

MAP OF INDIA.

By  
JOHN WALKER  
The British territory is coloured Red  
Independent States Green  
All the rest are under British Protection

Chronological Table of the Acquisitions of the British in India

Date of Treaty	Districts	From whom acquired
1 1661	Bombay	Portuguese
2 1756	Bahar &c.	Bastar
3 1757 Dec. 20	Twenty-four Pergunnas &c.	Nabob of Bengal
4 1759 May 14	Masulipatam &c.	The Nizam
5 1760 Sep. 27	Burhan, Midnapore and Chittagong	Nabob of Bengal
6 1765 Aug. 12	Bengal, Bahar &c.	The Mogul
7 1765 Aug. 30	Company's Jaghirs (Chingapat)	Nabob of Arcot
8 1766 Nov. 12	Northern Circars	The Nizam
9 1775 May 21	Seminary of Benares	Viceroy of Oude
10 1775 Mar. 6	Island of Salset	Mahrattas
11 1779 June 17	Nagore	Rajah of Tanjore
12 1779 Sep. 10	Cantonment Arcot	The Nizam
13 1786	Pala Pinang &c.	King of Quana
14 1792 Mar. 17	Malabar, Dindigul, Salem, Daramah &c.	Tippoo Sultan of Mysore Conquered from Tippoo Sultan & ceded to the British by the partition Treaty of Mysore.
15 1799 July 13	Cumbatoor, Canara, Wynad &c.	Rajah of Tanjore
16 1799 Oct. 25	Tanjore	The Nizam
17 1800 Oct. 12	(Districts acquired by the Nizam from Tippoo Sultan in 1792 and 1799)	The Nizam
18 1801 July 31	Carnatic	Nabob of the Carnatic
19 1801 Nov. 10	Coruckpoor, Lower Doonab, Barvally &c.	The Viceroy of Oude
20 1802 Dec. 31	Districts in Brundelund & Gajerat	Prithwah
21 1803 Dec. 17	Kutuck & Bakalore	Rajah of Berar
22 1803 Dec. 30	Upper Part of the Doonab, Delhi, Ahmednuggur &c.	Dowlat Rao Scindia
23 1805 Apr. 21	Districts in Gajerat	Gauwar
24 1815 Dec. 2	Kanamon & part of the Terree	Nepal
25 1817 June 13	Saugur & Rutuck, Dornar &c.	Prithwah
26 1817 Nov. 6	Ahmedabad Farm	Gauwar
27 1818 Jan. 16	Kandesh &c.	Holcar
28 1818	Amere	Dowlat Rao Scindia
29 1818	Poonah, Konkan, South Mahratta Country	Conquered from the Prithwah
30 1818	(Districts on the North India)	Rajah of Berar
31 1820 Dec. 17	Lands in Southern Konkan	Rajah of Sawantwarree
32 1822 Dec. 12	Districts in Begipoor & Ahmednuggur	The Nizam
33 1824 Aug. 2	Singapoore	Rajah of Johore
34 1825 Apr. 9	Malacca	Dutch
35 1826 Feb. 24	Assam, Aracan, Tanjore, Tennasserim &c.	King of Ava
36 1834	Koory	Rajah of Koory
37 1835	Synteah	Rajah of Synteah
38 1836	Loodoona	Lapsed Territory
39 1836	Peerozpoor	Ditto
40 1838	Part of Protected Sikh States	Ditto
41 1840	Jaloun	Ditto
42 1841	Kurnool	Rajah of Kurnool
43 1843	Rhythul	Lapsed Territory

Chronological Table &c. continued

Date of Treaty	Districts.	From whom acquired
44 1843	Kolaba	Lapsed Territory
45 1843 Jan.	Sindh	Conquered from the Amere
46 1845	Serampore, Tranquebar	Danes
47 1846 Mar. 9	Jalanda Doonab &c.	Phuloo Sing
48 1847	Part of the Protected Sikh States	Annexed
49 1849	Saturu	Lapsed Territory
50 1849	Pogah	Annexed
51 1849	Jeypoor	Lapsed Territory
52 1850	Sumbulpoor	Ditto
53 1851	Nagpoor	Annexed
54 1853	Odeypoor	

The Numbers on the Map refer to the position of the Acquisitions

# INDIA & EUROPE

## COMPARED

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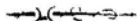
A POPULAR VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE  
AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

OF OUR

Eastern Continental Empire.

BY

LIEUT.-GEN. JOHN BRIGGS, F.R.S  
OF THE MADRAS ARMY



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## P R E F A C E.

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It has frequently struck me, in my intercourse with men of literature and science, how little knowledge they seem to have gathered in their studies of our gigantic Eastern Empire, extending from the shores of the Red Sea, over the intermediate continents and islands, to the Yellow Sea in China.

Leaving it to others to dilate on the Burmese Empire, the Indian Archipelago, and our relations with China, I have confined myself to an epitome of the several subjects connected with that portion of our Eastern dominions comprised within the continent of India. I have referred to its magnitude, and the extent of its population,—to the character of its inhabitants and their institutions,—to its resources, military, financial, and commercial,—to its public works,—its educational condition,—the form of its government at home and abroad,—the future prospects of the people,—and, finally, the chance of foreign invasion



On each of these topics I have only touched slightly, but I trust enough to excite sufficient interest in my readers to induce them to search further, and consult the authorities which I have quoted, in order to become more familiar with a subject so full of interest, and so intimately blended with the prosperity, the strength, and the glory of England

THE AUTHOR.

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*Note.*—I had intended to add an Appendix on the Landed Tenures of India, but I found the subject expand so largely, that I propose hereafter to finish it, and perhaps publish it in another shape

# INDIA AND EUROPE

## COMPARED.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### IDENTITY OF THE RACES.

THE distinction between India and Europe is in many respects so remarkable, that it appears a bold assertion to make, and no less bold theory to support, that, after all, the differences which exist are the mere result of accidental circumstances, of which climate is the principal cause. In addition to this is the barrier which a religious prejudice against foreign travel presents to the Hindu, and the absence of the use of the Press. The latter has done more for the enlargement of the mind, and for the development of the human intellect, in five centuries in Europe, than was



gained by the experience of the whole period since the creation of man.

The colour of the skin of the Hindu, and the nature of his clothing, are incidental to living under a tropical sun. The practice of sitting on the ground; of using neither knives, forks, nor spoons, at meals, are habits common to all Orientals. Experience has taught them that vegetable diet and abstinence from spirituous liquors promote health and longevity: in which respects the Hindus differ from the inhabitants of Europe.

In physiognomy and philology, the tests of identity of races by ethnologists, as well as in other respects, they altogether assimilate. The Hindus, as well as the Europeans, belong to that branch of the human family denominated Caucasian by Blumenbach, and Iranian by Pritchard; and appear to have emigrated from a common centre, in the region between the borders of the Caspian and the Black Sea,—held to be the cradle of the human race. Climate has affected the appearance and habits of the wanderers East and West, but they are distinguished by four peculiarities belonging to no other race of men, and which are never

found separated. These are,—1. Features; 2. Language; 3. Habits as conquerors; 4. Civil institutions. These peculiarities are now universally admitted to be common to India and Europe.

The Iranian peculiarity of feature consists in the thin straight, or aquiline nose; the plump, but not projecting lips; and the oval face. The abundance of silky hair with a tendency to curl, which is not confined to the head, but is bushy on the face, and in other parts of the body. In all these respects the Iranian differs both from the Scythian of the North and extreme East, and from the Negretian of the South and South-west. These also are totally unlike each other.

The Sanscrit language, of which India is now the seat, is acknowledged to be the base of the languages of the West. It is abundantly developed in the Æolian Greek, the Latin, and all the languages south of France, including France itself. It appears again, in another shape, in all the Slavonic and Teutonic dialects, commencing with Russian, and extending to the Anglo-Saxon. In the East, Sanscrit forms the foundation of all the languages of India,



as well as many of those spoken in the Burmese empire, and the East-Indian Archipelago.

The third peculiarity of the Iranian race is, that in their early conquests, whether in India or in Europe, they invariably reduced the enemies they subdued to the condition of agrestic, but not domestic slavery. Of this practice the remnants are to be found in Southern India, and here and there elsewhere. In Europe, in Russia, in Poland, and in Hungary, and, till within the beginning of the present century, in Prussia. The history of both India and Europe show that it was at one time universal.

The fourth and last peculiarity is the introduction of municipal institutions. The remains of these are everywhere to be found in Europe, though the tendency to centralization in monarchies tends to destroy them. They have been best preserved by the Swiss nation, in the absence of regal government; and exist in greater perfection under the constitutional sovereignty of England than under any other monarchy. In India they are, in spite of the despotic rule of ages, found to be universal, but most perfect where they have escaped

Mahomedan dominion. They have been frequently partially described, but there are certain practices, rights, and privileges belonging to them, which are not generally known even to those who have spent half their lives in India.

It was not until the year 1808 that attention was drawn to the fact by Colonel Mark Wilks,\* that in the South of India the country was divided into municipalities, having within themselves all the elements of a republican form of government. The lands of each township are accurately defined, including waste, wood, and

\* Malcolm writes on the 7th September, 1817 :—

“On the bank of the Godavery and Berar.

“I have had a long inquiry into the Village Governments of this country, and find precisely the same establishment as is mentioned by Wilks, in his ‘Southern India.’ The system is not destroyed. It has continued whole and well understood through all the revolutions which have afflicted this country. It remained for us, in the pride of reform, to sweep away this useful and ancient institution, which I will venture to say, protected by our justice, was more calculated to make our territories in India flourish, than any plan our wisdom will ever suggest.

“It is a great secret to allow men to be happy in their own way, and what we term blessings become punishments when they are inflicted.”—*Kaye's Life of Sir J. Malcolm*, Vol. II. p. 176 (note).

common ; and measures are taken to insure the knowledge of the limits by a belt embracing the whole, which is subdivided into as many parts (usually twelve) as there are public officers to fulfil the civil functions of the community. The offices and the lands are hereditary and entailed, and cannot be alienated but with the consent of the direct heirs, being of age. The same rule prevails with regard to the lands of the township held by descendants of the original founders.

The village officers consist of a head man representing the mayor of Europe, a registrar or town-clerk, a Brahmin priest and his assistant or clerk, and an astronomer, who calculates nativities, constructs almanacs, indicates the seasons, and acts as schoolmaster to children under twelve or thirteen years of age ; a watchman, a currier or cordwainer, a barber-surgeon, a carpenter, a smith, a potter or brick-maker, a washerman, and, where there is a running stream or artificial channels for irrigation, an officer who regulates the fair distribution of the water. Each of these officers enjoys a portion of the boundary land in freehold, which is exempt from taxation.

The mayor and the town-clerk act in a double capacity. The former represents the community in all its transactions with the Government, and on his accession to office receives a formal recognition as its official representative in capacity of magistrate, and as collector of the public revenue. The clerk is also similarly invested, and is, in virtue of his office, bound to keep certain accounts, which are open to the Government at all times. The magisterial powers of the mayor are definite, and do not (under the Native Government) extend beyond confinement for a few hours. It is, however, competent for him to decide civil suits with the written consent of the parties, or to refer them, under specific rules, either to arbitration or to assessors acting under his authority in open court.

While it is a recognized principle of sovereign right that all land not included in any township belongs to the Crown, yet, when once established, that right merges simply into a claim on the produce, a fixed portion of which is assigned to the State. The amount appears at one time in India not to have exceeded a twelfth or a tenth part, but under

special circumstances might legitimately be extended to an eighth or a sixth, and in time of war or invasion temporarily to a fourth.

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These divisions of the crops take place after deducting one-tenth, which is partitioned according to a definite rule among the village officers. This portion, with their freeholds, constitutes the retaining fee to secure, at least, one family of each denomination for the wants of the community, by whom they are paid for work as performed.

As the township enlarges, so do the several members of the offices or trades increase, and where it has become sufficiently important to hold markets a patent is applied for to Government; the market-day is fixed so as not to interfere with other neighbouring towns, and fees are authorized to cover the expenses of a clerk of the market, who is empowered to punish summarily by fine or confinement, breakers of the peace, and to determine cases of dispute between buyer and seller.

Cities are a congeries of townships or parishes, each of which has its market-day, and is frequently called after the day of the week

that the market is held. Such divisions, like our parishes, have their separate municipal institutions. The several trades have their separate guilds, with one or more Aldermen elect. These hold courts for the regulation of the affairs of their trade or caste, appoint assessors or arbitrators to settle their disputes, and punish by fine or expulsion from their body those who offend against the by-laws of the caste.

In short, while these communities exist, self-government never ceases.

Of all the members of the community none is so essential to the safety of the township, as the parish watchman. His business is to be always in attendance on the Mayor or Magistrate, a duty which is imposed on every member of the same caste able to perform it.

The duties of the village police as a body, are to possess the most perfect information, not only as to what occurs in the parish itself; but to attend on all travellers, to put them in the way of obtaining all they may want, to guard his or their property night and day, and to be the guide to the next village when they quit. This occupation enables the policeman to



protect the traveller, and, if attacked, to afford to the public authority every information on the subject.' On the other hand, if the traveller has any bad intentions, the policeman can sometimes detect and detain the party on suspicion, and hand him over to the Magistrate; or at all events he can so accurately describe the person, that if he become an object of suspicion, the policeman can usually give important information that may lead to conviction and punishment.

When the village watchmen have leisure, they go out to hunt or shoot, and become extremely expert in tracking their game. If the footmarks are lost by the animal crossing a road or footpath, and it becomes invisible to all ordinary eyes, the hunter watches the wave of the grass that has been passed over, and seldom misses the track till he regains the footmarks. As robbers and all the rural classes travel barefoot, the police watchman can tell at once one impression from another; but, to make sure, he notches on a stick the length and breadth of the impression, and having tracked one or more delinquents to his own boundary, waits while he sends one of his comrades to the next

village, when he delivers over the length and breadth of the footmarks to the new police, whose duty it now becomes to carry the track through his boundary, and so on, till the individual or gang, as it may be, is fairly hunted down. Cattle that stray or are driven off, are almost invariably recovered by this method.

There is no police superior to the rural police of India. They are always honest and faithful to their townsmen, to whom they are bound by the strongest bonds of interest : inasmuch as they depend on them for a portion of their crops, and they know that the whole village is required either to trace delinquents out of their boundary, to deliver them up to justice if within it, or to make good, by communal assessment, the loss in case of robbery.

On Ceylon, in the territory of Travancore and in Cochin, where the Mahomedan conquest did not extend, the Government still confines its demand to a tenth portion of the crop ; elsewhere the claim of the ruling chief has usually known no limits, and sometimes even half of the produce has been exacted. Both

the Hindu and Mahomedan law strictly enjoin that, where the landholder demands it, the tax shall be received in kind; and so well is this understood that, where land lies fallow, it is not liable to be taxed even under the British Government. This law or custom provides some corrective against public extortion, because, where it occurs to a grievous extent, the land is abandoned, and the Government loses its revenue. It has, however, been the practice under the Native Government, as well as sometimes under our own (when the land-tax revenue is realized in detail), to limit the exactions only by the means of the cultivator to pay, so as just to enable him to carry on his farm for the next year. The principle by which the land-tax is now raised by the East-India Company will be subsequently shown.

Having described the municipality, and pointed out the proprietors of the land, it is as well to state that these are not necessarily the cultivators: on the contrary, they are the freeholders, who, for the most part, underlet the whole or parts of their lands to tenants, who in some respects may be considered as copyholders. They differ, however, from the copy-

hold tenants of England, inasmuch as they share their crops (after deduction of the tenth before mentioned) with their landlords, in consideration of which they are not liable to any taxes whatsoever, whether as revenue or in the shape of village taxes or other rates; and although they cannot alienate their copyholds, they are not liable to be ousted from their tenant right, which descends to their heirs on the terms of their permanent lease. When the founders of the village exceed one, or when one or more portions are alienated, and the commune consists of several members, the affairs of the village are managed by a council or court of aldermen, each of whom represents the members of his own clan or family. It is this board which lets out annually to tenants at will such portion of the land as may have lapsed to the township in default of heirs, or by reason of absenteeism. These tenants pay no taxes, but contribute such portion of their crops as may be agreed on, and the produce is accounted for to the freeholders at the end of the year. In many cases the proceeds cover the village expenses, and in some even a surplus remains, which is divided among the free-

holders. Thus it appears that the freehold community is alone liable to the Government land-tax under all well-regulated Native States. As every piece of land is included within the township or hamlet of a township, so is every town or city included within some Pergana or county: and as every town has its mayor and registrar or clerk, holding hereditary lands and certain immunities, as representing the commune and the Government; so has every county its chief or sheriff and record-keeper, holding lands free of tax, and receiving a commission, usually ten per cent. on the collections, which he is bound to realize and account for in detail. He is subordinate, however, to a stipendiary Government officer or collector of several pergasas or counties; which constitute a district or collectorate. Under the British Government this officer is a European civil servant, acting as a chief magistrate over a population varying from six hundred thousand to a million of souls.

The climate of India, as a whole, is unfavourable to the European constitution. The mortality and morbose condition of our European soldiery, in spite of every precaution,

requires a renovation at the rate of ten per cent. annually, to keep up the effective strength. Provision is also made for the periodical return of the European officers, civil and military, to recruit their health; independent of which a very large proportion are driven home in the interval; and the whole, more or less, eventually quit situations of power and high emolument to seek repose in their native land, after an absence varying from twenty-five to thirty-five years. The same is observed of European merchants and planters. This is not the case in colonies of Europeans. Thus it is clear that India must for ever belong to the Indians. The anomaly of an active and intelligent race ruled by a handful of foreigners, who do not even settle among them, naturally leads to the conclusion that the inhabitants are a grovelling, cowardly race; but the history of India for six centuries of the Mahomedan rule, and for a century of our own, shows that in war, whether we look to our own Native army, or to the activity, the strategy, or the bravery of our Native enemies, we find them to be a race deficient in none of the qualities which constitute good soldiers.



Several circumstances have combined to the success of the English Government. It has, by the extensive employment of the people themselves, attached a considerable portion of the civil and military classes to us by the strong tie of interest. We have abstained from forcing upon them our habits or our religion. On the latter point we have been scrupulously tolerant; nor have we hastily abolished, even within our own territory, several abhorrent practices connected with sacred or domestic feelings, which practices are wearing out among themselves. We have established among the great body of the people a feeling of respect, amounting in many instances to veneration, towards individuals in power; a general sentiment prevails of the justice and good-will of the Government; and lastly, a conviction of its strength to put down at once any symptom of treason or of insurrection. Moreover, we have, more or less, made use of the machinery of self-government existing in the village institutions, though not to the full extent to which they might be rendered available.

These possess within themselves the elements

for providing education for the great body of the people, and for their personal protection. Of the formêr I shall speak hereafter; of the latter I may instance the state of the police in Bengal and Behar.

In the permanent settlement of 1793, the rural police of Bengal was left unprovided for. They were thus converted into robbers, who, together with thousands of small dispossessed landholders driven to desperation, revenged themselves on those who were put in possession of their lands. The only remedy seemed to be to organize an independent Government central police, at great cost, and which in Bengal alone at present consists of 169,805 individuals. Of these, 154,613 receive less than 1*s.* 6*d.* a week, and others from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a week; and yet we are told that nowhere is there a more corrupt and extortionate police, nor less security for life or property, than in Bengal. Whereas, in those parts of India where the system of village watchmen has been untouched, whether in our own territory or under well-regulated Native Governments, there is no more effective police in any part of the world.

From the preceding remarks it follows that it is our interest, as it undoubtedly is our duty, to promote the prosperity of India through the agency of its own population, and to secure to them the best government which it is in our power to confer. How far the present system affords the means of accomplishing this object,—how far the measures adopted since 1834, when the territory and its revenue were placed under the Crown, have been conducive to that end,—and what are the prospects of that vast region,—must be subjects for the consideration of the Houses of Parliament.

Russia and the Kingdoms North of the Baltic.—*To face page 19.*

EUROPE.			INDIA.		
STATES.	AREA in English Sq. Miles.	POPULATION.	STATES, BRITISH.	AREA in English Sq. Miles.	POPULATION.
Austrian Dominions .....	256,784	35,750,621			
Prussia .....	107,686	16,331,187			
	364,470	52,081,808	Bengal Provinces .....	412,627	59,445,299
France .....	201,961	35,783,170	N. W. Provinces .....	*100,389	33,742,766
Spain .....	144,698	14,216,219			
Portugal .....	36,510	3,412,500			
Belgium .....	11,369	4,359,090			
	192,577	21,987,809	Madras Provinces .....	132,090	22,301,697
Italian States .....	58,185	10,832,881	Bombay Provinces .....	120,065	11,109,067
7 EUROPEAN KINGDOMS ..	817,133	120,685,668	*BRITISH PROVINCES ..	765,171	126,598,829
			NATIVE PRINCIPALITIES.		
Kingdom of Naples and Sicily	42,132	7,975,850	His Highness the Nizam .....	95,237	10,666,080
Swiss Confederation .....	14,907	2,392,740			
	57,039	10,368,590			
Kingdom of Bavaria .....	29,327	4,559,452	Rajpoot Principalities .....	114,391	7,412,426
Kingdom of Wurtemberg ....	7,503	1,733,293	Saugor Rajahs .....	12,244	1,560,000
	36,830	6,292,715	Sindia's Principality .....	31,228	3,228,000
Kingdom of Hanover .....	14,802	1,819,253	Orissa Rajahs .....	25,431	1,245,655
Kingdom of Holland .....	13,571	3,397,851			
Mecklenburg Principalities ..	5,833	1,541,674			
Brunswick, G. D. ....	1,423	271,943			
Nassau, G. D. ....	1,790	429,341			
	3,213	701,284	Helcar's Principality .....	8,318	815,164
3 Hesse—Dukes .....	7,767	1,511,272	Rajah of Nipaul .....	54,500	1,940,000
			Cis-Sutlej Hill States .....	10,151	631,000
			Ditto Protected States .....	6,716	1,005,154
			Ditto Bhawalpoor .....	20,000	600,000
Kingdom of Saxony .....	5,759	1,987,832		36,900	2,236,154
4 Principalities of Saxe .....	5,543	574,493	Cashmere Rajah .....	25,125	750,000
Baden, G. D. ....	5,903	1,265,100	Bhurlpore Rajan .....	1,978	600,000
	11,446	1,839,593	Bhopal, Nabob of .....	6,708	663,656
2 Schwartzberga Principalities	3,332	331,000		33,811	2,013,656
Oldenberg, P. and D. ....	2,417	267,660			
	5,749	598,660	Cochin and Malabar Rajahs	16,194	741,151
Kingdom of Greece .....	17,900	926,000			
Republic of Cracow .....	488	131,462			
	18,388	1,057,462	Travancore Rajah .....	4,722	1,011,824
			Guzerat, Gaikwar, and de-	28,829	1,935,226
			pendencies .....	6,764	569,000
			Rajah of Cutch .....	3,445	500,000
			Rajah of Colapoor .....	30,886	3,000,000
			Rajah of Mysoor .....	87,036	5,567,315
			Other Native States .....	156,960	11,502,541
Turkey, with her European Principalities .....	210,583	9,645,000	**INDIA .....	Sq.M. 1,355,107	Pop. .. 170,971,480
EUROPE .....	Sq.M. 1,202,173	Pop. .. 161,446,854			

Authorities :—Latest Official Returns, Almanac de Gotha, 1855. East-India House Statistics, 1853. Parliamentary Statistics, 1856.

\* The British Territories include Oude and Nagpore since 1853.

**\*\* Pegu and Eastern Islands and States not included.**

## CHAPTER II.

## PART I.—AREA AND POPULATION.

WHEN we are told that Continental India—of which more than two-thirds belongs to the British Crown, which holds in subjection about two hundred dependent States, governed by their Native princes,—comprises an area of a million and a quarter square miles, with a population of a hundred and seventy millions of inhabitants,—we are startled at the statement, and scarcely know how to credit it. To appreciate duly, however, the importance of these numbers, we must compare them in detail with some other country or countries with which our minds are familiar. In order, therefore, to have a clearer conception on this subject, I have drawn up a table, deduced from authentic materials, exhibiting the relative size and the number of subjects of all the empires, kingdoms, and great principalities of Europe, compared with the territorial divisions both of the

British dominions and of the Native States of India.

However astounding this comparison may appear to many, yet I shall proceed to show that the data as regards India are based on no slender foundation.

The topography of India attracted the notice of the late Mr. Hume in the year 1850, who, having become aware of the vast labour that had been bestowed on it, made a motion in the House of Commons, which was acceded to, for "A Return of full and detailed reports of the nature of the operations and expenditure connected with the Grand Trigonometrical Survey of India, and of the triangulation thereof for the measurement of an arc of the meridian, from the year the first base was measured to the latest date," &c. &c.

The report occupies sixty-one parliamentary folio pages, and affords, as may be supposed, the fullest information that can be desired on the subject. By this document it appears that the survey of India was commenced in the year 1801, with a view of measuring an arc of the meridian in east longitude  $70^{\circ} 41'$  due north to the valley of Deyra Dhoon, in the Himalaya



mountains. Its southernmost point commenced at Cape Comorin in north latitude  $8^{\circ}$ , and terminated in north latitude  $32^{\circ}$ , being a straight line of  $24^{\circ}$ , or 1440 miles. The measured terrestrial levels were corrected by means of astronomical observations, varying from 200 to 300 at each spot; and occupying on every occasion the labour of several days. The survey was commenced by Colonel Lambton, an officer of H. M.'s 33rd Foot (or the Duke of Wellington's regiment), who continued his labours for twenty-two years, till his death, which took place in his camp, with all his establishment around him, in January, 1823. He had completed the arc of the meridian as far as  $21^{\circ}$  of north latitude; and his work was so highly appreciated in Europe, that ten years before his death he received the unusual and unsolicited honour of being elected a member of the Institute of France. The continuation of the arc was carried on by Colonel Everest, of the Bengal Artillery, and was subsequently extended to its extreme length by Colonel Waugh, of the same corps.

In the mean time, lateral surveys, from parallel lines drawn from the meridional arc,

have been in the course of construction by scientific officers, on a scale of one inch to a mile. The sections are transmitted to England as they are completed, and, on a reduced scale of four inches to a mile, are printed at the expense of the East-India Company. One hundred and four sections have already been published; fourteen more are in the course of printing; and the whole, when finished, will exhibit a series of accurate maps of a vast and populous region, inferior to no publication of the kind in Europe. The maps are sold to the public at the cheap rate of four shillings each. Nor is it a slight object in a scientific point of view, to have been able to determine the exact convexity of the earth's surface towards the poles in one direction over  $24^{\circ}$  of latitude.

With respect to the census of the population, I shall take for example that of the Agra Presidency. Some tolerably correct calculations of the census of other parts of India have formerly been assumed from the number of houses, but that which was taken in 1853 went into more full details, and ascertained the number of different classes which slept in their houses on the night of the 31st of

December, 1852. The existence of the village municipalities, which contain within themselves the elements of self-government, afford an easy means of furnishing the requisite information for forming a census. Hence it happens that while the cost of making the census of England, amounting to 17,766,129 souls, amounted to £125,487. 11s. 1d. (see Registrar-General's Report), that of all India under the British Government, including 126,589,829 souls, cost no more than the price of the stationery which was used in the process.

Owing to the reported density of the Indian population, doubts have been entertained of the accuracy of such surveys, but great pains were taken in the census of 1853, and the general conviction of the governors under whom they were compiled, is in favour of their accuracy. It is true they are not in such detail, nor is the classification so complete as those required by the governments of Europe, though such a census is about to take place in 1860, yet the example of one division, viz., the North-Western Provinces of Bengal, now constituting the Agra Presidency, exhibits the density of one part, and that not

the most populous, of our Indian territory. The following remarks of Mr. H. C. Tucker, one of the officers employed in taking the census, are to the point: "Staticians who are inclined to suppose the former population returns of 641 per square geographical mile impossible, will think the number 780, given by the present census, incredible, but I believe it to be a close approximation to the truth." Take, for instance, Ghazipur in the annexed table; "where else will you find so many considerable towns within so small a space? Within 21,174 square miles in the district of Ghazipur ~~are~~ 268 towns containing from 1,000 to 5,000 inhabitants, 16 containing 5,000 to 10,000 inhabitants, and 3 containing upwards of 10,000, of which Ghazipur itself contains 38,573 inhabitants."

## AGRA PRESIDENCY.

*Table of Population and Townships in the North-Western Provinces, from the Report of the Census, taken 1st January, 1883.*

DISTRICTS.	of less than 1,000 inhabitants	than 1,000 and less than 5,000	5,000, less than 10,000.	10,000, less than 50,000.	More than 50,000.	Population in each District.	Population.	No. to a Square Mile.
1. Panipat.....	366	119	1	2	0	488	389,085	306
2. Hissar .....	517	69	0	2	0	588	336,852	100
3. Delhi.....	414	63	2	1	1	481	455,744	532
4. Rohtack .....	164	110	5	2	0	281	377,014	281
5. Gurgaon .....	1,043	122	4	3	0	1,272	662,496	342
6. Saharāupūr .....	1,328	144	5	4	0	1,481	801,325	370
7. Mozafirnagar .....	717	159	7	4	0	887	672,861	409
8. Mirat.....	1,077	288	5	3	0	1,373	1,135,072	515
9. Bulend-hehr .....	1,368	121	6	5	0	1,478	778,342	427
10. Allygarh .....	1,747	214	8	3	1	1,973	1,134,565	527
11. Bijnūr .....	1,900	62	8	4	0	1,974	695,321	366
12. Muradabad .....	2,502	126	9	4	1	2,732	1,138,461	422
13. Badaūn.....	2,050	173	5	3	0	2,231	1,019,161	424
14. Bareilly.....	3,152	165	3	1	1	3,322	1,378,268	442
15. Shahjhanpūr .....	2,008	176	4	3	1	2,190	986,096	427
16. Mactra .....	771	210	7	1	1	992	662,909	535
17. Agra .....	891	229	1	2	1	1,124	1,001,961	537
18. Farūckhabad.....	2,689	175	9	1	1	2,875	1,064,607	501
19. Meunpura .....	1,150	192	9	2	0	1,353	832,714	412
20. Etawah .....	1,313	96	4	1	0	1,414	610,965	364
21. Canpur .....	3,314	214	6	1	1	3,536	1,174,556	500
22. Fattchpur .....	1,247	145	4	1	0	1,397	679,787	428
23. Hamirpur .....	663	164	5	2	0	834	548,604	245
24. Bauda .....	948	192	2	1	0	1,143	743,872	247
25. Allahabad .....	3,319	233	2	0	1	3,555	1,379,788	495
26. Gorekpūr .....	12,909	234	4	2	1	13,206	3,087,874	421
27. Azimgarh .....	4,845	255	4	3	0	5,108	1,653,251	657
28. Jūnpūr .....	2,861	178	2	1	0	3,042	1,143,749	737
29. Mirzapur .....	4,246	154	2	1	1	4,404	1,604,315	214
30. Benares .....	1,840	104	1	1	1	1,947	851,757	856
31. Ghazipur .....	5,500	268	16	3	0	5,798	1,596,324	732
	64,967	5,642	219	69	15	70,942	30,271,885	420

The following table exhibits the density of population per square mile in the several grand divisions of territory in India, taking the average of five of the most populous and of the least populous districts of each :—

	Punjab.	Agra Presi- dency.	Bengal.	Madras	Bombay.
Highest average	463	678	698	324	243
Lowest average	50	200	118	117	124

The following exhibits the proportion to a square mile of the countries of Europe :—

	To a Statute Mile.	Census of
England ... ..	304	1851
Scotland ... ..	110	
Ireland ... ..	242	
France ... ..	168	1842
Holland ... ..	231	1836-7
Belgium ... ..	337	1836
Prussia ... ..	138	1840
Rhenish Provinces ...	250	1840
Bavaria ... ..	147	1833
Austria ... ..	143	1840.

## PART II.—INHABITANTS.

It now behoves me to say a few words on the heterogeneous mass of this population. It has lately been ascertained that a vast body of the people usually classed as Hindus are not only of a different persuasion, but are entirely of a distinct branch of the human family from the other inhabitants of India. These are now very generally considered to be an aboriginal race, having occupied India anterior to the Hindus themselves. The records of the latter, undoubtedly written in India, speak of these aborigines at a period coeval with the entry of the Israelites into the land of Canaan, fourteen and a half centuries before Christ. A particular account of this race will be found in No. XIII. of the "Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, A.D. 1852." They appear to have been first reduced to a state of slavery, and used as *adscripti glebæ*, to till the lands of their conquerors. On the formation of the Hindu village municipalities they were embodied as the police

of every village, and still inhabit straw huts outside of its walls or limits. Their duties have been before described (pp. 9, 10, 11). Many of these people were never subdued, but reside in the hills and mountain-fastnesses; their chiefs preserving a patriarchal dignity among their followers and brethren, levying tribute or black mail on all who pass through their hills, and plundering the plains on the plea of their being originally their own lands. They are remarkable for their courage, fidelity, and veracity, wherever they acknowledge fealty. In physiognomy, and in philology especially, they are tracible to the great branch of the human race termed Scythian, which includes the inhabitants of Northern Asia and China. They probably entered India, at a very remote period, by the passes of the Himalayas, and established themselves throughout the whole country. The rest of the inhabitants of India are of the Caucasian, or Iranian race. The Mahomedans, who invaded India in the eleventh, and ruled it till the middle of the last century, have the same origin.

In the numerical distribution of the inhabitants of India, I estimate,—



The aboriginal race at about one-tenth of the whole,—say	. . . . .	16,000,000
The Mahomedans at one-fifth	... ..	10,000,000
The several other foreigners not exceeding...		1,000,000
Leaving to the Hindus a population of	... ..	143,971,480
		<hr/>
		170,971,480
		<hr/>

On the invasion of the Hindus they brought with them the Sanscrit language, which seems to have spread far and wide wherever the Iranians appeared. But the aborigines had a language of their own, the construction of which has been preserved, although the words have, in a great measure, given way before the language of their conquerors. This process of absorption has been going on for more than three thousand years, and yet it has not altogether obliterated the original tongues. In the extreme South the aboriginal language (except in respect of certain terms of art and science) needs not the adventitious aid of the Sanscrit. It is chiefly by the retention of the grammatical form of the Scythian language we have been able to determine the source from whence these people came. In a period so long past, and in a country so extensive, where the vernacular

speech has relinquished the limited rules of grammar and rhetoric, we might naturally expect to find a great diversity of speech in different parts. Philologists have recognized thirteen dialects derived from the Sanscrit, which are not understood by the inhabitants of the neighbouring States; as is the case, for instance, in the languages of France, Spain, and Italy, which, though they vary from each other, are evidently derived from a common source.

The worship of the aborigines is confined to power in every shape which may affect the happiness of man. Not only are the elements, storms, and deluges of rain personified, but so also are wild beasts, venomous reptiles, epidemic and contagious diseases; each of which has its particular divinity. To these, whenever their power is felt, offerings are made to propitiate them, and assuage their vengeance. The oblations are all sanguinary; fresh blood and fermented liquor are essential, and the dearer the victim the more acceptable is the offering. There can be no doubt that occasionally human sacrifices were made, but the practice has gradually declined, and is now

only known in such parts as the influence of civilization, whether Hindu, Mahomèdan, or Christian, has not yet reached. The aborigines have a firm belief in witchcraft and divination, and the influence of their priests is in proportion to their success in these arts.

The religion of the Hindus has suffered great changes since their ancient philosophical works were written, and it seems almost certain that, in order to conciliate the aborigines when they were not powerful enough to subdue them, the Brahmins tolerated and even adopted many of their savage rites. Hinduism, admitting no proselytes, is for the most part tolerant of all religions, while the Mahomedans, though they have adopted many of the prejudices of the Hindus, exhibit the same bigotry and zeal for proselytism in India as they evince in all other parts of the world.

## CHAPTER III.

## PART I.—BRITISH ACQUISITIONS.\*

IN regard to the position in which England now stands with respect to the subjugated millions over whom she holds sway, the history is neither mysterious, nor the causes wonderful, when we trace the events as they successively occurred. Circumstances, rather than any design\* of conquest, have placed these extensive regions in our possession. For nearly one hundred years of the seventeenth century, the East-India Company quietly prosecuted its commercial vocations under the Government of the Great Mogul, and, had it not been for the subversion of that potent monarchy after the death of Aurangzib, it seems probable that our relations with India, as with China, might still have been purely commercial. On the death of Aurangzib, in 1707, his sons and their descendants contested

\* Vide Map.

the throne with each other. Each in turn had his partisans among the powerful nobles, who held high and extensive commands over provinces containing several millions of people, which supplied armed bands to support the several rivals for the throne of Delhi. These struggles for power produced an almost uninterrupted state of civil war for many years, exhausting the strength of the partizans engaged in them, and allowing some of those chiefs, under the title of Nabobs or Viceroys, residing at a distance, to throw off their allegiance, and to form engagements with other powers, in order to give stability to their own positions. During the latter part of the reign of Aurangzib he evinced so much zeal in the cause of Islam, and displayed so much bigotry and persecution towards his Hindu subjects, that they lost no opportunity of shaking off the yoke of his rule, and recovering their independence. Among others were the nation of Mahrattas, who, led by a partizan named Sivajy, a chief of noble birth, and the son of the minister of the King of Bijapûr, drew upon him the vengeance of the Emperor. The efforts of the Mogul Government were insufficient to restrain Sivajy,

who, after a few years of extraordinary personal activity, combined with uncommon sagacity, caused himself to be crowned king, as Raja of Satara and head of the Mahratta nation, before Aurangzib's death. During Sivajy's short, but vigorous reign, he organized a system of government admirably calculated for the purpose of gradually sapping the foundation of all others. The principle of the Mahratta rule was to levy a tribute of one-fourth of the land revenue from all other States, but more especially from the Mahomedans; to demand this at the head of large bodies of horse, which passed through the country peaceably till the requisition was resisted, when they ravaged it with all the ferocity and licentiousness of soldiers let loose to plunder. The resistance they occasionally encountered taught them the importance of discipline, obedience to their rulers, and eventually the art of war. Independently of their plundering expeditions, the Raja of Satara was always ready to subsidize his soldiers, no matter in what cause, to those who paid best: so that the Mahrattas became at one time the partizans of the feeble Emperors of Delhi to protect them against their

rebellious nobles; at another, they sided with the nobles against the supporters of the throne. This state of things continued for the first thirty-three years after Aurangzib's death, by which time the Mahrattas had established their claims to their fourth of the land revenue from Hindostan as far south as Tanjore, including Mysore. The feeble condition of the Mogul Emperor at Delhi, and the dissensions among his nobles, afforded an inviting opportunity for Nadir Shah, King of Persia and Afghanistan, to invade India through the Punjab, and to sack the imperial city. Having carried off unheard-of wealth in gold and jewels, besides whole colonies of the inhabitants as slaves, he went through the form of replacing the monarch Mahomed Shah on the throne of Delhi, and returned to Persia. This event took place in 1740, an era memorable in the British annals of India. At this time the southern part of India, denominated the Deccan, was in the hands of Nizam-ul-Mulk, once the minister of the Emperor, and now the Mahomedan Viceroy of a territory still held by his lineal descendant, having an area of 95,000 square miles, and a population of 10,000,000 of subjects. His vice-

royalty extended over the modern Carnatic, and along the eastern coast from Cuttack as far south as Tanjore. His deputies in the Carnatic followed the course pursued by the nobles of the Great Mogul in other parts, and claimed their independence as hereditary successors to their Nabobships. Among others was the Nabob of Arcot, within whose principality were the mercantile factories of the English in Madras and Cuddalore, and that of the French at Pondicherry. The European powers took opposite parts; the English supporting the Nabob of Arcot, who claimed the Musnud in right of succession, and the French the authority of the Nizam and of a pretender to the Nabobship, whose cause they favoured.

The European auxiliaries soon became principals in the war: they demanded payment for their services, which the Nabob, being incapable of reimbursing to the English in money, repaid by a temporary assignment of territorial revenue; while the French not only received large sums in cash for past services, but the cessions of a tract of country on both banks of the Kishna River, denominated the Circars.



The influence of the French at the Court of the Nizam, at Hyderabad, was paramount, and promised to become the origin of a great power in the heart of the Peninsula, but circumstances occurred which destroyed all these fair prospects. The mismanagement of their affairs at Pondicherry, and the energy and talent displayed by their rivals, the English, overthrew all their projects, and, in a few months, left them without an inch of territory. The limits to which I have confined myself do not permit of my dwelling on the course of the brilliant successes of the English during the succeeding period, which are matters for the historian.

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## PART II—MILITARY RESOURCES.

THE wars in which we were at first engaged, came so suddenly and unexpectedly upon us, and our European forces were so inadequate to meet the exigencies of the time, that it became necessary to entertain the natives of the country to aid us. The experiment, though bold in the first instance, succeeded marvellously;

and the confidence which we have ever placed in our Native soldiery has been reciprocated on their part by a fidelity and attachment to their colours in the most trying situations that men can be placed in. They have resisted the attempts to wean them from their allegiance, even by princes in whose territories their families resided, and which were their natural homes. They have refused, when worked in chains and ill-fed, as prisoners of war, to purchase their release by entering the service of our enemies. They have deprived themselves of part of their prison diet to feed their officers confined in unwholesome dungeons; and they have fought side by side with their European comrades, whom they have never deserted, but have been true to their standards, and have shared their fate everywhere and under every circumstance.

If, on the one hand, the sepoy has been thus distinguished for his fidelity, on the other hand it must be confessed that no Government has ever been more liberal and just towards its Native army. In addition to the ration-money (termed Batta) which they receive in the field, they have an extra allowance whenever

provisions exceed a fixed price. When employed on foreign service, on ship-board, or out of India, each sepoy has extra pay,\* which he is allowed, if he chooses, to leave with any member of his family, who, in case of his death abroad, becomes his heir, and receives whatever may be due to him at his death, besides a pension for life. In the Madras and Bombay armies—in the former forty and in the latter twenty-five—sons of men who have died in the regiment are received on the recruit establishment at twelve years of age, are educated in a regimental school, and learn all the duties of soldiers before they are of an age and size to fill up the vacancies which occur. This begets an attachment between the men and officers, alike natural and honourable to both.

The Indian army, according to the latest returns, consists of 51,316 Europeans of all arms, and 230,904 Natives, besides upwards of 32,300 Natives, commanded by European officers, in the service of our allies, and available for our own service,—making a total of 315,530 well-disciplined troops; and such is the desire to enlist, that it would at any time

be easy to augment the Native force to any desirable extent. In addition to this force we may calculate on the assistance of 398,918 light troops of our allies, which by treaty they are bound to furnish when called on to do so: making a disposable force of 714,439 men and officers. The European force is kept efficient in numbers by a constant succession of men to fill up vacancies, so that between four and five thousand go out annually to supply the casualties by death or incompetency. The numerical calculation of men between the ages of twenty and forty, of the Native population, gives 15,750,000 capable of bearing arms, which, at the moderate computation of one in ten—the number allowed for the armies in Europe in time of peace,—would furnish a body of 1,570,000 men.

The Emperor Acber is stated to have organized an army of 950,000 cavalry, and half that number of infantry, artillery, and artificers. In addition to which he calculated on 4,400,000 militia or police, which is about the proportion that sixteen millions of the aboriginal race, residing in the outskirts of towns as the village police, would afford. There is no other way

for accounting for this extravagant calculation. There is reason to believe, however, that the whole amount of force on paper was never actually embodied.

The operations of the Indian army within the last sixty years, have occasionally been on a large scale. In the war with Tippu, in 1799, upwards of forty thousand troops, independent of as many more allies, carried on a campaign in the field, and eventually laid siege to Seringapatam, which was taken by storm, with heavy loss. In the Mahratta war of 1817-18, the British forces amounted to 120,000 men, manœuvring over an extent of country of as many square miles, separated into thirteen divisions, to meet an extensive confederacy of several Mahratta princes. The latter appeared in the field with upwards of 200,000 men, in different parts at the same moment, and had to be promptly attacked to prevent their junction with each other. Between the months of October, 1817, and March, 1818, ten pitched battles were gained by the English (in some of which the loss was as great as was sustained, proportionately, at Waterloo), and thirteen forts and towns were reduced by siege.

These heavy losses invariably occur where the enemy's troops are trained to European discipline, as we found to be the case in the wars of the Punjab.

These facts show with what determination our Native enemies oppose us, with all our advantages of European troops and European officers. We have never found our sepoys hang back when opposed even by Europeans. A Bengal regiment stood the brunt of a charge from the French, at the battle of Porto Novo, in 1782, and drove them back. They were equally active at the battle of Port Louis, on the Isle of France; and at the Lines of Westervieden, in Batavia, in 1811; and should it ever happen that they have to contend with Russians on our frontier, they will be found to be as staunch Orientals as those who defended Silistria and Kars, or who repulsed the Russians, in 1854, along the banks of the Danube, —with the superior advantage of being commanded by well-trained and experienced European officers.

From the extent of surface the army has to protect, its distribution lies over more than two hundred military stations. These undergo

annual reliefs of one or other branch,—the army possessing, in this respect, the great advantage of practical experience during a time of peace. The troops at every station are required to exercise together frequently. In moving from one post to another, each corps is supplied with tents, carriage, and commissariat, as if in the field; and, as these movements frequently extend to some hundreds of miles, they involve all the contingent duties of a state of war, with the exception of fighting.

On arriving at their destination, the Native troops receive hutting money to enable them to provide cover for themselves; and they are expert in all the necessary handicraft for such work.

The European officers enter the army as cadets. They are nominated by the members of the Court of Directors and President of the Board of Control, and either proceed direct to India, or enter the Military College at Addiscombe. In either case they are subjected to a strict military examination, and on their efficiency depends their appointment. All officers for the engineer and artillery corps,

after passing their examination, enter the Addiscombe College, and after a course of two years' study they are sent out to the scientific branches of the army, and take rank according to their proficiency. The college numbers 150 students, from whom about 75 are withdrawn annually. In case the demand for the scientific corps does not amount to that number, the surplus are appointed to the infantry, with date of rank from the time they leave the college. The cadets of engineers finish their education with the Royal Engineers at Chatham, and the artillery undergo additional instruction in the laboratories at their headquarters in India.

Commissions in the Indian army are not obtainable by purchase. The whole of the officers succeed, by rotation in their own corps, to the rank of field-officers, when they rise in line, but separately at each of the Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay. Chance may accelerate promotion in one regiment more than in another, but no officer can be superseded by purchase. Retiring pensions are granted to the several ranks of Captain, Major, Lieutenant-Colonel, and Colonel, with