

CHAPTER IV.

PROVINCES.

26. **Provinces.** Nine-tenths of the 294 millions who inhabit India live in villages and the remaining tenth in towns. The division of the population of the country into rural and urban, corresponds generally with their occupations, those who cultivate the land living in villages, and those who trade or work for manufacturers and merchants living in the towns. But for purposes of government or administration, some other division of the area and population is needed. The first step is to divide British India, which is directly ruled by the King-Emperor and his officials, from the Native States, which are under the administration of their own princes. British India is divided into 14 Provinces, which, as we shall see later on, are subdivided into districts, each of which includes a number of towns and villages. The names of villages and towns, as a rule, remain the same for ages, though changing rulers may alter the names and the extent of the provinces into which they divide countries. The fourteen provinces into which British India is now divided, are comparatively modern. In ancient times India included a great many kingdoms, each under its own ruler. Once in an age perhaps a powerful king like Asoka would conquer many countries, each of which would then be a province of his empire and be ruled by a governor under him. But sooner or later, after he had passed away, most, if not all of

these provinces would each of them become an independent kingdom under a ruler of its own. When the firm rule of Akbar had united all northern India into one great empire, provinces or subahs were formed, and each of them was again subdivided into sarkars or districts. Abul Fazl, one of the ministers of Akbar, tells us in the *Ain-i-Akbari* that the Moghal empire (about the year 1594) consisted of 105 sarkars and 2737 townships. The sarkars were grouped into 12 subahs, each of which was named after the ancient kingdom which it included or by its capital city. These subahs were Allahabad, Agra, Oudh, Ajmer, Ahmedabad, Behar, Bengal, Delhi, Kabul, Lahore, Multan, and Malwa. The number of subahs was afterwards raised to 15, when Berar, Khandesh and Ahmednagar were conquered. Each sarkar was subdivided into mahals.

27. British provinces. The 14 provinces of British India are called Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, Punjab, the Central Provinces, to which is attached Berar, Eastern Bengal and Assam, Burma, Ajmer, Coorg, the North-West Frontier Province, British Baluchistan, and the Andamans. One can see at a glance that Akbar's India, which included Kabul, embracing Kashmir and Kandahar, extended further on the north-west. On the other hand, British India stretches far away to the east, right up to the river Mekong, embracing the whole of Burma, which was never subject to Akbar. It also includes nearly the whole of Southern India, which never owned Akbar's sway. And a great difference between Akbar's provinces and those of British India is that the latter

with the exception of Berar which is held under a perpetual lease to the Government of India, do not include the native states. These were treated as a part of the Moghal empire while under Akbar's rule. Three-eighths of India are native states under native rulers, in alliance with the Supreme power.

28. Government of the provinces. It is very probable that from time to time the limits and size of some of the British Provinces may be altered. At present the provinces vary much in extent, three of them being under 3,200 square miles in area, while Bengal includes 110,054, and Burma 236,000 square miles. In population the difference between the provinces is still more striking. Each of them is under a ruler whose title varies from governor to lieutenant-governor or chief commissioner. Two of them, Madras and Bombay, are still called presidencies, and are under governors appointed in England, and aided by councils, over whom they preside. Five—Bengal, the United Provinces, Eastern Bengal and Assam, Punjab, and Burma—are under lieutenant-governors appointed by the Viceroy. In these seven provinces there are legislative councils, which will be described later on, for making laws and regulations. Each of them is allowed to keep for its own expenditure a large share of the money raised by taxation within its limits, called Provincial funds, the remainder being sent to the Supreme government to be spent on certain objects for the good of the whole of British India, and known as Imperial funds. . Of the seven remaining provinces, the Central Provinces and Berar, which together make up an area of 100,396 square

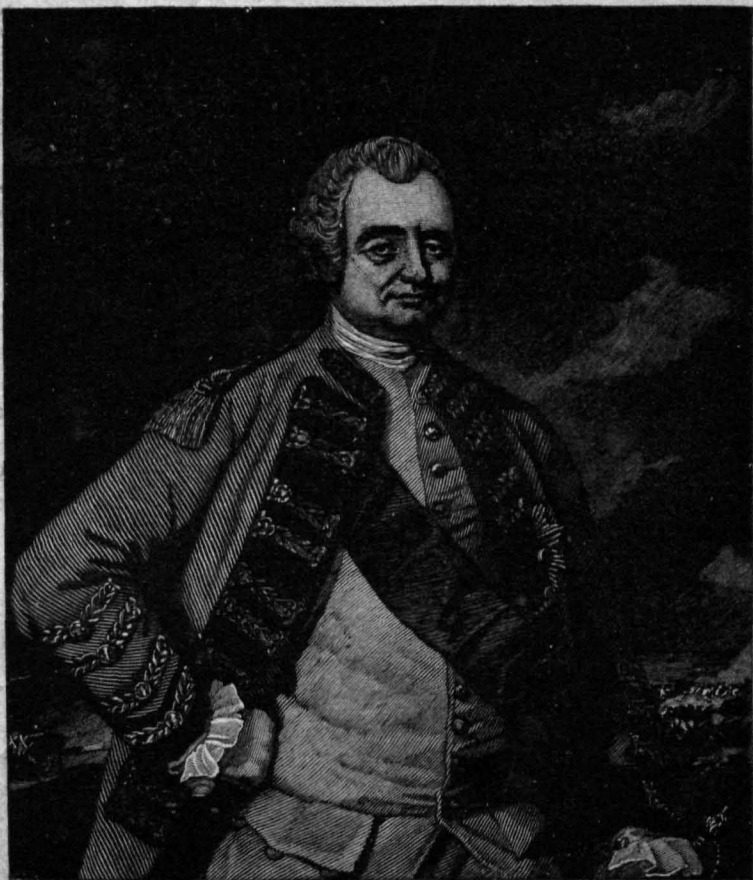
iles, constitute one government larger in area, but less populous, than the Punjab, and are under a Chief Commissioner. The Andamans and Nicobars are a small civil administration which is important because these islands are a settlement to which convicts from India are sent. These three provinces, for Berar is a province although under the same Government as the Central Provinces, are under the direct charge of the Government of India in the Home Department; while the four provinces known as the North-West Frontier province, Baluchistan, Ajmer, and Coorg, are administered by high political officers, also called Chief Commissioners, who are under the orders of the Government of India in the Political or Foreign Department.

29. **Madras.** The Madras Presidency is the oldest of the provinces. The first trading station in this province was established in 1611 at Masulipatam, which was abandoned in 1628 in favour of Armagon, on the Coromandel coast; but the merchants returned to Masulipatam in 1632 by permission of the King of Golkonda. Francis Day was the founder of the Fort of St. George, built at a place called 'Chinapatam or Maderaspattam,' which was purchased from a raja of the country in 1639, and to this the Company's servants, or factors as they were called, at once removed their business. In 1653 Fort St. George was raised to the dignity of a Presidency, the head of the administration being called President.

Here the English merchants traded peaceably for a hundred years. In 1744 war broke out between the English and French, and the French leader, Duplax,

attempted to drive the English traders out of Southern India so that the French might have all the trade to themselves. The French took Madras, but when the news reached England, English soldiers and an English fleet came out, retook their own town and went on to capture Pondicherry, the chief French trading station. A few years afterwards, in 1760, they took Masulipatam and the Northern Sarkars, a strip of country on the east coast, north of Madras, which at that time belonged to the French. The Emperor of Delhi, Shah Alam, then the Overlord of the country, made a grant of the northern Sarkars to Colonel Clive, the English leader, in 1764. This strip of country, with the town of Madras, was the beginning of the Madras Presidency.

How Hyder Ali, a soldier of fortune, took Mysore from the ancient Hindu dynasty, which had ruled the country for centuries, how he attacked the allies of the English, and how war arose between the English and Hyder and his son Tippu Sultan, may be learnt from Indian history. In the end the English were victorious, and in 1793 Malabar, on the western coast, and the districts in the Carnatic, now called Salem, were ceded to Lord Cornwallis by Tippu; while in 1799 three other districts were, on the defeat and death of Tippu, added to British territory, and Mysore was restored to its ancient Hindu rule. About the same time, in 1799, Bellary and Cuddapa were ceded by the Nizam of Hyderabad. In 1801 the Nawab of the Carnatic, who had conspired against the English with whom he was in alliance, to help Tippu, died, leaving no son, and the rest of the Carnatic lapsed to the Company. In 1838 the small district of



LORD CLIVE.

From an engraving by Bartolozzi, after the picture by Nathaniel Dance.

Kurnool was annexed. Thus it will be seen that in about 50 years the small trading station of Madras grew into a great province. It has now an area of about 142,000 square miles and 38 millions of people.

30. **Bombay.** Only 26 years before British traders bought Madras from the Hindu raja, a British factory had been established on the western coast at Surat



SIR THOMAS ROE.

under a grant from Jehangir, emperor of Delhi, to Sir Thomas Roe, an ambassador to the Moghal court from James I., king of England. The next year, 1614, the Emperor issued orders allowing the merchants of King James the privileges of free trade throughout his empire. In 1668 Bombay with its fine harbour was acquired

not from any native chief, but by its transfer to the East India Company on a small payment from the King of England, to whom the Portuguese had ceded it in 1661, as part of the dowry of the Spanish Princess, who married Charles II. The headquarters of the Company's trade on the west coast of India were moved from Surat to that island, and in 1708 the settlement was made a Presidency. Here the English merchants traded in peace for the next 60 years. In 1775 Raghunath rao, better known as Raghuba, the Peshwa of the Marathas,

who was opposed by the other Maratha chiefs, asked the Bombay government to help him, and gave them the two islands of Salsette and Bassein, which are close to Bombay, as the price of their help. A war followed, and in the end peace was made, and by the Treaty of Salbai in 1782 the other Maratha chiefs agreed that the Company should keep these islands. Twenty years later Baji rao, the son of Raghuba, who was then Peshwa, was attacked by Holkar, a powerful Maratha chief, and fled to Bombay to save his life. By this time the British had become the greatest power in the country, and Lord Wellesley, who was then Governor-General, saw that the only way in which peace could be secured throughout the vast continent of India was to establish one strong central government, which should be acknowledged by all other kings and rulers; keep them from fighting with one another; and make them rule their own territories properly. Baji rao agreed to this by the treaty of Bassein in 1802. To pay for the cost of the war, which had to be waged with the other Maratha chiefs who refused to agree, he ceded to the Company some of the districts which now form part of the Presidency. After the battle of Kirkee in 1817 the Deccan (excluding Hyderabad) and the Konkan were added to the Presidency in 1817. Sindh was annexed in 1843 and included in it. The Bombay Presidency has enjoyed peace for the last 85 years. Its population is now about $18\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and its area about 123,000 square miles.

31. Bengal. The growth of Bengal was due to the same causes which led to that of Madras and Bombay, but it was more marked and more rapid.

The Emperor Shah Jehan permitted the East India Company to set up a factory at Hugli, near the mouth of the Ganges, in 1640, the year after they got Madras. In 1681 Bengal was separated from Madras, and a governor, Mr. Hedges, was appointed to take charge of the various factories at Patna, Balasor, Dacca, and other places in that part of India. But the Moghal governor of Bengal treated the British merchants with great severity, and Job Charnock retired from Hugli in 1686 to Chatanati. This village and two others called Govindpur and Kalikata, were purchased from Prince Azim Ushan in 1698, and, on the site of the last, Fort William was built. Kalikata, or Calcutta, became a Presidency in 1707, and for the next fifty years the Company carried on their trade in peace. But on the 20th of June, 1756, Siraj-ad-daula attacked Fort William and thrust its occupants, 146 Englishmen, into the *Black Hole*, where all save 23 died in a single night. War followed, and in 1765 the Moghal Emperor, Shah Alam, conferred upon the Company the diwani of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. In 1803, Orissa was taken from the Marathas, who had seized upon it, and the whole province of Bengal, which then included part of the present United Provinces, was placed under a governor. In 1834 the governor of Bengal was made Governor-General of India. He continued to govern the province of Bengal, without a Council, till 1854, in which year the first Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal was appointed. In the meantime, in 1836, the Upper Provinces had been detached and included in what were then called the North-West Provinces. In 1874 it was found

that Bengal was too large for one province, and Assam was made into a separate government. Again, in 1905, the size of Bengal was reduced by transferring three divisions, Dacca, Chittagong, and Rajshahi, with the district of Malda, to a new province which included Assam; but Bengal still counts a population of 50,723,000 and an area of 110,054 square miles.

32. The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.

This province was, until 1902, known as the North-West Province, because, when it was so called, it formed the north-west limit of British India. When Bengal was ceded to the British, its population grew rapidly rich and prosperous under their rule. But in the country beyond there were civil wars and anarchy. The Afghans and Marathas ravaged it in turn. The English Company had given all the help it could to Shuja daula, nawab of Oudh, in the hope that as a strong and friendly power, he would prove a good neighbour and protect his own and their territory from attack. But this he failed to do. During the wars with the Marathas, the territory of the Doab which lies between the Jumna and Ganges, was given up to the British by the Maratha chief Sindhia, after his defeats at Assaye and Laswaree in 1805. This formed the province of Agra. British authority was extended up to the Sutlej in 1808, and the Sagar and Narbada territories, afterwards incorporated in the Central Provinces, were ceded by the raja of Nagpur in 1811. The hill tracts of Kamaon and Garhwal and Dehradun were added after the Gurkha war in 1816.

The kingdom of Oudh, in which tyranny, oppression and misgovernment had been carried to their utmost

limit, was taken from the Nawab after repeated warnings in 1856, and in 1877 united with the North-West Provinces. On the formation of a new North-West Frontier province, on the north-west of the Punjab in 1901, the name was changed to that of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh. The Lieutenant-Governor has his headquarters at Allahabad. The population is $47\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and the area about 107,000 square miles.

33. The Punjab. The province of Punjab, watered by the five rivers—the Sutlej, Beas, Ravi, Chenab and Jhelum—was created almost at a single step like that of Bengal. It was not slowly built up, like the United Provinces, after many wars, but the whole of it fell into the hands of the British owing to causes which are easily explained.

The East India Company wanted to leave the country beyond the Sutlej outside their dominion, and therefore in 1809 made a treaty with Ranjit Singh which gave him leave to assert his own authority over the province. This he did by suppressing all the native states and keeping up a powerful army. On his death, in 1839, his successors failed to keep the soldiers in order, and the army, numbering 72,000 men, with 381 guns, created disturbances. British territory was invaded, and the authorities, forced to protect their north-western province, defeated the Sikh army, and took possession of a part of the Lahore state, leaving the remaining districts to be administered for the future Maharaja, then a child. This act of self-denial was not understood, and when, in 1848, two British officers were murdered at

Multan, the Sikh army again came to blows with the British. After suffering four defeats they laid down their arms, and Lord Dalhousie saw no other course but to annex the Lahore state and provide a pension for the Maharaja and his family. The province was first governed by a board of three members, and then, in 1853, by a chief commissioner. In 1859 it was placed under a Lieutenant-Governor. Its chief city is Lahore, and the population is now over 20 millions. The area is about 97,000 square miles.

34. **Burma.** This province began with the conquest, in 1826, of Aracan, Tavoy, and Tenasserim from the king of Burma, who had attacked British India. There was a second war in 1852, which ended in the annexation of Pegu by Lord Dalhousie, and in 1885 a third war resulted in the conquest of Upper Burma, when Lord Dufferin was Viceroy. In 1862 the lower provinces had been placed under a Chief Commissioner, and in 1897 both Upper and Lower Burma were united under a Lieutenant-Governor, whose



LORD DUFFERIN.

headquarters are at Rangoon. The area of the province, which is the largest in India, is 236,700 square miles. It includes 36 districts with a population of $10\frac{1}{2}$ millions. As the country was filled with disorder which desolated the villages and reduced the population during the rule of the Avan kings, it is certain that now that there are peace and order and good government, its population will greatly increase. In the 10 years from 1892 to 1902 it had risen from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $10\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The port of Rangoon, protected by the British navy, has become one of the largest centres of trade and commerce in the empire.

35. The Central Provinces and Berar. These provinces include territories conquered from Sindhia and the Raja of Nagpur in 1818, and the rest of the native state of Nagpur, which was annexed in 1853, when the raja died without an heir. In 1862, Sambalpur and some other districts were taken out of the Province of Bengal, and at a later date, in consequence of various exchanges of territory between the British government and certain native states, Nimar was also added. In this way one united province, called the Central Provinces, was formed and placed under a Chief Commissioner in 1861. The Province has lately restored the greater part of Sambalpur to Bengal, but it still retains a population of nearly 12 millions, and an area, including Berar, of 100,396 square miles. The capital town is Nagpur. Quite lately the country of Berar, with a population of $2\frac{3}{4}$ millions and an area of close on 18,000 square miles, which belongs to the Nizam of Hyderabad, and was, in 1854,

assigned to the Company for the payment of a military force, has been put under the government of the Central Provinces, being leased to the British government under an arrangement concluded by Lord Curzon. Berar, which ranks as a province, is thus a portion of the native state of Hyderabad, but since the lease of it is perpetual, its administration rests entirely with the Government of India, and is similar in all important respects to that of the Central Provinces.

36. **Eastern Bengal and Assam.** Assam was made a province in 1874, by separating from Bengal two districts, Sylhet and Goalpara, which had formed part of it when it was ceded to the British as a part of Bengal by the Emperor of Delhi in 1765. To them were added other districts, including that of Assam, from which the province took its first name, which were conquered from the Burmese in 1826. Other portions of the hill districts were added from time to time, as they were annexed to punish the wild and lawless hill tribes which inhabited them when they attacked villages within British territory. In 1905 the increasing amount of business devolving upon the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal led to the detachment of nine districts from Eastern Bengal and eight more from Northern Bengal, which were added to the thirteen districts of Assam and placed under a Lieutenant-Governor with his capital at Dacca. The province of Eastern Bengal and Assam now includes 101,147 square miles with a population of 30½ millions of whom eighteen millions are Muhammadans.

37. **The North-West Frontier Province**, with an area of 16,400 square miles and a population of over two millions, has been very recently formed to the north-west of the Punjab. It includes the districts of the Punjab to the west of the Indus, with its capital at Peshawar. The head of the province is styled Agent to the Governor-General.

38. **Ajmer-Merwara**. This province is in Rajputana. Ajmer was received from Sindhia, in 1818, in exchange for certain territories which had been acquired from the Peshwa. Merwara fell to the Company as its share of a district rescued from gangs of plunderers by a British force sent to assist the Rajput states of Mewar and Marwar. The Resident in Rajputana is also Chief Commissioner of the province which measures 2700 square miles and has a population of nearly half a million.

39. **Coorg** is a small province in the Western Ghats on the west of Mysore. Its area is about 1600 square miles and its population 181,000. Its raja, Vira Rajendra Wodiar, treated the people so cruelly that numbers of them fled to British territory for protection. As the raja refused to listen to advice or amend his ways, he was in 1834 deposed by a British force. The headmen of Coorg then held a darbar, and requested that the British would annex the country, which was done. The capital of Coorg is Mercara and the Resident in Mysore is the Chief Commissioner.

40. **British Baluchistan**, with an area of about 46,000 square miles and a population of 308,000, is a part of the empire on the south of Afghanistan.

and is governed by a Chief Commissioner whose headquarters are at Quetta. The district of Quetta came under British rule in 1879, the Bori valley in 1884 and the Zhob district in 1889.

41. **The Andamans**, with Port Blair as their capital, were made the penal settlement for Indian convicts in 1858. They form a chain of four principal and several smaller islands in the Indian Ocean, distant 450 miles from Rangoon. The Nicobar Islands are close to them, and the total area of all of them is 3000 square miles, and the population about 25,000.

CHAPTER V.

THE NATIVE STATES.

42. **Foreign territory.** If you look at a map of India, you will see that there are large tracts of country not included in the 14 provinces of British India that have been described. They are called Native States. All of them taken together make up an area more than half as large as British India. There are altogether nearly 700 of these states, some of them very large and others including only a few villages. But in one point they are all alike. Although they are all parts of the continent of India and of the British empire in India, yet they are not parts of the territory under British law and known as British India. They are not ruled by officers of the King-Emperor, although they are

protected by his Majesty, who is their Overlord. They have their own laws and their own courts of justice. The people who live in them are directly subjects of their chiefs, and, in short, the states are not British but foreign territory.

But although these states are not directly under our government, yet they are situated in India, of which they form a part, and it makes a great difference to us whether they are well or ill governed. If civil war should break out in one of the larger states, or if the government should be overturned and the country overrun by bands of robbers, it would be very hard to keep them out of British territory. This is just what caused the Pindari war, as we know from history. If a native army should refuse to obey the ruler of the state or its own officers, as the armies of Gwalior and of the Punjab once did, our own country might be invaded, as it then was, and a cruel and costly war would be the result. Or if a powerful ruler were to make a treaty with our enemies, as Tippu Sultan once did with the French, we might have to fight both by land and sea. The native ruler and his state might be ruined, and we should be put to great loss and many of our soldiers killed. And if the chiefs who rule in the smaller states should shelter gangs of robbers or encourage evil customs like suttee or infanticide, which are forbidden in the neighbouring British villages, the people who live in the latter might be tempted to follow their bad example, and the difficulty of putting a stop to evil practices would be increased. It is therefore for the good of the

inhabitants of British India and of the native states themselves that they should be well governed.

43. A difficult task. It was no easy matter to preserve so many states in the Indian Empire, and success was not attained without some failures and several changes of policy. Before British rule, all the weaker states were sooner or later annexed by a stronger power as by the Moghal Emperor of Delhi or Ranjit Singh of the Punjab. But except, perhaps, the great Akbar and his immediate successors, there never has been, in times within our knowledge, any power so much stronger than all the rest as to take the place of Overlord or Supreme Sovereign of India, maintain peace and order throughout the country, and at the same time preserve the weaker and smaller states. The best way of doing this was only found out after a long time, after repeated trials and experiments. In the old days it seemed to British rulers as if the only way to preserve a weak state from ruin was to annex it. Even after the success of the wars which the East India Company had been compelled to wage in defence of its own factories, and after the Company had become the strongest of the great powers of India, the difficulty of making the princes and chiefs of neighbouring states into friends and allies was so great as to seem a hopeless task.

44. Policy of non-interference. At first it was thought that if the rulers of the states were left alone, and no alliances made with them, they in turn might leave the British merchants to pursue their trade in peace and quiet. The East India Company, which had obtained leave from the Moghal Emperor to trade

and had then proceeded, peaceably and lawfully, to establish their factories on the sea-shore, had no wish to rule over extensive territories. Their object was to engage in profitable commerce, not to take part in wars and intrigues. When their traders and



LORD WELLESLEY.

servants had to defend themselves, and to fight as the only way to escape from being driven into the sea, and when, as a consequence of the wars thus forced upon them, the Company began to obtain countries by conquest or treaty, the British Parliament did all it could to keep them from acquiring fresh dominion. Accordingly, in the reign of George III., an Act of Parliament was passed in 1793

which said, "To pursue schemes of conquest and extension of dominion are measures repugnant to the wish, the honour, and the policy of this nation."

The merchants in England tried to carry out this view, and in their letters, which have been carefully kept and may even now be read, they again and again forbade their officers in India to enter into any engagements with native states that could

be avoided, or meddle with any native prince. They said that they wished that each great power as it then stood should remain as it was, and not get any stronger or any weaker. This policy or plan of letting things alone was known as the "non-intervention" or "let alone" policy. But the consequence was that outside the British territories there were wars all over India. Many states in Central India and Rajputana were becoming deserts. The country was going fast to ruin. Disorder prevailed everywhere.

45. **Subsidiary alliances.** The first British statesman to perceive what ought to be done to preserve peace throughout India was Lord Wellesley. When he came out to India in 1798, he found that Tippu Sultan of Mysore had been writing to the French, then the deadly foes of the British, asking them to help him to drive them out of India, and he knew other native powers were in league with him. At the same time the Nizam of Hyderabad, whom the British government was bound by treaty to assist, was attacked by powerful enemies and was in great danger. It was clear to Lord Wellesley that matters would get worse and worse, and that wars would never cease if the native princes were allowed to do as they pleased, and that in the end the British would have to fight to defend themselves or make up their minds to leave the country altogether. He determined to make the British, who were at that time the strongest and the most civilised of the great powers of India, the supreme ruler of India, on whom would rest the responsibility of protecting the whole country from foreign invasion, of defending

each of the smaller states from its enemies, and of maintaining peace and order everywhere.

It would be necessary that each of these states should contribute a share, smaller or larger according to its size, to the cost of the great standing army which protected it. As this contribution was called a subsidy, and the force which protected each of the larger states a subsidiary force, Lord Wellesley's system is known as the subsidiary system. That this system should succeed, it was needful that each and every state should agree to it, and if any state would not agree, it was needful to use force to make it do so. Tippu refused, and was crushed. The Nizam agreed gladly, for to him it meant safety and peace. His successor, the firm friend and ally of the British, still rules Hyderabad, the greatest Muhammadan state in India. The Gaekwar also agreed, and one of his descendants still rules Baroda as an ally of the British. Of the other great powers some agreed at first, but they afterwards changed their minds, and made war.

46. A return to the "Let alone" policy. Lord Wellesley did not stay long enough in India to complete his work. And the East India Company found that the wars which he had made cost a great deal of money, and took away all the profits of trade. The British Parliament and many great men in England did not approve of what he had done. They had never been in India, and had not seen for themselves the state of affairs there, as Lord Wellesley had. If they had supported him and carried out his policy fully, there would speedily have

been peace everywhere, and the enormous increase of trade and of cultivation that would have followed, besides the cessation of expenditure on war, would have soon raised the profits of the merchants beyond any point they had reached before. There was, no doubt, a great increase of expenditure necessary at first, and this was all they looked at. They did not allow time for the effect of the subsidiary system to be seen. Accordingly Lord Cornwallis, who had previously served as Governor-General and avoided as far as possible making any alliances with the states, returned to Calcutta, with orders to go back to the "let alone" policy and to meddle no more with any Indian prince.

47. A general protectorate. This policy of leaving the chiefs of native territories without the protection and control of the British power was followed for the next ten years, and the effect of it was by that time clearly seen. All Central India was again filled with disorder. Armies of robbers, called Pindaris, roamed all over the country. The Rajput chiefs, who had been in alliance with the British and depended on them for help and protection, were attacked by their enemies. The Gurkhas invaded British India on the north. The great Maratha chiefs, headed by the Peshwa, attacked the British troops in their country. The Marquis of Hastings, who had come out as Governor-General in 1813, saw how matters stood, and informed the British government and the Company at home that the only way to save the country was to return to Lord Wellesley's policy, and this he was allowed to do. After five years of

constant warfare he succeeded in bringing all India, except the Punjab, under British protection. His purpose was to manage for the native chiefs all matters that concerned their relations and dealings with other powers and chiefs, leaving them to govern their own subjects inside their dominions as they might please.

48. **Misrule and annexation.** Wars had now ceased between the native princes and between them and the British. There was peace throughout India, and this in itself was a priceless boon to the people. But the work of securing to the subjects of native states comfort, safety and good government was only half done. Indeed, a state of things might arise which would leave some of them in an even worse condition than before. In the old days, when a native prince, particularly if he was of a different race and religion, oppressed his subjects beyond endurance, they would rise in rebellion and depose him. But now such rebellion would be hopeless, for civil war was sure to spread outside the state in which it might begin, and then it must be put down by the great power of the British government. And there were cases in which native princes did mis-govern their countries grievously. This happened in Tanjore and Coorg and Oudh and elsewhere. What, then was to be done by the Supreme Power, which had undertaken to have no concern with the administration of the protected chiefs, and at the same time was bound to maintain order and put down disturbances in the Indian Empire?

The only effective remedy that at that time

suggested itself to the Supreme Power was to annex any state if the inhabitants desired it or if its ruler utterly misgoverned it. The people of Coorg in this way asked that they might become the subjects of the Queen-Empress Victoria, and their wish was granted. In other cases states were annexed when their rulers died leaving no direct male heir, and when according to rule they could not adopt a successor without first obtaining the permission of the overlord, the British government. In private life when a rich man dies without heirs his property 'lapses' to the Crown, that is to say, it is taken over by the government, and if no heir ever appears, it is used for the general good of the people. In the same way, it was at that time thought that the best arrangement would be that the state should be taken over and ruled by the British government to which it was said to have 'lapsed.' In the time of Lord Dalhousie several Hindu states, such as Satara, Jaitpur, Jhansi, and Nagpur, were thus annexed, liberal allowances being granted to the families of the last chief and the right of adoption being refused. This policy, however, was very unpopular, and instead of annexing a state as a cure for misrule, it was thought better to prevent misrule by interfering, when the need arose, in the interests of its oppressed subjects.

49. Adoptions allowed. Accordingly, after the retirement of Lord Dalhousie, the right of adoption was conferred upon all important rulers of native states, and, as a consequence, steps were taken to interfere promptly whenever a chief followed oppressive and

bad courses of government. This new policy was introduced in 1858, when the government of India was transferred to the Crown and Queen Victoria became the Ruler of India. Her Majesty's proclamation to the Indian people, including the princes of the native states, is given in full in the last chapter of this book. It is justly regarded as the 'Magna Charta' of India, the great charter or document which secures for ever to the people of India their rights and liberties. The chiefs are assured that as long as they are loyal to the Crown and faithful to their engagements they will be protected and their states perpetuated. So long as they act so, they need fear no annexation to British dominion.

Such advice as may be needed is given to a ruling chief by an experienced British officer, styled a Resident, or political officer of lower rank, who resides at his capital to help him. If any chief is proved to be unfit to rule, he may be deposed, but the state is not annexed. Another chief, usually his nearest qualified relative, is appointed chief in his stead. And a prince who has no heir is allowed to adopt one, so that his state cannot lapse. In order that young princes may be qualified to rule, when their turn comes, they are very carefully educated, either by a private tutor or at a 'chief's college,' where the education is the best that can be secured, and where the young princes are not only given such knowledge as can be acquired from books, but are instructed in manly exercises, such as cricket, polo, shooting, and fencing.

50. Classes of states. The states protected by the government of India may be divided into three

classes: firstly, those which lie close to one another and form large blocks of territory subject to native rule; secondly, states of large area each of which is surrounded by British territory; and thirdly, small scattered principalities which lie inside British districts or provinces. Of the first class, the Rajputana Agency, the Central India Agency, Baluchistan and Kathiawar are the most important. Of the second class, Kashmir, Hyderabad, Mysore, and Baroda are the chief, but Travancore, Kolhapur, and Kutch may also be mentioned as considerable states. In the third class are included some hundreds of states which vary in size from that of a district to a small group of villages.



A RAJA OF RAJPUTANA.

51. **Rajputana.** The Rajputana Agency covers an area of about 128,000 square miles and is therefore larger than the whole of Bombay and Sind. It has a population of nearly 10 millions. It includes twenty states, of which Tonk is Muhammadan, Bharatpur and Dholpur are Jat, and the rest Rajput. In the extensive deserts of Rajputana the Rajputs, driven out of Hindustan by the Muhammadans, found a refuge for hundreds of years, and thus their chiefs of Mewar or Udaipur, Marwar or Jodhpur, and Jaipur

rank as the oldest princely families in India. Among the other states may be mentioned Bikaner, Bundi, Karauli, Bharatpur, Alwar, Kota, and Banswara. They had suffered in turn from the exactions of the Delhi emperors, from the incursions of the Pindaris and the attacks and invasions of the Marathas, when in 1818 they were brought under the protection of the British. The chief political officer resides at Abu and is styled Agent to the Governor-General.

52. Central India Agency. This Agency includes 148 states, ten of them ruled by chiefs who are entitled to the honour of salutes, which make up a solid block of nearly 79,000 square miles in the very heart of India, with a population of nearly 9 millions. Both in size and in the number of its inhabitants it somewhat resembles the British province known as the Central Provinces. Gwalior, a Maratha state, containing an area of 25,000 square miles and 3,000,000 inhabitants, ruled by the Sindhia family, Bhopal governed by a Muhammadan family of Afghan descent, and Indore, ruled by the Holkars, are the chief states, while Rewa, Orcha, Datia, and Dhar come next. The chief political officer resides at Indore, from which centre he exercises control over the whole Agency.

53. Baluchistan. Baluchistan lies beyond the plains of the Indus, on the western frontier of India, and guards the approaches into Hindustan from Persia and Afghanistan. It consists of the territories of the Khan of Kelat, with an area of 72,000 square miles, and the Jam of Las Beyla. Together with the British province of Quetta, or British Baluchistan, it is under

the political control of an officer of the government of India who resides at Quetta. The country includes a large tract of desert with a population of less than half a million, excluding the residents in Kharan and Makran, which are under British administration.

54. **Kathiawar.** The only other large block of chiefships which needs notice is that of Kathiawar, a peninsula contain-

ing 20,560 square miles with several fair ports on the west of India and included in the presidency of Bombay.

It is a good instance of the efforts made by the British government to save native states from annexation. Under its treaty with the Peshwa the East India Company might



NIZAM UL MULK

have made Kathiawar a British province, but it preferred to take the chiefs under its protection rather than under its direct rule. To the numerous chiefs the British government has given jurisdiction and authority in various degrees or classes, and cases, whether civil or criminal, which lie beyond the jurisdiction of any petty chief are decided for him by political officers under an agent at Rajkote.

55. **Hyderabad.** Hyderabad, with an area of about 83,000 square miles and a population of about 11 millions, is nearly as large as the Agra portion of the United Provinces. Its founder, the first Nizam, was a servant of the emperor of Delhi, who about two hundred years ago shook off the authority of his master when the Muhammadan power began to decline. His successors have received several large additions of territory from the British government as a reward for their services

56. **Kashmir.** Kashmir, with an area of about 81,000 square miles and a population of close on 3 millions including Jammu, is about as large as Hyderabad. It was created by the British after defeat of the Sikh army at the battle of Sobraon in 1846. The hill country between the rivers Indus and Ravi, then acquired by conquest, was conferred upon Gulab Singh, raja of Jammu, by the treaty of Amritsar.

57. **Mysore.** Mysore, a large state in South India, covering nearly 30,000 square miles, with a population of $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions, rich in gold and fertile in soil, also owes its existence to the British, by whom it was restored, in 1799, to the Hindu dynasty from whom it had been taken by Hyder. Some years afterwards, the people of Mysore rose against the oppressions and exactions of their Maharaja, and the British government were obliged to depose him and administer the government for a time. At first they decided to annex the state as its last ruler had no son of his own, but in the end they allowed him to adopt a son, who was educated by an English tutor and granted ruling powers in 1881. The government

was thus restored to native rule after it had been conducted by British officers for fifty years. The young Maharaja, who ruled his country well, died after a short reign and was succeeded by his son, the present Maharaja, in 1894. He was then, however, a minor, and the government was conducted by his mother as Maharani Regent, with the help of a Diwan, till 1902, when the young chief was placed in power. He too has been very carefully educated, and the country is well governed and prosperous.

58. **Baroda.** Baroda is a small but very rich state with an area of 8000 square miles and a population of about 2 millions. It stands by itself in the fertile division of Guzerat in Western India. A Maratha chief named Damaji founded the line of Gaekwars who still rule this state, which was preserved by the British from absorption in the Peshwa's dominion, and protected from other encroachments while the British factories at Surat and Bombay were themselves in difficulties. More recently, on the deposition, for misconduct, of its ruler in 1875, the British government allowed the widow of a former Gaekwar to adopt a member of the ruling family who had been selected by the government of India as a suitable person to rule the country.

59. **Other states.** Besides the four states just described Nepal, with an area of 54,000 square miles, has a British Resident who is directly under the government of India, which also controls the agents in Rajputana, Central India, and Baluchistan. Under the government of Madras there are five, under Bombay 354. under the United Provinces

two, and under Bengal and Burma 34 and 53 states respectively. The chief commissioner of the Central Provinces and the Lieutenant Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam deal with a few petty states in their neighbourhood. Many of these states are small, and some are little more than estates. In the Bombay province petty states are mixed up with British districts, so that the main roads pass in and out of British and foreign territory. The honour of a salute, which varies from twenty-one guns to nine, shows in a general way the rank held by a native chief. To the rulers of the three states of Baroda, Hyderabad, and Mysore the highest salute is given, and to the eight states of Bhopal, Gwalior, Indore, Kashmir, Kelat, Kolhapur, Mewar, and Travancore salutes of nineteen guns are given. Thirteen chiefs are entitled to seventeen guns, and seventeen receive a salute of fifteen guns. Besides these, there are sixty-five other chiefs who are honoured with salutes. Judged, then, by this standard, there are in India one hundred and six rulers of states who stand in the front rank. These figures, however, include several of the states which are massed together in groups, like the Rajput and Central India states, as well as those which lie apart from others.

Amongst the chief estates which rank as native states may be mentioned the Jágirs of Satara and the Southern Maratha country, the chiefships of the Central Provinces and those of Orissa. It is not necessary to give a list of them, but any one who looks at the map of India will see at a glance that

if these states should prove bad neighbours, or unable to maintain peace and order, they would cause very great trouble and anxiety to the government of the province in which they are situated, and to the officers of the British districts close to them. A weak central government would long ago have given up as hopeless the task of controlling so many chiefships without the aid of British law and British courts. Their preservation is honourable both to the chiefs themselves and to the British government. It shows that the Supreme government is strong enough to protect the rights of the weak, and it also shows the good sense of those chiefs who accept advice and work by the side of the British officer for the good of the people.

60. Advantages of native rule. The British government gains several advantages by the continuance of native rule. Each state is a standing proof of the faithfulness with which the government of India keeps the promises made in the Queen's proclamation. The native states also enable the people of India to compare the results of various systems of government. Those who wish to find out whether population, education, commerce and industry increase more rapidly, and whether a country prospers better under one form of government than under another, may answer this question by observing the results in British India and in the native states. And if any one living in British India thinks that native rule is better than British, he may go over to a native state and live there, if he likes. The rulers of the states relieve the British authorities of

the task of governing a large part of the empire, and their loyalty and goodwill are of high value to the protecting power. On the other hand, the British government probably gives more to the states than they contribute to the welfare of the empire. The cost of the navy and army which defend the empire, the upkeep of the ports and dockyards, the greater part of the expenditure on railroads, and the expense of the postal and telegraph and other imperial departments which benefit the whole of India, are borne almost entirely by the British provinces. But, at the same time, the princes and chiefs relieve the British government of heavy responsibilities and some expense, and to a certain extent their subjects indirectly pay duties on articles brought into British ports. All observers say that under British advice great improvements have been made in the mode of government of the states, and all friends of India trust that the rulers of the native states and of the countries in British India will try to do their best, and endeavour to make the people under their government prosperous and happy. It is to be hoped that the methods and rules of civilised government, which the British have brought to India from Europe, will be taken up and adapted by native rulers to the customs and the feelings of their own subjects.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DISTRICT.

61. Districts. Although the native states are part of the Indian empire and their inhabitants owe allegiance to the King-Emperor and must keep the peace, yet there are many duties and privileges of a citizen which only concern the people of British India. We must therefore go back to the provinces and learn some more details about them. British India is divided into provinces, as we have seen, and these provinces are, for purposes of government, again divided into districts, of which there are altogether 259, including those of Berar which are held under a perpetual lease to the government of India. The names of many of these districts are the same now as they were ages ago, although their size and boundaries may have been altered, just as the names of most Indian villages have remained unchanged for thousands of years. In the old times many of the modern districts were known as countries, ruled each by its own raja or nawab. Under Akbar the subahs or provinces were divided into sarkars or zillas, to which the districts of our time more or less correspond. A province is a group of districts, and each district is complete in itself. The government of one district is very much like that of another—that is to say, it has very much the same set of government officers, who follow the same rules and are guided by the same laws, so that if we know

all about the administration or government of one district we have a very fair acquaintance with that of all the rest. If we were to go to a district in the north of India we would see the very same officials at work that we see in the south, and the way in which they do their work would be very much the same.

As citizens of the empire we ought to study ~~every~~ very carefully the administration of a district. By doing this we learn how the whole empire is governed, for the empire is merely a collection of native states governed under one system, and 259 districts administered under another according to British laws. If any one of these districts is well governed, then we may conclude that the whole empire is well governed. For, as the administration of all the districts is very much the same, if it should be found that the present system of governing one district works well, then we may believe that on the whole the administration of the empire works well. At the same time there are as many and as great differences in the character and social customs of the people as there are in the nature of the soil, the climate, and the rainfall of the various provinces, and these require different treatment. Accordingly districts vary much in size and population, and there are even special and local laws which apply to one class of the people or to one tract of country and not to another. But the general principles and plan of British government are the same everywhere, and it is fairly correct to say that each district is a test of the government of the empire, a standard

by which we may judge of the government of British India.

62. Districts parts of the province. A district being one part of a large province cannot be considered by the ruler of the province without thought of the rest of the country under his charge. The father of a large family cannot think only of one child. He must do his best for all his children. * If one child be weak and sickly, he may have to spend a great deal more upon it than upon the other children who are strong and healthy. The ruler of a province must do what is best for the province as a whole. If one of his districts is poor, barren and backward, or if in another there should be some natural calamity, such as a famine or flood, he may have to spend more money on it in irrigation or railways or famine relief or in other ways than on other districts which are rich and fertile and have more natural advantages. The money raised by taxation in the poor district may be much less than that collected in rich districts, but the latter ought not to complain if the ruler of the province should spend a part of the money raised in them on the former. It is important for citizens to remember this, because it is natural for us to think first of ourselves and to claim as much as we can of the revenues of the state. Our rulers, however, must take a wider view of their responsibilities.

63. Area of the district. In dividing a country into counties or districts, a good ruler will try to give to each district officer more or less equal work to do. The Indian districts, however, vary much in size and population in the different provinces. Taking all the

259 districts together, and excluding the four capital cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Rangoon, their average size is about 4000 square miles, and their average population about 900,000. But in some provinces the districts are much larger and in others smaller. Thus the average size of a district in Madras is nearly 6000, in Bengal a little over 3000, and in the United Provinces a little over 2000 square miles. The smallest district in India is Simla, with an area of 101 square miles, and the largest Upper-Chindwin, in Upper Burma, with an area of 19,000 square miles. If we look at the population we find that an average district in Madras has about $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions of inhabitants, in Bengal also about $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and in the United Provinces about a million.

How is it that some districts are so much larger than others, and why do some contain a much greater population than others? The answer is that the work is much heavier in some of the smaller districts. And although the work of the ruler or collector of a district mainly depends upon the size of his district and upon its population, it is also affected by other things. He cannot manage a district of more than a certain size, for he has not only to do work at his headquarters, but to go over the whole district, to see for himself the state of the people, and to make sure that all the officers under him are doing their duties properly. Again, even in a small district he cannot do his work properly if the population be excessive. In Oudh there are 522 inhabitants to a square mile, in Bengal 471, while in the Punjab

there are only 188, in Sindh only 60, and in Burma only 35.

Much also depends upon the character of the people in the district, upon their neighbours, and upon the laws and conditions on which land is held, for these differ very greatly in different parts of the empire. If the people are lawless and turbulent, or if their neighbours belong to some native state which is not well-governed, or if they are savage tribes, then much of the time of the ruler must be spent in restraining disorder, and much of his attention must be given to the affairs of the neighbouring state. He has to give more care and more time to his police arrangements than would be needed in an orderly, peaceful district with good neighbours. So, too, the time and attention he has to give to his revenue duties depend largely upon whether he has to collect revenue from a few large landlords or zamindars, as in Bengal, or from a large number of raiyats, as in Madras. Considering the work that has to be done, the administration of each of the 259 districts requires, on the whole, about the same amount of care and attention from the officer in charge of it. If it should be found, after a time, that the work in any one district has, from any cause, *e.g.* a rapid increase in population, increased largely and become too heavy for one officer to manage, a new district is formed by taking away parts of the larger and more populous districts.

64. The district officers. To administer, that is, to govern each district, and to manage its affairs, there is a staff of officers, each of whom has his special

work, and all of whom but one—the civil judge—are under the orders of the head of the district, who is called the collector. The district officers are, in addition to the collector and judge, the assistant-collector and deputy-collector, the superintendent of police, the executive engineer, the civil surgeon, the superintendent of the jail, and the forest officer. They are all district officers, but as the collector is the chief of them, he is sometimes called *the* district officer. Besides these, there are officers whose work lie in more than one district, and who move over three or four districts, which make up their circles or divisions. These are the inspectors of schools and salt or abkari revenue, and in some places the survey officers.

65. The executive. These district officers are the most important of the executive officers of government, who are so called because they *execute* the orders of the central government, and carry out the decisions and sentences of the judges who administer the laws of the country. Above them, there are higher officials who overlook their work, issue orders and transfer them, as there is need, from one district to another. The district officers are well known to all the villages and towns in the district which they visit on their frequent tours. Upon them, depends the success of the government. If they are active, honest, and clever the district will be well governed, for however excellent the orders may be which are issued by the central government, who make laws and rules at the capital of the province, the government of the district cannot be good unless these orders and rules are obeyed and carried into effect. To see that this

is done is the duty of the district or executive officers.

66. The collector. The term collector came into use a long time ago under the East India Company, when the chief duty of this officer was to collect the revenue. The word 'governor' would at the present time describe far better the rank that he holds and the duties which he has to perform. He is, however, still called collector in Bengal, Bombay, Madras and Agra, while in the Punjab, Oudh, the Central Provinces, Burma and the smaller provinces he is known as the deputy commissioner. People cannot feel any strong attachment to a mere term such as 'government,' but a living governor, in their midst, they can regard with feelings of personal affection or respect. The collector has, and it is right that he should have, very great power and authority, for he is to the people in his district their Ruler whom they can see, and hear, and obey. The affection that has often been felt and expressed by simple Indian villagers for a just, wise, and kind collector is well known. In the large district of Khandesh in the Bombay presidency the collector, Mr. Propert, was always called by the people Raja Propert, and before his time Sir James Outram had even to a greater degree won the affections of its inhabitants.

67. Majesty of the law. The collector and his staff of officers do not make laws, or rules, or regulations. That work is done by the governor of the province and his council. Their duty is to execute these rules, to see that they are carried out and obeyed. Neither have the collector and his assistants the power of

judging in civil cases. That work is done by the civil judges and the officers under them. When the British began to rule the country and took charge of the districts from the native rulers who were there before them, they found that there had never been any distinction made between the duties of a judge and those of an executive officer. There were no written codes of law, such as we now have, in British India, laying down the way in which taxes are to be collected, or providing for courts of law, or the working of municipalities. In the old days the native kings and chiefs were despotic rulers. They issued their commands, and those commands were the law.

In Asiatic countries it has always been thought that the king is not bound by any law. In his own kingdom he is above all law. He kills whom he wills, and whom he wills he keeps alive. Everything in his kingdom belongs to him, even the lives and the property of his subjects. No doubt there have been a great many good rulers in India, and if the rulers were good, and just, and kind, like Asoka or Akbar, then the orders which they issued would be good, and the people would be happy and contented, and the country prosperous. But, on the other hand, a good ruler was often succeeded by a bad, or lazy, or weak ruler, and then the people were badly off. And even under great and good kings the district officers ruled without much control, one reason being the difficulty, in former times, of communication. They did pretty well what they liked. They executed their chief's commands, and at the same time they were the judges in all disputes among the people. There

could be no appeal from them except to the chief himself. If the chief oppressed his subjects, they could not call him before any court of law or complain of his treatment to anyone.

Even now, in many of the native states of India there are no laws except those made by the chief, and there are no judges distinct from the executive officers. These officers cannot be called before any court of law to defend their action as officers of the government. In some of the larger and better governed states, such as Mysore and Baroda, the British system is followed, for this was introduced when British officers had charge of the government for a time and in many others there is a gradual change taking place in imitation of the plan



CHARLES I. OF ENGLAND, EXECUTED 1649.

followed in British India. The British government were the first to introduce into India the rule that all officers of government, even the Governor-General himself, the Governors, and all subordinate to them must obey the law, and to entrust the making of the laws, and as far as possible the interpretation or the application of them, to persons who are not themselves charged with the duties of enforcing the laws. There are not many countries in the world where the law is held in such honour and esteem as it is in Britain, where even the king must obey its commands. More than once in British history a king who broke the laws of the country was dethroned: and one king of Britain was tried, found guilty, and executed for breaking the laws while Shah Jehan was reigning in India.

68. Duties and powers of the collector. As soon as the districts taken by the British had settled down to peace and order, and civil government was firmly established, a collector and a judge were appointed, the collector being the chief executive officer and the judge the chief judicial officer. All officers but the judge are under the orders of the collector, who is the head of the district. He has in the first place to collect the revenue and the taxes according to the laws, and so far as this part of his duties is concerned he has what is called revenue jurisdiction, sometimes deciding what taxes are due and at other times hearing appeals against the decisions of his assistants. He is also the district magistrate hearing appeals from the magistrates subordinate to him, and arranging for the disposal of their criminal business. Should

he, however, act illegally by imposing a tax contrary to law, or by passing an unjust sentence in a criminal case, his actions can be referred to a higher authority. He controls the work of the police, and if necessary he calls in the aid of soldiers to keep the peace in his district. He has to care for the comfort and well-being of the people, to help the engineers with his advice as to what roads, canals, bridges, and public buildings, such as schools and hospitals and offices, are wanted; he has to assist the civil surgeon with his opinion as to the steps that should be taken to prevent sickness, and to advise the inspector of schools in many matters connected with education. He has to report to the Governor of the province as to when self-government should be given to those towns which are without it. Often he has to look over buildings in which manufactures of various kinds are carried on, to see that the workpeople are properly treated and the machinery in proper order. If the rains should fail and there should be any signs of famine, it is the duty of the collector to keep the officers at the head of the government fully informed of the state of his district.

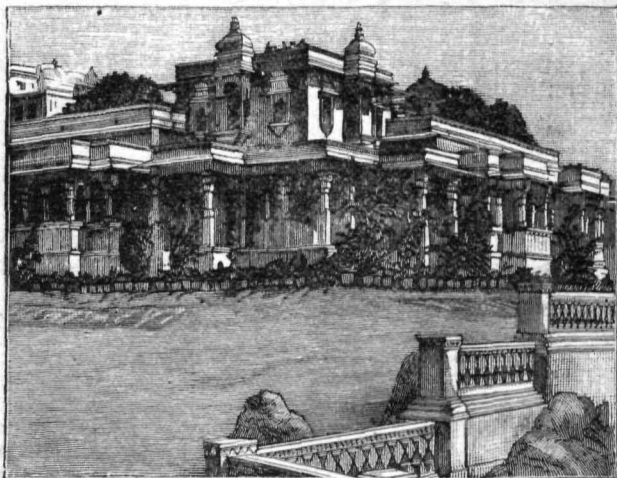
The proper working of every part of the government of the district depends upon him. If anything goes wrong, it is his duty to put it right if he can, and if not, to report it at the headquarters of the government to some one above him who is able to do so. He has to spend a good deal of time in touring over the country in order that he may know as much as possible about it. He is in this way able to see how the officers under him do their

work, and to listen, in person, to any complaints or suggestions which the people may wish to make. Whether the work of all the other officials in the district is done properly or not depends very much upon the energy and personal character of the collector, for they are very likely to follow his example.

69. The collector's assistants. It need scarcely be said that it would be very difficult, if not quite impossible, for the collector to do all his work himself, without any help. He has assistant collectors and deputy collectors to assist him. If the district be very large, it has one or more subdivisions each of which is in charge of one of these assistants, who is called the subdivisional officer, and does the same kind of work as the collector, under his orders. One of them is, as a rule, in charge of the Treasury at the headquarters of the district. In those provinces which have deputy commissioners, the assistants are called assistant commissioners.

70. Other district officers. The civil surgeon has under him the large hospital at the chief town in the district and the smaller hospitals or dispensaries in other places, which altogether number 2500 institutions giving treatment to 23 million cases in British India in a year. The civil surgeons are chosen by competitive examination, and some of them, as well as the majority of the medical officers in charge of dispensaries, are natives of India educated in the medical colleges. The British government pays great attention to the health of the people, but this was thought to be a matter of no concern by the former rulers of India. It is, however, beginning to receive

attention in the native states. The executive engineer has under him a large number of assistants who have been trained to their work in government colleges. In every part of the country the roads are now many more in number and very much better than at any former time in the history of the country. All the



WALTER HOSPITAL.

large rivers are spanned by magnificent iron bridges. The roads in British India are equal to those in any country of Europe and far superior to those in any other country in Asia. Nothing has done more for the prosperity of the country and the comfort of its inhabitants than the network of roads that over-spreads the country.

71. Divisions and commissioners. In all the larger provinces, except Madras, three, four, five, or more

districts form a group called a division, which is in charge of a commissioner. There are, altogether, 53 divisions in British India. The commissioner is placed over the collectors, and has to overlook the work of the district officers in his division. He has no executive work himself. All letters and reports from the district officers to the central-government officers at headquarters pass through his hands, and he gives his opinion on every important matter. In some provinces there is also a Board of revenue which relieves the government of much work, and in Madras the Board, consisting of four selected collectors, also takes the place of the commissioners, all letters on revenue matters to the local government passing from the districts through their hands.

72. Taluks or parts of the district. The provinces are, as we have seen, divided into districts, of which there are 259 in British India. In the same way, each district is, except in Bengal and Burma, sub-divided into smaller parts which are called tahsils, taluks, or talukas. These divisions into tahsils were originally made chiefly with the object of collecting the revenue. In Bengal, where there is a 'permanent settlement' of the revenue, the districts are divided for police purposes into thanas, under thanadars. In Burma, the tract under a myo-ok or township corresponds to the tahsil, but it is again subdivided into revenue circles under a thugyi, each circle including several villages. There are five or six, and sometimes more, taluks in a district. Each of them is in charge of a native officer called a tahsildar, and in some parts of the country a mamlatdar and in Sindha

mukhtiarkar. He is to his taluk what the collector is to the whole district, the ruler and chief executive officer, and his duties are as many and as various as those of his chief. The tahsildars are chosen with great care, and are most important and able servants of government. The proper working of the rules of government in the taluk, the protection of the villagers from hardships and oppression, and their general well-being depend very greatly upon the zeal, the honesty, and the ability of the tahsildars. They are now almost entirely natives of India, and generally they have obtained degrees at some university. Until such men were available these posts were largely filled by Europeans, often promoted from the offices of the collector; but as the supply of native graduates increased, the administration of the parts of British districts rapidly passed into their hands. Those who aspire to be collectors must enter the civil service by passing the competitive examinations open to all British subjects throughout the world, and held in the capital of the British empire at London.

CHAPTER VII.

THE SUPREME GOVERNMENT.

73. Government—central and local. We have seen that all the towns and villages in British India are grouped into 259 districts and that each district is complete in itself, being ruled by its collector

and his officers, who act as they think right and according to law, or else execute or carry out the orders of the central government, and are therefore called the executive. The districts again are grouped into provinces. At the head of each province there is a Governor in Council or a Lieutenant-governor or a Chief Commissioner. The Governor, assisted in the presidencies by two members of council, and in the other provinces exercising sole authority under the title of a Lieutenant-governor or a Chief Commissioner, but in all cases working through secretaries at the head of each department of the government, is known as the local government or administration. Just as the collector administers the district and gives effect to the orders of the local government, so the local government administers the province and gives effect to the orders of the supreme government. The provincial governors are aided by legislative councils in the larger provinces when laws have to be made, but otherwise upon them alone rests the whole responsibility of governing their provinces. In some matters they have only to execute the orders of higher authority, namely, the government of India, in all other respects they themselves issue orders and make rules for every matter which concerns their provinces or any portion of them. If, then, we gain a clear idea of the part taken by the supreme government, we can understand the duties of the local governments. For, whatever the supreme government does not order or arrange, that the local government has to do.

The system of divided authority is extended still

further within the province. It has already been shown that in large towns municipal boards or councils manage the government of their towns in such matters as concern those towns alone. And in each district, and in many of the taluks or tahsils, there are also local boards to which are entrusted the management of such matters as affect their own district or taluk alone. Even the villages—each village for itself, or a group of small villages—have sometimes their own panchayats and govern themselves in matters which concern themselves alone.

Thus the village in some matters rules itself and in others is ruled by the tahsildar or mamlatdar of the taluk, who executes the orders of the collector. The taluk, through its local board, in some matters governs itself and in others it is governed by the collector of the district through the tahsildar. And in the same manner the district in some things rules itself through its local board, and in others it is ruled by the collector who executes the orders of the provincial government. Thus in the village, the taluk, and the district, there are two kinds of authority side by side, the one being exercised on the spot and applied to local affairs, and the other introduced from above and carried out by officers, acting as agents of a distant and higher governing power.

74. Why there should be supreme control. Our first step towards understanding the plan of government is to see what part the supreme authority in India must itself take in the affairs of the provinces. In each province there are matters which are local,