wife, and afterwards wishing to be again placed in the same position for her benefit, shall pay a second time the marriage donation, and furnish a health certificate of the form laid down in the regulation.

N.B.—A member marrying is required to furnish his marriage certificate, and to state his own and wife's age.

An unmarried subscriber to the fund marrying a person who has borne him children, or with whom he may have been cohabiting, shall not be transferred to the married list, unless he furnishes a health certificate of the form laid down in the regulations, and pays up the prescribed marriage donation and subscription, with interest, calculated half-yearly at eight per cent. per annum, for five years, commencing in the rank he then held, and paying the difference through each successive rank he may have attained by regimental promotion.

For the purpose of ensuring accurate information on the required points from applicants, power is vested in the directors, in all cases seeming to them to call for its exercise, to forward certain sealed queries, to be filled up, on honour, by the parties applying.

ART. XIV.—As is the case in the funds at Madras and Bombay, a minimum shall be established for each rank, and in the

event of a member's contributions not having reached that minimum, a deduction shall be made for the sums otherwise receivable from the fund on account of equipment and income allowances, and from the widow's pension till the deficit be made good; such deduction being, as in the Bombay fund, according to the following scale :—

Ensign.....	Two-tenths.
Lieutenant	Two-ninths.
Captain	Two-eighths.
Major	Two-sevenths.
Lieutenant-Colonel	Two-sixths.
Colonel.....	Two-fifths.

ART. XV.—When an officer receives aid from the fund, the aggregate amount of such aid shall be deducted from the amount of his contributions in estimating his minimum.

ART. XVI.—Subscribers who may be prevented from drawing pay from a temporary cause over which they had no control, such as captivity, or furlough extended on medical certificate, shall, during such period, be exempted from the payment of monthly subscription, without forfeiture of the rights of the subscription: but on the removal of such incapacity, and upon the receipt of pay, the arrears are to be made good within six months, with interest at eight per cent. per annum for any time beyond that period. But if the incapacity to pay proceed from any other cause, dependent upon the choice or conduct of the individual, such as furlough extended on private affairs, or any penal suspension from rank and pay, not only shall the arrears so accumulated be paid up within the above term, but compound interest charged at eight per cent. per annum on the amount.

SECTION III.

Benefits derivable from the Bengal Military Fund.

ART. XVII.—The benefits derivable from the Military Fund are twofold :—

1st.—Such as are granted by the regulations to subscribers while living.

2nd.—Such as are granted to widows of deceased subscribers.

ART. XVIII.—The benefit granted to subscribers while alive, is considered personal, and subject to the decision of the directors for the time being, who will be guided in their decision on each claim by the regulations of the fund, except when they have reason to entertain doubts with respect to any such claim; it will in such cases be their duty to call for further information from the claimant; and if this information should not be satisfactory to the directors, they are authorized to withhold the payment of the claim.

ART. XIX.—A subscriber, of whatever rank, who may proceed to Europe on sick certificate, and who may not be allowed passage-money from Government, shall be authorized to apply to the

Military Fund for the sum of Rs. 800 to defray that expense, provided that his application shall be accompanied by a sincere and solemn declaration that he does not possess the sum of Rs. 5,000, or property of any description to that amount; and also shall be entitled on his return to India to receive from the agents in England, the sum regulated for the outward passage,* on the production of a declaration that he neither possesses nor has at any time possessed 500*l.* sterling (exclusive of pay) during the period he has been in receipt of English pay on furlough.

All applications from subscribers for passage-money from the fund, whether proceeding to or returning from Europe, must be accompanied by a guarantee on the part of the agents of the ship, or other respectable party, that they will be responsible for a moiety of the passage-money allowed by the fund, being returned, in cases of death previous to the pilot quitting the vessel on which the claimant's passage may have been taken.

ART. XX.—A subscriber so proceeding to England on sick certificate, shall be authorized to apply for the further sum of rupees 300 for his equipment, his application being accompanied by a solemn and sincere declaration of his not being possessed of the sum of rupees 2,000, or property of any description to that amount; but no allowance will, in any case, be made for equipment to a subscriber returning to India.

N.B.—The benefits held out in the two preceding articles should be applied for, when claimable; and no claim will be admitted which is not preferred within twelve months from date of furlough.

ART. XXI.—Subaltern officers proceeding to England on sick certificate, who shall make a solemn and sincere declaration that they do not possess from any source (exclusive of pay and pension for wounds) a sum of money that will enable them to expend 50*l.* per annum, shall be allowed that sum annually during the period of receiving English pay on furlough. The declaration to be renewed annually.

N.B.—The possession of Company's rupees 1,500, or 150*l.* precludes all claim to the above allowance.

ART. XXII.—It having, however, been deemed necessary to set limits to the claims for gratuitous passage-money, equipment allowance, and income to subscribers proceeding to England on sick certificate, no subscriber who has received the benefits he is entitled to at any one time shall receive a second indulgence until the expiration of eight years, reckoning from the renewal of Indian subscription.

A subscriber who shall have received these benefits before he has served eight years in India, will not be entitled to a second indulgence until he shall have been (exclusive of first furlough) sixteen years in the service.

ART. XXIII.—Subscribers proceeding to England from any place not under the presidency of Bengal, shall be entitled to the personal benefits which have been above enumerated, provided they shall have complied with the local regulations, and shall

* All subscribers, of whatever rank, are entitled, on their return to India, to receive *£*110 for the outward passage.

make immediate communication of the circumstances to the directors of the fund.

ART. XXIV.—The second class of benefits, namely those granted to widows of deceased subscribers, are absolute, not dependent on the decision of the directors, but controlled solely by the Regulations of the institution.

ART. XXV.—The widows of deceased subscribers shall be entitled to receive the annuities specified in the annexed table :—

TABLE

Showing the Amount of Pension to Widows (during their Widowhood) of each Rank.

IN INDIA.	Rs.	a.	p.
Widow of a Colonel, and 18 Surgeons 1st class ..	238	6	5
Lieutenant-Colonel, and 18 ditto 2nd ditto	190	11	6
Majors, Chaplains, and 18 ditto 3rd ditto	143	0	7
Captains and Surgeons, and Assistant Chaplains	95	5	9
Lieutenants and Assistant Surgeons, and Veterinary Surgeons	71	3	1
Ensigns, 2nd Lieutenants, and Cornets	56	9	8

In England, according to the rate of exchange allowed to the Fund by the East-India Company.

Provided that nothing contained herein, or in any other part of these rules of the institution, shall be considered to entitle to the benefits of it, any widow who may have been legally divorced or separated from her husband for adultery, or who at the period of her husband's demise may have quitted his protection, and be living in a state of notorious adultery, though not divorced or separated from him by law, or who subsequently to her husband's decease may be living in a notorious state of incontinence.

ART. XXVI.—If a widow pensioner on the Fund marries, her pension is to cease during her coverture; but in the event of her again becoming a widow, she shall be re-admitted to all the benefits she may have enjoyed from the Fund during her first widowhood, in like manner as if she had not re-married; but subject of course to all the limitations and conditions prescribed by the Regulations in the first instance. If the second husband shall also have been a subscriber to the Fund, the widow will receive however only one annuity, taking that which may be the greatest, that is to say, according to the rank of the first or second husband, whichever may be the higher.

ART. XXVII.—Every widow benefiting by the Military Fund, and not provided by Government with a passage to Europe, shall be entitled (for one passage only) to an allowance of Rs. 1,000. All applications from widows for passage-money from the Fund must be accompanied by a guarantee on the part of the agents of the ship or other respectable party, that they will be responsible for a moiety of the passage-money allowed by the Fund, being

returned in case of death previous to the pilot quitting the vessel in which the claimant's passage may have been taken. No claim for passage-money is admissible after the lapse of one year from the date of embarking for Europe.

ART. XXVIII.—Should the Fund, however, at any period fall short of the demands upon it, so that the annual income will not defray the amount of the annuities and other claims, then it shall be in the power of the directors, after submission to the army, to make a proportionate deduction from the annuity of each annuitant, excepting always the present annuitants of the Bengal Widows' Fund, and from the payments to other claimants above the rank of subaltern, until the state of the Fund shall afford the means of complete payment; when, if a surplus income exists, the arrears shall be made good from the amount of surplus, but not otherwise.

SECTION IV.

General Regulations.

The Bengal Military Fund is administered by a president and directors; the number of directors is regulated by the number of divisions in the army, as defined by orders issued from time to time by Government, for the guidance of the Orphan Society, each division being invited to elect a representative from among the officers residing at Barrackpore, Dum-Dum, and the Presidency, who may be available and who are inclined to serve as director; and the directors so chosen elect another as their president from among the members at the Presidency.

A general meeting of the subscribers at the Presidency is held annually, at which the accounts of the Fund and proceedings of the directors for the past year are submitted, for inspection and approval by the subscribers present, who were not of the direction. The accounts are published for general information two months previous to the annual meeting, the precise day and place of holding which are notified by public advertisement simultaneously with the publication of the accounts.

All subscribers, who may have contributed to the Fund by paying donations and subscriptions in their respective ranks, during six continued months before any meeting, are entitled to attend to examine the accounts and proceedings.

On occasion of any particular and important business which may necessarily require the opinion of the society at large, special meetings are called of the subscribers at the Presidency (others voting by proxy). Or if any alleged mismanagement, or other emergent cause should occur to any twelve subscribers to require the notice of the society at large, a special meeting may be summoned by the president on the written requisition of such twelve subscribers.

When any new Regulation appears to the directors, or to any thirty subscribers, to be advisable, such Regulation must be circulated to corps for consideration, and the affirmative or negative

of the majority of individual votes to be ascertained at the expiration of four months, shall decide its adoption or rejection.

Before being circulated for votes, all propositions must be printed and a copy sent a month previously for publication to each newspaper throughout the Bengal Presidency and for circulation to each division and station staff officer; in private cases at *the expense of the appellant*. The proceedings of the directors' meetings to be published and circulated in like manner.

If any subscriber or claimant on the Fund is desirous to appeal from the decision of the directors to that of the subscribers at large, upon any subject which may not be specifically defined by the Regulations, such appeal, provided it be approved by three directors, must be referred by the directors, and decided upon in the manner prescribed in the preceding article, and the decision on such appeal, or that of the directors, in cases not appealable, shall be final in all cases whatever, any further agitation of the question by a process of law or otherwise being deemed in itself to be an absolute forfeiture of all claim on the Fund.

When a reference shall be made to the subscribers at large respecting either proposed regulation, or an appeal, the result of such reference shall be communicated to corps for the information of subscribers.

Generally all payments due from the Fund are made quarterly in England, and monthly in India; but in cases when pensioners or claimants on the Fund are about to embark for Europe, all arrears must be paid up to the end of the preceding month.

Any arrear which may be due to the Fund by a subscriber or by an annuitant who may have received an over-payment, is in all cases deducted from the first payments to be made from the Fund to the person owing such arrear.

If a subscriber who may be dismissed from the service by a court martial or otherwise, shall afterwards be restored to the service, he shall be re-admissible to the Fund on payment of the arrear that may have accumulated, with compound interest thereon, in the same manner as if he had suffered only temporary suspension. See Art. XVI.

All property belonging to the Military Fund at any period is to be invariably vested in the Honourable Company's securities.

The business of the Fund in Europe is conducted through the Home Agent of the Fund, who from time to time receives the necessary instructions for his guidance, and to whom such applications must be preferred as cannot, with equal convenience, be submitted to the directors of the Fund in India.

BENGAL MEDICAL RETIRING FUND.

Extract Regulations.

ART. XXII.—That six annuities, of 300*l.* sterling each, shall be offered annually to the subscribers to the said fund, the six senior servants of the said medical service (such seniority to be computed according to their standing in the service) shall have the first refusal; and in the case of all or any of the said six senior subscribers declining to accept the said annuities, the next senior subscribers in succession shall have a like refusal of the said annuities, or so many of them as shall be so refused. And in the event of all or any of the said annuities being refused, such unaccepted annuities shall stand over to the following year, unless accepted in the mean time, when they shall be again offered as above mentioned, together with the six annuities for the said following year; and so on in like manner every succeeding year: which said annuities shall continue during the natural life of the said annuitants.

ART. XXIII.—That no subscriber shall be entitled to the said annuity of 300*l.* sterling, until he shall pay into the said fund at the least one-half of the value of such annuity.

ART. XXIV.—That each and every subscriber in the said fund, after having served for seventeen years, may retire from the said medical service, without prejudice to his claim on the said fund, for the said annuity of 300*l.*, at such time as he would be entitled thereto by virtue of his seniority in the said service.

MADRAS MILITARY FUND.

Extract Rules.

ART. I.—No person is admissible as a subscriber to the military fund unless he entered, or shall enter, the service of the Honourable East-India Company, on the Madras establishment, as a cadet or assistant chaplain. Assistant chaplains subscribe as captains until they have served fifteen years; subsequently as majors.

ART. II.—Medical officers (formerly received as members) may continue in the society on the old rules; according to which a surgeon pays, and is entitled to benefits, as a captain; a superintending surgeon as major; and a member of the Medical Board as lieutenant-colonel; but medical officers are no longer admissible.

ART. XIX.—The benefits derivable from the fund are:—1st. Such as are granted to subscribers while living. 2nd. Such as are granted to the widows and legitimate children of deceased subscribers.

ART. XXI.—A subscriber of the rank of captain, who may proceed to Europe on sick certificate, and who may not be allowed passage-money from government, shall receive Rs. 1,400 from the fund. Passage-money is not allowed to field officers, except on loan. The amount granted to a subaltern is Rs. 1,200.

ART. XXII.—Subscribers provided with a passage by government, are not entitled to receive passage allowance from the fund. A captain or subaltern at home, on sick certificate, is entitled, on his return to India, to receive from the agents in England, viz. captain, 110*l.*; subaltern, 95*l.*

ART. XXIII.—A subscriber, of whatever rank, proceeding to Europe on sick certificate, is entitled for his equipment, to Co.'s Rs. 200, and if married, in addition thereto, to Rs. 200 for his wife, and Rs. 100 for each legitimate child who may accompany him: no allowance made for equipment on returning to India.

ART. XXIV.—Subscribers being subalterns proceeding to England on sick certificate, are entitled to the sum of 21*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* per annum for a lieutenant, and 44*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.* for a cornet, second lieutenant, or ensign, commencing from the date of arrival in England, continuing so long as they shall be in receipt of pay there.

ART. XXV.—Captains of artillery, engineers, or infantry, and all subalterns, who have proceeded to England on sick certificate, are entitled to income allowance; if they are married or widowers having offspring, as follows: 20*l.* for his wife, and 10*l.* per annum for each legitimate child. The latter allowance, however, to be reduced in the case of a plurality of children, and the total sum to one family must never exceed 48*l.* 15*s.* per annum. Captains of cavalry are not entitled to income allowance for themselves or families.

ART. XXVI.—These benefits are issuable in one instance only; but any benefit not granted on the first, may be allowed on a future occasion of proceeding on sick certificate to Europe, and on such occasion will be allowed according to the subscriber's rank at the time of applying for it.

ART. XXVII.—The widows and legitimate children of deceased subscribers are entitled to receive the annuities specified in the annexed Table A, subject to the deductions specified in Table B, until the minimum shall have been made good.

[TABLE.

TABLE (A)

Showing the Amount of Pensions to Widows during their Widowhood, and to Children of each Class and Condition.

Classes.	Description of Annuitants, the Widows according to the Regimental Rank of their Husbands, the Children according to their Age and the Parents they have lost.	Pension payable by the Military Fund in England.		
	<i>Widows.</i>	£.	s.	d.
1	Of a Colonel	235	18	9
2	Lieutenant-Colonel	208	15	0
3	Major, Chaplain of 10 years' standing, Major, and Assistant Chaplain, 15 years' standing	181	11	3
4	Captain, and Assistant Chaplain, under 15 years' standing	136	17	6
5	Lieutenant	102	3	9
6	Cornet, 2nd Lieutenant, and Ensign	81	15	0
	<i>Children having lost one Parent.</i>			
1	Under 6 years of age	20	0	0
2	Between 6 and 12 years of age	30	0	0
3	Above 12 until 21 for boys, and for girls for whom the donation may not have been paid	40	0	0
	<i>Children having lost both Parents.</i>			
1	Under 6 years of age	30	0	0
2	Between 6 and 12 years of age	45	0	0
3	Above 12 until 21 for boys, and for girls for whom the donation may not have been paid	60	0	0

TABLE (B).

From the 6th class, not to exceed one-fifth of the net amount payable from the fund.

5th.....do.....two-ninths	do.
4th.....do.....one-fourth	do.
3rd.....do.....two-sevenths	do.
2nddo.....one-third.....	do.
1stdo.....two-fifths	do.
for all childrendo.....one-fourth	do.

ART. XXVIII.—Sons may anticipate annuities after fifteen years of age, according as the mother may or may not be living at the time; and if she should die after the anticipation, and before he shall attain twenty-one years of age, the difference shall be paid to the son at the mother's death.

ART. XXIX.—To secure for his daughters the continuance, until marriage or death, of the annuities to which they may become entitled from the fund, in consequence of his decease, before they respectively attain the age of twenty-one years; or to obtain for them similar annuities at his death, if they have attained the above age when the event occurs, a subscriber is required, within ten days from the date of birth of each daughter, to notify the same to the secretary, and state that it is his intention to pay an additional donation of Rs. 282; which amount will become due to the fund from the tenth day after birth, and must be paid within one year from the date thereof; failing in which, the annuity will cease on the daughter attaining the age of twenty-one. Subscribers in reporting payment of the donation are to state the Christian name and date of birth of the daughter for whom it is paid.

ART. XXX.—A posthumous daughter, or a daughter whose father may die before payment of the donation as above, will be entitled to the advantage of regulation 29; but the prescribed donation for her will be deducted from her annuity; and in the case of a daughter born during the temporary absence of the father, the report must be made as soon as the event comes to his knowledge, the cause of the delay being explained at the time.

ART. XXXIII.—The annuity to a widow shall, on re-marriage, be suspended during her coverture; but if she survive this husband, she may revert to the annuity; and so for any number of re-marriages. A widow cannot receive two annuities from the fund at the same time; but if she have survived two or more husbands, members of the fund, she shall be entitled to the annuity of the highest class either of her husbands may have belonged to at their respective deaths.

ART. XXXIV.—Every widow benefiting by the Military Fund, and not provided with a passage at the expense of Government, is entitled to passage-money *only once*, whether to Europe or such place as she may desire to fix her residence in, according to the following scale:—To Europe or America from India, to India from Europe or America, widow of a colonel, lieutenant-colonel, and major, Rs. 1,500; captain and subaltern, Rs. 1,200; to the Cape of Good Hope from India, to Europe or India from the Cape of Good Hope, or any other places beyond our Indian settlements, such as Australia, two-thirds of the above rates, according to the respective class of the party.

ART. XXXV.—Passage-money for the children of deceased subscribers is also issuable once, without reference to the place to which proceeding. The rate of passage-money for such children is fixed as follows:—

To an orphan having lost his or her father	Rs. 250
To each additional orphan, up to the number of 4	250

which is the maximum to any one family of children having lost their father only.

To an orphan having lost both parents	Rs.	700
To two do. do. do.		1,200
To three or more do. do.		1,500

which is the maximum allowed, under any circumstances, to orphans of the same family proceeding together to Europe or the Cape, &c., from India.

ART. XXXVIII.—The annuities of children of the same father and mother, whose mother is an annuitant, are liable to the following deductions:—

Number of children	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Per-centage	5	15	30	50	75	105	140	180	225

on an average annuity.

ART. XXXIX.—Subscribers who shall have subscribed to the fund for a period not less than eight years, shall be entitled to loans under the following circumstances and conditions:—

1st.—To send to, or bring from Europe, or any other part of the world they may intend to reside or be residing in, his wife or children, or either of them, the amount of twenty months' subsistence of his rank, on depositing an irrevocable order on the Pay Department, and also a personal bond, in which he shall be joined by two securities to be approved by the directors, engaging to repay the amount so borrowed with interest at eight per cent. per annum, within twenty-five months immediately succeeding the date of the advance.

2nd.—On proceeding to England on sick certificate with his family, the amount of the regulated passage-money for his wife and children, or either of them, on his personal bond, joined by two securities to be approved by the directors, that the amount shall be repaid, with interest at eight per cent. per annum, within twenty-five months after the subscriber's return to India, if then a regimental captain, if otherwise, within twenty-five months after attaining that rank; and the sureties to be bound to make good any balance or deficiency, in the event of the subscriber's ceasing to be a member of the fund before the bond is discharged.

MADRAS MEDICAL FUND.

(Established 1807.)

I.—Pensions to Widows.

Widow of a Surgeon, or of an Assistant Surgeon of 15 years' standing in the Fund, or after 39 years of age	£.	s.	d.
Widow of an Assistant Surgeon under 15 years' standing in the Fund, or under 39 years of age	228	11	5
	160	0	0

II.—*Pensions to Children.*

	£.	s.	d.
To a Child under 2 years of age	20	11	5
Do. 7, above 2 years of age	30	17	1
Do. 11, above 7 do.	38	17	1
Do. 18, above 11 do.	70	17	1
Females from 18 to 21, if unmarried	70	17	1

III.—*Extended Pensions to Children.*

To Sons from 18 to 21 years of age	70	17	1
To Daughters from 21 years, or Father's death, if subsequent, for life, or while unmarried, or a Widow.....	70	17	1

IV.—*Sick Allowance to Subscribers while absent in Europe.*

Surgeon, for 3 years, if he has no private fortune or income	108	7	0
Assistant Surgeon do. do. do.	81	7	0

To subscribers who find it necessary from ill health to go to Europe, and who procure the necessary certificate to obtain the sanction of Government for that purpose, such assistance is afforded as shall enable a surgeon to expend the annual sum of £300, and an assistant surgeon the annual sum of £200, for a period in each case not exceeding three years, and for one term only; the allowance granted to a surgeon, who is not in the receipt of any income from private property, being Rs. 948. 4. 6, and to an assistant surgeon, Rs. 712. 0. 6.

To subscribers retiring from the service, annuities for life of Rs. 3,500 are granted, according to seniority in the fund list; two being issued annually in addition to a small annuity of Rs. 1,750, to which a member retiring from the service on account of certified ill health has a prior claim.

BOMBAY MILITARY FUND.

Extracts from the Regulations.—Persons entitled to the Benefits of the Fund.

ART. I.—All actual subscribers, and all cadets, assistant surgeons, veterinary surgeons, chaplains, and assistant chaplains, who may be appointed to the service.

ART. II.—Members of the Medical Board and the archdeacon shall rank as lieutenant-colonels; superintending surgeons, and chaplains after ten years' service, as majors; surgeons and chaplains under ten years' service, as captains. Assistant chaplains shall rank as captains until they have served fifteen years in India, and subsequently as majors.

ART. III.—In the payment of donations, subscribers shall be classed under three distinct descriptions, viz. married subscribers, widowers with offspring, and unmarried subscribers and widowers without offspring, and shall contribute accordingly.

SECTION III.

Benefits derivable from the Fund.

The benefits derivable from the Military Fund are either personal or transmittable by subscribers on their decease to their widows and children.

ART. I.—The widows and legitimate children of subscribers shall be entitled to receive the following annuities.*

TABLE

Showing the Amount of Pension to Widows during their Widowhood.

	£.	s.	d.
Widow of a Colonel.....	205	0	0
Lieut.-Colonel or member of Medical Board.....	175	0	0
Major, Superintending Surgeon, and Chaplain above 10 years' standing.....	145	0	0
Captain, Surgeon, Chaplain under 10 years' standing, and Assistant Chaplain under 15 years' service.....	120	0	0
Lieutenant, Assistant Surgeon, and Veterinary Surgeon.....	102	3	9
Cornets, Ensigns, and 2nd Lieutenants.....	81	15	0

TABLE

Showing the Amount of Annuities payable to Children for whom Donations have been paid.

	£.	s.	d.
Children, without distinction of rank, if bereft of both parents, under 7 years old.....	30	0	0
From 7 to 10 years old.....	45	0	0
From 10 to 18 years old.....	60	0	0
If bereft of their father only, under 7 years old ...	22	10	0
From 7 to 10 years old.....	30	0	0
From 10 to 18 years old.....	37	10	0

ART. II.—The annuities of children annuitants are not subject to deduction on account of *minimum*; but in the event of arrears

* All applications for pensions, either to the agents in England, or to the secretary in India, should be accompanied by the following declaration from a justice of the peace or beneficed resident clergyman:—

Certified that ———, widow of the late ———, and children (if any), are now living and residing at this place, and that the widow is still unmarried.

being due by the father, they come under the operation of Rule 30, Section II., in like manner with the widows.

ART. III.—The annuities to boys shall cease on the completion of their eighteenth year, at which time the guardians of each of them shall receive from the fund the sum of £225.

ART. IV.—On application being made, and on sufficient reasons being assigned, the above sum of £225 may be paid previous to the child's (boy or girl) completing its eighteenth year; but in all cases the payment of this sum shall extinguish all claim to a continuance of the annuity.

ART. V.—But the annuities of females for whom donations have been paid shall continue (on their giving up their claim to portion) *until their marriage or death*.

ART. VI.—A child born within ten months after the death of its father, shall be entitled to admission to the benefits of the Fund, on payment on its account of the regulated donation, within twelve months after its birth, no payment of annuity being made, however, until the donation is liquidated.

ART. VII.—Females for whom the donation has been paid, and who have attained the age of eighteen previous to the death of their fathers, shall, nevertheless, be entitled to admission on the Fund; their annuities continuing, in like manner with those of other female children annuitants, until their marriage or death.

ART. VIII.—The receiving any annuity by any female annuitant after the age of eighteen precludes all right to the portion of £225.

ART. IX.—Widows who are annuitants on the fund, and who may hereafter marry, are allowed to retain *one-half* of the annuity formerly granted to them; and if her second husband be a subscriber, on her again becoming a widow, she may claim the annuity prescribed for the rank of either the first or second husband; but she is not to receive more than one full annuity.

ART. X.—Annuities shall be payable to widows or guardians of children at their place of residence, if in India or Great Britain and Ireland; and if resident in a foreign country, or at the Cape of Good Hope, to their constituted agents in London or Bombay; and if resident in any part of India not subordinate to this presidency, to their constituted agent at Bombay, at the rate of 2s. 3d. per rupee; or by bills to the agents in England.

ART. XI.—All widows on leaving India shall be entitled to receive the passage-money at Rs. 1,200, whatever the rank of the husband.

ART. XII.—All children admitted to the benefits of the fund shall be entitled to receive the sum of 400 rupees to defray the expense of their passage to England, if accompanied by their mother, or 525 rupees if proceeding alone, without reference to their age or the rank of their father at the period of his decease.

ART. XIII.—All married subscribers below the rank of Field Officer shall receive, in addition to the equipment allowance payable to an unmarried subscriber, the sum of 150 rupees for his wife, and 75 rupees for each child, on application for the same to the directors, through the secretary.

ART. XIV.—A married subaltern (or widower with offspring) at home, who may proceed from India on sick certificate, being married at the date of his departure from India, shall, on making application to that effect, receive £15 per annum for his wife, and £7 10s. for each of his children, if the number does not exceed two, in addition to his own income allowance from the fund, commencing from the date of arrival in Europe, and continuing for two and a half years, provided he remains so long in Europe; but the total sum payable on their account shall not exceed £30 per annum.

ART. XV.—A married captain (or widower having offspring), at home on sick certificate, shall, on application, receive the same allowance for his wife and children as a subaltern.

ART. XVI.—Personal benefits, viz. gratuitous passage-money (homeward and outward), income allowance, and equipment allowance to the subscriber and his family, or to unmarried subscribers on sick certificate, cannot be claimed a second time, until the expiration of eight years, reckoning from the renewal of Indian subscription; and in the case of a subscriber who shall have received these benefits before he has served eight years in India, he will not be entitled to a second indulgence until he shall have been (exclusive of first furlough) sixteen years in India.

ART. XVII.—Personal benefits being granted for specific purposes, any omission to claim them at the proper periods, involves their entire forfeiture, unless the omission can be explained to the satisfaction of the directors.

ART. XVIII.—A married subscriber shall be entitled to receive, on his personal security, a loan not exceeding twenty months' net pay of his rank, for the purpose of sending his wife or children to England, provided that the said loan be repaid by instalments within twenty months from the date of its advance, with interest at 8 per cent. per annum, viz.—Colonel, Rs. 6,000; Lieut.-Colonel, Rs. 4,800; Major, Rs. 3,600; Captain, Rs. 2,400; Lieutenant, Rs. 1,200; and Ensign, Rs. 960.

ART. XIX.—A similar loan on the same condition shall be granted to a married subscriber in India for the purpose of bringing his family from England. Vide Para. 23.

ART. XX.—Any subscriber proceeding on sick certificate to the Cape of Good Hope, Persian Gulf, Egypt, New South Wales, or to sea, for any period not under one year, shall be allowed a loan to the extent of Rs. 1,000 on his personal security; to be repaid with interest at 8 per cent., in twenty-four monthly instalments, from the date of the advance; and such subscriber shall also be entitled to a loan of half the above amount, or Rs. 500, on his return, to be repaid with interest at 8 per cent. in twelve monthly instalments, from the date of his return to Bombay.

ART. XXI.—An advance on loan will be granted to married men proceeding as above with their families, of one-half, in addition to the above loan, to be repaid in the same instalments.

ART. XXII.—One-half of the advance prescribed in Art. XX., and on the same terms, will be granted to a subscriber who may

send his family to the Cape of Good Hope or New South Wales, although he should not proceed thither.

ART. XXIII.—No fresh loan can be granted to any subscriber while any former loan, or any part of such, with the interest thereon, remains unpaid.

ART. XXIV.—Articles XII., XIII., XIV., XVI., latter part of XVII., and XVIII. of section four of the regulations dated 1819, were rescinded by the decision on the 5th proposition of the 36th circular; * but as this resolution was not to have a retrospective effect, as all annuitants on the fund previous to the 23rd September, 1824, remain subject to the former regulations, and consequently such widow annuitants shall continue to furnish, every half-year, declarations, specifying whether they possess any property or not, and in the former case its actual amount and drawn up in suitable form.

Benefits to Unmarried Subscribers.

ART. XXV.—Subaltern officers who proceed to Europe on sick certificate shall be entitled on application to the following amount of *income allowance*, commencing from the date of arrival in England, and ceasing two and a half years therefrom, or on departure from Europe, if occurring previously to the expiration of that period, viz. :—

Lieutenants.....	£21 7 6 per ann.
Ensigns	44 3 9 „
Assistant Surgeons and Veterinary Surgeons	21 7 6 „

ART. XXVI.—Subscribers who proceed to Europe on sick certificate, and who are not, furnished with a passage by Government, shall, on making application to the directors, through the secretary, be entitled to receive for that purpose the following sums, viz. :—

If subscribing as Field Officers.....	Rs. 1,400
———— Captains	1,200
———— Subalterns	1,200

Provided that, if field officers, the amount be refunded free of interest within twelve months after the expiration of three years from the date of receipt or return to India.

ART. XXVII.—Subscribers who have proceeded to Europe on sick certificate shall, on making application to the agents in England, be entitled to receive the following sums as outward passage-money, provided they are not furnished with a passage by Government, viz. :—

If subscribing as Field Officers	£113
———— Captains.....	94
———— Subalterns.....	83

* It is therefore unnecessary to print them.

Provided that if above the rank of subaltern, the amount be refunded free of interest within twelve months after return to India.

ART. XXVIII.—Subscribers below the rank of field officer proceeding to England on sick certificate, shall further be entitled to receive the sum of Rs. 200 for their equipment, on application for the same to the directors, through the secretary.

ART. XXIX.—Subscribers proceeding to England from any other place than Bombay on sick certificate, duly obtained according to the regulations, shall be entitled to the same benefits, on giving the secretary the necessary information.

SECTION IV.

Causes of Exclusion from the Benefits of the Fund.

ART. I.—A subscriber, prior to the orders of the Hon. Court, withdrawing from the fund, forfeits, *ipso facto*, all claim to the benefits derivable from it, as also the amount of his donation and subscription, and all other sums which he may have paid up to the period of his secession.

ART. II.—The nonpayment of donation, subscription, or any other sum demanded from them in conformity to the regulations, shall exclude subscribers *from all benefits* derivable from the fund.

ART. III.—The non-compliance with any regulation of the Military Fund, or the bringing under litigation any decision which has been passed in conformity to these regulations.

ART. IV.—All income derived from the Bombay military fund is declared to be *inalienable*, and the fact of attempting the alienation of such income in any manner, or under any pretence, shall be deemed in itself a forfeiture of all future benefits from the fund.

ART. V.—The widow of a subscriber who shall have been legally divorced or separated from her husband, or who shall at the time of his death have quitted his protection, or shall be living in a state of adultery, though not legally separated or divorced, shall not be entitled to any benefit from the fund under any circumstances whatever.

ART. VI.—If, after the widow of a subscriber shall have been admitted to the benefits of the fund, it shall at any time appear, to the satisfaction of the directors, that she is living in a state of incontinence, or in a manner discreditable to the memory of her husband, she shall forfeit all claim to the benefits derivable from the fund, and shall in future be deprived of her annuity.

SECTION V.

Eventual Benefits of the Fund.

ART. I.—Independent of the benefits which have been recited, the Bombay Military Fund is considered as holding out the prospect of eventual benefits under the following circumstances.

ART. II.—If at any future period it shall be found that the funds of the institution afford a considerable surplus, after providing for the actual and probable applications for relief under the preceding articles, it shall then, and not otherwise, be competent for the directors of the institution, provided the permission of the Hon. Court of Directors be obtained, to afford the aid of the fund in the following cases :

1st.—To subscribers compelled by ill health to abandon the country after ten years' service, before they are entitled to retire on full pay, the regulated passage-money of their rank, and an annuity which shall render their total income, from whatever source derived, equal to the full pay of their rank.

2nd.—To officers who may have served twenty-two years in India, and may be compelled by ill health to retire from the service, without having obtained the rank of major, the regulated passage-money of their rank, and such assistance from the fund as will render their whole income, from whatever source, equal to the pay of major; and, as in the case of widows, the possession of an income not exceeding half the pay of a major of infantry, shall not occasion an abatement from the provision to be made from the fund.

3rd.—In the event of a still further surplus, it shall be competent for the directors of the Military Fund, at their discretion, to assist officers retiring from the service on full pay in limited circumstances, with a sum equal to the regulated passage-money of their rank, provided always that the resignation of such officer shall actually have been accepted previously to embarkation.

4th.—Should the fund, however, at any period fall short of the demands upon it, so that the annual income will not defray the amount of the annuities and other claims, then it shall be in the power of the directors to make a proportionate deduction from the annuity of each annuitant, and from the payments to other claimants above the rank of subaltern, until the state of the fund shall afford the means of complete payment, when, if a surplus income exists, the arrears shall be made good from the amount of surplus, but not otherwise.

Printed forms of affidavits to be had of the agents to the fund in England.

BOMBAY MEDICAL FUND.

The object of the institution is to provide annuities for the seniors of the department, to enable them to retire.

Extract Regulations.—Annuities.

The annuities are of 300*l.* each, payable half-yearly in England; or, if the retiring member prefers, he may receive from the fund the money value of his annuity here in rupees, subject to a deduction of one-fifth.

One annuity is available each year, through the Hon. Company's treasury. The number of further annuities, or equivalents, depends on the state of the funds.

A subscriber who has served seventeen years in India, and conforms to these rules, is qualified for the annuity; and in case of absence on furlough, he shall empower an agent to accept, decline, complete the minimum, &c., as may be necessary, communicating the name of his constituted attorney to the secretary.

CHAPLAINS, ASSAY MASTERS, &c.

Regulations for their Admission into Company's Service.

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 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.

Chaplains are required to subscribe to the Military Fund, and 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.

Furlough Rules applicable to chaplains, &c., the same as the Military Furlough Rules, with the following allowances:—

Chaplains.

Appointed to service previous to 1st September, 1836 :—

	Per diem.
Under 7 years' service (from ill health) ..	10s. 6d.
Above 7 do. on furlough ..	16 0

Appointed to service subsequent to 1st September, 1836 :—

	Per diem.
Under 7 years' service (from ill health) ..	7s. 0d.
Above 7 do. ..	10 6

	Per annum.
Assay masters, from ill health	£191 12 6
Deputy do. do.	118 12 6
Commissaries do.	182 10 0
Deputy commissaries do.	91 5 0
Assist. dep. do. do.	80 0 0
Dep. assist. do. do.	80 0 0
Conductors and riding masters, do. ..	75 0 0
Sub do. and assist. do. do.	45 12 6

RETIRING RULES APPLICABLE TO CHAPLAINS, &c.

Chaplains.

Appointed to service previous to 1st September, 1836 :—

	Per annum.
After 7 years' service (from ill health)	£173 7 6
10 do. do.	200 15 0
18 do. 3 years' furlough included ..	165 0 0

Appointed to service subsequent to 1st September, 1836 :—

	Per annum.
After 7 years' service (from ill health)	£127 15 0
10 do. do.	173 7 6
18 do. 3 years' furlough included ..	292 0 0

Assay Masters.

	Per annum.
After 10 years' service (from ill health)	£200
20 do. 3 years' furlough included	300

Deputy Assay Masters.

	Per annum.
After 10 years' service (from ill health)	£150 0 0
20 do. 3 years' furlough included	191 12 6

INDIAN NAVY.

(Referred to at page 58 of the Hand-Book.)

Nominees must not be under 15 years or above 18 years of age, unless they shall have served on board a steam-vessel or under an engineer in a factory or foundry from the completion of their 18th year up to the time of their being put in nomination; and in such case the nominees shall not exceed 19 years.

No person who has been dismissed the army or navy, or who has been obliged to quit any school or institution for immoral or ungentlemanly conduct, can be appointed to the Indian navy.

Volunteers for the Indian navy are required to proceed to India within three months after their appointment shall be completed, or their appointment will be considered as forfeited.

Nominees shall produce a certificate that they have undergone an examination in arithmetic and the elementary branches of nautical education, so far as to satisfy the Court or any committee thereof that they are qualified to enter upon the service; and a certificate from a respectable engineer that they have acquired such a knowledge of marine engineering as to afford promise of efficient service on board a steam-vessel.

Retirement.

Every officer who has actually served twenty-two years or upwards in India, is permitted to retire with the following pay :

Captains	£360 per annum	Lieutenants	£190 per annum
Commanders	290 do.	Pursers	190 do.

Every officer retiring, from ill health, after ten years' service, and before he has completed that of twenty-two years, is granted the following retiring allowance :

Captains	£200 per annum	Lieutenants	£125 per annum
Commanders	170 do.	Pursers	125 do.

Furlough.

The following are the existing Regulations, but it is believed they will shortly be altered, and assimilated to the Military Regulations.

A certain proportion of the officers (to be determined by the Government, with a due regard to the exigencies of the service) are allowed to come home on furlough for three years, with the pay only of their rank.

No officer under the rank of captain who has not actually served ten years can be permitted to come home on furlough, unless in

cases of ill health, under the like certificates as required from military officers.

Allowances.

		Per annum.		Per annum.
Captains	..	£360	Lieuts. and Pursers	£165
Commanders	..	270	Midshipmen and Clerks	75

INDIAN NAVY FUND.

(Instituted 1st January, 1839.)

Extract Regulations.—Persons entitled to the benefits of the Fund.

ART. I.—Commissioned officers actually subscribers, pursers, midshipmen, and clerks duly appointed to the service.

Benefits derivable from the Fund.

The benefits derivable from the Indian Navy Fund are either personal, or transmittable by subscribers, on their decease, to their widows and children.

Benefits to Married Subscribers and Widowers with Offspring.

ART. I.—The widows, and legitimate children descendants of subscribers, shall be entitled to receive the annuities specified in the annexed page:—

ART. II.—The annuity, however, payable to the widows of subscribers is, in all cases, to be subject to a deduction equal to the amount of Lord Clive's pension.

[TABLE.

TABLE

Showing the Amount of Pension to Widows during their Widowhood, and to Children of each Class and Condition.

	Full Pension.			Deduct amount of Lord Clive's Pension.*			Net Pension payable by the Fund.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Widow of a Captain	250	0	0	91	5	0	158	15	0
„ Commander ..	210	0	0	68	8	9	141	11	3
„ Senior Lieut.	166	0	0	45	12	6	110	7	6
„ Lieutenant or Purser	136	0	0	45	12	6	90	7	6
Children (with reference to Articles Nos. 5 and 6 as to limitation), if bereft of both their parents, under 10 years of age..	30	0	0	—			30	0	0
From 10 to 16	40	0	0	—			40	0	0
Do. do. who have lost their father under 10 years of age	20	0	0	—			20	0	0
From 10 to 16 years	30	0	0	—			30	0	0
Daughters only on the death of both parents, after attaining their 16th year, according to Arts. 5 and 6	40	0	0	—			40	0	0

ART. III.—Widows who are annuitants on the Fund, and who may hereafter marry, are allowed to retain one half of the annuity formerly granted to them; and if her second husband be a subscriber, it shall become optional with the widow to claim the annuity prescribed for the rank of either the first or second husband; but she is not to receive more than one full annuity.

ART. IV.—The annuities to children shall cease to sons, without reservation, on the completion of their fourteenth year; and to daughters, on the completion of their sixteenth year, if their mother shall be living, or on their being settled in life; in case of the death of both parents, the annuity (if the death of the parent occurs subsequently to their attaining their sixteenth year) to

* These pensions from Lord Clive's Fund are not given to the widows of retired officers, they are merely inserted here for information, the Indian Navy Fund not contributing to, nor having any control over, the same.

commence from the date of the death of the last surviving parent. On the sons completing their fourteenth year, and the daughters being settled in life, the guardians of each of them shall claim from the Fund the sum of 100*l.*, to assist in his or her establishment in life.

ART. V.—The grant of annuities to the daughters, in case of the death of both parents, after their attaining their sixteenth year, shall have this proviso, that the guardian shall satisfy the directors, by a deposition made before a magistrate, of the claimant having no other means of support whatever; and, further, it shall be provided, that the aggregate annuities of children in one family shall never, under any circumstances, exceed 90*l.* per annum. The guardians, in claiming the gratuity allowed on the settlement in life of each child, shall satisfy the directors of the justice of the claim; but in all cases the payment of the sum shall be a virtual resignation of any claim to a continuance of the annuity.

ART. VIII.—All widows of subscribers who do not possess such amount of property as excludes them from the benefit of Lord Clive's Fund, and who are not provided with a passage to England by government, shall be entitled to receive (for one passage only) the sum of 1,500 rupees, to defray the same.

ART. IX.—The children of a deceased subscriber, without reference to their age, or the rank of their parents, shall be entitled to receive as follows, to defray the expense of their passage to England :

For a single child	Rs. 800
For the second do.....	500
For the third do.	400
For the fourth do.....	200
For the fifth do.....	100

providing that no more than 2,500 rupees be granted to one family, inclusive of the mother.

ART. X.—A married subscriber shall be entitled to receive, on his personal security, a loan equal to twelve months' net pay of the rank he holds, for the purpose of sending his wife or children to England; provided that the said loan be repaid, with interest, by instalments, within twenty-four months from the date of its advance.

ART. XI.—Widows, annuitants on the Fund, shall furnish, every half-year, an affidavit of the names and number of children then alive, for whom such annuitant claims a pension, according to the Regulations.

ART. XII.—In the same manner the next of kin, or guardians, of children annuitants on the Fund, shall furnish a half-yearly affidavit to the same effect.

ART. XIII.—A married lieutenant or purser (or widower of that rank with offspring), at home on sick certificate, shall, on furnishing a declaration on honour, similar to that required from unmarried subscribers below that rank, that he does not possess property which will (including his pay) produce an income of 200*l.* a year, be entitled to receive from the Fund 20*l.* per annum for his wife, and 10*l.* for each of his children, if the number does not exceed two,

during the period of his receiving pay in England ; but the total sum so payable for wife and children shall not exceed 40*l.* per annum.

Benefits to Unmarried Subscribers.

ART. XIV.—Subscribers below the rank of a lieutenant, proceeding to England on sick certificate, shall, on making a declaration on honour that they do not possess property which will (including their pay) produce an income of 100*l.* per annum, be entitled to receive from the Fund 20*l.* per annum, during the period of their receiving pay in England ; and such subscribers, in case of acquiring any property or income during their residence in Europe, shall immediately furnish the agents with an affidavit specifying the amount.

ART. XV.—Subscribers of the rank of captain or commander, who may proceed to Europe on sick certificate, and who are not furnished with a passage by Government, shall, if they do not possess the means of paying for the passage, be entitled to receive, for that purpose, a sum not exceeding 1,500 rupees, to defray the same, on loan, to be paid, with interest, within twenty-four months after their return to India.

ART. XVI.—Subscribers, of whatever rank, who may have proceeded to Europe on sick certificate, shall be entitled to receive from the agents in England (as a loan only), for a captain or commander, 160*l.* ; for lieutenant or purser, 120*l.* ; for a midshipman or clerk, 60*l.* ; to defray their passage outward ; the same to be repaid, with interest, wholly by captains and commanders, and half the amount only by officers below that rank, after their arrival in India, by instalments not exceeding twenty-four.

ART. XVII.—Subscribers proceeding to England from any other place than Bombay, on sick certificate, duly obtained according to the regulations, shall be entitled to the same benefits (by bills on the directors of the Fund), giving the secretary the necessary information, and furnishing him with the required declaration on honour.

ART. XVIII.—All widows of subscribers, or guardians claiming the benefit of the Fund in behalf of children, shall sign a declaration on application for such benefit.

ART. XIX.—Subscribers below the rank of a commander, returning to India from furlough, shall be entitled to receive from the agents in England (as a loan only) the sum of 60*l.*, the same to be repaid, with interest thereon, after their arrival in India, by instalments, not exceeding twelve.

ART. XX.—Pursers proceeding to England on sick certificate, not being allowed passage-money by Government, shall be entitled to receive 1,200 rupees from the Fund, on loan, half of which to be paid back, with interest, in twenty-four months after their return to India.

Eventual Benefits of the Fund.

ART. I.—Independent of the benefits which have been recited, the Indian Navy Fund is considered as holding out the prospect of eventual benefits, under the following circumstances.

ART. II.—If, at any future period, it shall be found that the funds of the Institution afford a considerable surplus, after providing for the actual and probable applications for relief under the preceding articles, it shall then, and not otherwise, be competent for the directors of the Institution, provided the permission of the Honourable Court of Directors be obtained, to afford the aid of the Fund in the following cases:—

1. To subscribers compelled by ill health to abandon the country after ten years' service, and before they are entitled to retire on full pay, the regulated passage-money, and an annuity which shall render their total income, from whatever source derived, equal to the pay of their rank.

2. To officers who may have served twenty-two years in India, and be obliged by ill health to retire from the service without having obtained the rank of commander, the regulated passage-money, and such assistance from the Fund as will render their whole income, from whatever source, equal to the pay of a commander.

3. In the event of a still further surplus, it shall be competent for the directors of the Fund to assist officers, retiring from the service on full pay, in limited circumstances, with a sum equal to the regulated passage-money; provided always, that the resignation of such officer shall have been accepted previously to his embarkation.

ART. III.—Should the Fund, however, at any period, fall short of the demands upon it, so that the annual income will not defray the amount of the annuities and other claims, then it shall be in the power of the directors to make a proportionate deduction from the annuity of each annuitant, and from the payments to other claimants above the rank of a junior lieutenant, until the state of the Fund shall afford the means of complete payments, when, if a surplus income exists, the arrears shall be made good from the amount of surplus, but not otherwise.

BENGAL PILOT SERVICE.

No person can be appointed who is under fifteen or past seventeen years of age, unless he has already been at sea; in which case, provided his age do not exceed nineteen years, he shall be eligible, upon producing a certificate of having served at sea for as many years or months as his age shall at the time of appointment exceed seventeen years.

Volunteers for the Bengal Pilot Service are required to proceed to India within three months after their appointment shall be completed, or such appointment will be considered as forfeited.

Allowances.

	Furlough on Sick Certificate.	Retired.
Branch Pilots	Rs. 200 per month.	Rs. 200 per month.
Masters	90 do.	100 do.
1st Mates	50 do.	60 do.
2nd Mates and Volunteers..	40 do.	30 do.

Mem.—Military and marine (furlough and retired) pay made up to the 31st January, 30th April, 31st July, and 31st October in each year, and issued on or after the second Monday in February, May, August, and November.

BENGAL PILOT SERVICE FUND.

Pensions for the Members of the Pilot Service, their Widows and Orphans.

CONTRIBUTION.

Branch Pilot	Rs. 40 per month each.
Master	20 "
1st Mate	10 "
2nd Mate and Volunteer..	4 "

1st.—In consideration of a monthly contribution to the extent noted above, by the pilots of the several grades, towards a fund for pensionary support to their widows and orphans, the following pensions will be allowed by Government:—

Branch Pilots	Rs. 200 per month.
Master	100 "
1st Mate	60 "
2nd Mate and Volunteer.....	30 "

FAMILIES.

Widow of Branch Pilot.....	Rs. 100 per month.
" Master	50 "
" 1st Mate	30 "
" 2nd Mate and Volunteer 15	"

CHILDREN.

Until ten years of age.....	Rs. 14 per month.
Girls after ten years until married	20 "
Boys until fifteen years of age	12 "

PRECEDENCE IN THE EAST-INDIES.

(Under warrant dated 8th July, 1850.)

- The governor-general, or governor-general for the time being.
- The lieutenant-governor of Bengal.
- The governor of Madras.
- The governor of Bombay.
- The governor (or lieutenant-governor) of Agra.
- The chief justice of Bengal.
- The bishop of Calcutta.
- The chief justice of Madras.
- The bishop of Madras.
- The chief justice of Bombay.
- The bishop of Bombay.
- The commander-in-chief in India, when also a member of the Supreme Council.
- Members of the Supreme Council according to their situation therein.
- Members of council, Bengal, according to their situation therein.
- The commander-in-chief at Madras, when also a member of council.
- Members of council at Madras, according to their situation therein.
- The commander-in-chief at Bombay, when also a member of council.
- Members of council at Bombay, according to their situation therein.
- The puisne judges of the Supreme Court at Calcutta, according to date.
- The puisne judges of the Supreme Court at Madras, according to date.
- The puisne judges of the Supreme Court at Bombay, according to date.
- The recorder of Prince of Wales' Island.
- The commander-in-chief in India.
- The commander-in-chief of her Majesty's naval forces, and the commander-in-chief of the army at the several presidencies (not being commanders-in-chief in India), according to relative rank in their respective services.
- Naval and military officers above the rank of major-general.
- Members of the Sudder Adawlut, according to their situation therein.
- Members of the law commission, according to their situation therein.

Civilians, with reference to their Rank and Precedence, to be divided into Six Classes.

- Civilians of thirty-five years' standing from date of rank assigned to them on their arrival to form class I. and from date of entering such class to rank with Major-generals, according to date of commission.

Civilians of twenty years' standing from date of rank assigned to them on their arrival, to form class II., and from date of entering such class to rank with

Colonels, according to date of commission.

Archdeacons of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay.

Civilians of twelve years' standing from date of rank assigned to them on their arrival, to form class III., and from date of entering such class to rank with

Lieutenant-colonels, according to date of commission.

Civilians of eight years' standing, from date of rank assigned to them on their arrival, to form class IV., and from date of entering such class, to rank with

Majors, according to date of commission.

Civilians of four years' standing from date of rank assigned to them on their arrival, to form class V., and from date of entering such class, to rank with

Captains, according to date of commission.

Civilians under four years' standing from date of rank assigned to them on their arrival, to form class VI., and to rank with

Subalterns, according to date of commission.

Advocates general to rank with the 1st class of civil servants.

Chaplains to rank with civilians of the 4th class and majors.

Assistant chaplains to rank with civilians of the 5th class and captains.

All officers not mentioned in the above table, whose rank is regulated by comparison with rank in the army, to have the same rank with reference to civil servants as is enjoyed by military officers of equal grades.

All other persons who may not be mentioned in this table, to take rank according to general usage, which is to be explained and determined by the Governor-General in council, in case any question shall arise.

Nothing in the foregoing rules to disturb the existing practice relating to precedence at native courts, or on occasions of intercourse with natives; and the Governor-General to be empowered to make rules for such occasions, in case any dispute shall arise.

All Ladies to take place according to the rank assigned to their respective husbands, with the exception of wives of peers, and ladies having precedence in England, independently of their husbands, and who are not in rank below the daughters of barons; such ladies to take place according to their several ranks, with reference to such precedence in England, immediately after the wives of members of council at the presidencies in India.

Relative Rank.

Admirals	..	..	..	with generals.
Vice-admirals	..	..	..	with lieutenant-generals.
Rear-admirals	..	..	..	with major-generals.
Commodore and 1st captain	}	..	}	with brigadier-generals.
to commander in chief				

Captains of 3 years' post	..	with colonels.
Other post-captains	..	with lieutenant-colonels.
Commanders		with majors.
Lieutenants		with captains.
Physicians general, surgeons general, and inspectors ge- neral of hospitals		} with brigadier-generals.
Superintending surgeons	..	
Senior surgeons		with majors.
Surgeons		with captains.
Assistant surgeons		with lieutenants.

THE END.

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A SUMMARY AND REVIEW,

in which the substance of the news brought by each Mail is digested into a perspicuous narrative, with critical comments.

POLITICAL AND LOCAL INTELLIGENCE

from each of the Presidencies of India, from China, Persia, and other Eastern countries.

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Arrival and Departures of Ships and Passengers in India.

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The intelligence under these heads is so arranged as to be readily referred to, the same being alphabetically dispersed.

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