THE

GOVERNMENT

OF INDIA

A PRIMER FOR

INDIAN SCHOOLS

THIRD EDITION.

BY

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THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

CONTENTS.

PREFACE TO FIRST EDITION.

THIS little work is offered for the use of native students, but it may possibly have a wider circle of readers if translated into the Vernacular. It does not pretend to be more than an outline sketch of the subject, and many important points have necessarily been left untouched. The mass of the people in India have no sort of idea of the machinery by which they are governed, and regard the policeman, or at furthest the Collector, as the final arbitrator in their troubles. It may help us, in some measure, if we can get them to take a wider view of their position, and, perhaps, to understand, and even interest themselves in the task of civilization and progress.

H B.

MOZUFFERPORE;
March 1888.

PREFACE TO SECOND EDITION.

THE demand for a Second Edition of this little work enables me to revise and slightly improve its contents. Since its first publication, a most interesting and valuable work (India, by Sir John Strachey) has appeared, which will be very useful to advanced students. It has afforded me some facts and figures which I gladly acknowledge.

H. B.

THE

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

A PRIMER FOR INDIAN SCHOOLS.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

THE vast country which is called India by European nations, forms, as now governed by the British, the most prosperous and important Empire in the Eastern world. Bounded on its southern flanks by the sea, on the north by the Great Himalayan Mountains, on the east by the Chinese Empire, and on the west by Afghanistan and Biluchistan, it embraces people of many different races and speaking many languages, all of them being now held together under a stable Government, which desires the peaceful progress and welfare of all classes, and the protection of all religions. Those who have passed their lives in one province, or perhaps only in one district of this great country, must

find it difficult to realize the enormous extent of the whole Empire, or understand the action and the principles which influence the Central Government. It is, therefore, the object of this little book to lay before the less educated classes and the student, such a brief outline of the system of British rule in India, as will enable them to take a larger interest in what is passing before them day by day, or even stimulate them to desire a deeper knowledge of the methods of government. There are men now living whose grandfathers could have told them what India was in the days when it was under native government; how its princes waged ceaseless wars with each other, laying waste great tracts of country and bringing widespread ruin to the trader and the cultivator; how taxes were levied without system or limit, and all classes plundered by either grasping officials or a cruel soldiery; how life and property were at the mercy of wandering bands of thugs and dacoits, and trade could only be carried on by means of well-armed escorts. In those days there were no railways, no newspapers, no telegraphs, no system of general education, no code of law, nor regular Courts of Justice; while in our days a man may travel in safety from Calcutta to Peshawar, or from

Benares to Juggannath, and find along his whole journey the country under one law and one government. If oppression or extortion still exists in remote districts, it is not due to the neglect of the Government so much as of those who will take no trouble to help themselves.

In studying this account of the present Government of India, it must be borne in mind that whatever may be the indirect value to England of holding the country, no direct benefit is derived from its resources; not one rupee leaves India for England that is not represented in value returned, in the shape of goods or of services performed; no money goes to England as a mere contribution to its revenues.

CHAPTER II.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF INDIA.

BEFORE entering on an account of the manner in which India is governed at the present day, it will be well to lay before the student a brief description of the country, its political divisions, principal races, and general physical characteristics. It is a common experience to find students who are overburdened with the dry facts of history, an ill-digested mass of information about battles, conquests, and dynasties, but who are too frequently wholly ignorant of even the outlines of the geography of the countries, and the relative character of the people whose histories are so familiar to them Thus in Indian schools there are hundreds of intelligent lads who know a good deal about history, logic, algebra, and other difficult things, but who are unable to state the limits or even the recognised name of the district they live in. We shall not, therefore, waste time if, before we begin to consider the government of this country, we take a brief survey of its extent. It is practically correct to say that the limits or boundaries of the India governed by the British were

fixed about the time of the great Military Mutiny of 1857, and its present area, including Native states, is over 1½ million square miles with a population of 245 millions, as follows :—

	Area in square miles.	Population.	Average number to the square mile.
Province of Bengal	189,034	62,724,840	332
,, of the Punjab	98,461	17,604,505	179
,, of the North-West Provinces, and Oudh ...	105,471	41,971,322	303
Central Provinces ..	84,048	8,215,167	98
Assam	41,798	4,132,019	91
Burmah ...	290,000	8,000,000	28
Madras Presidency .	138,318	31,281,177	226
Bombay do. ...	124,457	16,228,774	130
Native States ..	510,000	55,000,000	108
Total ...	1,581,587	245,157,804	...

It will be noticed that the Native states cover about one-third of the whole area, with more than a fourth of the whole population. The wide differences in the number of people to each square mile in the different provinces should also be noticed. The highest number is that for Bengal, *viz.*, 332, and is to be accounted for by

the dense population in the rich plains of the Ganges, Bramaputra and Megna valleys where, in some parts, there are as many as 800 people to the square mile. In large towns, as for instance in Calcutta, this figure would be very much higher if the area taken was that only of the municipal limits. In the Central Provinces, Assam, and particularly in Burmah where there are mountain ranges and large tracts of still uncultivated and uncultivable land, the figure of population to the square mile is very low.

There is some difficulty in making clear to a person who has not been beyond the limits of his own district, the enormous area implied by the figure given for that of the whole of India. Bengal alone has an area but little less than that of the whole of the German Empire, and a population half as great again. The area of the Madras Presidency is only about a quarter less than that of France, and has a population of but little less If, again, the whole of India was divided into districts of the average size of those in charge of "Collectors," it would give us about eight hundred such districts The total length of the River Ganges is 1,500 miles, and that of the railway from Calcutta to Peshawar on the Afghanistan frontier about the same

distance, and from Peshawar in the north to Cape Comorin on the extreme south, the direct distance is not much short of 2,000 miles. The enormous extent of the country will suggest to the student the first and most obvious difficulty in governing it, and when in addition we consider how many different races of people inhabit it, how many different languages are spoken, the wide diversity of religion and character, of habits of thought and life, the varied systems of agriculture and land tenure, and lastly the wide differences of climate over so vast an area, we shall more readily understand the task which has been undertaken by the British Government. The martial races of Upper India, the Sikhs, Pathans, and Rajputs, offer the most complete contrast in both mind and body to the mild and almost effeminate races of lower India or to the semi-barbarous hill tribes of the Deccan, Central India, and our Eastern frontiers. The diversity of language in India is probably quite as great as it is in Europe. A Bengali could not understand one word of what would be said to him by a Madrassi or even by a Rajput of Central India, nor could they understand his speech. The principal languages in India may not exceed twelve in number, but the

various dialects which are based on them must be numbered by hundreds, while the varied religions in India and the countless sects they have given rise to, would need a bulky volume to describe even briefly.

If we include Ceylon, the great triangle which contains our Indian Empire may be said to have a base of 2,000 miles at its greatest width and a depth of about the same distance. At its extreme southern point, it is within eight degrees of the equator, while at its northern limit it is in the 35th degree of north latitude and far beyond the tropical zone of the earth. The central part of India is generally a high table-land, from which many large rivers, as the Nerbudda, the Sone, the Mahanuddy, and Godavery, take their rise. Much of this high country is rocky and still covered with forest, but it contains valuable minerals, such as coal, iron, and copper, the first two of which are already extensively used on our railways On the western edge of this high land is the range of the Aravalli mountains which run roughly north and south, and outside this, between it and the river Indus, lies the great sandy desert of Rajputana, in which the Marwari towns of Bikaneer, Jodhpore, and Jeysulmere are to be found, surrounded with great

wastes of sand where the wells are sometimes as much as 400 feet deep. The line of coast round the sea side of India extends from Burmah round to Hooghly down to Madras and Ceylon and up by Bombay to Kurachi, a total distance of some 4,000 miles. On the eastern side of India lies the port of Calcutta on the Hooghly river, where perhaps the largest trade in the country is carried on. Any day in the year, some 30 or 40 large sailing ships, with 3 or 4 masts, and most of them carrying over 50,000 maunds each, may be seen lying in the river besides almost as many more steam ships, which go to all parts of the world taking away grain, seeds, hides, tea, silk, and many other articles, and bringing back metals, salt, cotton piece-goods, railway material, and the countless things we get from other places than India. Between Calcutta and Madras, which is the next large port which lies directly on the sea shore, there are many small ports frequented by country boats, and below Madras there are many more. On the western side we have Bombay, one of the largest and best ports in the world, and Marmagoa, a new port which is now connected with our Indian railway system. Three of our largest railways pour their traffic into Bombay

and there are, as in Calcutta, docks and jetties where ships can come close up to the railway lines, and by means of machinery a large ship carrying perhaps 70,000 maunds can be loaded in two days. Further up, on the western coast is the harbour of Kurachi near the mouth of the river Indus, to which the produce of the Punjab and Afghanistan is now brought by the railway from Lahore and Peshawar and by the new railway from Quetta.

Great differences exist in both the character of the soil and the amount of rain that falls every year in different parts of this great country. At Mooltan in the Punjab only 7 inches of rain fall in the year; in Sind there is scarcely ever any rain at all, and in Rajputana not much more than 15 inches; while the average in Bengal and Bombay is about 67 inches. The greatest rainfall occurs on the Khasia Hills in Assam, where the rainfall reaches a total of sometimes 600 inches or 50 feet in a year. Such differences in the amount of rain cause equal differences in methods of cultivation. In Bengal, for instance, wheat and barley, and indeed most "rubbee" crops, grow without irrigation; while in the Punjab in Sind, and many other provinces, every rubbee

crop is irrigated from wells or canals At the time when the rainy season is in full force in Bengal, there is no rain in the Madras province, and on the other hand when this latter country is receiving its annual rains, the weather in Bengal is bright and clear. The reasons for this are too complicated to explain in a little work of this nature; but the student should not long remain in ignorance of the general causes which influence the rainfall of India. A very limited knowledge of natural science would enable him to understand the leading features of the meteorology of the country, and to get rid of the erroneous and superstitious ideas on this subject which are so common amongst the lower and even the upper classes of natives. The Great Himalayan range of mountains, which presents the highest peaks in the world, covers the whole of the northern flank of India and largely contributes towards the phenomena of our climate. Very many points in this great mountain range are over 25,000 feet, or, say, 5 miles in height above the level of the sea, and above 15,000 feet are covered throughout the year with snow. The Ganges, the Jumna, the Bramaputra and other large rivers have their sources in the Himalayas, and in the hot

weather, when the snows are melting, the water is icy cold as it issues on to the Indian plains. The warm moisture-laden winds at this season drop all their rain on the Indian side of these mountains, and were it not for this cold barrier, our rivers would run almost empty and our summer rains would perhaps have no existence.

Enough has perhaps been said to give the student a general idea of the vast extent and varied character of the country and people now held as one Empire under the British Government; and to show him that the laws and methods of administration which may suit one portion of it may be unsuited to another, and that the interests, the feelings and aims of this enormous population, are so often widely different as to make the work of ruling them a most difficult and at times even dangerous task.

CHAPTER III.

The System of Government.

It is intended in this chapter to offer a brief account of the general system on which India is governed, and to describe in other chapters the working of some of the most important branches of the administration. India is ruled primarily by the Empress of India, acting through the Secretary of State for India, who, as one of the great ministers of the Empire of Great Britain, holds his office at the pleasure of the Houses of Parliament. Consequently no action can be taken in India on any important question or in any important legislation, without the knowledge and assent of Parliament in England. The Secretary of State is supported by a staff of permanent officers and by a body termed the Council of India, which is composed of fifteen retired Indian officers and business-men, who hold office for 10 years. This Council was established for the purpose of affording advice and recent information on Indian matters to the Secretary of State, and in ordinary cases his decisions are based on the majority of votes in the Council. The majority

of the Council must be composed of persons who have served or resided in India for at least 10 years, and who have not left India more than 10 years before their appointment. The India Office in London is one of the largest and finest offices in the world, and the work in connection with this country requires a large staff of clerks and officers.

The Secretary of State for India has the power of refusing sanction to any act of the Government in India, and even of setting aside the advice of his Council; but in so doing he is, of course, liable to be called to account by Parliament. Such action is rarely taken however, and, if done, is generally supported by the opinion of the other great ministers of the Queen. The list of persons in the Council at present includes five who have been either governors of provinces or in the Council of India, four are military officers, two are engineers, one is a banker and three are men of diplomatic, official or mercantile experience. Every order proposed to be made by the Secretary of State must be laid before the Council unless the matter is urgent, and he cannot order any ordinary ex-

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Sir J. Strachey's "India."

penditure whatever from the revenues of India without the consent of a majority of the Council, with the exception of matters involving secrecy or war, which in fact do not necessarily come before the Council at all.

The Viceroy and Governor-General is the head of the Government in India, and is appointed by the Sovereign on the advice of her ministers, and holds his appointment for the term of five years. He is generally some one who has established his reputation as a statesman in Europe, and the appointment is one of the most important among the many of the same nature in the British Empire. The Viceroy receives a large salary ; but the expenses of the position are heavy, and few can accept or do justice to it without large private means in addition The Viceroy has also a Council called the Supreme Council of India, and also another Council for making laws only, the Supreme Legislative Council, which includes the members of the Supreme Council and nine others or more, some of whom are non-officials. The Supreme or Executive Council consists of six members, and its position is equivalent to that of a "ministry" in Europe. Each member has distinct functions as heads of the principal departments of

Government, *viz.*, the Commander-in-Chief of the Indian Army, the military member, the legislative member, the financial member, the public works member, and the political and foreign states member, &c.

The Supreme Council of India is, like the Secretary of State's Council in England, really an advising one, but each member has also recognized administrative power individually, and thus, acting with the concurrence of the Viceroy, the Council may be said to be the great governing power in India. Their duties may in fact be considered to be more distinctly administrative than advising, as each has definite charge of an important department of government. The Foreign Department which is the one which deals with native states and foreign powers is generally in the hands of the Viceroy himself, and the other departments, *viz.*, Home Revenue and Agriculture, Finance, Military, Public Works and Legislative are each in the hands of a member of Council. The Viceroy has Secretaries for each important department, who write orders in the name of "the Governor-General in Council." They bring up papers to the Viceroy, attend meetings of the Council, if necessary, and are practically the responsible and qualified

heads of their departments. The duty of a Secretary is to prepare cases ready for decision by the Council and he submits it with his own views. In minor cases the member of Council concerned disposes of them finally, and more important ones are sent on by the Councillor to the Viceroy for approval. If he does not approve, the matter goes before the whole Council.

Subordinate to the Supreme Government are the five principal Provincial Governments, *viz.*, those of Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the North-West Provinces and the Punjab, and besides there are numerous "Local Administrations" as they are termed, governed by Chief Commissioners or Agents to the Governor-General. The Governments of Madras and Bombay have each Executive and Legislative Councils, while Bengal and the North-West Provinces have the latter only. Each of the large provinces has a High Court, which is supreme in all civil and criminal cases, but final appeal lies from their decisions to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in the House of Lords in England. The expense and delays involved in such appeals are very serious, and they are only resorted to as a rule by wealthy litigants.

All the provinces under the British Govern-

ment are divided into districts, in charge either of Collectors, or in non-regulation provinces of Deputy Commissioners. The non-regulation provinces are those in which all the laws of the Government are not necessarily put in force, for the reason that they are unsuited to a somewhat backward state of the people, and for the same reason greater freedom of action is accorded to district officers. There are about 240 districts in British India, the average area of each being about 3,750 square miles, and with an average population of 800,000 souls. The districts in each province are for administrative purpose grouped into divisions, consisting of four or more districts under Commissioners, who correspond with the head of the Government through the different Secretaries according to the subject dealt with. Each district is again divided into smaller units under subordinate officers, such as sub-districts or sub-divisions, tahsils, pergunnahs, and police charges called thannahs. The duties of a Collector and Magistrate of a district are very various, extensive and arduous; and, if properly fulfilled, would require a man of almost universal knowledge and very exceptional ability. A description of his duties cannot be given more truly than in

the words of Dr. W. W. Hunter, which may be paraphrased as follows :—He is a fiscal officer, *i.e.*, charged with the collection of the revenue from the land and other sources. He is also a Civil and Criminal Judge. He is, moreover, the representative of a paternal Government, and is supposed to supervise the police, jails, education, municipalities, roads, sanitation, dispensaries, and local taxation, besides many other minor matters. He is expected to be acquainted with the social life and habits of the natives in his district, to speak their languages, and to have some knowledge of agriculture and engineering. He should be at once something of a lawyer, an accountant, a "scientist," and have a ready hand with his pen. In addition, he should be a keen judge of men, and have a kindly manner with all classes; while he should also be a good sportsman, and be ready to ride 30 or 40 miles at short notice. How few men can reach this standard of requirements need not be said; but it is sufficient to note the varied work and responsibility of a Collector's duties.

We have thus traced down the chain of our rulers from the Queen to the Collector of a district and we might go further down, *viz.*, to the policeman, who, in his humble work, may be

said to be the last link in the long chain of our governors, for he, too, is carrying out laws approved by our rulers. It should be clearly understood from the foregoing description that while the Viceroy and Governor-General with his Council is the Supreme ruler of the whole country, there are under him the Governors and Lieutenant-Governors of provinces who, in all the details of provincial Government, are subject to little or no interference beyond general supervision; but there are some matters of general importance and affecting the whole of India, which are disposed of entirely by the Central Government, such as the finance of the empire as a whole, the military defence of the country and the arrangements connected with Foreign and Native states. The administration of the Post Office and Telegraphs is also directly controlled by the Supreme Government and the railways are likewise in a great measure directed or advised from the same source. A very large proportion of the superior appointments in the executive and judicial branches of the Government of the country is held by natives of India, the only qualification for which is established ability and honesty, irrespective of race or religion; indeed, of about 2,800 such appointments,

fully 2,000 are filled by natives; and compared with what is necessarily given to Englishmen and with the emoluments in French or other colonies, the salaries and pensions are very liberal and should suffice both to attract highly educated men and to place them well beyond the reach of temptation. The basis of the system of the British Government of India, as indeed of every civilized state, rests on the assumption of the purity and honesty of purpose of its servants. But however well organized it may seem; however benevolent may be its motives towards both rich and poor, it must inevitably fail in fulfilling its intentions if this essential is wanting. It would clearly be of comparatively small importance that a Viceroy, a Lieutenant-Governor or a Collector should be above suspicion, if the vast body of subordinate officers below them could not be depended on to fulfil their duties with a full sense of the importance of the trust conferred on them, and with untarying zeal and impartiality. Fortunately for India this essential is being rapidly realized, and it would be no idle boast to assert that as a whole, the subordinate civil service of India is, both in capacity and in trustworthiness, already at least equal to that of many European countries.

CHAPTER IV.

THE GOVERNMENT OF NATIVE STATES.

IN the table given at the commencement of Chapter II, it will have been noticed how large a proportion of the whole country is composed of Native states. Including both large and small they can be numbered by hundreds; but the principal states are not much more than 60 in all. The following list gives the area, population, and the character of the ruling class of the largest of them.—

	Area in square miles	Population	Ruling class.
Hyderabad	98,000	10,500,000	Musalman.
Kashmir ..	68,000	1,600,000	Hindu.
Nepaul	54,000	2,000,000	Ditto.
Jodhpore . .	35,670	2,000,000	Do. Rajput
Gwalior . .	33,119	2,500,000	Do Mahratta
Mysore	27,070	5,050,000	Ditto.
Bhawalpore . .	22,000	500,000	Musalman
Bhopal	6,900	955,000	Ditto.
Rewah	13,000	2,035,000	Hindu.
Udaipore	11,614	1,161,400	Do. Rajput.
Indore	8,015	635,000	Do Mahratta.
Baroda	8,600	2,200,000	Do. do.
Putiala	5,412	1,650,000	Sikh.
Travancore ...	5,630	2,311,380	Hindu.
Bikanir	22,340	300,000	Do. Rajput.
Jeysulmere ...	16,447	72,000	Do. do.

Speaking generally it may be said that of the whole of peninsular India, *i.e.*, excluding Burmah, one-third of the whole country and about one-fifth of the population is still under native rulers: and although none of them are now allowed to exercise the full powers of a sovereign, such as the right to wage war, to negotiate with each other, or power of life and death, yet subject to these important and some other minor but necessary restrictions, they have very ample scope for good and for evil in the government of their territories. The character of the control exercised by the British Government over Native states varies considerably, according to their size and importance, and with the conditions and circumstances which led to their becoming subject to the British rule. All, or nearly all, pay a small tribute yearly to the British Government and all have the advantage in return of its advice and assistance in time of trouble, and are absolutely protected from attempts from within or without to upset their rule. They are now moreover assured that, unless for some very grave faults, their territory is henceforth safe from annexation, and that they may confidently count on the steady continuance of their family "on the Guddee."

Each State communicates with the Government through a Resident, who may be charged with the duty of looking after one State or a group of small ones. These Residents see that Native Princes fulfil the obligations entered into with the Government, and offer advice in disputes. The Residents are subordinate to an Agent of the Governor-General, who has charge either of some one large state or of a large group of smaller states, and who is in direct communication with the Foreign Department. Except in cases of gross oppression or injustice, the system of government in Native states is rarely interfered with. Instances, such as that of a former Gaekwar of Baroda, who was deposed for reasons of this kind, are happily very rare, and the excellent example set by his successor has made ample amends for the trouble of former years. In the case of a ruler of a Native state dying without an heir, the British Government consults the leading men of the state as to the proper person to be selected to rule, and if this person is too young to be able to govern at once, a Council of State is appointed, as in the case at present of the Gwalior Raj, to rule the state under the advice of a selected officer of the Political Department whose action

is carefully watched by the Viceroy. When the elected ruler comes of age, he is formally installed "on the Guddee," with proper ceremony, by the Viceroy of India or an officer of high rank.

All Native states are permitted to maintain bodies of soldiers of such numbers as are suitable to the size and condition of each country. In some states, however, as in Hyderabad, the Gwalior Raj, and others, the armies are more numerous and expensive than are in any way needed, or that the state can properly afford. In most cases these "armies" are kept up out of mere pride and desire to make a better show than some neighbouring state, or to provide comfortable places for the friends of the officials in the "durbars." Such large bodies of troops are really more a source of danger than of safety both to the states employing them and to the British Government, and wise and good rulers would reduce them to the lowest possible numbers. They have now a good opportunity of doing this in fulfilling their offers of military assistance to the Supreme Government in case of invasion which will enable them to decrease their forces to small numbers of properly trained and really useful soldiers.

It is necessary that the student should clearly

understand that while the term "Native State" implies that it is one that is not directly governed by British officers, it does not necessarily mean that it is ruled by people of the same class as the mass of the population. As has been well said,* the rulers of some of the Native states are as much foreigners to the people they rule as the English are. For instance, the ruler and ruling class of Hyderabad are Musalmans, while nearly the whole of the rural population is Hindu. Again, the rulers of the Baroda, Gwalior, and Indore States are Mahrattas who have nothing in common with, and whose language indeed is not understood by the people they govern. This want of tie and sympathy with their subjects coupled with a most culpable ignorance of the simplest elements of the art of government and the duties of a ruler has inevitably brought many of the native states into collision with the supreme power. But I cannot do better than abbreviate an excellent passage from a recent work by Sir John Strachey, one of the ablest and most experienced of our Indian Governors. He says in effect that there are not many positions in which a man has larger powers for good, than that of the enlightened

* Sir John Strachey

ruler of a Native state. He is protected by the British Government from troubles within and without. He has at command considerable riches, and shares with the British Government in the benefits of roads, railways and canals to which he has probably contributed little or nothing. Wise and upright chiefs followed by men of the same stamp could bring their states into a condition of ideal prosperity and happiness. But unfortunately they are too often men who cannot resist the temptations of absolute power, and although from time to time a really good ruler is found, a man whose character claims the affection and respect of his people, it is always a matter of uncertainty as to what will happen at his death, and it is a common thing to find that his successor either sweeps away or leaves without the necessary support the advances and improvements he has been at pains to initiate and foster. Thus sooner or later comes the same story. There is a point at which the interference of the British Government becomes unavoidable, and there is scarcely one native state in which it has not been necessary to interfere or remonstrate for the protection of the people against their ruler. Writing of the administration of Native states in Central India

three years since the Agent to the Governor-General writes that "the peasants are little better than serfs. . . . Torture is a recognised part of the police and judicial procedure. . . . Every offence can be compounded for money. . . . The actual demand of the Government per head of the population is double, treble or quadruple what it is in British India." Of Kashmir the same officer says: "Nothing escapes taxation and bare life is all that the state leaves to the cultivator whose position is harder and as hopeless as that of a slave;" while of the administration of Native states as a whole he says it is "a wilderness of oppression and misrule." We must not however regard their condition as hopeless. The influence of example in British India, the education of young princes at colleges and their contact in this way with new ideas and with better standards of life and thought must surely tend slowly but certainly to a definite improvement in the principles which guide the rulers and the ruling classes in Native states. So long as men live only for their own pleasure or advancement and do not or cannot realize their duties as rulers, there is little prospect of any advance.

CHAPTER V

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF THE STATE.

THE total revenue of British India for the year 1884-85 was about seventy crores of rupees in round numbers. Excluding the small amount contributed in the shape of tribute by Native states, this would amount to about two rupees per head for each person in India, excluding those in Native states. Let us see in detail the principal items from which this large sum is derived, and we will afterwards see how it is expended. The principal item consists of the land-revenue, which produced 22 crores; then comes the tax on opium, 9 crores, which is paid mainly by consumers in China; salt-tax, 6½ crores; stamps and excise duties, 7½ crores; and sundry smaller items, 6½ crores. The balance is made up by receipts from the Postal and Telegraph Departments, from railways and canals, and other minor sources. The land-tax is raised on the understanding well recognised in India, that all the land belongs primarily to the Government, and that in some form or other, the cultivator or the zemindar must pay something for the right to use the land. The

tax presses but lightly on the people. In Bengal it amounts to about one rupee for each person a year. In the Madras Presidency it is about 1½ rupee per head, and in the Bombay Presidency about 2¼ rupees per head. But in Bengal the rate per head here given is only what the zemindars pay, as nearly the whole of this province is under zemindary or permanent settlement with the Government. The zemindars levy a much higher rate on their ryots, and it is in the endeavour to fix and reduce their rates that the new Bengal Rent Act has been passed by the Government.

Over nearly the whole of the rest of India the Government levies the land-tax either directly from the ryot, or indirectly from village communities through the headmen of villages. The ryot has recognised rights in his holding, and in some cases has the power of selling these rights. This, however, has been equally a boon and an evil to him, for while it has enabled him to raise money in bad times, it has also led him too frequently to raise more than he could readily repay, and in Central and Southern India, the ryots have got sadly into debt, and their land is passing into the hands of mahajuns; so that in the end, they will be

no better off than the ryots in Bengal. The assessment of the land-tax was fixed under the Moghul Empire at one-third of the produce of the land, and under many native rulers this has increased, according to the needs of the state, to one-half or even more. Under the British Government the assessment is much lower, and varies from between three and seven per cent. of the gross produce. In Bengal, and in part of the Madras Presidency, the land-tax has been fixed for ever under permanent agreements or settlements with the zemindars, but in other provinces the settlement is made by assessors for a certain period of years, say, from 10 to 30 years, during which period no alteration is made in the tax, and the cultivator is free to improve his land to the utmost. This is the case in Bombay and in most of Madras, and in the Punjab, North-West and Central Provinces, where the land-tax is settled more or less directly with the actual cultivator of the village lands.

The next large item is opium, but this tax is not paid really by India. It is levied from the large merchants in Bombay and Calcutta, who in their turn recover it from their agents in China, where nearly all the Indian opium goes.

The next item is the tax on salt. The salt which is consumed in India comes partly from the sea-coast, partly from Europe in ships, and partly from salt mines and lakes in Rajputana and the Punjab. About 75 per cent. is salt made in India, and the balance is imported. The tax on salt is now about 2½ rupees per maund, being a little higher in Bengal on imported salt. The amount of salt consumed is about 5½ seers, and the tax is about four annas for each person per annum. The revenue raised from stamps and excise is one that falls mainly on those who are either well off, or who are unwise enough to indulge in litigation, and on those who use intoxicating spirits and drugs. No tax is now levied in India on tobacco. The revenue from spirits is highest in Madras and Bombay, less high in Bengal, and lowest in the Punjab, and North-West Provinces On the other hand, Bengal, and particularly its Mahomedan population, pay rather heavily for intoxicating drugs.

It would only confuse the student to go into the figures of the minor sources of revenue, such as those from the customs at the ports, the receipts from railways and canals, the forests, telegraphs and others. The revenue is in any

case made up by the levy of regular taxes, or from regular sources of income, and, as a rule, the yearly expenditure is made to agree, as far as possible, with the yearly income of the Empire without having recourse to loans. Excluding the tax on opium, which, as has been explained, is really paid by China, and not by India, the total amount raised by taxation in British India in 1884-85 was about 42 crores, but this does not include Municipal taxation or road and other cesses, which, however, fall principally on the richer classes. In Great Britain with a population of barely a third of British India, the amount raised by taxation is nearly 70 crores, besides which they pay heavy local taxes to Municipalities for water-supply, poor-rates, &c. Under the Moghul Raj in Aurungzebe's time, when the population and area from which it was derived was very much smaller, the revenue raised by taxation was about 80 crores. The land-tax then, as now, gave about half of this, and the rest was made up by numerous taxes of all sorts, among others the poll-tax, or tax on each Hindu. Then there were taxes on religious assemblies, on trees, on marriages, on cattle, and even on the peasant's hearths. The poll-tax, according to Dr. W. W. Hunter, was levied on all

who were not Musalmans, and varied from 40 to 10 rupees yearly for each adult male, and he points out that the lowest of these figures, if now levied from each non-Musalman male adult, would alone yield an amount exceeding that of the whole present taxation in British India. He also shews how in one province, that of Orissa, which now does little more than produce enough revenue to pay the cost of its administration, it formerly, when the population was much smaller than it is now, was made to support a Raja with a magnificent court, a multitude of women in his harem, swarms of priests, a large army, and a very costly system of public worship. The Raja's share of the crops was 60 per cent., and indeed at that time, the mildest Native Government took 33 per cent. Even at the present day, as has been said by Sir A. Lyall, lately Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces, the majority of Native Governments take all they can get, and in ill-managed states, the cultivator is relentlessly squeezed, and though he is not sold up, is treated much the same as a good bullock. He is left with just enough to feed himself and his family, so that he may continue to work and produce revenue.

Let us turn now to the details of the expen-

diture of this income, and see where it all goes to. We will put them down in the order they are found in the annual statement of the Financial Department, and then explain each item briefly. They are as follows :—

	Crores of Rupees.
Interest on Loans	... 4¼
Direct demands on Revenue	... 9½
Post-office, Telegraphs, and Mint	... 2
Salaries and Expenses, Civil Department	... 11½
Miscellaneous Civil Charges	... 4
Famine Relief and Insurance	. 1½
Expenditure on Public Works	... 12½
,, ,, Non-productive	6½
Army ..	... 16
Exchange on England	... 3¼
Total, say	... 70

Taking the first item of *Interest* it has to be explained that this represents the interest on the public debt of India, that is, on money borrowed at various times for the construction of railways and canals, for the relief of famine, for the defence of the country, and other reasons. The total public debt of India in 1885 in India and in England was about 162 crores, and it may be noted that the public debt of England is about 800 crores, of France about 1,000

crores, and of Russia about 300 crores, not including a sum of nearly half as much more in the shape of paper-money issued with what is termed a "forced currency." The rate of interest on the public debt of India varies from 3 to 4½ per cent., and only about one-third of the money which has been borrowed has been lent by natives of India. The other two-thirds have been borrowed from England. It has been calculated that the share of each person in India of the interest to be paid on the public debt is about six annas a year, which is a very light load compared with that of other countries in the world

The *Direct demands on Revenue*, 9½ crores, represent the outlay needed for the collection of land revenue, for cultivation of opium, making of salt, the cost of customs establishments, forest outlay, and others, and generally speaking, the cost of levying the principal taxes. The Post-office, Telegraph, and Mint, 2 crores, represents the cost of these establishments and of the services performed by them for the public. The *Salaries* and expenses of the *Civil Department*, 11½ crores is clear enough, *viz.*, for the payment of the large body of European and Native servants of the

State in the civil administration of India and for payment of Judges and expenses of law courts. It also includes the cost of police, and of the educational, medical, and other minor services. On education alone the Government spends about 1¼ crores of rupees every year, which goes out in salaries and in grants-in-aid to schools.

The item of *Miscellaneous Civil Charges*, 4 crores, represents pensions to descendants of Native Princes, pensions and allowances to civil officers, stationery and printing, charitable payments, rewards for destruction of wild animals, books, and many small items in connection with the civil administration, all of which are shown in detail in the accounts of the Government and published yearly. *Famine Relief* and *Insurance*, 1½ crores, represents a sum set aside every year to meet the cost of probable famines, or to construct works for the prevention of famine. The famine of 1876-78 in Madras and the North-Western Provinces lasted for over a year. The Government remitted about 2 crores of land revenue and spent in food and relief operations about 8 or 9 crores more. The expenditure on *Public Works*, 12½ and 6½ crores, represents the cost of working

Government railways and canals, and interest on the capital spent by railway companies under a guarantee of a certain rate of interest by the Government.

The item of 16 crores for the *Army* is the largest in the whole list. This represents the cost of maintaining an army of about 130,000 native troops and 60,000 European troops for the defence of India, and to maintain peace within her limits. The last item, *Exchange* 3¼ crores, represents the cost of exchanging silver rupees for gold coins for all payments to be made in Europe. The relative value of silver as compared with gold in its power of purchasing has fallen seriously of late years, and this heavy charge has to be met out of the revenues of India for all payments made for stores, for salaries paid in England or for materials bought in Europe

The expenditure of the money raised each year from the people of India has thus been gone into in detail very briefly, and it would take very many pages to explain the numberless further details of even any one of the minor items. For instance, the cost of the civil medical service in India means an expenditure on keeping up a qualified doctor at the head-

quarters of every district in India and of maintaining a free hospital. It covers the cost of this and of vaccination, of lunatic asylums, and of medical colleges and schools. Again, the cost of education represents the maintenance of village, primary, normal, middle and high schools all over India, besides colleges for engineering, medicine, law and other professions. It covers the cost of maintaining ten Inspectors-General of Education, of some 450 Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of Schools, and some 5,000 Principals, Professors, Masters, and Teachers of all grades. Again, as regards the army, although only the numbers of the salaries are given, the money cost represents the maintenance not only of infantry, cavalry and artillery, but of all their uniform, arms and ammunition and that of the arrangements for feeding and housing them, and of their movements from one station to another.

CHAPTER VI.

Law and Police.

One of the most important differences between the system of Native government and that which has been adopted by the British in India lies in the fact, that in the former, the country was administered without any proper or generally recognised laws or regulations, while under the latter, every act of the Government or of its officers is required to be supported by published and public laws which are open to all, and which apply equally to rich or poor, and to the Government itself as well as to the people The framing of suitable, and generally applicable legislation for so large and diverse a population as India contains, has formed one of the most difficult, and at the same time, most eminently useful tasks which could fall to any alien Government, and after the adoption of laws, came the additional difficulty of devising the arrangements by which they should be properly recognised and enforced Before the English established themselves in Bengal, the greater part of India was under the rule of Moghuls who owed little more than a nominal allegiance

to the central power. The country was at this time incessantly disturbed by the quarrels and struggles of petty princes, or by the even more dreaded incursions of the Maharattas, and as recently as, say, a hundred years ago, although there were courts of law, generally under Moslem Judges, the feeble character of the Government, the absence of recognised law, and the ignorance and bad character of the Judges, made an appeal to such courts either a mere lottery, or places where justice was sold to the higest bidder. The decisions were liable, moreover, to be influenced by favouritism, or by the arbitrary orders of the ruler of the state, and as there existed no right of appeal except to the sovereign, the property and even the lives of the people were practically at the mercy of the Judges. In the year 1790, the English Government took over the direct superintendence of the administration of criminal justice, the Koran being made the basis of decisions for Mahomedans, and the Shastras for Hindus, and later on, the Government appointed regular officials as Judges, and declared that not only its subjects, but the Government itself would be amenable to the law. It soon, however, became obvious that the Koran and the Shastras did not suffice to meet the complica-

tions of either civil or criminal cases at the present day, and from time to time it was found necessary to pass special laws which were eventually brought together in the Indian Penal Code and in numerous Acts of the Legislature, dealing with crime and with civil disputes. At present our laws are designed and passed by Legislative Councils. For those which affect a province only, they are debated and passed, subject to the sanction of the Viceroy, by the Provincial Councils, and the plan is to place some proposed law in the hands of one or two members of the Council, who, in the first instance, prepare a draft, which is printed for general information and discussion. After a due time has elapsed, it is discussed section by section in Council, amendments and alterations made, and is finally passed as law. The same procedure takes place in the Viceroy's or Supreme Legislative Council as regards laws which apply to the whole or a considerable part of India. Every new law, whether passed by a Provincial Council or by the Supreme Council, has to be approved by the Queen or her advisers, who are responsible to the Parliament of Great Britain, and it some times happens that approval is not granted. On a law being finally

passed, it is printed several times, either in Provincial Gazettes, or in the *Gazette of India*, and copies are sent to all newspapers of any standing. It must be remembered, that one assumption of English law or, indeed, of that of every civilized country, is that after a law is passed, every one is supposed to know it, and it is no excuse in a Court of Justice for any one to plead that he did not know its conditions.

Let us see how the law is administered in India. We find in the first place that it is divided into Criminal law, and Civil law, that is to say, into the law respecting crimes, and the law respecting civil disputes, and beginning firstly with criminal cases, there are Magistrates of three classes.—The first class has powers which enable him to try cases punishable with imprisonment for two years, or fine of 1,000 rupees; the second class may punish up to six months' imprisonment or a fine of 200 rupees, and the third class up to one month and a fine of 50 rupees. The powers of Magistrates are granted according to the age and experience of the officer and the grant of such powers is made public by Notification in the Government Gazette. All cases of a more serious nature are tried by Judges who have powers to condemn a

criminal to death, but the sentence has to be confirmed by the High Court. Any conviction by a Magistrate of the second or third class may be appealed against to the District Magistrate. Appeals from Magistrates of a higher grade including the District Magistrate lie to the Sessions Judge and finally to the High Court. By this system of check or appeal a man, who is accused of any serious crime, has every chance of having the truth found out, but, of course, no system can positively ensure that an innocent man shall not be punished, especially in this country where false witnesses can be found at every street corner, and where also unhappily it is rare among the lower classes to find those who will speak "the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth."

For civil suits in Bengal, there are also three grades of Courts, *viz.*—The first or lowest, the Moonsiff's Court, next that of the Subordinate Judge, and the last or highest, the District Judge's. Moonsiffs have power to try any case up to the value of 1,000 rupees; they may also try any case referred to them out of their jurisdiction by superior authority. A Subordinate Judge tries suits above the value of 1,000 rupees or up to any amount. Appeals from decisions

in Moonsiff's Courts lie to the District Judge who may either hear them himself or transfer them to a Subordinate Judge for disposal. Appeals from Subordinate Judges lie to the District Judge when the value to the suit is not over Rs. 5,000. In other cases, these appeals go direct to the High Court. A second appeal in all appellate decrees lies to the High Court on points of law only. Appeals to the Privy Council in England must be of the value of 10,000 rupees and upwards. There are High Courts in Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras, and Chief Courts with similar powers at Allahabad and Lahore. The Judges of the High Courts are appointed by the Queen and are selected from officers of Government in the Civil Service and from barristers and pleaders of standing in the Presidency towns. Several natives hold positions as Judges of these courts, and have, it is said, done quite as well as the English Judges. It must be remembered that the Government has no power to direct or influence any court of law, and that any attempt of this nature made by any Government servant would at once be noticed by the High Courts, the members of which are responsible to the Queen, and not to the Government of India. The Subordinate

Courts are under the constant supervision of the High Court to which regular and elaborate returns of all cases tried are periodically sent All evidence taken by a Judge must be recorded in his own handwriting.

The Government is liable to be sued, and can sue in Civil Courts in the same way as any one else ; and the decisions of Judges have to be complied with by the Government as promptly as would be required in the case of the poorest person. The law, as passed by the Government, applies equally to the acts of its own officers as to that of the public, and herein lies the vast difference between law and justice under British rule, and that which existed formerly and even still exists under Native Governments. In old days, at any rate, a Judge or Kazi would have hesitated a good deal before giving a decree against the Governor of a province, and if he did do so, might think himself fortunate if he found his head on his shoulders at the end of the week. In the Native states of, say, Rajputana, at the present day, or, indeed, in any Native state, it is very doubtful whether a decree would be given by any Native Judge against the state, and if it was so given, there is very little likelihood of the decree being

attended to. It is not more than 10 years since, that when the ruler of one of the Rajput states could not get his dues from his nobles, he had to send soldiers and guns to batter the town before he had his orders attended to. Civil Courts either did not exist or were of no use in those parts. The strongest won the struggle, and right had to give way to might.

The institution of a Code of criminal law in India, its application to the whole empire, and the earnest endeavours made by the British Government to enforce it, have, it is considered, done something towards raising the standard of morals among the people. It regulates the machinery by which peace and order are maintained and by which crime and violence are prevented and punished. It defines the power of each Criminal Court and classifies each offence which each Judge can try. It controls the manner in which investigations are made by the police, the methods for the removal of public nuisances, the way in which accused persons are to be brought before a Judge, the rules for appeals, &c., and generally is a mass of law which deals with the every day life of the people and to use the words of Sir James Stephen, an eminent lawyer: "The system it lays down is

complete, efficient, and successful." The days when men of position might commit murder with impunity, or when gang robbery was connived at, or remained unpunished, are gone for ever. Thieving is no longer an almost honorable pursuit, and there are but few parts of the country now which either man, woman, or child could not traverse with safety either by day or by night. But it is in the comparatively minor crimes that the beneficial influence of the Indian Penal Code may be observed; in the infrequency of religious quarrels, in the comparative purity of minor officials; in the evidence of a growth of greater sense of honour in commercial dealing; in the rarity of cases of insult to women, and, above all, in the improvement in the public feeling as regards false evidence and lying generally. To tell the truth, no matter what may happen, is the first duty, the very foundation of all that a man can offer in claiming to be a civilized being. To lie is the habit of an ignorant savage or of a degraded man. It is still no unusual thing for men to give false evidence in law courts, specially in suits about property, and to not only boast to their friends of having done so, but to claim, what is quite untrue, that this is allowed by the

Shastras. When men of good position do such things, they set a bad example to poor people, and, what is worse still, to their own families, while under the law they render themselves liable to severe punishment for perjury.

The police of British India is now a very large force of about 1,50,000 men, one-third of whom are armed with gun and bayonet and are drilled to a certain extent like soldiers. Besides the regular police there are the village watchmen or rural police, who number about 7,00,000 men and are armed with a rough halbert or stick only Every district is divided into police "thannahs" or sub-divisions generally in charge of a native officer who has constables and other men under him. While at the head-quarters of each district there is a District Superintendent of Police generally an Englishman.

The need for a police force to keep the peace and to prevent and detect crime will be sufficiently obvious to the student. That the men are too often corrupt, and oppressive to the poorer people is unfortunately true, but it must be remembered that the Government cannot afford to pay them high wages, and that poor men placed in positions of great temptation must be expected to occasionally break the

trust imposed on them. The remedy for this lies more with the people than their rulers, the courage to resist and expose extortion is wanting, and there is at present too generally more sympathy with than disgust at the corruption and false evidence in our law courts.

CHAPTER VII.

THE CURRENCY OF INDIA.

A BRIEF account is necessary of the arrangements for the supply and the manufacture of money for the use of the people. In old days, before the time of the British rule, the native rulers of each kingdom established any standard that pleased them both as to the size, and the purity of coin issued; there was no regular system of supply, nor apparently was any attempt made to consider or meet the demands of traders. In some parts of a province there would be plenty of money to be had in the bazaars, while in other parts no money was to be found, and transactions between buyers and sellers had to be arranged by some rough method of exchange. A man who wanted a cow would give a quantity of rice in exchange, and the man who took the rice would exchange it, or part of it, for sugar, cloth, or whatever else he wanted. For many years after the British came to India, the coinage in different parts of the country varied very much in weight and value, and it was not until the year 1835, that the rupee was made the standard coin of India. It

consists of one tolah weight of a mixture of silver and alloy, the latter being one-twelvth of the whole weight, and being put into the coin in order to make it hard enough to stand the heavy wear it has to undergo, and to prevent its becoming bent and out of shape. Besides the rupee are the smaller coins of a half, quarter, and eighth of a rupee, *viz.*, of eight, four, and two annas. The rupee and the half-rupee can be offered in payment of a debt to any amount, but the smaller coins can only legally be offered for fractional parts of a rupee. Any person may bring silver to the Government mints, and have it coined into rupees on paying two per cent. on its value as a royalty, and if it is not fine silver, the cost of refining it in addition. This is the one way in which the Government makes rupees, but practically it amounts to this that the Government buys silver and makes coin whenever it is required for trade The total amount of silver turned into coin every year is nearly six crores in value. In addition to the silver coin, there are standard copper coins of the value of half an anna, quarter anna, and one pie or one-twelvth of an anna. Copper coin is received at Government treasuries in exchange for silver in sums

not exceeding two rupees. The Government allows gold coins to be made of the value of fifteen rupees, but these are not legally recognised, nor generally used as money.

In addition to the metal money there are notes of different values from five rupees up to 10,000 rupees or more The issue of this paper money is managed by a separate department of the Government, and regulated by a special law of which the main feature is, that notes can only be issued to such an amount as is set off by a reserve of corresponding value in silver and Government securities,—one-half of each. Each presidency, *viz.*, Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras, and the Punjab has its own circle of issue, and the notes of one circle are not legal tender except in that circle ; but may be cashed in another circle at the head office, in the Presidency towns This paper currency was instituted in 1862, and has been of great value and convenience both to the Government and to the public. The average monthly value of notes in circulation at present is not far short of 12 crores.

The rupee coined by the British Government in India is in use now over the whole of India, and is current in the bazaars in many of the

adjacent countries, *viz.*, in Burmah, in Ceylon, in Mauritius, in Aden, in China, in Thibet, in Kashmir, in Afghanistan, and even in Persia. Great care is taken to make the rupee of one uniform size and value, and an officer in each Presidency, who is called the mint-master, is charged with the special duty of attending to this. The student must understand that the various transactions, whether of the Government, of banks or of merchants, are not, as a rule, carried out by means of coin, but by cheques, hoondees and bills of all sorts. Thus if a merchant in Delhi wants to pay a bill for cloth in Calcutta he does not send down a bag of rupees, but he goes to some other trader or to a bank having need of money in Delhi, and on giving them the rupees, he gets an order on their agents in Calcutta, where they have, we will suppose, more rupees, than they need. The merchant might also pay his bill by sending Government notes, but the commonest and most probable way is that while he has received goods from Calcutta for which he owes money, he has, at the same time, sent goods, say, wheat to Calcutta, and the two transactions may probably nearly balance each other, or, if not, the difference only will have to be sent.

The student should recognise that the only concern the Government has with the money in use in India is to see that, firstly, there is a sufficient amount of it for trade and other purposes; and, secondly, that the money is of one weight, size, and purity. The amount of coin in use is in some degree regulated by the provision already referred to, by which the Government binds itself to coin all silver brought to the mint for this purpose, or, at any rate, to buy it for the purpose of being made into rupees No one would bring silver to a mint to get it made into coin unless he saw means of getting rid of it, and unless there was some small profit to be made by thus disposing of his silver.

Unfortunately, owing to the ignorance and the silly customs of the lower classes, a great deal of coin is yearly buried in the ground and hoarded, instead of being put out to interest or otherwise made profitable by the possessor. These ignorant people should know that every large post-office has a savings bank where money can be safely lodged with the Government and that 3¾ per cent interest is paid yearly on it, while by burying it they throw away this profit, and risk, as might happen at their death, the complete loss of the money for their family.

The rules for savings banks are all given very clearly in the Postal Guide, and a person can put in as small a sum as four annas at a time.

Up to about the year 1873 the value of the rupee in English money was two shillings and even more than this, so that ten rupees were equal in value to one English (gold) "sovereign" or "pound." But owing to causes which it would take long to explain, the value of the rupee, in English money, has now fallen about 32 per cent. (1889) and seems likely to fall lower still. The Government has to pay yearly in England very large sums in English currency for interest on Indian loans, for pensions, for stores purchased, and other items, amounting in all to about 14 million pounds annually Before 1873 this would have meant 14 crores of rupees, whereas it now means something like 18½ crores of rupees, and this great difference has to be met by curtailing the cost of administration as far as possible and by the imposition of additional taxation.

CHAPTER VIII.

PUBLIC WORKS.

IF it was desirable to offer a vivid contrast on some particular point between the government of India under Native rule, and what it is at present under British rule, no better subject could be treated than that of our public works. The expression "Public Works" is understood to mean all works which are carried out for the convenience and at the cost of the public. It includes works constructed either by the Government, by District Boards, by Municipalities, or by Companies, as distinguished from those made by private funds for private purposes. Under Public Works we should include railways, telegraphs, roads, canals, court-houses, and other offices, water-supply, barracks, docks, and public ware-houses. In former days, before the British raj, such works were rare, and were at any rate prosecuted without any system, without any regular annual programme, and too often more for the benefit of a few rich persons than for the people at large. For want of canals to bring water to the parched fields, and of roads and railways to bring food as in our day there was

scarcely a year passed but some part of India was sorely stricken with famine, and thousands or even millions, died without any possibility of relief. But within the last 50 years, and especially within the last two decades an immense amount of money has been spent with the purpose of avoiding these terrible calamities, and at the present day we have thousands of miles of bridged roads, thousands of miles of railways and canals, most of our large rivers are bridged, and we have five bridges across the Ganges alone. Fifty years ago it was thought a great thing to travel, but with infinite trouble, from Calcutta to Delhi in fifteen days. It can now be done by railway in comfort in 40 hours and a message can be sent by telegraph over the same distance in less than a minute. The great irrigation canals from the Ganges, the Jumna, the Sone and other large rivers, now carry water to millions of beegahs of thirsty land, and in some parts of Sind and the Punjab, immense districts have been reclaimed from absolute desert by means of canals. Our railways now extend over a total distance of over 15,000 miles and additions are being yearly made. They carry in one year over 100 millions of passengers and over 600 millions of maunds of goods ; they em-

ploy over 200,000 people in working them, mostly natives of the country, and are worked by over 3,500 engines and perhaps 70,000 or 80,000 vehicles of all kinds. The outlay on our railways alone to the end of 1888 has probably exceeded 180 crores of rupees. In fact, as has been shewn in Chapter V, a very large sum is spent yearly by Government on all kinds of public works, and to this must be added the money spent by Railway Companies and by District Boards Much money is of course required to maintain and repair existing works, and this, indeed, absorbs a serious part of the income of the provincial governments and of the local bodies. In Bengal alone where the "road cess" contributes a large share of the money devoted to public works, it would be perhaps fairly accurate to say, that one-half of it is spent in repairs to roads and bridges already built, and in the salaries of those who have charge of such repairs.

The public works under Government are supervised by a large department, called the Public Works Department, and the whole of British India is divided into districts or divisions in charge of Engineers and subordinates, who are responsible for the maintenance of all existing works and for the construction of new

ones. Every year a certain sum is allowed to each division for repairs and for new works, and this amount has to be rigidly adhered to, and disbursed according to a programme previously submitted and sanctioned. Groups of divisions are supervised by Superintending Engineers, and over all in each province is a Chief Engineer, who is responsible to Government for the proper expenditure and satisfactory progress of all works

The money available each year is limited not by the demands made, but by the amount that can be provided by Government; and thus it happens that a road or a cutcherry has to be carried out piece-meal and sometimes takes several years to complete The money is allotted to each work according to its importance and urgency These foregoing remarks apply to works carried out from revenue, but in the case of railways or canals, the money is generally raised by means of loans, and generally is provided to the utmost extent that can be spent in the year by the staff of Engineers Thus, money expended by Government on public works out of the yearly revenue, is comparatively small, and may be generally considered to be spent without any prospect of

direct profit to the public; but in the case of money borrowed, or as the phrase is, spent out of capital, it is generally applied to works, which will produce revenue hereafter, or as in the case of military works, which are absolutely necessary for the defence of the country.

The railways made by the large Railway Companies in India are, and have been, constructed by means of funds raised in England on a guarantee from the Indian Government of four or five per cent., interest annually; and if these railways do not earn this interest, it has to be made good by the Government. But the arrears of interest are debited against the railway, and have to be repaid. If the railway earns more than the guaranteed interest, the Government takes the whole of the excess until the arrears of interest are paid, when it takes four-fifths only of it, leaving one-fifth to the Company.

The student should consider the enormous difference that the construction of good roads and railways has made in the comfort and well-being of the people in India. He should think how fifty years ago a journey from Calcutta to Benares, which can now be done very cheaply, and with absolute comfort and

safety in less than twenty-four hours, took then many weeks by boat or by road, and at a considerable cost and risk of health. Again, fifty years ago, a consignment of goods from Cawnpore to Calcutta would take perhaps three weeks by boat, which can now come down by train in 48 hours. The trader can thus turn his money and his profits, say, ten times as fast as when he had no railroads, without counting the losses he was exposed to by boats sinking or by robbery on the way. Then consider what an immense assistance such public works have been to the commerce of the country. The railway will carry the load of a cart, say, twelve maunds, for less than one pice per mile, or, say, ten miles for two annas, which is perhaps one-eighth or even one-tenth of the cost of carting, and carry it at ten times the speed Thus, ryots who formerly could not sell their produce, because they had no market, or could not afford to send to distant markets, can now send it not only to Calcutta or to Bombay but find a market in England or in Europe whereas, formerly they had no better prospect than selling in the nearest town.

Look also at the benefits of such public works as the great irrigation canals. Millions of tons

of wheat and other food-grains are now raised from these canals on lands, which formerly yielded but a fraction of their proper produce, since they were either irrigated at much cost from wells, or were dependent on the crops produced in the rainy season. Immense areas of the country are now saved from even the risk of famine owing to these great canals, so that not only are the ryots enriched by them, but are protected from the death by famine and the loss of cattle which this invariably involves. The railways again are an important means of preventing deaths by famine, as they can bring food rapidly and plentifully from other parts of the country. A railway train can carry, say from 12,000 to 15,000 maunds, and travel at the rate of 30 miles an hour. Think, how many carts would be needed to equal this in famine time. The railway would bring this load 300 miles in half a day, while it would take 1,000 carts *twenty* days to bring the same quantity.

Among our public works, the electric telegraph which now follows every line of railway, and is connected with nearly every important post-office in the country, must not be overlooked. A merchant in Calcutta or Bombay can now by this means ascertain the price of

grain, say, at Cawnpore, in an hour or two, instead of waiting for days for a reply by post, and losing the chance of the market. In former days when there was no telegraph, it was only the very big merchants up-country who could afford to take the risks of trade, and who practically controlled prices at which produce was sold. But now-a-days, any man can make himself quite sure of his transaction by means of the telegraph and run no more risk than he would do if he sold across the street. By the same means merchants in Calcutta or Bombay can ascertain prices in London in a few hours. Payments can now be made by telegraph in so far that by paying money into a telegraph office, say, in Calcutta, the money will be paid, say, at Lucknow by the Telegraph Department as soon as the message arrives.

Under the new system of local self-government, the initiation and control of the public works of districts, such as ordinary roads, bridges schools, &c., rests with the District Boards, and opportunity is thus afforded to every one either directly or indirectly to help or advise in these matters. The small zemindar or even the cultivator of a few fields can, if he chooses, make his voice heard in the suggestions offered for

the disposal of the yearly income available, and it is to be hoped that this may, in time, result in the funds of these Boards being applied both more usefully and more economically than has been hitherto the case. These Boards are not intended to be scene of struggles for personal conveniences or profit, but for the discussion of, and decision on, projects for the "greatest good of the greatest number."

CHAPTER IX.

CONCLUSION

IN previous chapters references have been made generally to the military and civil administration of the country, and these constitute the principal agencies for the government of India ; but besides these departments, there are many others which, though not so absolutely necessary, represent nevertheless necessary and important functions of every civilized Government. The first may, perhaps, be held to be that of education which controls and fosters the schools and colleges all over the country Every village school is now inspected and helped by grants of money, and the way is clear for every student from the patshala to a university degree The immense expense incurred and care taken by Government in spreading education in India, has led, unfortunately, to the idea among students that success at school or college will lead to employment under Government. But this would be giving with both hands. It is enough that the Government provides education, the result must rest with the student. The service of Government is limited in extent, and cannot

find food for every mouth. When it is considered that there are some 70,000 schools and colleges in British India and more than 2½ million scholars, the impossibility of employing even a quarter of the number will be readily seen ; but at the same time a very large number do obtain Government service, and particularly those who have passed through the higher schools and colleges.

The education of women is a matter of immense importance to India, and money is being freely given both by Government and by rich and intelligent natives for this purpose. When the student thinks how many years of his life is passed beside his mother, the opportunities she has for teaching and guiding him in his early years, it must be obvious how much better a man he will grow up if the mother has been well educated, has learned to think and reason sensibly, and has thrown off the superstitions and prejudices which are bred and fostered in ignorance. Besides schools and colleges for general education, there are now in many of the large towns medical colleges, where lads may be trained to be doctors ; colleges where they can learn engineering, and a beginning has been made with institutions for teaching technical instruc-

tion in the arts and sciences including that of agriculture. There are five universities in India, *viz.*, at Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, and Lahore.

Then we have a Department of Survey, which has made maps of the whole country, and furnishes them to the public and to every other department; the Financial Department which regulates our accounts and currency, a Department of Agriculture and Commerce to watch over the progress of agriculture, help ryots with new seeds and new methods, and collect facts and figures about our trade in this country and with other countries. There is a Commissariat Department to provide food and clothes for the troops, and an Emigration Department to regulate and protect coolies going to other parts of India or to colonies.

One of the largest departments, and the one we have all a general interest in is the Postal Department, which delivers our letters, gives us money orders, takes our telegrams, keeps our savings, carries our parcels, and buys Government securities for us. Every village now has its postal arrangements, and letters can now go as safely and quickly from one end of India to the other as, in former days, they would have

gone across the length of a village. Then we have a Customs Department, which looks after the levying of taxes on salt and liquor and other things; a Forest Department which is charged with the preservation of our Forests, and other minor departments too numerous to detail. All these departments have to work by rule, to be supplied with funds regularly, and the results of their labour are carefully checked and watched Due care has to be taken, moreover, to provide proper persons to fill the appointments in each department, and to see that each person employed has due reward for his services while at work, and provision for his old age on retirement.

The student will, from this short sketch, have some idea of the enormous extent of the duties of Government in India at the present day, he will see in time how much care and forethought is required in dealing with the wants and wishes of a population so numerous and so varied in character, and will be less ready, as he grows older, to criticise the working of such vast and complicated machinery. Let him remember, as his history books will tell him, that less than 100 years ago, India consisted of numerous small states, incessantly struggling and fighting, and

giving no rest to the trader or the cultivator; while at the present day, the whole country is brought under one paramount power which has, at any rate, given India the first essentials of life, in the shape of peace and security. Were the British Government in India to cease, say to-morrow, it would be the signal for a renewal of the old struggles. The Musalman would wish to rule by the Koran, the Hindoo by the Shastras, the Sikhs by their holy writings, and all claims for property or power would again be settled by the sword The weaker races would again be enslaved, and in all probability the country would in a few years be again ripe for conquest by another European nation The student should not be deluded by those who speak of an "Indian nation." There is no such thing, and if there had been, and it had been animated by a tithe of the spirit and aims of a common nationality, there would not now be a British Government in India. This word is but a convenient term to express an enormous area in which the mixture of races, religions, and the physical and mental character of the people is more varied than in the different countries in Europe. The whole is simply now bound together in the firm grasp of British rule, under

which respect for the law and protection for the weak is enforced with a strong hand. No other bond exists. The Pathan of the Punjab, or the Rajput of Central India differs as widely in aim and in character from the Bengali or the Madrasi races, as iron from lead, and, above all, not one in a thousand of the people now under British rule in India either know of or care for much beyond the limit of the district they live in. In conclusion, it may be urged on the student that the system of government of any country, or the share possessed by the people in managing their own affairs is of less importance to their happiness and welfare than their own mental and moral condition. No one will deny that the best laws, the purest sources of justice must be inoperative and degraded if the spirit of truth and unselfishness is wanting in the mass of the people, and it is equally certain that any increase in political power in India, or in any country, must or should be preceded by ample evidences of public spirit among the people, by the proper recognition among the leading men of the claims of the many as against those of the few, and by real and honest efforts to subordinate selfish aims to the public welfare. The learning of the schools will not give us this.

The education of the brain is but one thing. the education of the heart, of the spirit must follow, and our mental athletics be succeeded by moral discipline