

CHAPTER IV

THE INDUSTRIAL WAVE

INDIA, with all its wealth of resources, is now in a comparatively undeveloped state industrially, but a great wave of sentiment in favour of instituting measures to ensure immediate and substantial progress along this line undoubtedly is sweeping the country.

A concrete indication of the recognition of this feeling may be seen in the appointment by the Government of the Indian Industrial Commission, made up of prominent British and Indian experts, who for months have been making a country wide tour for the purpose of investigating industrial possibilities and rendering a report upon which the Government can inaugurate measures that will enable India to meet trade conditions after the war. In appointing this commission the Government announced that it believed the time had come to take up in a more comprehensive manner the question of the development of Indian industries and manufactures, and expressed sympathy with the eager

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desire of a large number of the people for advancement.

The efforts of the Government in the past to build up new industries are said to have disclosed the existence of many difficulties. Indian capital has been unenterprising and timid, skilled labour has been lacking, and there has been a want of practical information regarding the commercial potentialities of India's raw products. As a result there are only two manufacturing industries of any magnitude. They are jute and cotton.

Outside these two businesses the country has depended largely on foreign nations or other parts of the British Empire for its manufactured goods. Huge quantities of raw materials of almost every description have been exported annually, and many of them have reappeared on the Indian markets in the manufactured form. The same ships which have brought in leather, oils, paper, iron and steel goods, dyes and various other products, have reloaded with the raw materials from which these very things were made.

Industrial experts say that the Indian consumer probably has bought his goods as cheaply in most cases as he could if they had been manufactured at home, but that India has sacrificed the financial gain and other advantages accruing to the country which has its own factories. For one thing, the producer of raw materials, having

no alternative market, has been forced to accept the prices quoted him from abroad, and many times the figures have been excessively low. It is held that the establishment of a home market would protect him against such losses. The Indian working man, too, has suffered in that the higher wages which might have been coming to him have been going into the pockets of foreign artisans. Outside the actual monetary question, great stress is being laid on the national stability obtained by the country which has its working classes profitably employed.

The commission appointed to investigate this great question is made up of ten experts, headed by Sir Thomas Holland, President of the Institution of Mining Engineers of the United Kingdom, and widely known as an industrial authority. The scope of inquiry is most comprehensive. In the main the commission has been preparing itself to suggest the most profitable lines of action, with the object of drawing out capital now idle, of building up an artisan population, of carrying on the scientific and technical researches required to test the known raw materials and to design and improve processes of manufacture, of distributing the information obtained from researches and from the results of experience in other countries, and of developing the machinery for financing industrial undertakings and marketing products.

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There are numerous industrial enterprises which many feel may be embarked upon profitably in the near future. Among these is the leather industry. India exports great quantities of hides. Heretofore most of these have been sent to America and Germany to be tanned, and it is said that there is no reason why this work should not be done at home. The other leading possibilities include the pressing of oil from oil seeds, the manufacture of paper pulp, the making of glass, the production of dyes from the plentiful raw materials at hand, and the extraction of perfumes, essential oils, and drugs. There is also room for great expansion in the iron and steel industries, which are still in their infancy, as well as in the working of aluminium, tin, zinc, and copper.

One of the important questions to be solved by the commission was as to the form which Government aid to new industries should take. It has been generally predicted that the Government will be prepared to render technical assistance, possibly through the establishment of central research laboratories; and will also give financial aid in some form, either direct or indirect. That Government backing will be necessary to create confidence and draw capital is generally conceded by most students of the problem.

Among the methods of Government financial

aid which have been suggested for the consideration of the commission are these: supply of machinery and plant by the Government on the hire-purchase system; guaranteed dividends for a limited period, with or without subsequent refund to the Government of the expenditure incurred in paying dividends at the guaranteed rate; guaranteed purchase of products for limited periods; concessions of land; special railway transport facilities and rates; bounties and subsidies; pioneering industries and handing them over to private companies, and loan of services of expert Government employees.

The industrial development of the country has not, of course, been at a standstill up till now. Great strides have been made in the cotton and jute industries, and steady progress, though slow, may be seen in agriculture, which is the mainstay of Hindustan. In travelling about India I often heard it remarked by business men that the country was more prosperous than ever before in its history. I turned to Sir William Meyer, Finance Member in the Government of India, for a verification of this claim.

"Economically the India of to-day is more prosperous than she ever was before," said Sir William. "According to Western ideas she is still a very poor country, but she is advancing, as I can testify emphatically after a service of thirty-five years here; and the Government have

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done all they could to help this advance. There has been great development in India's agricultural and industrial enterprises, and the Government have just recently taken another step in the appointment of a strong commission to consider the possibilities of further industrial growth.

"Since 1900 the progress has been remarkable, as is shown by the statistics for the first ten years of the new century. Between 1900 and 1910 the number of cotton mills in British India increased from 177 to 210, and the persons employed from 145,000 to 215,000. The production of yarn during the decade rose from 343,000,000 to 593,000,000 pounds, and of woven goods from 95,000,000 to 215,000,000 pounds. Jute mills increased in number from 36 to 60, and the persons employed from 110,000 to 204,000. Further, the percentage of manufactured goods imported into India as compared with the total imports has been steadily falling, while the percentage of manufactured goods among the exports has been simultaneously rising."

Agriculture, he pointed out, is the main industry of the country, and since 1895 the net area estimated to be under crops has increased more than 30,000,000 acres. He continued :

"We have suffered, naturally, in various directions from the war, and at one time we were threatened with crises affecting the culti-

vators in respect of the jute and cotton industries. These have, however, been successfully surmounted, and at present these industries are in a prosperous condition, and the cotton ryot (farmer) in particular is getting very good prices for his produce."

Sir William was asked how the additional wealth which had accrued to India was distributed.

"This," he replied, "is a question very difficult to answer, seeing that we have to deal with a sub-continent with a population, if we include that of the Native States, of over 315,000,000. A good deal of money is hoarded, since the traditions which grew up during many generations of insecure government are not easily shaken; but deposits in banks have increased considerably. There has been a very considerable increase in the standard of comfort of the people; and the rise in prices, which has occurred in India as well as in Western countries, has materially benefited her agricultural and industrial population, though it has pressed hardly on members of the professional middle classes. There are also a certain number of capitalists—mill-owners, jute manufacturers, and the like—who make in some years very large profits. The fact remains, however, that, taking India as a whole, she is still very poor as compared with Western standards."

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The question of the average income per head of the population of British India was brought up.

"That is a matter which it is impossible to estimate with accuracy," said Sir William. "In 1880 Sir David Barbour made some calculations of the quantity and value of agricultural produce in India, and, relying on certain very broad assumptions, with a view to expressing the results arrived at in the form of average income, he suggested the figure of 27 rupees per head of population as possibly representing very roughly the average annual income of an Indian. In 1901 Lord Curzon, working on the same lines, came to the conclusion that if the figure 27 rupees was an approximately correct index of average income in 1880, the figure 30 rupees would be approximately correct in 1901.

"These figures cannot pretend to statistical accuracy, but it may be confidently asserted that the wealth of India has increased materially during the last generation. Agricultural produce has been increased, largely owing to assistance by the Government, not merely by loans to cultivators, but in respect of the introduction of better seeds, plants, implements, etc., and the development of irrigation works; while external commerce has grown, and the expansion of railway communications has materially assisted the producer and trader. As I have

already indicated, our great export staples, cotton and jute, have largely developed; and Government officials who have mixed with the people for a long time, and fair-minded outside observers, such as missionaries, would all concur in saying that the standard of comfort has risen considerably.

“I may add, too, that the Government have promoted a co-operative credit movement, which has been a great success, and the effect of which is to encourage the ryots to help each other and to free them from debts to local usurers.”

CHAPTER V

THE AGRICULTURAL SITUATION

THE most important phase of India's industrial life, agriculture, is confronting the Government with a problem which is characterised in many quarters as the greatest of its kind ever thrust upon any country. It is that of showing the Indian farmer the way to progress.

The Peninsula, with a farming population in British India alone of more than 177,000,000, presents many unique and seemingly unsurmountable obstacles to speedy educational advancement for the tiller of the soil, for here must be considered not only the matter of finance, but the widespread illiteracy, and the antiquated Oriental customs which have become fixed through centuries of usage. While I was in Simla in the fall of 1916, the Member for Agriculture in the Government of India, Sir Claude Hill, gave me a most interesting account of what husbandry means to Hindustan, and what his department hopes to accomplish in the way of education.

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"Though it is a platitude to state that India is primarily an agricultural country," said Sir Claude, "I doubt whether to European or American minds that conveys any notion of the magnitude of the agricultural interests in British India. It may help matters if I give you a few details.

"The population of India is about one-fifth of the whole world, and at the census of 1911 the population of British India was returned at 244,000,000, of whom no fewer than 177,936,000 were engaged in one way or another on agriculture. The gross area under cultivation has risen since 1895 from about 214,000,000 acres to about 250,000,000 acres. The net area, that is to say, excluding the double count of areas which are cropped more than once, has risen in the same period from 189,000,000 acres to about 220,000,000 acres. What is, however, perhaps more remarkable, is that the acreage commanded by irrigation in British India has risen from about 26,737,000 acres in 1895-6 to more than 46,836,000 acres in 1913-14—the last year for which I as yet have complete returns.

"As regards the more important crops raised for export, it may be interesting to know that in 1913-14 there were 25,000,000 acres under cotton, giving an out-turn of over 5,000,000 bales, 28,500,000 acres under wheat, producing eight and one-third million tons, nearly 75,500,000

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acres under rice, producing 575,000,000 hundred-weight in round figures, about 3,000,000 acres under jute, producing 9,000,000 bales, and 610,000 acres under tea, producing 307,000,000 pounds. The aggregate value of these crops was approximately 6,000,000,000 rupees.

“These represent perhaps the principal crops in which the outside world is interested, but it is necessary in considering the grain output in India to remember that over very large tracts of country the staple food of the people is not wheat or rice, but some form of millet or pulse, usually denominated jawar or bajri. The out-turn in India of these two crops was in 1914-15 nearly 7,500,000 tons. Even these, of course, do not exhaust the acreage and out-turn of food crops, since there is a very great number of other grains which feed the people in different parts of the country. The variety in staple food grains reflects not only the relative prosperity of the people, but also the climatic conditions and racial and hereditary characteristics, of which there is an infinite variety.

“Another point which is perhaps not generally appreciated is the extraordinary variety of climatic conditions prevalent over different parts of India. The Madras Presidency is the only province of India in which the conditions may be said to be wholly tropical, while all the northern provinces are almost exclusively sub-tropical. Conditions

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of soil vary, of course, as much as the conditions of climate and race. It will be realised, therefore, that the problems confronting the agricultural department of India are, in variety and difficulty, hardly to be approached in any other country in the world.

“For many years the attempts to improve the methods of cultivation in India were sporadic and very local. It was assumed for a long time that novel methods were probably foreign to the genius of the people as well as ill-adapted to the soil and other conditions; and it is only very recently that the Government of India have become alive to the enormous developments which are possible in the direction of improving the agricultural conditions of the country.

“Prior to 1904, when Lord Curzon's Government initiated the formation of a properly organised Agricultural Department, development depended very much on the idiosyncrasies of the various local governments, and I am afraid that such endeavours as were made in the direction of improving methods and of developing agricultural out-turn were very far from being either scientific or consistent. In 1904, however, partly with the assistance of a public-spirited American citizen, Mr. Henry Phipps, of Chicago, Lord Curzon was able to establish a properly-organised staff of agricultural officers under the Government of India with their

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headquarters at Pusa in Bihar, and also to bring into being provincial agricultural establishments with the object of serving not only the interests of scientific research, but also of encouraging improved agricultural methods adapted to the local conditions of each province.

“Compared with the agricultural department of the United States, the establishment at present engaged in India is exceedingly small. At Pusa, the headquarters of the agricultural service, where the Central Research Institute is established, and where there is a large experimental farm, seventeen officers are employed, and it was to the establishment of this institution that the benefaction of Mr. Phipps was devoted. In the nine major provinces of India there are at present seventy-two officers of the department.

“A total imperial staff of eighty-nine officers must strike you as extraordinarily inadequate for the work to be done in a huge country like India with such diverse conditions of soil, climate, and people. But this body of eighty-nine is, of course, only the superior or imperial staff, under whom are employed a very considerable number of subordinates, practically all of whom are natives of India. This represents the administrative and what may be termed the farming side of the agricultural service. On the other side, there is, in every major province, an agricultural institution, collegiate or other-

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wise, on the staff of which are a few scientific officers whose duties include both research and teaching.

“The inadequacy of the strength of the present staff is fully realised, and there is at this moment under consideration a scheme which, if it comes into being, will result in an immediate increase of the imperial staff by about 30 per cent., distributed throughout the provinces.

“It is hoped that by this measure we shall be able to place every major province in India in a condition of self-continnence in regard to research matters, and also considerably to strengthen their teaching side. It is not to be pretended that the contemplated increase will entirely meet the needs of the situation, but it will be readily understood that the war has affected the finances of India very adversely, and that for some period after the war there will be many demands upon the Government's purse, and that the development of the Agricultural Department is only one of the many directions in which progress will be demanded.

“Regarding the establishment of agricultural colleges in India, I am afraid we must admit that a commencement was not made as soon as it should have been. It was not until three years after the initiation of the Agricultural Department by Lord Curzon that the Nagpur Agricultural College came into being in the

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Central Provinces, to be followed shortly by the inauguration of the Pusa Institute, the Poona Agricultural College for the Bombay Presidency, the Coimbatore Agricultural College for Madras, the Lyallpur Agricultural College for the Punjab, the Sabour Agricultural College for Bengal, and, finally, the Cawnpore Agricultural College for the United Provinces, the last named having developed into a college as lately as November 1911.

“On their first inauguration these colleges were quite frankly designed only for the teaching of agriculture to a standard which would fit men for the subordinate appointments of the service. The idea of establishing institutions which would teach up to the standard common in European and American agricultural colleges was not entertained until a year or two later, when the Poona Agricultural College led the way by becoming affiliated to the Bombay University. This example is, it is hoped, shortly to be followed by the Lyallpur Agricultural College (which has applied, or is about to apply, for affiliation to the University of Punjab), and by other colleges in the near future.

“In connection with this development of agricultural teaching, it may interest you if I refer for a moment to the political side of the question. Although hitherto it has been absolutely necessary that recruiting for the superior services connected with agriculture should take

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place in Europe and other more advanced countries, we desire, of course, as soon as it is possible, to associate in the higher service as large a number of Indians as can be induced to take up agriculture and to qualify themselves in its higher branches, both for the research and for the administrative sides of the department.

“To secure this it is absolutely necessary to develop our Indian colleges as highly as possible ; and it is for this reason and with this end in view, that the Government of India are particularly anxious to encourage provinces to organise their colleges in such a way as to be able to turn out graduates qualified to take their place, both in research and in practical agriculture, side by side with those who have hitherto been recruited from Western countries.

“In regard to the improvement of agriculture generally throughout the country, many difficulties have to be faced. There are inbred customs and old tradition. These, of course, are, in some cases, based upon sound experience ; but some, nevertheless, are rooted in prejudice, and the problem of how best to inculcate sound economic methods of farming broadcast throughout the country is one of the most difficult conceivable. Here again a factor of the greatest importance, if we are to succeed, is to encourage Indians to take up the study of agriculture and to spread the knowledge which they may acquire

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at such institutions as we are able to bring into being.

“Speaking generally, we rely at present upon two main methods of disseminating a sound knowledge of agricultural principles and practice. The first of these, analogous to what I understand are so common in the United States, is demonstration farms. The second is vernacular instruction in agriculture.

“I have been informed that in America demonstration farms very largely consist of the farms of individual farmers lent for the purpose and farmed by the farmer himself under the general advice and control of an agricultural expert. Here in India it is not always easy to persuade a farmer to modify his methods in accordance with the advice of officers of the department. We have, therefore, in the provinces in India, established demonstration farms at different centres which are controlled by the administrative staff of the department under the immediate management of a farm superintendent. These demonstration farms are distributed throughout the country, so far as possible in typical localities, and the opportunity is taken of growing on these farms any improved and standardised varieties of crops suited to the peculiarities of the locality.

“It is satisfactory to be able to say that in the case of some varieties of crops very con-

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siderable improvement has already resulted. Where the Indian farmer is persuaded that practical benefit results from adopting particular methods of cultivation or in using particular kinds of seeds, he is by no means backwards in taking advantage of such improvements.

“In the Punjab, where the farmer is unusually well off and remarkably intelligent, and where—and this is most important—he has larger holdings than in most other provinces, he has readily taken to an American variety of cotton which has been proved to be suited to the climatic conditions of the province. There is reason to hope that the country variety of short-staple cotton will almost disappear from the Punjab in favour of this American variety. Similarly, more than one variety of wheat has been established, the best of which we hope soon to see grown on a very large scale in supersession of inferior articles. The same tale could be told of other provinces and in relation to other crops, indicating that despite our inadequate staff we have already certain very promising results to show.

“I should like here to mention that we are indebted to a no inconsiderable extent to an American mission situated in the United Provinces near Allahabad under Mr. S. Higginbotham. Mr. Higginbotham is an enthusiastic agriculturist, and has unquestionably succeeded

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in popularising improved methods and in demonstrating their economic success in a degree which very greatly contributes to encourage the people to go in for novel methods. We have also received considerable assistance in suggestion from studying the proceedings of the General Education Board in America.

“One other development of recent years, synchronising in its start with the initiation of the Agricultural Department as an organised entity, is the co-operative movement. Co-operative credit was legally established in this country in 1904, and the movement, as reflected by the number of societies and the amount of capital involved, has progressed by leaps and bounds. One of the chief difficulties in the way of the development of agriculture in India consists in the small size of the holdings in many parts of the country and the consequent lack of capital in the possession of the farmer. Moreover, custom in India, in connection with marriage and other ceremonial occasions, demands a heavy toll on the part of all classes of the community, however humble.

“The result of this has been a weight of indebtedness, which is largely responsible for the poverty of the agriculturists. When the occasion arises on which a farmer has to marry his son or his daughter or to perform any of the innumerable ceremonials connected with his

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domestic life, he has in the past invariably had recourse to the village money lender, who not unnaturally, in view of the inadequate security offered, has demanded a high rate of interest for such accommodation as he has given. Similarly, when a farmer has desired to improve his holding, perhaps by the construction of a well or the purchase of bullocks, he has been compelled to resort to the same quarter, and has paid a rate of interest which sometimes amazes those not familiar with Indian conditions.

“The Indian statute book of the past half-century contains many examples of the attempts of Government to devise means for the relief of the agriculturist from the load of indebtedness which has thus accumulated round his neck, but none of these, prior to the passage of the Co-operative Credit Societies’ Act, had the result so much desired. The Co-operative Credit movement seemed to offer a solution of the difficulty, and indeed, since the passage of the Act, the results have far surpassed the anticipations of the most sanguine supporters of the measure.

“In 1909 there were 2,008 societies in India, and in the year 1914-15 the total of registered societies numbered 17,327. Hitherto the main purpose of these societies, which are of unlimited liability, has been the advance of money to individual cultivators for specific purposes, but

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the movement is rapidly developing, and progress along lines analogous to those adopted by the Agricultural Organisation Society in Ireland is already marked. There is room to hope that in the co-operative system may be discovered the remedy, so long sought, for the tendency to thriftlessness which in the past has caused agriculture to be so heavily handicapped."

CHAPTER VI

THE MAGIC OF IRRIGATION

THE wonders that have already been worked by irrigation in India cannot be overlooked in considering the possibilities for advancement in agriculture. While I was in the Punjab Province I took the opportunity of visiting the Lyallpur District, which is an amazing demonstration of what modern irrigation can do.

Only a few years ago this district of Northern India was an arid waste, producing no vegetation excepting the scrubby desert shrub, and virtually uninhabited but for the few wandering tribesmen who eked out a precarious existence by grazing their meagre flocks of half-starved cattle on the scattered patches of green. To-day it is one of the garden spots of the country. Luxuriant fields of grain and sugar-cane and cotton wave over the places where only the hardy little shrub had dared to raise its head before; on the sites of the nomads' camps stand hundreds of flourishing villages, and long lines of rock-ballasted highways stretch out through the recently tractless

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reaches beneath the shade of rows of quickly-growing Oriental trees.

The story of how this transformation was wrought is the history of what is said to be the greatest irrigation system in the world. The waters of the Chenab river, which formerly flowed on their wasteful way towards the sea, have now been diverted through great man-made channels that cross and re-cross the Lyallpur district, turning the dry soil into fertile tracts. In the past twenty years more than a million people have been drawn to the lands watered by these canals, and to-day the Chenab Colony, as it is called, is the greatest wheat-producing centre in India, and one of the most important for its size in the world.

The Chenab Colony is one of many striking irrigation enterprises carried out by the Government in India in the past few years. In the last two decades the area of land under irrigation throughout the country has nearly doubled, bringing prosperity to parts of India where the uncertainties of rainfall discouraged or even entirely prevented all cultivation. The total capital value of major irrigation works, part of which are protective and part productive, throughout the country is more than 710,000,000 rupees.

The area of culturable land commanded by these irrigation works is approximately 50,000,000

acres. Of these irrigation works the largest are situated in the Punjab Province, where the river system is especially adapted for the development of enterprises of this sort. The productive irrigation works in the Punjab alone have a capital value of 212,100,000 rupees, and the Chenab Colony waterways form the biggest link in the Punjab chain.

Something of how the Chenab Colony was brought into being, and of what it is doing, was told to me by Mr. A. J. W. Kitchin, deputy commissioner, that is, chief officer, of the Lyallpur District, within which five-sixths of the colony lies. Mr. Kitchin is known in India as a specialist in organisation, and two years ago was sent to this new colony for the purpose of setting up the same government machinery as exists in the older districts of British India. The Commissioner was most enthusiastic in speaking of the success of the colony.

"We Punjab officials," he said, "believe, and we challenge any contradictions, that the Chenab Canal is the biggest and most successful irrigation scheme that has ever been carried out in the world. There are, counting all the major and minor branches, 2,704 miles of waterway. Roughly speaking, the canal at the head carries 12,000 cubic feet of water per second—six times as much as the Thames above London. It irrigates 2,250,000 acres of land every year, and

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it supports in prosperity a population of 1,250,000. Last and not least, it brings in to the Government of India a return of 40 per cent. and upwards on the capital cost of 32,500,000 rupees. In the Lyallpur District alone I have to collect 12,500,000 rupées every year, more than double as much as any other district in the Punjab.

“Twenty-five years ago nothing grew here, and the population consisted of a few thousand nomad tribesmen who wandered about grazing cattle and stealing where they could. In less than twenty years, 1,935 villages have been built, and the inhabitants have increased in number from 14,000 or so to 1,250,000, who are living in a land of plenty. Where else can you find anything like it? There were great engineers connected with the project, but the canal grew with success, and there is no one man who can say that he alone was responsible for it.

“I myself have been here only two years, but I know something of the early days, and I personally secured many of the pioneer colonists; indeed, one village bears my wholly undistinguished name. At first no one would take the land, despite the fact that it could be had for nothing. It seemed inconceivable to the people that this waste could be turned into fertile tracts, and they shook their heads and sought farms elsewhere. These were the hardest days of all.

"Then came success and the rush. The first luxuriant crops produced a sensation, and there was a stampede for lands. It was as though a great gold field had suddenly been discovered in this desert tract.

"One who only sees the completed work, the well-built highways, the highly-cultivated fields, the thronging villages, and the markets stacked with grain, can form but little idea of the early days when the colony officer laboured to settle the vast crowds of people and the irrigation officers to give them water. I have been out distributing land when the rush began. Crowds surrounded my tent day and night, clamouring for grants. There was no privacy, no peace, and no rest. I could neither bathe nor eat except in public, so to speak, and my sleep was disturbed at night. It is a far reach from those times to what you see to-day.

"The unit of area here is the square, which contains approximately twenty-eight and a half acres, and the whole country is laid out on this plan. The smallest grant made was generally one square, and the larger grants varied up to one hundred.

"About fifty squares make up a village. Forty were allotted for cultivation; each headman got an extra square, and a square was reserved for the village servants—the watchman, the carpenter, the blacksmith, and so on. Another

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square or more was set aside for the site of the village, which had to be built on a standard plan. The rest was kept clear for grazing and open space.

“In those days all the land belonged to the Government. Government selected the colonists and preserved their roads, their houses, and their shares. Now the tenants have all become owners, and it is my special mission to end the old days of paternal administration, to make the people stand on their own feet, and to introduce the ordinary Indian administration of a free and independent population of peasant farmers.

“Now let me tell you something of our trade and of the crops raised here. The Lyallpur foreign wheat trade is the largest in India, and this is one of the most important centres for its size in the world. We send abroad from this district alone some 300,000 tons of wheat a year. All the largest markets in India are in this district, and we sell only locally-grown wheat. We have no elevators working, and personally I do not believe in them for India. Labour is cheap and abundant, communications good, railways numerous. The wheat goes off to Karachi, which is our port. The farmer can always sell and be paid, and the railway goods receipts circulate as security for value. The elevator system offers no apparent advantages over the present method, and all the trade is opposed to it.

“Next in importance to the wheat comes the cotton trade. We produce some 25,000 tons of unginned cotton annually. The indigenous cotton plant is poor enough, but it is rapidly being replaced by the American, which is much better. Of raw sugar we export from this district about 4,000 tons a year, and of oil seeds some 30,000 tons.

“The cultivation of the Lyallpur District is so large for its population that the surplus produce for export is great. For instance, three-quarters of the wheat goes abroad. The total wheat crop in the Chenab Colony is valued at about 50,000,000 rupees and the cotton at upwards of 5,000,000. The yield of unginned cotton per acre is about one-fourth of a ton. The average yield of wheat is approximately one-half of a ton. We raise many other crops in the Chenab Colony, of course, rice bringing in nearly 2,000,000 rupees, maize more than 2,250,000, millet over 1,250,000, rape and mustard seed upwards of 7,000,000, and fodder crops 80,000,000.

“There is another important side of the canal administration which sometimes escapes notice. Every headman holds a square, and for that square has to raise a mule each year. Government buys the young stock, and last year purchased about 1,100 young mules for the army. The neighbouring Jhelum Colony is partly held on

horse-breeding conditions, and the Government bought nearly 500 young remounts from this section last year. A number of villages in our district are held on camel-breeding terms. Every square has to provide a camel with a driver to be available for Government service when needed. About 5,000 of these camels with their drivers were called up for duty in the army last year, half of them being sent to Egypt, and the rest to the Afghan frontier. The army, I may add, was exceedingly glad to get these animals.

"The agricultural development of the Chenab Colony is controlled by the Punjab Agricultural College, which is located here in Lyallpur. We are very backward in India, but now we have made a start in agricultural improvements, and the beginning is rich in promise for the future. Elaborate machinery does not pay here. Labour is comparatively cheap, and so instead of attempting to introduce Western labour-saving devices we have been trying to improve the indigenous methods. Seed selection is very important, and the agricultural department, working with the peasant agricultural associations, is doing great things.

"The tale of the cotton crop promises to be as interesting in the future developments of the colony as any part of its unique history. The old-country cotton with its one-half-inch staple is being driven off the lands by American cotton

with a staple of five-sixths of an inch. The American cotton is giving a better yield, and the market price is 25 per cent. higher. This change has come within the last five years, and so fast is the American cotton replacing the Indian that we hope the country cotton will have disappeared in a year or two more. This has all been done by the agricultural department and the associations of farmers through which it works.

“In many other ways improvements are being made. The Indian farmer is not less receptive of new ideas than the small and uneducated farmer in any country. The department itself is only learning its work, and is learning cautiously and slowly. Consciousness of ignorance is the foundation of success in India. We all have to learn, and if we do not begin at the bottom we do not learn at all.

“The irrigation problems are full of interest. The Punjab teaches irrigation to the world. In agricultural science we are beginners, but we hope and believe that Lyallpur will teach agriculture to the whole Punjab, and that a greater future awaits the sturdy Punjab farmer with whom we English officers spend our lives, and with whose prosperity the future of British rule is linked.

“And while we are discussing the Chenab Colony there is one matter which it is only fair

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to mention. For years the Lyallpur District has borne an evil reputation as the most corrupt, the most seditious, and the most criminal in the Punjab. This reputation, which in the past undoubtedly was merited, arose from conditions that were due to a variety of causes. The corruption was the result of the prosperity of the people. The sedition had its origin in the continued agitation for the grant of ownership rights, which was sanctioned in 1912. The crime was due partly to the heterogeneous character of the population, and still more to the predatory habits of the old nomad population who had settled down to unwilling agriculture. Of late years there has been much improvement. Sedition no longer exists; corruption has decreased greatly, and there is far less crime than there was."

The Commissioner was asked what effect the war had produced on his district.

"The war has done us all a lot of good," he replied. "The English are now more popular than at any time for years past. Unquestionably the main effect of the conflict on the people has been to draw them closer to the Government, and they are united to support the administration to a greater degree than I have ever known before. Our rule as a power dominates, but no one wants to change the British rule for another. They are afraid of change. They do not want

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to be ruled by the Germans, whom they believe to be a government of boggy men with supernatural powers.

“I have exercised a good deal of rough-and-ready practical power for many years, but I have never known a time when an Englishman was more respected and when the yea and nay or even the expressed opinion of a British officer carried so much weight or was obeyed so readily by all classes.”

CHAPTER VII

THE TRUTH ABOUT SEDITION

IN a discussion of progress in India the query naturally arises as to the truth of the many stories that have been published abroad at various times to the effect that Hindustan was seething with sedition and was likely to break out in revolt at any moment.

From the beginning of the war German press agents and anti-British propagandists kept the newspapers in neutral countries well supplied with alarming reports of pending trouble in India. So persistent were these statements, and so few were the pronouncements offered in contradiction of them, that even fair-minded people began to think that where there was so much smoke there must be at least a little fire. Bearing these stories in mind, one of the first things that I did upon arriving in India was to start an investigation of my own to determine the truth.

To all outward appearances India was as peaceful as an English countryside, but the waters of sedition run deep, and in an effort to

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look beneath the surface and learn the facts I interviewed many people—Americans, British officials and business men, Indian Princes, Indian subjects of varying rank in private life, and conservative and radical Indian politicians, both Mohammedan and Hindu. I found little divergence in their opinions, the gist of which was that there was no fear of anything like an armed revolt in India.

One of the most striking answers which I received to my questions was from the Vicetoy, to whom I turned for an official expression. His Excellency spoke of the surprise with which he had read variously highly-coloured articles in American papers, purporting to depict conditions in India, and representing the country as labouring under an oppressive rule, and shaken by revolutionary and seditious activities.

“The British Government,” continued Lord Chelmsford, “has not deigned formally to repudiate such calumnies—perhaps this has been a mistake—but for my part the reply which I give you is this simple one :

“Go wherever you please throughout the length and breadth of India. Study our work and study our difficulties. No sentry will bar the way, and no secret agent will shadow you. Talk to whom you please ; do what you please, and then write what you please. In India we have nothing to conceal.”

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Now the significance of this crisp statement lay in the fact that if there had been any indication of serious trouble in the country the Government of India certainly would not have permitted a foreign newspaperman to send out broadcast stories of sedition, to be trafficked on by the Germanic Powers. But I was permitted to go my way, and here is what I found :

There is great unrest in India, but it has little in common with sedition. It is a healthy unrest, the evidence of a yearning for better things. It is the type of disquiet that has made great nations what they are, an agitation without which progress must cease and decay set in.

The great majority of India's millions are peace-loving folk, who are opposed to all ideas of revolutionary bloodshed. The illiterate class has little or no interest in politics. The educated people of the law-abiding section, whether they be ultra-radical home-rule advocates or not, desire to remain a part of the British Empire, feeling that the protection of Great Britain is essential to the welfare of India. Most of them look forward to the time when India will occupy a position similar to that of the Dominions ; some assert that India is ready for the change now, but they all profess to hope that they may achieve their aims by peaceful methods, and in any event do not desire a total severance from England.

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There is a certain amount of seditious unrest in various sections, but the people who harbour revolutionary ideas are negligible in number. There is, strictly speaking, no revolutionary "party" in India. There are numbers of small bodies of seditionists in different parts of the country, but these cliques are more or less independent of one another. They are composed largely of men who have received a smattering of higher European education. Now a *little* higher Western learning is truly a dangerous thing for the average Oriental. In trying to grasp the advanced ideals of the West, his untrained mind often reaches a distorted conclusion. It is not a far reach from a mind which is naturally excitable, and which has been unbalanced by false ideas, to sedition.

Most of these revolutionists have studied with the idea of entering Government service. Naturally, there are not enough Civil Service positions to go round, and as these men feel that, having acquired polish, they are above returning to the trades of their fathers, they find themselves without means of making a livelihood. For this they blame the Government. Idleness brings them together for discussion of their alleged wrongs, and they prove fertile ground for the professional agitator to work upon.

The thoughts of the totally illiterate people revolve mainly about their personal affairs. If

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they have enough food to stay their hunger and a place in the sun, they are content. The question of who is ruling them does not bother them in the least. Many of them undoubtedly have never heard of England, or any other place outside their own little sphere, and it would be difficult to convince them that they ought to rise in arms to oust the governing power, so long as their simple wants are supplied.

In a country the size of India there is always a probability that local troubles may occur. Things are quiet at the moment, but it would be unsafe to predict that seditionists might not to-morrow stir up feeling which would result in local disturbances. Such events have occurred since the beginning of the war, the most serious attempt having been made in the Punjab as the result of a conspiracy developed among the Indian emigrants on the Pacific Coast of America, largely in California, Oregon, and British Columbia.

Between five and six thousand seditionists made their way home and into the Punjab, where for months they vainly endeavoured to cause general disaffection among the Indian troops and the people. There were murders and other outrages, but the attempt failed, largely because the people, having no sympathy with the movement, voluntarily turned to the aid of the Government and helped arrest many of the offenders.

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In view of the fact that this Punjab conspiracy is characterised as the most pretentious since the never-to-be-forgotten Mutiny of 1857, it may not be amiss to give the details of it here, as showing the temper of India.

This anti-British plot was put into execution in the great Punjab Province, with its 25,000,000 inhabitants, at a time when India was virtually denuded of troops, which had been sent to the various theatres of war. But the Punjab ship of state, with Sir Michael O'Dwyer, the British Lieutenant-Governor, at the helm, safely weathered the storm—a storm that might have swept all India had the conspirators met with the sympathy which they had expected among their people. The story of the plan of revolt was related to me by Sir Michael O'Dwyer himself as follows :

“The history of this conspiracy is one of the most remarkable in the annals of India, and it is a history with a moral. It demonstrates that while there are political aspirations in India, as there are and must be in any country which allows freedom of thought and liberty of action, yet the vast majority of the people have no sympathy with revolutionary ideas. The failure of the plot is an answer to the many stories which have been published abroad to the effect that the powder train was laid in India and needed only the application of fire to set it off.

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"The conspiracy in question had as its two main centres San Francisco and Vancouver, the former city ultimately eclipsing the latter. The plot goes back to the beginning of 1913 when one Bhagwan Singh, a notorious Indian seditious, went to Vancouver and began to lecture among the Indians there, most of them ignorant men who had lost touch with their religion and traditions and fell an easy prey to specious agitation and sedition mongers against the British Government in India. The grievances of the Indians, real or imaginary, in regard to the immigration regulations had prepared the ground. After a short time Bhagwan Singh was deported, but he had sown the seed of sedition before he left.

"There also arrived in San Francisco about the same time a seditious by the name of Hardial, the real brains of the conspiracy which was developed. Hardial, who, by the way, is now believed to be in Germany, is a man of great intellectual attainments and a brilliant speaker, but unfortunately entirely unscrupulous. He was educated at Oxford as a State scholar by the Government of India, and appears while in England, and perhaps even earlier, to have become imbued with a passionate race hatred which developed into monomania. After leaving Oxford, he devoted his energies to teaching his countrymen the same race hatred which he

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himself possessed. He eventually ran from the United States when proceedings had been taken against him as an anarchist, and proceeded to Germany, but not until the conspiracy which he had engineered was perfected.

“Hardial first lectured in San Francisco on atheism, but the result of his presence there was to inoculate his Indian hearers with seditious political ideas. There were numbers of Indian emigrants in California and Oregon, and the flame of sedition began to spread through these states. As I have already said, the ground had been prepared in Vancouver, and this and neighbouring places also proved fertile districts for Hardial’s propaganda.

“During a visit to St. John, Oregon, in 1913, Hardial proposed to start a revolutionary paper which should be called the *Ghadr* (Mutiny). This plan met with approval and received moral and financial support in St. John, Wina, Bridal Veil, Linton, Portland, Astoria, and other places. There already existed in Oregon a local association which had cast its lot with Hardial, and a second revolutionary society known as the Hindi Association of the Pacific Coast was formed to further the idea of revolt in India.

“It was decided to establish the *Ghadr* newspaper in San Francisco, and Hardial went to that city to organise the undertaking. The first issue of the paper was dated November 1, 1913. This

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organ was violently anti-British, and preached murder and mutiny in every sentence. All Indians were urged to go home with the express purpose of committing murder, causing revolution, and expelling the British Government. These facts we know not only from reading copies of the paper which subsequently fell into our hands, but from evidence brought out at the trials here in India of the ring-leaders of the conspiracy.

"The work of distributing this paper in the various Indian dialects throughout India and among the Indians of America and the Strait Settlements was undertaken by the Hindi Association, which formed branches at Portland, Astoria, St. John, Sacramento, Stockton, Bridal Veil, and in various other places. The association also took further measures to prepare India for a revolution, these including an appeal to foreign nations for help.

"The holding of seditious meetings along with the propaganda of the *Ghadr* was decided upon, and these meetings were continuous up to the outbreak of the war. The first meeting of this nature was held in Sacramento in December, 1913. Portraits of famous seditionists and murderers were shown, and inflammatory mottoes were displayed. Hardial made a speech in May, 1914, in which he told his audience that Germany was getting ready for war with England, and

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that it was time for the Indians in America to return home for a revolution. This utterance of Hardial is significant in that it indicates he knew Germany's plans some months before war was declared. We have no doubt of German connection with the conspiracy to cause a revolution in India, but it is circumstantial evidence of this kind upon which we must depend to establish the fact. Hardial when compelled to leave the United States left an organisation and agents behind him to carry on his revolutionary programme.

"Meetings of a similar nature followed at Berkeley, Stockton, Astoria, Alesandro, Fresno, Upland, Oxnard, Los Angeles, Claremont, Elton, Jersey, Portland, Seattle, Washington, Aberdeen, and other places. It was at meetings held at Elton and Jersey, California, early in July, 1914, that vows were taken to go to India to overthrow the existing Government. At a meeting at Oxnard near the end of July it was announced that the time for the rebellion had come.

"The prediction was made that Great Britain would have to join the war, and that revolutions would break out in Egypt, Ireland, South Africa, and elsewhere.

"Funds were collected at this time and plans were begun for the return. The leaders immediately started to beat up recruits in Oregon and California, and hurried them towards San

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Francisco. On August 11 several thousand Indians from various sections appeared for a meeting in Sacramento, and at that time many of them agreed to return to India for revolt.

"You already know the story of the sailing of the *Komagatu Maru* from Vancouver in July, 1914, with the disappointed and embittered Indians who had been refused admission to Canada when they attempted to land for the purpose of settling there after their emigration from India. This was incidental to the main conspiracy, although the leader of the expedition, Gurdit Singh, who knew all along that Canada never would admit these people, appears to have planned the trip largely for the purpose of creating an incident which would inflame Indian opinion against the British and thus divert attention from his own frauds. Out of this ship load of men, most of whom were duped by Gurdit Singh by promises of securing them admission to Canada, several, when their hopes were not realised, did on their return join those who migrated to India for the purpose of revolt.

"It is not necessary to detail the departure of the various bodies of revolutionists from Vancouver and San Francisco. All told about 5,000 or 6,000 were recruited on the Pacific Coast and at Shanghai and Hong Kong, and these men eventually reached India a considerable time after the war had begun. Some 200 of them,

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whom we knew as seditionists from past experience, were detained on their arrival at port, or in the Punjab, but the majority of them, who were supposed to be peaceful subjects, were allowed to go their way and travelled to the Punjab, where, as it appeared later, the most violent at once proceeded to start the revolt. Their plans were, however, considerably disorganised by the fact that many of their leaders had been interned on arrival in India.

"The objects of the seditionists, as set forth by copies of the *Ghadr* and other evidence produced at the trials, were mainly these: the seduction of Indian troops and villagers, the massacre of loyal subjects and officials, the breaking of jails, the looting of treasuries, union with foreign enemies, the commission of dacoities, the procuring of arms, the foundation of secret societies, and the destruction of railways and telegraphs."

Sir Michael referred to a report of the conspiracy trials and continued:

"Here are a few extracts from the revolutionists' publications produced at the trials, which will indicate their frame of mind

"'Deal with the Europeans in such a way that they might remember it across the seas.' 'Fight for the country—kill the whites.' 'Be determined to expel the tyrants. Drink their blood to your heart's content,' and 'Let us

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start a rebellion. . . . The enemy is entangled in difficulties. . . . He is hemmed in by the German lion. Let us all go together.'

"A poem which was found in the pocket-book of one of the men brought to trial is also interesting, although rather gruesome. It runs as follows :

" 'Kill or die. The government of these tyrants will not last any longer. The time of thy departure has come. Let us kill the white. Take the country even at the cost of your lives. Be ready for a rebellion. Kill the wicked and tyrannical European. It is very easy to kill him. Do not leave any trace of him. Do not leave him until you have taken his life. Extirpate the whole nation. Set fire to all the churches. Kill all the Europeans, men and women, show them no mercy. Kill them to a finish. Sacrifice them on the altar of the sword. Spare neither parents nor offspring. You should flay Europeans alive, so that they may remember it for ages to come. Without a rebellion our lives will always be unhappy. Make a rebellion hastily, you have not more than a year at your disposal. Kill the whites and fill the rivers with their corpses. We will go up to England shouting kill, kill.'

"The revolutionists gradually foregathered in small gangs and laid plans for the commission of robberies and other outrages, partly to terrorise

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the loyal population, partly for the purpose of securing funds to finance the revolt. In November and December, 1914, various murders were committed and attempts were made to loot treasuries and arsenals, but through the watchfulness of the police and the co-operation of the people those revolutionary plans were frustrated, and late in December a large number of the gang leaders were rounded up and imprisoned.

“However, at the end of December matters once more began to assume a serious aspect. Certain revolutionists from Bengal came north and assumed direction of affairs, with the result that some sort of organisation was established out of the chaos. Emissaries were set to work collecting materials for bombs, a bomb factory was established at Jhabawal, and other steps were taken to further an outbreak.

“Towards the end of January dacoities were committed at various places. By the combined efforts of the people and the police numbers of the leaders were arrested from time to time, but the outrages continued. Headquarters for the rebels were established at Amritsar and Lahore; and it was decided that on February 21, 1915, a general rising should be attempted. Accordingly messengers were sent out to several cantonments to announce to the Indian troops the coming revolt. From the very beginning,

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of course, attempts had been made to seduce troops by the distribution of literature and by personal contact, but in all but a few cases these attempts met with complete failure, and the army, like the civil population, remained steadfastly loyal.

"In pursuance of their plans the revolutionists prepared bombs, collected arms, provided instruments for destroying railways and telegraphs, and drew up a declaration of war. One important thing they had overlooked, however, and that was the vigilance of the police and the hostility of the people towards the revolutionary movement. The rebels became suspicious finally, and antedated the time of the rising to February 19, but this too became known to the authorities, and when the leaders assembled in Lahore to start the conflagration they were surrounded in a bomb factory and arrested by the Government forces.

"Thus the outbreak in Lahore never took place, and as the signal was not given in that city, the other proposed risings collapsed. This really was the end of the main revolutionary enterprise, although for many months murders and isolated outrages were committed by small bands of the returned emigrants who had not been apprehended. In this connection it is significant to note that the people of the Punjab, having, as has been pointed out, no

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sympathy with the revolutionary plans and growing tired of the lawless acts, in many cases gave information against the rebels and assisted the authorities in their arrest. As a result, while there undoubtedly are numbers of the original conspirators living in the Punjab, the lawlessness has been suppressed; and this exotic movement, foreign to the ideas and traditions of a people who pride themselves on their loyalty, has died for want of the sympathy and support the misguided leaders had counted upon.

“The men who were arrested were dealt with in two trials. In the first trial fifty-seven accused, chiefly returned emigrants, were convicted, and of these fifty-one were found guilty of offences punishable by death. The tribunal, however, discriminated between the degrees of guilt and passed the death sentence on only twenty-four and the alternative sentence of transportation for life on the remainder. Seventeen of those condemned to death had their sentences commuted to life transportation, so that only seven were executed. In the second trial fifty-nine men were convicted, but only five of these actually suffered the death penalty. Besides those who were punished through the courts, some half-dozen met their death in conflict with the police and the people.

“Plotting among the revolutionary section of the Indians in America undoubtedly continues,

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but we are keeping a close watch on them, not that we fear a serious outbreak, but because we wish to protect the people of India from the murders and robberies practised by those conspirators who returned at the outbreak of the war. I understand that the attention of the United States Government has been called to the matter.

“In conclusion I might add this pertinent fact: out of the 190,000 Indian troops recruited for the British army since the war began (this statement was made in September, 1916), the Punjab, though its population is only one-twelfth that of the Indian Empire, has furnished 50 per cent., and of these no less than one-third are Sikhs, though they form only one-tenth of the population of the Punjab. Thus the misdeeds of a few thousands of the community, so far from affecting the traditional loyalty of the Sikhs, have only stimulated the Sikh nation to greater service and greater sacrifices in the cause of the Empire to which they are proud to belong.”

Since Sir Michael related these facts still more of the conspirators have been arrested and punished. The United States, too, has instituted strong measures to suppress the plotters in that country.

The question of the border tribesmen in the north is quite another matter. These are by

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nature a warlike folk, and fighting is their main business in life. They have always given the British trouble, and it will be many a long year before they cease their hostile activities. Conflicts between these people and Government troops have ceased to cause surprise in India; and they produce little anxiety, for the tribesmen are kept well in hand by ample Government forces stationed along the border.

CHAPTER VIII

THE LOYALTY OF THE INDIAN PRINCES

THERE is another important side to the question of loyalty in India, and that is the attitude of the Indian Princes toward the British Government.

As regards this point, I can do no better than repeat the striking declaration which was made to me by His Highness the Maharaja of Bikaner, one of the greatest of the ruling Princes, during a conversation at the Palace in Bikaner in December, 1916. We were discussing the statements, published at various times after the outbreak of the war, to the effect that the Princes were lukewarm in their devotion to the British Flag.

"The charges that the ruling Princes of India are loyal to the King-Emperor solely because of self-interest, and that they are ready to break away from the British Government at any moment when they believe they can enlarge their own powers by so doing, are either wicked and malicious falsehoods," said His Highness

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emphatically, "or are the product of people who do not know whereof they speak. Native India is unqualifiedly loyal to the core."

The Maharaja spoke feelingly on the subject throughout our long talk, and at one point declared in a voice vibrating with emotion :

"I love the King-Emperor as the representative of sovereign power, and I love him as a man. There is no sacrifice which he might ask of me that I would not make. My resources, my life, and the lives of the men of Bikaner belong to him. That is how I feel personally toward the throne, and I speak with the authority arising from close associations with my brother rulers when I tell you that they too love their King-Emperor and will follow where he leads, through thick and thin."

Highly cultured, his education embracing the learning both of the East and of the West, the Maharaja is credited with being one of the most progressive and able rulers of the Indian Empire. It is stated that for a long time, although he is now only thirty-six years of age, his views have been sought on delicate questions by the Government of India. During the important conference of Princes in Delhi, which I have already mentioned, he played a leading part, and at the conclusion was accorded the distinction of a vote of thanks for his services by the other rulers. More recently a striking

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tribute was paid to his ability when he was appointed as a representative of India to take part in the Imperial War Conference held in London.

Those who know the Maharaja best say that if he feels keenly on the subject of loyalty, the reason lies in his personality and in his intimate knowledge of the attitude of the other Indian rulers. At the outbreak of the European war he was the first of the ruling Princes of India to offer the services of himself and his troops, and to place the entire resources of his state at the disposal of King George, his message being sent even before Great Britain had formally entered the conflict. And in fairness to the other rulers it must be recorded, as His Highness himself pointed out, that their offers of support followed his in quick succession. His emphatic pronouncement at the very outset had a great effect in forming public opinion in India and giving it a right direction from the start.

Shortly after Great Britain took up arms the Maharaja sailed for France, leaving behind a broken-hearted Prince of twelve, his heir, who had pleaded as only a lad can plead that he too be allowed to go and fight for the King-Emperor. His Highness was appointed to the headquarters staff of the Meerut Division of the Indian expeditionary force, and fought through the most

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critical stages of those early days. Meanwhile other Princes of India were also fighting personally in various fields of operation.

After a few months the Maharaja of Bikaner was made an aide-de-camp on the staff of Field-Marshal Sir John French, and was officially commended by the Commander-in-Chief for gallant conduct in the field. The Maharaja returned to India in February, 1915, owing to the fatal illness of his daughter, and reached Egypt on his way home just in time to place himself at the head of his famous regiment, the Bikaner Camel Corps, which was stationed there, and to help to repel the Turkish invasion. Again he was mentioned for gallantry, in despatches from the Commander-in-Chief, Sir John Maxwell.

His Highness comes from the famous fighting race of Rathore Rajputs, and points out with pride that the seal of the neighbouring state of Jodhpur, from which his ancestors came, still bears the words "Ran Banka Rathore," which means: "Rathore, valiant in Battle." When only twenty years of age he commanded a Bikaner regiment in the British expeditionary force in China in 1900-1, and thus, with his services in Egypt and France, has the distinction of having fought on three continents for his Sovereign. In addition he served for eight years as aide-de-camp to the Prince of Wales —now King George