# CHAPTER XI.

# PRICES.

IN this paper wholesale and retail prices are treated separately. For the former there are no records for the interior of the country, and the returns are confined to certain important articles in the foreign import and export trade, the prices given being their prices at the ports. For retail prices tolerably complete returns are in existence for all parts of the country for the principal food-grains and salt since 1861. For both wholesale and retail prices it has been considered expedient, for the sake of clearness, to refrain from stating actual prices, and to confine attention to the fluctuations above and below a certain datum-level based on the average prices of a particular period.

The figures are all taken from the latest issue of the annual publication entitled *Prices and Wages in India* issued by the Finance and Commerce Department of the Government of India.

*Wholesale Prices.*

The datum-level for these is the price in March 1873, that time having been selected as the commencement of the great change which has been proceeding for twenty years in the relative value of gold and silver.

The following table shows the variation in prices since then of the principal imports into Calcutta, the prices of March 1873 being taken to represent 100:—

| | Grey shirtings, 8¼ lb. | Mule twist, grey yarn, Banner mills, No. 40. | Mule twist, Turkey red, No. 40. | Copper, sheathing. | Iron, flat, bolt, etc. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| March 1873 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 500 |
| June 1874 | 97 | 92 | 106 | 95 | 108 | 498 |
| March 1875 | 86 | 92 | 102 | 103 | 93 | 476 |
| „ 1876 | 86 | 90 | 92 | 99 | 79 | 446 |
| January 1877 | 78 | 90 | 85 | 92 | 67 | 412 |
| „ 1878 | 73 | 78 | 87 | 86 | 60 | 384 |
| „ 1879 | 76 | 75 | 78 | 80 | 56 | 365 |
| „ 1880 | 81 | 84 | 75 | 83 | 73 | 396 |
| „ 1881 | 82 | 82 | 69 | 81 | 56 | 370 |
| „ 1882 | 78 | 84 | 69 | 89 | 71 | 391 |
| „ 1883 | 82 | 74 | 54 | 80 | 60 | 350 |
| January 1884 | 75 | 74 | 62 | 77 | 62 | 350 |
| „ 1885 | 76 | 72 | 58 | 64 | 54 | 324 |
| „ 1886 | 84 | 67 | 57 | 57 | 50 | 315 |
| „ 1887 | 81 | 62 | 57 | 65 | 53 | 318 |
| „ 1888 | 79 | 75 | 59 | 90 | 61 | 364 |
| „ 1889 | 81 | 75 | 57 | 98 | 65 | 376 |
| „ 1890 | 76 | 74 | 57 | 69 | 79 | 355 |
| „ 1891 | 74 | 70 | 56 | 71 | 62 | 333 |
| „ 1892 | 74 | 64 | 57 | 72 | 64 | 331 |
| „ 1893 | 77 | 74 | 61 | 80 | 97 | 389 |
| „ 1894 | 70 | 69 | 62 | 83 | 94 | 378 |

The articles selected represent about one-third of the total import trade in value, but their prices represent the course of prices of more than half the whole trade. For the variations in the price of grey shirtings represent not only the variations in the price of unbleached but also those in bleached and coloured cotton goods, and the price of iron is also an indication of the price of steel, hardware, machinery, and railway material. The half of the trade which is represented by the selected articles is also the portion which most closely and intimately concerns the people at large; for the remaining half to a great extent consists of articles which are either not primary necessities, or do not enter into general consumption except by Europeans, or are consumed in such small quantities as to have no material importance in the domestic economy of the people.

It appears from this table that since 1873 the price of imports generally has fallen 22 per cent., and that of cotton goods and yarns by about 30 per cent. The fall in copper and iron is much smaller, but the prices of these two articles have fluctuated greatly during the period, and though they have risen in the last two years, they were in 1892 about as low in level as the other articles in the table, and it is probable that there will be another relapse from the temporary increase.

The following is a statement of the prices of the principal articles of Indian exports, the prices in March 1873 being here also taken to represent 100:—

| | Cotton, fine, broach. | Cotton yarns, 20s. | Rice, moonghy. | Wheat No. 1, soft white. | Opium (Bengal). | Indigo, good. | Jute, picked. | Gunny bags. | Linseed, fine, bold, clean. | Tea. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| March 1873 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 1000 |
| January 1874 | 88 | 109 | 150 | 75 | 108 | 114 | 153 | 88 | 115 | 123 | 1111 |
| „ 1875 | 80 | 81 | 128 | 80 | 96 | 109 | 146 | 111 | 108 | 123 | 1042 |
| „ 1876 | 85 | 80 | 111 | 84 | 96 | 91 | 141 | 84 | 90 | 136 | 998 |
| „ 1877 | 87 | 90 | 150 | 93 | 97 | 110 | 150 | 95 | 102 | 148 | 1122 |
| „ 1878 | 84 | 86 | 155 | 119 | 97 | 88 | 153 | 101 | 106 | 135 | 1118 |
| „ 1879 | 78 | 74 | 189 | 116 | 87 | 114 | 153 | 99 | 109 | 129 | 1148 |
| „ 1880 | 98 | 81 | 136 | 115 | 94 | 118 | 169 | 89 | 113 | 126 | 1133 |
| „ 1881 | 95 | 85 | 89 | 96 | 109 | 105 | 156 | 111 | 104 | 135 | 1085 |
| „ 1882 | 90 | 80 | 83 | 97 | 102 | 117 | 137 | 118 | 91 | 126 | 1041 |
| „ 1883 | 78 | 74 | 101 | 87 | 91 | 107 | 96 | 98 | 85 | 110 | 927 |
| „ 1884 | 85 | 74 | 142 | 86 | 93 | 117 | 162 | 106 | 96 | 116 | 1077 |
| „ 1885 | 90 | 72 | 142 | 74 | 99 | 103 | 110 | 94 | 98 | 90 | 972 |
| „ 1886 | 81 | 72 | 130 | 80 | 93 | 107 | 137 | 85 | 101 | 96 | 932 |
| „ 1887 | 85 | 69 | 103 | 89 | 83 | 70 | 137 | 98 | 101 | 77 | 912 |
| „ 1888 | 95 | 74 | 110 | 86 | 80 | 82 | 153 | 125 | 95 | 84 | 984 |
| „ 1889 | 93 | 79 | 131 | 95 | 94 | 93 | 192 | 126 | 112 | 77 | 1096 |
| „ 1890 | 95 | 74 | 144 | 84 | 86 | 76 | 197 | 118 | 109 | 63 | 1046 |
| „ 1891 | 84 | 70 | 147 | 87 | 79 | 86 | 126 | 93 | 97 | 81 | 950 |
| „ 1892 | 73 | 65 | 162 | 103 | 79 | 74 | 236 | 132 | 112 | 71 | 1109 |
| „ 1893 | 107 | 78 | 189 | 95 | 96 | 114 | 192 | 119 | 128 | 87 | 1205 |
| „ 1894 | 84 | 71 | 170 | 80 | 84 | 108 | 241 | 109 | 123 | 52 | 1122 |

Here there has been a general increase at the rate of about 12 per cent. in 1894 compared with 1873, while in imports there was, as has been seen already, a fall of about 22 per cent. But, on examination of the variations in the price of each article, it appears that the increase is due in great measure to three articles—rice, jute, and linseed, most of the other articles having either fallen or but slightly increased.

### *Retail Prices.*

If we take the course of wholesale prices at the ports to fairly represent the course of the prices obtained for his produce by the producer, it is evident that in most cases he receives either a lower price or a but little higher price than in 1873, rice, jute, and seeds being excepted. But if this is the case, the retail consumer of food-grains has had abundant reason to complain in recent years of their increasing price. The following tables give the variations in the prices of the four principal food-grains in the provinces in which they are most largely produced and consumed. The variations are based upon the level of prices in the five years 1871—75, that level being taken to represent 100. That was a period of normal prices, the only disturbance in them being that which was occasioned by the scarcity in Behar in 1874. It did not, however, disturb general prices elsewhere materially, and as the period coincides with the beginning of the great divergence in the relative values of gold and silver, it is a more suitable period to select than any other.

*Rice.*

| | 1861-65. | 1866-70. | 1871-75. | 1876-80. | 1881-85. | 1886-90. | 1891. | 1892. | 1893. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Burma | 117 | 116 | 100 | 140 | 128 | 139 | 153 | 181 | 154 |
| Assam | 84 | 112 | 100 | 138 | 109 | 126 | 140 | 168 | 197 |
| Bengal | 82 | 102 | 100 | 121 | 104 | 119 | 137 | 172 | 168 |
| Madras | 118 | 136 | 100 | 142 | 106 | 116 | 136 | 155 | 144 |

*Wheat.*

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North-Western Provinces and Oudh | 81 | 109 | 100 | 105 | 96 | 117 | 136 | 136 | 128 |
| Panjab | 93 | 128 | 100 | 121 | 102 | 126 | 147 | 162 | 135 |
| Bombay | 113 | 135 | 100 | 136 | 92 | 104 | 111 | 134 | 115 |
| Central Provinces | 96 | 161 | 100 | 130 | 103 | 143 | 168 | 208 | 164 |

*Jawar.*

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North-Western Provinces and Oudh | 80 | 96 | 100 | 96 | 82 | 117 | 148 | 112 | 108 |
| Panjab | 87 | 125 | 100 | 118 | 92 | 125 | 155 | 144 | 114 |
| Bombay | 137 | 133 | 100 | 148 | 97 | 113 | 111 | 127 | 122 |
| Madras | 116 | 133 | 100 | 160 | 99 | 112 | 137 | 171 | 158 |

*Bajra.*

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North-Western Provinces and Oudh | 79 | 96 | 100 | 98 | 85 | 113 | 143 | 113 | 110 |
| Panjab | 86 | 129 | 100 | 117 | 97 | 131 | 154 | 157 | 126 |
| Madras | 113 | 134 | 100 | 153 | 99 | 111 | 137 | 172 | 152 |

To those who are acquainted with the agricultural history of India a glance at the foregoing figures and at the diagrams at the end of this paper will show how largely the variations of prices in these food-grains are the results of seasonal vicissitudes. The period 1866—70 included the great famine of 1866 in Eastern India and the famine of 1869 in Northern India. The period 1877—80 included the great famine of 1877—79 in Western and Southern India. In 1892 again there was prolonged drought in several districts of Madras as well as in some other parts of India. These occurrences are reflected in the figures and diagrams. It will be observed that the rise of prices is never confined to the tracts comprising the actually distressed area. In most cases drought extends to an area of varying width beyond the tracts most intensely affected, and supplies for that area, as well as for the tracts suffering from complete failure of crops and actual famine, are required on a large scale from still more distant regions which have supplies to spare. Practically, experience shows that the occurrence of a great famine over a considerable area has the effect of raising the level of prices more or less all over the continent.

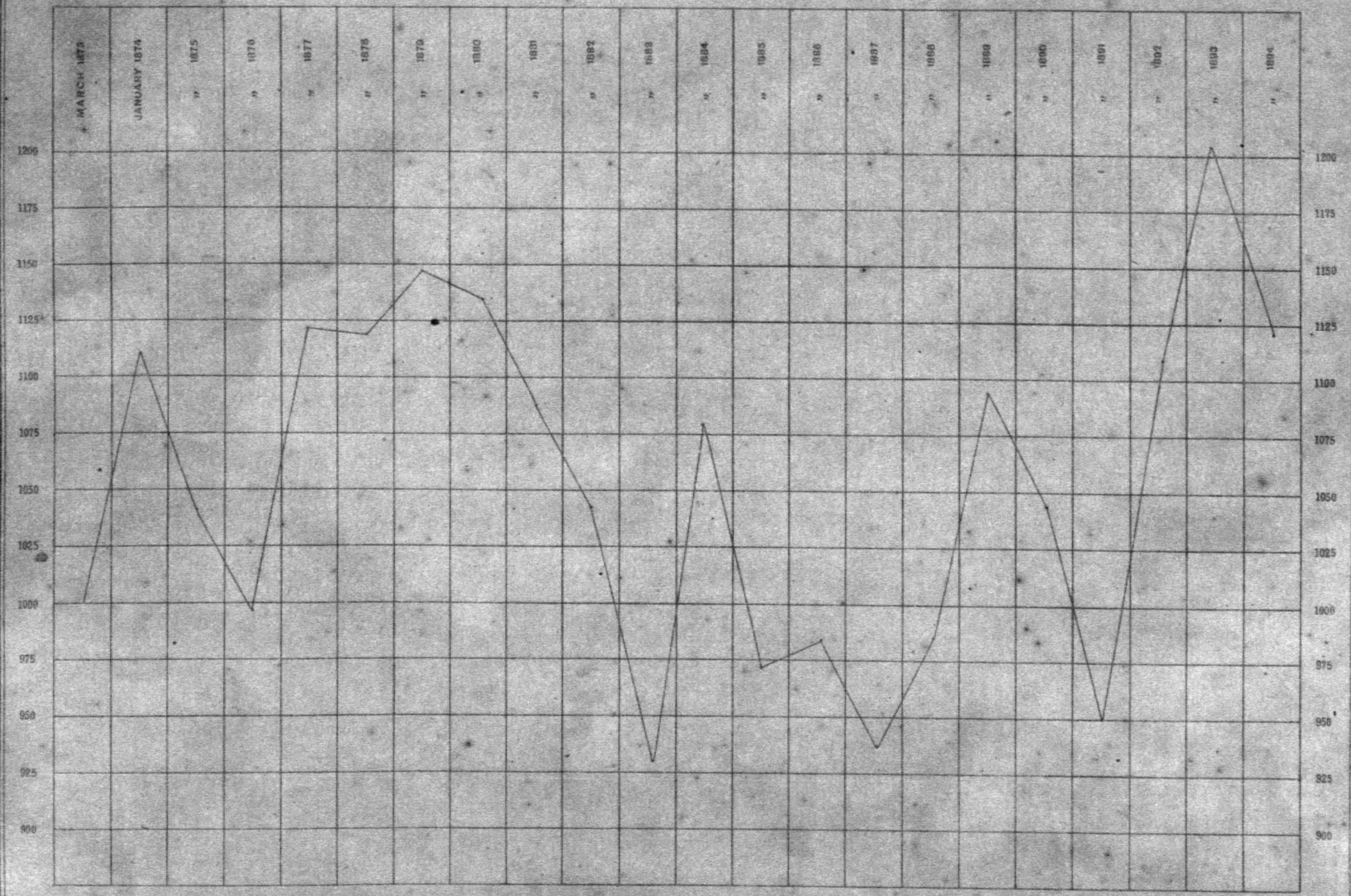
Until about 1885 it may be said that the general normal level of prices, taking the average of 1871—75 as that level, had not on the whole moved up. Since then, however, there has been a very marked upward movement, and during the last decade prices generally have ranged far above the datum-level of 1871—75, the increase being represented for rice at from 40 to 60 per cent., for wheat at much the same rate, and for jawar and bajra at from 20 to 40 per cent. It is not the case,

therefore, that the rupee has maintained its purchasing power, as has been so frequently asserted; on the contrary, its purchasing power has largely declined. This high level of prices is certainly not the result of insufficient harvests, for during the decade the crops have been on the whole good, such local failures as there have been here and there not having been of sufficient importance to affect more than a very limited area. Nor is it the consequence, as some have asserted, of large exports of food-grains to foreign countries, for wheat is the only article in which there has been an expansion of the trade and, such as it is, cultivation and production have expanded in more than equal proportion to the trade. It would as yet be premature to connect the rise of prices with the expansion of the currency in recent years when silver has been coined in great and apparently unnecessary quantity; for, though there is certainly an intimate connection between prices and the currency that connection is very obscure, and time must be allowed to elapse before it can be said with any confidence that the rise of prices which has been coincident with the great expansion of the currency in the last ten years has also been the result of that expansion. If in the next few years the gradual contraction of the silver currency which will follow from the closure of the mints should be accompanied by a fall of prices not explicable by other causes, then strong ground will be furnished for the inference that the loss in the purchasing power of the rupee which has been so marked a feature in the retail prices of the last decade is due to the condition of the currency. There has in fact been a material fall in prices since June 1893 when the mints were closed. But it is certain that sufficient time has not yet been given for any appreciable contraction of the currency, and it is reasonable to assign the fall in prices to the low prices—the lowest indeed on record—ruling in Europe for wheat and rice, which are the two grains exported from India in large quantity. A heavy fall in the price of these would naturally re-act on the price of the inferior grains when there are abundant supplies of the latter on hand.

There are two other points of interest to be noted in the course of retail prices. *First*, the influence of the extension of railways and other means of communication in the last decade is very marked in the general levelling up of prices all over the country and the assimilation of the level in each province. In former years, with the season not unfavourable generally, low prices in one place were not infrequently coincident with high prices in another not remote; but as the railways have extended all over the country, and as communications by sea have been rendered easy and cheap by the general introduction of steamers in the coasting trade and the construction of docks and harbours, the tendency is more and more to a uniform level of prices throughout the country. *Second*, the level of prices in the last three years has been as high as, and in some cases higher than, the level which in former years was regarded as famine level. Yet these three years were not marked by any extraordinary pressure or strain on the people, except in Madras in 1892, and even there the pressure was as nothing in comparison with the pressure of the famine period of 1877—79. It is reasonable to draw the inference from this fact that the general condition of the people has so greatly improved that they are able to live and thrive under a range of prices which in former years would have indicated that the point of destitution and starvation had been reached. This inference is confirmed by the range of wages which have increased on the whole in at least as great a proportion as prices.

# PRICES

## INDEX NUMBER OF WHOLESALE PRICES AT THE PORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT




NOTE.—The index number has been constructed from the prices at the exporting ports of ten staple articles viz: cotton, cotton yarn, rice, wheat, opium, indigo, jute, gunny bags, linseed, and tea. The price of each article in March 1873 is taken to represent 1000

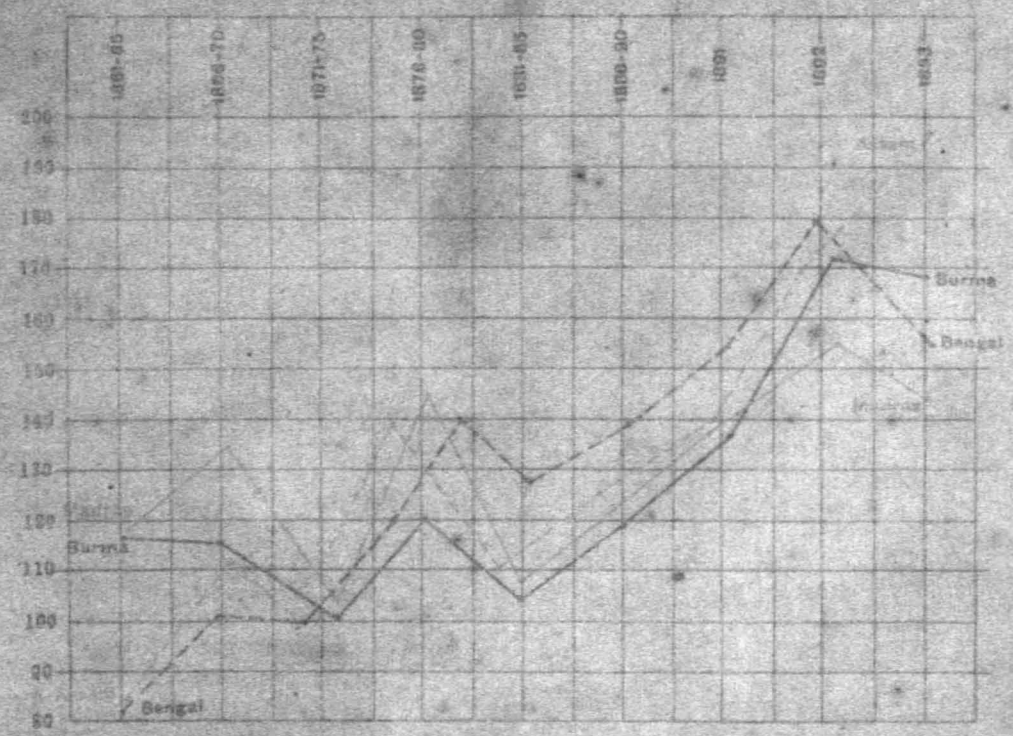
Reg. No. 6st. S. S. & L.—Feb. 95—1,100

Photo. S. I. O., Calcutta.

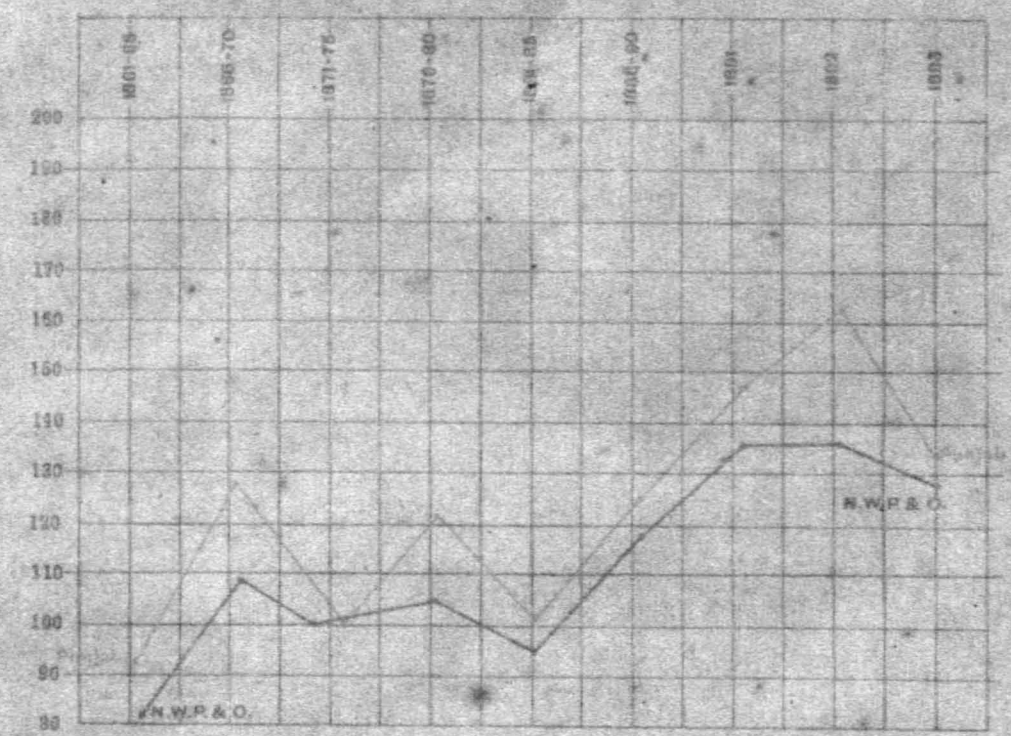
# PRICES

## RETAIL PRICES
of Food Grains

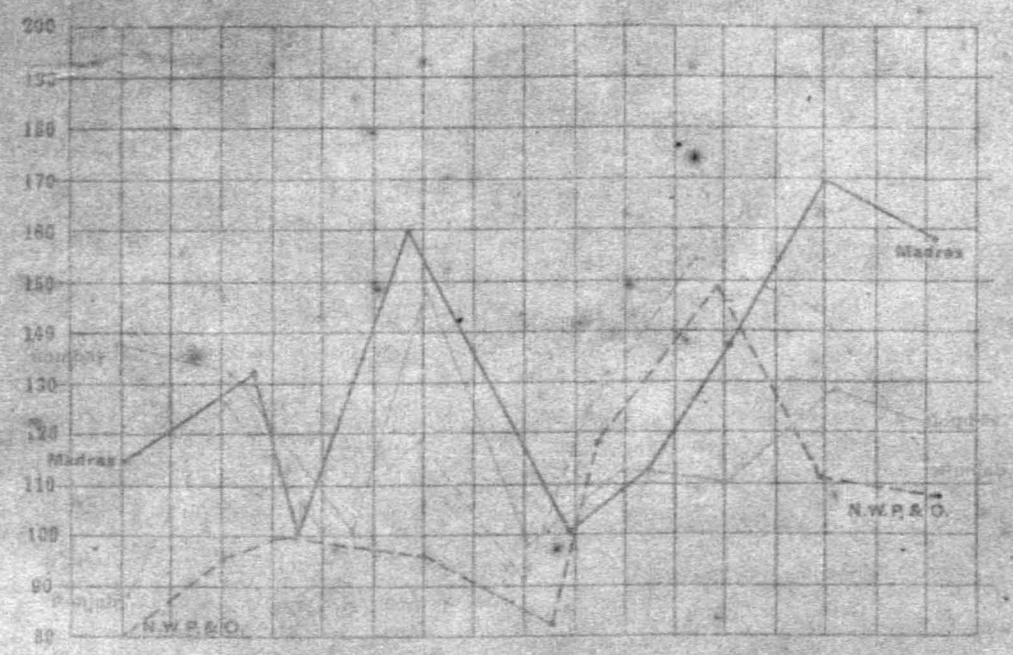
### RICE (Common)



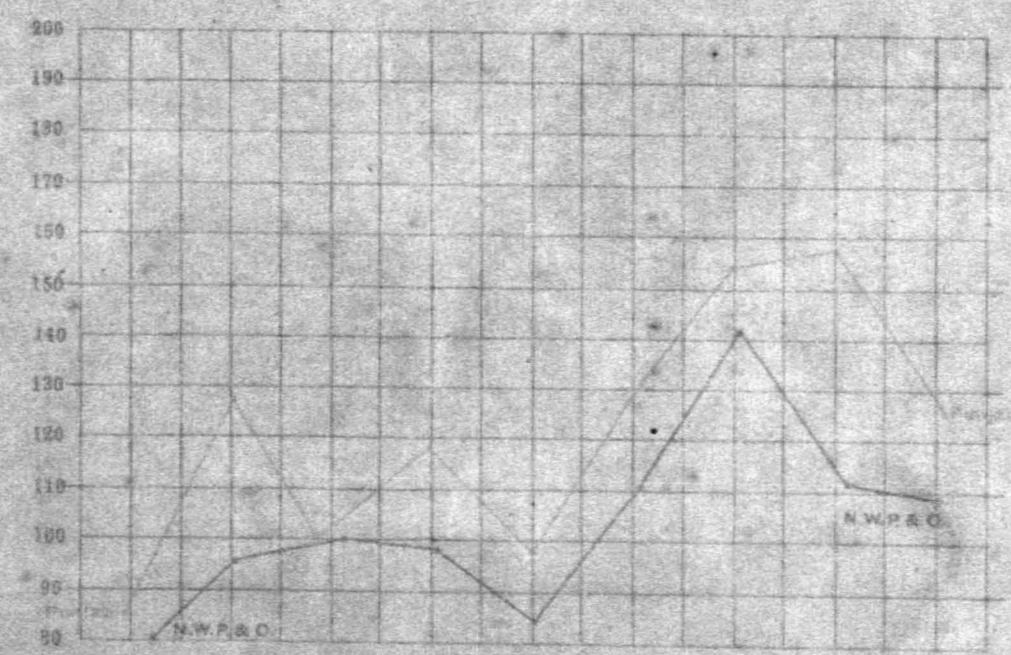

### WHEAT




### JAWAR




### BAJRA




NOTE.—These diagrams illustrate the course of retail prices of the four Principal food grains of India in the provinces in which each forms a staple product and article of food. The prices in the period 1873-75 are taken on the datum level and=100.

# CHAPTER XII.

# FOREIGN TRADE.

THE Foreign Trade of India is mostly carried on by sea, but there is also a smaller trade carried across the land frontiers of the Empire into and from the neighbouring countries. The trade carried by sea and that carried by land will be treated separately in this chapter.

## Trade by Sea.

The foreign trade of India by sea in the last official year, ending on 31st March 1894, amounted in value to Rx. 202,854,540,* of which Rx. 92,382,213 represented the value of imports, both merchandise and treasure, while the exports, including re-exports, of merchandise and treasure, amounted to Rx. 110,472,327. A large excess of exports over imports is an unvarying feature in the trade statistics of India, explained by the fact that India is a debtor to England for capital lent, and has also to remit considerable sums to England yearly for the cost of military and civil administration, for furlough pay and pension to officers on leave or retired from the service, and much of the savings of a great many of the Europeans, official and non-official, living in India. Last year (1893-94), as a consequence of the closure of the Indian mints to the coinage of silver for the public, the excess was very much below the average, being only Rx. 18,090,114.

The progress of the Indian foreign trade for the last quarter of a century will be apparent from the following figures, which include treasure as well as merchandise and also Government transactions:

| | | Imports. Rx. | Exports. Rx. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Five years ending 1873-74 | 41,301,100 | 57,842,995 |
| 2. | „ 1878-79 | 48,221,855 | 63,134,626 |
| 3. | „ 1883-84 | 61,813,743 | 80,410,066 |
| 4. | „ 1888-89 | 75,134,300 | 90,277,643 |
| 5. | „ 1893-94 | 88,695,933 | 108,667,097 |

The excess of exports over imports for the previous five years had averaged about Rx. 22,891,600 annually, while the drawings of the Secretary of State in Council Bills for the same period averaged Rx. 22,813,200 annually, which may be taken to be the cost to India of the interest on the debt she has accumulated, and of the other items mentioned above. With the progress of the fall in exchange in recent years this cost has greatly increased.

The trade of India with the world, in the interchange of merchandise, was thus distributed in 1893-94:

| | Rx. |
|---|---|
| With Europe | 127,232,811 |
| With Africa and the adjacent islands | 9,087,008 |
| With Asia | 36,093,039 |
| With America | 6,724,435 |
| With Australia | 1,267,254 |

The trade with gold-standard countries is about 77 per cent., and the trade with silver-standard countries 23 per cent. of the whole.

Of the trade with Europe as much as 68 per cent. is conducted with the United Kingdom, the trade with that country representing nearly half (48 per cent.) of India's trade with the world. The proportion was much larger in former years, but in recent years it has gradually fallen (though there has been an absolutely great increase in the volume of the trade) as a result of the development of direct intercourse with Continental countries in supersession of the indirect trade with them which was carried on by way of the United Kingdom. But though the trade with Continental countries—France, Germany, Belgium, Austria-Hungary, Italy—has greatly increased, it is still small when compared with the trade with the United Kingdom, and that country continues to be India's largest customer, whether as a producer and consumer or as an agent for distribution. Most of the cotton yarn and piece-goods, the woollens and silks, the coal and the salt, the metals, machinery, and railway plant, which form the bulk of the import trade, comes from England.

It has been said above that an important feature in the trade statistics is the large normal excess of exports over imports. Another striking feature is the continued absorption of the precious metals. The flow of gold and silver into India is unintermittent. The total net imports of these metals—that is, after deduction made of the quantities again exported—amounted during the last twelve years to Rx. 155,392,600, the average annual net imports of gold having been Rx. 3,025,460, and of silver Rx. 9,924,000. The great increase in the last three years of the silver price of gold has caused a restriction in the imports of gold and has stimulated the imports of silver. The gold is all hoarded, and to a large extent converted into ornaments for the persons of the wives and children of the owners. Though there is some evidence that the practice of hoarding is not so great as it was in former times, it is in this form that the native of India still to a large extent prefers to keep his savings secure from the vicissitudes of political changes and from the rapacity which traditionary experience of former oppressive governments taught him to associate with the officials of the State—a conviction which has not even yet departed from him. Until the closure of the mints in June 1893 the silver was mostly coined into rupees at the mints, though it did not all remain in currency, for a material proportion of the rupees went to the silver-smith to be worked up into ornaments. Since the closure of the mints this practice has ceased, and bar silver has taken the place of rupees for manufacture into ornaments.

The bulk of the foreign trade (about 95 per cent. of it) is concentrated in the five principal ports of the country, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Rangoon, and

* NOTE.—Transactions on account of Government are not included in these figures. These transactions consist mainly in the importation of stores—arms and ammunitions of war, railway and telegraph material, clothing material for the troops, machinery and metals, stationery and paper, and other stores. The total value of Government transactions in 1893-94 was Rx. 3,231,709. They may be taken to average from Rx. 3,000,000 to Rx. 3,500,000.

Karáchi, about 78 per cent. flowing in and out of Bombay and Calcutta. The value of the imports and exports of merchandise at these ports in 1893-94 was:

| | Rx. |
|---|---|
| Calcutta | 69,927,146 |
| Bombay | 67,999,093 |
| Karáchi | 11,040,337 |
| Rangoon | 10,799,556 |
| Madras | 10,303,973 |

The general character of the import trade has, with few exceptions, remained substantially unchanged for many years. The bulk of the imports consists of cotton piece-goods and yarns, liquors, metals (chiefly copper, iron, steel and tin), hardware and cutlery, machinery, railway material, woollen and silk goods, mineral oil and mineral dyes, coal, raw silk, sugar, salt, and spices. There has been an enormous increase in the imports of mineral dyes and mineral oil, which bid fair to supersede entirely the use of indigenous vegetable dyes and oils. The importation of the coarser descriptions of cotton yarns and cotton cloths has also gradually diminished to a very low point, the locally manufactured articles of similar descriptions having taken their place. The importations of cotton yarns and cotton cloths now are confined to the medium and finer qualities, the former not being made in any considerable quantity and the latter not at all in the Indian mills. The industrial development of India is making steady progress, especially in two lines, the manufacture of cotton and of jute. The cotton spinning and weaving industry is chiefly concentrated in the Bombay Presidency, where are located 94 out of the total number of 136 mills, while the jute manufacturing industry is practically confined to Calcutta and its neighbourhood. The cotton mills of India now employ 29,362 looms and 3,538,577 spindles, and the jute mills 9,590 looms and 192,688 spindles. The capital invested in cotton mills and jute mills, so far as they are worked on the jointstock principle, is Rx. 11,598,300 for the former and Rx. 3,427,400 for the latter.

The re-export trade of India is comparatively very limited, its value amounting to only about 6 per cent. of the value of the merchandise received from foreign countries. There may be perhaps some 4 per cent. more sent across the land frontiers. Broadly, quite 90 per cent. of the imports are consumed in India itself. The re-export trade is carried on mainly at Bombay, which is a convenient depot between Europe and the coasts of Arabia, Persia, and Africa.

The exports of Indian produce and manufactures were valued last year at Rx. 102,015,615. While the largest part of the import trade consists of manufactured goods, nearly half of them being cotton cloths and yarns, the bulk of the export trade consists of food-stuffs and raw material for manufacture, the principal items being:

*Food-stuffs:* wheat and wheat-flour, rice, tea, sugar, coffee, spices;

*Raw material:* cotton, jute, oilseeds (linseed, rapeseed, til or sesame, poppy and others), hides and skins, teakwood, wool;

*Goods partly manufactured:* cotton yarn, vegetable oil (castor and cocoanut), saltpetre, raw silk, tanned hides and skins;

*Goods fully manufactured:* cotton piece-goods, grey and coloured, bags and sacks of jute, shell lac, silk piece-goods;

*Dyes, tans, drugs, and narcotics:* Opium, indigo and other dyes.

The carriage of the foreign trade of India gives employment to a very large quantity of shipping tonnage. In 1893-94, the number of vessels which entered and cleared at Indian ports from and to foreign countries amounted to 9,995, the total tonnage being 7,665,886. Of these vessels 3,927, with a burden of 6,152,966 tons, were steamers, steamer tonnage thus representing as much as 80 per cent. of the whole. For the most part the vessels carrying the Indian foreign trade fly the British flag, these representing about 82 per cent. of the whole.

The figures in the tables appended show the increase of the import and export trade in the principal articles of merchandise exchanged between India and other countries during the last decade.

## Table I.—Imports.

| Articles. | 1884-85. | | 1893-94. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. |
| | | Rx. | | Rx. |
| Cotton piece-goods, grey . yds. | 1,138,343,726 | 12,276,501 | 1,314,037,764 | 15,995,911 |
| ,, ,, white . ,, | 277,875,450 | 3,698,470 | 393,129,691 | 5,538,086 |
| ,, ,, coloured ,, | 315,345,829 | 4,720,184 | 422,320,035 | 7,015,126 |
| Cotton yarn . . lb | 44,799,637 | 3,360,420 | 42,806,991 | 3,108,941 |
| Metals . . . tons | 236,201 | 4,843,733 | 283,057 | 6,278,593 |
| Machinery and millwork . | ... | 1,484,124 | ... | 2,518,038 |
| Railway material . . | ... | 1,592,620 | ... | 1,242,977 |
| Hardware and cutlery . . | ... | 844,552 | ... | 1,391,690 |
| Coal and coke . . . tons | 708,560 | 1,204,341 | 555,263 | 972,593 |
| Mineral oil . . . gallons | 27,306,999 | 1,158,222 | 86,608,568 | 3,275,585 |
| Silk piece-goods . . yds. | 12,080,177 | 1,264,648 | 16,418,727 | 1,758,658 |
| ,, raw . . . lb | 1,831,702 | 747,563 | 2,947,595 | 1,360,179 |
| Woollen piece-goods . . yds. | 10,700,128 | 1,002,312 | 15,054,352 | 1,422,971 |
| Liquors . . . gallons | 2,310,976 | 1,217,921 | 4,249,174 | 1,458,204 |
| Provisions . . . . | ... | 1,103,321 | ... | 1,782,868 |
| Apparel . . . . | ... | 948,930 | ... | 1,578,049 |
| Sugar . . . . cwt. | 1,616,874 | 2,140,838 | 2,127,905 | 2,824,190 |
| Salt . . . . tons | 412,839 | 649,233 | 412,876 | 791,067 |
| All other articles . . | ... | 8,891,378 | ... | 13,732,962 |
| TOTAL VALUE . | ... | 53,149,311 | ... | 73,956,957 |

## Table II.—Exports.

| Articles. | 1884-85. | | 1893-94. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. |
| | | Rx. | | Rx. |
| Cotton, raw . . . cwt. | 5,066,057 | 13,286,367 | 4,788,888 | 13,296,670 |
| ,, yarn . . . lb | 65,897,183 | 2,441,101 | 134,066,743 | 4,974,133 |
| ,, piece-goods . . yards | 47,908,513 | 813,753 | 72,714,980 | 1,173,698 |
| Opium . . . . cwt. | 118,599 | 10,882,606 | 97,910 | 8,019,428 |
| Oilseeds . . . . tons | 912,534 | 10,745,205 | 1,211,467 | 16,753,251 |
| Rice . . . . ,, | 1,102,577 | 7,192,198 | 1,232,911 | 10,388,633 |
| Wheat . . . . ,, | 791,588 | 6,309,140 | 607,828 | 5,193,885 |
| Jute, raw . . . . cwt. | 8,368,686 | 4,661,368 | 8,690,133 | 8,524,130 |
| ,, manufactures . . | ... | 1,543,870 | ... | 3,441,787 |
| Hides and skins . . . cwt. | 1,010,578 | 4,934,340 | 849,955 | 5,801,328 |
| Indigo . . . . ,, | 154,629 | 4,068,900 | 131,399 | 4,182,128 |
| Tea . . . . lb | 64,162,055 | 4,044,759 | 126,332,475 | 6,585,835 |
| Coffee . . . . cwt. | 328,317 | 1,245,526 | 278,735 | 2,002,171 |
| Wool, raw . . . . lb | 18,928,173 | 713,576 | 24,248,636 | 1,076,772 |
| All other articles . . | ... | 7,430,521 | ... | 10,598,766 |
| TOTAL VALUE . | .. | 80,313,208 | ... | 102,015,615 |

Table III.—Value of Trade (in merchandise) with principal countries in 1893-94.

| Countries. | Imports therefrom. | Exports thereto. |
|---|---|---|
| | Rx. | Rx. |
| United Kingdom | 52,001,013 | 34,643,102 |
| China | 3,542,556 | 11,129,322 |
| France | 1,138,262 | 10,694,311 |
| Germany | 1,714,093 | 7,618,508 |
| Belgium | 2,053,276 | 5,726,972 |
| Straits Settlements | 2,524,623 | 4,842,130 |
| United States | 2,016,270 | 3,359,821 |
| Austria-Hungary | 1,371,383 | 2,949,448 |
| Italy | 448,572 | 3,574,420 |
| Ceylon | 696,625 | 2,220,039 |
| Egypt | 171,372 | 3,722,627 |
| Mauritius | 1,787,930 | 1,330,660 |
| Persia | 734,295 | 1,837,120 |
| Russia | 1,263,014 | 665,327 |
| Australia | 242,665 | 1,024,588 |
| Other Countries | 2,252,088 | 10,079,186 |
| TOTAL | 73,956,957 | 106,447,590 |

## Frontier Trade.

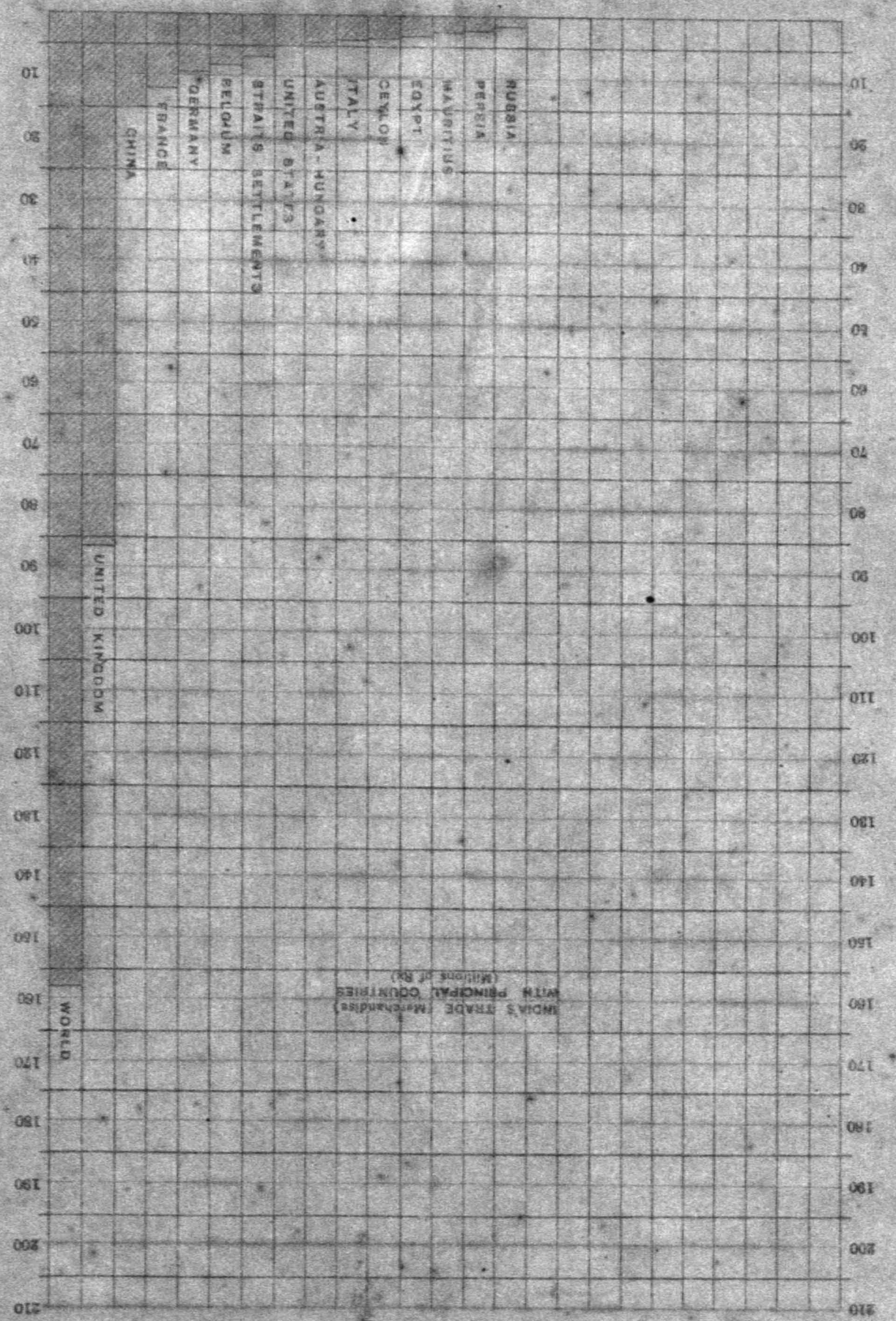
The trade which crosses the land frontiers of India is as yet of no special importance, the whole value of the imports and exports last year amounting to less than Rx. 7½ millions. This trade has to contend with great difficulties. The routes in many places lead across the highest mountain chain in the world, and, while trying enough at the best, they are made impracticable by snow for more than half the year. In other places they are caravan tracks across barren deserts, or paths cut through primeval forest and malarious jungle; and, whether they pass over desert or jungle, the trader is often subject not only to the risks and difficulties placed in his way by nature, but to the attacks of freebooters and savages who regard the peaceful trader as lawful prey. At almost all points of the frontier, moreover, the trader has to pay heavy customs duties imposed by the rulers of the trans-frontier States.

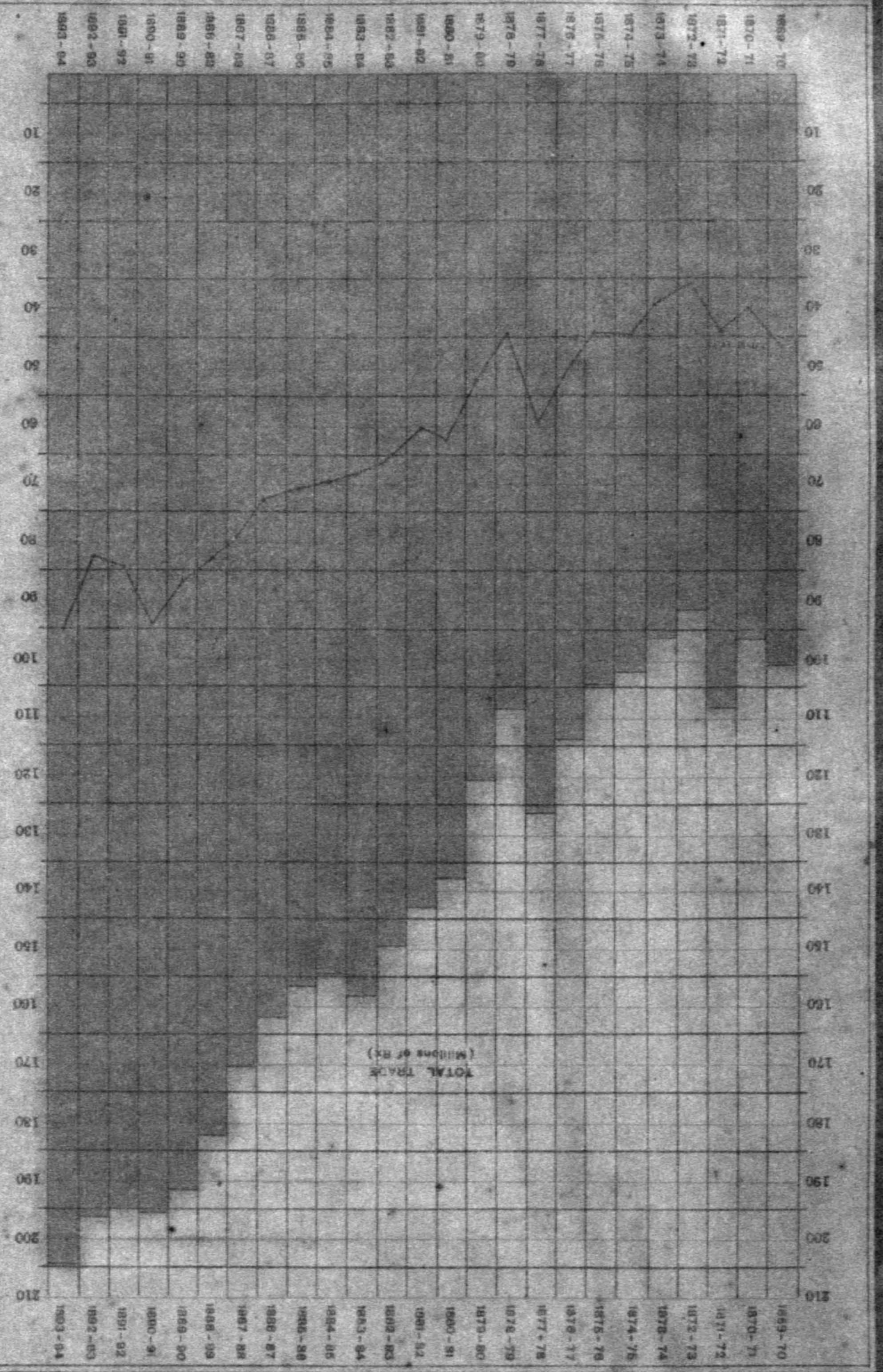
The land frontier stretches over an immense line from Karachi in the extreme west to the most south-easterly point in British Burma, Mergui. Over this vast line of frontier the current of trade flows, very unequally in its various channels, between India and Beluchistan Afghanistan, Kashmir, Tibet, Nepal, Sikhim, Bhutan, the Eastern mountain country (the home of the savage tribes known as Abors, Mishmis, Daphlas, Nagas, Lushais), Western China, the Karen and Shan Country, and Siam. There are only a few points in the line where trade is really safe or is in possession of routes which lend themselves to future development. These are (1) the railway which has now been pushed beyond Quetta, (2) the road through the Khyber leading into Northern Afghanistan, (3) the roads into Kashmir and (4) into Nepal, and (5) the great Irawadi route, now supplemented by the railway for the greatest part of the distance, which leads to Western China. Even on these routes the development of trade is much retarded by the sudden cessation of good roads at the British frontier and by the exactions to which traders are subjected by the States beyond the border. Thus the trade with Afghanistan would make rapid progress if it were not impeded by Russian fiscal policy which shuts out Indian goods from the Central Asian markets, as well as by the heavy dues levied by the Amir of Afghanistan. The strict commercial restrictions imposed by the Nepalese durbar and by the officials in Tibet (the latter not appreciably modified as yet by the recent Trade Convention concluded with China) hamper trade with those countries; and the character of the tribes in the mountainous region on the Burma frontier, and the exactions of the Chinese officials, have so far prevented that development of trade with Western China which was reasonably hoped for and anticipated. Considering the natural difficulties of the trade routes, the great distances to be traversed, the cost of transport, and the general poverty of the inhabitants of the regions beyond the Indian frontiers, it would be sanguine to anticipate within any measurable period such a development of trade as would make its value assume real importance when compared with the value of the foreign trade carried by sea.

The bulk of the trade consisted in 1893-94 of the export from India of cotton yarn and piece-goods, metal-ware, tea (to Kabul and Kashmir), grain and pulse, cotton (raw), provisions, salt, sugar, silks and woollens, spices, tobacco, indigo, and other dyes. The imports were largely cattle, food-grains, ghi, timber (from Kashmir and the countries bordering on Burma), horses, fruits, wool (raw), hides, seeds, and drugs. It is impossible to obtain anything like a correct account of the interchange of gold and silver.

The table appended shows the value of the trade in 1893-94 with the principal countries on the other side of the Indian frontiers:—

| | Imports into British India. | Exports from British India. |
|---|---|---|
| | Rx. | Rx. |
| Southern Afghanistan and Baluchistan | 529,642 | 496,802 |
| Kabul (including Tirah and Bajaur) | 345,921 | 629,472 |
| Kashmir | 432,888 | 528,708 |
| Tibet | 124,616 | 60,721 |
| Nepal | 1,493,012 | 1,104,374 |
| Western China | 137,216 | 134,159 |
| Karennee | 214,625 | 20,719 |
| Zimmé | 230,172 | 86,442 |
| N. and S. Shan States | 313,131 | 238,063 |
| Siam | 82,419 | 41,475 |
| Other Countries | 144,526 | 90,723 |
| TOTAL | 4,037,368 | 3,431,656 |


INDIA'S TRADE (Merchandise)
WITH PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES
(Millions of Rs)
WORLD
UNITED KINGDOM
CHINA
FRANCE
GERMANY
BELGIUM
STRAITS SETTLEMENTS
UNITED STATES
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
ITALY
CEYLON
EGYPT
MAURITIUS
PERSIA
RUSSIA


TOTAL TRADE
(Millions of Rs)

# CHAPTER XIII.

# FINANCE AND TAXATION.

UNTIL after the suppression of the mutiny of 1857 the financial system of India was lax and crude to a degree, and the fiscal régime, inherited in the main from our native predecessors, was so inefficient in character and in practice as to greatly obstruct the development of trade and industrial enterprise. For the whole of the first half of the century moreover the administration was engaged in a constant succession of military enterprises, which were required to aid native States in pursuance of treaty obligations against other native States, or to repel the aggression of native States against the British advance, or to fight marauders and invaders like the Rohillas, the Mahrattas, the Pindaris, the Gurkhas, the Burmese. Expedition after expedition resulted in the aggrandisement of the Company's territory by the annexation of native States, and as each was annexed the heavy expenditure incurred on the military side was followed by heavy expenditure on the civil side for the provision of the newly acquired territory with European administrative machinery and the apparatus of civilised administration. The revenues from the annexed territory were augmented only by degrees, while the expenditure, being necessary to justify our removal of the native Governments which had done nothing for the country under their rule, was immediate. The financial consequence was that expenditure was constantly greater than revenue, and that a large amount of debt was incurred.

Then came the mutiny, the suppression of which tried to the utmost the whole energy of the Government and involved enormous expenditure. Immediately following the restoration of order the work of reconstruction had to be begun, and the Government found itself in a position of terrible embarrassment. It was evident that the old lax system and methods must be replaced by a radically improved administration of the exchequer, and that large additions to the revenue were imperative. The work was begun by a reform of the financial system and administration under Mr. James Wilson, who was sent out from England, as Finance Minister, to devise and introduce a new system based on the English financial system. He has been succeeded to the present time by Minister after Minister, specially charged with the control of the finances, some of them sent out from England like Mr. Wilson, others selected from the Indian Civil Service. Mr. Wilson found it necessary to impose heavy taxation which was in the nature of war taxation; but with the complete restoration of order it became possible to reduce taxation to moderate limits, the taxes yielding sufficient, under the new and judicious methods of administration which were introduced, to keep the budgets in equilibrium. Progress was rudely interrupted, however, in 1866 by the Orissa famine, and in 1869 by the famine in the North-Western Provinces. Thereafter further progress was made until it was again interrupted by the small but costly famine in Behar in 1873, the great famine in Western and Southern India in 1877, and the campaigns in Afghanistan in 1879 and 1880. Meanwhile also a further, and what has since proved to be the most serious and permanent, cause for financial anxiety arose in the divergence in the relative values of gold and silver which began in 1873, and has continued in an increasing degree to the present day. The Government of India have always had to remit large sums to England on account of army charges, for the supply of military and other stores, for the furlough and pensionary allowances of its European officials, and for interest on debt. These obligations had in themselves an inevitable tendency to increase, and as the rupee fell in exchange value the burden of the cost of remittance became increasingly greater. A still further reason for anxiety was created by the fall in the price of Indian opium resulting from the increasing competition of Chinese grown opium. The measures taken to restrict the expenditure on the one hand, and to increase the revenue on the other by increased taxation, brought about an equilibrium in 1881-82, of which advantage was taken in the following year to reduce taxation. The period of surplus lasted, however, for only three years, for there came in 1884 an apprehension of war with Russia, arising out of a collision between the Russians and the Afghans at Panjdeh, and large military expenditure, temporary and permanent, was incurred on that account and on account of the occupation of Upper Burma in 1885, again turning the surplus into a deficit. There were recurring deficits from 1884-85 to 1887-88, and the restoration of equilibrium was effected only by increased taxation imposed in 1886 and 1888. The additional revenue thus secured, and a stringent reduction of expenditure, together with some unforeseen and accidental circumstances, gave not only equilibrium, but considerable surpluses from 1888-89 to 1891-92, when the occurrence of another heavy fall in exchange combined with the increased military expenditure to again reverse the financial position. For the last three years there have been heavy deficits, to meet which further increased taxation has become necessary. The mints were closed in June 1893 to the unrestricted coinage of silver for the public in view to the ultimate adoption of a gold standard, and it was hoped that the closure would prevent the further fall of the exchange value of the rupee; but the measure has not as yet had the effect anticipated, and the position is still unstable and insecure.

Looking at the Accounts of Revenue and Expenditure for the last fifteen years, we find a deficit in 1880-81, of Rx. 3,631,394.* In the following three years, 1881-82 to 1883-84, there was a surplus each year, amounting in the aggregate to Rx. 6,149,995. In the two following years there were deficits aggregating Rx. 3,188,172. Then came a small surplus of Rx. 178,427, followed by a heavy deficit of Rx. 2,028,832.

* Rx. = tens of rupees.

Additional taxation was imposed, and there followed four years of surpluses (1888-89 to 1891-92), aggregating Rx. 6,804,737. This period of surpluses was succeeded by three years of deficits (1892-93 to 1894-95), aggregating Rx. 2,928,112.

"Altogether, during the fifteen years there have been seven years in which the expenditure has been in excess of the revenue, and eight years in which the revenue has exceeded the expenditure. The aggregate surplus was Rx. 13,133,179 and the aggregate deficit Rx. 11,776,510. Unfortunately the surpluses were only obtained as the result of additional taxation imposed in 1886, in 1888, and in 1889, or as the result of unforeseen and temporary improvements in the opium revenue or in exchange. The deficits on the other hand came with each new fall in exchange. During all this period the Government found it possible only in one year (1882) to relieve the tax-payer.

Since 1880-81 the debt in India has been increased from Rx. 85,959,746 to Rx. 105,546,078, the increase being Rx. 19½ millions. The debt in England also has increased, and in much larger ratio, from £71,429,133 to £114,113,792, the increase amounting to £42,68 millions. Much the largest proportion of this debt, however, was raised for the construction of railways and other productive public works. In the last fifteen years the capital expenditure on railways and irrigation works alone has amounted to over Rx. 54 millions, and the aggregate capital expenditure on State railways from the beginning amounts to Rx. 143 millions, and on major irrigation works to over Rx. 30 millions.

The credit of the Government has been gradually improving. Until 1823 it was unable to borrow at less than 6 per cent.; in that year it borrowed at 5 per cent., and in the following year the rate of interest offered and accepted fell to 4 per cent. In the stress of the mutiny the Government had to increase the rate to 5½ per cent. By 1859 the 6 per cent. loans were all converted and paid off; by 1872 the 5 per cent. loans, and by 1879 the 5½ per cent. loans, were similarly disposed of. The 4½ per cent. loans were reduced to 4 per cent. in 1892, and in 1893 the Government issued a small loan by way of experiment at 3½ per cent. The experiment was a success, and was followed in 1894 by the conversion of the 4 per cent. loans to 3½ per cent., a measure which saves about half a million Rx. annually in interest charges. The interest on the Indian sterling debt in England has similarly been reduced from 5 and 4 to 3½ per cent., the conversion having been effected in 1889. The whole Indian debt in India and in England now stands at 3½ per cent. and the paper is at a premium.

During the last quarter of a century there has been a great development of what is known as the system of Provincial Finance. Until 1870 the whole of the revenues of the country were taken into the general treasury, and the wants of the Local Governments were met as occasion arose by grants from that treasury of the specific sums required for any purpose. This system became unworkable. The Local Governments had no responsibility in financial matters, while they were held fully responsible for the efficient conduct of the local administration. There was no incentive to local economy; and, as new occasions arose for expenditure, each Local Government put its demand before the Supreme Government quite regardless of the means at the command of the latter. The greater the pressure put upon the Supreme Government for the supply of funds the greater was the probability of obtaining them, and it eventually became impossible to secure effective financial control under the centralised system prevailing. When this fact was finally recognised, a new system was devised under which the Provincial Governments were made responsible for the expenditure on certain services and were assigned the necessary sums for their maintenance, these sums being based on the average expenditure incurred on the services. When the amount of the grant in any case was more than sufficient for the service the Local Government was allowed to apply the surplus to other Provincial Services; and in order to supplement insufficient assignments, and to provide for the growing expenditure following on administrative improvements, each Government was authorised to impose provincial rates and cesses, the proceeds of which were retained in the provinces in which the rates and cesses were levied. In course of time this system has greatly expanded beyond the dimensions of its first beginnings. Most of the administrative services have now been provincialised as regards the expenditure incurred on them, and the Local Governments are allotted the revenues under each head of service in varying proportions. Each Local Government prepares its annual budget of provincial revenue and expenditure, with the restrictions (1) that a certain minimum balance must always be maintained, and (2) that expenditure is subject to the control of the Government of India in certain respects. The arrangements or agreements made with the Local Governments—commonly but erroneously known as "contracts"—are revised every five years. Under the existing agreements the provincial share of revenue and expenditure under each principal head of revenue and expenditure is as follows:—

| | Revenue. | Expenditure. |
|---|---|---|
| Land Revenue | one-fourth | the whole. |
| Salt and Customs | rents, fines, fees, etc. (not the duty), | varies—the whole in some provinces, none in others |
| Stamps | three-fourths | three-fourths. |
| Excise | one-fourth | one-fourth. |
| Provincial rates and cesses | the whole | the whole. |
| Assessed taxes, Forests, Registration | half | half. |
| Law Courts, Prisons, Police, Marine, Education, Medical, Stationery, Scientific Departments. | the whole | the whole |
| Civil Works | the whole | the whole |

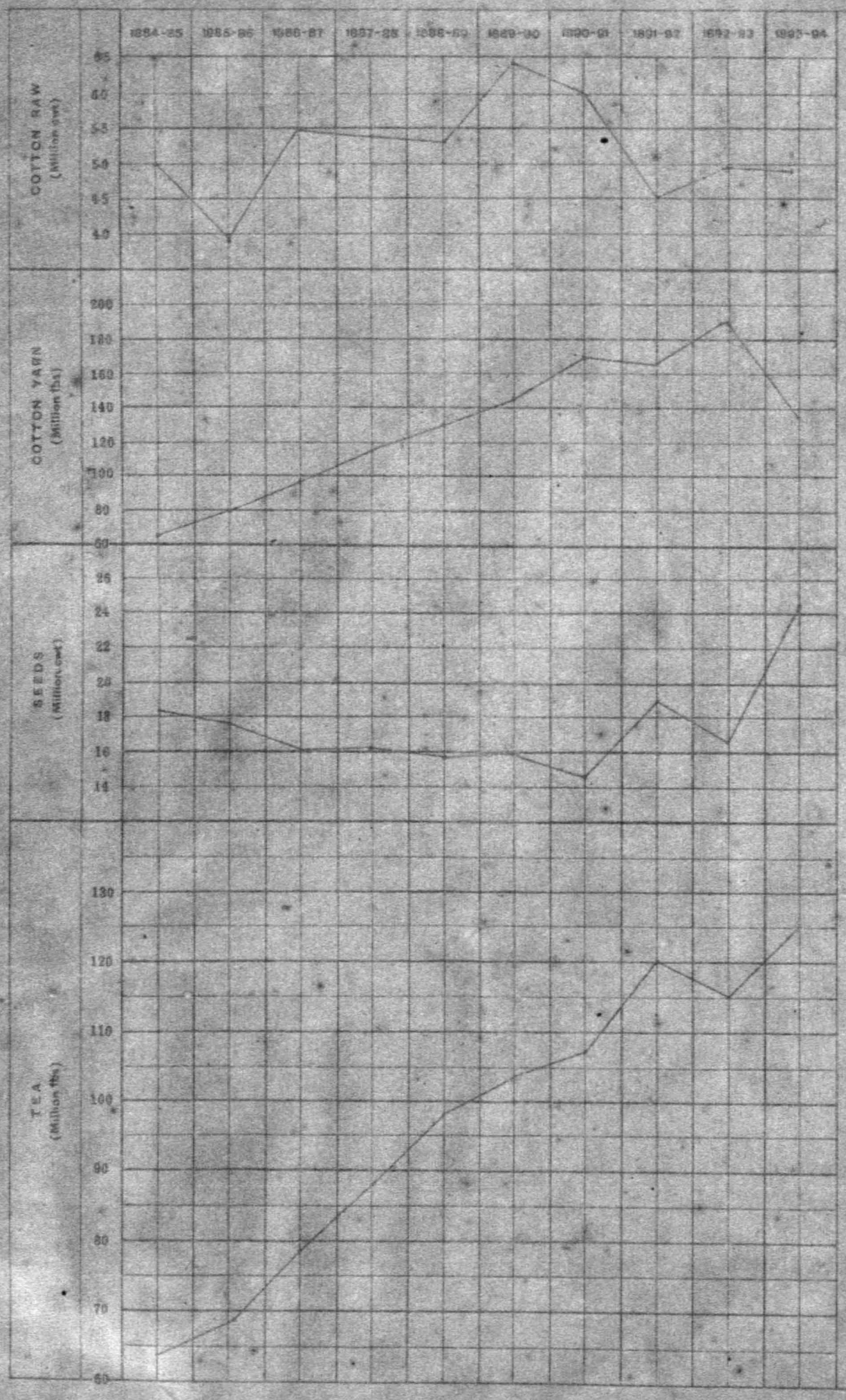
The arrangements are in fact more elaborate and intricate than is indicated by the foregoing statement, but it serves to show generally the nature of the arrangements and the lines on which they proceed.

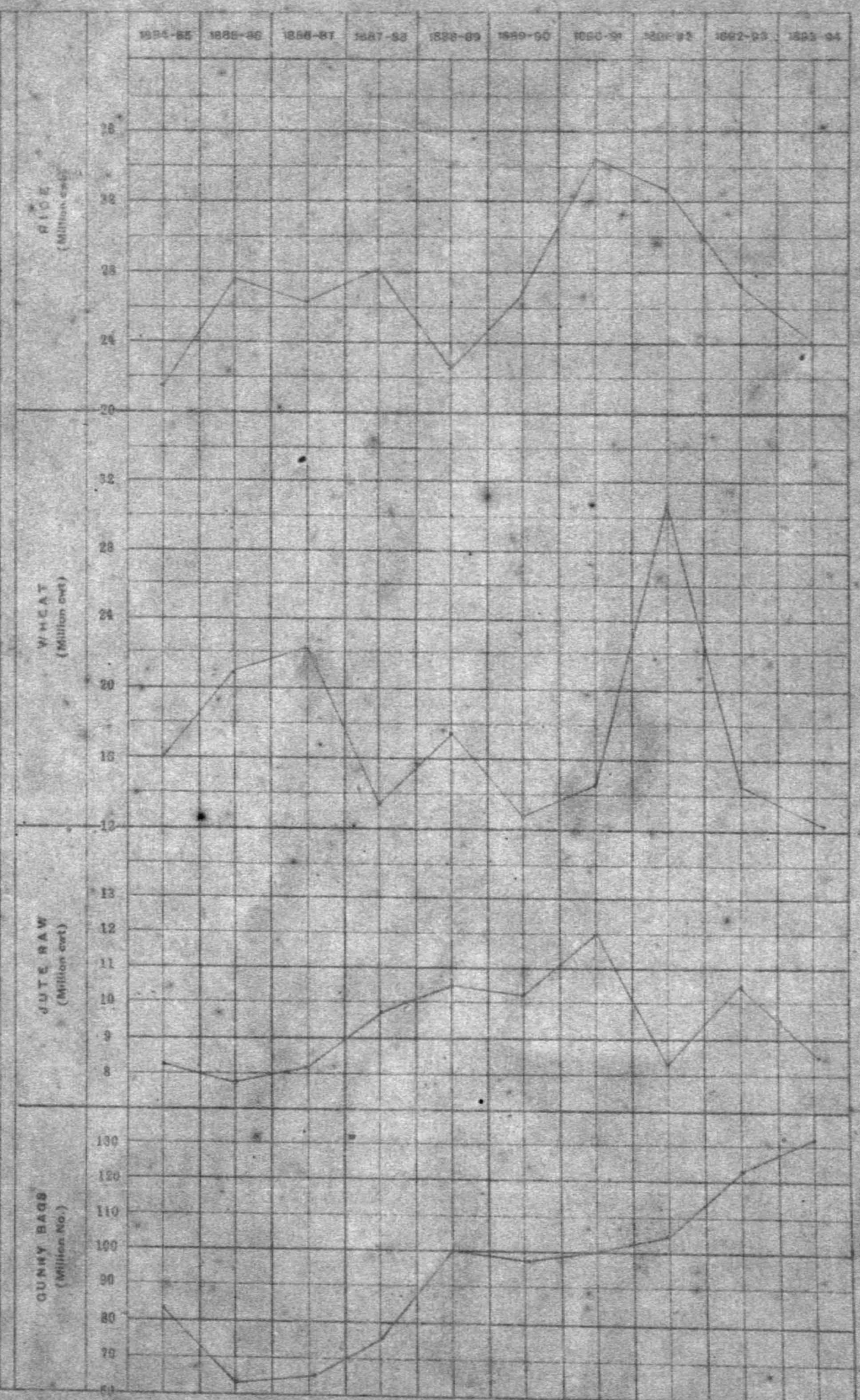
As it may be of some interest to show the proportions in which the revenue is raised and expenditure incurred in the different provinces, the following figures, giving the figures for 1891-92, are appended (Rx.):—

| | Revenue. | Expenditure (charged to Revenue). |
|---|---|---|
| Bengal | [illegible]38,779 | 8,975,445 |
| Bombay | 13,197,611 | 8,764,194 |
| Madras | 12,308,003 | 9,391,621 |
| North-Western Provinces and Oudh | 11,042,660 | 5,154,384 |
| Panjab | 7,871,588 | 4,833,085 |
| Burma | 5,084,872 | 3,914,774 |
| Central Provinces | 2,350,356 | 1,460,481 |
| Assam | 1,039,358 | 749,491 |
| India General | 16,980,133 | 22,519,754 |

# TRADE

## EXPORTS



With the single exception of opium all the principal heads of revenue have largely increased during the period since 1880-81, which has been taken as the starting point of this paper, the increases under each head being as follow:—

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Land Revenue | + | 21·7 | per cent. |
| Opium | − | 39 | „ |
| Salt | + | 21·2 | „ |
| Excise | + | 70 | „ |
| Stamps | + | 40·3 | „ |
| Customs | + | 13·1 | „ |
| Assessed taxes | + | 211·5 | „ |
| Provincial rates | + | 27 | „ |
| Registration | + | 82·5 | „ |
| Forests | + | 131·9 | „ |
| Post Office | + | 56·5 | „ |
| Railways | + | 116·2 | „ |
| Telegraphs | + | 82·8 | „ |

The total revenue in these fifteen years has increased by about 17¾ millions of Rx., or at the rate of 23·8 per cent.; and the total expenditure has increased by about 14½ millions of Rx., being at the rate of 18·4 per cent. The expenditure has really increased at a more rapid rate than appears from these figures, for the first year of the period was one in which heavy war expenditure was incurred on account of the Afghan campaign. A very large proportion of the increase in expenditure is due to the loss by exchange on the drawings of the Secretary of State. In 1880-81 the average rate of exchange for Council Bills was a shade under 20*d.*, in 1894-95 it was taken at 14*d.* The Council Bills in 1894-95 amount to seventeen millions sterling, equivalent to Rx. 29,143,000; if the rate of exchange had been maintained at 20*d.* the equivalent would have been only Rx. 20,400,000, the difference being as much as Rx. 8¾ millions. The greater part of the remainder of the increased expenditure is to be ascribed to the increased military charges. In fact, but for the fall in exchange and the increase in military expenditure it would have been possible for the Indian Government to materially reduce taxation during this period instead of increasing it. It would indeed have been possible to do this even with the increase which has occurred in military charges if the fall in exchange had not absorbed the increased revenue.

The taxes levied in India may be grouped under two heads: General and Local or Municipal. The second need not be noticed in this paper. All the taxes and tolls levied by local bodies, such as municipalities, cantonments, port trusts, are expended in the local area in which they are levied.

Some portion of the general taxes—namely, that which is collected as Provincial rates and cesses—is applied to public purposes in the provinces in which the taxes are levied. But though, as before pointed out, the proceeds of provincial taxation are, with the assignments made from imperial revenue, placed at the disposal of the Local Governments for provincial expenditure, it has been necessary, under financial stress, for the Imperial Government on three occasions to levy contributions from the Provincial Governments by reducing the allotments made to them under the quinquennial agreements, and taking for imperial purposes a portion of the provincial balances.

The proceeds of general taxation are derived from (1) the land revenue, (2) opium, (3) salt, (4) stamps, (5) excise, (6) customs, (7) the income tax, (8) registration, and (9) provincial rates and cesses.

It is a disputed question whether the land revenue should be regarded as a tax, or as a rent paid to the State as owner of the land. For present purposes it must be regarded as a tax, for the money taken from the people under this head constitutes as much as 28 per cent. of the aggregate revenue of the State from all sources. The assessments on the land are revised at various periods, the term varying ordinarily from ten to thirty years, except in the provinces where a permanent settlement exists. Its increase is, in the nature of the case, relatively slow.

The revenue from Opium is derived partly from the proceeds of the State monopoly, and partly from a tax imposed on every chest of opium grown in the native States of Central India and Rajputana when brought into British India for export by sea or for consumption in British territory, the duty being at a higher rate in the latter case. In the former case the tax is a transit duty, the object of which is to equalise the position in China of opium grown in the native States and in British territory. In the second case the tax is an import duty which is countervailed by the excise duty on British-grown opium. An excise is also levied on opium cultivated under license in the Panjab and in Upper Burma, and an import duty is levied on all opium imported by land or by sea. This revenue has been declining for some years past, owing mainly to the increasing competition of the cheaper and inferior Chinese drug.

As with Opium, so with Salt, the State possesses a monopoly of the production. Private manufacture is allowed under license, and local production is supplemented by the import of foreign salt by sea into Bengal and Burma, about 70 per cent. of the whole being produced in India. Varying rates of duty were levied on salt until 1878, when measures were taken to assimilate the rate everywhere. The general rate of R2½ per maund was reduced in 1882 to R2, but was again raised in 1888 to R2½, and at the same time the rate in Burma, which had been three annas, was raised to one rupee. These are the rates at which duty is now levied, except in the Panjab trans-Indus districts, where, for political reasons, a low rate is levied. The salt revenue increases steadily with the growth of population, and is now considerably larger than the opium revenue.

The Stamp revenue is derived from judicial (court-fee) and non-judicial stamps, the revenue from the former being about double that from the latter. The revenue from postage and telegraph stamps is credited under the heads of Post Office and Telegraphs, not under Stamps. The stamp duties have not been increased, or materially modified, since 1870 for judicial and 1879 for non-judicial stamps. The revenue, however, has largely increased.

The Excise revenue is derived from duties imposed upon spirits, beer, intoxicating drugs, and opium consumed in India, the taxes being imposed at varying rates in the different provinces. Much the largest proportion of the revenue is obtained from spirits, and most largely in Madras, Bombay, and Bengal. The increase in the revenue is chiefly due to increased rates of duty and improved administration in Madras and Bombay.

The Customs revenue is obtained from duties on imports from foreign countries and from a duty of three annas a maund on the export of rice. The rates of import duty have varied from time to time. The general rate was ten per cent. from 1859

to 1864, when it was reduced to 7½ per cent., a further reduction to 5 per cent. being made in 1875. From that year onwards the tariff underwent a gradual process of disintegration and destruction until it was repealed in 1882, with the exception of the special duties on arms, liquors, opium, and salt. In 1888 financial necessity required the imposition of an import duty on petroleum, and in 1894, under further financial stress, the tariff of 1875 was practically re-established, with the important exception that cotton piece-goods were exempted from duty. This exemption was however removed by further legislation in December of the same year.

Under Assessed Taxes the revenue is obtained from the income-tax, which, after many modifications in form and substance since 1860, and a temporary discontinuance at one period, was imposed in its present form in 1886 to meet the deficit caused in 1885 by increased military expenditure and the fall of exchange. It took the place of a license-tax on trades and professions which was levied provincially. That tax produced in the last year of its existence Rx. 503,034 and the income tax produced in the first year of its existence Rx. 1,354,735. During the nine years of its operation the revenue has increased 28½ per cent., partly no doubt as the result of increasing prosperity, but also materially as the consequence of improved administration of the tax. Salaries of military officers not exceeding 500 rupees monthly, and the incomes of all other persons which do not exceed 500 rupees annually, are exempt; and taxable incomes are assessed at five pies in the rupee on annual incomes of 2,000 rupees and more, and at four pies in the rupee on incomes of lower amounts. There are various exemptions, chief among them being incomes derived from agricultural sources, because these pay land revenue and provincial rates and cesses.

The revenue obtained from Registration fees is comparatively small. While registration is compulsory for certain classes of instruments to give them validity, it is voluntary for other large classes of instruments.

The revenue from Provincial rates is derived from district local funds, provincial cesses on the land, cesses for village servants and accountants, and other cesses, the largest proportion of the revenue being obtained from the first item. The revenue has increased mainly as the result of additional taxation.

The total revenue from all these heads of taxation amounts to only Rx. 58,745,000, the aggregate revenue of the State amounting to Rx. 92,024,900, the revenue from taxation being thus less than 64 per cent. of the whole revenue. The incidence on the people, taking the population of British India at 221,258,681 (the figures of the census of 1891) falls at the rate of Rupees 2 annas 10 pies, 5·7 per head. It is really, however, lower than this, for a portion of the opium, salt and customs import duties falls on the population of the Feudatory States, but it is impossible to show statistically what that portion is. The following table shows the principal sources of the revenue and expenditure of the State, the figures being those of the estimates for 1894-95:—

| *Revenue.* | Rx. | *Expenditure charged against Revenue.* | Rx. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Land Revenue | 25,703,600 | Land Revenue | 4,186,800 |
| Opium | 6,393,600 | Opium | 2,255,300 |
| Salt | 8,629,200 | Salt | 518,600 |
| Stamps | 4,361,800 | Stamps | 179,000 |
| Excise | 5,317,600 | Excise | 205,200 |
| Provincial rates | 3,525,300 | Provincial rates | 53,000 |
| Customs | 2,872,900 | Customs | 209,500 |
| Assessed taxes | 1,740,900 | Assessed taxes | 32,700 |
| Forests | 1,646,000 | Forests | 984,400 |
| Registration | 440,000 | Registration | 229,900 |
| Tributes from Native States | 775,200 | | |
| Interest (on loans to local bodies) | 856,800 | Interest | 4,611,400 |
| Post Office | 1,595,000 | Post Office | 1,608,100 |
| Telegraphs | 993,800 | Telegraphs | 919,600 |
| Railways | 20,408,400 | Railways | 22,562,700 |
| Irrigation (being mainly the portion of land revenue due to irrigation) | 2,463,800 | Irrigation | 2,909,400 |
| Civil Departments and the Mint | 1,679,400 | Civil Departments and Mint | 15,027,300 |
| Military Department | 809,700 | Army services | 23,912,000 |
| Buildings and Roads | 629,200 | Buildings and Roads | 5,189,100 |
| Miscellaneous | 982,700 | Miscellaneous (mainly pensions and furlough allowances) | 5,754,000 |
| | | Assignments and compensations, refunds and drawbacks | 1,808,200 |

## TABLE No. I.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE (CHARGED TO REVENUE) OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA FROM 1880-81 TO 1894-95; ALSO CAPITAL EXPENDITURE ON RAILWAYS AND IRRIGATION.

| | Revenue. | Expenditure. | Surplus + or Deficit −. | Capital expenditure on Railways and Irrigation. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. |
| 1880-81 | 74,290,112 | 77,921,506 | − 3,631,394 | 3,670,704 |
| 1881-82 | 75,684,987 | 72,089,536 | + 3,595,451 | 2,715,613 |
| 1882-83 | 70,278,337 | 69,603,500 | + 674,837 | 2,444,410 |
| 1883-84 | 71,842,020 | 69,962,313 | + 1,879,707 | 4,091,469 |
| 1884-85 | 70,690,681 | 71,077,127 | − 386,446 | 4,226,613 |
| 1885-86 | 74,464,197 | 77,265,923 | − 2,801,726 | 5,275,364 |
| 1886-87 | 77,337,134 | 77,158,707 | + 178,427 | 5,670,484 |
| 1887-88 | 78,759,744 | 80,788,576 | − 2,028,832 | 2,784,824 |
| 1888-89 | 81,696,678 | 81,659,660 | + 37,018 | 1,638,001 |
| 1889-90 | 85,085,203 | 82,473,170 | + 2,612,033 | 3,173,390 |
| 1890-91 | 85,741,649 | 82,053,478 | + 3,688,171 | 3,365,632 |
| 1891-92 | 89,143,283 | 88,675,748 | + 467,535 | 3,500,000 |
| 1892-93 | 90,172,438 | 91,005,850 | − 833,412 | 3,985,290 |
| 1893-94 | 90,429,500 | 92,222,300 | − 1,792,800 | 3,643,100 |
| 1894-95 | 92,024,900 | 92,326,800 | − 301,900 | 4,000,000 |

## TABLE No. II.

REGISTERED DEBT OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA, SHOWING ITS GROWTH IN INDIA AND IN ENGLAND FROM 1880-81 TO 1893-94.

| | In India. | In England. |
|---|---|---|
| | Rx. | £ |
| 1880-81 | 85,959,746 | 71,429,133 |
| 1881-82 | 88,653,162 | 68,141,947 |
| 1882-83 | 90,688,766 | 68,585,694 |
| 1883-84 | 93,191,384 | 68,108,837 |
| 1884-85 | 93,183,660 | 69,271,088 |
| 1885-86 | 92,703,082 | 73,806,621 |
| 1886-87 | 92,653,636 | 84,228,177 |
| 1887-88 | 98,089,862 | 84,140,148 |
| 1888-89 | 100,879,742 | 95,033,610 |
| 1889-90 | 102,761,175 | 98,192,391 |
| 1890-91 | 102,746,555 | 104,408,208 |
| 1891-92 | 102,692,317 | 107,404,143 |
| 1892-93 | 102,937,552 | 106,683,767 |
| 1893-94 | 105,546,078 | 114,113,792 |

## TABLE No. III.

SHOWING THE GROWTH OF THE PRINCIPAL HEADS OF THE REVENUE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA FROM 1880-81 TO 1894-95.

| | Land Revenue. | Opium. | Salt. | Excise. | Stamps. | Customs. | Assessed taxes. | Provincial Rates. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. |
| 1880-81 | 21,112,995 | 10,480,051 | 7,115,988 | 3,135,226 | 3,250,581 | 2,539,612 | 558,720 | 2,776,370 |
| 1881-82 | 21,948,022 | 9,862,444 | 7,375,620 | 3,427,274 | 3,381,372 | 2,361,388 | 536,829 | 2,895,490 |
| 1882-83 | 21,876,047 | 9,499,594 | 6,177,781 | 3,609,561 | 3,379,681 | 1,296,119 | 517,811 | 2,683,015 |
| 1883-84 | 22,361,899 | 9,556,501 | 6,145,413 | 3,836,961 | 3,513,701 | 1,187,266 | 526,087 | 2,878,731 |
| 1884-85 | 21,832,211 | 8,816,469 | 6,307,236 | 4,011,867 | 3,606,622 | 1,029,943 | 511,828 | 2,701,461 |
| 1885-86 | 22,592,371 | 8,942,515 | 6,345,128 | 4,152,136 | 3,663,174 | 1,199,976 | 503,034 | 2,900,315 |
| 1886-87 | 23,055,724 | 8,942,976 | 6,657,644 | 4,375,174 | 3,751,280 | 1,246,293 | 1,354,735 | 2,999,861 |
| 1887-88 | 23,189,292 | 8,515,462 | 6,670,728 | 4,534,655 | 3,876,298 | 1,348,837 | 1,431,436 | 3,035,323 |
| 1888-89 | 23,016,404 | 8,562,319 | 7,675,634 | 4,705,346 | 3,927,088 | 1,332,784 | 1,520,940 | 3,054,254 |
| 1889-90 | 23,981,399 | 8,583,056 | 8,187,739 | 4,891,891 | 4,087,903 | 1,506,686 | 1,595,274 | 3,410,055 |
| 1890-91 | 24,645,209 | 7,879,182 | 8,323,368 | 4,947,780 | 4,068,969 | 1,743,218 | 1,617,396 | 3,491,240 |
| 1891-92 | 23,905,774 | 8,012,380 | 8,636,182 | 5,117,264 | 4,262,156 | 1,791,288 | 1,652,823 | 3,502,837 |
| 1892-93 | 24,905,328 | 7,993,180 | 8,656,104 | 5,242,443 | 4,445,540 | 1,617,633 | 1,686,141 | 3,705,928 |
| 1893-94 | 25,492,300 | 6,694,400 | 8,346,200 | 5,357,000 | 4,551,000 | 1,658,700 | 1,730,300 | 3,486,300 |
| 1894-95 | 25,703,600 | 6,393,600 | 8,629,200 | 5,317,600 | 4,561,800 | 2,872,900 | 1,740,900 | 3,525,300 |

## TABLE No. IV.

SHOWING THE GROWTH OF THE RAILWAY REVENUE AND OF THE RAILWAY EXPENDITURE (CHARGED AGAINST REVENUE) FROM 1880-81 TO 1894-95.

| | Revenue. | Expenditure. |
|---|---|---|
| | Rx. | Rx. |
| 1880-81 | 9,435,336 | 10,479,386 |
| 1881-82 | 10,885,483 | 11,171,057 |
| 1882-83 | 10,973,030 | 12,278,890 |
| 1883-84 | 11,960,157 | 12,265,069 |
| 1884-85 | 11,898,131 | 12,940,306 |
| 1885-86 | 13,684,084 | 14,415,797 |
| 1886-87 | 14,477,759 | 15,666,427 |
| 1887-88 | 14,533,360 | 16,655,746 |
| 1888-89 | 15,520,696 | 17,754,088 |
| 1889-90 | 16,605,601 | 18,458,202 |
| 1890-91 | 17,235,978 | 17,923,269 |
| 1891-92 | 19,938,046 | 20,253,910 |
| 1892-93 | 19,027,103 | 20,924,153 |
| 1893-94 | 20,206,500 | 21,803,500 |
| 1894-95 | 20,408,400 | 22,538,300 |

## TABLE No. V.

SHOWING THE GROWTH OF MILITARY EXPENDITURE SINCE 1877-78 (INCLUDING SPECIAL DEFENCE WORKS SINCE 1886-87).

| | Army Services. | Special Defence Works. | Total. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Rx. | Rx. | Rx. |
| 1877-78 | | | 17,300,484 |
| 1878-79 | | | 17,938,784 |
| 1879-80* | | | 22,580,715 |
| 1880-81* | | | 28,932,497 |
| 1881-82 | | | 19,688,510 |
| 1882-83 | | | 18,359,433 |
| 1883-84 | | | 18,123,629 |
| 1884-85 | | | 16,963,803 |
| 1885-86† | | | 29,097,779 |
| 1886-87 | 19,525,042 | 325,626 | 19,850,668 |
| 1887-88 | 20,417,934 | 456,017 | 20,873,951 |
| 1888-89 | 20,301,841 | 789,595 | 21,091,436 |
| 1889-90 | 20,677,814 | 689,481 | 21,367,295 |
| 1890-91 | 20,690,068 | 491,837 | 21,181,905 |
| 1891-92 | 22,280,601 | 604,848 | 22,885,449 |
| 1892-93 | 23,419,111 | 458,060 | 23,877,171 |
| 1893-94 | 23,413,800 | 342,000 | 23,755,800 |
| 1894-95 | 23,759,700 | 152,300 | 23,912,000 |

* Campaigns in Afghanistan.

† Apprehension of war with Russia following on the collision between the Russians and Afghans at Panjdeh, and consequent preparations for mobilisation, permanent increase of the army strength, and construction of Special Defence Works.

# CHAPTER XIV.

# LAND TENURES AND REVENUE SYSTEMS.

IN approaching an examination of the Land System of India as it existed before the occupation of the country by the British, the student must divest himself of preconceived notions derived from western sources, of proprietorship in land, or of relations between landlords and tenants. The fundamental idea to be grasped is that in most parts of India as in other oriental countries the primary proprietor of the land and its produce was the ruler of the territory in which it lay: in other words the State itself; while in all, the State exacted a share of the produce which usually left little more than subsistence to the cultivators. This idea found curt expression in the following maxim quoted by a writer in the reign of the Emperor Akbar, under whose directions the administration of land revenue was, for the first time, systematically organized: "There shall be left for every man who cultivates his land as much as he requires "for his own support till the next crop be reaped and that of his family and for "seed. This much shall be left to him; what remains is land tax and shall go to the "public treasury."

In examining the application, under native rule, of the principle thus enunciated, the following considerations must be borne in mind.

In the first place, it was obviously impossible to carry it out in exact and close detail. No precise measure could be taken of the varying requirements of each cultivator or of the amount of produce in each field. As a fact, a rough appraisement was usually made of the amount of produce either raised, or capable of being raised, on each class of land and a share of it, such as would approximately leave to the cultivator enough for his maintenance, determined as the due of the State. The various methods of appraisement will be found, by the student who desires more detailed information on the subject, in Thomason's Directions to Settlement Officers (North-Western Provinces), a most instructive work.

In the second place, the State's share, however it might have been appraised, was collected in produce or "kind" and not in "cash." It was in Akbar's celebrated settlement that the first general attempt was made to convert payments in kind into payments in cash, subject to a decennial revision much like that which in England governs the periodical assessment of tithes. The attempt only succeeded partially and, at the beginning of this century, payments in kind were, in many parts of India, found to be as prevalent as payments in cash. The British Government has gradually extended the latter system until payments in kind have become a rare exception, though in many Native States they still largely prevail.

In the third place, it was naturally inconvenient for the State itself, especially in troublous times, to undertake the collections of revenue from each cultivating occupier of land. Various intermediaries came therefore into existence. In some cases contracts were made with influential or wealthy persons for the collection of revenue from a given territory; in others the responsibility was placed on the headman of a cultivating community, whose position was no more than that of *primus inter pares*. Then again the absorption of smaller States into larger ones led to the partial maintenance of the ancient rights of the minor rulers or chiefs to collect the revenue from their States, and they were often only subject to a tributary payment to the Sovereign power. They were thus not altogether shorn of their hereditary royal claim to State revenue, and were placed somewhat in the position of the feudal landlords of Europe. Their title, however, to collect land revenue in their own behalf was derived from their initial position as more or less independent rulers.

In the fourth place, under Native rule, neither cultivators of land nor intermediaries between them and the ruling power had the power of transferring by sale, gift, or mortgage the interests they possessed in the land. Exceptions to this rule were so rare that they need not be taken into account. The only right or prescriptive claim respected by the State was that allowed to those who had first settled on the land of remaining on it so long as the assessment levied by the State was paid. Even in the case of failure they were seldom ejected.

The natural effect of the conferment of new rights and powers on those whose status had been merely collectors of, or contractors for, the payment of land revenue into the State coffers was that the position of some few of the agricultural community was unduly raised, while that of a large majority was unduly lowered.

Thus, in 1848, we find a well known authority* writing of the position of those who paid the land revenue into the Government Treasury in the following words:—

"The only person recorded in the district office as 'proprietor' was the person who contracted to pay the Government revenue. In some cases he was the representative of the village community, many of whom had equal and, perhaps, larger interests, and in others the purchaser of a share in an estate who had, by purchasing the interests of some and paying up arrears due on other shares, gradually become sole 'proprietor.'"

These few words illustrate sufficiently the confusion which had arisen on the one hand from the endowment of the contractor or payer of land revenue with the status of an European 'proprietor,' and on the other from the conferment of a power to transfer interests in land by sale or mortgage.

Finally, and this is an important consideration—there was, under native rule, and, even until recent years, in British Provinces, much competition for cultivators and little or no competition for land. The ruler of a State, therefore, and those to whom he had delegated his authority to collect the land revenue, were only too glad to allow the occupiers of land to remain on it. They had no inducement to drive them off by forcible measures or impossible exactions. They had recourse to expulsion only in the rare event of contumacious refusal to surrender the amount of revenue properly claimable by the State and they took care, when any failure of crop occurred

* NOTE.—Mr. Montgomery, Collector and Settlement Officer of Cawnpore.

through accident of season, to lower the demand in proportion to the power of the occupant to pay. After British occupation, the collectors of land revenue, invested with the status of 'proprietor' or 'landlord,' were, in many Provinces, permitted to claim, as if it were 'rent,' the payment of 'land revenue' contributed by the occupiers of land and to retain a large share for themselves; to enhance, often without restriction, the amounts payable; to eject cultivators; to distrain their crops; and generally to exercise absolute control over them.* In view of the fact that the new status was conferred at a time not very long antecedent to the period when competition for tenants was succeeded by competition for land, a critical change, which in all countries has a serious effect on the relations between landlords and tenants, the position of the cultivator (reduced from that of the land revenue payer to that of the rent payer) became, in many Provinces, so uncomfortable and insecure as to lead to various restrictions of the wide powers at first conferred on the intermediary collectors of land revenue.

It will be gathered from the above considerations, briefly as they have been put forward, that western notions of property in land and western nomenclature involving such terms as 'proprietor,' 'landlord,' 'tenant' and 'rent' were inapplicable to the system of land revenue formerly existent in India. It will be also understood that the transfusion into the system of European ideas and practices in accordance with the varying idiosyncracies of individual authorities in different parts of India was the cause, not only of no little confusion, but also of varying types of land administration.

The limits within which this chapter must be kept prohibit anything like a detailed history of the growth of the separate land system as now existing in each Province, and the brief exposition given above merely aims at calling the attention of the reader to the original uniformity of the land system throughout India; to the wide difference between that system and the systems now prevailing in Europe; to the main points of divergence; to the transfusion of western ideas, in varying degrees, into the systems of different Provinces; as, for example, the conferment of a right to transfer interests in land, the conversion of a land revenue collector into a proprietor or landlord, the creation of 'tenants' and with them of 'rent', and so on. Without some conception of the changes thus effected, the present position of land revenue administration in India could not have been comprehended. The extent of these changes is forcibly represented in a note written by an eminent official* in 1876 on the revenue system existing in the Central Provinces before British rule:—

"'I am convinced,' he wrote, 'that in order to a right understanding of the different parts of the Province, we must begin rather by recognizing their original similarity. Diversity, at the present day, there no doubt is, but it is a diversity which has arisen, not from original and inherent difference, but from the fact that, in quite recent times, diverse influences have impressed themselves upon systems which were in all essential respects the same. The position which I would lay down is this that, speaking broadly, identical revenue systems prevailed in all districts at the time when they severally came under our rule and influence, and that all the differences which they now present are due, first, to the diverse training and prepossessions of the officers through whom we administer them; secondly, to differences in the revenue systems which such officers looked to as models; and thirdly, to the length of time during which the two preceding conditions have been operating. In short I would affirm that such differences as exist are of our own creation.'"

A very brief examination of the systems at the present time existing in different parts of British India may now be approached. The following conspectus of the land systems of the various provinces will be best understood by the reader if he bears in mind the general proposition already indicated that the key to the position is the fact that the person who was first under British rule recognized as responsible for the payment of land revenue into the State treasure chest was often accepted as proprietor of the land in respect of which the payment was made.

In *Madras*, *Bombay and Berar* the payers of land revenue were, as a rule, the small cultivating occupiers—or 'ryots.' Hence the settlement of land revenue made with them was termed a "ryotwari" settlement. There were in the ryotwari areas no intermediaries, at any rate none were recognized, and the ryots have practically drifted into the position of tenants of the State which now exercises over them many of the functions usually ascribed in Europe to a landlord. But in Madras extensive territories, mainly adjacent to the Central Provinces and Bengal, were found to be in the possession of quasi-independent chiefs who were accorded the position of absolute proprietors on the payment of a quit revenue to the paramount State, and these have hitherto been allowed unrestricted authority over the ryots. The settlement made with them is termed 'Zamindari' because, in Lower India, the term 'Zamindar' (*zamin*—land and *dar*—holder) was usually applied to the chiefs of large territories although, in the north, the term designates the holder of any land, however small.

In *Bengal* the collectors of land revenue from the ryots were found to be either large zamindars (as in the zamindari areas of Madras) or contractors of land revenue, or other influential persons. All were granted the position of absolute proprietors, and Lord Cornwallis granted them, as he did to the Madras zamindars, a permanent settlement. The few instances of exclusion from the permanent settlement are due to historical causes which cannot be examined in this brief synopsis. An important fact, however, must be borne in mind that whereas in the ryotwari areas of Madras and Bombay as well as in the zemindari areas of Bengal the ryots were granted the power of transferring their interests by mortgage and sale such was not the case in the *Madras* zamindaris.

In the *North-Western Provinces*, the persons responsible for collecting and paying into the treasury the land revenue were indiscriminately accepted as proprietors. Territorial chiefs were, however, few, but on the other hand much of the land was held by tribal communities, the descendants of original settlers. In some cases, when these communities were found to be paying their land revenue through their own representatives, they were recognized as proprietors; in others they sank to the level of tenants, their rights being, as already indicated in the quotation from Mr. Montgomery's note, absorbed by powerful members of the community itself or by influential outsiders. The right of transfer was, in this Province, only conferred on persons recognized as proprietors, not on those reduced to the position of tenants, and it is worthy of observation that those communities who were endowed with the higher status have, to a large extent, been rapidly broken up in consequence of the new facility given to them of parting with their rights and interests, whereas those whose position was lowered have, in the absence of any such facility, retained, as tenants, their occupation of the land originally held by them.

In *Oudh*, a province acquired in comparatively recent years, a system had, in consequence probably of the weakness of the ruling power, come into force of granting contracts for the collection of revenue over extensive areas by agents nominated by the State. Sometimes these were foreigners to the country, some-

* Mr. W. B. Jones, afterwards Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.

# LAND REVENUE SYSTEMS
of
# BRITISH INDIA AND MYSORE

Scale 1 Inch = 192 Miles.

70° 78° 86° 94° 102°

28° 20° 12°

AFGHANISTAN
Kabul
Peshawar
KASHMIR
BALUCHISTAN
RAJPUTANA AGENCY
KARACHI
NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES
CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY
CENTRAL PROVINCES
NEPAL
BOMBAY
ARABIAN SEA
DECCAN
HYDERABAD
MADRAS
CALCUTTA
BAY of BENGAL
Mandalay
RANGOON
ANDAMAN ISLANDS
NICOBAR ISLANDS

REFERENCES.

Zamindari Permanently Settled
Do. Temporarily Settled
Raiyatwari

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND
on the same scale

NOTE.—For geographical detail consult the final map (British Provinces & Native States) which can be pulled out to lie alongside this map.

Litho. R. I. O. Calcutta

TOTAL REVENUE & EXPENDITURE

Revenue

Expenditure

REGISTERED DEBT IN ENGLAND AND IN INDIA

Sterling debt in England (Millions £)

Rupee debt in India (Millions Rs)

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE

1 Customs
2 Excise
3 Stamps
4 Provincial Rates
5 Income Tax
6 Assessed Taxes
7
8 Salt
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25 Land Revenue
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
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103
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107
108
109
110
111
112

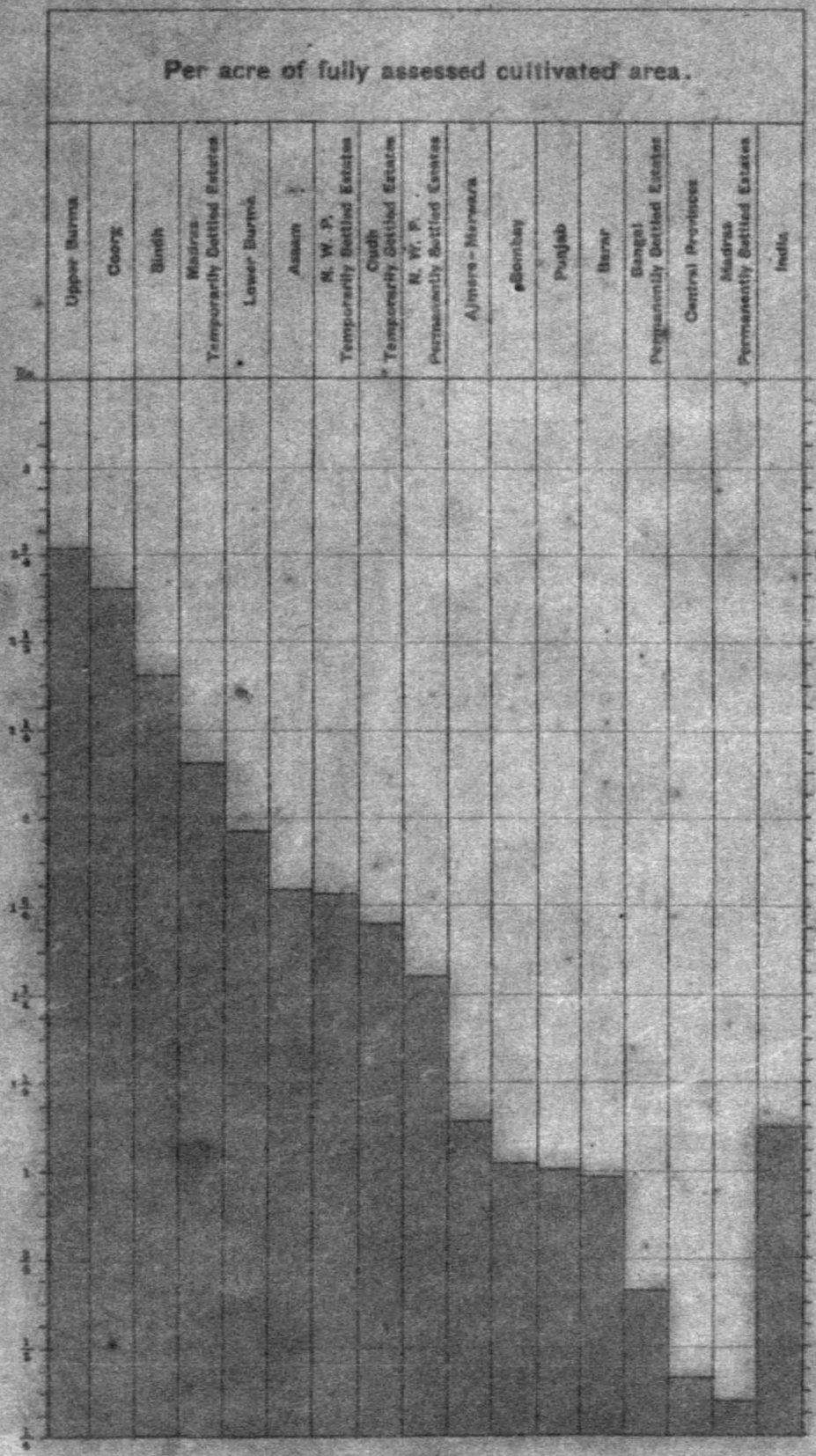
Million £

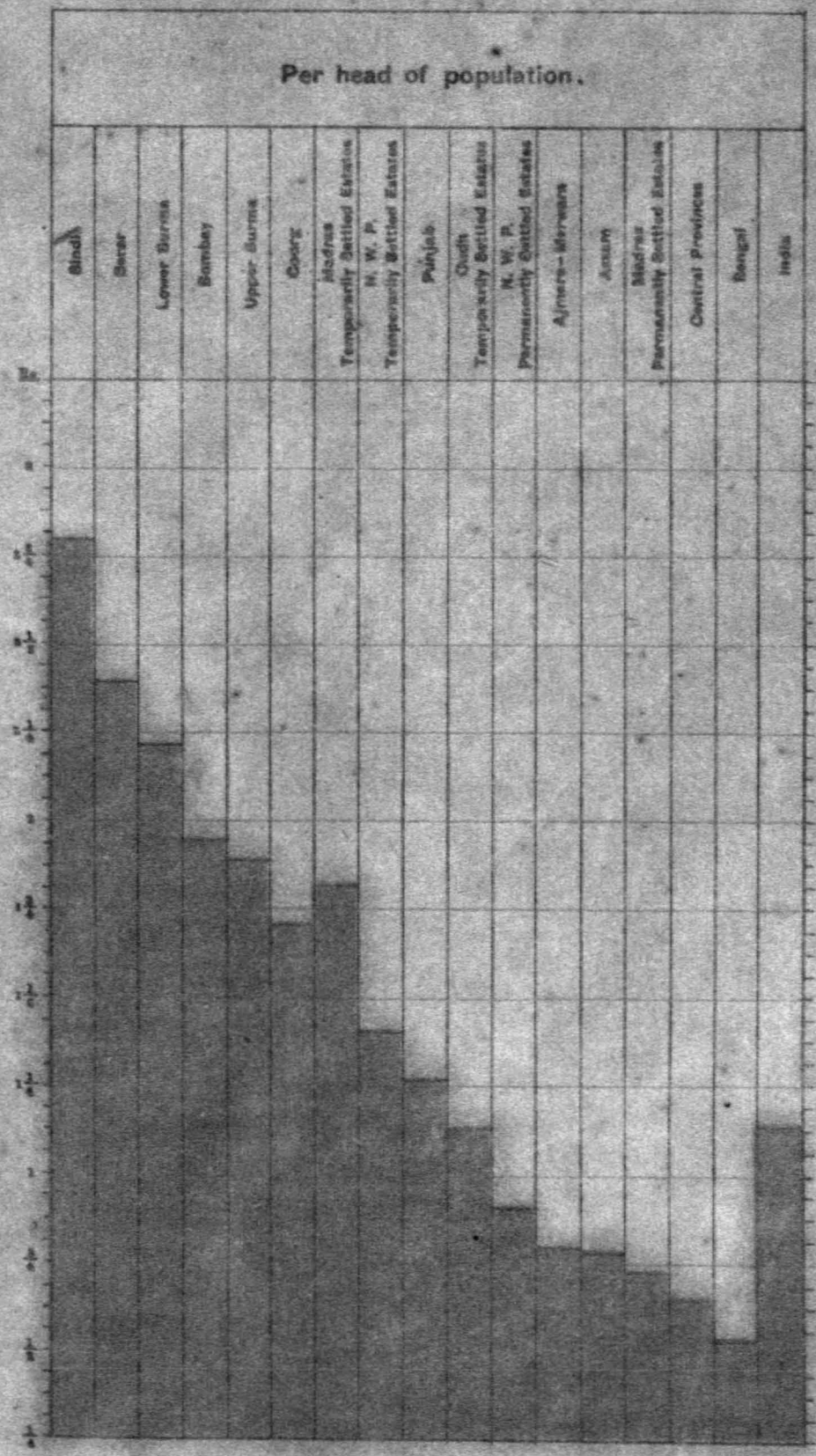
1858-59
1859-60
1860-61
1861-62
1862-63
1863-64
1864-65
1865-66
1866-67
1867-68
1868-69
1869-70
1870-71
1871-72
1872-73
1873-74
1874-75
1875-76
1876-77
1877-78
1878-79
1879-80
1880-81
1881-82
1882-83
1883-84
1884-85

Million Rs

1858-59
1859-60
1860-61
1861-62
1862-63
1863-64
1864-65
1865-66
1866-67
1867-68
1868-69
1869-70
1870-71
1871-72
1872-73
1873-74
1874-75
1875-76
1876-77
1877-78
1878-79
1879-80
1880-81
1881-82
1882-83
1883-84
1884-85

# INCIDENCE OF LAND REVENUE 1892–3.

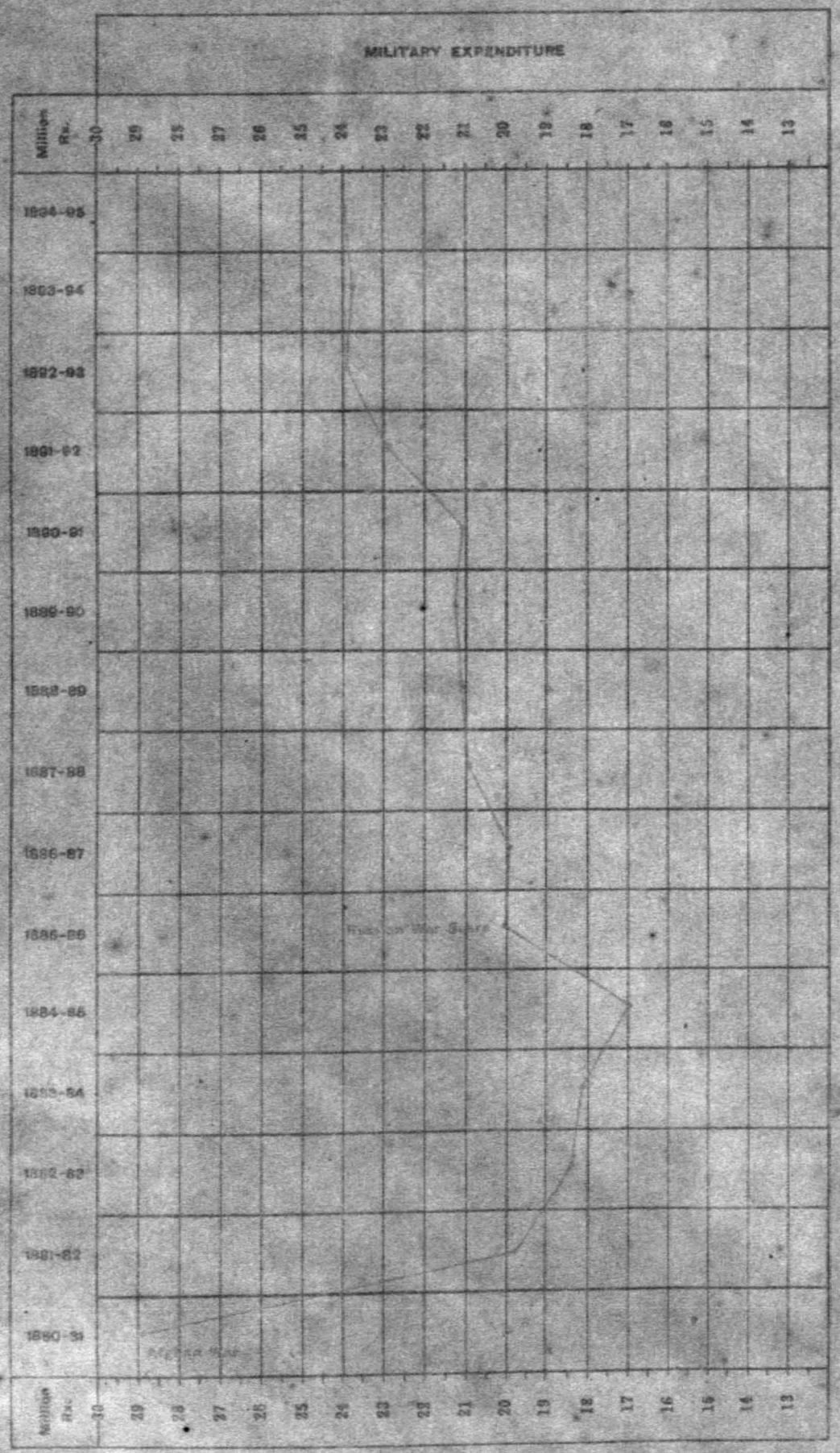


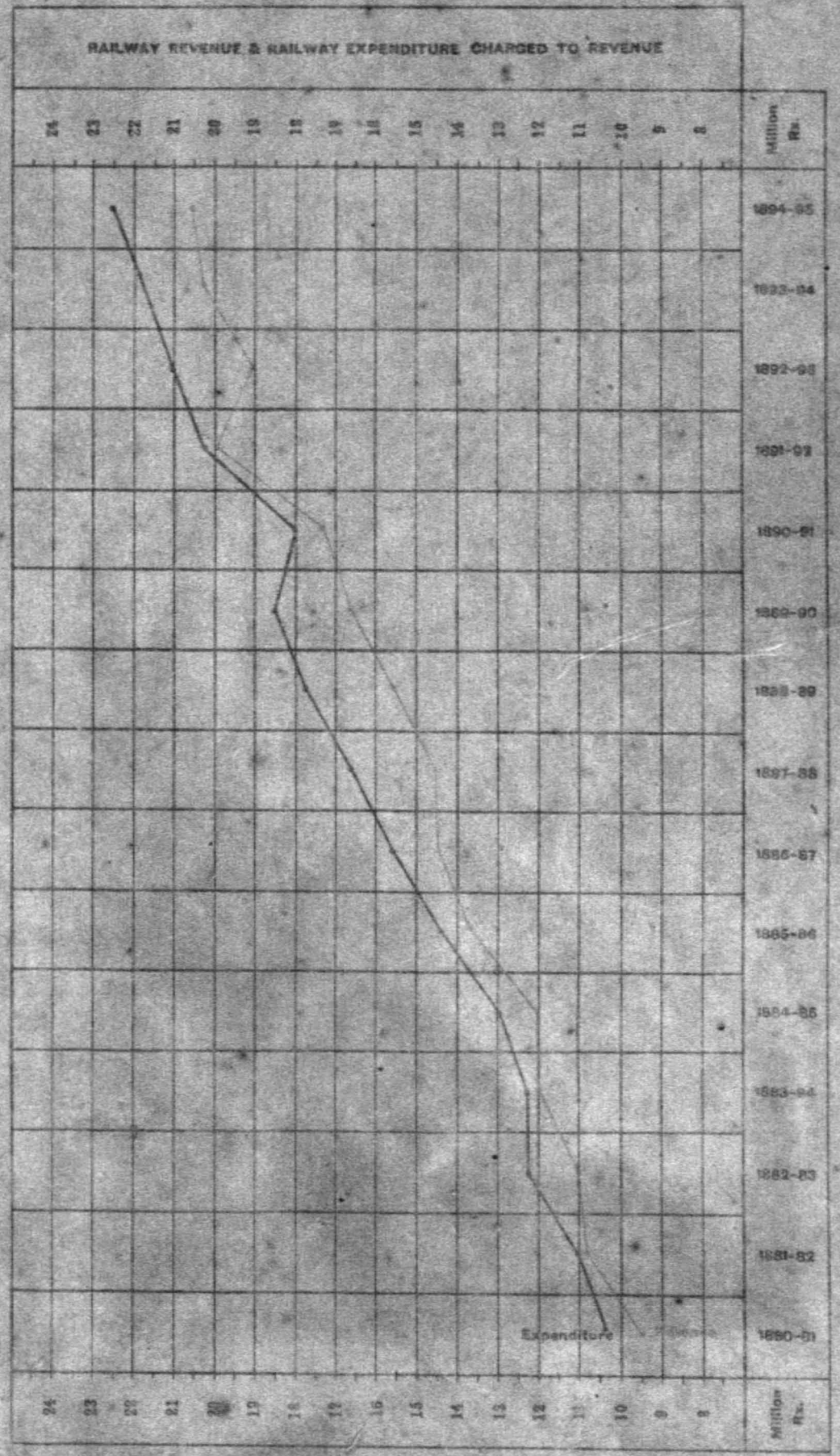

Reg. No. 308, R. E. A.—Aug. '94.—2,016

Photo. S. I. O., Calcutta.

MILITARY EXPENDITURE




RAILWAY REVENUE & RAILWAY EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE



times powerful members of the local community, and in some cases hereditary chiefs. These were accepted by the British Government as superior landlords, the members of tribal communities subservient to them being accorded the status of inferior landlords. During the mutiny, which occurred 3 years after the occupation, many of the superior proprietors who opposed the British lost their new rights which were transferred to influential persons who had supported the paramount power. The primary payers of land revenue or the cultivating occupants were until recently granted no status at all.

In the *Punjab* the cultivating occupants were for the main part found to be cultivating communities on whom proprietary rights were conferred without reserve. Intermediary collectors of land revenue did not, as a rule, exist and every member of the community was accepted as a proprietor. So far, therefore, the former conditions were less disturbed than in any other of the Northern Provinces; but as the new right of transfer was, as elsewhere, granted to the cultivators now created 'proprietors', the communities have been largely broken up and their rights and interests absorbed by outsiders. Another point may be noticed. The term *zamindari* was carried through Bengal and the North-Western Provinces to the settlement of the Punjab notwithstanding that the position of the payers of land revenue in the latter Provinces assimilated, in some respects, more to that of the ryot of Madras and Bombay than to that of the zamindars of Bengal.

In the *Central Provinces* the actual payers of land revenue into the treasury were usually head men, *primi inter pares*, of the village communities, with the exception of the chiefs of some large zamindaris of the Madras class who were placed on the same footing as the Madras zamindars. The collectors of land revenue were, however, as in Bengal, accorded proprietary rights and those who really contributed the revenue were reduced to the position of tenants. Here again in consequence of the creation of intermediaries the settlement has been called 'zamindari.'

The next subject to which attention must be called is the system of settlement or assessment of the land revenue. On no branch of Indian administration could so much be written. The official records which deal with it would alone fill a large library. In the space of this chapter only a brief exposition is possible, and for more detailed information the reader is referred to Strachey's 'India' and to Thomason's 'Directions to Settlement Officers' (North-Western Provinces).

The fundamental idea underlying the land settlement has already been indicated in the 'maxim' of Akbar's reign quoted at the beginning of the chapter. It found new expression in the following words recently used in an important State document:—

"In India the right of the State to a specified share of the produce of the land is established by long-continued custom and by the historical precedents of many centuries. In asserting this right the State acts as the representative of the whole tax-paying community of the Empire whose interests it is its bounden duty to guard and protect from encroachment."

The attempts made in the earlier years of British occupation to assess the amount to be taken from each person made responsible for the payment of land revenue into the Treasury—in other words from each newly-created proprietor—were naturally crude and imperfect. Much confusion was, in the so-called 'zamindari' Provinces, caused by the new relations established between the primary payers of the revenue or the cultivating occupants transformed into tenants and the collectors of the revenue—now constituted proprietors or landlords. The pre-existing system of very short settlements, readjusted after 1, 2 or 3 years, was at first followed; and, as under native rule, a very small margin of the produce or of its value was surrendered by the State. These conditions often led to the failure of the persons responsible whose interests were for the first time made saleable and who received no sufficient consideration for failure of crops in bad seasons. In Bengal a grand attempt was made to ascertain by local enquiry the average value of the produce in each field, but it broke down owing to the inherent difficulties of the task. The claim of the State was therefore gradually lowered and the term of settlement lengthened. In Bengal the assessment was, in 1793, made permanent, while in the North-Western Provinces, the Province next occupied, the attempt to assess the value of land was followed up, and partly for the above reason, partly for political considerations, the term of settlement gradually increased to 30 years. From 1840 to 1880 revisions of assessment in the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, Oudh and the Central Provinces were continuously carried on. The first step was to make a field survey and map of each village; the next to ascertain, as far as this could be done, the various classes of soil and their productive capabilities; then to find out, by enquiry, the rates hitherto paid by the cultivating occupants on each class; thus to frame an estimate of the aggregate amount received by each of the persons responsible for the State revenue, and lastly to estimate the share of that amount payable by the latter to Government. In each district these operations usually occupied from 7 to 10 years, and often cost the State half as much income as they brought in.

The following table shows the gradual increase in the share of the assets (*i.e.*, of the amount collected from the cultivating occupants) which the collecting agents or newly-constituted proprietors have been allowed to retain in the North-Western Provinces. The State share has declined in proportion. The Province named has been selected for the purpose of illustration because, when once Bengal had been permanently assessed, it became the principal field of assessment, and because the practices adopted in the North-Western Provinces were followed in all other zamindari provinces not permanently assessed:—

| Year. | Share of assets surrendered to the collecting agents or proprietors. |
|---|---|
| 1812 | 10 per cent. of prospective assets. |
| 1822 | 20 " " " |
| 1833 | 27½ " " " |
| 1849 | 33⅓ " " " |
| 1855 | 50 " " " |
| 1885 | 50 per cent. of actual assets |

The term 'prospective assets' means an estimate of the annual assets which the proprietors were likely to obtain during the coming term of settlement, whereas the term 'actual assets' means the annual assets actually obtained at the time of settlement. The actual assets are often much less than the prospective assets. A further surrender to the proprietors of the State's share, beyond the reduction to 50 per cent. of the actual assets, has been frequently made in cases where it is believed that the proprietor will for any reason find difficulty in making a punctual payment of the 50 per cent.

Within the last 20 years many important reforms have been effected in the land revenue administration. In the first place, the laws governing the relations between landlords and tenants and the assessment of rent and of revenue have been over-

hauled with the view mainly of placing the cultivating occupiers of land in a better position, one, in fact, more in accordance with that which they originally held before being constituted mere tenants of the intermediary collectors of land revenue. Again, the system of settlement has been improved and simplified in order to avoid both expense and the harassment of the agricultural population caused by the continual invasion of armies of surveyors and land appraisers. The key of reforms in this direction has been the maintenance of an accurate land record in each village showing year by year the fields cultivated, the crops raised, the area irrigated, the rent payable and paid, and names of tenants and landlord, and so on. On the basis of this record kept up to date by local agency an estimate of the actual assets can be arrived at much more easily and rapidly than was possible in the case of an estimate of prospective assets made on an entirely new record drawn up once every 20 or 30 years by persons unacquainted with the villages. The cost of new settlements is now one-fifth of what it used to be. A further reform of importance has recently been brought under consideration. The question has been asked whether the right to transfer of rights and interest in land, the conferment of which has led to the alienation of much land from the hereditary occupants, can in any way be curtailed.

A diagram showing the incidence of land revenue in each Province is appended to this chapter. The three main factors or questions which affect the incidence are—

(1) the relative productiveness of the soil and value of its produce;

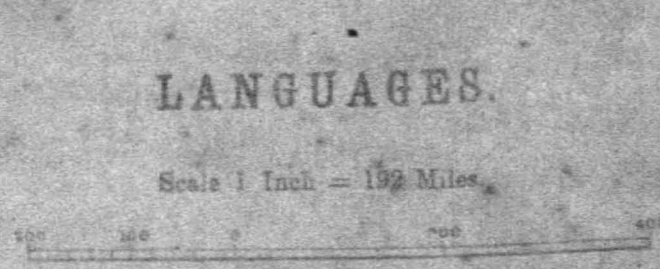
(2) whether the land revenue is paid to the State by the cultivating occupant direct or through an intermediary who absorbs 50 per cent. or more of the cultivator's payment;

(3) whether the settlement is temporary or permanent, *i.e.*, liable or not to readjustment;

Taking these factors into consideration, it will be seen that Bengal, which holds perhaps the first place in fertility of soil, in freedom from drought and in facilities of communication, is by far the most lightly assessed. The low rate in the Central Provinces is due to the absence until recent years of railways—rather than to poorness of soil, and it will probably be susceptible of rapid enhancement. The same may be said of Assam. The rates in Oudh and the Punjab are low, especially in the latter where there is practically no intermediary between the cultivating occupant and the State. Both Provinces—particularly Oudh—are fertile, but allowance must be made for the large sandy areas in the former as well as for the cost of irrigation, hardly needed in Oudh, but absolutely necessary in the Punjab. The rate in the North-Western Provinces is fairly high considering the large amount absorbed by proprietors, but the soil is generally fertile, irrigation plentiful, and communications abundant. The rates in Madras, Burma and Bombay are naturally in the absence of intermediaries higher than in the zamindari territories and the difference in incidence in the three Provinces, *inter se*, must be explained by differences in soil and facilities in communication.

# LANGUAGES.

Scale 1 Inch = 192 Miles.



REFERENCES.

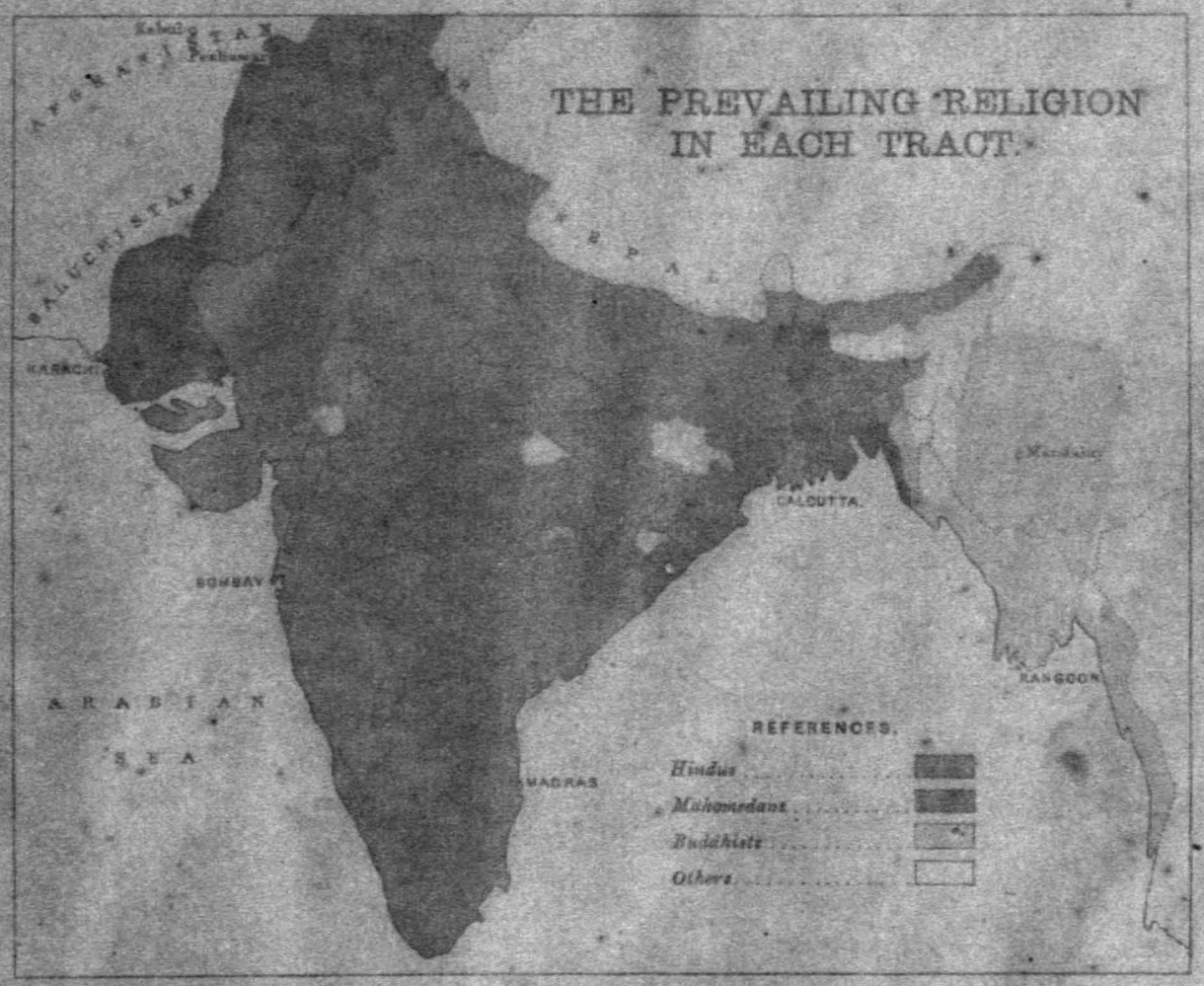
- Aryan
- Dravidian
- Kolarian
- Tibeto-Burman
- Khasi
- Thi
- Mon-anam


NOTE.—For geographical detail consult the final map (British Provinces & Native States) which can be pulled out so as to lie alongside this map.

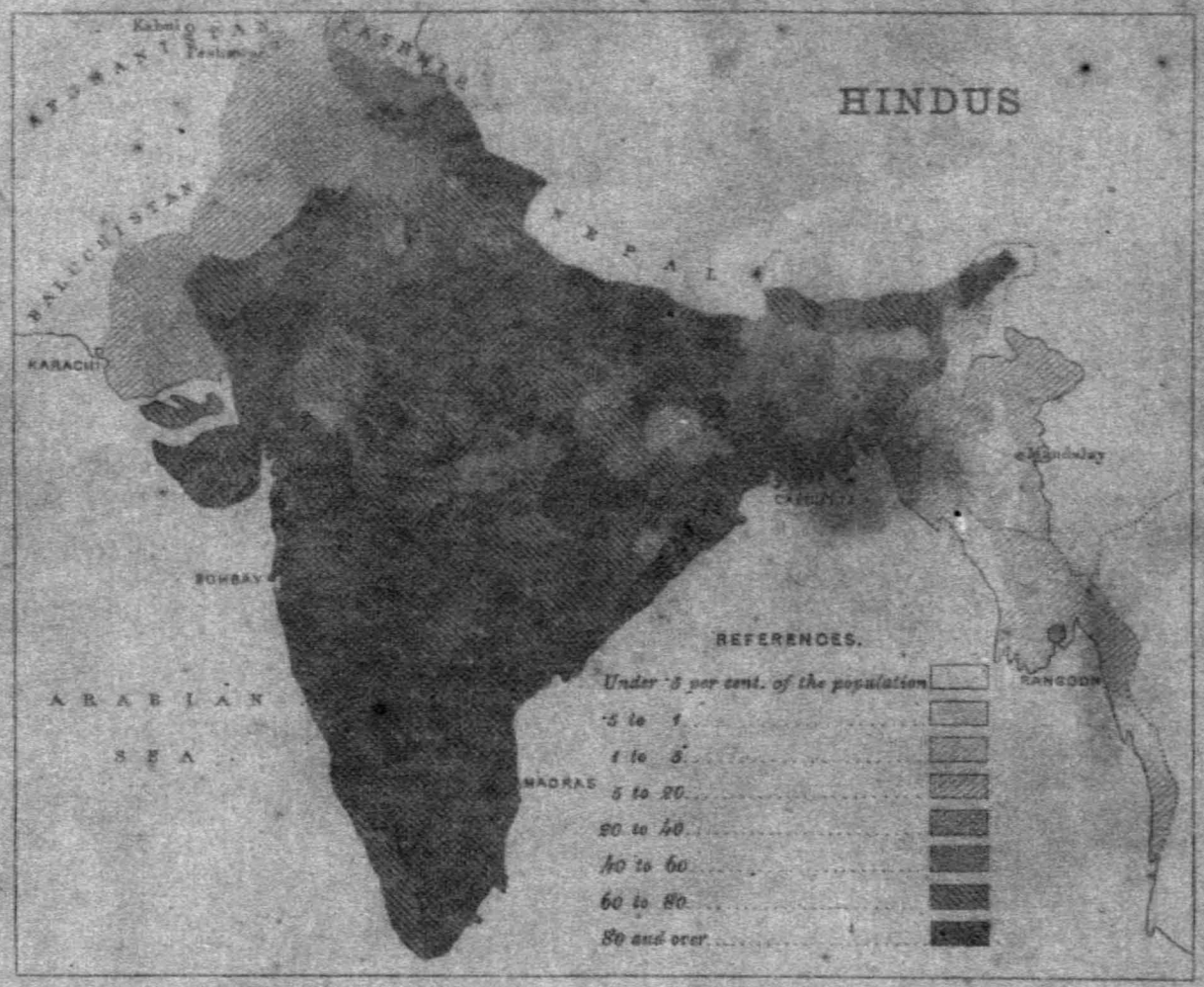
# RELIGIONS.

(SHEET 1.)

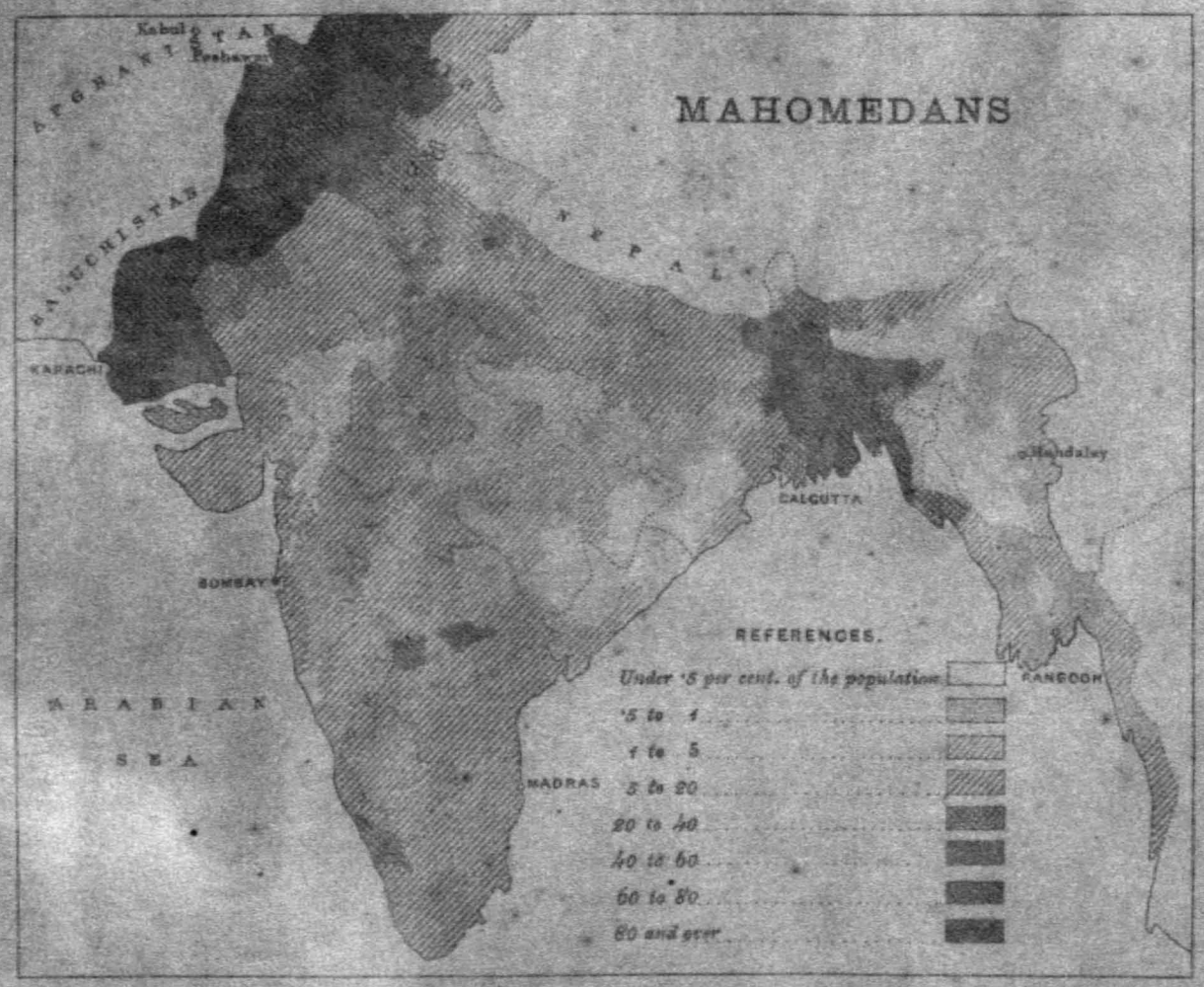
## THE PREVAILING RELIGION IN EACH TRACT.



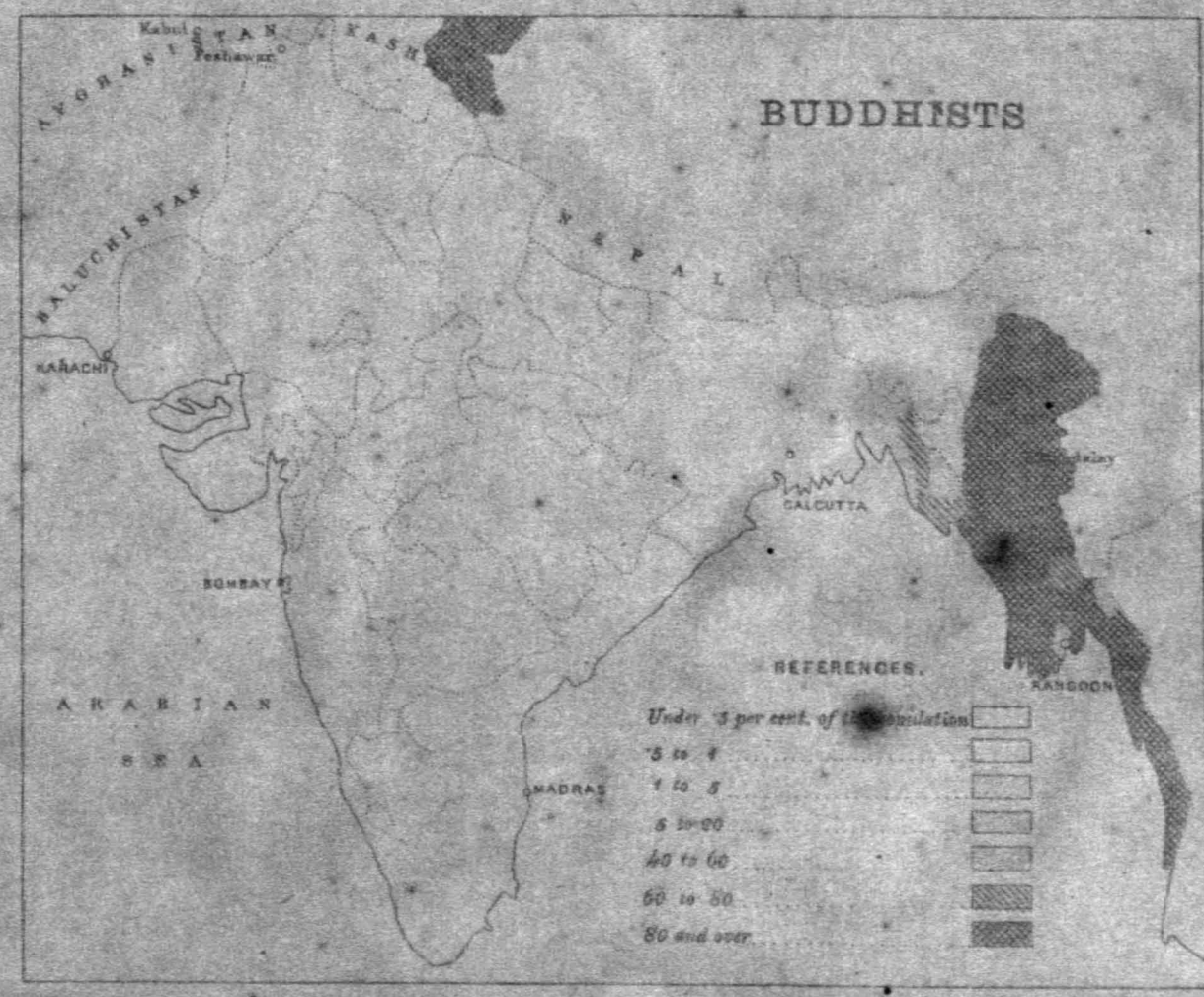

## HINDUS




## MAHOMEDANS




## BUDDHISTS



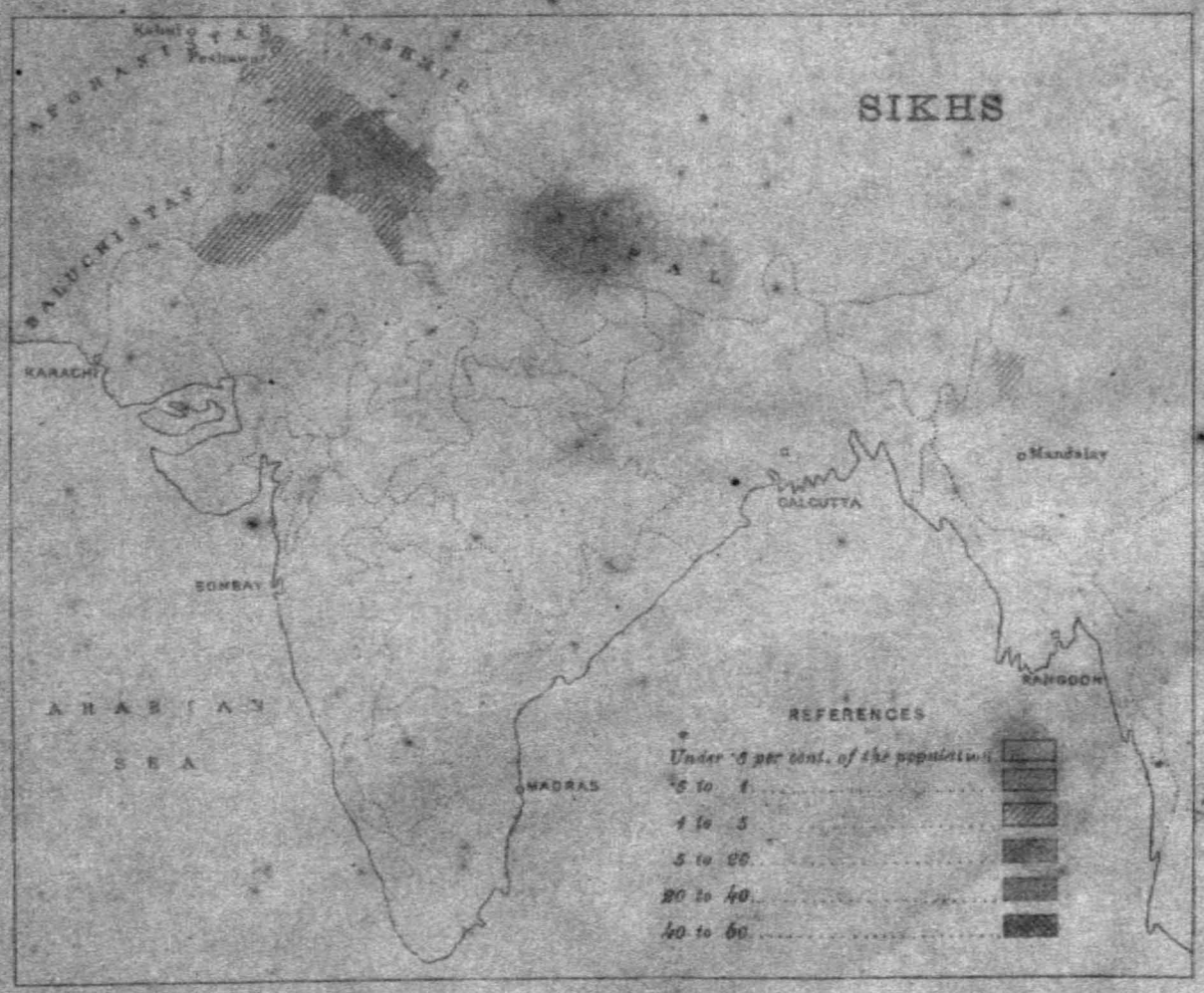

Reg. No. 471. R. & A.—No. 34—3,015.

Litho. S. I. O., Calcutta.

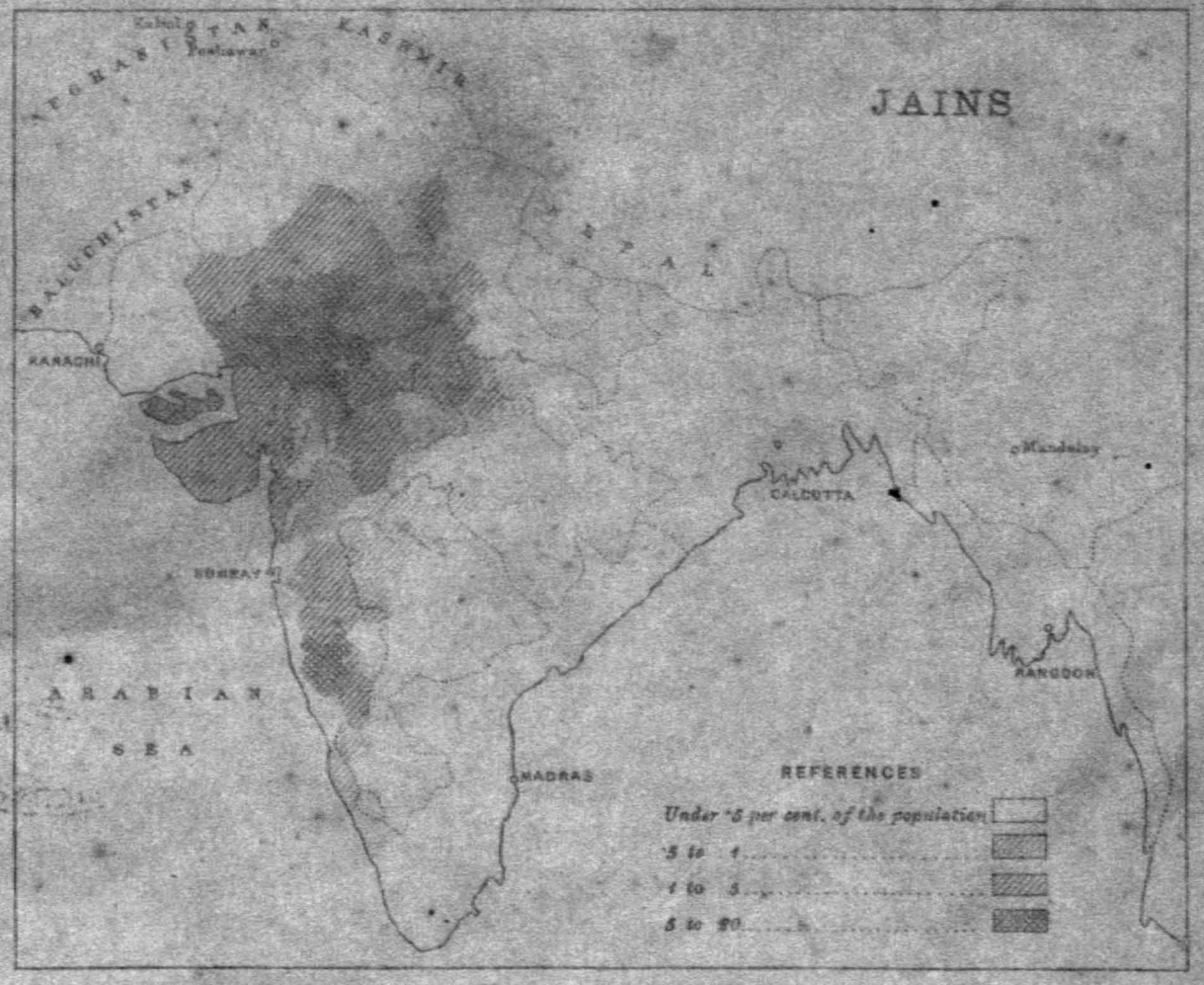
# RELIGIONS.

(SHEET 2)

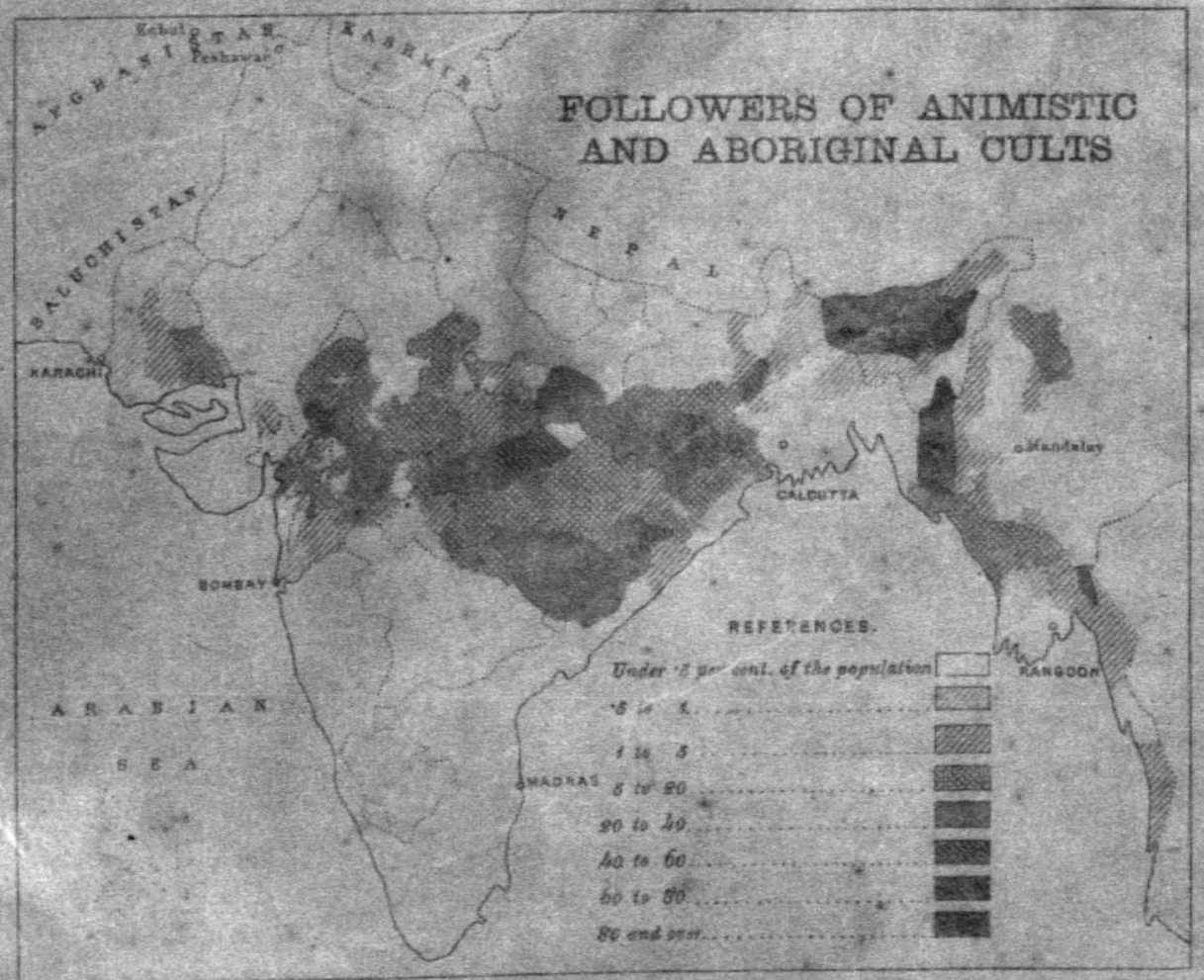
## SIKHS



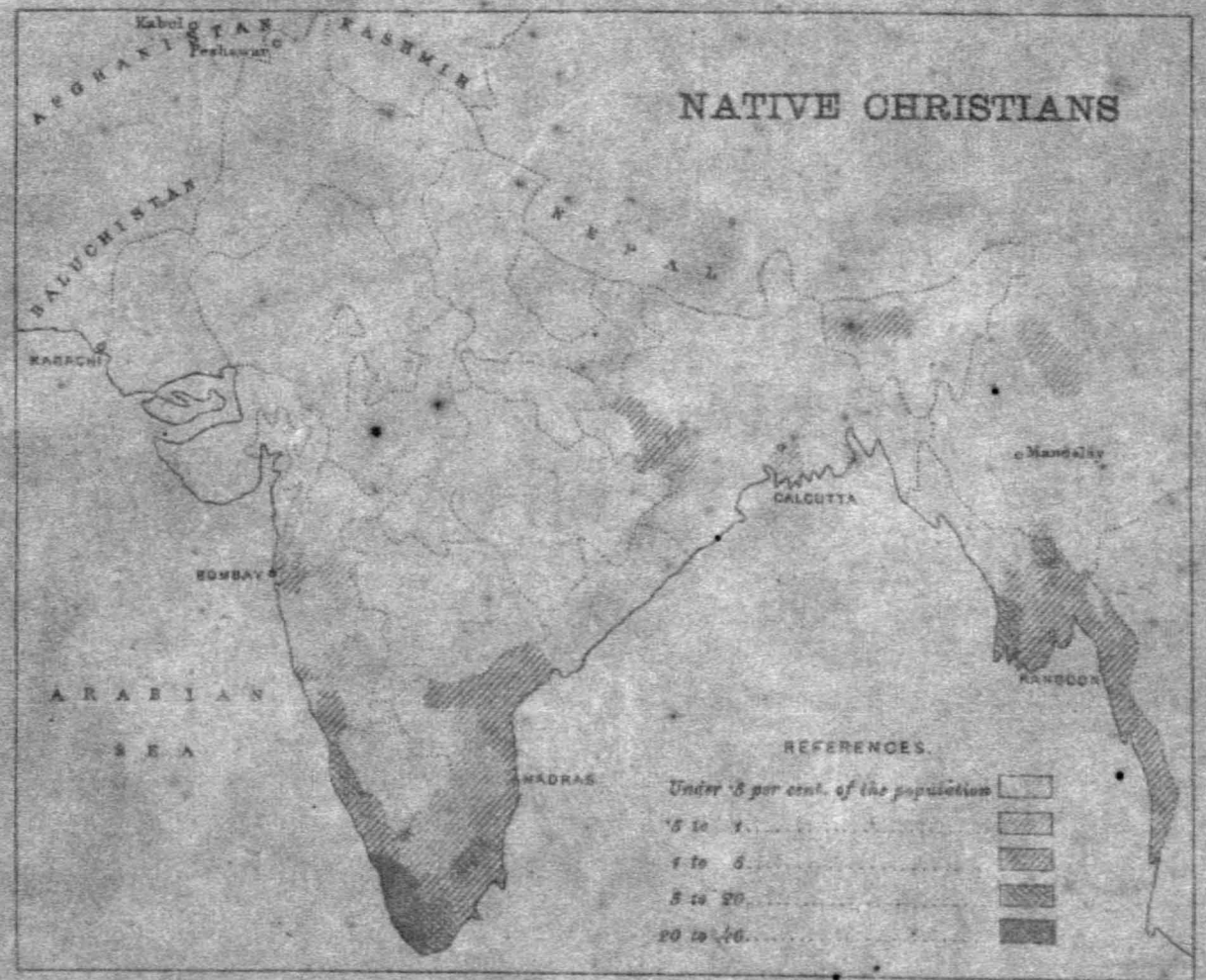

## JAINS




## FOLLOWERS OF ANIMISTIC AND ABORIGINAL CULTS




## NATIVE CHRISTIANS




Reg. No. 263 R. & A.—Dec. 24.—2015.

Litho., S. T. O., Calcutta.

# CHAPTER XV.

# THE PEOPLE.

THE population of India as enumerated at the Census of 1891 is 287,223,431; but if we include the French and Portuguese Settlements and the wilder tracts, where no correct enumeration has yet been made, we may estimate the total population at something over 289,000,000. This represents a number of human beings more than seven times as large as that residing in the British Isles, and more than four times as large as that found in the United States of America. A quarter of this population lives under Native rulers, protected by the British power (see Chapter XIX below), and the remaining three quarters are directly under British Government.

The people are for the most part agricultural and are not crowded into towns as they are in England. It has been estimated that in England 53 per cent. of the whole population is found in towns of 20,000 inhabitants and upwards, whereas in India not 5 per cent. of the people live in such towns. The only really large towns in India are those which, like Calcutta (population with suburbs 961,670) or Bombay (population 821,764), have been raised from the position of petty hamlets by the influence of foreign trade and capital. The people as a rule live in villages, and these villages do not all present the same sort of appearance. Amid the rice fields of Bengal, for instance, we find the people living in small and scattered groups of cottages, built of mats and thatch and embowered in a jungle of bamboos and fruit trees; in the sandy wastes along the Lower Indus each family lives in its mud huts around its own well or upon its own fields; while in North-Western India the whole population of the village crowds at evening with its cattle and all its belongings into a central group of thickly-congregated houses for the most part mud-built. The people who live in these villages are not, like the villagers of England, almost entirely dependent on the towns for their necessaries: each village has its hereditary artizans who, to a very large extent, spin the clothes of the inhabitants, make their shoes, repair their implements, build their houses, fashion their eating and cooking vessels, and so forth. Throughout the greater part of India, too, there is in each village a higher class of inhabitants who own or rent the land, and a lower landless class who help them in their harvesting or weeding, run their messages, guard their houses, or in other ways do menial service for them. The great point to observe, however, is that though there are artizans and menials in these villages as well as men who gain their living directly from the land, the larger number even of the former class is to a great extent dependent on the soil, and indeed upon the harvest, for many of them are remunerated, not by payment for piece-work, but by a customary share of the produce. Thus it may be said that of the whole population of India, some three quarters look to the produce of the land for their living.

It is this which renders the question of the pressure of population on the soil so important in India. This question is alluded to in the chapters on Famines and Emigration, but it may be mentioned here that although the average density of the people in India is 184 to the square mile, which is very much the same as the average density in France, yet, as a glance at the map below will show, the people are by no means evenly distributed over the country. While the hills of the Central Provinces and the sands of Western Rajputana are scarcely occupied at all, great masses of people are huddled together in the Lower Ganges Valley or in the deltas of Southern Madras, and the extent of this so-called "congestion" exceeds anything with which we are acquainted in Europe. Mr. Baines in reporting on the Census of 1891 writes: "In Europe we find three countries with a density of 500 per mile and over, England and Wales with 500, Belgium with 540, and Saxony with nearly 600. The aggregate population of these is 38½ millions. In British India there are 37½ millions of the inhabitants living in the ratio of more than one per acre, or 784, on the average, to the mile. No less than 21½ millions are packed to the extent of 877. The whole of the 37½ millions in question are to be found in the Ganges Valley and Delta and, with the exception of 2½ millions, which may be called suburban, live in the main by cultivation of the soil."

Another feature to be noticed in regard to the 287 millions of people who inhabit India is that they are not one nation. They are not even a collection of different nations such as we have in Europe; nor would it be sufficient to say that they are a collection of different races such as we find in the Turkish Empire and in Austria-Hungary. A considerable part of the population is no doubt divided into races of this type, such as, for instance, the Pathans and Biluchis of the North-Western Frontier, the Bhils, Gonds, and other hill tribes of Central India, the Burmese and the numerous semi-savage people who inhabit the hills on the outskirts of Burma and Assam. It is possible, too, though in some cases not easy, to trace the descent of the different items of the population from several distinct racial sources, such as the Aryan, Scythian, Dravidian, and so forth. But as a general rule the people of India have divided themselves off, on the basis partly of race, partly of occupation, and partly of mere tradition, into a large number of what we may term water-tight compartments, known as castes. Some of these are more distinctly racial in origin, such as the Jats of North-Western India. Others are almost exclusively occupational, such as the 4 millions of Telis or oilmen, the 3 millions of Julahas or weavers, the 11 millions of Chamars or leather workers, the 3 millions of Mahars or village-menials, and many others, though even in these cases, the occupation is for the most part hereditary and its followers confined to it by the accident of their birth. There is a large residuum of castes, however, of which the origin

has not yet been shown to be either entirely racial or entirely occupational, and of these the bulk of the people may be said to be composed. The tillers of the soil, who form the backbone of the country, are of many castes, and of these the most numerous are the Kunbis or Kurmis of Western and Northern India (10 millions), the Vellalas (2 millions), and the Reddis (3 millions) of the South, the Kaibartas and Namasudras (2 millions each) of Bengal, the Kolis (3 millions) of Bombay and the Deccan, the Jats (7 millions) of the North-West, and the Rajputs (10 millions) who are found throughout the north, centre, and west of the country.

There are many castes also who are mainly occupied in trade or in clerkly professions, such as, for instance, the Vanias or Banias, of whom there are 3 millions, and the Kayasths, of whom there are 2 millions. And supreme above them all in sanctity and exclusiveness are 15 millions of Brahmans, who, scattered throughout India, mix in all the higher and many of the lower walks of life, and receive from their co-religionists a vast amount of traditional respect.

It will be inferred from this that caste is essentially a Hindu institution, and so it is in origin as there is nothing in the aboriginal or Muhammadan religions to encourage the formation of a system such as that of caste. But there are many so called castes among the Muhammadans of India and there are many of the country castes in which a large proportion of the people are Muhammadans. A Muhammadan Rajput, for instance, is every whit as much a Rajput as his Hindu brother, and is acknowledged as such. A Hindu on conversion to Islam will be ousted from his Hindu brotherhood, and such converts will form either a separate branch of their original caste or an entirely new caste. When there is not a Muhammadan branch of the caste already existing or when the caste is so low that they are ready to forget it, the most common arrangement is for such converts to give themselves the Arabic tittle of Shaikh, and there are 28 million persons, mostly in Eastern Bengal, who so style themselves, and who as a rule are in no way bound by caste restrictions.

# DENSITY OF POPULATION.

Scale 1 Inch = 192 Miles.

7°0 7°8 8°6 9°4 10°2

28° 20° 12°

AFGHANISTAN

Kabul

PUNJAB

Peshawar

KASHMIR

NEPAL

KARACHI

ARABIAN SEA

BOMBAY

MADRAS

CALCUTTA

BAY OF BENGAL

Mandalay

RANGOON

ANDAMAN ISLANDS

NICOBAR ISLANDS

REFERENCE.

| | |
|---|---|
| Under 50 to the square Mile | |
| 50—119 " " | |
| 120—180 " " | |
| 181—499 " " | |
| 500—799 " " | |
| 800 and over | |

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND

on the same scale

NOTE.—For geographical detail consult the final map (British Provinces & Native States) which can be pulled out so as to lie alongside this map.

Photo. Rec. Dpt. W. & A.—Sept. 94.—20.

Survey of India Office.

# CHAPTER XVI.

# LANGUAGES AND RELIGIONS.

## LANGUAGES.*

ACCORDING to a native saying, the language in India changes every ten miles, and when it is remembered that only six per cent. of the population is not wholly illiterate, it will be understood how difficult it is to define and mark off from each other distinct types of language such as we are accustomed to in European countries. Attempts have, however, been made in this direction, and at the recent census more than 80 distinct languages were found to be in use among the native inhabitants of the Indian Empire.

These languages can, however, be grouped according to their philological relations, and the area covered by the various groups, which are indicated by the colours in the map below, corresponds fairly closely with the area of the predominance of the main race-families. Thus we find in the east and north-east a group of languages which has for convenience been classed as Tibeto-Burman: in the south and south-east a group known as the Dravidian: and over the whole north and west a prevailing group of Aryan origin. The population is classed under these three groups in the following proportions:—

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Talking Tibeto-Burman languages | 3 | per cent. |
| „ Dravidian languages | 20 | „ |
| „ Aryan languages | 75 | „ |

The languages of Tibet and Burma belong to what is known linguistically as the Tonic or Isolating group of languages, and they include the various tongues of the numerous and interesting wild tribes who inhabit the north-eastern frontier. The only languages of this group within the boundaries of the Indian Empire which have any literature of importance are the Burmese and the Tibetan (British India includes a small corner of Tibet in the districts of Lahoul and Spiti, and the Maharaja of Kashmir now rules the rest of the former Tibetan Kingdom of Ladak).

The Dravidian tongues represent a further stage in linguistic progress and are of the "agglutinative" class. In this group are four main languages: the Telegu of Northern Madras, the Tamil of Southern Madras, the Malayalam of the Malabar Coast, and the Kanarese of Kanara, the uplands of Mysore and the Karnatic. Each of these languages has a literature of its own, and the Tamil writings are especially noteworthy. In the literary language, however, though the structure and most of the vocabulary are Dravidian, a considerable number of Aryan words have been introduced through the influence of the Brahmanic religion.

The Aryan group, to which the majority of the languages spoken in India belong, are the modern representation of the Prakrit or vernacular dialects into which the Sanskrit of the original Aryan immigrants from the north-west broke up in the course of the centuries of gradual conquest and occupation which succeeded from the Vedic times. Several of these Prakrit dialects received a literary form in the writings of the Buddhist and Jain reformers; but with the revival of Brahmanism, the parent of modern Hinduism, the Sanskrit language was alone employed for religious, literary and official uses. The modern dialects, the offspring of the popular Prakrits, thus in the course of time received a great accession to their vocabulary from the literary Sanskrit, although the grammar and inflexions, which alone are what determines the character of a language, remained Prakritic. The ancient Sanskrit and the literary Prakrits of Jain and Buddhist literature, like the classical languages of Europe, were synthetical in structure; the modern vernaculars, like those of modern Europe, are analytical. It has been supposed that the change gradually established itself under the influence of the Dravidian and Kolarian forms of speech which were absorbed by the Aryans in their career of conquest, but this hypothesis is doubtful. The phenomena of development in India are exactly analogous to those of Europe, and seem to represent a necessary progress inherent in human speech. Among the Aryan vernaculars seven are worthy of especial notice, *viz.*—(1) Hindi, spoken by 86 millions; (2) Bengali, spoken by 41 millions; and (3) Marathi, spoken by 19 millions; (4) Punjabi, spoken by nearly 18 millions; (5) Gujrati, spoken by 11 millions; (6) Uriya, spoken by 9 millions; (7) Sindhi, spoken by 2½ millions.

The Hindi language has in itself several very marked dialects, and from it, with a large substitution of Persian and Arabic for the original Prakritic vocabulary, has arisen an eighth language known as Hindustani or Urdu, which originated in the immediate surroundings of the Moghul Courts, and which has now spread as a *lingua franca* throughout the areas where the Moghul influence prevailed, more especially in the towns and among the Muhammadan population, and is indeed the means of communication among educated people throughout the greater part of India.

## RELIGIONS.

The maps following the language map below illustrate the distribution of the chief religions of India which are:—

| | *Population.* | *Percentage on total.* |
|---|---|---|
| Animism | 9,000,000 | 3 |
| Hinduism | 208,000,000 | 72 |
| Buddhism | 7,000,000 | 2·5 |
| Jainism | 1,500,000 | ·5 |
| Sikhism | 2,000,000 | ·7 |
| Muhammadanism | 57,000 000 | 20 |
| Christianity | 2,300,000† | 3 |

* The map illustrative of the languages of India is by the kind permission of Messrs. Constable based for the most part on the corresponding map, prepared under the orders of Mr. J. G. Bartholomew, in Constable's Hand-Atlas of India. Some important modifications have, however, been made.

† Including Portuguese and French India the number is 2,600,000.

There are besides 90,000 Parsis and 17,000 Jews.

The term Animism represents the rude spirit-worship and fetishism which is found among the wilder races of the country, more especially among those inhabiting the central hills of the peninsula and the mountainous tracts of Assam and Burma. The majority of the aboriginal races are being gradually brought within the pale of the prevailing Aryan forms of faith.

The vast bulk of the people are Hindus by religion, and a Hindu, generally speaking, worships a plurality of gods, adheres rigidly to the principles of caste, attaches especial reverence to the Brahmans, and looks upon the cow as a sacred animal. It is, however, exceedingly difficult to define what constitutes Hinduism; and as there is no central authority, no organized hierarchy, and no universal canon of scripture, the term has very different meanings in different localities. In its character as a caste organization, Hinduism in some tracts excludes from its pale the menial races which in other tracts are recognized as belonging to it. As a purely religious system, however, it is characterized by an all-embracing tolerance as remarkable as that of classical paganism in Southern Europe, and it recognizes as belonging to itself not only the rudest forms of fetish worship, but also the highest developments of pantheistic and dualistic philosophy. It is a vast congeries of sects or classes which differ from each other on various points of doctrine or observance, but which, as a rule, have little anxiety to force their respective peculiarities upon others. Some of these sects, however, have from time to time displayed a missionary activity. One of the earliest in date and one which has, from its special vitality, separated itself most widely from the parent stock, is *Buddhism*, a re-action against the power of caste and of the Brahmans,—which was, however, swept out of India by the returning wave of Brahmanical influence, and now maintains itself, in a form more or less degraded by animistic ideas and magical ceremonies, along the outskirts of the Thibetan mountains and, in a purer shape derived from the Buddhist schools of Ceylon, in the outlying province of Burma. Another sect which is of equal, if not greater, antiquity, but which has not so definitely parted from the remaining sects of Hinduism, is that of the *Jains*, who hold among their most prominent doctrines the necessity of an extreme carefulness for animal life, and are found in Western and Northern India almost exclusively among the mercantile classes. A much more recent form of faith is that of the *Sikhs*, who by breaking down the barriers of caste and by refusing to smoke or to cut their hair became distinguished from their co-religionists, and by banding themselves to oppose the Mussulman dominion in Northern India, developed during the last century into a remarkable form of militant Hinduism and ultimately into something very like a new nationality.

In Muhammadanism we find the most prominent of the alien religions of India; its adherents are to some extent by origin foreigners from Western and Central Asia, but the majority are converts or the descendants of converts from the indigenous religions. The Muhammadans are found for the most part either in the north-west of India, where the influence of the alien invaders was strongest, or in Eastern Bengal and along the sea-coasts where Islam was fostered by foreign traders or pirates and by a repugnance among the people to Brahmanical ascendancy. The tenets of the Indian Muhammadans are in the main those of their co-religionists elsewhere, and the great majority of them are Sunnis of the school of Abu Hanifah; but in practice they mingle with their religious practices a considerable adherence to the custom of the Hindus among whom they live: and, except along the extreme western frontier and in certain small sects, there is on ordinary occasions little real fanaticism in their nature.

The other great alien faith in India is Christianity, which is professed by over 2,000,000 of the native community. A reference to the third plate below will show that these are found for the most part in the south of the peninsula, where the lower classes felt strongly the yoke of Brahmanism, and where the zeal of the early Portuguese Missionaries found its first field. More than 1,200,000 of the Native Christians of India belong to the Church of Rome and nearly 600,000 to the various reformed churches. There are no accurate figures forthcoming as to the rate of the progress of Christianity among the natives of India, but some idea of its advance may be obtained from the fact that, although the number of Europeans and Eurasians is known to have increased at a comparatively slow rate, the total number of Christians of all races increased by more than 50 per cent. between 1872 and 1891.

# CHAPTER XVII.

# PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

SINCE their first appearance in authentic history, the Indians have always enjoyed the reputation of being a learned people. The Brahmans, it is true, confined their teaching of the *Shastras* to their own and the other two "twice-born" castes, making it penal to communicate any but elementary knowledge to the servile and mixed multitude; but the Buddhist reformation placed religion and education on a more popular basis. After the Musalman conquest the mosque became a centre of instruction and of literary activity. Education alike among the Muhammadans and the Hindus was based upon religion and supported by endowments and bequests for religious objects. When the East India Company first received charge of Bengal from the Delhi Emperor, it aimed only at discharging the duties fulfilled by the previous ruling power. Since the publication of Lord Auckland's minute of 1839, however, education in India has proceeded upon the recognition of the value of English instruction, of the duty of the State to spread Western knowledge among its subjects, and of the valuable aid which missionary and philanthropic bodies can render in the task.

In 1854 the education of the whole people of India was definitely accepted as a State duty, and the Court of Directors laid down with fulness and precision the principles which were to guide the Government of India in the performance of this task. Their despatch of 1854 still forms the charter of education in India: and after the East India Company itself had disappeared, its principles were confirmed by the Secretary of State in a despatch of the 7th April 1859.

*State system of education.*—In every province there exists a Department of Public Instruction under a Director who, with a staff of Inspectors, supervises the working of Departmental Schools and those aided by Government. A net-work of schools has been spread over the country, graduated from the village *páthsálás* to the highest colleges. All receive some measure of pecuniary support on the condition of regular Government inspection, while a series of Primary, Middle, and Entrance scholarships have paved a way to the University for the children of the poor.

In reviewing the recommendations of the commission which was appointed to consider education in India in 1882-83, the Government of India laid down that wherever private enterprise was ready to take its place, the Government Department should withdraw its own schools in favour of aided institutions, at the same time strengthening its machinery for inspection, as a grant-in-aid system postulates a thorough inspection of all institutions brought under it. In Bengal, where the number of State-aided schools and the staff employed on inspection duties is far larger than in any other province, there are upwards of 000 inspecting school-masters, pandits, and gurus. Besides Inspectors and Assistant and Deputy Inspectors, Female Inspectors have also been appointed in several provinces.

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There are besides 90,000 Parsis and 17,000 Jews.

The term Animism represents the rude spirit-worship and fetishism which is found among the wilder races of the country, more especially among those inhabiting the central hills of the peninsula and the mountainous tracts of Assam and Burma. The majority of the aboriginal races are being gradually brought within the pale of the prevailing Aryan forms of faith.

The vast bulk of the people are Hindus by religion, and a Hindu, generally speaking, worships a plurality of gods, adheres rigidly to the principles of caste, attaches especial reverence to the Brahmans, and looks upon the cow as a sacred animal. It is, however, exceedingly difficult to define what constitutes Hinduism; and as there is no central authority, no organized hierarchy, and no universal canon of scripture, the term has very different meanings in different localities. In its character as a caste organization, Hinduism in some tracts excludes from its pale the menial races which in other tracts are recognized as belonging to it. As a purely religious system, however, it is characterized by an all-embracing tolerance as remarkable as that of classical paganism in Southern Europe, and it recognizes as belonging to itself not only the rudest forms of fetish worship, but also the highest developments of pantheistic and dualistic philosophy. It is a vast congeries of sects or classes which differ from each other on various points of doctrine or observance, but which, as a rule, have little anxiety to force their respective peculiarities upon others. Some of these sects, however, have from time to time displayed a missionary activity. One of the earliest in date and one which has, from its special vitality, separated itself most widely from the parent stock, is *Buddhism*, a re-action against the power of caste and of the Brahmans, which was, however, swept out of India by the returning wave of Brahmanical influence, and now maintains itself, in a form more or less degraded by animistic ideas and magical ceremonies, along the outskirts of the Thibetan mountains and, in a purer shape derived from the Buddhist schools of Ceylon, in the outlying province of Burma. Another sect which is of equal, if not greater, antiquity, but which has not so definitely parted from the remaining sects of Hinduism, is that of the *Jains*, who hold among their most prominent doctrines the necessity of an extreme carefulness for animal life, and are found in Western and Northern India almost exclusively among the mercantile classes. A much more recent form of faith is that of the *Sikhs*, who by breaking down the barriers of caste and by refusing to smoke or to cut their hair became distinguished from their co-religionists, and by banding themselves to oppose the Mussulman dominion in Northern India, developed during the last century into a remarkable form of militant Hinduism and ultimately into something very like a new nationality.

In Muhammadanism we find the most prominent of the alien religions of India; its adherents are to some extent by origin foreigners from Western and Central Asia, but the majority are converts or the descendants of converts from the indigenous religions. The Muhammadans are found for the most part either in the north-west of India, where the influence of the alien invaders was strongest, or in Eastern Bengal and along the sea-coasts where Islam was fostered by foreign traders or pirates and by a repugnance among the people to Brahmanical ascendancy. The tenets of the Indian Muhammadans are in the main those of their co-religionists elsewhere, and the great majority of them are Sunnis of the school of Abu Hanifah; but in practice they mingle with their religious practices a considerable adherence to the custom of the Hindus among whom they live: and, except along the extreme western frontier and in certain small sects, there is on ordinary occasions little real fanaticism in their nature.

The other great alien faith in India is Christianity, which is professed by over 2,000,000 of the native community. A reference to the third plate below will show that these are found for the most part in the south of the peninsula, where the lower classes felt strongly the yoke of Brahmanism, and where the zeal of the early Portuguese Missionaries found its first field. More than 1,200,000 of the Native Christians of India belong to the Church of Rome and nearly 600,000 to the various reformed churches. There are no accurate figures forthcoming as to the rate of the progress of Christianity among the natives of India, but some idea of its advance may be obtained from the fact that, although the number of Europeans and Eurasians is known to have increased at a comparatively slow rate, the total number of Christians of all races increased by more than 50 per cent. between 1872 and 1891.

# CHAPTER XVII.

# PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

SINCE their first appearance in authentic history, the Indians have always enjoyed the reputation of being a learned people. The Brahmans, it is true, confined their teaching of the *Shastras* to their own and the other two "twice-born" castes, making it penal to communicate any but elementary knowledge to the servile and mixed multitude; but the Buddhis reformation placed religion and education on a more popular basis. After the Musalman conquest the mosque became a centre of instruction and of literary activity. Education alike among the Muhammadans and the Hindus was based upon religion and supported by endowments and bequests for religious objects. When the East India Company first received charge of Bengal from the Delhi Emperor, it aimed only at discharging the duties fulfilled by the previous ruling power. Since the publication of Lord Auckland's minute of 1839, however, education in India has proceeded upon the recognition of the value of English instruction, of the duty of the State to spread Western knowledge among its subjects, and of the valuable aid which missionary and philanthropic bodies can render in the task.

In 1854 the education of the whole people of India was definitely accepted as a State duty, and the Court of Directors laid down with fulness and precision the principles which were to guide the Government of India in the performance of this task. Their despatch of 1854 still forms the charter of education in India: and after the East India Company itself had disappeared, its principles were confirmed by the Secretary of State in a despatch of the 7th April 1859.

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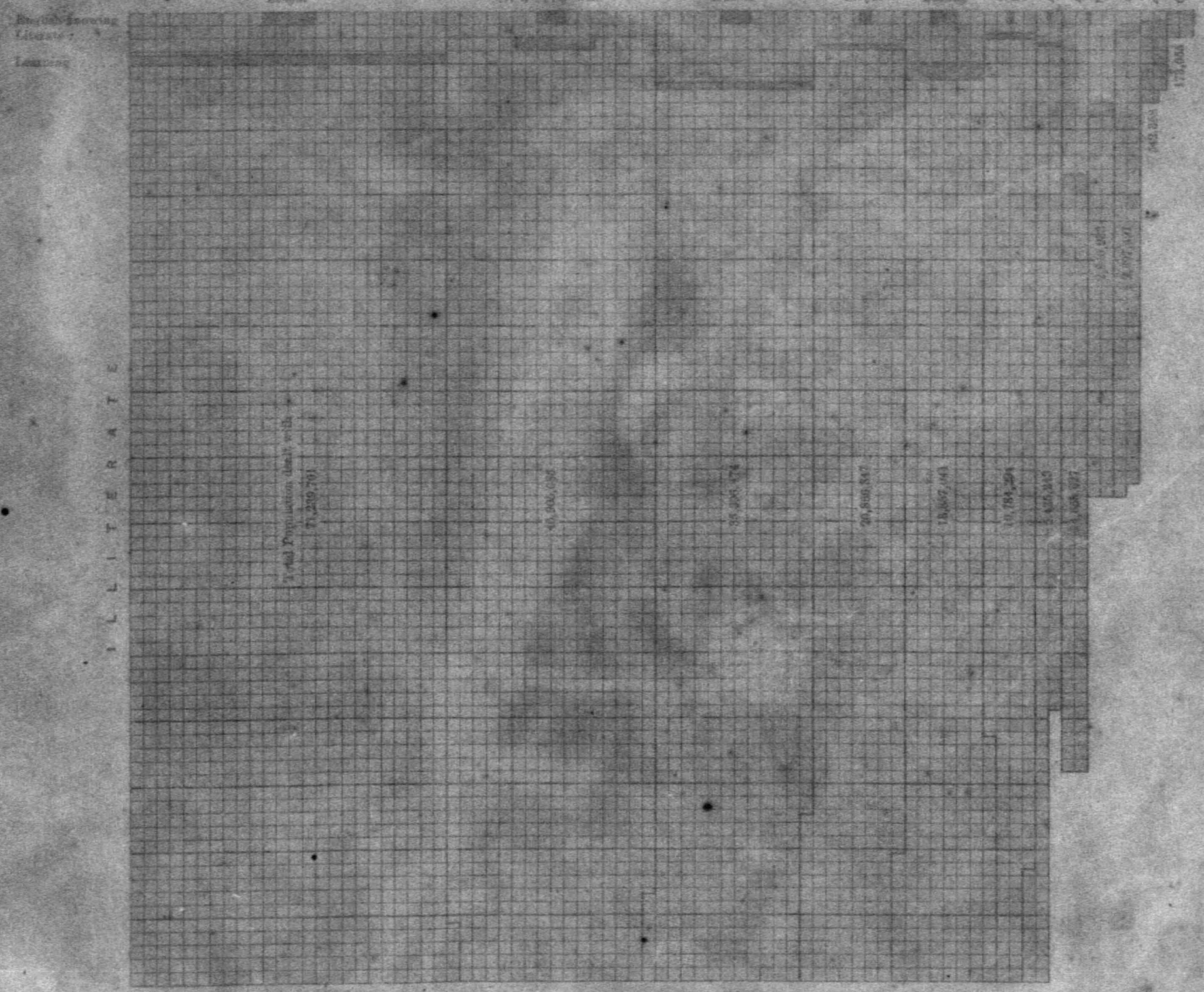
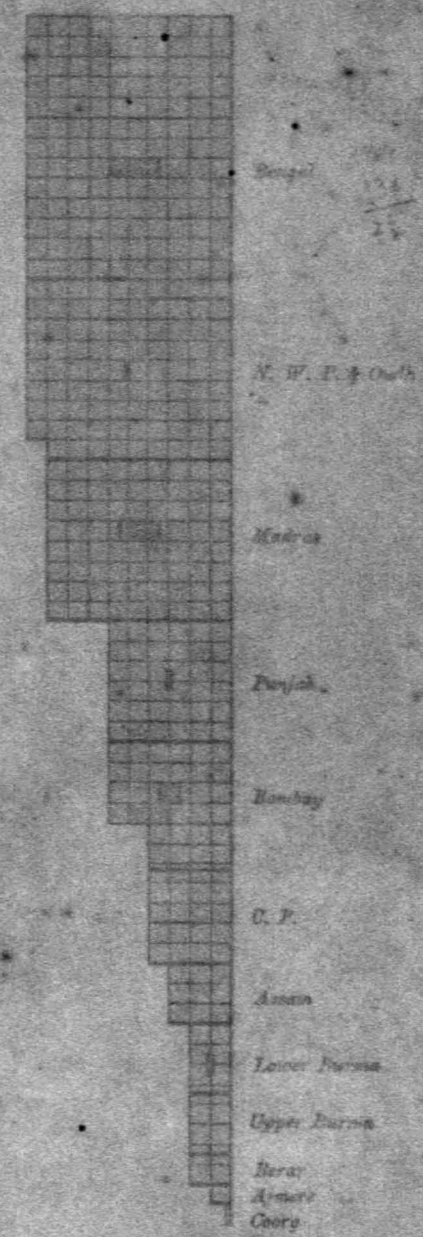
# EDUCATION IN BRITISH INDIA

## AMONG THE POPULATION AT LARGE




## GIRLS AT SCHOOL




Every small square represents 40,000 of the population.

Reg. No. 776. S. & A.—June 94.—3,645.

Litho. S. I. O., Calcutta.

# PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN BRITISH INDIA

Scale 1 Inch = 192 Miles.

70 78 86 94 102

28° 26°

20° 20°

12° 12°

AFGHANISTAN

Kabul

PESHAWAR

KASHMIR

BALUCHISTAN

KARACHI

ARABIAN SEA

BOMBAY

CALCUTTA

BAY OF BENGAL

MADRAS

RANGOON

ANDAMAN ISLANDS

NICOBAR ISLANDS

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Percentage of Children of school-going age at school at Public Institutions—

Under 5 per cent.

From 5 to 8 per cent.

" 10 to 11 "

" 15 to 19 "

20 and over

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ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND on the same scale

Zinco. S. I. O. Calcutta.

# PUBLIC AND PRIVATE INSTRUCTION IN BRITISH INDIA.

Scale 1 Inch = 192 Miles.

7|0° 7|8° 8|6° 9|4° 10|2°

28° 20° 12°

KABUL

Peshawur

KASHMIR

PUNJAB

SIND

BALOCHISTAN

KARACHI

ARABIAN SEA

BOMBAY

RAJPUTANA

CENTRAL INDIA

BAY OF BENGAL

CALCUTTA

Mandalay

RANGOON

MADRAS

ANDAMAN ISLANDS

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Under 5 per cent.

From 5 to 8 per cent.

„ 10 to 15 „

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20 and over.

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ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND on the same scale

NOTE.—For geographical detail consult the final map of British Provinces & Native States which can be pulled out so as to lie alongside this map.

Reg. No. 197, R. & A.—Aug. 84—2,000

Litho., S. I. O., Calcutta.

demand by the people for a better secular education. The Education Commission of 1882 expressed with emphasis the view, which was approved by the Government of India, that the elementary education of the masses was that part of the educational system to which the efforts of the State should be directed in an increasing measure. Primary education, it was added, possessed an almost exclusive claim upon Local Funds set apart for education, and a large claim on Provincial revenues. In 1891-92 the total expenditure from public funds (*viz.*, Provincial revenues, District and Municipal funds) was R49,29,551. In addition to the direct expenditure on Primary Schools, there is the expenditure on training teachers for employment in such schools, which, in 1891-92, amounted to R5,72,405. In that year the amount contributed from Municipal funds in the whole of India towards expenditure on Primary Schools for boys was R4,90,378, and that contributed by Local Funds R28,49,553. The expenditure from fees was R27,45,075. Fees in Primary Schools are charged in most provinces to all pupils able to pay them; but the levy of fees from the children of those paying an educational cess, though recommended by the Education Commission, is not carried out at present in the Punjab, owing to the opposition of the agricultural community, and where the schools have been entrusted to District Boards under the measures connected with Local Self-Government, it has been in several provinces made discretional with the Boards to levy fees.

*Female education.*—In 1891-92 the total number of public Primary Schools for girls was 5,228, and they were attended by 157,183 pupils. The total number of Secondary Schools was 434, attended by 34,306 pupils. The number of girls at Secondary Schools for both boys and girls was 35,294. It is said that two-thirds of the girls attending private institutions are taught in Koran schools. In the North-Western Provinces and Oudh the percentage (0·32) of girls under instruction to the female population of school-going age is lower than in any other province. In most provinces there are a considerable number of little girls attending boys' Primary Schools, the number of whom in 1891-92 was 119,848. There were 45 female students on the rolls of Arts Colleges. The only province which possesses a special college for girls teaching up to the B. A. standard is Lower Bengal. The charges met from fees have risen to R6,25,350, and public expenditure is now only 35·7 per cent. of the cost. The increase in fees, however, has taken place mainly in European girls' schools. A rapid increase of girls under education in the Madras Presidency has followed on the establishment in 1888-89 of a special inspecting staff for girls' schools, though the increase as yet is chiefly in the lowest stages of instruction. In all provinces higher grants are given to girls' schools than to boys' schools, and on easier terms. The examination in subjects suitable for girls as an alternative to the Matriculation Examination which was recommended by the Education Commission, has not yet been established in any province; but a higher examination for women exists in Madras, and there is a separate examination for European girls in several provinces. Very few girls reach the moderate standard of general knowledge required for admission to training schools for female teachers. A "training school and home," especially for Hindu widows, has been established at Beranagar in Bengal, and an institution of a similar character at Poona.

*Normal and other special schools.*—The view of the Education Commission of 1882-83 was that there should be a Normal School, that is, a school for training teachers, in each Inspector's circle, and the Government of India in 1887 insisted on the importance of maintaining properly conducted schools for teachers. In 1891-92 there were 115 training schools for masters with 4,353 pupils, and 37 training schools for mistresses with 793 pupils. The outlay from the revenues of the various provinces on schools for masters under public management was R3,31,470. A large share of the cost of training mistresses is borne by Missionary Societies. Most of the training schools in Madras were under the control of District Boards till the end of 1890-91; but the results of this system were found unsatisfactory, and all but two of the schools have been transferred to the charge of the Education Department. In the North-Western Provinces and Oudh no practising schools have been attached to the training schools, as is considered advisable in all other parts of British India. The Bengal Government, owing to want of funds, substitutes, instead of Normal Schools for the training of teachers of Lower Primary Schools, a system of instructing these teachers or *gurus* by means of moveable schools (training the *gurus* of one locality and then moving elsewhere) and classes for *gurus* attached to certain selected Middle Schools. Effective measures appear to have been taken in Madras and in the North-Western Provinces for diminishing the number of uncertificated teachers in charge of schools. Similar steps are being taken in other provinces, and, generally speaking, the supply of Normal Schools seems to be sufficient to provide teachers at least for Middle and Upper Primary Schools. The main difficulty with regard to providing trained female teachers is said to be in the reluctance of Hindu and Muhammadan young women to accept this employment.

*Technical Education.*—The subject of technical education was brought prominently to the notice of the Provincial Governments in 1886, and it was recommended that drawing and introductory science should be studied in all Middle and High Schools; that there should be a practical or "modern" side in high schools, and that a "modern" University Entrance Examination should be adopted as recommended by the Education Commission. It was suggested that special schools in the various departments of Arts should be established; that a technical branch to teach and improve a local industry should be attached in some places to Middle and High Schools, and that the whole body of technical institutions should be systematized and placed under central colleges to be affiliated to the University. The technical schools in the Madras Presidency are the School of Arts, the Victoria Technical Institute, and the College of Agriculture at Saidapet. There were 426 students at the School of Art in 1891-92, and the institution seems to be flourishing and useful. Numerous industrial schools (often charitable institutions) exist in Madras, but in many of them boys are simply being trained to trades. In Bombay the "Reay Art Workshops" were, in 1890, added to the School of Art, and speedily received numerous apprentices in wood-carving and other artistic industries. The Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute at Bombay was opened to students in 1888. The course is calculated to train a student in three sessions to be a fair mechanical engineer. The Ripon Textile School, which is attached to the institute, had 1,148 students in all in four years, and all the Textile, and many of the engineering students who had completed the course, found ready employment. The Poona College of Science maintains classes in science, engineering, and agriculture, besides classes, independent of the University, for training subordinates of the Public Works and Forest Departments. A Veterinary College was established at Bombay in 1886. There were 16 Industrial Schools in this presidency in 1892, besides industrial classes attached to ordinary schools. In Bengal the Seebpore College provides instruction in engineering, and the Local Government now guarantees to graduates in engineer-

ing certain appointments in the Public Works Department. The number of students in the engineer classes at Seebpore was 87 in 1891-92. The Calcutta School of Art trains general and engineering draughtsmen, architects, modellers, wood engravers and lithographers. There are 21 industrial schools in Bengal. In the North-Western Provinces and Oudh an industrial school has been opened at Lucknow, and an Agricultural School has (during 1893) been established at Cawnpore. The Thomason Engineering College at Roorkee has recently been reorganized. In the Punjab standards for industrial schools have been drawn up, and grants offered to schools under private management. All the industrial schools are under the supervision of the principal of the Mayo School of Industrial Art (which contained 134 students in 1891-92). The number, however, is as yet inconsiderable. A railway technical school, intended for the sons of railway artisans, was opened in 1889, and speedily filled. In the Central Provinces fifteen technical scholarships are offered annually by the administration, tenable for two years in the workshops of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway. An engineering class was opened at Nagpur in July 1888; also an Agricultural class in connection with the Nagpur Experimental Farm. In Lower Burma 8 stipendiary apprenticeships are given yearly in the State Railway workshops at Insein. There is little demand for technical education in Assam, and the establishment of certain scholarships to be held by Assam boys attending the Seebpore College in Bengal is considered sufficient.

# CHAPTER XVIII.

# EMIGRATION.

THE density of the population in certain parts of the country has already been noticed in Chapter XV. One of the methods by which this density may be relieved is the emigration of the people either to other parts of India or to countries outside India.

But the native of India is not a ready emigrant. He has as a rule little of the commercial instinct: he finds it difficult to settle among men of strange language and race: and he is in many cases forbidden by his religious ideas from crossing the sea. In India itself he is often ready to move within a certain radius from his home or even to travel to considerable distances for temporary work on roads or harvest operations, returning to his home after a few weeks or months. But the chief difficulty remains that he is most unwilling to move from the overcrowded tracts to lands that are in need of labour, and this chapter is a record of the little that it has been found possible to do and the great deal that is still left to do for the encouragement of emigration in this direction.

In some few cases agriculturists have gone out to jungle areas which they have been induced to clear and cultivate, but the tracts in which this form of emigration has succeeded (as it has in Jagdispur, Chanchal, the Guma Dwar, and Charwa) are limited. A larger measure of success has attended the steps lately taken in the Punjab to colonize waste lands which have been brought under irrigation from Government canals. On the Sohag and Para, Sidhnai and Chenab canals in that province, an area of more than a thousand square miles has been so colonized, and there are still large tracts which can be similarly reclaimed.

The tea gardens of Assam have been the cause of a very considerable wave of emigration into that province, more especially from Behar and Chutia Nagpur. Local labour in Assam is sparse and unsatisfactory, and the tea cultivation is carried on by labourers or "coolies" from distant parts of India. As these labourers are, as a rule, unable to pay their way to the gardens, the expenses of their journey are defrayed by the planting community, in return for which the planters are allowed to retain the coolies under a penal contract for four years. The recruiting of these labourers, their wages, their treatment, their accommodation, the sanitation of their surroundings, the provision of medical attendance, and so forth are carefully supervised by the Government, and on the conclusion of their term of indenture a large number of the coolies settle down in the new country. Some 45,000 persons now emigrate under contract every year to Assam, and the coolie population under contract in that province in 1891 was 437,400, or 242,000 more than in 1881. The Assam emigration, however, does not relieve the congested districts only, for a large number of the labourers are recruited from the sparsely populated tracts of the Sontal Parganas and Chutia Nagpur, the inhabitants of which are stronger and better able to endure the Assam climate than labourers from the crowded areas of Behar and the North-Western Provinces.

The mill-labour in the town of Bombay attracts a large number of men from the dense population of the Bombay seaboard, and there is a very considerable temporary migration for harvesting operations between Madras and Ceylon, and between Chittagong and the adjacent parts of Burma, and again for road-making from the crowded tracts between Lucknow and Patna to Eastern Bengal and Central India. Emigration of a permanent character from India to Burma is yet in its infancy, though efforts have been made both by Government and by private capitalists to foster it.

Indian labourers emigrate to the Straits Settlements where their welfare is provided for by local legislation, and also to certain of the neighbouring States which have given similar guarantees for their well-being.

India is also the chief source of the labour supply of several of the British and Foreign colonies. In the British colonies there are 500,000 Indian labourers, of whom 40,000 are in Natal, 70,000 in Trinidad, 100,000 in British Guiana, and 250,000 in Mauritius. There are, besides, 6,000 in the Dutch colony of Surinam and 22,000 in the French colony of Réunion.

The usual practice is for the coolie to bind himself in India, to an indenture for five years' service, in return for which he is provided with a free passage to the colony, and is allowed after remaining ten years in the colony to return to India free of charge.

As in the case of Assam, the recruitment and transport of the emigrants to the colonies is carefully controlled by Government, and their welfare in the colonies is regulated by supplementary local legislation.

The Government of India are supplied with regular information as to the condition of the Indian labourers in the various colonies, and in more than one instance has barred emigration to colonies in which it had reason to suppose that the coolies were improperly treated.

A comparison of the map attached to this chapter with that which represents the density of the population (Chapter V) will show that the colonial emigration is so far beneficial that it affects some of the most densely populated tracts of India. The total number of emigrants is, however, insignificant, the average for the last three years being 16,500 only. Of these many return to their homes, but as a rule the returning emigrants bring considerable savings with them, and the wealth thus introduced into the country exceeds R8,00,000 per annum.

It is obvious that this form of emigration—whether it be regarded as a means of reducing the population of congested areas or as a means of adding to the capital of the country—is one which deserves encouragement, and it is also clear that it has much scope for further development. An attempt has been made in the sketch map attached to show the large areas available in the tropical regions of the East where the white man cannot, as a rule, undergo manual labour. It will be seen that in the fertile and sparsely populated tracts of the Dutch Indies alone there is a field for

emigration nearly equal in area to another India, and that considerable openings are possible on both the Australian and the African Continents. Numerous efforts have been made by the Indian Government to initiate emigration to these new fields, but from various causes—in some places from Chinese competition, in others from the opposition of the white labourers, and in others again from a dislike to the elaborate safeguards for the coolie's welfare insisted on by the Indian Government—the attempts to foster new openings for the Indian emigrant have as yet had little success.


NOTE.—The countries coloured red in the above sketch are those already open to Indian labour: the black colour represents roughly the area still uncultivated which is suitable for emigration.

# CHAPTER XIX.

# FEUDATORY STATES.

THE subjoined list contains the names of the principal ruling Chiefs in India. Including the rulers of the petty States which have not been separately named, there are 631 Chiefs. The degrees of sovereignty enjoyed by the rulers, the size, wealth, strength, and importance of the States, present an infinite variety. The internal administration, in the absence of exceptional and temporary circumstances, is, to an extent which varies with the measure of sovereignty enjoyed by each State, in the hands of its ruling Chief; but he owns allegiance to the British Government, and the Native States in India have no external relations.

Outside the confines of India there are States likewise having political relations with the British Government of different degrees of intimacy. Such are Maskat on the Arabian Coast of the Persian Gulf, Afghanistan, Nepal, and Bhutan, the statistics of which cannot be given with accuracy. As regards their external relations they are within the sphere of action of the Indian Government, and by geographical contiguity some are naturally brought into more or less close communion with the neighbouring districts of India.

The Native States—varying in area as they do from Hyderabad with 82,698 square miles and a population of 11,537,040 to places like Darkuti in the Punjab measuring 5 miles and containing 595 souls, or Bija, another petty State in the same province, with an area of 4 miles and a population numbering 1,171—form in the aggregate a very important part of India. In a total area which is computed at about 1,560,000 square miles, the Native States claim about 712,000 square miles; and of the total population of India, which, according to the census of 1891 and other returns, numbered 287,223,000, the Native States own something like 66,330,000.

As the degree of autonomy necessarily varies in so diversified a collection of States, so also does the channel through which their political relations with the Government are conducted. In this respect, however, geographical position as well as political importance is a factor, and the States are divided according as those relations are carried on directly with the Foreign Department of the Government of India, or with one of the several Local Governments and Administrations.

In the first class are Kashmir, Hyderabad, Mysore, Baroda, and the Baluchistan, Rajputana, and Central India Agencies. The last Agency includes in the first rank Indore and Gwalior, the territories of the Maharajas Holkar and Sindhia, and 141 other States, some of which are of trifling importance. The territories of His Highness the Maharaja of Jamu and Kashmir extend from the Punjab far into the mountain regions of the Himalayas, and touch on their further side independent and foreign territory; in area at least this State is the second in India. From the time when the Maharaja of Jamu was given the lands which British arms had won for him, his connection with the Punjab, before and after its final subjection, continued most intimate until, in 1885, a resident political officer directly under the Government of India was accredited to the State, and the Government of the Punjab ceased to have direct dealings with it.

The rights and the internal authority, the ceremonial and other relations of the different States with the paramount power are regulated by treaties or engagements and by old usage and tradition. Most of the large States possess some nominal military force, but these 'armies' are principally employed on police duties or for purposes of display. Selected contingents from their forces have, in the past few years, been placed by the leading States at the disposal of the Government of India, and have been formed into the fine body of auxiliaries known as the "Imperial Service troops."

| Name of State. | Name and title of Chief. | Age of Chief. | Area of State in square miles. | Population of State. | Military Force. | | | Salute of Chief in guns. | Date of succession of Chief. | Remarks. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Cavalry. | Infantry. | Serviceable guns. | | | |
| **Having Political Relations direct with the Government of India.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Years. | | | | | | | | |
| Baroda | H. H. Maharaja Sir Sayaji Rao Gaekwar, G.C.S.I. | 29 | 8,569 | 2,415,396 | 3,500 | 4,988 | 34 | 21 | 27th May 1875. | |
| Hyderabad | H. H. Nawab Mir Sir Mahbub Ali Khan, G.C.S.I. | 27 | 82,698 | 11,537,040* | 5,968 | 24,102 | 25 | 21 | 26th February 1869. | * Excluding the Hyderabad Assigned Districts. |
| Jamu and Kashmir | Colonel H. H. Maharaja Partab Singh | 43 | 80,000 | 2,543,952† | 531 | 6,482 | 267 | 19 | 12th September 1885. | † Including Gilgit, Skardo, and Punch. |
| Kalat | H. H. Mir Mahmud Khan, C.I.E. | About 29 | 106,000 | 320,500 | 300 | 1,500 | 6 | 19 | 15th August 1893. | |
| Mysore | Colonel H. H. Maharaja Sir Chama Rajendra Wadiar Bahadur, G.C.S.I. | 30 | 27,936½ | 4,843,523 | 1,228 | 2,353 | 10 | 21 | 30th March 1868. | |

*And Las Bela in the Beluchistan Agency.*

| Name of State. | Name and title of Chief. | Age of Chief. | Area of State in square miles. | Population of State. | Military Force: Cavalry. | Military Force: Infantry. | Military Force: Serviceable guns. | Salute of Chief in guns. | Date of succession of Chief. | Remarks. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Having Political Relations direct with the Government of India—*continued*.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **In Central India.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ajaigarh | H. H. Maharaja Ranjor Singh Bahadur | 44 | 802·30 | 93,030 | 97 | 544 | 9 | 11 | 9th September 1859. | |
| Alirajpur | Rana Partab Singh | 12 | 836·63 | 70,091 | 11 | 157 | 4 | 9 | 14th February 1891. | |
| Barwani | Rana Indarjit Singh | 53 | 1,362 | 80,264 | 17 | 227 | 3 | 9 | 15th August 1880. | |
| Bhopal | H. H. Nawab Shah Jahan Begam, G.C.S.I., C.I. | 55 | 6,784 | 954,901 | 510 | 2,046 | 4 | 19 | 31st October 1868. | |
| Bijawar | H. H. Maharaja Bhan Pratab Singh | 50 | 973·56 | 122,914 | 100 | 975 | 5 | 11 | 2nd November 1847. | |
| Charkhari | H. H. Maharaja Mukhan Singh | 22 | 879·89 | 143,261 | 183 | 1,600 | 24 | 11 | 10th July 1880. | |
| Chhatarpur | H. H. Raja Vishwanath Singh | 26 | 1,240 | 173,874 | 40 | 1,276 | 34 | 11 | 4th November 1867. | |
| Datia | H. H. Maharaja Bhawani Singh | 47 | 836·80 | 185,728 | 937 | 4,999 | 48 | 15 | 20th November 1857. | |
| Dhar | H. H. Maharaja Sir Anand Rao Puar, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. | 48 | 1,739 | 167,504 | 367 | 1,877 | 5 | 15 | May 1860. | |
| Gwalior | H. H. Maharaja Madho Rao Sindhia | 16 | 29,047 | 3,378,774 | 5,304 | 11,040 | 48 | 19 | 3rd July 1886. | |
| Indore | H. H. Maharaja Sir Shivaji Rao Holkar, G.C.S.I. | 33 | 8,400 | 1,091,689 | 3,744 | 5,238 | 24 | 19 | 12th July 1886. | |
| Jaora | Major H. H. Nawab Muhammad Ismail Khan | 37 | 872 | 112,286 | 63 | 719 | 4 | 13 | 30th April 1865. | |
| Jhabua | H. H. Raja Gopal Singh | 52 | 1,336 | 119,787 | 64 | 253 | 2 | 11 | 1841. | |
| Narsingarh | H. H. Raja Mahtab Singh | 53 | 720 | 112,427 | 318 | 450 | 8 | 11 | 28th June 1890. | |
| Orchha (or Tehri) | H. H. Maharaja Partap Singh | 38 | 1,933 | 333,389 | 350 | 4,400 | 90 | *17 | 15th March 1874. | * Including two guns personal. |
| Panna | H. H. Maharaja Mahindra Bahadur | ... | 2,568·33 | 239,052 | 165 | 1,507 | 13 | 11 | ..... | |
| Rajgarh (Bhopal) | H. H. Raja Balbahadur Singh | 35 | 642 | 122,641 | 300 | 360 | 2 | 11 | 6th July 1882. | |
| Rajgarh | H. H. Raja Sajan Singh | 12 | 1,200 | 87,310 | 134 | 657 | 2 | 11 | 6th March 1893. | |
| Rewah | H. H. Maharaja Vyankatesh Raman Singh | 16 | 13,000 | 1,508,176 | 717 | 2,775 | 9 | 17 | 4th February 1880. | |
| *And one hundred and twenty-four Chiefs having less than 500 square miles of territory, or having territories the areas of which are not known.* | | | | | | | | | | |
| **In Rajputana.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Alwar | H. H. Maharaja Jai Singh | 11 | 3,144 | 767,786 | 2,137 | 3,697 | 272 | 15 | 5th June 1892. | |
| Banswara | H. H. Maharawal Lachhman Singh | 59 | 1,946 | 211,641 | 635 | 755 | 6 | 15 | 1842. | † Including its Feudatory, Kushalgarh. |
| Bharatpur | H. H. Maharaja Ram Singh | 22 | 1,989 | 640,303 | 1,643 | 7,856 | 12 | 17 | 19th December 1893. | |
| Bikanir | H. H. Maharaja Ganga Singh | 13 | 23,173 | 831,955 | 394 | 483 | 58 | 17 | 19th August 1887. | |
| Bundi | H. H. Maharao Raja Raghubir Singh, G.C.S.I., C.I.E. | 24 | 2,220 | 295,675 | 446 | 1,835 | 129 | 17 | 25th March 1889. | |
| Dholpur | H. H. Maharaj Rana Nihal Singh (a) | 30 | 1,154 | 279,890 | 138 | 1,546 | 17 | 15 | 9th February 1873. | |
| Dungarpur | H. H. Maharawal Udai Singh | 53 | 1,447 | 165,400 | 251 | 535 | 2 | 15 | 28th September 1846. | |
| Jaipur | H. H. Maharaja Sir Madho Singh, G.C.S.I. | 32 | 15,579 | 2,823,966 | 3,578 | 16,099 | About 140 | 19‡ | 18th September 1880. | ‡ Including two guns personal. |
| Jaisalmir | H. H. Maharawal Salivahan Bahadur | 7 | 16,062 | 115,701 | 93 | 275 | 17 | 15 | 12th April 1891. | |
| Jhalawar | H. H. Maharaj Rana Zalim Singh | 28 | 2,722 | 343,601 | 403 | 3,873 | 24 | 15 | 24th June 1876. | |
| Jodhpur (Marwar) | H. H. Maharaja Sir Jaswant Singh, G.C.S.I. | 56 | 34,963 | 2,528,178 | 3,269§ | 3,548 | 75 | 21‖ | 13th February 1873. | § Including camel sowars. ‖ Including four guns personal. |
| Karauli | H. H. Maharaja Bhanwar Pal | 30 | 1,242 | 156,587 | 281 | 1,663 | 10 | 17 | 14th August 1886. | |
| Kishengarh | H. H. Maharaja Sir Sardul Singh, G.C.I.E. | 39 | 858 | 125,516 | 499 | 2,000 | 51¶ | 15 | 25th December 1879. | ¶ Serviceable and unserviceable. |
| Kotah | H. H. Maharao Umed Singh | 20 | 3,764 | 526,267 | 949 | 5,750 | 93 | 17 | 11th June 1889. | |
| Partabgarh | H. H. Maharawat Raghunath Singh | 35 | 886 | 87,973 | 337** | 454 | 2 | 15 | 18th February 1890. | ** Including feudatories. |
| Sirohi | H. H. Maharao Kesri Singh | 35 | 1,964 | 190,836 | 111 | 527 | 5 | 15 | 16th September 1875. | |
| Tonk | H. H. Nawab Sir Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan, G.C.I.E. | 44 | 2,552 | 380,069 | 519 | 2,081 | 77 | 17 | 20th December 1867. | |
| Udaipur (Meywar) | H. H. Maharana Sir Fateh Singh, G.C.S.I. | 44 | 12,753 | 1,363,126 | 5,560 | 14,186 | 257 | 19 | 21st December 1884. | |
| *And two Chiefs having less than 500 square miles of territory.* | | | | | | | | | | |

(a) The Chief is an Honorary Major in the British Army.

# EMIGRATION.

Scale 1 Inch = 192 Miles.

70° 78° 86° 94° 102°

26° 20° 12°

KABUL

KASHMIR

AFGHANISTAN

BALUCHISTAN

KARACHI

ARABIAN SEA

BOMBAY

MADRAS

CALCUTTA

BAY OF BENGAL

Mandalay

RANGOON

ANDAMAN ISLANDS

NICOBAR ISLANDS

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND
on the same scale

REFERENCES.

Districts in respect of which the number of the population registered for Emigration to the Colonies between 1899 and 1902 is—

200 per million and less

Above 200 and below 500 per million

" 500 " " 1,000 " "

1,000 per million

NOTE.—For topographical detail consult the final map. British Provinces & Native States which can be pasted and so as to fit along side this map.

Reg. No. 145 A. & A.—Sept. 04.—0.75.

Litho. S. & O. Papers

| Name of State. | Name and title of Chief. | Age of Chief. | Area of State in square miles. | Population of State. | Military Force. Cavalry. | Infantry. | Serviceable guns. | Salute of Chief in guns. | Date of succession of Chief. | Remarks. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Having Political Relations direct with the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces—*continued*.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Rajgarh-Bargarh | Raja Bhoj Deo Singh | 25 | 1,486 | 168,525 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 7th June 1890. | |
| Rairakhol | Raja Bishan Chandra Jananmni | 73 | 833 | 20,335 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1825. | |
| Sarangarh | Raja Lal Jaivahir Singh | 5 | 540 | 83,210 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 2nd October 1890. | |
| Sonpur | Raja Pratap Rudra Singh Deo | 38 | 906 | 195,245 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 5th November 1891. | |
| *And three Chiefs having less than 500 square miles of territory.* | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Having Political Relations direct with the Chief Commissioner of Assam.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Manipur | H. H. Raja Chura Chand | 8 | 8,000 | 221,070 | ... | 400 | ... | 11 | 18th September 1891. | |
| *And fifteen Chiefs, the areas of whose territories are not known.* | | | | | | | | | | |



O. I. C. P. O.—No. 492 R. S. A. D.—19-7-05—2,000.

| Name of State. | Name and title of Chief. | Age of Chief. | Area of State in square miles. | Population of State. | Military Force. Cavalry. | Infantry. | Serviceable guns. | Salute of Chief in guns. | Date of succession of Chief. | Remarks. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Having Political Relations direct with the Government of Fort St. George.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Cochin | H. H. Raja Sir Vira Kerala Varma, K.C.I.E. | 47 | 1,362 | 722,906 | 16 | 328 | 4 | 17 | 23rd July 1888. | |
| Pudukota | H. H. Raja Marthanda Bhairava Tondiman | 17 | 1,101 | 373,096 | 16 | 136 | 6 | 11 | 15th April 1886. | |
| Travancore | H. H. Maharaja Sir Rama Varma, G.C.S.I. | 35 | 6,730 | 2,557,736 | 61 | 1,442 | ... | 19 | 19th August 1885. | |
| *And two Chiefs having less than 500 square miles of territory.* | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Having Political Relations direct with the Government of Bombay.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Bariya | Raja Man Singhji | 36 | 813 | 111,269 | 93 | 259 | 2 | 9 | 1864. | |
| Bhaunagar | H. H. Maharaja* Sir Takht Singhji Jaswat Singhji, G.C.S.I. | 34 | 2,860 | 467,282 | 442 | 2,596 | 6 | 15† | 13th April 1870. | * Personal title. † Including four guns personal. |
| Bhor | Pant Sachiv Shankar Rao Chimnaji. | 38 | 1,491 | 155,488 | 35 | 114 | ... | ... | 12th February 1871. | |
| Chota Udaipur | Raja Moti Singhji | 32 | 873 | 93,637 | 58 | 258 | 3 | 9 | 7th July 1881. | |
| Dharampur | Raja Mohandevji Narayandevji | 29 | 706 | 120,498 | 59 | 147 | 3 | 9 | • December 1891. | |
| Dhrangadra | H. H. Raj Sahib Sir Mansinghji Ranmal Singhji, K.C.S.I. | 55 | 1,156·5 | 103,754 | 51 | 289 | 6 | 15‡ | 28th October 1869. | ‡ Including four guns personal. |
| Gondal | H. H. Thakur Sahib Sir Bhagwat Singhji Sagramji, K.C.S.I. | 27 | 1,023·74 | 161,036 | 90 | 517 | 3 | 11 | 14th December 1869. | |
| Idar | H. H. Maharaja Sir Kesri Singhji Jawan Singhji, K.C.S.I. | 30 | 1,900 | 302,134 | 75 | 710 | 18 | 15 | 26th December 1868. | |
| Jath | Ramrao Appa Sahib | 7 | 979 | 79,786 | 8 | 300 | ... | ... | 13th January 1893. | |
| Jamkhandi | Ram Chundra Rao Gopal *alias* Appa Sahib | 58 | 555 | 102,162 | 52 | 914 | 1 | ... | 18th November 1840. | |
| | Vala Lakshman Meram | 44 | 733·8 | 111,549 | 16 | 835 | 1 | ... | 17th September 1883. | |
| | Vala Suraj Ganga | 73 | | | | | | | 1st September 1847. | |
| | Vala Naja Kala and 18 other shareholders | 28 | | | | | | | 14th June 1890. | |
| Junagarh | H. H. Nawab Rasul Khanji Mahabat Khanji | 34 | 3,283·7 | 484,190 | 265 | 1,976 | 10 | 11 | 20th June 1892. | |
| Kankrej | 5 Shareholders | ... | 520 | 6,653 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ..... | |
| Kathi | Chandra Singh | 28 | 500 | 17,337 | ... | ... | ... | ... | April 1888. | |
| Khairpur | H. H. Mir Faiz Muhammad Khan | 52 | 6,109 | 131,937 | 700 | 774 | 23 | 15 | 8th April 1894. | |
| Kolhapur | H. H. Raja Shahu Chhatrapatti Maharaj | 18 | 2,855 | 913,131 | 251 | 1,211 | 58 | 19 | 17th March 1894. | |
| Kutch | H. H. Maharao Sir Khengarji Bahadur, G.C.I.E. | 26 | 6,500 | 558,415 | 359 | 1,425 | 2 | 17 | 1st January 1876. | |
| Morvi | H. H. Thakur Sahib Sir Waghji, K.C.I.E. | 34 | 821·6 | 105,335 | 131 | 331 | 2 | 11 | 17th February 1870. | |
| Navanagar | H. H. Jam Sir Vibaji Ranmalji, K.C.S.I. | 66 | 3,791·3 | 370,611 | 223 | 2,330 | 117 | 15 | 22nd February 1852. | |
| Palanpur | H. H. Diwan Sir Sher Muhammad Khan, K.C.I.E. | 49 | 3,150 | 274,864 | 121 | 439 | 16 | 11 | 19th September 1877. | |
| Porbandar | H. H. Rana Vikramatji Khimaji | 73 | 636·5 | 85,785 | 25 | 344 | 5 | 11§ | 20th June 1831. | § The present Chief has been degraded and is allowed this salute only outside Kathiawar in British India. |
| Radhanpur | H. H. Nawab Muhammad Bismillah Khan | 50 | 1,150 | 98,017 | 100 | 190 | 2 | 11 | 9th October 1874. | |
| Rajpipla | H. H. Raja Ghambhir Singhji | 45 | 1,514 | 171,771 | 73 | 514 | 4 | 11 | 1860. | |
| Sangli | Dhundi Rao Chintaman *alias* Tatia Sahib | 54 | 1,083 | 238,945 | 54 | 428 | 3 | ... | 15th July 1851. | |
| Sawantwari | Sir Desai Raghunath Sawant Bhonsle Raje Bahadur. | 30 | 926 | 192,948 | 10 | 400 | 2 | 9 | 29th August 1870. | Has no jurisdiction owing to personal incapacity. |
| *And three hundred and thirty-six Chiefs having less than 500 square miles of territory, or having territories, the areas of which are not known.* | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Having Political Relations direct with the Government of Bengal.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Athmalik | Maharaja Mahendra Deo Sawant | 45 | 730 | 31,605 | ... | 360 | ... | ... | 4th February 1877. | |
| Bod | Raja Jogendra Deo | 35 | 1,164 | 89,551 | ... | 592 | ... | ... | 5th October 1879. | |
| Bonai | Raja Inder Deo | 54 | 1,297 | 32,120 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 12th September 1876. | |
| Chang Bhakar | Bhaya Balbhadara Singh | 66 | 906 | 18,526 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1st December 1865. | |
| Daspalla | Raja Chaitan Deo Bhanj | 39 | 568 | 45,597 | ... | 897 | ... | ... | 29th November 1872. | |

| Name of State. | Name and title of Chief. | Age of Chief. | Area of State in square miles. | Population of State. | Military Force: Cavalry. | Infantry. | Serviceable guns. | Salute of Chief in guns. | Date of succession of Chief. | Remarks. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Having Political Relations direct with the Government of Bengal—*continued*.** | | | | | | | | | | |
| Dhenkanal | Raja Sura Pratap Mahindra | 9 | 1,163 | 238,285 | ... | 343 | 1 | ... | 20th August 1885. | |
| Gangpur | Raja Raghunath Sikhar Deo | 11 | 2,414 | 198,815 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 28th November 1888. | |
| Jashpur | Raja Pratap Narayan Singh Deo, C.I.E. | 69 | 1,947 | 113,636 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 24th October 1843. | |
| Keonjhar | Maharaja* Dhanurjai Narayan Bhanj Deo | 43 | 3,096 | 240,101 | 11 | 8,761 | 6 | ... | 5th September 1861. | * Personal title. |
| Korea | Raja Pran Singh Deo | 34 | 1,631 | 36,240 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 4th April 1864. | |
| Kuch Bahar | Lieut.-Col.† H. H. Maharaja Sir Nripendra Narayan Bhup Bahadur, G.C.I.E. | 29 | 1,307 | 578,054 | 49 | 176 | 4 | 13 | August 1863. | † The Chief is an Honorary Lieutenant-Colonel in the British Army. |
| Morbhanj | Raja Sriram Chundra Bhanj Deo | 20 | 4,243 | 533,238 | ... | 513 | ... | ... | 29th May 1882. | |
| Nayagarh | Raja Raghunath Singh Mandhata | 32 | 588 | 117,862 | ... | 741 | ... | ... | 2nd March 1895. | |
| Sarguja | Maharaja† Raghunath Sarun Singh | 31 | 6,103 | 324,552 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 25th March 1879. | † Personal title. |
| Sikkim | H. H. Maharaja Thotal Namgyel | 36 | 2,762 | 30,500 | ... | 5,000§ | ... | 15 | April 1874. | § Irregulars—not a standing force. |
| Hill Tipperah | H. H. Maharaja‡ Bir Chandra Manikya Deb Barman | 54 | 4,086 | 137,442 | ... | 304 | 5 | 13 | 31st July 1862. | ‡ Personal title. |
| Udaipur | Raja Dharmjit Singh Deo | 35 | 1,051 | 32,536 | ... | ... | 3 | ... | 18th March 1876. | |

*And twelve Chiefs having less than 500 square miles of territory.*

## Having Political Relations direct with the Government of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Rampur | H. H. Nawab Hamid Ali Khan | 18 | 945 | 551,249 | 538 | 2,673 | 26 | 13* | 17th February 1889. | |
| Tehri (Garhwal) | H. H. Raja Kirti Sah | 19 | 4,164 | 241,252 | ... | ... | ... | 11 | 6th February 1887. | |

## Having Political Relations direct with the Government of the Punjab.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bahawalpur | H. H. Nawab Sir Sadik Muhammad Khan, G.C.S.I. | 31 | 17,585 | 650,042 | 454 | 1,341 | 10 | 17 | 25th March 1856. | |
| Bashahr | Raja Shamsher Singh | 55 | 3,300 | 75,777 | ... | 160 | ... | ... | 12th February 1850. | |
| Chamba | H. H. Raja Sham Singh | 27 | 3,126 | 124,032 | 12 | 200 | 2 | 11 | 17th April 1873. | |
| Faridkot | H. H. Raja Bikram Singh | 51 | 643 | 115,040 | 70 | 300 | 6 | 11 | 22nd April 1874. | |
| Jind | H. H. Raja Ranbir Singh | 14 | 1,368 | 284,560 | 372 | 1,550 | 16 | 11 | 7th March 1887. | |
| Kapurthala | H. H. Raja Jagat Jit Singh | 20 | 598 | 299,690 | 203 | 885 | 8 | 11 | 5th September 1877. | |
| Mandi | H. H. Raja Bije Sain | 47 | 1,131 | 166,923 | 20 | 154 | 5 | 11 | 26th January 1851. | |
| Nabha | H. H. Raja Sir Hira Singh, G.C.S.I. | 50 | 936 | 282,756 | 344 | 1,397 | 10 | 13§ | 9th June 1871. | § Including two guns personal. |
| Patiala | H. H. Maharaja Rajendro Singh Mahendra Bahadur | 22 | 5,951 | 1,583,521 | 2,372 | 4,277 | 24 | 17 | 14th April 1876. | |
| Sirmur (Nahan) | H. H. Raja Sir Shamsher Prakash, G.C.S.I. | 50 | 1,108 | 124,134 | 100 | 408 | ... | 13** | 4th July 1857. | ** Including two guns personal. |

*And twenty-four Chiefs having less than 500 square miles of territory.*

## Having Political Relations direct with the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bamra | Raja Sudhal Deo, C.I.E. | 44 | 1,988 | 104,367 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 12th May 1869. | |
| Bastar | Raja Rudra Pratap Deo | 8 | 13,062 | 310,884 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 20th November 1891. | |
| Kanker | Maharaj Adhiraj Narhar Deo | 43 | 1,429 | 82,379 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1853. | |
| Kharond (or Kalo Hardi) | Raja Raghu Keshar Deo | 22 | 3,745 | 320,495 | ... | ... | ... | 9 | 7th April 1881. | |
| Kawardha | Thakur Kripal Singh | 7 | 798 | 91,815 | 9,922 | ... | ... | ... | 5th May 1892. | |
| Khairagarh | Zamindar Kamal Narayan Singh | 23 | 931 | 181,184 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 19th February 1891. | |
| Nandgaon | Raja* Balram Das Bahadur | 28 | 871 | 183,886 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 4th November 1883. | * Personal title. |
| Sarna | Maharaja Bijai Chandra Singh Deo | 24 | 2,309 | 332,797 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 25th November 1878. | |

# BRITISH PROVINCES
and
# NATIVE STATES.

Scale 1 Inch = 192 Miles.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND on this Same scale

Native States

British Provinces