

EAST INDIA (PROGRESS AND CONDITION).

12

Rare section

STATEMENT

EXHIBITING THE

MORAL AND MATERIAL PROGRESS AND CONDITION

OF

INDIA

DURING THE YEAR 1882-83.

NINETEENTH NUMBER.

PART I.

(PRESENTED PURSUANT TO ACT OF PARLIAMENT.)

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PART II.

APPENDIX.

PAPER ON AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION by *J. A. Baines, Esq.*, Bombay Civil Service, with Tables and Diagrams.

Twelve Maps, illustrative of the Report, by *Trelawny Saunders, Esq.*

Note.—Throughout this Report, the Indian currency of rupees has been converted into the English currency of pounds sterling at the conventional rate of 2 s. per rupee, or rupees 10 = £. 1.

P R E F A T O R Y N O T E.

The Statement exhibiting the Moral and Material Progress of India for the year 1872-73, prepared by Mr. Clements Markham, was fuller and more complete than the similar Annual Statements issued by the India Office before and after that year, and it gave a concise history of measures connected with some of the most important branches of Indian Administration, in order to facilitate comprehension of the narrative yearly given of progress under those heads.

Ten years having elapsed since the issue of Mr. Markham's Report, it was thought advisable to repeat, with additions, the general information it contained, and to give a short account of the administrative history of the decade 1874-1883.

Unavoidable difficulties have delayed the publication of this Statement, which has been prepared by Mr. James Sutherland Cotton.

J. A. GODLEY.
Under Secretary of State for India.

S T A T E M E N T

EXHIBITING THE

MORAL AND MATERIAL PROGRESS AND CONDITION

OF INDIA

DURING THE YEAR 1882-83.

I.

THE POLITICAL CONSTITUTION.

SINCE Mr. Peter Auber, Assistant Secretary to the Court of Directors, published in 1826 "An Analysis of the Constitution of the East India Company," no work of authority has appeared describing the elaborate system of government by which the Indian Empire is administered. It is here proposed to explain briefly that system as it exists at the present day, with just so much historical preface as is necessary to avoid misunderstanding.

The East India Company traces its origin to a Charter of Incorporation granted by Queen Elizabeth on the last day of the year 1600. At first merely a body of merchants united for purposes of trade, the Company gradually became under pressure of circumstances a territorial potentate. The Royal Charters, as renewed from time to time, were inadequate to meet this change; and in the year 1773 Parliament first undertook the responsibility of legislating for India. After that date, a series of statutes were passed, usually at intervals of 20 years when the powers of the Company came up for reconsideration, which had the general result of tightening the authority of Parliament and the Crown and of transforming the Company itself from a trading corporation into an administrative machine. Finally, in 1858, as a consequence of the Mutiny, the Government of India was transferred by statute to the Crown, and the Company ceased to exist as a governing body. But it is important to observe, that the East India Company was at no time sovereign, in the technical sense of that word. Its powers, however great and undefined, were all derivative. They were drawn partly from charters, partly from Acts of Parliament, and, where these failed, from the constitutional maxim that no subject can acquire sovereign rights except for the Crown. The early statutes modifying the Government were expressly stated to be "without prejudice to the claims of the publick." In 1813 (50 Geo. 3, c. 155), we find for the first time an express reservation of the "undoubted sovereignty" of the Crown over the territorial acquisitions of the Company; and the later statutes, from 1833 downwards, always declare that the Company is a trustee for the Crown as regards its possessions and its rights and powers. The important change, therefore, effected in 1858 was not a transfer of sovereignty, but the resumption of a delegated authority to be exercised thereafter directly by servants of the Crown.

For the present purpose it will not be necessary to examine any of the charters that date from before 1773. At that time, the East India Company's affairs were administered at home by a Court of Directors, who had no public relations either with the Crown or with Parliament. In India there were three Presidencies or chief settlements: Fort St. George, or Madras-patnam, founded

founded by Francis Day in 1639, and raised to the rank of a Presidency in 1653; Bombay, ceded by Portugal to Charles II. as part of the dowry of Catharine of Braganza in 1661; sold by Charles II. to the East India Company for an annual payment of 10 l. in 1668, and formed into a Presidency in 1684; and Fort William, or Calcutta, founded by Job Charnock in 1698, and made independent of Madras in 1707. Each of these Presidencies was entirely independent of the other two, and subject only to the Court of Directors at home. The government in each consisted of a President or Governor, with a numerous council. In matters of difference, the vote of the President was worth no more than that of any member of his Council. All were appointed by the Court of Directors from among their civil servants in India.

The Regulating Act, 1772-73.

The Act of 1772-73, known as the Regulating Act (13 Geo. 3, c. 63), reconstituted the Council of Bengal, changed the style from Governor to Governor General, and subjected the other two Presidencies to Bengal so far as regards the declaration of war or the conclusion of peace. The first Governor General (Warren Hastings) and his Council of four members (of whom Philip Francis was one) were named in the Act; thereafter they were to be appointed by the Court of Directors. The power of making "rules, ordinances, and regulations" was conferred upon the Governor General and Council. A Supreme Court of Judicature, composed of a chief and four puisnes nominated by the Crown, was established for Bengal. The Court of Directors was required to communicate to the Treasury all despatches from India relating to revenue, and to a Secretary of State all despatches relating to public affairs.

Pitt's Indian Act, 1784.

This first interference of Parliament in the government of India was due to Lord North. The second is associated with the greater names of Fox and Pitt. In 1783, Fox on behalf of the Ministry introduced a Bill which in substance transferred the authority belonging to the Court of Directors to a new body, named in the Bill for a term of four years, who were afterwards to be appointed by the Crown. This Bill passed the House of Commons by a majority of two to one, but was rejected by the House of Lords. The king, who was known to disapprove the Bill, forthwith dismissed Fox from office and summoned Pitt to be First Lord of the Treasury. In the following year (1784), after a dissolution, Pitt carried through Parliament his own India Act (24 Geo. 3, c. 25). Its effect was twofold. First, it constituted a department of State in England, under the official style of "Commissioners for the Affairs of India," whose special function was to "control" the policy of the Court of Directors. Second, it reduced the number of members of council at Bengal to three, of whom the Commander in Chief must be one; and it remodelled the Councils at Madras and Bombay on the pattern of that at Bengal.

The Board of Control.

The "Commissioners for the Affairs of India" were directed to form themselves into a Board which, as finally modified by a subsequent Act (33 Geo. 3, c. 52.), consisted of five members of the Privy Council, of whom the two Secretaries of State and the Chancellor of the Exchequer must be three. But it was never intended that these high officers should take an active part, and therefore the first Commissioner named in the letters patent was appointed President of the Board, and a casting vote was given to him in matters of difference, which practically made him supreme. Thus arose the popular title of "President of the Board of Control." The first President was Henry Dundas (afterwards Lord Melville), the friend of Pitt, who held the office from 1784 to 1801. One of his earliest acts was to pass a Statute (26 Geo. 3, c. 16) by which authority was for the first time given to the Governor General to overrule the majority of his Council in certain cases. This matter, however, was dealt with more thoroughly in the Act of Parliament which has now to be described.

The Secret Committee 1793.

In 1793, the question of continuing to the East India Company their right of exclusive trade in the East came under the consideration of Parliament. The monopoly was renewed for a further term of 20 years; and advantage was taken of the opportunity to codify, as it were, the constitution of the Indian Government. By this Act (33 Geo. 3, c. 52) the Board of Control was modified as mentioned above, and the Court of Directors were required to appoint a "Secret Committee" of three of their own number, through whom the Board of Control was to issue its instructions to the Governors in India regarding questions of peace or war. The Councils at Bengal, Madras, and Bombay were remodelled. Each was to consist of three members, appointed by the Court of Directors, from among "senior merchants" (*i. e.* civil servants) of 10 years' standing;

standing; and the Directors were empowered to appoint the Commander in Chief of each Presidency as an additional member. The appointment of the three Governors and the Commanders in Chief was vested in the Court of Directors, subject to the approval of the Crown. The Directors also retained their power of dismissing any of these officials. The Governor General was empowered to override the majority of his Council "in cases of high importance and essentially affecting the public interest and welfare," or (as it is elsewhere worded) "when any measure shall be proposed whereby the interests of the Company or the safety and tranquillity of the British possessions in India may, in the judgment of the Governor General, be essentially concerned." A similar power was conferred upon the Governors of Madras and Bombay. The Governor General was authorised to "superintend" the subordinate Presidencies "in all such points as shall relate to negotiations with the country powers, or levying war or making peace, or the collection or application of the revenues, or the forces employed, or the civil or military government." The form of procedure in Council was regulated; and it was enacted that all orders, &c. should be expressed and be made "by the Governor General [or Governor] in Council," a style that has continued to the present day. The Governor in Council at Madras first received legislative powers in 1800, by an Act (39 & 40 Geo. 3, c. 79) which also founded a Supreme Court of Judicature at Madras on the Bengal pattern, with judges appointed by the Crown. Bombay did not obtain legislative powers until 1807, nor a Supreme Court until 1823.

In 1813 the territorial authority of the East India Company, and its monopoly of trade with China, were again renewed for 20 years; but the right of trade in India was thrown open to all British subjects. The Act passed on this occasion established a bishop for India and an archdeacon for each of the three Presidencies. It also authorised the expenditure of one lac of rupees (say 10,000 £.) on education and the encouragement of learning. The Renewal in 1813.

When the time came round for renewing the powers of the Company in 1833 for another 20 years, far more extensive changes were carried into effect. By the Act then passed (3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 85), the monopoly of trade with China was withdrawn, and the Company (now for the first time officially styled "the East India Company") ceased altogether to be a mercantile corporation. At the same time, the Island of St. Helena was vested in the Crown. It was also enacted that no official communications should be sent to India by the Court of Directors until they had first been approved by the Board of Control. The Governor General received the title of "Governor General of India." His Council was augmented by a fourth or extraordinary member, who was not entitled to sit or vote except at meetings for making laws and regulations. He was to be appointed by the Directors, subject to the approval of the Crown, from among persons not servants of the Company. The first such member was Thomas Babington Macaulay, afterwards Lord Macaulay. The Governor General in Council was empowered to make "Laws and Regulations" for the whole of India, and legislative functions were withdrawn from Madras and Bombay. A Law Commission was appointed, to which we owe the Penal Code. A new Presidency was created, with its seat at Agra; but this clause was suspended two years later by an Act (5 & 6 Will. 4, c. 52) which authorised the appointment of a "Lieutenant Governor of the North-Western Provinces." At the same time the Governor General was authorised to appoint a member of His Council to be Deputy Governor of Bengal. Two new bishoprics were constituted for Madras and Bombay. By a special clause, it was for the first time enacted that "no native of India shall, by reason of his religion, place of birth, descent, or colour, be disabled from holding any office under the Company." The Renewal in 1833.

In 1853, the powers of the East India Company were again renewed, but "only until Parliament shall otherwise provide." Further important changes were effected by the Act passed on this occasion (16 & 17 Vict. c. 95). Six members of the Court of Directors, out of a total of 18, were henceforth to be appointed by the Crown. The appointment of ordinary members of Council in India, though still made by the Directors, was to be subject to the approval of the Crown. The Commander in Chief of the Queen's army in India was declared Commander in Chief of the Company's forces. The Council of the Governor General was again remodelled, by the admission of the fourth member as an ordinary member for all purposes; while special members were added for the object of legislation only, namely, one member from each Presidency or Lieutenant

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Lieutenant Governorship, the chief justice of Bengal, and a puisne judge of the Supreme Court. The Lower Provinces of Bengal were constituted a Lieutenant Governorship. A Law Commission was appointed in England to consider the reforms proposed by the Indian Law Commissioners. Finally, admission to the civil service, the army, and the medical service was thrown open to public competition.

The Act for the better Government of India, 1858.

The Mutiny of 1857 caused the downfall of the East India Company, after a history of more than two and a half centuries. The "Act for the better Government of India" (21 & 22 Vict. c. 106) enacted that henceforth "India shall be governed by and in the name of" the Queen, and vested in the Queen all the territories and powers of the Company. A Secretary of State was appointed, with a Council, to transact the affairs of India in England. Omitting certain provisions of temporary effect, and combining the provisions of two amending Acts (32 & 33 Vict. c. 97, and 39 Vict. c. 7), this Council consists of 15 members, nine of whom at the least must have served or resided in India for 10 years, and must not have left India for more than 10 years, and three others may be selected for professional or other peculiar qualifications. Vacancies are filled up by the Secretary of State. The term of office, which was originally "during good behaviour," is now for 10 years, reserving a power to the Secretary of State to reappoint for five years more "for special reasons of public advantage." No member of Council is capable of sitting in Parliament. The Secretary of State is empowered to divide the Council into committees for the more convenient transaction of business, and to appoint one of the members to be Vice President. Except in certain cases specially mentioned, the Secretary of State is not bound to follow the opinion of the majority of the Council, but he must record his reasons for acting in opposition thereto. In cases of urgency, he may act without consulting the Council; and as regards that class of cases which would formerly have passed through the Secret Committee of the Court of Directors, he is expressly authorised to act alone without consulting the Council or recording his reasons. All the revenues of India are subjected to the control of the Secretary of State, who may sanction no grant without the concurrence of the majority of the Council. The accounts are to be audited in England, and annually laid before Parliament. Any order sent to India directing the commencement of hostilities must also be communicated to Parliament. Except for repelling actual invasion, or "under other sudden and urgent necessity," the revenues of India may not be applied to defray the expense of any military operation beyond the frontier without the consent of both Houses of Parliament. The naval and military forces of the Company were declared to be henceforth the forces of the Crown; all officers and servants of the Company in India to be officers of the Crown; and all future appointments were vested in the Crown. Appointments to the offices of Governor General, Governors of Presidencies and Advocates General, and also (by 32 & 33 Vict. c. 97) of the ordinary members of the Councils in India are made by the Crown direct; appointments to the offices of Lieutenant Governor or other ruler of a Province by the Governor General, subject to the approval of the Crown; other appointments made in India remain as before.

The Secretary of State for India.

The Royal Proclamation.

The "Act for the better Government of India" received the Royal Assent on 2nd August 1858, and came into operation 30 days later. Its effect, so far as regards the assumption of the government by the Crown, was announced to the princes and people of India by a royal proclamation, which was published at every large town throughout the country and translated into the vernacular languages. In this historic proclamation the Governor General (Lord Canning) was for the first time styled Viceroy.

The Indian Councils Act, 1861.

Despite the transfer of authority from the Company to the Crown, the constitution of the Government remained unaltered until 1861. In that year was passed "the Indian Councils Act" (24 & 25 Vict. c. 67), which, as modified by two subsequent Acts (33 Vict. c. 3, and 37 & 38 Vict. c. 91), provides as follows: The Council of the Governor General consists of five or six ordinary members, with the Commander in Chief as extraordinary member. Of the ordinary members, three must have served in India for at least 10 years; one must be a barrister or advocate; and another may be "the member for public works purposes." All are appointed direct by the Crown. If the Council happens to meet within the limits of Madras or Bombay; the Governor of the Presidency acts as an extraordinary member. For legislative purposes the

the Council is augmented by the addition of from 6 to 12 members, nominated by the Governor General for a term of two years, of whom one half must be non-official persons. The Lieutenant Governor or Chief Commissioner of a Province in which the "Legislative Council" happens to meet is *ex-officio* an extraordinary member. So far as regards legislation, the sanction of the Governor General is required before any measure may be introduced affecting certain special subjects; his express assent is necessary to give any law validity; and a power is further reserved to the Crown to disallow any law. In ordinary legislation the Governor General has only a casting vote; but "in cases of emergency" a power is conferred on him, apart from the Council, of making ordinances which shall have the force of law for six months. The Councils of Madras and Bombay were augmented for legislative purposes by the addition of from four to eight members; a Legislative Council was authorised for the Lieutenant Governorship of Bengal, and power was given to create a similar Council for the North-West Provinces and for the Punjab. This power has not yet been exercised.

In 1876, the transfer of the government from the Company to the Crown, which had been effected 18 years earlier, was further recognised by an Act of Parliament (39 Vict. c. 10), which empowered the Queen to make a significant addition to Her style and title. This statute received the Royal Assent on the 27th April 1876. On the next day a Royal proclamation was issued at Windsor announcing that the Queen had assumed the title of "Empress of India." To celebrate the event, Lord Lytton, as Viceroy, held an imperial assemblage at Delhi of the heads of the administration and of the native princes and chiefs on the 1st January 1877, when the Royal proclamation was read with great pomp and ceremony. The proclamation was also read on the same day at the head quarters station of every District throughout India; and the occasion was celebrated by bounties to the Army and by the liberation of well-conducted prisoners.

The Empress of India, 1876.

The following is a catalogue of all the Acts of Parliament relating to the constitution of the Indian Government, with a summary of their titles:— Acts of Parliament the constitution.

13 Geo. III. c. 63 (1772-3).

"For establishing certain Regulations for the better Management of the Affairs of the East India Company, as well in India as in Europe." Known as the Regulating Act.

21 Geo. III. c. 70 (1789-1).

"To explain and amend so much of the [last] Act as relates to the administration of Justice in Bengal.

24 Geo. III. Sess. 2, c. 25 (1784).

"For the better Regulation and Management of the Affairs of the East India Company and of the British Possessions in India."

26 Geo. III. c. 16 (1786).

"To explain and amend certain Provisions of the [last] Act."

33 Geo. III. c. 52 (1792-3).

"For continuing in the East India Company for a further Term the possession of the British Territories in India, under certain Limitations; for establishing further Regulations for the Government of the said Territories, and the better Administration of Justice, &c."

37 Geo. III. c. 142 (1796-97).

"For the better Administration of Justice at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay."

39 & 40 Geo. III. c. 79 (1799-1800).

"For establishing further Regulations for the Government of the British Territories in India, and the better Administration of Justice."

53 Geo. III. c. 155 (1812-13).

"For continuing in the East Indian Company for a further Term the possession of the British Territories in India; for establishing further Regulations

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for the Government of the said Territories, and the better Administration of Justice, &c."

4 Geo. IV. c. 71 (1823).

"For establishing a Court of Judicature at Bombay."

10 Geo. IV. c. 62 (1829).

"To exclude Persons accepting Office in the East Indies from being Members of the House of Commons."

1 Will. IV. c. 4 (1830-31.)

"To provide for the longer Duration of the Patents of Governors after the Demise of the Crown."

3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 85 (1833).

"For effecting an Arrangement with the East India Company, and for better Government of His Majesty's Indian Territories."

3 & 4 Will. IV. c. (1835).

"To authorise the Court of Directors to suspend the Provisions of the last Act, so far as they relate to the Creation of the Government of Agra."

16 & 17 Vict. c. 95 (1853).

"To provide for the Government of India."

17 & 18 Vict. c. 77 (1854).

"For vesting certain Powers in the Governor General of India in Council."

21 & 22 Vict. c. 106 (1858).

"For the better Government of India."

22 & 23 Vict. c. 41 (1859).

"To amend the Act for the better Government of India."

24 & 25 Vict. c. 54 (1861).

"To confirm certain Appointments in India, and to amend the Law concerning the Civil Service."

24 & 25 Vict. c. 67 (1861).

The Indian Councils Act.

32 & 33 Vict. c. 97 (1869).

"To amend in certain respects the Act for the better Government of India."

32 & 33 Vict. c. 98 (1869).

"To define the Powers of the Governor General of India in Council at Meetings for making Laws and Regulations."

33 Vict. c. 3 (1870).

"To make better Provision for making Laws and Regulations for certain Parts of India, and for other purposes."

37 & 38 Vict. c. 91 (1874).

"To amend the Law relating to the Council of the Governor General."

39 Vict. c. 7 (1876).

"To amend the Law relating to certain Appointments to the Council of India."

39 Vict. c. 10 (1876).

"To enable Her most Gracious Majesty to make an addition to the Royal Style and Titles."

II.

THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS.

THE historical division of British India is into the three Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay. The two latter retain to this day all the marks which serve to distinguish a Presidency. Each of them is administered by a Governor in Council, who corresponds direct with the Secretary of State in England, and is independent of the Governor General except in so far as expressly subjected to his authority by Act of Parliament. Each of them has a Native Army, a Staff Corps, and a Civil Service of its own. The course of history has likewise contributed to imprint on Madras and Bombay peculiar characteristics of administration which distinguish them from one another, and from the rest of India. Bengal also has, in name, an Army, a Staff Corps, and a Civil Service; but these are not confined to the administrative area known as Bengal. In short, the Presidency of Bengal has ceased to exist, being partly merged in the Government of India, and partly redistributed among some half dozen Provinces. The title survives only in a familiar appellation for the three Presidency towns. Therefore, for the sake of clearness, the word "Presidency" will not be used in this Report; and each unit of administration will usually be styled a "Province," though that word has no official authority.

The Three Presidencies.

It will also be convenient here to state, once and for all, that throughout this Report the several "Provinces" will be treated in a uniform order, based upon administrative convenience. First will come those under the direct authority of the Governor General—Ajmere, Berar, Coorg with Bangalore, and the Andaman Islands; next those which may be regarded as the fragments of the old Bengal Presidency and therefore indirectly under the Governor General—Bengal Proper, Assam (placed here as having been so lately severed from Bengal), the North-West Provinces with Oudh, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and British Burma; last come Madras and Bombay, the latter including not only Sind but also the transmarine possession of Aden.

The Provinces.

The territory under the direct administration of the Governor General does not require lengthy description. It is comparatively small, and its history is simple. First comes Ajmere, or, more strictly, the Districts of Ajmere and Merwara, with a total area of 2,711 square miles and a total population (1881) of 460,722 souls. This is a mountainous tract entirely surrounded by the Native States of Rajputana. Ajmere proper was acquired by treaty from Sindia, Raja of Gwalior, by the treaty of 1820, which terminated what is known as the Pindari war. Merwara (Mhairwara), which is inhabited almost entirely by an aboriginal tribe called Mhairs, was occupied by British troops for the preservation of order in 1819, and was permanently placed under British administration in 1834. It was not united with Ajmere until 1842. Ajmere is administered by an officer with the style of Commissioner, in immediate subordination to the Agent to the Governor General for Rajputana, who bears the title of Chief Commissioner for Ajmere. He corresponds with the Supreme Government of India in the "Political" or foreign department. The administrative headquarters are at the town of Ajmere.

Ajmere.

Berar, officially styled the Hyderabad Assigned Districts, has an area of 17,711 square miles, and a population (1881) of 2,672,673 souls. It consists of the broad valley of the Purna river, a tributary of the Tapti, with the Satpura Hills on the north and the Ajanta Hills on the south, and supplies the finest cotton in India. By a treaty with the Nizara of Hyderabad in 1853, subsequently modified in 1860, Berar was assigned to the British Government in trust for the payment of a military contingent and in satisfaction of other claims. No accounts are submitted to the Nizam, but the surplus revenue is credited to him, not to the Imperial Exchequer. Berar is administered by a Commissioner, subordinate to the Resident at Hyderabad, who in his turn corresponds

Berar.

with the Supreme Government in the "Political" department. The administrative head-quarters are at Amraoti.

Coorg.

Coorg and Bangalore may, for purposes of convenience, be treated together. Coorg is a small mountainous principality in the extreme south of the peninsula, inhabited by a fine race of highlanders, and possessing a soil and climate suitable for coffee cultivation. It has an area of 1,583 square miles and a population (1881) of 178,302 souls. The tyrannical cruelty of the native Raja led to the invasion of Coorg by a British force in 1834. After a sharp resistance, the Raja surrendered himself and was deposed. The government was assumed by the British in a proclamation which declared that this was done by the unanimous wish of the people, and which guaranteed to them their civil and religious usages. Coorg is administered by a Commissioner, subordinate to the Resident at Mysore, who is styled Chief Commissioner of Coorg. The administrative head-quarters are at Mercara. When the State of Mysore was restored to its native Raja in 1881, the civil and military station of Bangalore, with an area of about 12½ square miles and a population (1882) of 93,540 souls, was reserved under British administration. It is administered by the Resident at Mysore, who corresponds with the Supreme Government in the "Political" department.

Bangalore.

The Andamans.

The Andamans and Nicobars are two groups of islands lying in the Bay of Bengal, nearer to Burma than to the Indian peninsula, which are the great convict station for all India. The area is returned at 880 square miles and the population (1881) at 14,682 souls; but this includes 11,652 convicts, and excludes the aborigines, who are estimated at 6,000. Port Blair in the Andamans was first established as a convict station in 1858, after the Mutiny. British authority has since been extending gradually among the aborigines. The Nicobars, over which Denmark had previously claimed rights of sovereignty, were annexed by the British in 1869. The two groups of islands form the charge of an official styled "Superintendent of Port Blair and the Nicobars," who corresponds with the Supreme Government in the "Home" department. The administrative head-quarters are at Port Blair.

Bengal.

Bengal is a term of very indeterminate meaning. In its widest sense it may be taken to comprise the whole of British India which is not included within Madras or Bombay. In its narrowest sense (which agrees with history) it is confined to one of the four Provinces, though by far the most important, which are under the administration of the Lieutenant Governor of Bengal. Officially, it includes these four Provinces—Bengal proper, Behar, Orissa, and Chutia Nagpur, which are sometimes called "The Lower Provinces," to distinguish them from later acquisitions in the north-west. Bengal, as thus defined, contains an area of 150,588 square miles (exclusive of 5,976 square miles, being the area of the uninhabited fringe on the seaboard of the Gangetic delta known as the Sundarbans) and a population (1881) of 66,691,456 souls. The Lieutenant Governor of Bengal therefore rules over just one third of the total population of British India. In addition, the native States in connection with Bengal have an area of 36,634 square miles, and a population (1881) of 34,911,270 souls, making a total of 264,765 square miles and 69,536,861 souls. The limits of the present Lieutenant Governorship are almost identical with those of the *diwani* of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, which was conferred upon the East India Company by the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam in 1765. Orissa then included only the purely Bengal District of Midnapur; Orissa proper was conquered from the Mahrattas in 1803. As the British arms advanced, the "Conquered and Ceded" territory was naturally annexed to Bengal, and the whole continued to be administered by the Governor General until 1834. In that year (by the provisions of 3 & 4 Will. iv. cap. 85) the Governor General of Bengal became Governor General of India, and henceforth ruled Bengal apart from his Council. By the same Act it was proposed to divide Bengal into two Presidencies, Bengal and Agra; but this proposal never took effect. In 1836, however, the "Upper Provinces" were finally severed, and placed under a Lieutenant Governor. Bengal did not receive a Lieutenant Governor of its own until 1854. Assam was formed into a separate Province in 1874. The hill station of Darjiling was ceded by the Raja of Sikkim in 1835, and the surrounding tract was annexed in 1850. The Western Dwaras, now forming part of Jalpaiguri District, were conquered from Bhutan in 1865. The Lieutenant Governor of Bengal is appointed by the Governor General, subject to the sanction of

of the Crown, from among Indian officials of not less than ten years' service. For the purposes of legislation only he has a Council of 12 members, nominated by himself, of whom not less than one-third must be non-officials. The administrative head-quarters of Bengal are at Calcutta.

The name of Assam is strictly applicable only to the upper valley of the Brahmaputra. The British Province of Assam includes also the valley of the Surma, and the watershed between these two rivers, together with a mountainous region extending towards China and independent Burma. The total area is returned at 46,341 square miles, and the total population (1881) at 4,881,426 souls; but both these figures include estimates for mountains not surveyed and for hill tribes not accurately enumerated. They do not include the State of Manipur, which is in political connexion with the Assam Government. Assam was severed from Bengal, and constituted an independent Province, under a Chief Commissioner, in 1874. But its component parts have been acquired at different times and in different ways. Two of its Districts, Sylhet and Goalpara, formed part of the original Bengal included in the *diwani* grant of 1765. Assam proper was conquered from its Burmese invaders in 1824, and finally ceded by the treaty of Yaudabu in 1826. Cachar, from which the Burmese were driven out at the same time, was annexed in 1832, on the death of its Native Raja without heirs. The Hill Districts have been brought under British authority by gradual stages, which it would be tedious to describe in detail. The Naga Hills, the largest and wildest of all, was the scene of warfare as late as 1880; and the existing line of frontier was finally drawn in the following year. The administrative head-quarters of Assam are at the hill station of Shillong.

Assam.

The North-West, or, more accurately, the North-Western Provinces, were combined with Oudh in 1877, in so far that they were placed under the charge of a single official. But that official still bears the dual title of Lieutenant Governor of the North-Western Provinces and Chief Commissioner of Oudh, and the administration of the two Provinces remains in some respects distinct. Their physical features are identical, for Oudh is surrounded on every side but the north by the North-West Provinces. They form together the upper portion of the great Gangetic valley. The North-West Provinces and Oudh have an area of 106,111 square miles, and a total population (1881) of 44,107,869 souls. In addition, there are two Native States in connection with the North-West Provinces, with a total area of 5,125 square miles and a total population (1881) of 357,051 souls. The North-West Provinces are so called because of their geographical relation to the "Lower Provinces" of Bengal, from which they were not finally separated until 1835. Down to that date they had been known as "the Ceded and Conquered Provinces." The "Ceded" Provinces were those obtained from the Nawab of Oudh in 1775, 1798, and 1801; the "Conquered" Provinces were those won by Lord Lake from Sindia, Raja of Gwalior, in 1805. British authority was extended as far as the Sutlej in 1808; the hill tracts of Kumaon, Garhwal, and Dehra Dun were wrested from their Gurkha invaders in 1816; a large region in Central India, then called "the Sagar and Narbada Territories," was surrendered by the Mahratta Raja of Nagpur in 1811, as the result of the Pindari War; and various smaller tracts were annexed from time to time, or were acquired by lapse. After the Mutiny of 1857, the area of the North-West Provinces was considerably curtailed. Delhi with the surrounding country was attached to the Punjab; and the Sagar and Narbada Territories were united with Nagpur to form a new administration called the Central Provinces. At the same time the seat of Government of the North-West Provinces was transferred from Agra to Allahabad.

The North-West Provinces.

The existing Province of Oudh represents the remains of a kingdom which Snadat Ali Khan, Wazir at the court of Delhi, carved for himself out of the decaying Mughal empire about 1732. His descendants continued to bear the title of Nawab Wazir until it was merged in that of King in 1820. The last King of Oudh, Wajid Ali Shah, was deposed in 1856, on the ground of continued mis-government, and the country was annexed. Wajid Ali Shah still survives as a State prisoner at Calcutta, with an allowance of 120,000 l. a year. The administrative head-quarters of Oudh are at Lucknow.

Oudh.

The Punjab, if the etymology of the word is followed, should be confined to the central region watered by the "Five Rivers"—the Sutlej, Beas, Ravi, Chenab, and Jhelum, all directly or indirectly tributaries of the Indus. But, in popular language, the name has come to comprise the Sikh Kingdom founded by Ranjit

The Punjab.

Singh in the beginning of the present century, which was conquered and annexed by the British in 1849. The Punjab has an area of 106,632 square miles, and a population (1881) of 18,850,437 souls. In addition, there are no less than 34 native states in connexion with the Punjab, with a total area of 35,817 square miles, and a total population (1881) of 1,749,380 souls. Kashmir is not included in these figures. In addition to the central region, conquered in 1849, the existing Province of the Punjab comprises a tract of country east of the Sutlej which had come under British authority as early as 1808, and also Delhi and the surrounding territory, which were transferred from the North-West Provinces in 1859, after the Mutiny. The form of administration has undergone the following changes. On annexation, in 1849, a Board of Administration was appointed, consisting of three members. In 1853, one of the three members, Sir John Lawrence, was made supreme, with the title of Chief Commissioner. In 1859, after the Mutiny, Sir John Lawrence was raised to the rank of Lieutenant Governor. The administrative head-quarters are at Lahore.

The Central Provinces.

The Central Provinces is a convenient geographical expression for an extensive tract of hills, valleys, and plateaux in the middle of the peninsula. It contains an area of 84,445 square miles, and a population (1881) of 9,838,791 souls. In addition, there are 15 Native States in connexion with the Central Provinces, with a total area of 28,834 square miles and a total population (1881) of 1,709,720 souls. The nucleus of the existing Province consists of what were known as "the Sagar and Nerbada Territories." Both of these were acquired in 1818, as a result of the Pindari War—the Sagar territories from Sindhia, the Nerbada territories from the Raja of Nagpur. In 1853, the last Raja of Nagpur died without heirs, and his remaining dominions were annexed. After being placed at one time under the Governor General, at another time under the Lieutenant Governor of the North-West Provinces, the Central Provinces were finally constituted in their present form as a Chief Commissionership in 1861. The administrative head-quarters are at Nagpur.

British Burma.

British Burma lies outside the geographical limits of India, being situated on the further side of the Bay of Bengal. It consists of a long, narrow strip of sea-coast, together with the lower valley of the Irrawadi. It has an area of 87,220 square miles, and a population (1881) of 3,736,771 souls. The Province was conquered from the King of Burma in two wars. Arakan, Tavoy, and Tenasserim were ceded by the treaty of Yandabu in 1826; Pegu was occupied in 1852 and proclaimed British territory without the form of a treaty. In 1862, the whole was constituted a Chief Commissionership, with the administrative head-quarters at Rangoon.

Madras.

The Presidency of Madras occupies the entire South of the Peninsula, together with a long strip running northwards along the eastern or Coromandel coast. It has an area of 139,900 square miles, and a population (1881) of 30,688,504 souls. In addition, there are five Native States in connexion with Madras, which have a total area of 9,538 square miles, and a total population (1881) of 3,341,014 souls. Mysore and Coorg, which both lie within the geographical limits of Madras, are not included in these figures. The former is a Native State in direct relations with the Supreme Government; the latter has already been described as a "Province" administered by a Commissioner in subordination to the Governor General. The area of Madras has remained almost unaltered since the beginning of the present century. The site of Fort St. George, or Madras city, was the first territorial possession of the East India Company, having been acquired from a petty Hindu Raja in 1639. Masulipatam was captured from the French in 1757; and the surrounding region, known as "the Northern Circars," was granted to Clive by the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam in 1765, at the same time as the *diwani* of Bengal. The results of the second Mysore war gave to Madras in 1792 the Districts of Malabar, Salem, and part of Madura. On the final overthrow of Tippu in 1799, Canara and Coimbatore fell to the Company; and the Nizam of Hyderabad ceded to the Company his share of the spoil on the same occasion, namely, "the Ceded Provinces" of Bellary and Cuddapah. In the same year (1799) the Raja of Tanjore resigned his dominions to the Company. Finally, in 1801, the Nawab of the Carnatic, the great Muhammadan potentate in the South, consented to renounce all his sovereign rights over the country that remained to him. The Nawab of Kurnool alone remained, and his territory was not annexed till 1838. In 1862 the District of North Kanara was transferred from Madras to Bombay. The Presidency of Madras is administered by a Governor in Council, as regulated by

by Act of Parliament (24 & 25 Vict. c. 67). There is also a legislative council, constituted by the same statute. The administrative head-quarters are at Madras city.

The Presidency of Bombay comprises the greater part of the western side of Bombay. the Peninsula, from Sind to Kanara, together with the settlement of Aden at the entrance of the Red Sea. It has an area of 124,134 square miles, and a population (1881) of 16,489,274 souls. In addition, there are a large number of Native States in connexion with Bombay, which have a total area of 73,753 square miles and a total population (1881) of 6,941,249 souls. Baroda, or the territory of the Gaekwar, is not included, as having been placed in direct relations with the Government of India in 1874. The first English factory in India was founded at Surat in 1613. Bombay Island came to the British Crown in 1661 as part of the dowry of the Infanta Catharine of Portugal, and was sold by Charles II. to the East India Company in 1668. In 1686, the head-quarters of the Company were transferred from Surat to Bombay, which was erected into a Presidency in 1708. For nearly a century the territorial possessions of the Company on the west coast were confined to the island of Bombay, where the English stood face to face with the powerful Mahratta Confederacy. The first Mahratta war began in 1774 and was ended in 1782 by the treaty of Salbai, which gave to the Company a few more islands, but restored to the Mahrattas all conquests made on the mainland. The treaty of Bassein in 1802, and the second Mahratta war that immediately followed it, brought the acquisition of the Districts of Surat, Broach, and Kaira, and permanently established British influence throughout Gujarat. The third Mahratta war (1817-18) resulted in the downfall of the Peshwa, or head of the Mahratta Confederacy, and the transfer to the Company of the Deccan and the Konkan, the Presidency thus receiving at one time the greater part of its present area. The outlying Province of Sind was conquered by Sir Charles Napier in 1843. The transmarine Settlement of Aden, which was captured by two British men-of-war and a landing force in 1839, is administered by a Resident, subordinate to the Governor of Bombay. The constitution of the Bombay government is substantially identical with that of Madras. The administrative head-quarters are at Bombay city.

The following table shows the area and population of each of the British Provinces, according to the Census of 1881. Area and Population of British India

AREA AND POPULATION OF BRITISH INDIA, 1881.

Presidencies and Provinces under the Administration of	Number of Divisions.	Number of Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Number of Occupied Houses.	Population.			Density of Population per Square Mile.
						Males.	Females.	Total.	
The Governor General of India:									
Ajmere and Merwara	1	2	2,711	739	64,116	248,844	211,878	460,722	169.9
Berar	1	6	17,711	5,585	468,027	1,880,492	1,292,181	2,672,673	150.9
Coorg	1	1	1,583	503	22,357	100,489	77,863	178,352	112.6
Andaman Islands (Port Blair)	1	1	880	51	2,938	12,040	1,988	14,028*	16.0
Governors:									
Madras		21	189,900	52,051	5,053,082	15,278,233	13,590,271	30,868,504	220.6
Bombay (including Sind and Aden).	6	25	124,134	24,599	2,827,995	8,520,453	7,968,821	16,489,274	132.8
Lieutenant Governors:									
Bengal	9	47	150,588	248,706	10,548,947	38,174,651	35,510,805	66,691,456	442.8
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	11	49	106,111	105,423	6,866,503	22,912,556	21,195,313	44,107,869	415.6
Punjab	10	32	106,632	34,924	2,700,014	10,210,053	8,640,384	18,850,437	176.7
Chief Commissioners:									
Assam	3	13	46,341	22,408	859,388	2,503,703	2,377,723	4,881,426	105.3
British Burma	4	19	87,220	15,857	677,362	1,991,005	1,745,766	3,736,771	42.8
Central Provinces	4	18	84,445	34,612	2,336,976	4,959,495	4,879,556	9,838,791	116.5
TOTAL	51	294	868,256	644,856	33,032,607	101,292,504	97,408,349	198,790,853	228.9

* Excluding aborigines, estimated at 6,000.

III.

THE NATIVE STATES.

In order to complete our survey of the administration of India, it is necessary to include the Native States, though it is impossible to attempt to describe them with the same precision as the British Provinces.

Nothing need be said here about the chain of kingdoms along the northern frontier, from Beluchistan to Siam, which lie outside the geographical limits of the peninsula. In so far as treaties have been made with most of them, establishing exclusive relations of amity, they form part of the Indian State-system. But from the administrative point of view they must be regarded as practically independent. So, again, with regard to certain Indian nobles, such as the Rajas of Benares and Vizianagaram, holding a high place in official precedence, but possessing no territorial jurisdiction, who must be ranked for the present purpose as private persons. Lastly, the tracts known as the "Scheduled Districts" must also be left out of the account. They are substantially portions of British Provinces, where authority is exercised with discrimination rather than according to strict rules of law.

There remain the Native States proper, which may be defined as those portions of Indian territory, be they large or small, over which any rights of sovereignty are habitually exercised by hereditary chiefs, to the exclusion of ordinary British administration. The maximum of sovereignty is represented by a powerful prince like the Nizam of Hyderabad, with the style of "His Highness," who coins money, taxes his subjects, and inflicts capital punishment without appeal. The minimum of sovereignty is represented by the owner of a few acres in Kathiawar, who enjoys traditional immunity from taxation, together with some shadow of judicial authority. The explanation of these differences is to be found in the history of India. A few of the States that now exist date from a period before either Muhammadans or English had set foot in the country. Most of the great States owe their origin to the disturbed condition of society in the eighteenth century, when the Mughal Empire was falling to pieces, and Musalman governors and Mahratta soldiers alike set to work to carve out independent kingdoms for themselves. Some are deliberate creations of the British Government; others are the result of subinfeudation, occasionally carried to excess; others, again, consist of thinly inhabited tracts of hill country, where Hindu strangers have from time to time established their supremacy over the aboriginal population. With most of the great States treaties exist; others have entered into written engagements of fealty; to many of the smaller States *sanads* or patents have been given, expressly defining their subordination. These various documents are given at length in the nine volumes entitled "A Collection of Treaties, Engagements, and Sunnuds relating to India and Neighbouring Countries," compiled by Sir C. Aitchison (Second Edition, Calcutta, 1876). While the measure of independence enjoyed by the Native States varies exceedingly, the supremacy of the British Crown is recognised by all alike. In general terms, it may be said that the paramount Power reserves to itself the control of all external relations between the several States, together with the right to suppress any outbreak that threatens to disturb their internal tranquillity, thus guaranteeing peace throughout the peninsula. For each State, or group of States, a British official is appointed, with the special duty of watching the administration and tendering advice. In cases of gross mismanagement the advice becomes a command, enforceable in the last resort by the penalty of deposition. But recent events have shown that the independence of a State will be respected even when its ruler has been dethroned. It remains to add that the Crown is, in India as in England, the fountain of honour. The Native chiefs take rank among themselves according to the number of guns allowed them in the salutes they receive when visiting the Viceroy. They are proud to be enrolled in the Order of the Star of India, and

and as Counsellors of the Empress. Two of their number have been gazetted generals in the British Army; one of these two is also a K.C.B.

From the point of view of British administration, the entire body of Native States may be divided into two classes: (1) Those which are in direct relations with the Government of India; (2) Those which are in connection with the Provincial Governments. Following the same principle, each class contains certain groups formed for convenience of management.

The Government of India retains in direct relations with itself four great States—Hyderabad, Mysore, Baroda, and Kashmir; and also two groups of States known as the Central India Agency and the Rajputana Agency, each of which includes States not inferior in dignity to the former. The Government of India.

Hyderabad, or the Nizam's Dominions, occupies an upland tract somewhat south of the centre of the peninsula, being the heart of the old Deccan. Excluding Berar, it has an area of 81,807 square miles, a population (1881) of 9,845,594 souls, and a gross-revenue of more than 3,000,000*l.* By reason of its size and its history, Hyderabad ranks as the premier Muhammadan State in India. It was founded in the beginning of the eighteenth century by Chin Kilich Khan, a Turkoman by race, who was appointed Governor of the Deccan by the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb, with the title of Nizam-ul-Mulk (regulator of the State), which has become hereditary in the family. The relations of the State with the British Government are regulated by a series of treaties, of which the first was made in 1759 and the last in 1860. An auxiliary force, known as the Hyderabad Contingent, is maintained by the British Government for the service of the Nizam. As security for the payment of this force Berar was assigned to the British Government in 1853; no accounts are rendered of revenue and expenditure, but the surplus is paid over to the Nizam. The capital of the State is Hyderabad city. Hyderabad.

Mysore lies south of Hyderabad, almost entirely surrounded by the Madras Presidency. It occupies a plateau extending from the Western Ghats to the lowland of the Carnatic. It has an area of 24,723 square miles, a population (1881) of 4,186,188 souls, and a revenue exceeding 1,000,000*l.*; tribute to the British Government, 245,000*l.* The present dynasty trace their descent from a petty Hindu chieftain, the Wodeyar of Mysore, who rose to power early in the seventeenth century, Hyder Ali, a Muhammadan adventurer, who had set aside his Hindu master about 1760, fought for many years on equal terms with the British. His son, Tippu Sultan, fell at the storm of Seringapatam in 1799, and the Hindu dynasty was restored. In 1831, owing to the misgovernment of the Raja, it was determined to take the State under British administration; but in 1880 it was handed back to his adopted son, on his attaining his majority, subject to certain stipulations: The capital is Bangalore, the civil and military station of which is still reserved under British administration. Mysore.

The territories of the Gaikwar of Baroda occupy part of the fertile plain of Gujarat, in the north of Bombay. They are much interlaced with the surrounding British Districts; and, in addition, the Gaikwar draws tribute from many of the minor States throughout Gujarat. The total area under his direct authority is 8,570 square miles, with a population (1881) of 2,185,005 souls; the total revenue slightly exceeds 1,000,000*l.* Gaikwar, which means "Cowherd," was the family name of a Mahratta soldier of fortune who rose to prominence early in the eighteenth century. As the Mughal Empire fell to pieces, his descendants gradually extended their authority over all Gujarat. The first British treaty with Baroda dates from 1780. By subsequent treaties the Gaikwar was bound to maintain a subsidiary force, which now consists of 3,000 horsemen employed on police duty in the tributary States. In 1875 it was found necessary to depose the ruling Gaikwar on account of misgovernment; but an heir was provided by adoption, and the State continued under Native administration. The capital is Baroda city. Baroda.

Kashmir has given its name to a large State of modern origin, of which the Valley of Kashmir is but a small portion. The State includes also Jammu, Ladakh, Baltistan, and Gilgit, extending from the plain of the Punjab right across the central range of the Himalaya, towards Chinese Tartary and Tibet. The total area is estimated at 80,000 square miles; the population in 1873 (the census of 1881 was not extended to Kashmir) at 1,500,000 souls; and the revenue at 800,000*l.* Kashmir proper was conquered from the Afghans by Kashmir.

Ranjit Singh, the Sikh Raja of the Punjab, in 1819. The Government was entrusted to Gholab Singh, a Dogra Rajput by caste, who brought under his sway the Tibetan province of Ladakh. In 1846, on the conclusion of the first Sikh War, Gholab Singh was confirmed in his possessions by the British Government, in consideration of the payment of 750,000 L. On his part, he recognised British supremacy, and agreed to present annually one horse, 12 goats, and three pair of shawls. The capital is Jamu, but Srinagar in the Kashmir Valley is the most important town.

The CENTRAL
INDIA AGENCY.

The Central India Agency is an official designation, rather than a geographical or historical unit. It can only be defined as a numerous group of States placed under the charge of the Agent to the Governor General for Central India. It stretches in a very irregular and broken shape from Rajputana on the west almost as far as Benares on the east, and from the Satpura Mountains on the south to the river Jumna on the north. Much of it is hilly, but it includes some very fertile tracts. The total area is 75,059 square miles, and the total population (1881) is 9,261,907 souls. The Agent to the Governor-General resides at Indore, but Gwalior is the most important State.

For administrative purposes the Central India Agency is divided into eight subordinate Agencies, named as follows: Gwalior, Indore, Bhopal, Western Malwa, Bhil, Deputy Bhil, Bundelkhand, and Bhaghelkhand. Each of these subordinate Agencies usually consists of one or two large States, together with several minor chiefships. In some cases these minor chiefships are feudatory to the large States; and sometimes the large States have other feudatories not included within their own Agency. In short, the Central India Agency presents a vast network of geographical and political complications, which can only be disentangled by an appeal to history. At the beginning of the present century this tract of country was in a state of anarchy. On the retirement of the Marquess of Wellesley in 1804, a policy of non-intervention on the part of the British allowed the three great Mahratta powers, the Peshwa, Sindia, and Holkar, to extend their encroachments, which partook of the nature of rapine rather than conquest. They exacted tribute by means of repeated raids, but they organised no government. Their example was followed by every guerilla leader who was able to get together a troop of horse, known as Pindaris. At last, in 1817, the British Government was constrained to interfere by force of arms. What is known as the Pindari, or third Mahratta War, was short and decisive. The Peshwa was dethroned; his territories were thrown into the Bombay Presidency, whilst his claims of suzerainty passed to the British Government. Sindia and Holkar, and one of the most formidable of the Pindari leaders, were confined within territorial limits, and the general pacification of Central India was entrusted to Sir John Malcolm. His policy was to recognise all rights that he found in existence, whether to territory or to tribute, and to place them under the guarantee of the British Government. Hence has arisen the geographical confusion by which some of the States consist of widely scattered portions. Hence also the intricate system of infeudation according to which a great State not only receives tribute from lesser ones, but also sometimes pays *tankha* or blackmail to them. Hence it is that Central India proper (which excludes Bundelkhand and Bhaghelkhand) is divided into some six large, and about 80 small, or "mediatised" States.

Gwalior.

The Gwalior Agency consists of the territories of Sindia, together with seven "mediatised" chiefships which are feudatory to him. Together with certain chiefships feudatory to Sindia that are included in other Agencies, the total area of Gwalior is 29,067 square miles, and the total population (1881) 3,115,657 souls; revenue, about 1,200,000 L.; 2,000 L. is payable to the British Government for the support of the Malwa Bhil Corps. The greater portion of the State of Gwalior (including the British cantonment of Morar) stretches between the rivers Betwa and Chambal down to the Jumna; a detached part to the south-east contains the historical city of Ujain, and another detached part the British cantonment of Nimach. The founder of the dynasty is first heard of as slipper-bearer to the Peshwa, or Mahratta over-lord. Throughout the latter half of the eighteenth century, a Sindia was always the first native military power in India. In 1803 his French-drilled troops were defeated by Sir A. Wellesley in the south, and by General Lake in the north, and he was deprived of his possessions beyond the Narbada and in the Ganges valley. In 1843, during

during the minority of the present Raja, internal disturbances required to be suppressed by a British force. On that occasion the army was reduced to 6,000 horse, 3,000 foot, and 32 guns. But after the Mutiny, in recognition of the personal loyalty of the Raja, permission was given to augment the infantry to 5,000 men, and the number of guns to 36. At the same time additional territory was granted to him, yielding 30,000 *l.* a-year.

The Indore Agency comprises the States of Indore and Dewas, together with 16 "mediatised" chiefships, most of which are either feudatory to, or receive *tankha* allowances from, Indore, Dewas, or Gwalior. Indore proper, or the territories of Holkar, consists of four principal detached tracts, of which the largest (containing the British station of Mhow) lies on both banks of the Narbada. The total area is 8,402 square miles; the population (1881) 1,055,217 souls; the revenue about 500,000 *l.*; the contributions due for military contingents have been paid in a capitalised sum of 238,000 *l.* The founder of the dynasty was a Mahratta shepherd, from a village called Hol, who rose to become the general in chief of the Peshwa from 1732 to 1765. The existing relations with the British Government are regulated by the treaty of 1818, which followed upon the battle of Mehidpur. Dewas is a small State adjoining Indore, which is ruled in common by two chiefs of Rajput stock, the descendants of two brothers who originally came here in the train of the Peshwa. The total area is 289 square miles; the population (1881), 142,162 souls; the revenue, about 42,500 *l.*

The Bhopal Agency comprises the Muhammadan State of Bhopal, two other petty States, and 23 "mediatised" chiefships. Bhopal proper lies on the right bank of the Narbada, above Indore. It has an area of 6,874 square miles, and a population (1881) of 954,901 souls; revenue, about 268,000 *l.*; payment for a military contingent, 20,000 *l.* The dynasty was founded by an Afghan adventurer in the beginning of the eighteenth century. For three generations Bhopal has been ably administered by female rulers, the Kudsia, Sikrandra, and Sultan Jahan Begams; the daughter of the last has been recognised as her successor.

The Western Malwa Agency comprises the States of Dhar and Jaora, with 22 "mediatised" chiefships. Dhar adjoins Indore on the west. Together with two feudatories, it has a total area of 1,740 square miles, and a population (1881) of 150,135 souls; revenue, about 43,000 *l.*; contribution to a military contingent, 1,965 *l.* The founder of the family was a Puar Rajput, who first came to Malwa in the train of the Peshwa. Jaora, which lies further north, contains the finest poppy land in Malwa. Together with two feudatories, it contains a total area of 581 square miles, and a population (1881) of 124,163 souls; revenue, about 65,000 *l.*; contribution to a military contingent, 16,181 *l.* The first Nawab of Jaora was a brother-in-law of the famous Pindari leader, Amir Khan. The principality was conferred on him by Holkar, to whom a *nazarana*, or relief of 20,000 *l.*, is payable on accession. Among the "mediatised" chiefships of the Western Malwa Agency, Ratlam deserves mention. It is a feudatory of Sindhia, though the tribute of 8,400 *l.* is now paid to the British Government. It has an area of 729 square miles, and a population (1881) of 87,314 souls; net revenue, about 65,000 *l.*

The Bhil Agency comprises the two States of Ali Rajpur and Jhabua, together with 12 "mediatised" chiefships, whose rulers are styled *bhumias*, or *thakurs*. The whole tract, which is mountainous and forest-clad, is chiefly inhabited by the aboriginal tribe of Bhils. On the west it is bounded by Rewa Kantha and the Panch Mahals of Bombay. The State of Ali Rajpur, which was originally tributary to Dhar, has an area of 837 square miles, and a population (1881) of 56,827 souls. Jhabua, which is itself a feudatory of Holkar, has with two petty dependences a total area of 1,219 square miles, and a population (1881) of 93,406 souls. The head-quarters of the Bhil Agent is at Bhopawar.

The Deputy Bhil Agency comprises the State of Barwani, five or six "mediatised" chiefships, and some small portions of British territory intermixed. It lies south of the Narbada, adjoining Nimar in the Central Provinces. Barwani has an area of 1,362 square miles and a population (1881) of 56,445 souls; revenue, 8,700 *l.* The chief is a Sesodia Rajput, of the Udaipur family, whose ancestor settled here in the fourteenth century. The head-quarters of the

teenth century. In 1734, Chattarsal, the head of the Bundelas, called in the Peshwa to protect him against the Muhammadans. From the Peshwa the British Government acquired its rights over Bundelkhand. A considerable portion is now British territory, under the Lieutenant Governor of the North West Provinces; the remainder forms the Bundelkhand Agency. Three States in Bundelkhand, Tehri, Datia, and Samthar, have entered into treaties with the British Governments; the others, some 28 in number, hold under *sanads* of fealty. Tehri, or Orchha (for it has two capitals), has an area of 2,015 square miles, and a population (1881) of 325,827; net revenue, about 45,000 *l.* Datia has an area of 837 square miles, and a population (1881) of 182,598 souls; revenue, about 100,000 *l.* Samthar, which is a recent offshoot of Datia, has an area of only 174 square miles, and a population (1881) of 38,633 souls; revenue, about 40,000 *l.* Of the States held by *sanad*, Panna is much the largest, and is also historically interesting by reason of its diamond mines. It has an area of 2,568 square miles, and a population (1881) of 227,306 souls; gross revenue, about 250,000 *l.*

Baghelkhand.

The Agency of Baghelkhand was separated from that of Bundelkhand in 1871. It takes its name from the Baghela tribe of Rajputs, to which the Raja of Rewah belongs. The founder of the dynasty is said to have come from Gujarat in the sixth century. Rewah is the only State in Baghelkhand which has a treaty with the British Government, dated 1812; three minor States are held under *sanads*. The total area of Baghelkhand is 11,324 square miles, and the total population (1881) 1,518,595 souls, of which Rewah alone has 1,305,124. The net revenue of Rewah was ascertained in 1875 to be 72,000 *l.* Much of the country is hilly, forming the upper basin of the River Son. Amarkantak, which was granted to the Raja of Rewah for his loyalty during the Mutiny, may be considered the central water parting of India, for here rise close to each other the Nerbada, the Mahanadi, and the Son.

RAJPUTANA.

The Rajputana Agency comprises an area not quite co-extensive with the country that formed the refuge of the Rajputs who were driven out of Hindustan proper by the Muhammadans 800 years ago. Out of 20 States, 17 are Rajput, two are Jat, and one is Musalman. There must also be included the Districts of Ajmere-Merwara, already described as under British administration. The region thus defined consists of a compact block stretching from Gujarat on the south to the Punjab on the north, and from Sindh on the east to the Central India Agency on the west. The Aravalli hills, running across from north-east to south-west, where they terminate in Mount Abu, divide Rajputana into two unequal portions. West from the Aravallis stretches the barren plain that extends as far as the Indus, merging in the Thar, or Great Indian Desert. Eastward of the Aravallis is the watershed of the Chambal and its tributary the Banas; the country is hilly, and less barren. Here is situated the great salt lake of Sambhar, on the borders of Jaipur and Jodhpur. The total area of the Rajputana Agency is 129,750 square miles, and the total population (1881) is 10,268,392 souls, the average density being only 97 persons per square mile. The headquarters of the Governor General's Agent is at the sanitarium of Mount Abu, in the little State of Sirohi.

The establishment of British supremacy in Rajputana was part of the general scheme of pacification carried out by Lord Hastings throughout Central India. The Rajput princes, ever greatly divided among themselves, had suffered as severely as the petty States of Malwa from Mahratta and Pindari incursions, though they had been able to maintain their territories substantially intact by the repeated payment of blackmail. Treaties made by the Marquess of Wellesley with two of their number in 1803 were not confirmed by his successor, and anarchy continued till 1818. In that year a series of treaties were negotiated by Lord Metcalfe, according to which most of the Rajput States agreed to accept British protection and to pay tribute. The first British Resident was Captain Tod, the historian of Rajasthan.

The Rajputana Agency is divided into eight subordinate Agencies, named as follows:—Meywar, Jaipur, Marwar, Haraoti, Eastern States, Alwar, Shujargarh, Sirohi; all but the last three include more than one State.

Meywar.

The Meywar Agency comprises the parent State of Meywar or Udaipur, together with three offshoots, Dungarpur, Banswarra, and Partalgarh. Meywar (Mewar) is the territorial name of the State commonly called Udaipur (Oodeypore)

(Oodeypore) after its capital, which was founded by Rana Udai Singh in the sixteenth century. It has an area of 12,670 square miles, and a population (1881) of 1,494,320 souls; net revenue, about 180,000 *l.*; tribute of 20,000 *l.* is payable to the British Government, besides 5,000 *l.* for a military contingent. The ruling family are admitted to rank first among all the Rajputs of India. They belong to the Sesodia branch of the Gehlot clan, which traces its descent from the mythical Rama. The present dynasty is said to have been founded in 728, with Chittor for its first capital. For many generations they carried on an unceasing warfare with the Muhammadans, and their proudest boast is never to have given a daughter in marriage to an emperor of Delhi. Dungarpur, Banswarra, and Partabgarh all lie to the south of Meywar, and are mainly inhabited by the aboriginal tribe of Bhils. The chief of the first claims to be descended from an elder branch of the Udaipur family who was driven from Chittor in 1193; the two latter were founded at a later date by younger sons of the Udaipur family. Dungarpur has an area of 1,000 square miles, and a population (1881) of 153,381; net revenue, about 8,000 *l.*; tribute, 2,738 *l.* Banswarra has an area of 1,500 square miles, and a population of 152,045; revenue, 19,000 *l.*; tribute, 2,738 *l.* Partabgarh, area, 1,460 square miles; population, 79,568; revenue, 26,000 *l.*; tribute 7,270 *l.*

The Jaipur Agency comprises Jaipur, Kot-Putli, Kishangarh, and Lawa. Jaipur. Jaipur takes its name from the present capital, which was founded by Raja Jai Singh, the famous Hindu astronomer, in 1728. Formerly the State had been called after the earlier capital, Ambar. It has an area of 14,465 square miles, and a population (1881) of 2,534,357 souls; net revenue, 475,000 *l.*; tribute, 40,000 *l.* The ruling family belong to the Kachhwaha clan of Rajputs, which also traces its descent from Rama. The present dynasty is said to have been founded in 967. From an early date they submitted to the Mughals at Delhi, supplying generals to their armies and wives to their emperors. At the present time Jaipur is the most prosperous State in Rajputana. Kot-Putli is a *pargana* or fiscal division of Shaikhawati, a dependency of Jaipur State, which is held by the Raja of Khetri as a fief of the British Government; revenue, 10,000 *l.* Kishangarh was founded by a younger son of the Raja of Jodhpur in 1594, with the sanction of the Emperor Akbar; area, 724 square miles; population, 112,633; revenue about 30,000 *l.*; no tribute. Lawa was formerly tributary to the Nawab of Tonk, but was declared a separate chiefship under British protection in 1867; area, 18 square miles; population, 2,682; revenue, 450 *l.*

The Marwar Agency comprises the two States of Jodhpur and Jaisalmir, Marwar. both of which lie in the barren tract west of the Aravallis. Marwar is the territorial title of the State commonly called Jodhpur, after the capital which was founded by Rao Jodha in 1549. Under the name of Marwaris, its traders of the Jain sect are known throughout India. Jodhpur is by far the largest State in Rajputana, with an area of 37,000 square miles, and a population (1881) of 1,750,403 souls, being an average of only 47 persons to the square mile; net revenue, about 250,000 *l.*; tribute, 9,800 *l.*; contribution to a military contingent, 11,500 *l.* The ruling family belong to the Rahtor clan of Rajputs, who reigned at Kanauj in Oudh before the Muhammadan invasion. The present dynasty is said to have been founded in 1194, but Mandor, the old capital of Marwar, was not acquired till two centuries later. The chiefs of Jodhpur, like those of Jaipur, gave generals and wives to the Mughal emperors. In 1843, on failure of direct heirs, the Raja of Ahmadnagar in Gujarat, a scion of the Rahtor clan, was selected to succeed. The desert tract of Mallani has been, since 1836, under the superintendence of the British Agent, through whose hands a tribute of 688 *l.* is paid to the Raja of Jodhpur. The State of Jaisalmir, which borders on Sindh, has suffered in modern times rather from Muhammadan than from Mahratta attacks. It is the least densely populated tract in all India. With an area of 16,447 square miles, it has (1881) only 108,413 inhabitants, or 6.5 to the square mile; net revenue, about 11,000 *l.* The ruling family belong to the Bhuti clan of Rajputs. They are said to have come hither from the Punjab in the ninth century; but the capital of Jaisalmir was not founded till 1156 by Rawal Jaisal.

The Haraoti Agency is so called from the tract of country to which the Hara Haraoti. Rajputs have given their name. It comprises the five States of Bundi, Kotah, Jhallawar,

Jhallawar, Tonk, and Shahpura, which are all situated between Ajmere and Gwalior. Kotah and Jhallawar are both offshoots of Bundi within modern times; Shahpura is an offshoot of Udaipur. Bundi has an area of 2,300 square miles, and a population (1881) of 254,701 souls; revenue, 80,000 *l.*; tribute, 12,000 *l.* The ruling family are Hara Rajputs of the Chauhan clan, who are said to have first established themselves here in the fourteenth century. For several generations the chiefs or Raos of Bundi held high office under the Delhi emperors. Kotah has an area of 3,797 square miles, and a population (1881) of 517,275 souls; net revenue, about 260,000 *l.*; tribute, 18,472 *l.*, to the British Government, and 1,436 *l.* to Jaipur; payment for a military contingent, 20,000 *l.* The Kotah Contingent, which mutinied in 1857, is now superseded by the Deoli Irregular Force. Kotah was formed out of the parent State of Bundi in the beginning of the seventeenth century. Jhallawar has an area of 2,694 square miles, and a population (1881) of 340,488 souls; revenue, about 160,000 *l.*; tribute, 8,000 *l.* It was constituted out of Kotah in 1838, as a provision for the descendants of the minister of Kotah, with whom, as the *de facto* ruler, a treaty had been made in 1817. Tonk, the one Muhammadan State in Rajputana, has an area of 2,509 square miles, and a population (1881) of 338,029 souls; revenue, 100,000 *l.* The present Nawab of Tonk is third in descent from Amir Khan, the famous Pindari leader, to whom the British Government guaranteed all the territory that he held as fiefs from Holkar, as one of the conditions of the pacification of Malwa in 1817. The State as thus created consists of six widely scattered portions. Shahpura is composed of two parts, one of which is a maintenance portion from Udaipur, the other was granted by Shah Jahan out of the imperial demesne of Ajmere, and is now held from the British Government. The latter part, which is known as Phulia *pargana*, has an area of 400 square miles, and a population (1881) of 51,750 souls; total revenue of the chief, about 23,000 *l.*

Bhartpur.

The Eastern States Agency comprises Bhartpur, Karauli, and Dholpur. The first and the third are the two Jat States of Rajputana. Bhartpur has an area of 1,974 square miles, and a population (1881) of 645,450 souls, being the most densely populated portion of Rajputana; revenue, 320,000 *l.* The State was founded by a Jat adventurer in the beginning of the eighteenth century. Its capital is famous in history for having repulsed General Lake's victorious army in 1803, but it was stormed by Lord Combermere 13 years later. Karauli has an area of 1,208 square miles, and a population (1881) of 148,670 souls; revenue, 50,000 *l.* The Raja of Karauli is head of the Jadu clan of Rajputs, who claim descent from the mythical Krishna, and have been settled in the neighbourhood of Mathura from time immemorial. Dholpur has an area of 1,200 square miles, and a population of 249,657 souls; revenue, 81,000 *l.* The chief is a Jat by race. His ancestors are first heard of in the middle of the eighteenth century as in possession of Gohad and Gwalior. In 1803 Gohad and Gwalior were finally confirmed by the British to Sindia, while the new State of Dholpur was constituted on the other bank of the Chambal.

Alwar.

The Alwar Agency comprises the State of Alwar, together with Nimrana, a petty feudatory, which pays to Alwar 300 *l.* Alwar has an area of 3,024 square miles, and a population (1881) of 682,926 souls; revenue, 230,000 *l.* The ruling family are Rajputs of the Naruka clan. The State is of quite modern origin, having been formed since 1780, by aggressions upon Jaipur and Bharatpur, and by grants from the British.

Shujangarh.

The Shujangarh Agency is co-extensive with the State of Bikanir, a desert tract closely resembling Jaisalmir. It has an area of 22,340 square miles, being the second in size of the Rajputana States, but a population (1881) of only 509,021 persons, or 22 to the square mile; revenue, 102,000 *l.* The dynasty was founded at the end of the fifteenth century by Bika Singh, a son of the founder of Jodhpur.

Sirohi.

The Sirohi Agency is co-extensive with the State of Sirohi, which is important only as containing the sanitarium of Mount Abu. It has an area of 3,020 square miles, and a population (1881) of 142,903 souls; revenue, 11,000 *l.*; tribute, 750 *l.* The ruling family are Deora Rajputs of the Chauhan clan, who are said to have driven out the rival clan of Pramaras in the twelfth century.

BENGAL.

The Native States in connection with the Government of Bengal are neither large

large nor important. They comprise Kuch Behar, Hill Tipperah, the Tributary Mahals of Orissa, and the Tributary Mahals of Chutia Nagpur. Their total area is 36,634 square miles, and their population (1881) is 2,845,405 souls. In addition, the Bengal Government conducts political relations with the independent State of Sikkim, through the agency of the Deputy Commissioner of Darjiling District, and with the independent State of Bhutan, through the Commissioner of the Kuch Behar Division. An allowance of 1,200 *l.* is payable to the Raja of Sikkim, and 5,000 *l.* to certain Bhutia officials.

The State of Kuch Behar consists of a fertile tract in North-eastern Bengal, at the foot of the Bhutan Hills, entirely surrounded by British territory. Area, 1,207 square miles; population, 602,624; revenue, about 130,000 *l.*; tribute, 6,770 *l.* In 1772, the Raja of Kuch Behar sought British aid against an invasion of Bhutias. He agreed to acknowledge subjection to the Company, and to pay as tribute one half of his revenues. From 1863 to 1883 the State was taken under British management owing to the minority of the Raja, and the system of administration has been assimilated to that prevailing in the adjoining British Districts. Kuch Behar.

Hill Tipperah is a frontier State lying among the hill ridges that separate Bengal and Independent Burma. On all sides but one it is surrounded by British territory; on the east it abuts upon the Lushai Hills. It has an area of 4,086 square miles, and a population of 95,637 souls; revenue, about 23,000 *l.* The Raja of Hill Tipperah, who claims a very illustrious lineage, is under no written engagements with the Government, except as *zamindar* of a considerable estate within the British District of Tipperah. Succession to this estate is recognised as deciding the succession to the throne. A Political Agent was first appointed to Hill Tipperah in 1871; but relations are now conducted through the Collector of Tipperah District, with an assistant, who resides at Agartala, the capital of the State. In 1882 the High Court at Calcutta decided that the Raja of Hill Tipperah is an independent prince or ruling chief, and, therefore, not liable to be sued in any court in British India without the consent of Government. Tipperah.

The Tributary Mahals of Orissa occupy the hill country lying inland, west of the British Province of Orissa. They came under British authority when Orissa proper was conquered from the Mahratta Raja of Nagpur in 1803. At that time they numbered 19; but two, Angul and Banki, have since been placed permanently under British administration owing to the misconduct of their chiefs. The remaining 17 States have a total area of 15,187 square miles; population, 1,469,142; revenue, about 60,000 *l.*; tribute, 3,346 *l.* The four largest States are Morbhanj, Keunjhar, Bod, and Dhenkanal. Political relations are conducted through the Commissioner of Cuttack, who is *ex officio* Superintendent of the Tributary Mahals, with a native assistant. In 1882 it was decided by the High Court at Calcutta that the Tributary Mahals do not form part of British India for ordinary purposes of legislation. The Tributary Mahals of Orissa.

The Tributary Mahals of Chutia Nagpur occupy the hill country between the British Districts of Chutia Nagpur and the Central Provinces. They first came under British authority in 1803, but were shortly afterwards restored to the Mahratta Raja of Nagpur, and finally annexed in 1818. At that time they numbered 15; but in 1862 eight of them were transferred to the newly-formed Central Provinces. The remaining seven have a total area of 16,054 square miles; population, 678,002; revenue, about 6,500 *l.*; tribute, 467 *l.*, which is liable to revision on the termination of the settlement made for 20 years in 1875. The three largest States are Sarguja, Gangpur, and Jashpur. Political relations are conducted through the Commissioner of the Chutia Nagpur Division. The Tributary Mahals of Chutia Nagpur.

The only Native States in connection with the Government of Assam are the semi-independent State of Manipur and the democratic communities in the Khasi Hills. Assam.

Manipur is a frontier State lying among the hill ridges that separate Assam from Independent Burma. It borders the British Districts of Cachar and the Naga Hills. Estimated area, between 7,000 and 8,000 square miles; population, 221,070; revenue, about 5,000 *l.* The Manipur dynasty can be traced back to a Naga Chief, who was converted to Hinduism, together with his people, in the beginning of the eighteenth century. The British first entered into relations with Manipur so far back as 1762; and in 1826 the independence of the State was guaranteed. Manipur.

ranted as an incident of the first Burmese war. In 1835 a Political Agent was appointed to reside at Manipur. Up to 1870 he corresponded directly with the Governor General, but in that year he was placed in subordination to the Chief Commissioner of Assam.

The Khasi States.

The Khasi States form part of the British District known as the Khasi and Jaintia Hills; but the people retain a large measure of political independence. They pay no revenue, and elect their own rulers or *saimis*, who exercise criminal and civil jurisdiction. The total number of these States is 25, with an aggregate revenue of about 5,000 *l*. The five largest are Cherra Puuji, Khyrim, Nongstain, Langrin, and Nongspung. These, with four more, have received *sanads* direct from the Governor General. The British first entered into relations with the Khasias on the conquest of Assam in 1826. Unfortunate misunderstandings led to a harassing war, which broke out in 1829, and was not terminated till 1833. The country has since been entirely peaceful, and has advanced much in prosperity.

The NORTH-WEST PROVINCES.

The Native States in connection with the Government of the North-West Provinces and Oudh number only two, Rampur and Garhwal, with a total area of 5,125 square miles, and a total population of 741,750 souls.

Rampur.

Rampur, which is entirely surrounded by British territory, represents all that remains of the Rohilla confederacy which established itself in Rohilkhand in the beginning of the eighteenth century; area, 945 square miles; population, 541,914; revenue, about 160,000 *l*. British protection was guaranteed to the State in 1774, after the termination of the campaign in which the Rohillas were defeated by the troops supplied by Warren Hastings to the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. The chief, being a Muhammadan, is styled Nawab.

Garhwal.

Garhwal, or Tehri, is a frontier State, lying high up in the Himalayas, where the Ganges takes its rise. Area, 4,180 square miles; population, 199,836; revenue, 11,000 *l*. The ruling family are Rajputs, who have been established here for many generations. In 1804 they were expelled by the Gurkhas; but in 1815, on the conclusion of the Gurkha War, all that portion of Garhwal to the west of the Alaknanda River was restored to the Raja; the rest became British territory.

THE PUNJAB.

The Native States in connection with the Government of the Punjab are both numerous and important; most of them are held under the express condition of giving military assistance to the British Government when required. Excluding Kashmir, they number 34 in all, with a total area of 10,749 square miles; population, 3,861,683 souls; revenue, about 1,050,000 *l*.; tribute, about 28,000 *l*. For purposes of administration they are thus classified: the four largest, Patiala, Bahawalpur, Jind, and Nabha are under the direct control of the Lieutenant Governor; the remainder are subordinate to the Commissioner of the Division with which they are geographically connected. Thus, Chamba is attached to Amritsar; Maler Kotla, Kalsia, and the 20 Simla Hill States, to Umballa; Kapurthala, Mandi, and Suket, to Jullundur—Faridkot to Lahore; Pataudi to Delhi; and Loharu and Dujana to Hissar. For the present purpose, however, it will be more convenient to adopt another classification—10 States in the Eastern Plains; Bahawalpur alone in the Western Plains; and 23 Hill States.

The Sikh States.

Of the 10 States in the Eastern Plains, six are ruled by Sikhs and four by Muhammadans. The largest Sikh State is Patiala; area, 5,887 square miles; population, 1,467,433; revenue, 470,000 *l*. With Patiala may be associated the two other Sikh States of Jind and Nabha. Jind has an area of 1,232 square miles; population, 249,862; revenue, 60,000 *l*. Nabha has an area of 938 square miles; population, 261,824; revenue, 65,000 *l*. These three States are all ruled by members of the Phulkian family, who trace their origin to one Chaudri Phul, a Jat by race and Sikh by religion, who died in 1652. His descendants carved out principalities for themselves during the break up of the Mughal Empire, and were finally taken under British protection, together with the other Cis-Sutlej States, in 1809. They have always shown themselves conspicuously loyal to the British power; and each of the three chiefs received large accessions of territory, and a special guarantee of sovereign rights, for their services during the Mutiny. The same may be said of the Sikh Raja of Kapurthala, whose ancestral domains lie beyond the Sutlej; area, 620 square miles; population,

252,017; revenue, 170,000 *l.* (including the rental of the estate of 850 square miles in Outhy, conferred upon him after the Mutiny); tribute, 13,100 *l.* The two remaining Sikh States are Faridkot and Kalsia, both within the Cis-Sutlej tract. Faridkot, together with the outlying *jagir* of Kot-Kapura, has an area of 612 square miles; population, 97,034 souls; revenue, 30,000 *l.* Kalsia; area, 178 square miles; population, 67,708; revenue, 15,000 *l.* The Muhammadan States in the Eastern Punjab consist of a group of three which owe their origin to grants from Lord Lake, after the capture of Delhi in 1803; and Maler Kotla, which came under British protection in 1809, together with the Sikh States in the Cis-Sutlej tract. Maler Kotla has an area of 164 square miles; population, 71,951; revenue, 28,000 *l.* The other three Muhammadan States are Loharu, Dujana, and Pataudi. Loharu has an area of 285 square miles; population, 13,754; revenue, 7,000 *l.* Dujana; area, 114 square miles; population, 28,416; revenue, 7,700 *l.* Pataudi; area, 48 square miles; population, 17,847; revenue, 8,000 *l.*

The Muhammadan State of Bahawalpur occupies the south-west corner of the Punjab, lying along the Sutlej and Indus Rivers, and stretching back into the desert of Rajputana. It has an area of 15,000 square miles, and a population (1881) of 573,494, or only 38 persons to the square mile; revenue, about 160,000 *l.* The ruling family belong to the Daudputra tribe, and originally came from Sind. They established their independence in the beginning of the present century, when the Durani Empire fell to pieces. The first treaty with the British, chiefly for the regulation of traffic, was in 1833. Political relations are governed by the treaty of 1838, in which the Nawab placed himself under the supremacy of the Company. From 1866 to 1879 the State was administered by a British officer, during the minority of the present Nawab; and much has been done to extend irrigation from the bordering rivers.

Bhawalpur.

The Hill States of the Punjab number 23 in all. They occupy for the most part the lower ranges and valleys of the Himalaya, the small ones clustering thickly round the British Station of Simla, while Mandi and Chamba stretch away to the north and Bashahr to the east. Their total area is 10,749 square miles, and their total population is 765,643 souls. Most of them pay tribute, which has its origin in the commutation of a right to *begars* or forced labourers. In all cases their chiefs claim to be Rajputs of ancient lineage. Historically they may be divided into two groups—to the east and to the west of the Sutlej. The former group consists of 20, specially known as the Simla Hill States. The chiefs of all of these had been driven out by a Gurkha invasion in the beginning of the present century, and were restored by the British Government in 1815 on the conclusion of the Gurkha war. The following are the largest: Bashahr; area, 3,320 square miles; population, 64,345, or only 19 to the square mile; revenue, 5,000 *l.*; tribute, 394 *l.* Sirmur or Nahau; area, 1,077 square miles; population, 112,371; revenue, 21,000 *l.* Kaslur or Bilaspur; area, 448 square miles; population, 86,546; revenue, 10,000 *l.*; tribute, 800 *l.* Hindur or Nalagarh; area, 252 square miles; population, 53,373; revenue, 9,000 *l.*; tribute, 500 *l.* Jabbat; area, 288 square miles; population, 19,196; revenue, 3,000 *l.*; tribute, 252 *l.* Keonthal; area, 116 square miles; population, 31,154; revenue, 6,000 *l.* The Hill States west of the Sutlej number three—Chamba, Mandi, and Suket, which came under British protection in 1846, on the conclusion of the first Sikh War. Chamba has an area of 3,180 square miles; population, 115,773; revenue, 23,000 *l.*; tribute, 500 *l.* Mandi has an area of 1,000 square miles; population, 147,017; revenue, 36,000 *l.*; tribute, 10,000 *l.* Suket has an area of 474 square miles; population, 52,484; revenue, 10,000 *l.*; tribute, 1,100 *l.*

The Simla Hill States.

The Native States in connexion with the Central Provinces number 15 in all, with a total area of 28,834 square miles, and a total population (1881) of 1,709,720 souls. When the Central Provinces were constituted in their present form in 1862, there were besides about 115 minor chiefships or *zamiindaris*. In 1867 an elaborate inquiry was made into the status of all, and it was decided that the rulers of these latter were British subjects, though with certain privileges of tenure. The 15 States, on the other hand, were recognised to occupy the position of feudatories. Their chiefs exercise civil and criminal jurisdiction, and are not amenable to the ordinary British Courts of Law. All of them, too, pay tribute; but in every

The CENTRAL PROVINCES.

case but that of Raigarh the amount of tribute is liable to revision. For administrative purposes, the State of Mokrai is attached to Hoshangabad Division; the other 14 States are all under the political superintendence of the Commissioner of Chhattisgarh. The largest is Bastar, a mountainous region in the extreme south-east, with an area of 13,062 square miles, and a population of 196,248, or only 15 to the square mile; revenue, 9,000 *l.*; tribute, 305 *l.* Then comes Karond, or Kalahandi; area, 3,745 square miles; population, 224,548; revenue, 8,000 *l.*; tribute, 397 *l.* Patna; area, 2,399 square miles; population, 126,389; revenue, 6,400 *l.*; tribute, 400 *l.* Bamra; area, 1,988 square miles; population, 81,286; revenue, 1,600 *l.*; tribute, 35 *l.* Raigarh *cum* Baragarh; area, 1,486 square miles; population, 128,943; revenue, 750 *l.*; tribute, 40 *l.* Sonpur; area, 906 square miles; population, 178,701; revenue, 2,800 *l.*; tribute, 500 *l.*

There are no Native States in connexion with the Province of British Burma.

MADRAS.

The Native States in connexion with the Madras Presidency comprise two important principalities on the south-west coast, Travancore and Cochin; and three small chiefships, isolated amid British territory, Pudukota, Banganapalle, and Sandur. The total area is 9,538 square miles; and the total population (1881) is 3,341,014 souls.

Travancore and Cochin.

Travancore and Cochin are similar in their physical aspects, and in their history. They each consist of a low-lying strip of land along the coast, much intersected with backwaters, where rice and cocoa-nut palms yield abundantly; and of a mountainous region in the interior, which used to produce nothing but timber, cardamoms, and pepper, but which has lately been opened up by coffee planters. Both States had entered into commercial relations with the British at a very early date; both were rescued by the British from the invading arms of Tippu Sultan; both took part in an insurrection in 1809. They are now most prosperously governed; and the population contains a larger proportion of native Christians (mostly of the Syrian rite) than any other part of India. Travancore has an area of 6,730 square miles; population, 2,401,158; revenue, 590,000 *l.*; tribute, 81,000 *l.* The ruling family belongs to the Nair caste, who trace descent in the female line. The capital is Trevandram. Cochin has an area of 1,361 square miles; population, 600,278; revenue, 147,000 *l.*; tribute, 20,000 *l.* The ruling family claims to be of the Kshatriya caste, and to be descended from the last of the kings who ruled the entire coast of Malabar. The capital is Ernakollam, the port of Cochin having been at an early date occupied by the Portuguese, who gave place to the Dutch in 1663, and they in their turn to the English in 1795.

Pudukota.

Pudukota, which lies between Trichinopoly, Tanjore, and Madura, is the only one of the many *palaiyems* of the South that has maintained its independence. Its chief, who bears the title of Tondiman, is the head of the Kallai, or robber caste. His ancestor first assisted the British at the siege of Trichinopoly in 1753, and also did valuable service during all the wars in the Carnatic during the latter half of the eighteenth century. In 1803 he received the fort of Kilaneli from the British Government, in addition to the territory of which he was already in possession. There is no treaty or written engagement, nor any tribute payable. Pudukota has an area of 1,101 square miles; population, 302,127; revenue, 64,000 *l.* Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Trichinopoly. Banganapalle, which lies almost entirely within the British District of Karnul, is a *jagir* originally granted to a son of the Wazir of the Emperor Aurazeb. Having been confirmed by successive grants from Mysore and Hyderabad, it formed part of the territory ceded to the British by the Nizam in 1799. Its present status is determined by a *sanad* issued by the Madras Government in 1848. The chief is a Muhammadan, with the title of Nawab. Banganapalle has an area of 206 square miles; population, 27,921, having been reduced one-half by the recent famine; revenue, 19,000 *l.* Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Karnul. Sandur, which includes the sanitarium of Ramandrug, lies entirely within the District of Bellary. The ruling family are Mahrattas, who established themselves here in the beginning of the eighteenth century. After many vicissitudes, the State was confirmed to them by the British Government in 1817. The *sanad* defining the status of the chief, bears date 1825. Sandur has an area of 140 square miles; population, 10,530; revenue, 3,800 *l.*

Sandur.

The

The States in connexion with Bombay cover about one-third of the entire BOMBAY. Presidency, excluding Baroda, which is now in direct relations with the Supreme Government. Their total area is 73,753 square miles; their total population (1881), 6,941,249 souls. For administrative purposes they may be divided into (1) the States in connexion with the Northern Commissionership or Division—Cutch, Palanpur, Mahi, Kantha, Kathiawar, Rewa Kantha, Cambay, the Surat Agency, Jawhar, and Janjira; (2) those in connexion with the Central Commissionership—the Dang States, the Satara *jagirs*, and Akalkot; (3) those in connexion with the Southern Commissionership—the Mahratta States in the South, comprising Kolhapur, Savantwari, the Southern Mahratta *jagirs*, and Savanur; (4) the Sind principality of Khairpur.

Cutch (or Kachch) occupies the isolated tract cut off between the sea and the Cutch. Runn of Cutch—a saline tract, half marsh, half lake, which separates it from Sind. and from the rest of Gujarat. Excluding the Runn, the area of Cutch is 6,500 square miles; population, 512,084, being only 78 to the square mile; revenue, 180,000 *l.*; contribution to a military contingent, 20,000 *l.* The ruler, who bears the title of Rao, is the head of the Jareja clan of Rajputs; but his authority is largely shared by his *bhayad*, or fellow clansmen. The Jarejas are an offshoot of the Sama tribe, and are said to have first entered Cutch from Sind in the fifteenth century. They have been in past time much addicted to female infanticide. The first British treaty with Cutch, which was made in 1809, had for its special object the suppression of piracy. In 1819 another treaty was made which regulates the existing relations between the Rao and the British Government. The relations between the Rao and his *bhayad*, or fellow clansmen, are governed by an agreement executed by the Rao in 1872, and approved by the Government. The capital is Bluj, which is also the residence of the Political Agent.

The Palanpur Agency comprises the two States of Palanpur and Radhanpur, Palanpur. together with 11 minor chiefships. Most of these minor chiefships are subdivided among several shareholders, through not following the rule of primogeniture. Palanpur and Radhanpur and two of the chiefships are Muhammadan; the rest are Hindu. The entire tract is a sandy plain, bordered on the west by the Runn of Cutch, and rising into forest clad hills towards the north and east. The total area is 8,000 square miles; the total population (1881), 576,478, or only 72 to the square mile; the total revenue, about 127,000 *l.* The ruling family of Palanpur are Afghans, of the Lhaoni tribe, who obtained large grants in Gujarat from the Mughal Emperors with the title of Diwan. The State was reduced to its present area in 1698 by the Raja of Jodhpur. It includes the British cantonment of Deesa. At the settlement of the claims of the Gaikwar of Baroda against the States of Gujarat, which was effected by British mediation in 1819, the Diwan of Palanpur agreed to pay a tribute of 5,000 *l.* to the Gaikwar. A British force was called in to maintain the authority of the Diwan in 1812, and again in 1817. The present relations with the Government are regulated by a treaty made in the latter year. The ruling family of Radhanpur come originally from Ispahan in the train of the Emperor Humayun, and have been prominent in the annals of Gujarat for two centuries. Their hereditary title was Babi, which is still preserved by the chief of Balasinor. The Nawab of Junagarh is also of the same family. The first treaty between the British Government and Radhanpur was made in 1813, recognising the suzerainty of the Gaikwar, though no tribute is payable to him. It was modified in 1820. Of the minor chiefships of Palanpur the two most important are Tharad Wao, and Kankrej. For administrative purposes, the whole are placed under the jurisdiction of six *thamadars*, appointed by the British Government, who are themselves subordinate to two Political Assistants. The chiefship of Kankrej, which originally formed part of the Mahi Kantha Agency, pays a tribute of 559 *l.* to the Gaikwar.

The Mahi Kantha Agency (which takes its name from the Mahi river), Mahi Kantha. comprises the State of Edar, together with 58 minor chiefships. It occupies the hilly tract of country that divides the plains of Gujarat from the uplands of Rajputana. The majority of the inhabitants belong to the aboriginal tribes of Bhils and Kolis. Total area, 11,049 square miles; total population (1881), 517,485, or only 47 to the square mile; total revenue, about

about 75,000 *l.* The State of Edar was founded in the beginning of the eighteenth century by two brothers of the Raja of Jodhpur in Rajputana. Part of their domains were conquered by the Peishwa, and have now passed to the British. The other part fell under the suzerainty of the Gaikwar, and was subdivided into four portions, finally reunited in 1848. The settlement of the claims of the Gaikwar over Mahi Kantha; and also of the several chiefs against each other, was effected by the mediation of the British Government in 1813, and confirmed in 1820. The Gaikwar receives altogether in the name of *ghas dana*, or "forage for cattle," 12,948 *l.*, of which Edar alone pays 3,034 *l.* On the other hand, Edar receives from the other chiefships 1,914 *l.*; a total tribute of 288 *l.* is paid to other States, and 92 *l.* to the British Government. The Raja of Edar exercises judicial authority without appeal. The minor chiefships have been graduated in six classes, according to the measure of jurisdiction enjoyed by their rulers. Some have no judicial powers at all; and all residuary jurisdiction is vested in the Political Agent. The minor chiefs are mostly Rajputs, though probably of mixed descent; some are Kolis, and of these a few are Muhammadaus.

Kathiawar.

The Peninsula of Kathiawar, the ancient Surasthra, lies between the Runn of Cutch and the Gulf of Cambay. It has been truly said that it "teems with native chiefs." In 1803, when the British first undertook the settlement of the country, the number of separate jurisdictions was returned as 192, though engagements were made with only 153. Sixty years later, though about 80 had been absorbed, the total had increased by means of partition to 418. At the present time 187 territorial jurisdictions are recognised. These are arranged in seven classes, according to the measure of judicial authority exercised. There are 4 chiefs of the first class—Junagar, Nauanagar, Bhaunagar, and Dhrangadra, who may try for capital offences any persons but British subjects; 8 of the second class—Wankaner, Morvi, Rajkot, Gondal, Dhrol, Limri, Wadhwan, and Palitana, who have power to try their own subjects only; 6 of the third class, 4 of the fourth, 18 of the fifth, 43 of the sixth, and 17 of the seventh class. For administrative purposes the whole of Kathiawar is divided into four *prants*, corresponding to the historical divisions of Jhalawar, Gohelwar, Sorath, and Halar, each under the charge of a Political Assistant. The residuary jurisdiction not exercised by the petty rulers is vested in *thanadars* appointed by the British Government, who are now the chief authority in 134 territorial divisions out of the total of 187. The police is entirely in the hands of the several chiefs. The total area of Kathiawar is 22,559 square miles; total population (1881), 2,343,899 souls; total revenue about 1,230,000 *l.*; total tribute about 118,000 *l.*, of which 72,000 *l.* is payable to the British Government, 31,000 *l.* to the Gaikwar, and 6,450 *l.* to the Nawab of Junagarh. Junagarh is a Muhammadan State, founded in 1735 by a member of the Babi family of Radhanpur. Three or four of the minor chiefships are also Muhammadan. The remainder of the States of Kathiawar are Hindu, the ruling families belonging to one or other of the Rajputs tribes who have been dominant from time to time. The most powerful are the Jarejas, the Gohels, the Jhalas, and the Jaitwas. During the eighteenth century the Mahrattas established their authority over Kathiawar. In 1803, a British force, acting in conjunction with the Gaikwar, marched into the Peninsula in order to settle the claims of the Gaikwar to tribute. All rights that the Peshwa enjoyed over Kathiawar passed to the British Government in 1817; and the Gaikwar agreed to cede his suzerainty to the British in 1820. The existing condition of the several chiefships dates from 1863. Since that date the larger States have advanced greatly in prosperity. The young chiefs have been educated at a special college founded for the purpose, and several of them have paid visits to England.

Rewa Kantha.

The Rewa Kantha Agency (which takes its name from lying on both banks of the Narbada River) comprises one State of the first class, Rajpipla; five States of the second class, Chhota Udepur, Bariya, Lunawara, Sunth, and Balasinor; together with 55 minor chiefships known as the Mehwasi States. The total area is 4,792 square miles; the total population (1881), 543,452 souls; the total revenue, about 160,000 *l.*; the total tribute, about 13,000 *l.*, of which two-thirds is payable to the Gaikwar. Rewa Kantha, like Mahi Kantha, forms a hilly tract on the outskirts of Gujarat, chiefly inhabited by Bhils and Kolis.

Balasinor

Balasinor is a Muhammadan State, founded by a member of the Babi family of Radhanpur. The other large States are Hindu, the ruling families being Rajputs of the Gohel, Chohan and Puar tribes. The settlement of the Gaikwar's claims over Rewa Kantha was effected through the mediation of the British Government between 1820 and 1826. In the minor chiefships jurisdiction is exercised by four *thanadars*, subordinate to the Assistant Political Agent, and troopers of the Gaikwar's Contingent perform the work of police.

The minor chiefship of Narukot, though entirely enclosed within the State of Chhota Udepur, does not form part of the Rewa Kantha Agency, but is administered through the Collector of the Panch Mahals. Area, 143 square miles; population, 6,440; revenue, 700 *l*. The ruling family are Kolis, and the inhabitants are Kolis and Naikdas. The latter, a tribe allied to the Bhils, have frequently proved turbulent; and on this account Narukot has been under British administration since 1839, one-half of the revenue being paid over to the chief. Narukot.

The State of Cambay lies at the head of the gulf of the same name. It has an area of 350 square miles; population, 80,074; revenue, about 46,000 *l*.; tribute, 2,595 *l*., exclusive of collections on account of customs and excise. The ruling family are of Persian origin. The State was founded in 1742. By the Treaty of Bassin in 1802 the Peshwa ceded his rights over Cambay to the British Government. This is the origin of the existing tribute, but Cambay has never entered into any treaty except for the regulation of customs and excise. The administration of the Nawab is entirely uncontrolled, and is reported to be very backward. Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Kaira. Cambay.

The Surat Agency comprises three States of the second class, lying to the east of the British District of Surat, and to a great extent overgrown with forest. Total area, 1,220 square miles; total population, 151,132; total revenue, about 66,000 *l*. The smallest of the three, Sachi, is a Muhammadan State, having been granted by the Peshwa to the Habshi, or Abyssinian admiral of the Mughals, in 1790, in exchange for his ancestral domain of Janjira. The other two, Bansda and Dharampur, are both ruled by Rajput families of some antiquity. Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Surat. The State of Jawhar, which lies in the north-east of Thana District, belongs geographically to the Northern Konkan, and not to Gujarat. Area, 534 square miles; population, 48,556; revenue, 10,000 *l*. The ruling family belong to the Koli caste, and are the last survivors of the indigenous chieftains who ruled the Konkan before the Muhammadan conquest. A Raja of Jawhar is said to have been recognised by the Delhi Emperor as far back as 1341; but the area of the State was greatly curtailed by the Mahrattas. In 1822 a disputed succession led to British intervention. Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Thana. Surat Agency.

The State of Janjira occupies a strip of coast between Kolaba and Ratnagiri. It takes its name from the Island of Janjira, on which is the ancestral fort of the chief; but it is commonly called the Habsan, after the Abyssinian origin of the ruling family. Area, 325 square miles; population, 76,361; revenue, 37,000 *l*. The Nawab of Janjira is also ruler of Jafarabad, in Kathiawar, which there ranks as a second-class State. The ruling family, whose name is Sidi, are Abyssinians by descent. They held the hereditary office of admiral under the Muhammadan kings of Ahmadnagar and Bijapur, and afterwards under the Delhi emperors. It is their boast that they never yielded to the Mahrattas. As early as 1733 they entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with the British. The Nawab remained practically independent down to 1870, when he signed an agreement to follow the advice of the Political Agent. Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Kolaba. Janjira.

The Dangs (lit. "the forest tracts at the foot of the hills") is the title given to a group of 22 minor chiefships lying amid the Sahyadri Mountains to the west of Khandesh District. They are thickly covered with jungle, and are inhabited by the aboriginal tribe of Bhils. Total area, 3,840 square miles; total population, 60,270, or only 16 to the square mile; total revenue, about 7,600 *l*. The name of Dangs is strictly applicable only to 15 of these chiefships, all ruled over by Bhils, who recognise a military subordination to one of their number, the Naik of Garvi. The other chiefships are Surgana, ruled over by a Desmukh, and The Dangs.

what are known as the six Mehwasī tracts. Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Khandesh.

The Satara jagirs.

The Satara *jagirs* consist of five scattered chiefships, which were originally feudatories of the Raja of Satara, the representative of the elder branch of the family of Sivaji, founder of the Mahratta Empire. The direct suzerainty passed to the British Government on the death of the Raja, without heirs, in 1849. Total area, 3,314 square miles; total population, 318,687; total revenue, 140,000 *l.*; total tribute, 1,560 *l.* The several *jagirs* are called sometimes after their chief town, sometimes after the title of their ruler. They are Bhor, the *jagir* of the Pant Sachiv, one of the eight hereditary ministers of the old Mahratta Empire; Aundh, the *jagir* of the Pratinidhi, or Mahratta Viceroy; Phaltan, the *jagir* of the Nimbalkar, who claims to hold under a grant from the Delhi emperor in 1327; Daphlapur, the *jagir* of the Daphlai, now administered by a woman, as has frequently been the case before; and Jath, the *jagir* of a Desmukh. Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Satara.

Akalkot.

Akalkot, historically one of the Satara *jagirs*, has been for administrative convenience separated from the rest, and placed under the Collector of Sholapur. Area, 498 square miles; population, 58,040; revenue, 23,000 *l.*; tribute, 1,459 *l.* The *jagir* was conferred upon the ancestor of the present holder in 1817, with the title of Bhonsla.

Kolhapur.

The State of Kolhapur lies east of the Sahyadri Mountains, between the districts of Satara and Belgaum. Area, 2,816 square miles; population, 800,189; net revenue, 221,000 *l.* There are 11 *jagirdars* feudatory to Kolhapur, who pay a tribute of 2,000 *l.*; the four largest of them hold a total area of 700 square miles. The Raja is the representative of the younger branch of the family of Sivaji, the founder of the Mahratta Empire, though the descent has more than once been interrupted by adoption out of the true line. The independence of Kolhapur was recognised by the Raja of Satara in 1731. At that time the territory stretched down to the sea; and the first treaty with the British, in 1765, was a commercial treaty aiming at the suppression of piracy. It was not till 1811 that Kolhapur came under the protection of the British Government. At present the administration is conducted by a regency.

The Southern Mahratta jagirs.

The Southern Mahratta *jagirs* consist of eight widely scattered chiefships, under the charge of the Political Agent of Kolhapur. Total area, 2,734 square miles; total population, 523,753; total revenue, 247,000 *l.*; total tribute, 18,700 *l.* Of these eight chiefships, all but two are held by members of the Patwardhan family, originally Konkani Brahman, who rose to military command under the first Peshwa. They came under British protection in 1812. The only one that ranks as a State of the first class is Sangli. Area, 1,049 square miles; population, 196,832; revenue, 102,000 *l.*; tribute, 13,500 *l.* The other two chiefships are held by Mahrattas of the Bhawa and Bhonsla Ghorapurai families.

Sawantwari.

The State of Sawantwari lies in the southern Konkan, below the Sahyadri Mountains, separated from the sea by a narrow strip of British territory. Area, 900 square miles; population, 523,753; revenue, 32,000 *l.* The chief is a Mahratta of the Bhonsla family. His title is Sar Desai, and his special family appellation is Sawant. The latter half of the name of the State is derived from Wari, a village near Goa, of which his ancestors were hereditary *desmukhs* in the seventeenth century. They claim to have always maintained their independence against the Muhammedan kings of Bijapur. As early as 1730 the British entered into a treaty of alliance with the Sar Desai of Sawantwari against Angria, the piratical chief of Kolaba. But the Sar Desai was himself guilty of piracy, and in 1766 he was deprived temporarily of his seaports. In 1819 the entire line of coast was ceded, and Sawantwari formally acknowledged British supremacy. Since 1838 the State has been almost continuously under British Administration, order being maintained by a local corps commanded by the Political Superintendent.

Savanur.

The State of Savanur is included within Dharwar District, in the extreme south of the Presidency. Area, 70 square miles; population, 14,763; revenue, 6,000 *l.* The ruling family are Afghans, who first received a grant of territory from the Emperor Aurangzeb. Having been expelled by Tippu Sultan, they obtained a pension from the Peshwa, which was exchanged for the *jagir* of Savanur,

Savaour, through the intervention of General Wellesley. Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Dharwar.

The State of Khairpur, in Sind, lies on the left bank of the Indus, stretching eastward into the Desert of Rajputana. Area, 6,109 square miles; population, 129,153, or only 21 per square mile; revenue, 57,000 L. The ruling family are Beluchis of the Talpur tribe, being the sole survivors of the Mirs who governed Sind from 1783 to the British conquest. In 1843, when Sind was annexed, the Mir of Khairpur was continued in his possessions. Political relations are conducted through the Collector of Shikarpur.

The following table gives the area and population of all the Native States, according to the Census of 1881. Kashmir and Manipur are not included.

Area and Population of Native States.

AREA and POPULATION of NATIVE STATES, 1881.

	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Number of Houses.	Population.			Density of Population per Square Mile.
				Males.	Females.	Total.	
Government of India :							
Hyderabad - - -	81,807	20,388	1,859,600	5,022,137	4,343,457	9,365,594	120.3
Mysore - - -	24,723	17,656	733,200	2,085,842	2,100,346	4,186,188	169.3
Baroda - - -	8,570	3,012	479,643	1,139,512	1,045,493	2,185,005	254.7
Central India Agency	75,079	31,508	1,661,434	4,882,823	4,379,084	9,261,907	123.4
Rajputana Agency -	129,750	30,001	2,101,451	5,544,665	4,723,727	10,268,392	79.1
Bengal - - -	36,634	16,059	487,827	1,460,940	1,394,465	2,845,405	77.6
North West Provinces -	5,125	3,322	125,907	384,699	357,051	741,750	144.2
Punjab - - -	35,814	18,546	655,392	2,112,303	1,349,380	3,861,683	107.8
Central Provinces -	28,831	11,942	375,283	867,687	812,033	1,709,720	59.3
Madras - - -	9,192	4,971	676,722	1,641,759	1,661,804	3,303,563	359.4
Bombay - - -	73,753	13,191	1,351,367	3,572,355	3,368,894	6,941,249	94.1
TOTAL - - -	509,284	169,903	10,507,826	28,684,722	26,468,734	55,153,456	108.4

The following table, which is taken from the Finance Accounts, gives the total amount of Tributes and Contributions from Native States during the ten years ending 1882-83. The annual amount has varied considerably, but the average for the ten years is 713,490 L.

TRIBUTES and CONTRIBUTIONS from NATIVE STATES for the Ten Years, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	£.
1873-74	768,544
1874-75	724,972
1875-76	726,188
1876-77	694,934
1877-78	675,120
1878-79	703,660
1879-80	702,451
1880-81	742,209
1881-82	706,873
1882-83	689,045
TOTAL - - -	£. 7,124,000

The following Table shows the details of Tributes and Contributions from Native States in 1882-83. The Tributes are in the nature of money payments to the suzerain power, in recognition of feudal loyalty, and in return for protection; the Contributions are subsidies towards military contingents, maintained to preserve local order. The amount due from the Nizam for the support of the Hyderabad Contingent is not entered here, being deducted from the surplus revenue

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revenue of Berar, the balance of which is credited to the Nizam. It should also be remarked that the tributes from the Native States in connection with Bengal do not appear in this Table.

DETAILS of TRIBUTES and CONTRIBUTIONS from NATIVE STATES, 1882-83.

	£.
INDIA, GENERAL:	
Tribute from Udaipur	12,074
" Dungarpur	1,369
" Jodhpur	9,800
" Jaipur	40,000
" Kotah	18,472
" Bundi	12,000
" Jhallawar	8,000
" Amjirah	3,440
" Kilchipur	1,291
" Banswara	4,696
" Ratiam	6,552
" Holkar (Indore)	2,191
" Sillasa	2,184
" Sirohi	688
" Pannah	995
" Chirkhari	858
" Ajehgarh	701
" Behat	140
" Paldeo	24
Nizam, on account of Mahratta <i>Chauth</i>	10,811
Contribution from Bhopal (Bhopal Levy)	18,132
" Dewas (United Malwa Contingent)	4,128
" Jaora (" ")	16,478
" Jodhpur (Erinpura Irregular Force)	11,500
" Kotah (Deoli Irregular Force)	20,000
" Dhar (Malwa Bhil Corps)	1,229
" Jabua (" ")	147
" Barwani (" ")	303
" Amjirah	1,966
Fees on Successions (Bundelkhand)	8,126
TOTAL	219,434
CENTRAL PROVINCES:	
Tributes from various Petty States	10,880
PUNJAB:	
Tribute from Suket	1,100
" Mandi	10,000
" Kapurthala	18,100
" Chamba	500
" various Petty States	3,106
Fees on Successions (Simla Hill States)	680
TOTAL	28,486
MADRAS:	
Tribute from Travancore	78,811
Contribution from Mysore	245,000
" Travancore	1,332
" Cochin	20,000
TOTAL	344,643
BOMBAY:	
Tribute from Kathiawar	53,450
" Junaghar	2,273
" Balasinor	1,108
" Dharampur	900
" Lunawara	1,047
" various Petty States	3,591
Subsidy from Cutch	18,695
Contribution from <i>jagirdars</i> (Southern Mahratta Horse)	6,438
TOTAL	87,502
GRAND TOTAL	689,945

IV.

THE ADMINISTRATION.

THE Governor General in Council exercises supreme authority throughout India, subject always to the control of the Secretary of State, but his authority is not everywhere exercised in the same manner. In those few and small "Provinces" which have been already described as under the administration of the Governor General—Ajmere, Berar, Coorg, the Andamans—he is himself the head of the executive. In another class of Provinces which may be described as fragments of the original Bengal Presidency—Bengal, Assam, the North-West Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, British Burma—his authority is delegated to Lieutenant Governors or Chief Commissioners. The two Presidencies of Madras and Bombay stand to him in a different position. They are subordinate, not as being ruled by his delegates, but only in so far as they have been expressly made subordinate by Act of Parliament. They have each a Governor and Council, a Commander in Chief, a Civil Service, an Army, and a Staff Corps of their own. Their Governors correspond directly with the Secretary of State in England. Partly as the result of their independence in early days, partly through the possession of separate legislatures, each of them has developed a system of administration which is distinct in certain respects from that prevailing throughout the rest of India.

In contrast to the Provincial administrations, the Governor General in Council is commonly styled "the Government of India." As thus defined, the Government of India consists of the Governor General himself, his ordinary and his legislative councils, the several branches of the secretariat corresponding to the several chief departments of administration, and the heads of such other departments as are not local in their jurisdiction, together with the subordinate staffs of each of these departments. The seat of the Government of India is at Calcutta; but since the time of Lord Lawrence, it has been the recognised custom for the Governor General, the Council, the secretariat, and the staff of the departments to migrate to Simla for the hot season.

The Governor General, or Viceroy, is appointed by the Crown, usually from among English statesmen of high rank. The term of office is indefinite, but in practice it is limited to five years. In strict theory, the Governor General is merely president of a council, with a casting vote in case of equality, and certain powers of over-riding the majority of the council, or acting altogether independently of the council, in urgent cases defined by statute. All his acts, whether executive or legislative, are expressed to run in the name of "the Governor General in Council." If the Governor General should visit any part of India unaccompanied by his Council, he is empowered to appoint some member of his ordinary council to be president in his place; and there is a further power in such case to make an order authorising the Governor General alone to exercise all the executive powers of the Governor General in Council. As regards legislation, the express assent of the Governor General is required for every law, even though he may not have been present at the meeting of Council at which such law was passed. His personal assent is also required for all laws passed by the Provincial legislatures. Apart from his Legislative Council, the Governor General is empowered, in "cases of emergency," to make ordinances "for the peace and good government" of the country which shall have the force of law for six months. His authority to overrule the majority of his Council is now regulated by the following clause (33 Vict. c. 3, s. 5):—

"Whenever any measure shall be proposed before the Governor General of India in Council, whereby the safety, tranquillity, or interests of the British possessions in India, or any part thereof, are or may be, in the judgment of the said Governor General, essentially affected, and he shall be of opinion either that the measure proposed ought to be adopted and carried into execution, or that it ought to be suspended or rejected, and the majority in council then present shall dissent from such opinion, the Governor General in Council may,

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on his own authority and responsibility, suspend or reject the measure in part or in whole, or adopt or carry it into execution, but in every such case any two members of the dissentient majority may require that the said suspension, rejection, or adoption, as well as the fact of their dissent, shall be notified to the Secretary of State for India, and such notification shall be accompanied by copies of the minutes (if any) which the members of council shall have recorded on the subject."

The authority of the Governor General in Council over the local governments, including the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, is now regulated by the following clause (3 & 4 Will. IV., c. 85, s. 65) :—

"The said Governor General in Council shall have, and be invested by virtue of this Act with, full power and authority to superintend and control the governors and governors in council of Fort William in Bengal, Fort Saint George [i.e., Madras], Bombay, and Agra [then intended to be constituted into a Presidency], in all points relating to the civil or military administration of the said presidencies respectively, and the said governors and governors in council shall be bound to obey such orders and instructions of the said Governor General in Council in all cases whatsoever."

The Governor General has a personal staff, consisting usually of a private secretary, an assistant private secretary, a military secretary, about six or eight aides-de-camp, of whom one or two are native officers, and a surgeon.

The Executive Council.

The Executive Council of the Governor General consists of five or six ordinary members, with the Commander in Chief as an extraordinary member, and the Governor of Madras or Bombay as additional extraordinary member if the Council happens to meet within the limits of either of those Presidencies. The ordinary members are appointed by the Crown. The term of office is indefinite; but in practice it is limited, like that of the Governor General, to five years. Three of them must have served in India for at least 10 years; one must be a barrister or advocate; one may be "the member for public works purposes." As a matter of fact, one is always a military officer, and another is always appointed with reference to finance. The presence of only a single member besides the Governor General (or a president nominated by him in his absence) is necessary to constitute a quorum.

In accordance with rules made by the Governor General, he and his Council apportion between themselves the several departments of administration somewhat in the same manner as they are divided among the ministers of a European cabinet. The Legal, Public Works, Finance, and Military members have already been mentioned; the Governor General usually retains Foreign Affairs in his own hands, leaving Home, and Revenue with Agriculture to the two remaining members, who will probably have been chosen from the Civil Service. These are the seven departments into which the Secretariat is at present divided; but, of course, the sub-division of functions in the Council is by no means so distinct as in the Secretariat. Each ordinary Member of Council is technically competent to do the work of any of his colleagues.

The Legislative Council.

The Legislative Council is composed of the Executive Council already described, with the addition of the Lieutenant Governor of the Province in which it may happen to meet, and from six to twelve other members, of whom not less than one-half must be non-official persons. These additional members are nominated by the Governor General for a term of two years. It has been customary that some of them should be natives of India. The quorum of the Legislative Council consists of six members, together with the Governor General, or an ordinary member of the Executive Council, as president. All members are equal with regard to the introduction of bills and the right of voting, except that certain classes of Bills may not be introduced without the previous sanction of the Governor General, and that the president of the meeting has a casting vote. The express assent of the Governor General is necessary to give validity to every law passed, whether at a meeting at which he was or was not present. The meetings of the Legislative Council are open to the public.

The Secretariat.

The Secretariat of the Government of India is divided into departments, which have varied greatly both in number and in the subjects assigned to them from time to time. When Warren Hastings first organised the government of Bengal on a territorial basis in 1772, a Secretary was appointed as clerk of the council

council, together with a Persian translator, for Persian was then the language not only of diplomacy but also of the courts of law. Under Lord Cornwallis (1786-1793), three sub-secretaries were appointed for departments called public, secret, and revenue. In the time of Lord Wellesley (1798-1805), the clerk to the Council was styled Chief Secretary; and there were four departments, each under a secretary, with assistants. These four departments were: (1) secret, political, and foreign (with which the Persian translatorship had been merged); (2) public; (3) revenue and judicial; (4) military. Under Lord William Bentinck (1828-1835) the number of departments under the Chief Secretary increased to no less than six: (1) secret and political; (2) general and foreign; (3) military; (4) judicial; (5) Persian; (6) territorial. In Lord Auckland's time (1836-1842), the office of Chief Secretary was abolished, and the number of secretaries was reduced to three, but subsequently increased to four. These four departments were: (1) secret, political, legislative, judicial, revenue; (2) general; (3) financial; (4) military. The whole secretariat was remodelled by Lord Ellenborough (1842-1844) upon lines which have been substantially preserved to the present day. He formed four departments, each under a secretary, with assistant and junior secretaries, called shortly, Home, Finance, Foreign, and Military. The growth of the railway system in the time of Lord Dalhousie (1848-56) led to the formation of a fifth department, that of Public Works. Lord Mayo (1869-1872) added a sixth, that of Agriculture, Revenue, and Commerce, which was shortly afterwards abolished, but reconstituted in as the department of Revenue and Agriculture, at the suggestion of the Famine Commission. A seventh department, the Legislative, was separated from the Home Department in 1869. There are now, therefore, seven branches of the secretariat of the Supreme Government, each with a secretary, subordinate secretaries, and clerks.

But the departments of the Government of India are not limited to the subdivisions of the Secretariat. They also include certain other branches of the administration which, for various reasons, are regarded as non-Provincial. From this point of view, the Government of India may be said to represent the federal element among a number of Provinces and Native States. All the functions not expressly reserved to the Provinces or States implicitly belong to the Government of India, together with all those matters in which more than one Province or State is interested. In this hypothetical confederation of Provinces the two Presidencies of Madras and Bombay occupy a position somewhat apart. All the other Provinces are more directly subordinate to the Government of India, as inheriting the attributes of the old Bengal Presidency; and those Provinces which are ruled by a Chief Commissioner are yet one degree more subordinate than those ruled by a Lieutenant Governor. The effect of these distinctions may be seen in what is called the Department of Public Works of the Government of India. This consists, (1) of a secretariat corresponding to the other secretariats, but more strongly manned; (2) of a numerous executive staff, sub-divided into branches, some of which exclude Madras and Bombay, and others exclude the Provinces under Lieutenant Governors, while others again comprise the whole of India. In the same way with the Military Department. This consists not only of a special member of Council and a secretariat, but also of a Commander in Chief and his Staff, whose authority is dual (1) for the whole of India; (2) for the Bengal Army, exclusive of Madras and Bombay. So again with the Survey Department, which is now under the charge of a Surveyor General as regards topographical surveys throughout India, and also as regards all revenue surveys excepting those in Madras and Bombay. The Ecclesiastical Department is likewise a department of the Government of India, in so far as it includes all India except Madras and Bombay, together with those military stations elsewhere which happen to be garrisoned by the Madras and Bombay Armies. The only Department of the Government of India that seems to be entirely without anomalies of this kind is the Telegraph Department. The Post Office is Provincial in its administration, except that there is a Director General of Post Offices in the Government of India. Other minor Departments of the Government of India that deserve mention are those of the Geological and Archæological Surveyors, the Sanitary Commissioner, the Meteorological Reporter, and the Director General of Statistics. Such matters as Customs, Excise, Stamps, Police, Jails, Registration, &c., are purely Provincial.

The Departments.

It remains to add that the Government of India further comprises the direct administration of four so-called "Provinces," Ajmere, Berar, Coorg with Bangalore, and the Andaman Islands. The three first of these are under the authority of the Governor General in the "Political," or Foreign Department; the fourth, which is merely a penal station for convicts, is under the Home Department. The description of Provincial administration given in the following pages applies in substance also to these.

Provinces.

As will be evident from what has just been said, the actual administration of India is vested in the Provincial governments. These units of administration are eight in number: Bengal proper; Assam, the North-West Provinces with Oudh, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, British Burma, Madras, and Bombay. The total would be raised to twelve, if we include those already mentioned as under the direct authority of the Governor General.

Madras and Bombay are not only Provinces, or "Local Governments," they are also Presidencies, on the same footing as the old Presidency of Bengal, and as such retain many marks of pre-eminence. The constitution of both is very much the same. The executive authority is vested in a Governor in Council. The Governor is appointed by the Crown, sometimes from among English statesmen, sometimes from among Indian officials. The Council consists of two ordinary members, who must be Indian officials, with the Commander-in-Chief as extraordinary member, all appointed by the Crown. The Governor has a casting vote, and also a power to override the majority of his Council in cases of emergency. For legislative purposes the Council is augmented by the addition of the Advocate General, and from four to eight other members, of whom one-half must be non-official persons, nominated by the Governor; at the present time five members at Madras and five members at Bombay are natives of India.

In the other six Provinces the executive authority is vested in a single ruler, who is styled Lieutenant Governor in Bengal, the North-West Provinces, and the Punjab, and Chief Commissioner in Assam, the Central Provinces, and Burma. The difference of title implies a certain inferiority of rank, but it does not entail any material diminution of power. Of these Provinces Bengal alone has a legislative council, which is composed of 13 members (of whom one-third must be non-official persons) nominated by the Lieutenant Governor; at the present time four members are natives of India.

Each Province has a Secretariat, more or less numerous, according to its needs. At Madras and Bombay one of the Secretaries is still styled Chief Secretary, with a certain pre-eminence. In Madras the supervision of the collection of the revenue is vested in a Board of three or four members; in Bengal and the North-West Provinces in a Board of two members. In Bombay the general administration, including the collection of the Revenue, is supervised by three Commissioners, one for each of the great geographical Divisions of the Province, with a fourth for Sind. In Madras there are no Commissioners of Divisions; but in all the remaining Provinces the Districts are grouped into Divisions, each of which is placed under the general supervision of a Commissioner for all executive purposes.

Each Province has a number of departments, organised on a uniform system. These departments are branches of the administration, distinct from the ordinary executive work, managed by a special staff, subordinate to a chief official at head-quarters. In every Province there are Departments of Public Works, Police, Jails, Education, Medical, Forests, Registration, Post Office, and Revenue Survey. It is only in a few Provinces that Salt, Opium, Customs, and Marine are to be found. Such matters as Agriculture, Model Farms, Botanical Gardens, Breeding Studs, Emigration, Government Printing, Factory Inspection, Meteorology, Astronomy, Archæology, &c., are in many cases under the charge of special officials.

"Regulation" and
"Non-Regulation."

Before considering the ordinary executive administration, it is necessary to explain the distinction between the two systems known as the "Regulation" and the "Non-Regulation," which are now divided rather by historical associations than by any essential difference. In its origin the distinction was territorial. First in 1822, and again in 1833, it was held expedient to withdraw certain frontier tracts in Bengal from the general system of administration formulated in the Regulations. These "Non-Regulation" tracts were placed in charge of a special officer, empowered to exercise every function of government, administrative

trative and judicial, at his own discretion, subject only to the control of the Governor General. As new territories were acquired by conquest it was similarly held inexpedient to extend to them the Regulation system of Bengal, and they too were constituted "Non-Regulation" Provinces. The most notable example is the Punjab, where the entire code of administrative and judicial procedure was created by John Lawrence by force of the executive authority delegated to him by the Governor General. The two chief characteristics of the Non-Regulation system were that no legislative enactments were in force except in so far as they had been specially adopted, and that all executive and judicial functions were vested in the same hands. The first characteristic has now disappeared, to reappear to a certain extent under a new name. By the Indian Councils Act (24 & 25 Vict. c. 67, s. 25), rules that had been framed by the Governor General in his executive capacity for "Non-Regulation" Provinces were declared valid. Since that date the Legislative system of India has been made uniform throughout the country, and special attention has been given to codifying the procedure of "Non-Regulation" Provinces. But the necessity which originally gave rise to the "Non-Regulation" system is still recognised, under the new name of "Scheduled" Districts. The distinction implied by that name is solely a legislative distinction, and will be explained in the chapter dealing with that subject. The other characteristic of the "Non-Regulation" system—the union of administrative and judicial duties—is in process of being removed. In 1875, a special staff of judicial assistants was appointed to twenty-three Districts in the Punjab, and since the period to which this Report is confined, the division of functions has been carried still further. A similar reform was introduced into Oudh in 1878. In Assam, the Central Provinces, and Burma, the executive officers exercise judicial functions, both civil and criminal. In the matter of administrative nomenclature, the old "Non-Regulation" Provinces still remain distinct. The superior staff employed in Assam, the Punjab, Oudh, the Central Provinces, and British Burma are constituted into a Commission for each Province; and the District officers are called Deputy Commissioners, instead of Collectors, as in the rest of India. The style of Deputy Commissioner is also commonly used in those portions of "Regulation" Provinces which were formerly administered under the "Non-Regulation" system, and are now "Scheduled"—Chutia Nagpur in Bengal, Oudh, Jhansi in the North-West, and Sind in Bombay. Another result of the "Non-Regulation" system which still survives is that the higher posts in the administration are not confined to the Covenanted Civil Service, but are for the most part open to the Uncovenanted Civil Service, and to Military Officers of the Staff Corps.

Apart from the surviving marks of distinction between the "Regulation" and "Non-Regulation" systems, the local administration is uniform throughout the country. The Provinces are divided into Districts, numbering 234 in the whole of India, which vary greatly in area and population. The District forms the unit of administration, under an official known either as Collector or as Deputy Commissioner. The highest judicial authority, both civil and criminal, is usually in other hands, those of the judge; but in all other respects the District officer is the local representative of the Government. As the name of Collector implies, his primary duty is to superintend the collection of the revenue, whether derived from land, excise, stamps, or other minor sources, and to determine as a judge certain classes of disputes concerning the revenue. In addition to his title of Collector, he is also styled Magistrate, in which capacity he exercises criminal jurisdiction, and supervises the police. The local branches of all the other departments that have been enumerated are more or less directly under his charge—public works, jails, education, medical, forests, registration, post office, &c.; and he is in a great measure responsible for the efficiency of Municipalities and Local Boards. It may further happen that he has to conduct "political" relations with an adjoining Native State. Nor is this all. It is to the Collector that the Government turns for information upon the economical, social, and sanitary condition of his District. Every single thing which either European intelligence or native opinion can demand of a Government, that he is expected to supply. In order to supervise his subordinates, and also to make himself personally acquainted with everything within his jurisdiction, the Collector is usually required to travel through the District for about four months in the year.

The staff subordinate to the District officer varies in the different Provinces. In Bengal, there are Joint Magistrates and Deputy Collectors of two grades, Assistant Magistrates and Collectors, and at the bottom Deputy Magistrates and Deputy Collectors of seven grades. In the Punjab, there were (in 1882-83) Assistant Commissioners of three classes, and Extra Assistant Commissioners also of three classes, further subdivided into grades. But however the District staff may be constituted, the Collector-Magistrate, or Deputy Commissioner, stands forth as its undisputed head. The subordinates are all under his command, and perform such work within their several jurisdictions as he may allot to them. Their jurisdictions are limited partly by the rank to which each of them have attained in the administrative hierarchy, partly by the geographical limits into which the District is subdivided.

Sub-divisions.

In Bengal, the only unit smaller than the District is that technically known as the "Subdivision," which has been formed merely for magisterial and general administrative purposes. Throughout the rest of India the Sub-division is also a unit for the collection of revenue. In Madras and Bombay it is called a *taluk*, in the remaining provinces a *tahsil*. The officer in charge, styled in Bombay a *mamlatdar*, and elsewhere a *tahsildar*, is primarily a collector of revenue; but he also exercises subordinate magisterial functions, and acts generally as a representative of the Government. The old fiscal unit in Northern India was the *pargana*, which is still often useful for determining the boundaries of an estate, but no longer possesses any administrative significance. For police purposes, the Districts of Northern India are divided into *thanas*, which are of most importance in Bengal, in default of any other conveniently small unit. But *thanas* are only police divisions, and their boundaries do not necessarily coincide with those of the administrative subdivisions. Almost everywhere but in Bengal, the village is the unit for the assessment of land revenue, and also the lowest unit in the general administration; and in Bengal as well as elsewhere the village watchman is regarded as in some sense a police officer of Government. In Assam, the *mauza* is not precisely a village, but rather a tract of country for which a Native official, styled *mauzadar*, contracts to pay the revenue.

The staff employed in the civil administration (excluding certain departmental appointments) is composed of four classes. (1.) The Covenanted Civil Service. (2.) The Statutory or Native Civil Service. (3.) The Uncovenanted Civil Service. (4.) Military officers of the Staff Corps in civil employment.

The Covenanted Civil Service.

The Covenanted Civil Service takes its name from the covenant entered into by each member on his appointment, in which he binds himself to the due discharge of his duties. It represents the writers, factors, junior and senior merchants who were originally nominated by the Directors of the Company. The appointments were first thrown open to public competition in 1853. By the Act for the better Government of India (21 & 22 Vict. c. 106) the right of appointment was vested in the Crown, subject to regulations to be made by the Secretary of State in conjunction with the Civil Service Commissioners. By the regulations at present in force, every candidate must be between 17 and 192 years of age; the candidates selected on the first examination remain for two years in England on probation, during which time they are examined periodically in special subjects; they receive an allowance of 300 l. each, conditionally on passing this period of probation at some university or college. By Act of Parliament, passed in 1793 (33 Geo. III. c. 52) it was expressly enacted that "all vacancies in the civil line shall be filled up from among the civil servants of the Company," i.e., the Covenanted Civil Service, according to the rule of seniority. In 1861 a statute specially dealing with the subject was passed (24 & 25 Vict. c. 54). All appointments not made in accordance with the provisions of the former Act were declared valid; a list of offices enumerated in a schedule were confined to the Covenanted Civil Service, but a power was reserved to appoint other persons to these offices in special circumstances, and under stringent conditions; all other offices were thrown open. The Covenanted Civil Service enjoy special advantages with regard to pension, leave, and acting allowances.

The Statutory Civil Service.

In 1870, another Statute (33 Vict. c. 3, sect. 6) gave additional facilities for the employment of natives of India, of proved merit and ability, in the civil service. This Act empowers the authorities in India to appoint any native to any office, place, or employment, notwithstanding that such office, &c. may by the

the Statute of 1861 be reserved for the Covenanted Civil Service. But all such appointments are to be made subject to rules to be prescribed by the Governor General in Council, and sanctioned by the Secretary of State. Rules under this Act were framed in 1876, and again in 1879. Under these rules eighteen such appointments have been made in Bengal, including the North-West Provinces, Oudh, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces; five in Madras, and six in Bombay. These officers are commonly spoken of as statutory civil servants. The subject of the rules is at present under the re-consideration of Government.

The Uncovenanted Civil Service can only be defined as consisting of all ser-
vants of the Government in civil employment, other than Covenanted and
Statutory Civil Servants or officers of the Staff Corps, in receipt of an
annual salary exceeding 10 l. In its widest sense it comprises all officers
in the special departments of police, public works, forests, jails, educa-
tion, survey, &c., as well as the subordinate judicial and revenue staff. It
includes European-born British subjects, as well as Eurasians and natives of
India. Some appointments are filled up by the Secretary of State in England, but
the great majority are made in India by the Local Governments. From the year
1884 a scheme of competitive examinations for admission into the subordinate
executive service has been introduced into Bengal. The judicial branch of
the Uncovenanted Service traces its origin to Lord Cornwallis, who constituted
the office of native *munsif* in 1793. In the revenue branch, the post of
Uncovenanted Deputy Collector was established in Bengal by Lord William
Bentinck in 1833; at first confined to natives of India, it was thrown open
in 1843. In the same year (1843) Uncovenanted Deputy Magistrates were
created, with police powers. Uncovenanted Deputy Collectors were first
appointed at Madras in 1859. The staff of the police, civil engineers, school
inspectors, forest conservators, &c., has grown with the growth of those
departments. The Uncovenanted Civil Service is under rules of its own with
regard to pension and leave.

The Uncovenanted
Civil Service.

The Indian Staff Corps was formed by Royal Warrant, in 1861, on the
amalgamation of the army of the Company with the army of the Queen. It
consists of a body of military officers, with special rates of pay, promotion, and
pension, constituted partly from officers of the Company who already occupied
certain posts, and partly from officers of the Crown who should be selected
after examination. Officers of the Staff Corps are eligible for civil employ-
ment in "Non-Regulation" Provinces, with certain limitations as to numbers.

The Staff Corps.

The following table, which is taken from the Finance Accounts, gives
the total Charges of General Administration for each of the ten years, 1873-74
to 1882-83. There has been an increase, but not a uniform increase, during the
period. Comparing the first year with the last, the increase amounts to 144,107 l.,
of just 10 per cent., while the total Imperial expenditure has grown within the
the same time by 20 per cent. :—

Expenditure
on General
Administration.

CHARGES OF GENERAL ADMINISTRATION, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	£.
1873-74	1,419,775
1874-75	1,386,786
1875-76	1,438,879
1876-77	1,500,220
1877-78	1,503,936
1878-79	1,502,910
1879-80	1,498,720
1880-81	1,537,080
1881-82	1,494,356
1882-83	1,563,882
	<hr/>
	£. 14,846,544

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The following table gives the details of Charges of General Administration, according to Provinces, for the year 1882-83. The entries have been arranged so as to form five subordinate totals: (1) the actual cost of heads of the administration; (2) the cost of the Councils and the Secretariat; (3) the cost of the intermediate staff of supervision; (4) the cost of financial control; (5) miscellaneous. The word "administration" has been interpreted strictly, so as to comprise the executive alone, excluding both judicial and fiscal officers. Nothing, therefore, is entered here for the ordinary District and Subdivisional Staff. The judicial expenditure will be given later, in the chapter on "Law and Justice;" and the amount expended in the collection of the revenue will be shown as a set off against the receipts. The method of accounting adopted is to debit against Land Revenue one-half of the cost of Collectors, Deputy Commissioners and their subordinate staff, and to enter the other half under judicial charges. In the case of Madras, however, four-fifths of the cost of Collectors, &c. is debited against Land Revenue.

DETAILS OF CHARGES OF GENERAL ADMINISTRATION, 1882-83.

	India and England.	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Governor General	26,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26,000
Governors	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12,742	12,000	24,742
Lieutenant Governors	-	9,666	-	9,652	9,596	-	-	-	-	29,914
Chief Commissioners	-	400	4,400	-	-	4,500	4,942	-	11,185	19,827
Staff and Household	12,765	2,873	-	2,818	2,804	600	601	12,244	17,677	54,388
Darbar Fund	14,500	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14,500
TOTAL	52,545	12,873	4,400	12,590	12,400	5,100	5,543	25,986	29,677	173,230
Executive Council	41,573	-	-	-	-	-	-	19,457	12,091	66,121
Legislative Council	23,456	2,050	-	-	-	143	-	1,167	4	26,717
Military Secretary	33,915	-	-	-	2,645	-	-	6,081	10,723	53,364
Secretariat	112,023	46,814	7,452	27,065	19,532	6,125	10,927	22,132	32,222	267,293
Tour Charges	77,320	6,032	928	7,364	9,315	1,809	234	346	1,463	105,647
TOTAL	292,197	149,798	8,380	34,429	28,852	7,934	12,201	46,155	56,758	514,354
Board of Revenue	-	26,911	-	21,260	-	-	-	28,601	-	76,772
Financial Commissioner	-	-	-	-	12,139	-	-	-	-	12,139
Commissioners	639	20,262	3,223	24,463	22,018	18,075	10,323	-	23,058	117,801
TOTAL	639	47,173	3,223	45,723	34,157	18,075	10,323	28,601	23,058	167,617
Comptroller General	25,469	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	25,469
Accountant General, Public Works	14,673	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14,673
Accountants General and Comptrollers	-	37,158	4,784	23,733	16,954	6,963	6,176	29,213	25,660	144,041
Paper Currency	9,978	-	-	1,025	1,020	79	88	2,076	6,080	14,266
Reserve Treasury	1,107	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	294	1,401
Presidency Banks	15,278	1,765	-	-	-	-	-	4,543	14,166	35,752
TOTAL	76,444	38,923	4,784	24,758	17,974	7,042	6,264	33,829	29,940	195,224
Local Funds	-	10,968	-	-	-	-	-	6,120	-	17,088
Press Commission	806	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	806
Rents, Rates, and Taxes	3,310	-	-	15	-	2	-	-	-	3,327
TOTAL	4,246	10,968	-	15	-	2	-	6,120	-	21,351
GRAND TOTAL IN INDIA	435,784	180,738	22,787	146,685	127,912	40,688	44,501	142,306	169,490	1,138,193
Stores from England	27,738	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	27,738
Charges in Home Accounts	222,078	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	222,078
GRAND TOTAL CHARGES	675,600	180,738	22,787	146,685	127,912	40,688	44,501	142,306	169,490	1,368,194

In 1882-83 the total cost of the Government of India amounted to 425,784 l., to which may be added 222,078 l. for the India Office in England. The cost of the Governor General and his personal staff was 52,345 l.; of his Executive Council, 41,573 l.; of his Legislative Council, 25,656 l.; of his entire Secretariat, 147,638 l.; of the annual visit to Simla and other tours, 77,329 l. The various system of Provincial administration render it difficult to compare the expenditure in the several Provinces. Taking the heads of administration alone, it will be seen that the cost of the Governors of Madras and Bombay is approximately double the cost of the Lieutenant Governors of Bengal, the North-West, and the Punjab, and would be threefold if the cost of the Executive Councils were added. The Chief Commissionerships seem to be very cheaply administered. The variations in the cost of the Secretariat call for no remark; but the small amount under "Tour Charges" for both Madras and Bombay is noticeable. The cost of the intermediate staff of supervision shows strongly the various systems of administration. Bengal, the North-West, and Madras alone have Boards of Revenue; all the Provinces except Madras have Commissioners. The result is that the cost of intermediate supervision in Madras (with a Board of Revenue only) is 28,801 l., and in Bombay (with Commissioners only), 23,053 l.; while in Bengal and the North-West (each of which have both) it rises to as much as 77,173 l., and 76,323 l. respectively. In this respect, as in every other, Assam and the Central Provinces seem to be the most cheaply administered.

Taking only the cost of the heads of administration, of the Councils and Secretariat, and of the supervising staff, the Provinces may be arranged in the following order, with regard to expense of administration as compared with population:—

Average cost of Administration.

CHARGES OF ADMINISTRATION, according to PROVINCES, 1882-83.

	Total Charges of Administration.	Total Population.	Charges of Administration per Head of Population.
	£.		d.
British Burma - - - - -	36,237	3,736,771	2.33
Bombay - - - - -	120,608	16,489,274	1.75
Punjab - - - - -	110,869	18,850,487	1.41
Assam - - - - -	18,003	4,881,426	.89
Madras - - - - -	102,953	30,868,504	.80
North-West Provinces and Oudh - -	125,502	44,107,869	.64
Central Provinces - - - - -	93,744	9,838,791	.58
Bengal - - - - -	139,844	66,691,456	.65
TOTAL - - - £.	687,785	195,464,528	.80

V.

LAW AND LEGISLATION.

Adopting the recognised language of jurisprudence, the law of India may be described as either written or unwritten. The unwritten law consists:—of (1) the customary law of England, including both common law and equity, in the technical sense of those terms; (2) the customary law of the natives of India, whether Hindus, or Muhammadans, or belonging to neither of those classes; (3) a certain *liberum officium*, expressly authorised by the phrase “in cases not provided for, the Court shall act according to justice, equity, and good conscience.” The written law consists of several classes of legislative enactments:—(1) the Statutes of the Imperial Parliament, and in a special sense those passed before 1726; (2) Regulations of the Governor General and Council from 1773 to 1833; (3) Acts passed by the Governor General in Council from 1834 to the present time. In addition, there must be added, as of only local application, the Regulations of the Governor and Council of Madras from 1800 to 1833, of the Governor and Council of Bombay from 1807 to 1833, the Acts of the Governor and Council of Madras, of the Governor and Council of Bombay, and of the Lieutenant Governor and Council of Bengal, from 1862 to the present time, and the Regulations of the Governor General in his executive capacity under the provisions of 33 Vict. c. 3.

The application of these several kinds of law varies to some extent according to place and person, though much has been done in recent years to promote uniformity. Roughly speaking, it may be said that European British subjects are amenable, so far as regards personal rights, to the law of England, whether written or unwritten, except when that law has been modified by express enactment. The same law, unless modified, has special application to all persons within the limits of the three Presidency towns, Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay; and also within the limits of Rangoon. Similarly the natives of India—Hindu, Muhammadan, or other—are amenable, so far as regards succession, inheritance, marriage, caste, or religious usage, each class to their own law, except when modified by express enactment. Parliament and the Governor General in Council can legislate for the whole of India; the legislation of the Provincial Councils is of course local.

Parliament.

The Imperial Parliament has always refrained from legislating directly for India as much as possible. Scarcely one Act passes in a Session that would properly be called a law for India. But indirectly the effect of Parliamentary legislation upon India has been very great. In the first place comes the long series of constitutional enactments which have been already described. It is from these enactments that the Councils in India derive their own legislative power. In the second place, by a curious process of legal interpretation, the entire body of English law existing in 1726, both written and unwritten, so far as applicable to local circumstances, was introduced at one stroke into the three Presidency towns, as the result of the establishment of Mayor's Courts in that year by charter from George I. The jurisdiction of the Mayor's Courts passed to the Supreme Courts established at Calcutta in 1772, at Madras in 1800, and at Bombay in 1823, and was enlarged by Act of Parliament from time to time. It is now exercised by the High Courts of Justice which superseded the Supreme Courts in 1862, and has been specially applied to Rangoon as “the law administered by the High Court in the exercise of its ordinary original civil jurisdiction.” As may be readily imagined, it is not always an easy question to decide whether these old Statutes are indeed “applicable to local circumstances.” Mr. Whitley Stokes, in his valuable “Collection of Statutes relating to India” (Calcutta, 1881), gives a list of nine Statutes passed before 1726 which have been expressly held not to apply to India; and he also prints at length thirty-four other Statutes passed

passed before 1726, which he believes (with more or less certainty) to apply to India. As regards the Statutes passed since 1726, there is less difficulty. The recognised rule of construction is, that only those Statutes apply which extend to India either expressly or by necessary implication. A few have been directly applied to India by the local legislature.

The charter of Elizabeth in 1601, incorporating what afterwards became the East India Company, gave power to make "laws, constitutions, orders, and ordinances," and to inflict fine or imprisonment for disobedience. A similar power is contained in the series of charters which renewed the first. No rules made in pursuance of this power are known to exist; but they may be presumed to have had reference to the internal organisation of the Company's factories and to mercantile business. The need for legislation proper was not felt until the Company became a territorial sovereign by the cession of the *diwani* of Bengal in 1765. After a few years' trial of the native government the Company resolved in 1771 to "stand forth as Diwan" by the agency of its own servants. Warren Hastings was appointed to inaugurate the new system; and the regulations he promulgated in 1772 for the administration of civil and criminal justice are to be regarded as the first attempt at British legislation for India. Meanwhile the affairs of India had come under the consideration of the House of Commons. The statute passed in 1773, known as the Regulating Act (13 Geo. 3, c. 63), besides establishing a Governor General and founding a Supreme Court, conferred an express power of legislation upon the Governor General and Council of Bengal. Regulations made in pursuance of this power were not valid unless registered in the Supreme Court; and this proviso led to serious difficulty. The earliest Regulation bears date 17th April 1780. In 1781 a second Act of Parliament was passed (21 Geo. 3, c. 70), empowering the Government to frame regulations for the Provincial Courts of Justice without reference to the Supreme Court. It was under this statute that the greater number of the so-called "Regulations" were passed; and so far as they exceeded the limited authority thus conferred, the defect was cured by a subsequent statute (37 Geo. 3, c. 142). The special object of the last-mentioned statute was to recognise the Bengal Code of Regulations, itself known as Regulation XLI. of 1793. It was thereby required that all Regulations should be registered in the Judicial Department, that they should be printed, that they should be translated into the vernacular languages, that the grounds of each should be prefixed to it, and that all should be formed into a Code. The power of legislation at Bengal remained substantially as thus settled down to 1833. The Governor and Council at Madras first received power to frame Regulations by 39 & 40 Geo. 3, c. 79, and the first Madras Regulation dates from 1802. At Bombay the power was assumed as early as 1799, but was not confirmed by statute until 1807 (47 Geo. 3, sess. 2, c. 68). Excluding certain enactments referring to the settlement of the land revenue, it may be said, in the words of Sir James Stephen (Hunter's "Life of Lord Mayo," vol. ii., p. 186), that "the Regulations are now almost entirely swept away by more modern legislation."

In 1833 the Indian Legislature was reconstituted by Act of Parliament (3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 85). The Governor General of India in Council was empowered to legislate for the whole of India, leaving to the Governors of Madras and Bombay the right only of proposing draft schemes. Acts thus passed were liable to be disallowed by the Court of Directors, and were also required to be laid before Parliament, but no registration in India was necessary. It was expressly enacted that they should have the force of Acts of Parliament. A fourth member was added to the Council, who might only sit and vote at meetings for making law. At the same time an Indian Law Commission was appointed, composed of the legislative member of Council, another English member, and one civil servant from each of the three Presidencies. This Law Commission drafted the Penal Code, which did not receive legislative sanction until 1860, and compiled many volumes of reports. The laws passed since 1833 are known as Acts, not Regulations. The mode of citation is to give the calendar year and the number of the Act.

Twenty years later (1853) the Indian Legislature was again remodelled (16 & 17 Vict. c. 95). The fourth or legislative member was made an ordinary member of Council. At least six additional members were appointed to take part in legislative meetings only. Two of these were to be the Chief

Justice and a puisne judge of the Calcutta Supreme Court; the others were civil servants nominated by the Provincial Governments. Henceforth the Legislative Council held its meetings in public, and its debates were regularly reported. By the same statute a body of eight commissioners were appointed in England to report upon the reforms proposed by the Indian Law Commission.

The Indian
Councils Act, 1861.

The present constitution of the Legislative Council is regulated by the Indian Councils Act of 1861 (24 & 25 Vict. c. 67). By this Act the power of legislation was restored to the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, and a Legislative Council was appointed for Lower Bengal, while the Governor General in Council retains legislative authority over the whole of India. For legislative purposes, the Governor General's Council consists of five (or six) ordinary members, the Commander in Chief as extraordinary member, and the Governor or Lieutenant Governor of the Province in which the Council happens to meet, together with from 6 to 12 members nominated for a period of two years by the Governor General. Of these last not less than one-half must be non-official persons, and in practice some of them are always natives of India. The extent of the powers of the Legislative Council are thus defined, "For all persons, whether British or native, foreigners or others, and for all courts of justice whatever, and for all places and things whatever within the Indian territories now under the dominion of Her Majesty, and for all servants of the Government of India within the dominions of princes and states in alliance with Her Majesty." Certain subjects are expressly reserved for Parliament, including the several statutes regulating the constitution of the Indian Government, any future statute affecting India, any statute for raising money in England, the Mutiny Act, and the unwritten laws and constitution of England so far as regards allegiance and sovereignty. No measure may be introduced without the sanction of the Governor General if it affects the public debt or revenues, the religious usages of the people, military discipline, or foreign relations. No law is valid until the Governor General has given his express assent to it; and an ultimate power of signifying disallowance is reserved to the Crown. In cases of emergency the Governor General, apart from the Legislative Council, may make "ordinances for the peace and good government" of the country, which have the force of laws for six months. Local legislatures were constituted for Madras and Bombay, in addition to the ordinary Councils, consisting in each Presidency of the Advocate General, together with from four to eight other persons, of whom one-half must be non-official, nominated by the Governors. Besides the subjects forbidden to the Governor General's Council, these local legislatures may not take into consideration proposals affecting general taxation, the currency, the post office and telegraphs, the penal code, patents or copyright. The assent of the Governor General is necessary to give any law validity, as well as the assent of the Governor. A similar local legislature was directed to be constituted for the Lower Provinces of Bengal, and power was given to constitute legislative councils for the North-West Provinces and for the Punjab, and for any other Lieutenant Governorship that may be formed hereafter. As a matter of fact, no other legislative council has yet been constituted except for Lower Bengal.

The Process of
Legislation.

The actual work of legislation is conducted in this wise. Though any member may introduce any measure, subject to the prohibitions already mentioned, the formal part of the process of lawmaking is generally left to a special department of the administration, which was formed out of the Home Department in 1869. This legislative department consists of a secretary, who is *ex officio* Secretary to the Legislative Council, with a subordinate staff. It is their duty to prepare all Bills required, in consultation with the member of Council in charge of the Bill. After being printed and introduced into Council, the Bill is then circulated among the Provincial Governments, and also among others whose opinions on it may be desired. It is also published in the *Gazette*. When the replies of those consulted have been received, the Bill is then submitted to a special committee of the Council who examine it in private, clause by clause. If many alterations are made in committee, the Bill is sometimes printed and circulated a second time. Finally, the Bill is taken into consideration at a public meeting of the Council, when amendments may again be introduced, and is there passed after open debate. There are no definite sessions of the Council according to English usage, so that the passage

passage of a Bill cannot be interrupted, by anything except its defeat, even though that passage may be protracted over years.

The subject matter with which Indian legislation is most concerned has been arranged by Sir James Stephen in Hunter's "Life of Lord Mayo," vol. ii. (pp. 188-212), under five heads: (1.) Acts which embody the fundamental principles of the British Government, such as the suppression of *sati*, infanticide and slavery, and the regulation of marriage and inheritance in cases of conversion to Christianity. (2.) Acts which codify parts of the unwritten law. (3.) Acts relating to judicial procedure. (4.) Acts relating to the revenue, especially the land revenue. (5.) Miscellaneous Acts. The Penal Code of 1860, the Succession Act of 1865, and the Contract Act of 1872, may be mentioned as examples of the second of these classes, and the great Civil Procedure Acts and Criminal Procedure Acts, as examples of the third.

The subject matter of Legislation.

The work of the Legislative Department is not confined to the drafting of Bills. Ever since its formation it has also been engaged in reducing the existing body of law to an intelligible form. This process has two sides; first, the expurgation of the statute book by the repeal of obsolete enactments; second, the arrangement of the remaining enactments according to their source and their local application. The result is a series of 16 volumes, known as the revised edition of the Indian Statute Book, published by authority. Two of these volumes, with a supplement, contain all the Imperial Statutes relating to India from 1285 to 1881; three other volumes contain the general Acts of the Indian Legislature from 1834 to 1876; 11 volumes, with a supplement, contain the codes for each of the several Provinces, *i.e.*, so much of the old Regulations as are unrepealed, together with subsequent Acts of only local application. The value of the whole work is enhanced by an elaborate index, with chronological tables.

The Publication of Indian Law.

It remains to say something about a complicated distinction in the local application of Acts of the general legislature which has its origin in what is called the Non-Regulation system of administration. This system grew up out of a desire not to subject certain backward or unsettled tracts to the same rule of impersonal law that was applicable to the country generally. In later times, when new territory was acquired by conquest or cession, the same principle was applied. The Governor General, in his executive capacity, assumed legislative functions or delegated them to the local administration. In this way a body of law was formed, *e.g.*, in the Punjab, which was based to some extent upon the Bengal Regulations, but consisted for the most part of an elastic judicial and administrative system without express legislative sanction. All technical difficulty as to the past was removed by a section in the Indian Councils Act of 1861; and the local laws of the most important Non-Regulation Provinces—the Punjab, Oudh, and the Central Provinces—have since been re-enacted by the Legislature. But the practical needs that produced the Non-Regulation system have now found expression in another form, or rather in two other forms. In the first place it has been provided by an Act of Parliament (33 Vict. c. 3) that the Governor General, in his executive capacity, may make "Regulations" on the suggestion of the Local Government for such tracts as the Secretary of State shall declare to be proper for such mode of legislation. In the second place, an Act of the Indian Legislature, known as the Scheduled Districts Act (XIV. of 1874), has set apart in a schedule a number of tracts, as to which the Local Government is left to decide what laws are in force, what laws are not in force, and what laws in force in the rest of India should be specially introduced. The former method, it will be seen, is available for providing new legislation for the "Scheduled" Districts. The latter is available for extending to them legislation already in force elsewhere. The whole of Assam, about six Districts of the Punjab, Jhansi and Kumaon in the North-West, Chutia Nagpur in Bengal, and Sind in Bombay, are the most important examples of "Scheduled" tracts. Between 1873 and 1882 (both years inclusive) 42 Regulations were made by the Governor General under the provisions of 33 Vict. c. 3.

Regulations for Scheduled Tracts.

All the Acts of Parliament relating to India, directly or indirectly, will be found in Mr. Whitley Stokes's "Collection of Statutes" (Calcutta, 1881).

Acts of Parliament relating to

The following is a list of those statutes only which have primary reference to India, passed between the beginning of 1873 and the end of 1883:—

The East India Stock Dividend Redemption Act, 1873 (36 Vict. c. 17).

To raise 8,000,000 *l.* in the United Kingdom for the Service of the Government of India (36 Vict. c. 32).

To enable Indian Railway Companies to issue and register Shares and Securities in India (36 & 37 Vict. c. 43).

To raise 10,000,000 *l.* in the United Kingdom for the Service of the Government of India (37 Vict. c. 3).

To transfer the Assets and Liabilities of the Bengal and Madras Civil Service Annuity Funds, and the Annuity Branch of the Bombay Civil Fund, to the Secretary of State for India (37 Vict. c. 12).

To extend to the Bishop of Calcutta the Regulations as to Leave of Absence of Indian Bishops (37 Vict. c. 13).

For granting Compensation to Officers of the Royal (late Indian) Ordnance Corps (37 & 38 Vict. c. 61).

To amend the Law relating to the Council of the Governor General (37 & 38 Vict. c. 91). This statute authorises the appointment of an additional "Member for Public Works."

To amend the Law relating to the appointment of certain Persons in the employment of the Home Government of India (38 & 39 Vict. c. 73).

To amend the Law relating to certain Appointments to the Council of India (39 Vict. c. 7). This statute authorises the appointment of "Persons having professional or other peculiar qualifications."

To enable the Queen to make an addition to the Royal Style and Titles (39 Vict. c. 10). In a proclamation issued in accordance with this Statute the Queen assumed the title of "Empress of India."

To raise 5,000,000 *l.* in the United Kingdom for the Service of the Government of India (40 & 41 Vict. c. 51).

To enable Guaranteed Railway Companies in India and the Secretary of State to enter into agreements with respect to the working of Railways (42 & 43 Vict. c. 41).

To enable the Secretary of State to create Capital Stock in Exchange for Annuities created under the East Indian Railway Company Purchase Act (42 & 43 Vict. c. 43).

To authorise the issue of 2,000,000 *l.* out of the Consolidated Fund by way of loan to the Secretary of State (42 & 43 Vict. c. 45).

To raise 5,000,000 *l.* in the United Kingdom for the Service of the Government of India (42 & 43 Vict. c. 60).

To amend the law relating to the Salaries and Allowances of certain Officers in India (43 Vict. c. 3).

To enable the Secretary of State to raise 2,950,000 *l.* in the United Kingdom for paying off debentures of the East India Railway Company (43 Vict. c. 10).

Indian Stock (Powers of Attorney) Act, 1880 (43 Vict. c. 11).

India Office (Sale of Superfluous Land) Act, 1881 (44 Vict. c. 7).

For making further provision for the Redemption of the Annuity created under the East Indian Railway Company Purchase Act (44 & 45 Vict. c. 53).

To make further provision with respect to the Indian Loan Act of 1879 (44 & 45 Vict. c. 54).

India Office Auditor Act, 1881 (44 & 45 Vict. c. 63).

To transfer the Assets and Liabilities of the Provident Branch of the Bombay Civil Fund to the Secretary of State (45 & 46 Vict. c. 45).

To make provision for the arrangement of Accounts between the Treasury and the Secretary of State in respect of certain Home Charges for the Army serving in India (45 & 46 Vict. c. 79).

Not a single Act of Parliament directly affecting India was passed during 1883. In the ten years 1873 to 1882 the total number of such statutes was 25, of which three at most may be regarded as constitutional enactments, and almost all the rest as financial provisions.

The following is a summary of the Acts passed by the Governor General in Council between the beginning of 1873 and the end of 1883. The effect of subsequent amending and repealing Acts may be seen in Mr. Stephen Jacob's "Index to the Acts relating to India" (Calcutta, 2nd ed., 1883).

In

In 1873, 20 Acts were passed, of which the following were of special importance: III. Courts, Madras Civil; IV. Municipalities, Punjab; XI. Municipalities, Central Provinces; XV. Municipalities, North-Western Provinces and Oudh; XVI. Village and Road Police, North-Western Provinces; XVIII. Rent, North-Western Provinces; XIX. Land Revenue, North-Western Provinces.

In 1874, 16 Acts were passed, including, III. Married Women's Property; VII. Municipalities, British Burma.

In 1875, 21 Acts were passed, including, II. Law Reports; VII. Fisheries, Burma; IX. To establish a uniform age of majority for persons domiciled in British India; X. Criminal Procedure, High Courts; XIV. Punjab Judicial Administration; XVII. Burma Courts.

In 1876, 23 Acts were passed, including, II. Burma Land and Revenue; III. Burma Labour Law; IV. Bengal Pleaders and Revenue Agents; V. Reformatory Schools; VII. To extend the Criminal Tribes Act of 1871 to Bengal; X. Bombay Revenue Jurisdiction; XIV. Sind Encumbered Estates; XVII. Land Revenue, Oudh; XVIII. To declare and amend the laws to be administered in Oudh; XIX. Dramatic Performances.

In 1877, 19 Acts were passed, including, I. Specific Relief; III. Registration; IV. Presidency Magistrates; IX. To prolong the Act of 1867 for the Suppression of Murderous Outrages in the Punjab; X. Civil Procedure Code Amendment; XV. Limitation Act; XVII. Punjab Courts; XVI. To raise the Salt Duties in Madras and Bombay.

In 1878, 18 Acts were passed, including, II. License Tax, Northern India; III., IV., V., X. Local Rates, North-Western Provinces, Oudh, Punjab, Central Provinces; VI. Treasure Trove; VII. Forests; IX. For the better control of Publications in Oriental Languages (repealed in 1882); XI. Arms Act.

In 1879, 21 Acts were passed, including, I. Stamp Act; VI. Preservation of Elephants; XIII. Oudh Civil Courts; XVII. Deccan Rayats Relief.

In 1880, 16 Acts were passed, including, II. Burma District Cesses and Police; III. Cantonments; III. Vaccination; XIV. Census.

In 1881, 26 Acts were passed, including, V. Probate and Administration; VIII. Petroleum; XV. Factories; XVIII. Central Provinces Land Revenue; XIX. Burma Forests; XXII. Excise Act for Northern India, British Burma, and Coorg; XXVI. Negotiable Instruments.

In 1882, 21 Acts were passed, which may be described in more detail:—

I. ———The Inland Emigration Act, to amend the law relating to the Labour Districts of Bengal and Assam.

II. ———The Indian Trusts Acts, to define and amend the law relating to Private Trusts and Trustees.

III. ———The Seditious Publications Act, repealing Act IX. of 1878.

IV. ———The Transfer of Property Act, to amend the law relating to the Transfer of Property by Act of Parties.

V. ———The Indian Easements Act, to define and amend the law relating to Easements and Licenses.

VI. ———The Indian Companies Act, for the Incorporation, Regulation, and Winding-up of Trading Companies and other Associations.

VII. ———To amend the law relating to Powers of Attorney.

VIII. ———To amend the Indian Penal Code.

IX. ———To amend the Prisoners Act, 1871.

X. ———The Code of Criminal Procedure.

XI. ———The Indian Tariff Act.

XII. ———The Indian Salt Act.

XIII. ———The *Kanungos* and *Patwaris* Act, North-Western Provinces.

XIV. ———The Code of Civil Procedure.

XV. ———The Presidency Small Cause Courts Act.

XVI. ———The Jhansi Encumbered Estates Act.

XVII. ———To amend the Indian Ports Act, 1875.

XVIII. ———The Burma Steam Boilers and Prime-Movers Act.

XIX. ———The Punjab University Act.

XX. ———The Indian Paper Currency Act.

XXI. ———To remove doubts regarding the Madras Forest Act.

XXII. ———To amend the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act.

No less than six of these Acts (II., IV., V., VI., X., and XIV.) are in the nature of general enactments for the whole of India, each codifying some special branch of law, substantive or administrative. It should also be stated that only the Acts from XVI. onwards were passed within the official year 1882-83.

In 1883, the following twenty-one Acts were passed:—

- I. — The Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act.
- II. — To amend the Elephants Preservation Act, 1879.
- III. — To repeal Act XXVII. of 1854 relating to the Nawab Nazim of Bengal.
- IV. — To amend the Indian Railway Act of 1879.
- V. — The Indian Merchant Shipping Act, making provisions for investigations into shipping casualties, the suspension of certificates, agreements with seamen, &c.
- VI. — To give power to arrest persons whose evidence is needed for the trial of pilots in Bengal.
- VII. — To repeal the British Burma Labour Law, 1876.
- VIII. — To amend the law in force in the Little Cocos Island and Pre-paris Island, which have been transferred to British Burma.
- IX. — The Central Provinces Tenancy Act.
- X. — Bikrama Singh's Estates Act.
- XI. — To give power to reduce Port Dues at Bombay.
- XII. — The British Burma Pilots Act.
- XIII. — To declare the law for lands ceded by the Bahawalpur State for the Indus Valley Railway.
- XIV. — The North-Western Provinces and Oudh Local Boards Act.
- XV. — The North-Western Provinces and Oudh Municipalities Act.
- XVI. — For the Protection of Inventions exhibited in the Exhibitions of India.
- XVII. — To amend the Native Passenger Ships Act, 1876.
- XVIII. — To amend the Cattle Trespass Act, 1871.
- XIX. — The Land Improvement Loans Act.
- XX. — The Punjab District Boards Act.
- XXI. — The Indian Emigration Act.

Four of these Acts are for the extension of self-government in Municipalities and Local Boards. Only the Acts to VI. downwards were passed within the official year 1882-83.

Acts of the Madras Legislature, 1873 to 1883.

Between 1873 and 1882 (both years inclusive) 29 Acts were passed by the Madras Legislature, of which the most important were—The Madras City Municipal Act (V. of 1878), partly repealed in 1879 and amended in 1881, and the Madras Forests Act (V. of 1882).

During the official year 1882-83, six Acts of the Madras Legislature became law. Act III. of 1882 provided for the establishment of a punitive police force with reference to the Salem riots; Act IV. of 1882 amended a technical defect in Act I. of 1882; Act V. of 1882, the Madras Forests Act already mentioned, enabled the Government to carry out effectually the conservancy of the forests of the Presidency, and to regulate the action of the Forest Department; Act VI. of 1882 provided for the levy of dues in the harbour of Madras; Act VII. of 1882 amended the Madras Jails Act of 1869 with reference to sentences of whipping; Act I. of 1883 extended the Village Cess Act of 1864 to the District of Nilgiri. In addition, a Bill to provide for the conduct of business by the Board of Revenue, which was passed by the local legislature within the official year, awaited the assent of the Governor General.

Acts of the Bombay Legislature, 1873 to 1883.

Between 1873 and 1882, 45 Acts were passed by the Bombay Legislature, of which the most important were—the District Municipalities Act (VI. of 1873), for levying tolls on roads and bridges (III. of 1875); the Cotton Frauds Act (VII. of 1878), repealed in 1882; the extension of the District Municipalities Act to Sind (I. of 1879); the Land Revenue Code (V. of 1879), and the Irrigation Act (VII. of 1879).

During the official year 1882-83, six Acts of the Bombay Legislature became law. Act IV. of 1882 amended the Weights and Measures Act of 1860; Act V. of 1882 amended the Bombay Salt Act of 1873; Act VI. of 1882 amended the Bombay Municipal Acts of 1872 and 1873; Act VII. of 1882 provided for the levy of fees for the use of public landing places; Act I. of

1883 provided funds for maintaining provincial roads used for local purposes; Act II. of 1883 authorised a tramway in Karachi. In addition, an Act amending the Bombay Port Trust Act received the assent of the Governor General after the close of the official year. To a Bill for imposing restrictions on the distillation of spirits from the *mahua* flower the Governor General withheld his assent.

Between 1873 and 1882, 59 Acts were passed by the Bengal Legislature, of which the most important were—the District Municipal Acts (II. of 1873 and V. of 1876); for registering Muhammadan Marriages and Divorces (I. of 1876); the Calcutta Municipal Act (IV. of 1876), amended in 1881 and 1882; the Agricultural Disturbances Act (VI. of 1876); Provincial Public Works Cess Act (II. of 1877); Chutia Nagpur Landlord and Tenant Procedure Act (I. of 1874); Cess Act (IX. of 1880), amended in 1881.

Acts of the
Bengal Legis-
lature, 1873 to
1882.

During the official year 1882-83, five Acts of the Bengal Legislature became law. Act I. of 1883 amended the Bengal Excise Act of 1878; Act II. of 1883 amended the Calcutta Port Improvement Act of 1870; Act III. of 1883 authorised the making and regulated the working of tramways; Act IV. of 1883 amended the law relating to Jute Warehouses and Fire Brigades; Act V. of 1883 provided for the registration of porters and *dandiwallas* in the Municipalities of Darjiling and Karseong. In addition, a new Municipal Bill and a Local Self-Government Bill were under consideration at the close of the official year.

VI.

MUNICIPALITIES AND LOCAL BOARDS.

MUNICIPALITIES.

Municipalities in India are the creation of British rule. They have no connexion with the indigenous village commune which still survives, in a more or less perfect form, almost everywhere throughout the country. They are entirely constituted and regulated by a series of Acts of the Legislature, of which the first dates only from 1850. Though they trace their origin to the administrative need for providing units for local taxation, they have already become both a stimulus for promoting, and a means of satisfying, the popular desire for self-government. The establishment of representative bodies in rural areas is still more modern, being for the most part the result of Lord Mayo's scheme of provincial finance promulgated in 1871. Measures for reconstituting both Municipalities and Local Boards on a wider basis of popular representation in almost every Province have either been passed within the last two years, or still remain under the consideration of the several legislatures.

The Presidency
Towns.

The three Presidency towns of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, have always been under municipal regulations of their own. So far back as 1687 the Court of Directors ordered that a corporation should be formed at Madras from both European and Native members, with a special view to the levying of local taxation. This corporation consisted of a mayor, twelve aldermen, and 60 burgesses; but it does not appear to have been long lived. The mayor's courts, composed of a mayor and nine aldermen, which were established by Royal Charter at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay in 1726, were courts of judicature rather than administrative corporations. The first distinct authority to levy taxation for local purposes was derived from the Regulating Act (33 Geo. 3, c. 52), which empowered the Governor General to nominate covenanted servants of the Company and other British inhabitants to be Justices of the Peace, whose commission issued from the Supreme Court in the name of the Crown, not of the Company. Following the precedent of English Highway and Licensing Acts, these Justices of the Peace were empowered to appoint scavengers for cleansing the streets of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay; to order the watching and repairing of the streets; to make assessments for these purposes, and to grant licenses for the sale of spirituous liquors. After several intermediate statutes, the municipal constitution of the three towns was entirely remodelled by a series of Acts passed by the Legislative Council of India in 1856. A body corporate was established for each, under the style of Municipal Commissioners, composed of three salaried members, of whom one was to be president. Except at Bombay all the Commissioners were appointed by the Government; at Bombay the President alone was appointed by the Government, the two others by the Justices of the Peace. To this body large powers of assessing and collecting rates and of executing works of conservancy and general improvement were entrusted. So far, the three Presidency towns had been substantially subject to a uniform system of municipal administration. But henceforth the systems have diverged, in accordance with the local legislative independence restored in 1861.

Calcutta.

The Calcutta municipality was remodelled by the Bengal Legislature in 1863, and again in 1876. By the first Act the Corporation was composed of a salaried chairman appointed by the Government, together with all Justices of the Peace for the Province resident in the town, and all Justices of the Peace for the town. All executive authority was vested in the chairman, but the justices (many of whom were natives) had a large measure of financial control. The first duty of the reformed corporation was to raise money for a water supply and a system of drainage. The system of nominated Justices of the Peace was open to the objection that, out of about 129 qualified persons, only about 25 took an active part in municipal affairs. Election by the ratepayers had already been introduced in Bombay, and was now demanded also for Calcutta. By the Act of 1876, which is now in force, the Calcutta corporation consists

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of a chairman, who is also Commissioner of the Police, together with 72 Municipal Commissioners, of whom 48 (or two-thirds) are elected by the ratepayers, and the remaining 24 nominated by the Government. Three elections have now been held, in 1876, 1879, and 1882. At the first election it was a matter of complaint that so few Europeans were returned, but the proportion was made up by means of the Government nominees; at the second election only an insignificant number of voters took the trouble to exercise the franchise; but the last election showed a marked improvement in this respect. Some of the wards were keenly contested; and it was observed that candidates who had formerly been Commissioners were either rejected or again returned pretty much in accordance with the scarceness or frequency of their attendance at meetings of the Council. The qualification of election is the payment of 2½ 10s. in rates and taxes. In 1882, the total number of voters placed on the register, which is specially prepared for the purpose, was 11,437, of whom 9,180 actually voted. Of the total number of electors, 6,194 were Hindus, 1,277 Christians, 880 Muhammadans, 58 Jews, 21 Chinese, and 7 Parsis.

The first duties of the Calcutta municipality, upon its constitution in 1863, were to appoint a health officer with a subordinate staff, and to make arrangements for an efficient water supply and system of drainage.

The scheme for waterworks received the sanction of Government in 1865. The source of supply is from the Hugli at Palta, about 16 miles above Calcutta. The works there consist of two large suction pipes, 30 inches in diameter, through which the water is drawn from the river by three steam engines, each of 50-horse power. The water then passes into six settling tanks, each 500 feet long by 250 feet wide, and 7 feet deep. Here it is allowed to stand for 36 hours, when it is permitted to run off into the filters, eight in number, the area of each being 200 feet by 100. After filtration, the water is made to flow over a marble platform, where its purity can be observed. It is then conducted by gravitation through a 48-inch iron main to the pumping station at Tala, close to the city, where it is forced into the town mains. There is a third pumping station at Wellington Square, which is used only for a high pressure supply. The entire work was completed in 1870, and connected with pipes laid under 100 miles of streets. The total supply of filtered water delivered during the calendar year 1882 amounted to 2,855,970,421 gallons, showing a daily average of 7,824,576 gallons, equal to 18 gallons per head of the town, port, and fort population. The total number of house connexions was 14,245. Owing to the increasing demand for filtered water for domestic purposes, it has been found necessary (1.) to increase greatly the supply of unfiltered water; (2.) to provide for duplicating the supply of filtered water. The source of the unfiltered water supply is direct from the Hugli, at Chandpal Ghat, at the lower boundary of the city; but arrangements have been made for removing it immediately to Malik's Ghat. In 1882, the total supply of unfiltered water amounted to 671,134,790 gallons, showing a daily average of 1,838,725 gallons. The scheme for a duplicated supply of filtered water, which was sanctioned in 1882, will consist of a second 48-inch iron main from Palta, supplying an additional 12,000,000 gallons a day, of which 4,000,000 are intended for the suburbs.

The drainage works were begun at about the same time as the waterworks, on an equally grand scale. The main system of sewers are underground, converging by gravitation at a pumping station, whence the contents are conveyed by a high-level sewer, 8,248 feet in length, to the Salt Water Lakes. Up to the end of 1882, 86.77 miles of brick sewers (being the total estimated amount) and 110.79 miles of pipe sewers (out of an estimated total of 154 miles) had been completed. Refuse and sweepings are also conveyed to the Salt Water Lakes by means of the municipal railway. Another most important work is the sanitary improvement of *bastis*, or hamlets of native huts. The practice of throwing corpses into the river has been stopped, and the burning *ghats* and burial grounds have been placed under supervision.

In the year 1882, the total ordinary receipts of the Calcutta municipality amounted to 270,712 l., of which 96,570 l. was derived from a house-rate at 7½ per cent.; 40,511 l. from a water rate at 3½ per cent.; 24,590 l. from a lighting rate at 2 per cent.; 45,018 l. from licenses on trades, carriages, horses, &c.; 22,419 l. from the night-soil department; and 10,842 l. from market dues.

The total ordinary expenditure amounted to 226,560 *l.*; the chief items being:—interest, 36,469 *l.*; sinking fund, 13,046 *l.*; establishment, 20,159 *l.*; roads, 25,032 *l.*; night-soil department, 13,132 *l.*; water, 37,025 *l.*; lighting, 22,378 *l.* During the period under notice a change was made in the keeping of the accounts from the calendar to the official year. In the 15 months ending March 1883, the total receipts on capital account amounted to 159,972 *l.*; and the expenditure (principally on drainage and water supply), to 166,983 *l.* On 31st March 1883, the total of the debt stood at 1,521,452 *l.*, against which has to be set off 233,114 *l.* invested on account of sinking fund.

Bombay.

The Bombay municipality was remodelled by the local legislature in 1865, and again in 1872. By the first Act the corporation was composed of the Justices of the Peace for the Town and Island of Bombay, together with a salaried Commissioner, in whom was vested the entire executive power and responsibility, with the control of the police. The justices had the power to revise the budget of municipal income and expenditure, which it was the duty of the Commissioner to lay before them. Practically, however, it was found that the Commissioner was uncontrolled in matters of finance; and this led to the more discontent, because Bombay was passing at this time through a period of financial depression. The result was the Act of 1872, which may be regarded as the first introduction of local self-government into India. By that Act two representative bodies were constituted; (1.) a Corporation composed of 64 members, of whom 32 (or one-half) are elected by the ratepayers, while the rest are nominated in equal shares by the Justices of the Peace and the Government; (2.) a Town Council, composed of 12 members, of whom eight (or two thirds) are elected by the Corporation out of their own body, and the rest are nominated by the Government. The Municipal Commissioner retains his executive responsibility, but in matters of finance the Town Council is supreme. The qualification of electors is the payment of 5 *l.* in rates and taxes. The members of the Town Council each receive a fee of 3 *l.* for attendance at the weekly meetings.

Bombay city, which had the first elective municipality in India, had likewise the first waterworks, which were made long before the municipality became elective. So far back as 1853 it was resolved by the Board of Conservancy of Bombay, the predecessor of the municipality, to construct an artificial reservoir in the island of Salsette, about 15 miles from the city. This reservoir, known as the Vehar Lake, was formed by damming up the valley of the Gopur river, near its source among the hills. Its area is about 1,400 acres, with an average depth of about 50 feet. The work was completed in 1860 at a total estimated cost of 373,650 *l.* The supply is about 8,000,000 gallons a day, being an average of about 12 gallons per head of the population. In 1872, it was found necessary to augment the source of supply by forming a second reservoir at a cost of 40,000 *l.*, in the neighbourhood of the Vehar Lake. This second reservoir is called the Tulsi Lake. Three years later, in 1873, the new scheme was modified. The Tulsi Lake was made an independent source of supply, and connected by a 24-inch main with a reservoir on Malabar Hill. An additional supply of about six gallons per head per day was thus gained. In 1882 it was resolved to form filter-beds in the Malabar Hill reservoir. Up to March 1883, the total expenditure on the Tulsi Lake scheme amounted to 414,451 *l.*

It is estimated that, between 1865 and 1875 the Bombay municipality expended not less than 4,000,000 *l.* in works of improvement, such as the reclamation of land, the widening of roads, the construction of markets, and conservancy generally. The Arthur Crawford markets alone cost 110,000 *l.* A comprehensive scheme of drainage was sanctioned in 1878, and is now approaching completion.

In the calendar year 1882, the total ordinary income of the Bombay municipality amounted to 362,255 *l.*, of which 264,003 *l.* was derived from taxation, being at the rate of 6 *s.* 10 *d.* per head of population. The principal sources of income were: *octroi*, 86,618 *l.*; conservancy cess, 27,197 *l.*; licenses on trades, 16,698 *l.* (including 14,375 *l.* paid by Government in lieu of liquor licenses); tax on houses and lands at the rate of 8 per cent., 102,693 *l.* (including 5,000 *l.* from Government, and 6,329 *l.* from the Port Trust); taxes on vehicles and animals, 29,117 *l.*; tolls, 1,680 *l.*; market fees, 17,441 *l.*; payments for muni-

municipal services rendered to individuals, 53,882*l.* (including water-rate, 48,600*l.*) The total expenditure amounted to 342,690*l.*, the chief items being, establishment, 14,907*l.*; collection, 14,133*l.*; lighting, 26,810*l.*; water, 31,121*l.*; conservancy, 69,677*l.*; drainage works, 21,200*l.*; markets, 5,657*l.*; education, 2,250*l.*; roads, 32,705*l.*; interest, 69,308*l.*; instalments of loans repaid 20,844*l.* On 31st March 1883, the total debt of the municipality amounted to 955,458*l.*, of which 132,940*l.* represented the outstanding liability on account of the Vehar Lake, the whole of which will be cleared off by 1890.

The Madras municipality was remodelled by the local Legislature in 1867, and again in 1878. By the former Act the city was divided into eight wards, with four members (styled Commissioners) for each ward, who must be resident within its limits. These Commissioners were nominated by Government, about one-third being usually official persons. A power to introduce election by the ratepayers was never acted upon. The entire executive power was vested in a President appointed by Government, and paid out of municipal funds; other officials, excepting four of the highest rank, were appointed by the President subject to the approval of the Commissioners. In 1871, by an Act that applied to all the municipalities in the Presidency, the cost of the police was taken over by Government; and at the same time the application of municipal funds was extended to education, hospitals, vaccination, and works of public utility. By the Act of 1878, one-half of the Commissioners are elected by the ratepayers; the position of the President remains unaltered, but two Vice-Presidents are appointed by Government, one for public works and sanitation, the other for the assessment and collection of rates. Madras.

As at Calcutta and Bombay, the chief work of the Madras municipality has been to provide a pure water supply and an efficient system of drainage. The former undertaking was commenced in 1869 by means of a loan from Government. Two reservoirs of native construction have been enlarged, so as to contain about 1,120,000,000 cubic feet of water; and their supply has been improved by constructing a weir across the Cortelliar river, with a supply channel to the upper part of the two reservoirs, and a connecting channel between them. The upper reservoir is called the Cholavaram tank; it has an area of 1,543 acres, and a depth of water of 20 feet at the lowest sluice. The lower reservoir is known as the Red Hills tank; it has an area of 4,869 acres, and a maximum depth of 25 feet. The water is conveyed into the city in an open high-level channel seven miles long, with strainers at both ends, but no efficient system of filtering. The channel terminates with a masonry shaft, from which the water is delivered at a level of 29½ feet above mean sea level into a distributing system of cast-iron pipes. The pressure is sufficient to raise the water 8 or 10 feet above ground level in all parts of the city. The total cost of the water supply has been about 150,000*l.* In 1882 the total quantity of water drawn amounted to 131,000,000 cubic feet, being at the rate of about 11 gallons a day per head of the population; the total number of house services laid is 1,321. In the same year a loan of 25,000*l.* was raised for extending the water-supply to additional parts of the city.

The drainage system is still incomplete. One main drain from the south of the city discharges into the sea. Considerable sums have been expended in diverting others from the Cooum river and the canal to sewage farms; and night-soil is also conveyed away by carts and barges. In 1882 an elaborate drainage scheme for Black Town, or the native quarter, was begun by means of a loan of 10,000*l.* All the sewers will converge into a well at Kayapuram, whence the sewage will be lifted by steam pumps into an outfall channel, by which it will be ultimately discharged into the sea at a spot two miles distant.

In the official year 1873-74 the total receipts of the Madras municipality amounted to 59,134*l.*, of which 7,384*l.* represented capital outlay on the water supply, leaving 51,740*l.* for ordinary income; the incidence of taxation per head of population was exactly 2*s.* In the official year 1882, for the system had been changed in the meantime, the total receipts amounted to 151,393*l.*, of which 35,000*l.* represented loans, 5,898*l.* balance from the preceding year, and 24,851*l.* "advances and suspenses," showing an ordinary income of 85,643*l.* The total income from taxation was 69,895*l.*, being at the rate of 2*s.* 10*d.* per head.

head of population. The chief items were:—Tax on houses, buildings, and lands at 10 per cent., 34,062 l.; water tax, at 4 per cent., 13,214 l.; lighting rate, at $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., 4,133 l.; licenses on trades, 7,046 l.; taxes on carriages, carts, and animals, 6,960 l.; tolls on vehicles and animals entering the city, 4,450 l. In addition, rents of markets, &c., yielded 3,935 l.; fines and fees, 1,069 l.; and contribution from provincial funds, 5,072 l. The total expenditure amounted to 96,679 l., leaving 10,000 l. as fixed deposit in the bank, 43,323 l. as “advances” and suspenses, and 1,391 l. as balance. The chief items were:—Conservancy and cleaning, 24,670 l.; water supply, 11,415 l.; drainage works, 10,439 l.; other public works, 8,729 l.; roads, 8,213 l.; sanitary and charitable establishments and vaccination, 2,239 l.; education, 939 l.; supervision and management, 8,390 l.; interest on debt, 6,715 l.; sinking fund, 8,422 l. The total debt amounted to 180,000 l., of which 143,000 l. was borrowed from the Government between 1869 and 1873 (the sinking fund for which now amounts to 39,708 l.), 2,000 l. was borrowed as a debenture loan in 1879, and 35,000 l. was borrowed as a debenture loan for waterworks and drainage in 1882. This last loan was raised by tender. The rate of interest was 5 per cent., with a sinking fund of 2 per cent.; and the average rate of allotment was $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. premium. A committee of the municipality reported in favour of introducing *octroi*, but the proposal was disallowed by the Government.

General Municipal Acts.

As regards the rest of India outside the three Presidency towns, two Acts of universal application were passed by the Legislative Council of the Governor General. These are Act XXVI. of 1850, already referred to as the first Municipal Act though the word “municipal” nowhere occurs in its provisions; and Act XX. of 1856, known as the *Chaukidari*, or Local Police Act. In strict accuracy it is necessary to mention an earlier attempt at municipal legislation. Act X. of 1842, “For enabling the inhabitants of any place of public resort or residence [in Bengal outside the limits of Calcutta] to make better provision for purposes connected with public health and convenience.” But this Act never really came into operation, and was repealed in 1850 as having “proved ineffectual.” Act XXVI. of 1850, which was permissive in its obligation, was largely availed of in the North-West Provinces and in Bombay, but remained almost a dead letter in the rest of India. The Government of any Province was empowered to bring the Act into operation in any town only when satisfied that an application to that effect is in accordance with the wishes of the inhabitants. The purposes specified are, “making, repairing, cleaning, lighting, or watching roads, drains, or tanks; the prevention of nuisances; or improving the town in any other manner.” The Government was then authorised to appoint the Magistrate and such number of inhabitants as may appear necessary to be Commissioners, on whom large powers are conferred for making rules. Among these rules is, “the definition of persons of property within the town to be taxed for raising the moneys necessary for the purpose of this Act, whether by house assessment, or town duties, or otherwise. It is under this power that the levy of *octroi* dues, now so common, first became legal in India.

The *Chaukidari* Act of 1856 was brought into operation chiefly in Bengal and the North-West Provinces. In this case no previous application from the inhabitants was necessary, and all authority was really vested in the Magistrate. He nominated a *panchayat*, or committee, of at least five members, whose sole duty it was to assess the rates in accordance with principles laid down by Government. He also appointed the police constables, fixed their rate of pay, and regulated their office establishment. The local taxation to be levied might take the form of either a personal assessment on householders or a rate on houses. After defraying the expenses of the police, any further sum available might be devoted to cleansing, lighting, or otherwise improving the town.

Since the date of these two Acts, the municipalities throughout India outside the Presidency towns have been entirely remodelled by special legislation for each Province.

Bengal.

In Bengal, besides the two general Acts already mentioned, the local legislature passed special Acts in 1864, 1868, and 1873, and also codified the entire body of municipal law for the Province in 1876. Act III. of 1864, known as the District Municipal Improvement Act, was intended mainly for large towns.

The

The Government was empowered to appoint Municipal Commissioners without previous application from the inhabitants. The Commissioner, the Magistrate, the engineer, and the superintendent of police are *ex officio* members; the Magistrate is chairman; and not less than seven other commissioners are nominated from among the inhabitants. The main source of taxation is a rate on houses and lands, but power is also given to tax carriages, carts, horses, &c. The commissioners may raise loans for works of public utility. They provide the whole cost of the police, besides attending to conservancy and local improvement. Act VI. of 1868, which was intended to apply to small towns, gave, at least in theory, a larger measure of self-government. The committee consists of not less than five persons, of whom not more than one-third may be officials. They are ordinarily nominated by the Magistrate, unless the Government should otherwise direct. They elect their own chairman and vice-chairman, unless the Government should appoint the Magistrate to be chairman *ex officio*. The taxation is levied from occupiers instead of owners, and is assessed upon an estimate of the circumstances and property of the persons liable to it. As a matter of fact, the committees under this Act are only a consultative body to assist the Magistrate by their advice, to check expenditure, and to frame assessments. In 1873 there were in Bengal 185 municipalities in all. Only one of these, Jamalpur (the Crewe of the East Indian Railway Company), was under the general Act of 1850; 68 were under the *Chaukidari* Act of 1856; 25 under the local Act of 1864; and 91 under the local Act of 1868. The Act of 1873 was an amending and enabling Act. So far as regards the large towns under the Act of 1864, it empowered the Government to authorise the election of the commissioners by the ratepayers, and also to authorise the commissioners to appoint a vice-chairman, and to control by resolution the action of their official chairman. Both classes of municipalities, those under the Act of 1864 and those under the Act of 1868, were empowered, after providing for police, conservancy, and ordinary town purposes, to contribute towards the expense of education. An elective system was forthwith introduced into Serampur, and has since been extended to Bardwan and Krishnagar. The permission to subsidise schools has remained practically a dead letter, only 671 *l.* having been allotted to this object in the year 1881-82. The Act of 1876 was substantially a codifying Act, the only substantial change being to allow each municipality the option of providing its taxation either by a rate upon houses or by a personal assessment. The levying of *octroi* dues is no longer legal in Bengal. This codifying Act further rearranged the municipalities into four classes: first-class and second-class municipalities, which are the only municipalities properly so called; "stations," where the administration is less independent; and "unions," where a rate is assessed by a *panchayat* for police purposes and local improvements. Powers were also reserved to the Government to apply certain provisions of the Act to the several municipalities at its discretion. In 1882-83 the municipalities were relieved altogether from the cost of maintaining the police, over which they had never been allowed to exercise any control. In 1882-83 a new municipal bill was under the consideration of the Bengal Legislature. It is proposed to abolish the existing classification of municipalities; to allow the ratepayers in all municipalities to elect two-thirds of the commissioners; to allow the commissioners in all cases to elect their own chairman; and to give them enlarged powers as regards conservancy and general improvement.

In the year 1873-74 the number of District municipalities in Bengal (including Assam) was 187, with a total income of 174,354 *l.* In 1882-83 the number (excluding Assam) was 180, with a total population of 2,986,197 within municipal limits. The total income amounted to 261,947 *l.*, of which 206,065 *l.* was derived from taxation, showing an average of 1*s.* 4½*d.* per head. The total number of municipal commissioners was 2,286, of whom 580 were officials and 1,706 non-officials; 496 were Europeans and 1,790 natives.

In Assam the municipal law is identical with that of Bengal. The earlier Bengal Acts applied directly to Assam, which was only separated in 1873; and the codifying Act of 1876 has also been adopted. The elective system has been adopted at Gauhati, Sylhet, Sibsagar, and Silchar; and it will probably be extended soon to other municipalities. The official members are now very few; and the vice-chairmen are, where possible and where the members wish it,

non-officials. In 1882-83 the municipalities were relieved from the cost of police.

In the year 1882-83 the number of municipalities of all kinds in Assam was 12, with a total population of 66,286 within municipal limits. The total income amounted to 11,388 *l.*, of which 4,792 *l.* was derived from taxation, showing an average of 1 *s.* 4 *d.* per head. The principal sources of income were:—Tax on houses, 2,167 *l.*; tolls and ferries, 2,233 *l.*; markets, &c., 2,270 *l.*; contributions from Provincial or Local Funds, 1,910 *l.* The total expenditure was 9,783 *l.*, the chief items being:—Roads, 2,191 *l.*; refunds, 1,561 *l.*; collection, 945 *l.*; drainage, 825 *l.*; public works establishment, 769 *l.*; police, 615 *l.*; office establishment, 517 *l.*; medical, 307 *l.*; education, 296 *l.*

The North-West
Provinces and
Oudh.

The North-West Provinces and Oudh, though now united under a single head of administration, betray their double origin in the different growth of their municipal institutions. In the North-West Provinces the two general Acts for all India, Act XXVI. of 1850 and the *Chaukidari* Act of 1856, obtained a wide application, and were most successfully worked. In 1868 a special Act was passed by the Legislative Council of the Governor General, framed on the Punjab Act of the previous year. The Government was empowered to constitute municipalities without any application from the inhabitants. The municipal committee consists of four official members, the Magistrate, the surgeon, the engineer, and the *tahsildar*, together with non-official members, who must be twice as numerous as the officials, and who may be elected by popular vote. The levying of *octroi* dues was continued, and taxation was also authorised on houses, professions and trades, occupiers rated according to an estimate of their personal circumstances, horses, carriages, &c. The question of *octroi* will be discussed later, in connection with the other Provinces where it is also in force. Oudh was annexed in 1856, and remained without any municipal legislation until 1867, when the Punjab Municipal Act was extended to it for a period of five years. In 1873, when the time came for renewal, an Act was passed amending the Act of 1868 for the North-West Provinces, and at the same time extending it to Oudh. Henceforth the municipal system of the two provinces has been uniform, except that the privilege of election is much more highly valued in the North West. Faizabad is the only municipality in Oudh where the elective system works successfully. Its municipal committee, including the president, are all non-officials. At Bilsa, also, in the North-West, a non-official Englishman has been appointed president. Everywhere else the presidents are the District Magistrates. Besides 107 municipalities under the Provincial Act of 1873, there were in 1882-83 no less than 341 minor towns administered under the *Chaukidari* Act of 1856, in which somewhat more than one-half of the amount raised by personal assessment is spent upon police, and the remainder upon conservancy, local improvements, &c. In the municipalities proper the charge for police will be withdrawn in 1884, equivalent charges being imposed on account of schools, hospitals, &c. In September 1883, after the close of the period covered by this Report, a new Municipal Act for the North-West Provinces and Oudh was passed by the Legislative Council of the Governor General (Act XV. of 1883).

In the year 1873-74, the number of municipalities in the North-West Provinces and Oudh was 100, with a total income of 234,187 *l.* In 1882-83, the number was 107 (not including 341 under the *Chaukidari* Act of 1856), with a total population of 2,849,618 within municipal limits. The total income was 260,170 *l.*, of which 204,002 *l.* was derived from taxation, showing an average of 1 *s.* 5 *d.* per head. The principal items were:—*octroi*, 175,361 *l.*; direct taxes, 20,756 *l.*; rents, 35,007 *l.*; contributions from Provincial and Local Funds, 3,852 *l.* The total expenditure amounted to 261,302 *l.*, of which 29,646 *l.* was spent on roads, 23,336 *l.* on collection, 5,437 *l.* on education, 5,184 *l.* on lighting, 2,746 *l.* on drainage, and 1,329 *l.* on vaccination. The total number of members of municipal committees was 1,425, of whom 423 were *ex officio*, 331 were nominated, and 671 were elected.

The Punjab.

Municipal administration in the Punjab arose independently of the general Act of 1850, which was never applied to more than two towns, Simla and Bhiwani. Immediately after the annexation of the Province in 1849 committees of townsmen were called together by executive authority, to regulate the expenditure on local improvements of the surplus income derived partly from *octroi* dues and partly from rates. This practice first received legislative sanction in

1867 by an Act which extended also to Oudh and the Central Provinces. It was limited to five years, but was renewed in 1872 and made permanent, with certain modifications, in 1873. The municipalities of the Punjab are divided into three classes:—the first class, consisting of four great cities and four hill stations, may incur any outlay without previous authority from Government; the second class, numbering 20 in all, generally the head-quarters of Districts, must obtain the sanction of the Commissioner to expenditure on any single work exceeding 200 *l.*; the third class, numbering about 170, can do nothing without official authority. The committees are composed of official and non-official members. The total number must not be less than five, and the officials must not exceed three-fifths. The Deputy Commissioner of the District is, in all cases, chairman. Election by the ratepayers has been introduced only at Lahore, Amritsar, and the hill station of Murree. The main source of municipal revenue has always been *octroi* dues; other permissible forms of taxation are a rate on houses, a license tax on trades and professions, and taxes on horses and carriages. The obligatory charges are, (1) police, and (2) the keeping roads, drains, tanks, &c., clean and in repair. Any surplus may be devoted to public works of general utility, education, medical relief, and the public health, safety, comfort, and convenience generally. In 1883 it was decided to transfer the cost of the police to the Provincial Government, equivalent liabilities of other kinds being imposed on the municipalities. Since the date of this Report a revised Municipal Act for the Punjab has been passed by the Legislative Council of the Governor General.

In the year 1873-74, the number of municipalities in the Punjab was 128, with a total income of 175,030 *l.* In 1882-83, the number had risen to 202, with a total population of 2,118,236 within municipal limits. The total income was 282,536 *l.*, of which 238,466 *l.* was derived from taxation, showing an average of 2 *s.* 3 *d.* per head. The principal items were:—*octroi* 229,005 *l.*, a tax on house and lands, 7,571 *l.* The total expenditure was 298,749 *l.*, thus classified: general establishment, 32,047 *l.*; police and lighting, 50,533 *l.*; public health, 101,910 *l.*; education, 15,074 *l.*; public works, 76,911 *l.*; interest and repayment of debt, 15,965 *l.*

The Central Provinces, in so far as they were administered on the Non-Regulation system, lay outside the operation of the general Act of 1850, but they were included in the Punjab Act of 1869, and received special municipal legislation in 1873. The elective system was from the first adopted liberally in the constitution of municipal committees, and a further large step was made in that direction in 1883. In his Administrative Report for that year the Chief Commissioner records "that, hitherto there has been every ground to hope that the experiment will be crowned with success, and that the public spirit shown by some of the committees has been most encouraging." * * "The example of the Jabalpur committee in carrying out its magnificent water scheme on capital borrowed on perfectly adequate security has stirred up other municipalities; and schemes are being considered for carrying out at once necessary measures for securing improved conservancy, drainage, and water supply." Here again *octroi* dues furnish far the largest portion of municipal income.

In 1873-74, the number of municipalities in the Central Provinces was 56, with a total income of 68,172 *l.* In 1882-83, the number was 61, with a total population of 597,271 within municipal limits. The total income amounted to 88,796 *l.*, of which 76,057 *l.* was derived from taxation, showing an average of 2 *s.* 2 *d.* per head. The principal sources of income were:—*octroi*, 65,947 *l.*; conservancy cess, 7,179 *l.*; markets, &c., 7,069 *l.*; contributions, 1,286 *l.* The total expenditure was 136,334 *l.*, thus classified:—general management, 21,089 *l.*; police and lighting, 1,015 *l.*; public health, 91,764 *l.*; education, 4,210 *l.*; public works, 15,041 *l.* The total number of members of committee was 653, of whom 237 were *ex officio*, 9 nominated, and 415 elected.

The growth of municipal institutions in British Burma began late, but it has proceeded with great rapidity, especially in the seaport towns of Rangoon, Moulmein, Akyab, and Bassein. Shortly after the British conquest a system of town administration was adopted for carrying out works of public utility by means of local taxation. In 1874 a Municipal Act was passed for Burma, which enabled the Local Government to establish municipal committees in any town with a population exceeding 5,000. A large extension of local self government was accomplished in the year 1882-83. The elective system was first introduced

duced into Rangoon in June 1882, in accordance with the desire of the municipality. The proceedings excited a good deal of interest, and a fair number of both Europeans and Burmans came to the poll. Within twelve months the privilege of electing three-fourths of their committee was granted to five other municipalities, leaving Prome alone under the nomination system. The committees were also empowered to elect their own presidents, and for some portion of the year 1882-83 the president of the Rangoon Committee was a non-official. Larger powers were given to the municipalities in the management of schools and hospitals, and they were relieved from all police charges. At the same time, quasi municipal committees were appointed for 24 smaller towns, consisting of members nominated by the Government, with no power to impose taxation or frame bye-laws. The entire municipal system of the Province was remodelled by an Act passed by the Legislative Council of the Viceroy in 1884. The *octroi* system has never been adopted in Burma, as the circumstances of the people permit a high rate of taxation from other sources.

In 1873-74, there were 45 towns in British Burma in which some sort of municipal taxation was levied, amounting in the aggregate to 65,513*l.* In 1882-83, the number of municipalities proper was seven, with a total population of 312,355 within municipal limits. The total income amounted to 175,498*l.*, of which 51,961*l.* was derived from taxation, showing an average of 3*s.* 4*d.* per head. The principal sources of income were:—tax on houses, 37,160*l.*; licenses on trades, 38,159*l.*; conservancy tax, 7,944*l.*; lighting rate, 5,909*l.*; rents of markets, &c., 45,020*l.*; contributions from Provincial and Local Funds, 29,934*l.* The total expenditure amounted to 204,055*l.*, the chief items being:—water supply, 64,169*l.* conservancy, 29,463*l.*; roads, 22,712*l.*; education, 13,396*l.*; medical, 11,723*l.*; collection and establishment, 14,405*l.*; lighting, 5,044*l.* Rangoon spent during the year 62,410*l.* upon completing the system of water-supply from the Royal Lakes; and schemes have been prepared for supplying Bassein with water at a cost of 26,000*l.*, and Prome at a cost of 24,000*l.* The total number of municipal commissioners was 109, of whom 35 were official and 74 non-official, 47 were Europeans and 62 natives, 79 were nominated and 30 elected.

Madras.

In Madras, as in Bengal, the municipalities have always been regulated by the local legislature, the General Act of 1850 having been practically inoperative. The earliest Madras Act was the Towns Improvement Act of 1865, which was primarily intended to impose on towns the cost of their own police. The municipal commissioners appointed under this Act were further required to raise and appropriate funds for the construction and repair of roads, drains, tanks, &c., and for conservancy in general. Towards all these purposes (including police) the Government contributed one-fourth of the total cost. In addition, the municipal commissioners were empowered, at their own option but with the previous sanction of Government, to provide funds for the lighting of towns, the prevention and extinction of fire, the supply of water, &c. The second Madras Act was passed in 1871, in connexion with the general scheme of provincial finance then promulgated by Lord Mayo. The duties of municipalities were extended to the provision of schools, hospitals, vaccination, and the registration of births and deaths. The charge for police was withdrawn, re-imposed in 1878, and again withdrawn in 1882. Not less than one-half of the committees must consist of non-official members, and the Collector of the District is always chairman. An elective scheme was first introduced in 1879, when about 45 per cent. of the qualified voters exercised the franchise. It has since been gradually extended to 12 municipalities out of a total of 47. No *octroi* dues are levied in Madras, but their place is, to some extent, taken by tolls on carriages, carts, and animals. The other sources of taxation are a house rate, a tax on trades and professions, a tax on carriages and horses, and fees on the registration of carts for the use of markets, slaughter-houses, &c.

In the year 1873-74, the number of District municipalities in Madras was 47 with a total income of 112,044*l.* In 1882-83, the number of municipalities was still 47, with a total population of 1,323,970 within municipal limits. The total income was 137,391*l.*, of which 96,941*l.* was derived from taxation, showing an average of 1*s.* 5*d.* per head. The chief items of income were:—tax on houses and lands, 41,776*l.*; tax on trades, &c., 13,623*l.*; tax on vehicles and animals, 28,987*l.*; rent of markets, &c., 6,124*l.*; contributions from Provincial and Local Funds, 14,361*l.* The total expenditure amounted to 133,593*l.* cl

chief items being: conservancy, 36,435 *l.*; public works, 30,911 *l.*; hospitals and vaccination, 20,401 *l.*; education, 10,902 *l.*; supervision and management, 10,850 *l.*; lighting, 5,289 *l.*; interest and payment of debt, 1,080 *l.*

Bombay took advantage of the general Act of 1850 more largely perhaps than any other Province, and remained under its provisions until 1873 (and, so far as regards Sind, until 1878). In 1873 a District Municipal Act was passed which divided the existing municipalities into two classes: (1.) cities, where an elective system is permissive, and (2.) towns, where all the members are nominated. The Collector of the District is *ex officio* president of both classes, and the Assistant or Deputy Collector is vice president of the "town" municipality. Towards the end of the year 1882-83, 14 "towns" were raised to the rank of "cities," which then numbered 24; and the elective system was for the first time introduced in all of them. The elections caused considerable excitement, but no disorder. The canvassing and contest for seats was in some cases very keen. The old members were for the most part re-elected, and the new members were generally men of the same social position. Since that date a new Municipal Act has been passed by the local legislature, which abolishes the distinction between the two classes of municipalities, and requires that at least one-half of the commissioners shall be elected in all cases, and not more than one quarter shall be officials. The president may be appointed by the Government or elected by the commissioners; and if he is an official, the commissioners are to elect a vice-president. *Octroi* dues have always formed the chief source of municipal revenue in Bombay.

In the year 1873-74, the number of District municipalities in Bombay was 213, with a total income of 205,985 *l.* In 1882-83, the number of both city and town municipalities was 164, with a total population of 1,920,938 within municipal limits. The total income amounted to 316,864 *l.*, of which 228,524 *l.* was derived from taxation, showing an average of 2 *s.* 4½ *d.* per head. The principal sources of income were: *octroi*, 152,054 *l.*; tax on houses, 23,232 *l.*; conservancy cess, 17,720 *l.*; tolls, 13,129 *l.*; contributions from Provincial or Local Funds, 5,836 *l.*; loans, 23,802 *l.* The total expenditure amounted to 304,880 *l.*; thus classified:—general establishment, 35,180 *l.*; police, lighting, and fire, 25,681 *l.*; public health (including conservancy, water supply, dispensaries, vaccination, &c.), 138,387 *l.*; education, 9,006 *l.*; public works, 69,935 *l.*; interest on loans and repayment of debt, 11,852 *l.* The total number of members of municipal committees was 2,499, of whom 705 were *ex officio* and 1,794 nominated; 909 were officials and 1,590 non-officials, 385 were Europeans, and 2,114 natives.

In the Provinces under the direct administration of the Governor General, municipalities have been introduced by executive authority rather than by legislation. In Ajmere-Merwara there are three municipalities—Ajmere, Beawar, and Kekri, all of which are trading towns, and in all of which *octroi* supplies the larger portion of the income. In Berar the municipalities are organised under the Punjab Act of 1873. No *octroi* is levied, its place being taken by a cess upon the sales of raw cotton and other market fees. In Coorg there are five municipalities, to which the North West Provinces Act of 1873 was extended in 1882-83. At least two-thirds of the committees consist of non-officials, nominated by Government; but previous to nomination the wishes of the inhabitants are consulted in a more or less formal way. *Octroi* is levied, though to a moderate amount. The civil and military station of Bangalore forms a municipality by itself, which is administered under regulations originally framed in 1871 and remodelled in 1883. The municipal board consists of 19 members, of whom six are official. Here again *octroi* is levied to a moderate extent.

In 1873-74 the number of municipalities in Ajmere was two, with a total income of 4,304 *l.* In 1882-83, the number was three, with a total income of 18,923 *l.*, of which 10,858 *l.* was derived from *octroi*. In 1873-74, the number of municipalities in Berar was five, with a total income of 6,318 *l.* In 1882-83, the number was six, with a total income of 10,920 *l.*, the principal items being:—town fund, or taxes on trades or professions, 2,662 *l.*; market dues, 3,034 *l.*; cart tax, 883 *l.* The total municipal population was 101,937, the incidence of taxation being 8 *d.* per head. The total expenditure was 10,207 *l.* Works have been begun for a water-supply at Amraoti at a cost of 30,000 *l.*, and at Khamgaon at a cost of 15,000 *l.* In 1882-83, the number of municipalities in Coorg was five, with a total population of 16,653; the total income was 1,400 *l.*, the incidence of taxation ranging from 1 *s.* 7 *d.* per head at Somavarp to 2 *s.* 1 *d.* at Virarajendrapet

drapet. In 1882-83, the total municipal income of Bangalore amounted to 16,460 l., of which 7,500 l. was derived from taxation, showing an average of 1s. 4d. per head. The chief items were:—*octroi*, 4,411 l.; tax on houses, 3,100 l.; liquor license fees, 2,583 l. The total expenditure was 18,705 l.

Octroi.

The subject of *octroi* is of sufficient importance to demand separate treatment. In 1882-83, out of a total municipal income from taxation in all India of 1,833,595 l., as much as 745,746 l., or 41 per cent., was derived from *octroi*. These figures include the Presidency towns of Calcutta and Madras, and also Bengal, Assam, British Burma, Madras, and Berar; in none of which is any *octroi* whatever levied. Its real incidence is shown by the following figures. In the North-West Provinces the total number of municipalities is 107, in 69 of which *octroi* is the sole tax, and in 12 more the principal tax; out of a total municipal income from taxation of 204,002 l., no less than 216,526 l. gross, and 175,361 l. net, or 81 per cent. of the total is derived from *octroi*. In the Punjab the proportion is yet larger, 229,005 l., or about 91 per cent. of the total municipal taxation being derived from *octroi*, the average incidence being at the rate of 2s. 2d. per head of the town population. In the Central Provinces, the proportion is almost as high, *octroi* yielding 65,947 l., or 87 per cent., out of a total of 76,057 l. In Bombay, out of a total municipal taxation of 228,524 l., 152,054 l., or 67 per cent., is derived from *octroi*. In Ajmere-Merwara, no other municipal tax whatever is levied except *octroi*.

The advantages of *octroi* are obvious. It is an indirect tax, which is always less obnoxious than any form of direct taxation. It is substantially identical with the local taxation formerly levied by native rulers, and therefore it is popular. Being popular, it has served as a convenient means for introducing the restraints of municipal administration. These are all legitimate advantages. But *octroi* further possesses another advantage in the eyes of the people which forms its great disadvantage from the point of view of political economy. It is practically impossible that it should be levied only on articles consumed within the town. So far as it is levied on articles which only pass through the town, it becomes a transit duty and an interference with trade. So far as it is levied on articles consumed by villagers and others outside municipal limits, it becomes a tax levied on one class of the community for the benefit of another class. The advantages of *octroi* naturally recommend it to the municipalities themselves, who have to consider how to introduce improvements with the least amount of discontent. It has therefore been the duty of the Supreme Government to point out its disadvantages from time to time, and of late with increasing persistence.

The principles by which the levy of *octroi* duties should be regulated were thus declared by the Supreme Government in 1868:—

“Such duties should be restricted to articles actually consumed in the towns, and not imposed upon articles of general commerce or suffered to interfere with the natural course of transit trade. The Government of India has reason to believe that these sound principles, the truth of which has been established by the prolonged experience of those countries of Europe, in which *octroi* duties form commonly a source of municipal revenue, have been frequently lost sight of; and that to meet the burden of an annually increasing expenditure upon police, education, or sanitary improvements, a widespread system of taxation has been introduced, injurious to interests on which the burden in a great measure falls, and standing in the way of a proper development of the commerce of the country. It is to little purpose that the Imperial Government reduces or abolishes customs duties in the interests of trade, if municipalities are permitted to levy duties on articles of commerce passing through their limits. In all parts of India municipal taxation is largely on the increase; and there is a growing tendency to overlook, for the sake of small local improvements, the real injury that is being inflicted upon important general interests.”

In accordance with these principles the levy of *octroi* duties was confined to articles of food or drink; animals for slaughter; articles used for fuel, lighting, or washing; articles used in the construction of buildings; tobacco and some other minor articles of consumption. In 1871, the list was extended so as to include cotton piece goods and metals. It was also ordered that arrangements should be made for the refund of the *octroi* duties on articles re-exported; and that bonded

warehouses

warehouses should be erected. A further reform, first adopted in the Central Provinces and extended to the Punjab in 1873-74, provided that the duties should not be farmed out to contractors, but collected directly by municipal officers. At the beginning, the system of refunds and of bonded warehouses proved ineffectual. An alternative scheme was devised in the North-West Provinces by which the *octroi* was reduced to a rate lower than the former rate in the same proportion as the estimated consumption was less than the actual imports. In 1879 the Supreme Government attempted to deal with the subject by express legislation, but the Bill for that object was withdrawn. Stricter orders were issued in favour of the refund system and the establishment of bonded warehouses. At the same time, a standard scale was framed, indicating the average rate of consumption per head of all articles liable to *octroi*, so that if the actual duties showed a higher rate it might be assumed that transit trade was being taxed. The extent to which the system of refunds now operates may be learned from the case of the North-West Provinces. In 1882-83, the *octroi* yielded a gross total of 216,526 *l.*, of which no less than 41,165 *l.*, or nearly one-quarter, was refunded. At Agra the refunds amounted to as much as one-third, and at Muzaffarnagar to more than two-thirds. At Karachi, in Sind, the refunds actually exceeded the receipts. One of the provisions of the new Municipal Act for the North-West Provinces and Oudh (Act XV. of 1883), which may be regarded as the first of a series dealing with other Provinces, is to limit *octroi* to "goods or animals brought within the municipality for consumption or use therein."

In the year 1882-83, the total number of municipalities in all India (including the Presidency towns), was 761, with an aggregate population of 14,295,602 within municipal limits. The aggregate income from all sources amounted to 3,084,913 *l.*, being at the rate of 4 *s.* 8 *d.* per head. The aggregate income from taxation was 1,833,595 *l.*, being at the rate of 2 *s.* 6 *d.* per head. The principal sources of taxation were:—*octroi*, 745,746 *l.*; assessed taxes, 198,167 *l.*; tax on houses and lands, 578,102 *l.*; taxes on vehicles and animals, tolls and ferries, &c., 311,580 *l.* Loans, &c. yielded, 693,447 *l.* The aggregate expenditure amounted to 3,160,484 *l.*, the chief items being:—establishment and collection, 234,292 *l.*; conservancy, 353,598 *l.*; police and registration, 206,349 *l.*; lighting and watering, 156,383 *l.*; drainage, 208,064 *l.*; waterworks, 268,390 *l.*; medical, 109,507 *l.*; education, 70,752 *l.*; public works (including roads), 637,632 *l.*; interest on debt, 191,907 *l.*

General
Municipal Sta-
tistics.

The introduction of local taxation into rural areas, combined with some measure of self-government, dates practically from the measure of provincial finance promulgated by Lord Mayo in 1871. Quite recently it has received a great stimulus from Lord Ripon's policy of entrusting larger powers of local administration to popular bodies, but the realisation of this policy by means of legislation lies for the most part outside the period to which the present report is limited (March 1883). The system adopted for rural boards varies in each Province even more widely than the municipal system.

LOCAL GOVERN-
MENT.

In Bengal local taxation had practically no existence so late as 1871. Tolls were then levied at public ferries and on a few roads, yielding about 70,000 *l.*; tolls were also charged on the artificial canals leading from Calcutta to the Eastern Districts and on the upper channels of the Hugli river, which are kept open by artificial means, yielding a further net income of 30,000 *l.* A few minor sources of revenue brought up the total sum available for roads and other public works to about 120,000 *l.* The whole of this was thrown into the Public Works Budget and spent wherever it might be required, without any regard to the localities from which the money was derived. In addition, about 24,000 *l.* was contributed by the landholders in commutation of their former liability to forward the District Post. Excluding Calcutta, but including the other municipalities, the aggregate local taxation of Bengal, with a population of sixty millions, amounted in 1871 to only 250,000 *l.* At the same date the North-West Provinces, with thirty millions of inhabitants, raised from local taxation as much as 530,000 *l.*; the Punjab, with nine millions of inhabitants, raised 290,000 *l.*; Madras, with thirty millions of inhabitants, raised 470,000 *l.*; and Bombay, with thirteen millions of inhabitants, raised 360,000 *l.*

Bengal.

It was manifest, therefore, that justice to other Provinces demanded the imposition of new local taxation in Bengal. Accordingly, the District

Road Cess Act was passed by the local legislature in 1871 to provide, by means of local rates, for the construction and maintenance of roads and other means of communication. Constitutionally, this Act was of importance, as seeming, at least, to interfere with the immunity enjoyed by the *zamindars* under the Permanent Settlement; statistically, it was of no less importance as providing for the first time a valuation of the land of Bengal. This valuation was effected by means of a special staff of Deputy Collectors, who were empowered to obtain returns of annual value from all holders of estates and tenures above the class of cultivators. The road cess itself was limited to a maximum of one half anna per rupee of annual value (slightly over 3 per cent.). The whole was payable by the holder of the estate; but he was entitled to levy it from his subordinate tenure holders in proportion to the rent payable by them, and one-half ultimately fell upon the cultivator. Houses, mines, quarries and railways were liable to assessment as well as cultivated land. The expenditure of the road cess was strictly limited to the Districts from which it was raised. For this purpose District committees and also Subdivisional committees were appointed, of whom two-thirds must be non-officials; and power was reserved for introducing the elective system. Their duties consisted in preparing an estimate of their income and a specification of the work to be done each year. The expenditure was entirely under their control.

In 1877, when the system of provincial finance underwent a further development, the principle of the road cess was extended to public works. An Act passed in that year by the local legislature, known as the Public Works Cess Act, provided that an additional cess, also limited to a maximum of half an anna per rupee of annual value, should be levied in precisely the same way as the road cess. The proceeds of this cess are not administered by the District committees but are paid into the Provincial treasury. In 1880 an amending and consolidating Act was passed by the local legislature, known as the Cess Act, which superseded the two previous Acts and also introduced certain modifications. Houses were exempted from cess and elaborate provisions were made for the assessment of *lakharaj* or revenue-free holdings. In the year 1882-83, the total amount yielded by both cesses was 701,000 *l.*, almost equally divided between the two. Each cess is levied in nearly every District at its maximum of half an anna per rupee. But the Acts are not in force in Singbhum, the Santal Parganas, and the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

In 1882-83, the total receipts of Incorporated Local Funds in Bengal amounted to 455,000 *l.*, of which 384,000 *l.* was derived from the Road Cess, 35,000 *l.* from the *zamindari* Post Cess, 7,000 *l.* from the Inland Labour Transport Fund, and 28,000 *l.* was a contribution from the Provincial treasury. The Incorporated Local Funds are so called as being "incorporated" in the Imperial finance accounts, and to distinguish them from the "Excluded Local Funds." These latter consist of certain special trusts and endowments in the hands of Government, for each of which a special account is kept. In 1882-83, their aggregate receipts amounted to 62,000 *l.*

It will be seen that down to March 1883 the work of local boards in Bengal was confined solely to managing the road cess. They had nothing to do with schools, hospitals, and general improvements, as in most other parts of India. The system of popular election had nowhere been introduced. But a Local Self-Government Bill was then under the consideration of the Local Legislature, dealing with all these matters. Among its chief provisions was the constitution of union committees out of groups of villages, which would be again grouped into Local Boards coincident in area with the Subdivisions of Districts. These new Local Boards would receive certain executive responsibilities and a large measure of financial independence.

Assam.

In Assam local administration is of very recent origin, but it has been developed with much success. District Boards were first constituted by the Assam Local Rates Regulation of 1879. They are confined to the eight Districts in the plains, the Hill Tracts not being sufficiently advanced to admit of their establishment. Their funds are derived from a rate of one anna per rupee (slightly over 6 per cent.) of the annual value of the land, fees at ferries, surplus receipts from pounds, and a contribution from the Provincial treasury. At first they received only five-eighths of the local rate; but the whole was assigned to them

in May 1882, when the charge of all public works was made over to them, and the amount of the Provincial contribution was trebled. They now manage roads and other public works, all education except high schools, dispensaries, the District post, circuit houses, and staging bungalows, &c.. In 1882-83 their total receipts amounted to 124,000 L., of which 34,000 L. was derived from the local rates, 10,000 L. from ferries, and 75,000 L. was contributed from the Provincial treasury. Their total expenditure amounted to 107,000 L., of which 90,000 L. was spent on public works, and 9,300 L. on education. In the same year the receipts of "Excluded Local Funds" amounted to 1,100 L.

In November 1882 the Chief Commissioner promulgated a Resolution in favour of popular election, which was introduced forthwith into two Districts, Kamrup and Sibsagar. The area was portioned out into electoral circles, for each of which a member was allotted and certain qualifications for membership and for the exercise of the franchise were laid down. The elections in Kamrup were held in February 1883, the first of their kind for all India, and "proved a great success." In Sibsagar they were not held until April, outside the year under report. In the four other Districts of the Brahmaputra Valley, and in Cachar, election was not considered as yet feasible, except as regards representatives of the tea industry, who were allowed to choose one-half of the non-official members of the Board. In Sylhet a rough system of election was adopted, according to which the notable men within certain areas were allowed to nominate a representative. At the same time the number of official members of the Boards was greatly reduced, and now averages three to four. The District officers remain chairmen and carry out the executive orders of the Board, but in deliberation their power is limited to the possession of a casting vote. A further change effected in November 1882 was the conferring of independence upon Subdivisional committees, which had hitherto been branch committees subordinate to the general committee at the District headquarters.

In the North-West Provinces and Oudh local cesses have always been levied from the landowners. They are assessed at the time of settlement, and collected together with the land revenue. District committees, composed of native gentlemen, have also been in existence for a long time to assist the Collector in the local administration of these funds. In 1871 the cess in the temporarily settled Districts of the North-West was at the rate of 10 per cent. on the land revenue (being 5 per cent. on the gross rental as recorded at the settlement), and in the permanently settled Districts only 1 per cent.; in Oudh the cess was 1½ per cent. In that year two Acts were passed by the Supreme Legislature regulating the levy of rates for local purpose in the North-West and Oudh respectively. As regards the North-West, the rate of 10 per cent. in the temporarily settled Districts was left unaltered; but an additional rate not exceeding two annas on each acre of cultivated ground was imposed on the permanently settled Districts. It was to be paid by the landlords, who were empowered to recover one-half from their tenants. The proceeds were to be spent in the improvement of the District where levied. The total estimated yield of this new rate was only 36,000 L.; but the principle was of great importance, as being the first exercise by the Legislature of its right to levy rates from land under a permanent settlement. At the same time, elaborate provisions were made for the appointment of District committees for the administration of local funds, of which not less than one-half should be non-officials. The Oudh Act of 1871 doubled the existing local rate, raising it to 2½ per cent. on the annual value of the land as recorded at the settlement. It was estimated that the increase would amount to 32,000 L. In 1878, an additional cess of 1 per cent. on the gross rental was levied in the North-West and Oudh, together with a license tax, as part of a general scheme of insurance against famine.

In 1882 the entire system of local administration in the North-West Provinces and Oudh was reorganised in a series of resolutions issued by the Provincial Government. The non-official element on the District committees was increased; all schools (including District schools), all dispensaries, and all local buildings and roads were placed under their charge; and an allotment was made to each District on the basis of the local budget, to be expended on the objects specified. At the same time, the *patwari* cess was abolished by an Act of the Supreme Legislature. This cess, which was levied on the landholder-

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Oudh.

at the rate of about 6 per cent. on the rental, and recovered by them in large part from the cultivators, was devoted to the maintenance of a staff for keeping village accounts and records. This staff now became servants of the Government instead of the landholders, while local rates were relieved to the extent of about 240,000 *l.*

In 1882-83 the total receipts of "Incorporated Local Funds" in the North-West Provinces and Oudh amounted to 650,000 *l.*, as compared with 830,000 *l.* in the previous year, the reduction being due to the abolition of the *patwari* cess and other changes of account. The amount derived from rates was 472,000 *l.*, not including 173,000 *l.* for famine insurance, &c. The rates are thus made up:—12 per cent. local rate, North-West Provinces, 352,000 *l.*; 4½ per cent. local rate, Oudh, 32,000 *l.*; 2½ annas acreage cess, permanently settled Districts, 27,000 *l.*; 1 per cent. school cess, 14,000 *l.*; 1 per cent. road cess, North-West Provinces, 4,000 *l.*; 1 per cent. road cess, Oudh, 14,000 *l.*; ½ per cent. District Post, 3,000 *l.*; village *chaukidari*, Oudh, 12,000 *l.*; receipts for surrendered *jagirs*, 11,000 *l.* The total expenditure amounted to 653,000 *l.*, the chief items being:—police, 230,000 *l.*; civil buildings, roads and services, 202,000 *l.*; education, 128,000 *l.*; medical, 46,000 *l.* The total receipts of "Excluded Local Funds" in the same year amounted to 374,000 *l.*; but of this total 292,000 *l.* represents municipalities, 33,000 *l.* other towns, and 30,000 *l.* cantonments. The rest are in the nature of special trusts. In September 1883, after the close of the year covered by this Report, a North-West Provinces and Oudh Local Boards Act was passed by the Supreme Legislature (Act XIV. of 1883), which provides for the constitution of District Boards and Local Boards for Sub-Districts, somewhat after the precedent of the corresponding Act for the Central Provinces to be described presently.

The Punjab.

In the Punjab, cesses for roads, education, and (in many Districts) District Post have always been assessed at the time of settlement, the two former at the rate of 1 per cent. each on the land revenue, the latter at the rate of ½ per cent. The first general rate was imposed by the Supreme Legislature in 1871, at the same time as in Oudh. It was levied on land at the rate of 3 per cent. on the annual value, equivalent to 6 per cent. on the land revenue; and it was estimated to produce about 132,000 *l.* In 1878, an additional rate of 1 per cent. on the annual value was imposed on the Punjab, in common with the rest of Northern India, as an assurance against famine; but this extra cess forms no part of Local Funds, though collected with them. The District Committees constituted under the Act of 1871 are composed of nominated members, of whom one-third are generally non-officials, with the Deputy Commissioner as President. Their powers extend to the making and repair of roads and communications; the making and repair of schoolhouses, the maintenance and inspection of schools, the training of teachers, and the establishment of scholarships; the making and repair of dispensaries, lunatic asylums, wells and tanks, and any other local works likely to promote the public health, comfort, and convenience; the maintenance of postal communication between places in the District not served by the imperial post. Expenditure exceeding 200 *l.* on a single work and all permanent establishments must be sanctioned by the Commissioner of the Division; plans and estimates of works exceeding 120 *l.* must be approved by the Public Works Department.

In 1882-83 the total receipts of District Committees in the Punjab amounted to 216,000 *l.*, of which 150,000 *l.* was derived from local rates, 23,000 *l.* from road cess, 23,000 *l.* from education cess, and 8,600 *l.* from District Post cess. This does not include 50,000 *l.* levied as a local rate for famine insurance, and credited to Provincial Funds. The total expenditure amounted to 210,000 *l.*, the chief items being:—public works, 75,000 *l.*; education, 44,000 *l.*; medical, 24,000 *l.*; post, 5,000 *l.*; gardens and museums, 3,000 *l.*; arboriculture, 3,000 *l.* The balance is mostly made up of matters of account. In October 1883, after the close of the period covered by this Report, an Act was passed by the Supreme Legislature (Act XX. of 1883), which provides for the consolidation of all the local rates, and also for the constitution of District Boards and subordinate Local Boards, somewhat after the precedent of the corresponding Act for the Central Provinces, now to be described.

In

In the Central Provinces, as in the North-West and the Punjab, certain rates are assessed for local purposes at the time of settlement. These are an education cess at 2 per cent. on the land revenue; a road cess, also at 2 per cent.; and a District Post cess at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. In addition, a sort of local income tax, known as *pandhri*, which has descended from the times of Mahratta rule, is paid by all persons (other than agriculturists) who do not pay any other form of assessed tax or license duty, and enjoy an income exceeding 10 *l.* a-year. It is now levied in accordance with the provisions of Act XIV. of 1867. In 1882-83 the *pandhri* tax yielded 25,000 *l.*, one half of which was credited to the Imperial treasury. In 1878, an additional rate of 1 per cent. on the annual value of land, equivalent to 2 per cent. on the Government revenue, was imposed on the Central Provinces, in common with the rest of Northern India, as an assurance against famine; but this extra cess forms no part of Local Funds. In 1882-83 it yielded 12,000 *l.*, which was in that year, for the first time, allotted to Provincial purposes. There is, therefore, no local taxation proper levied in the Central Provinces by legislative enactment; and up to the end of 1882 no local boards had been constituted.

The Central Provinces.

In the year 1882-83, according to the form of accounts then adopted, the education cess of 13,000 *l.* and the District Post cess of 3,600 *l.*, formed part of Provincial funds. Local Funds included four heads of account: (1.) District Public Works Fund; (2.) *Patwari* Fund; (3.) Municipal Fund; (4.) Excluded Local Funds. The total income of the District Public Works Fund amounted to 46,000 *l.*, of which 14,000 *l.* was derived from the road cess, 13,000 *l.* from fines for cattle trespass, &c., and 5,000 *l.* from tolls on ferries. The expenditure amounted to 49,000 *l.*; the chief items being: -32,000 *l.* for public works (including roads, ferries, civil buildings, water supply, &c.), 4,000 *l.* for collection of fines for cattle trespass; 2,600 *l.* for vaccination and dispensaries; and 2,000 *l.* for botanical gardens. In the same year, the receipts of the *Patwari* Fund were 11,000 *l.*; of the Municipal Fund, 88,000 *l.*, excluding loans; and of Excluded Local Funds 137,000 *l.*, which comprises 125,000 *l.* for municipalities, 6,600 *l.* for cantonments, and 5,400 *l.* for dispensaries.

In January 1883 an Act was passed by the Supreme Legislature "to make better provision for local government in the Central Provinces" (Act I. of 1883), which is the only one of a series dealing with the several Provinces that comes within the period covered by this Report. Its provisions, therefore, may be given in some detail, though they differ in several not unimportant respects from the corresponding Acts passed for the North West and the Punjab. Two sets of local administrative areas are constituted; (1) a group of circles, each composed of several villages, which forms the jurisdiction of a Local Board; (2) the District, which is placed under a District Council. The members of the Local Board are composed of three classes: (1) the *mukaddams* or village head men, as representatives of the village circles; (2) representatives of mercantile classes or professions, who may be either nominated by Government or elected; (3) persons nominated by the Government, who may not exceed one-third of the whole. The members of the District Council are likewise composed of three classes; (1) representatives of groups of circles, being members of, and elected by, the Local Boards; (2) representatives of mercantile classes and professions, either nominated or elected; (3) nominees of Government, again limited to one-third. Both bodies are empowered to elect their chairman freely out of their own members. The District Council is constituted a body corporate, and is placed in authority over the Local Boards, which are regarded as its agents. Special school committees may be appointed, and also joint committees where more than one District Council, or more than one Local Board, are jointly interested. The powers of the District Council are declared to extend to—the making and repair of roads and other means of communication; the management and maintenance of schools, dispensaries, markets, rest-houses, and other public institutions; the making and maintenance of wells, tanks, and waterworks; the planting of trees on public ground; the establishment of relief works in time of famine; the management of pounds and of ferries, &c. Its sources of income are declared to be—the net proceeds of the education and road cesses, a portion of the District Post cess, the surplus of fines for cattle trespass, the proceeds of local ferries, a portion of the *nazul* fund (being profits from public gardens, building plots of Government land, &c.), contributions from Provincial revenues. A general duty of inspection and supervision is

reserved to the Deputy Commissioner of the District, who is also empowered in certain circumstances to suspend the execution of the orders of the District Council, and in cases of emergency to supersede the District Council and to provide himself for the doing of its work. Large powers for making rules are conferred upon the Chief Commissioner of the Province.

In accordance with rules thus framed, the Act has been applied to every District in the Central Provinces except Mandla, beginning first with the headquarters District of each Division. In his Administration Report for 1882-83 the Chief Commissioner states that "the elections in Nagpur District excite considerable interest, and were satisfactorily conducted. The Council and Boards are of a thoroughly representative character. The only official member nominated were an Extra-Assistant Commissioner to the Council and a *tahsilda* to each of the Local Boards."

Burma.

In British Burma a cess for local purposes has long been levied in connexion with the two chief great sources of revenue, land and fisheries. In 1866 a general revenue Act passed for the Province by the Supreme Legislature (Act II. of 1867) first legalised this cess at the rate of 5 per cent, which was estimated to yield about 20,000 *l.* The proceeds were devoted mainly to the rural police, village schools, and the District Post. An amending Act (II. of 1880) raised the cess on land revenue and fisheries from 5 to 10 per cent., and imposed a house tax at the rate of two rupees (4 *s.*) on the non-agricultural population. The increase was to be devoted to augmenting the pay of the rural police, and to the improvement of water channels, which are the principal means of communication in Burma. No system of popular administration has yet been introduced; and Local Funds are practically treated as part of Provincial Funds, though a separate account is maintained. In 1882-83 the total income of Incorporated Local Funds amounted to 96,000 *l.*, of which 81,000 *l.* was derived from the cesses and house-tax, 4,000 *l.* from tolls at ferries, and 4,000 *l.* from fines for cattle trespass, &c. The total expenditure was 127,000 *l.*; the principal items being:—71,000 *l.* for public works, 33,000 *l.* for police, 5,000 *l.* for education, 3,000 *l.* for post office, and 1,000 *l.* for medical. The receipts of "Excluded Local Funds" amounted to 77,000 *l.*

Madras.

In Madras the Local Funds properly so called are constituted and administered under an Act of the local legislature passed in 1871, in connection with Lord Mayo's scheme of Provincial finance. Various forms of local taxation for local purposes had long been in existence. Among these may be mentioned a road cess at a rate not exceeding half an anna in the rupee on the rent value of occupied land, imposed by a local Act in 1866; voluntary taxation for education authorised by a local Act in 1863; fines for cattle trespass, &c., originally levied under an Act of the Supreme Legislature in 1857; a Jungle Conservancy Fund, consisting of a tax on firewood and charcoal, originally introduced in 1859; a Village Service Fund, consisting of a cess imposed with the land revenue for raising the emoluments of village officials, first imposed by a local Act in 1864, and introduced into each District concurrently with the new settlement; and a Canal and Ferry Fund, imposed by a local Act in 1870, and as yet confined to only a few Districts. But for the present purpose it is sufficient to explain the provisions of the Madras Local Funds Act of 1871. This divided the whole country into circles, of which sometimes one, sometimes two and in one case three, make up a District. Each circle forms the jurisdiction of a Local Fund Board, of which the Collector is *ex-officio* chairman, and the other members are nominated by Government, subject to the restriction that at least one-half must be non-officials. The funds are derived from a cess on land limited to one anna in the rupee of rent value; tolls on roads; and a house tax for education, levied where the voluntary tax of 1863 had been in force. Since 1874 this special house tax for education has been discontinued. The cess is now levied at the maximum rate in every District but three; in two of these it stands at only nine pies, while in the third (Madura) a special Act was passed in 1878 to raise it to two annas. The number of toll bars has more than doubled within the last ten years, and now exceeds 100. Besides these taxes, the Local Fund Boards also receive the endowment funds of dispensaries, choultries, tanks, &c., that have been transferred to them; a share in surplus pound receipts, ferry rents, fishery and grass rents, &c., together with a contribution

roads, primary schools, hospitals, lunatic asylums, choultries, travellers' bungalows, markets, tanks, and wells, vaccination, sanitary inspection, conservancy generally, and any other works of local utility calculated to promote the health, comfort, and convenience of the people. In 1882-83, the receipts of Local Funds proper, administered under the Act of 1871, amounted to 563,000 *l.*, of which 421,000 *l.* was derived from rates, 54,000 *l.* from public works, and 20,000 *l.* was contributed from the Provincial treasury. The total expenditure amounted to 608,000 *l.*, the chief items being.—376,000 *l.* for public works, 65,000 *l.* for education, 50,000 *l.* for hospitals and dispensaries, 49,000 *l.* for sanitation, and public and charitable institutions, and 50,000 *l.*, a transfer to the Provincial treasury. In the same year, the receipts of the Village Service Fund amounted to 317,000 *l.*, of which about two-thirds was derived from rates, the remaining third being deducted from the land revenue; and the receipts of the Canal and Ferry Fund amounted to 15,000 *l.* Including some other items, the total receipts of what are styled "Unfettered Local Funds" reached 873,000 *l.* To this must be added "Fettered Local Funds." These are two in number. The Convict Labour Fund, consisting of the net profits of work in jails, which yielded 8,600 *l.*; and the Cattle Pound Fund, which yielded 20,000 *l.* In addition, the receipts of "Excluded Local Funds," consisting of the Madras Port Fund, the University Fee Fund, and three minor trusts, amounted to a total of 53,000 *l.* The aggregate receipts, therefore, of Local Funds in Madras of all sorts are approximately one million sterling.

In Bombay the administration of Local Funds is regulated by an Act of the local legislature passed in 1869. By this Act two sets of Local Fund Committees are constituted—for the *taluk* or revenue Subdivision, and for the District. The *taluk* committee is composed of the Assistant or Deputy Collector as *ex officio* president, with the *mamlatdar* or native revenue official, an engineer, or an educational inspector, a representative of the *inamdars* or holders of revenue free tenures, and three representatives of landholders. The District committee is similarly constituted under the presidency of the Collector, with six representative landholders. It is the duty of the *taluk* committee to ascertain local requirements; all executive responsibility rests with the District committee. The funds available consist of a cess of one anna in the rupee collected with the land revenue, of which two-thirds are applicable to roads, and one-third to education; the surplus proceeds of the following funds, levied in accordance with special enactments—Ferry Fund, Toll Fund, Pound Fund, Staging Bungalow Fund; and a few minor sources of income made over by the Provincial Government. The objects of expenditure are roads, bridges and ferries, schools and education, dispensaries, vaccination, wells, tanks, and water supply, staging bungalows and rest-houses, the planting of trees, and local improvements in general. It is rigidly required that the receipts of a *taluk* shall be expended within the *taluk*. In 1882-83, the receipts of the District road fund amounted to 251,000 *l.*, including not only the road cess, but also miscellaneous sources of income mentioned above; and the receipts of the District educational fund amounted to 138,000 *l.* Other minor items, such as the Steam Boiler Inspection Fund, raised the total receipts of "Incorporated Local Funds" to 404,000 *l.* The receipts of "Excluded Local Funds," which are kept distinct for special purposes, amounted to 59,000 *l.*; the largest items being 23,000 *l.* for port funds, 21,000 *l.* for cantonments, and 4,000 *l.* for Indus conservancy.

Before the close of the period covered by this Report, a Bill was introduced into the Bombay Legislature for the purpose of "amending the law regulating the constitution and the powers and duties of the local committees, so as to secure to those bodies greater independence in administering the funds placed at their disposal for local purposes." It is proposed that not less than one-half of the members of both *taluk* and District boards shall be elected, and the remainder nominated, with the further restriction that not more than one-half of the nominated members shall be officials. The president may be elected or nominated; but, in either case, if he be an official, a vice-president is to be elected, and the president is allowed only a casting vote. The *taluk* boards are granted some degree of executive independence, though they still remain subordinate to the District boards.

VII.

COURTS OF JUSTICE, CIVIL AND CRIMINAL.

Mayor's Courts.

The early charters of the Company, from the reign of James I. onward, conferred judicial as well as legislative authority upon the Governor and Council of the several factories. This judicial authority extended to "all persons belonging to the Company or that should live under them, in all causes whether civil or criminal, according to the laws of the kingdom." But the establishment of a regular jurisdiction dates from 1726, when Mayor's Courts were established by Royal letters patent at each of the three Presidencies of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. The effect of these letters patent, as has before been mentioned, was to introduce into the Presidency towns the entire body of statute and common law then in force in England. The Mayor's Court was composed of a mayor and nine aldermen. It was made a court of record, with both civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction. Appeals lay to the Governor and Council, with an ultimate appeal in cases exceeding the value of 1,000 pagodas (say 400 l.) to the King in Council. By the same letters patent the Governor and Council were constituted courts of oyer and terminer, for the trial of all offences except high treason. Courts of Requests, for the determination of suits not exceeding five pagodas in value (say 2 l.) were established by another charter in 1753.

The Supreme Court of Judicature at Bengal.

The Regulating Act of 1772-73 (13 Geo. III. c. 3), which conferred express legislative authority upon the Governor General and Council, also constituted the Supreme Court of Judicature in Bengal, which remained substantially unchanged until 1862. The Supreme Court was composed of a chief justice and four puisne justices, all nominated by the Crown. It was declared a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer and gaol delivery for Calcutta, thus superseding the Mayor's Court. It was authorised to exercise all civil, criminal, admiralty, ecclesiastical and equity jurisdiction. Its civil jurisdiction extended to subjects of the Crown resident in Bengal, persons in the service of the Company, and any other persons who should have agreed in writing to submit themselves to the Court. Its criminal jurisdiction extended to all offences committed in Bengal by subjects of the Crown or servants of the Company. It was no doubt intended that the Supreme Court, representing the English Crown, should ultimately become the general supervisor of justice throughout Bengal; but the course of events took a different direction. The vague nature of its powers led almost immediately to difficulties with the executive authority of the Governor General and Council, and with the native revenue officials. The dispute grew so heated that it could only be settled by Parliament. By the amending Act of 1781 (21 Geo. III. c. 70), it was declared that the Supreme Court had no jurisdiction over the Governor General in his public capacity, nor over any native as farmer of land revenue. It was further enacted that the Supreme Court should apply their own laws to Hindus and Muhamadans in certain cases; and the provincial courts, both civil and criminal, were specially recognised as established by the Governor General. Before tracing the history of these provincial courts, it may be convenient to state at once that the Mayor's Courts at Madras and Bombay remained unaltered until 1797, when they were superseded by Recorder's Courts, which were again replaced by Supreme Courts on the Bengal model—at Madras in 1800 and at Bombay in 1823.

The Native Courts.

The Supreme Courts always remained Crown courts, outside the general system of justice administered in the country. That system had its origin in native law and native courts. For the present purpose, it will be sufficient to sketch the growth of judicial institutions in Bengal, for the system gradually developed in Bengal by Warren Hastings and Lord Cornwallis during the last quarter of the 18th century served as the model for the territory acquired at a later date. The native system of government was based upon the union of all authority, judicial, fiscal and military, in the same hands. At the head was the Nawab, nominally a *subahdar* or deputy of the Delhi emperor, whose authority was derived from two commissions, one of which constituted him *divan* the other *nazim*; as *divan*, he collected the revenue, and superintended the administration of civil justice; as *nazim*, he exercised criminal jurisdiction, and controlled the police. Subordinate to the Nawab, both civil and criminal jurisdiction

jurisdiction was largely entrusted to the *zamindars*, or official collectors of the revenue; but there were also special criminal courts, the highest presided over by the Naib Nazim or deputy of the Nawab, the others by judges called *faujdars*. The criminal law administered was the Muhammadan law exclusively. The civil law was Hindu or Muhammadan, as the case might require. In 1765, Emperor Shah Alam granted to Lord Clive a *firman* conferring upon the Company the *diwani* of Bengal, comprising the collection of revenue and the administration of civil justice. The *nizamat*, which included criminal jurisdiction, was by another *firman* continued to the Nawab. Accordingly, in the following year, when the Puniya or state ceremony for the collection of the revenue was held at Murshidabad, the Muhammadan capital of Bengal, Clive sat as *diwan*, and the Nawab as *nazim*. Both branches of administration still remained in native hands, the Naib Diwan being appointed directly by the English, the Naib Nazim only through their general control over the Nawab. In 1771, the Court of Directors declared their resolution "to stand forth as *diwan*, and by the agency of the Company's servants to take upon themselves the entire care and management of the revenues." Warren Hastings, who was appointed Governor of Bengal to carry out this resolution, devised a scheme which placed the entire administration of justice both civil and criminal, as well as the collection of revenue, under the supervision of English officers. Each Province or District was placed in the charge of a Collector, assisted by a native *diwan*. The Collector and *diwan* were constituted a court of civil justice, called the *diwani adalat*, from which an appeal lay to the *Sadr diwani adalat* at Calcutta, composed of the Governor and Council, also assisted by native officers. A criminal court, or *faujdari adalat*, was likewise appointed for each Province, consisting of a *kazi*, a *mufti*, and two *maulvis*, with whom the Collector sat merely to watch the proceedings. From this court an appeal lay to the *Sadr nizamat adalat*, which was composed of a *darogah*, a *kazi*, a *mufti*, and three *maulvis*, all appointed in the name of the *nazim*. It was intended that this court also should be under the supervision of the Governor and Council, for which purpose it was at first placed at Calcutta; but it was soon moved back to Murshidabad. The regulations framed by Warren Hastings for the procedure of these two sets of Provincial courts form the first attempt at English legislation in India.

This scheme of Warren Hastings was based, as the native system had been, upon the union of fiscal and judicial authority so far as possible in the same hands. The next step was to effect a separation, which has been steadily growing wider and more distinct down to the present time. In 1774, the Collectors were withdrawn, and native *amils* appointed in their stead for the administration of civil justice, the superintendence of the revenue being entrusted first to Provincial Councils and afterwards to a Committee of Revenue. In 1780, 16 courts of *diwani adalat* were created, each under the charge of a covenanted civilian styled Superintendent; and an elaborate code for their guidance was framed by Sir Elijah Impey, and translated into Persian and Bengali. In 1781 the Provincial Courts of the Company received express recognition from Parliament in the same statute that settled the conflict between the Supreme Court and the executive (21 Geo. III., c. 70). The "Governor General and Council, or some committee thereof, or appointed thereby" when sitting to hear civil appeals—in other words, the *Sadr diwani adalat*—were constituted a court of record, with an ultimate appeal to the King in Council, in cases exceeding 5,000 *l.* in value. At the same time, the Governor General and Council were empowered to frame regulations for the Provincial Courts.

Considerable changes in the administration of justice were effected by Lord Cornwallis. The *Sadr nizamat adalat*, or appellate court of criminal jurisdiction, was removed from Murshidabad to Calcutta in 1790, and was reconstituted so as to consist of the Governor General and Council, together with the *kazi* and two *muftis*; ordinary criminal jurisdiction was entrusted in 1793 to four Courts of Circuit, each composed of two (or three) covenanted civilians, with native assessors. As regards civil justice, the duties of Collector were finally separated from those of Judge in 1793. Twenty-six Civil Judges in all were appointed, each with Hindu and Muhammadan assessors. From them appeals lay to four Provincial Courts of Appeal, which were identical with the four Courts of Circuit already mentioned, and finally to the *Sadr diwani adalat*, consisting of the Governor General and Council. These Civil Judges were also constituted Magistrates, which empowered them to hold preliminary enquiries in important criminal cases, and to determine finally unimportant cases.

Subsequent changes must be noticed very briefly. In 1801, during the administration of the Marquis of Wellesley, the two appellate courts of *Sadr nizamat adalat* and *Sadr diwani adalat* were remodelled. Instead of consisting of the Governor General and Council, they were composed of three or more judges selected from the covenanted service; thus they remained until merged in the High Court in 1862. The ordinary courts of justice were constituted much in their present form by Lord William Bentinck (1828-1835). The Provincial Courts of Appeal in civil cases were abolished; full criminal jurisdiction was conferred upon the Civil District Judges, under the style of Sessions Judges; and the magisterial authority formerly exercised by the Civil Judges was transferred to the Collectors.

The Inferior Courts.

The inferior courts of civil jurisdiction outside the Presidency towns trace their origin to Lord Cornwallis, who established Courts of Native Commissioners to decide cases not exceeding 50 rupees (5 l.) in value. These Native Commissioners were of three denominations—*amins*, or referees; *sulisans*, or arbitrators; and *munsifs*, or judges. In 1803, the office of *sadr amin* was created, with jurisdiction extending to 100 rupees (10 l.), subsequently enlarged to 1,000 rupees (100 l.), while the jurisdiction of *munsifs* was similarly raised to 150 rupees (15 l.). In 1831, Lord William Bentinck instituted a new class known as Principal *sadr amins*, whose jurisdiction was afterwards made unlimited in respect of value. In 1868, the office of *sadr amin* was abolished, and the title of Principal *sadr amin* was changed to that of Subordinate Judge. An appeal lies from the Subordinate Judge to the District Judge in suits not exceeding 5,000 rupees (500 l.) in value; in suits above that value, to the High Court. Small Cause Courts, on the model of those already existing in the Presidency towns, were established in Bengal by the Indian Legislature in 1860, and have been since extended to other Provinces. In 1871, Local Governments received power to invest any Subordinate Judge with the jurisdiction of a Small Cause Court in suits up to the value of 500 rupees (50 l.), and any *munsif* in suits up to the value of 50 rupees (5 l.). From the decision of a Small Cause Court there is no appeal.

Inferior Courts in the Presidency Towns.

The inferior courts of civil jurisdiction in the Presidency towns were originally Crown Courts, like the Supreme Courts. Courts of Request were first established at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay by Royal Charter in 1753, with a jurisdiction limited to five pagodas (2 l.). The jurisdiction of the Court of Requests at Calcutta was extended by statute, and by successive proclamations; to 400 rupees (40 l.) in 1819. The judges were styled Commissioners, and were ultimately three in number. They were subject to the control of the Supreme Court. In 1850, by an Act of the Indian Legislature, Small Cause Courts were substituted for the Courts of Requests at the three Presidency towns; of three judges, one must be a barrister; and the control of the Supreme Courts was maintained. By Act XV. of 1882 the Small Cause Courts at the Presidency towns were again remodelled.

The High Courts.

The assumption of the Government of India by the Crown in 1858 did not lead at once to a simplification of the several jurisdictions. It was considered that a simplification of the law was first necessary; and this was accomplished by the passing of the Civil Procedure Code in 1859, the Criminal Procedure Code in 1860, and the Penal Code in 1861, all of which had been long previously in preparation. In 1862, a statute was passed (24 & 25 Vict. c. 104), empowering the Crown to establish, by letters patent, High Courts at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, in which the Supreme Courts, as well as *Sadr diwani adalat* and the *Sadr nizamat adalat*, were merged. The High Courts exercise jurisdiction original and appellate, civil and criminal, admiralty, testamentary and intestate, insolvent and matrimonial. Their ordinary original jurisdiction is confined to the Presidency towns, thus preserving a distinction which dates from the Charter of 1726. By their extraordinary original jurisdiction and by their appellate jurisdiction, they control all the other courts of justice, both civil and criminal, within the limits defined by their letters patent. The same Act of Parliament permitted the erection of a High Court for the North-West Provinces, which was done in 1866. In the same year a Chief Court, somewhat on the same model, was established for the Punjab by Act of the Indian Legislature. In Oudh and the Central Provinces the highest judicial authority is styled the Judicial Commissioner; but the Judicial Commissioner of Oudh is empowered to refer cases by way of appeal to the High Court of the North West Provinces. Assam (excluding the Hill Tracts) is under the Calcutta High Court. In British Burma,

Burma, the Recorder of Rangoon exercises judicial powers similar to those exercised by a High Court within a Presidency town; and he forms, when sitting with the Judicial Commissioner, a Special Court of Appellate Jurisdiction.

The constitution and jurisdiction of the ordinary civil courts is now regulated for the most part by the Indian Legislature. Between 1865 and 1873 a Civil Courts Act was passed for each one of the ten Provinces, establishing a system generally uniform, but capable of being modified by the executive authority. It will be sufficient to give here a sketch of the Bengal system, which applies substantially also to the North West Provinces, Madras, and Bombay; and a sketch of the system in the Central Provinces, which may be regarded as a typical "Non-Regulation" tract, the characteristic of which is that judicial and executive functions are united in the same hands. In Bengal the lowest class of civil judges are the *munsifs*, whose jurisdiction is limited to cases where the value of the matter in dispute does not exceed 1,000 rupees (100 l.) Next comes the Subordinate Judge, formerly called the Principal *sadr amin*, whose jurisdiction is unlimited in extent, though he is subject to the control of the District Judge. The District Judge, who is also the Sessions Judge for criminal purposes, has a three-fold civil jurisdiction. He possesses an original jurisdiction co-extensive with that of the Subordinate Judge; he hears appeals from both Subordinate Judge and *munsif*, except in cases exceeding 5,000 rupees (500 l.), when the appeal lies direct to the High Court; he exercises a general control over the other courts in his District, subject to the ultimate supervision of the High Court. In Madras the limit of the *munsif's* jurisdiction is 2,500 rupees (250 l.) In Bombay there are no *munsifs*, their place being taken by Subordinate Judges of the second class, with a jurisdiction of 5,000 rupees (500 l.) Bombay also has an intermediate grade of Assistant Judge. In the Central Provinces there are seven courts beneath the Judicial Commissioner, though no person with the title of Judge. At the bottom are two classes of *tahsildars*, graduated according to the pecuniary amount of their jurisdiction; above them three classes of Assistant Commissioners, similarly graduated; then the Deputy Commissioner, who corresponds to the District Judge of Bengal; and lastly, the Commissioner of a Division, or group of Districts, as an intermediate court of appeal beneath the Judicial Commissioner. The judicial system of Assam, British Burma, Sind, and other "Non-Regulation" tracts is similar in the main to that of the Central Provinces. In Oudh and the Punjab some approximation to the Bengal type has recently been effected. When Oudh was placed under the same government as the North West Provinces in 1878, judicial functions were separated from executive; and a staff of Judges, Subordinate Judges, and *munsifs* were appointed. Criminal jurisdiction, however, still remains with the Commissioners and Deputy Commissioners. In the Punjab, judicial authority was first separated from executive in 1875, and the reform has now been almost completely carried out.

The Civil Courts Acts.

The constitution of the criminal courts is uniform throughout India, as regulated by the Criminal Procedure Code of 1872 (amended in 1882). At the bottom are magisterial courts of three classes, graduated according to the sentences of fine, imprisonment, and whipping, which they are empowered to inflict. The Magistrate of the first, or highest, class is identical with the Collector of the district, and exercises a control over the rest. The duties of a Magistrate comprise not only the hearing of charges within his jurisdiction, but also the commitment of prisoners on graver charges to the Sessions Court or the High Court. In "Non-Regulation" Provinces the Deputy Commissioner is entrusted with larger powers than the first class Magistrate. The Sessions Judge, who is usually the same person as the Civil District Judge, or the Commissioner in a Non-Regulation Province, exercises all jurisdiction permitted by the Code, except that sentences of death require confirmation by the High Court, Chief Court, or Judicial Commissioner, as the case may be. He also hears appeals from the Magistrates, but he does not exercise any direct control over them. Trials in the Sessions Court are usually held with two or three assessors, whose verdict, however, the Judge is empowered to disregard. Trial by jury has been extended only to certain Districts and to certain classes of crime. The High Courts exercise ordinary original criminal jurisdiction over all crimes within the Presidency towns, and also over European British subjects committed by Magistrates outside those limits. The trial is always by a jury.

Criminal Courts.

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Judicial Statistics.

The actual working of the civil and criminal courts is best exhibited by a series of tables (I-VIII), which are taken from the departmental reports. They include Berar, which is under British administration; and down to 1880 they include the whole of Mysore, but after that year only the town of Bangalore.

Table I. shows the general results of the trial of civil and revenue cases in courts of original jurisdiction in all India for each of the six calendar years, 1877 to 1882. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the number of suits has increased from 1,541,276 to 1,734,573, and the value of the suits from 14,930,969 £. to 17,687,823 £., an increase that would appear yet greater if Mysore were included in the last year. By far the larger proportion of increase is in those cases which were disposed of without contest. As regards Provinces, the increase is proportionately largest in Bengal; in Bombay there is an actual decrease.

I.—STATISTICS OF CIVIL AND REVENUE COURTS OF ORIGINAL JURISDICTION, for the Six Calendar Years, 1877 to 1882.

	Number of Suits.	Number of Suits disposed of, excluding Transfers.						Total Value of Suits.
		Without Trial.	Without Contest.	With Contest.		Referred to Arbitration.	Pending at Close of Year.	
				Judgment for Plaintiff.	Judgment for Defendant.			
1877 - -	1,541,276	216,148	730,729	307,150	115,728	10,747	151,774	£. 14,930,060
1878 - -	1,592,787	217,255	776,145	311,421	107,961	9,838	170,167	17,248,847
1879 - -	1,689,429	248,858	839,548	310,580	110,849	8,818	170,774	14,818,050
1880 - -	1,675,657	247,060	820,485	308,010	110,622	9,325	180,146	15,543,285
1881* - -	1,617,483	223,031	809,137	293,775	100,301	10,667	171,482	16,544,704
1882* - -	1,734,573	238,772	870,936	315,026	115,177	10,780	177,282	17,687,823

* Excluding Mysore.

Table II. gives details of the corresponding statistics for each Province in 1882. The most noticeable features are the comparatively large number of cases (of a low average value) in the Punjab, and the small number in Bombay.

II.—DETAILS OF STATISTICS OF CIVIL AND REVENUE COURTS OF ORIGINAL JURISDICTION, 1882.

	Number of Suits.	Number of Suits disposed of, excluding Transfers.						Total Value of Suits.
		Without Trial.	Without Contest.	With Contest.		Referred to Arbitration.	Pending at Close of Year.	
				Judgment for Plaintiff.	Judgment for Defendant.			
Ajmere - -	9,146	2,686	2,801	2,000	332	191	487	£. 50,522
Berar - -	29,300	1,787	17,232	6,514	1,506	61	2,230	307,260
Bangalore - -	1,392	371	636	166	97	2	121	10,959
Coorg - -	3,214	446	1,945	559	160	2	93	39,955
Bengal - -	524,065	64,645	287,740	80,770	20,232	2,220	62,440	6,149,798
Assam - -	28,277	4,261	14,517	4,142	2,176	151	3,030	216,361
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	274,020	39,242	125,178	60,890	25,738	2,333	21,009	3,507,217
Punjab - -	290,023	51,858	132,381	60,120	25,738	3,606	16,320	1,659,847
Central Provinces	100,472	20,003	52,462	20,497	7,547	285	5,678	624,576
British Burma -	33,426	7,386	12,623	6,122	4,187	143	965	426,898
Madras - -	261,378	31,903	135,636	42,403	15,054	806	35,717	2,559,475
Bombay - -	173,860	15,283	93,777	28,676	6,740	1,181	28,202	2,140,940
TOTAL - -	1,734,573	238,772	870,936	315,026	115,177	10,780	177,282	17,687,823

Table

Table III. shows the business of the Civil and Revenue Appellate Courts in all India for each of the six years, 1877 to 1882. The total number of appeals has increased from 113,478 to 128,386; but the increase is almost entirely under the appeals rejected or withdrawn, and in those pending at the close of the year. As regards Provinces, the increase is proportionately greatest in the Punjab; in Madras there is an actual decrease.

III.—STATISTICS OF CIVIL AND REVENUE APPELLATE COURTS, for the Six Calendar Years, 1877 to 1882.

	Number of Appeals.	Rejected, Withdrawn, Dismissed for Default, &c.	Confirmed.	Modified.	Reversed.	Remanded.	Pending at Close of Year.
1877 - -	113,478	5,029	48,527	7,326	17,992	6,359	28,305
1878 - -	115,110	5,909	48,439	7,185	17,262	6,168	30,147
1879 - -	109,798	6,300	46,676	6,835	14,122	5,451	30,413
1880 - -	113,276	4,904	44,494	7,389	17,393	5,571	33,525
1881* - -	116,717	10,110	42,670	7,553	14,312	5,888	36,184
1882* - -	128,386	11,744	48,338	8,608	16,046	6,986	36,462

* Excluding Mysore.

Table IV. shows the general results of Criminal Trials in all India for each of the six calendar years, 1877 to 1882. The figures exhibit some variation, for, while the number of offences reported have increased, the number of persons brought to trial has decreased; and while the number of persons acquitted has increased, the number convicted has largely decreased. The increase in acquittals is very noticeable in the North-West Provinces and the Punjab. In Bengal, the convictions have largely increased, while they have decreased yet more largely in Madras and Bombay.

IV.—STATISTICS OF CRIMINAL TRIALS, for the Six Calendar Years, 1877 to 1882.

	Number of Offences Reported.	Number of Persons brought to Trial.	Persons whose Cases were disposed of.				Persons remaining under Trial at end of Year.
			Discharged or Acquitted.	Convicted.	Committed or Referred.	Died, Escaped, or Transferred.	
1877 - -	1,031,515	1,324,717	508,706	759,161	34,067	4,417	18,966
1878 - -	1,079,835	1,251,273	484,271	722,968	25,210	3,801	14,443
1879 - -	968,838	1,161,509	463,424	660,921	10,837	2,761	14,568
1880 - -	978,510	1,174,817	491,799	647,429	17,556	2,729	15,304
1881* - -	1,102,350	1,171,695	483,041	644,778	18,635	6,462	18,719
1882* - -	1,156,490	1,223,104	542,704	642,233	17,206	1,702	19,169

* Mysore excluded.

Table V. gives details of the corresponding statistics for each Province in 1882. The variations between offences reported, and persons brought to trial, are noticeable. In number of offences, the North-West Provinces stand first; in number of persons brought to trial, Madras. The proportion of convictions

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to acquittals is very high in Bengal; while in the Punjab and Bombay the acquittals actually out-number the convictions.

V.—DETAILS OF STATISTICS OF CRIMINAL TRIALS, 1882.

	Number of Offences Reported.	Number of Persons brought to Trial.	Persons whose Cases were disposed of.				Persons remaining under Trial at end of Year.
			Discharged or Acquitted.	Convicted.	Committed or Referred.	Died, Escaped, or Transferred.	
Ajmere - -	3,937	7,892	4,193	3,400	50	96	141
Berar - -	15,132	20,086	10,090	9,758	35	76	127
Bangalore - -	1,983	3,097	919	2,141	14	7	16
Coorg - -	1,753	2,333	1,251	1,024	28	4	28
Bengal - -	259,679	222,109	67,848	144,926	3,362	301	5,672
Assam - -	23,737	15,752	5,033	10,098	218	37	366
North-West Pro- vinces and Oudh.	329,741	241,961	108,601	125,923	4,494	529	2,584
Punjab - -	120,047	161,998	98,447	78,514	1,741	172	3,124
Central Provinces	41,519	42,127	15,854	25,360	263	210	440
British Burma -	35,879	42,275	16,212	24,840	451	185	587
Madras - -	220,235	329,603	154,868	166,019	4,462	116	4,345
Bombay - -	93,798	113,881	59,688	50,937	2,158	57	1,741
TOTAL - -	1,156,490	1,223,104	542,704	642,233	17,206	1,793	10,169

Table VI. shows the general results of Appeals in Criminal Cases for all India in each of the six calendar years, 1877 to 1882. The total number of appeals has increased from 60,121 to 69,461; and, while the number of sentences reversed has increased, the number of sentences confirmed has actually decreased. There is also an increase in the number of appeals pending at the close of the year. As regards Provinces, the most noticeable features are the large number of appeals in the North-West Provinces, and the large proportion of successful appeals in Madras.

VI.—STATISTICS OF CRIMINAL APPEALS for the Six Calendar Years, 1877 to 1882.

	Number of Appellants and Applications for Revision before the Courts.	Number of Persons.						
		Appeals or Applications Rejected.	Sentences Confirmed.	Sentences Modified and Enhanced.	Sentences Reversed.	Otherwise Disposed of.	Died, Recaped, or Transferred.	Pending Trial.
1877 -	60,121	11,249	27,709	6,009	10,156	2,807	3	2,128
1878 -	58,344	11,294	25,474	5,787	9,843	2,781	71	2,144
1879 -	57,224	12,285	23,479	5,940	10,488	2,779	13	2,533
1880 -	61,387	13,088	24,763	6,563	11,475	2,559	33	2,906
1881* -	64,617	17,027	22,831	6,718	11,700	3,387	82	2,873
1882* -	69,461	16,247	24,798	6,532	12,305	3,714	408	3,466

* Mysore excluded.

Table VII. shows the sentences awarded by the criminal tribunals in all India for each of the six calendar years, 1877 to 1882. A large decrease is exhibited in sentences of death, transportation, imprisonment, and whipping. The only increases being in fines (of which the total amount also has diminished) and in orders to give security. This decrease is no doubt partly due to the fact that the first years of the series were years of famine. As regards Provinces, the

the decrease in sentences of death is most noticeable in Bengal and Madras; in Burma there is an actual increase. The decrease in sentences of transportation is most noticeable in Madras, the North-West Provinces, and Bombay; in the Punjab there is an actual increase. Sentences of whipping have diminished from 30,909 to 2,344 in Madras, and from 34,749 to 6,649 in the North-West Provinces; in Bengal the decrease seems less, for the number was always low; and in Assam there is a slight increase.

VII.—STATISTICS OF CRIMINAL SENTENCES, for the Six Calendar Years, 1877 to 1882.

	NUMBER OF PERSONS SENTENCED TO						Total Amount of Fines Imposed.
	Death.	Trans- portation.	Imprison- ment.	Fine.	Whipping.	Ordered to give Security.	
							£
1877	688	2,540	232,544	441,836	72,815	31,147	390,198
1878	748	2,013	249,210	494,606	75,223	24,507	369,570
1879	466	1,992	188,974	450,445	39,550	30,579	406,869
1880	610	1,537	156,046	457,932	29,477	30,679	357,027
1881*	478	1,333	144,337	468,280	22,499	33,415	335,590
1882*	417	1,157	154,437	479,229	16,889	31,789	325,205

* Excluding Mysore.

Table VIII. gives details of the corresponding statistics for each Province in 1882. In sentences of death, transportation, and whipping, the North-West Provinces stand first; in sentences of fine, Madras, though Bengal exceeds Madras in the total amount of fines imposed. The Punjab, Burma, Madras, and Bombay all show a high proportion of severe sentences.

VIII.—DETAILS OF STATISTICS OF CRIMINAL SENTENCES, 1882.

	NUMBER OF PERSONS SENTENCED TO						Total Amount of Fines Imposed.
	Death.	Trans- portation.	Imprison- ment.	Fine.	Whipping.	Ordered to give Security.	
							£.
Ajmere	1	5	488	3,653	68	21	1,025
Berar	8	32	1,842	8,293	360	73	6,736
Bangalore	1	-	186	1,847	108	1	472
Coorg	-	-	226	658	52	187	750
Bengal	30	193	27,104	109,274	1,611	9,469	73,953
Assam	2	14	3,223	6,843	204	475	7,454
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	127	320	34,471	85,130	6,649	6,458	30,739
Punjab	64	186	15,556	30,309	1,878	12,863	64,593
Central Provinces	24	47	7,399	15,594	1,983	377	15,171
British Burma	43	67	7,287	17,949	788	825	23,568
Madras	57	145	33,767	132,864	2,344	271	55,039
Bombay	60	148	13,888	39,021	844	776	36,186
TOTAL	417	1,157	154,437	479,229	16,889	31,789	325,205

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Expenditure
on Law and
Justice.

The following table (I.), which is taken from the Finance Accounts, shows the total Receipts and Charges under "Law and Justice" for all India for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. If we take the Excess Charges alone after deducting the Receipts, it will be seen there was a steady increase in the first years of the series, followed by a decrease, which has again changed into an increase for the last year. Comparing the first year with the last, the increase has been from 2,373,466 l. to 2,598,137 l., being 224,671 l., or an average of 22,467 l. for each year of the decade.

I. RECEIPTS and CHARGES under LAW and JUSTICE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Receipts.	Gross Charges.	Excess Charges.
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	626,837	3,000,308	2,373,466
1874-75	606,876	3,074,440	2,467,564
1875-76	593,805	3,102,167	2,508,362
1876-77	609,033	3,173,745	2,564,712
1877-78	618,388	3,208,572	2,590,184
1878-79	647,131	3,336,077	2,688,946
1879-80	656,902	3,320,485	2,661,583
1880-81	687,764	3,249,745	2,561,981
1881-82	677,454	3,282,741	2,555,287
1882-83	656,934	3,253,071	2,596,137
TOTAL	£. 6,383,124	31,953,316	25,570,222

Table II., which is also taken from the Finance Accounts, gives the details of Receipts and Charges under "Law and Justice" for each Province in the year 1882-83, together with the Receipts for "Court Fee Stamps" taken from the Stamps revenue. The entries for the administration of Justice are so combined with those for jails that it is not easy to form separate totals for the two. Among Receipts the two most important items are "General Fees, Fines, and Forfeitures," and "Jail Manufactures." The Charges reveal, as usual, considerable differences between the systems that prevail in the several Provinces. Coroner's Courts are confined to the three Presidency towns, and Justices of the Peace likewise to the three historic Presidencies. Small Cause Courts are found in every Province but Assam. The difficulty of apportioning the expenditure between Civil and Criminal Courts is well illustrated by the fact that, while the total charge for the former considerably exceeds the total charge for the latter, in no less than five Provinces the proportion is entirely reversed. The question of the Jails will be treated separately. The most interesting feature of this Table is the result caused by the inclusion within it from the Stamps revenue of "Court Fee Stamps," which are of course as much a receipt under Law and Justice as are "Court Fees in Cash." Including this item, it appears that fees from litigation not only repay the entire cost of judicial administration, but also go a long way towards supporting the cost of jails. In three Provinces—Bengal, the Central Provinces, and Assam—there is a clear surplus; the surplus in Bengal alone amounting to as much as 124,847 l. In the North-West Provinces and the Punjab, the deficit is inconsiderable; but the excess charges in Bombay, Madras, and British Burma, together with those debited against the Government of India, change the surplus into a net deficit of 297,565 l.

II.—DETAILS OF RECEIPTS AND CHARGES UNDER LAW AND JUSTICE, 1882-83.

	India (General (and England).	Bengal.	Assam:	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
RECEIPTS:										
Sale of Unclaimed and Escheated Property	21,946	4,047	362	2,500	2,447	3,210	1,154	1,751	2,223	38,638
Court Fees in Cash	669	1,220	113	8,990	808	279	-	1,719	1,081	18,379
General Fees, Fines, and Forfeitures.	2,900	72,864	8,293	39,163	41,650	11,330	17,348	36,886	39,781	250,696
Miscellaneous	71	4,690	85	1,930	281	451	76	2,909	1,578	11,046
Convict Settlement at Port Blair	80,330	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	80,330
Phagi School of Industry	-	-	-	-	-	16,031	-	-	-	16,031
Jail Manufactures	2,089	84,115	2,297	38,030	20,147	27,806	28,529	22,759	17,149	246,302
Convict Labour	63	37	4,748	-	5,197	122	4,937	9,183	13,731	37,267
Other Jail Receipts	141	515	83	1,698	980	180	575	370	5,745	10,143
TOTAL Receipts	57,032	100,066	13,728	84,001	77,819	58,407	49,519	74,061	71,882	636,024
CHARGES:										
High Courts, Chief Court, Judicial Commissioner, Recorder	122	108,075	-	40,178	26,722	5,992	11,468	40,267	64,808	301,761
Law Officers	205	27,070	347	4,522	2,674	-	3,240	11,276	13,063	63,296
Civil and Sessions Courts	4,800	800,325	13,040	100,332	70,940	3,987	3,179	214,591	189,835	1,050,688
Criminal Courts	8,461	202,028	38,460	148,016	114,978	55,234	73,625	02,081	127,014	830,762
Coroner's Court	-	1,309	-	-	-	-	-	661	1,701	3,671
Justices of the Peace	-	6,063	-	-	-	-	-	0,394	8,173	21,142
Courts of Small Causes	444	29,818	-	6,376	3,786	3,362	2,997	6,416	25,264	78,591
Convict Charges at Port Blair, Nicobar, and Straits Settlement	133,512	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	133,512
Jails	4,826	105,307	10,501	113,413	95,075	62,085	88,688	90,367	71,411	670,382
Miscellaneous	99	11,862	-	2,013	-	-	-	-	18	14,692
Refunds	156	13,225	1,356	3,562	3,705	4,359	4,644	5,218	4,006	39,737
TOTAL in India	103,126	927,646	61,603	520,036	318,480	188,140	187,966	473,500	507,095	3,253,798
Charges in England	1,278	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,278
TOTAL Charges	153,484	927,646	61,603	520,036	318,480	188,140	187,966	473,500	507,095	3,255,076
EXCESS CHARGES	93,672	780,627	46,080	498,638	249,001	76,643	106,447	368,001	436,213	2,508,137
Deduct Court Fee Stamps	17,508	885,474	49,079	438,194	225,766	81,308	53,853	285,823	235,306	2,800,370
Not Receipts or Excess Charges	78,004	134,947	3,809	10,801	14,803	4,800	54,592	72,680	109,907	207,567

As the question of Jails has been introduced, it may be convenient to give Jail Statistics here two other Tables dealing solely with jails. They have been taken, not from

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from the Finance Accounts, but from the Departmental Jail Reports; and the period they cover is not the financial year ending on the 31st March, but the calendar year. They also include Berar, which is under British administration, though its finances are not brought into the Imperial Treasury. But, on the other hand, they do not include Ajmere, for which the Departmental Reports are not available. For these reasons the figures do not agree with those taken from the Finance Accounts.

Table III. shows certain Jail Statistics for the whole of India for each of the six calendar years, 1877-82. It is difficult to draw any conclusions from this table, because Mysore is included for the first four years and not for the last two, having been restored to its Raja in 1880. A far more important consideration is the great famine which extended over the three years, 1877-79. This affected the jail statistics in three ways: (1.) by directly increasing the number of prisoners, for crimes against property are among the earliest indications of scarcity; (2.) by augmenting the price of rations; (3.) by causing an abnormally high death-rate, the prisoners being in weak health and especially liable to disease. During the three famine years (1877-79) the total daily number of prisoners averaged 115,995, as compared with only 76,471 for the year following (1880), Mysore being included in each case. In Madras alone, the number of prisoners received during 1877 was 70,802, as compared with only 16,299 during 1882; and in the North-West Provinces, the number received during 1878 was 176,585, as compared with 89,614 in 1882. In the same three famine years, the cost of prison rations averaged 3*l.* 3*s.* per head, as compared with 1*l.* 18*s.* 9*d.* in 1882, the cost in Madras alone having reached 6*l.* 4*s.* 11*d.* per head in 1877. The general death-rate for the three famine years was 7·8 per hundred, as compared with 4·0 per hundred in 1882, the highest death-rates having been 17·4 in Madras in 1877, 12·2 in Bombay in 1878, and 27·0 in Mysore in 1878.

III.—JAIL STATISTICS for the Six Calendar Years, 1877 to 1882.*

	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.†	1882.†
Daily Average Number of Prisoners:	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Convicts - - - -	102,216	118,914	106,869	72,503	86,019	79,026
Under Trial - - - -	6,254	5,008	4,650	8,142	3,670	3,649
Civil - - - -	969	1,150	1,047	897	1,082	1,093
TOTAL - - - -	109,439	125,072	112,575	76,471	90,771	83,762
Death Rate per Hundred of Average Strength.	7·3	9·0	7·0	5·3	4·3	4·0
TOTAL Cost - - - -	£. 724,522	£. 707,391	£. 685,807	£. 558,517	£. 480,946	£. 471,142
Cost per Head of Average Strength.	£. s. d. 6 12 9	£. s. d. 6 3 5	£. s. d. 5 19 8	£. s. d. 5 12 7	£. s. d. 5 6 10	£. s. d. 5 7 1

* Excluding Ajmere.

† Mysore excluded.

Table IV. gives details of the corresponding jail statistics for each Province in the calendar year 1882. The daily number of prisoners in the North-West Provinces seems excessive, though it is much below the average for the previous years. Both the death-rate and the cost, however, are very low. The proportion of prisoners in the Punjab and in British Burma is also large. The death-rate in the jails of Bengal always runs high. The extremely low death-rate for the year in Berar is noticeable.

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IV.—JAIL STATISTICS, according to PROVINCES, for the Calendar Year 1882.*

	Bahr.	Coorg.	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
Daily Average Number of Prisoners:	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Convicts	1,151	88	14,801	1,361	34,066	12,389	4,009	4,242	8,871	8,878	79,826
Under Trial -	19	7	1,101	104	1,895	826	109	113	114	141	8,645
Civil	7	9	258	90	231	124	37	56	162	161	1,008
TOTAL	1,177	98	16,160	1,485	36,202	13,109	4,156	4,411	9,067	9,180	89,479
Death Rate per Hundred of Average Strength.	9	12.3	6.7	3.1	2.2	4.2	7.3	2.7	4.8	3.3	4.0
TOTAL Cost	£. 6,006	£. 1,115	£. 95,787	£. 12,480	£. 96,482	£. 77,227	£. 20,178	£. 22,142	£. 70,091	£. 52,792	£. 471,142
Cost per Head of Average Strength	£. s. d. 5 18 4	£. s. d. 1 10 4	£. s. d. 5 18 7	£. s. d. 8 8 2	£. s. d. 3 18 -	£. s. d. 5 18 4	£. s. d. 4 17 1	£. s. d. 7 10 1	£. s. d. 7 18 11	£. s. d. 6 10 11	£. s. d. 5 7 1

* Ajmere not included.

VIII.

POLICE.

The Old Police.

The organisation of a regular police force for the prevention and detection of crime is a comparatively late achievement of British rule. According to the native system which was found in existence, the maintenance of good order was a matter of local responsibility intimately connected with the payment of revenue. Throughout the greater part of India the village commune was, at least in theory, the unit of administration for every purpose; and the head-man of the village, with the village watchman as his special deputy for this purpose, was held answerable for all crimes committed within the limits of the village. Where, as in Bengal, the authority of the *zamindar* had to a great extent superseded the village system, it was one of the express terms of his appointment that he should be responsible for the preservation of the peace within his jurisdiction. His right to collect revenue was in fact correlative with his duty of assisting the government by all the means in his power. So far as the government itself was concerned, police functions formed part of the administration of criminal justice, under the name of *nizamat* or *faujdari*. It has already been stated that, when the *diwani* of Bengal was conferred upon the Company in 1765, the *nizamat* or criminal jurisdiction was allowed to remain for several years longer under the nominal control of the Nawab. It was not until 1790 that the *nizamat* court was finally removed by Lord Cornwallis from Murshidabad to Calcutta. Two years later, the responsibility for the police was withdrawn from the *zamindars*, and placed in the hands of European Magistrates. Each District was divided into police jurisdictions, or *thanas*, of about 20 square miles, under the charge of a native superintendent or *daroga*, who was appointed by the Magistrate, and was placed under his direct control. The *daroga* was empowered to maintain a body of constables or *barkandazs* at the expense of government, and to apprehend and send to the Magistrate persons charged with crime. This was the origin of a stipendiary police force, under the orders of the chief executive officer of a District, which remained substantially unaltered in Bengal until 1861. It is only necessary to state that a Superintendent of police for the whole Province was appointed in 1808, that his duties were transferred to the judicial Commissioners of Circuit in 1829, and that he was re-appointed in 1837. The Bengal system of police was, in its essential features, introduced into the North-West Provinces; the Madras and Bombay systems were framed on a different model. At the beginning of the century a stipendiary police under *darogas* had been introduced into Madras, at the same time as the attempt was made to copy the Permanent Settlement of Bengal. But in 1816 the establishments of *darogas* were abolished, and the village system was called back to life. Ordinary police duties were entrusted to the village head-men, with their subordinate staff. They were directed to apprehend offenders and send them to the *tahsildars* or native revenue collectors, who were appointed heads of police of their Districts, under the general supervision of the European Magistrate. The Madras organisation, with its village head-men and District police officers under the control of the Magistrate, was adopted in Bombay in 1818; but the general supervision was entrusted, not to the executive government as in Madras, but to the *sadr faujdari*, or supreme criminal court.

The Reformed System.

Neglecting minor differences, the police throughout India under the Company may be described as a local force, subordinate in each District to the Magistrate. The disadvantages of this system were obvious. The force itself was imperfectly organised; and the Magistrate was overburdened with other duties that tended to weaken his supervision over the police. The duties of Magistrate and Police Superintendent were first separated in the Presidency towns. A similar principle was adopted by Sir Charles Napier in Sind, when he was called upon to organise an administration of that Province after its conquest in 1843. Sir Charles Napier took as his model the Irish constabulary. He constituted the Sind police as a department of the executive government independent of the judicial authority; and he introduced a certain amount of military discipline. In 1847, some of the most valuable features of the Sind system were adopted throughout Bombay; and when the Punjab was annexed in 1849 the police was organised on the same principles, though with still greater regard for soldierly efficiency. The reform of the Madras police was stimulated by the disclosures

disclosures of what is known as the Torture Commission. In 1858 a police department was formed, distinct from the revenue and magisterial departments, and was placed in charge of Mr. (now Sir William) Robinson, who had made a special study of the Irish system. For Bengal and the rest of Northern India a general Police Act on the same lines was passed in 1861; the existing system in Bombay is regulated by a local Act of 1867.

The characteristics of the new system are that the police is now organised as a separate Department of government in every Province, with its own hierarchy of officers, from Inspector General downwards; that the men are drilled, disciplined, and armed with some regard to military considerations; and that harmony is maintained with the local system of administration by placing the Police Superintendent in every District under the general control of the Magistrate.

Apart from the regular or stipendiary police, the immemorial institution of the village watchman still survives, more or less completely, almost everywhere throughout India. The English Government has never abandoned the theory that the prevention and detection of crime is a local responsibility, but it has for the most part neglected to maintain the efficiency of the village watchman, and to harmonise the working of the rural and stipendiary systems. In the North-West Provinces alone is the *chaukidar*, or village watchman, paid in money. His pay is three rupees a month (say 3 l. a year), levied as a rate upon land together with the Government revenue. Elsewhere the village watchmen are remunerated either by a grant of land held rent free, or at a quit rent, or by a share of the crop, or by fees and other perquisites. Their position, in general, is far from satisfactory. For the detection of local crime their services must, from the nature of the case, be invaluable; but they have little stimulus for exertion, and suffer from the consciousness of neglect. In both Bengal and Bombay a reform of the village police is now under consideration.

The Village Watch.

In the calendar year 1882, the total sanctioned strength of the police in British India (excluding village watchmen) amounted to 137,377 officers and men, of whom 54,180 were armed with firearms, 45,215 with swords, and 57,529 with batons only. This total includes the following on special duties: 3,088 mounted constables, chiefly in Bombay, the Punjab, the North-West, and the Central Provinces; 629 water constables, chiefly in Bengal, Burma, and Madras; 3,710 officers and men as jail guards; 9,926 officers and men as guards over lockups and treasuries, and as escort to prisoners and treasure. The total cost was 2,378,143 l., of which 176,706 l. was defrayed from special sources.

Police Statistics.

The following table (I.), which is taken from the Finance Accounts, shows the total receipts and charges in connection with police for all India for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. If we take the excess charges alone, after deducting the receipts, it will be seen that the net cost of the police has grown from 2,204,880 l. in the first year of the series to 2,415,250 l. in the last year, being a total increase of 210,370 l., or an average increase of 21,037 l. for each year.

I.—RECEIPTS AND CHARGES IN CONNECTION WITH POLICE, 1873-74 TO 1882-83.

YEAR.	Receipts.	Gross Charges.	Excess Charges.
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - - -	238,528	2,443,418	2,204,880
1874-75 - - - - -	207,980	2,450,088	2,242,108
1875-76 - - - - -	234,730	2,473,340	2,238,604
1876-77 - - - - -	216,256	2,517,708	2,300,852
1877-78 - - - - -	255,254	2,487,615	2,232,161
1878-79 - - - - -	211,108	2,423,627	2,212,519
1879-80 - - - - -	227,357	2,497,755	2,270,098
1880-81 - - - - -	241,709	2,520,663	2,278,954
1881-82 - - - - -	248,005	2,553,861	2,305,856
1882-83 - - - - -	297,642	2,642,892	2,415,250
TOTAL - - - £.	2,309,645	25,016,997	22,707,422

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Table II., which is also taken from the Finance Accounts, gives the details of receipts and charges in connection with police for each Province in the year 1882-83. Among receipts, the only large item is Fees, Fines, and Forfeitures. The charges exhibit the differences of system that prevail in the several Provinces. In the North-West Provinces alone is the whole charge for the village police brought into the accounts, though a considerable portion is also debited in Bombay and British Burma. British Burma, again, is the only Province, besides Bengal, in which municipal police forms a large item.

II.—DETAILS OF RECEIPTS AND CHARGES IN CONNECTION WITH POLICE, 1882-83.

	India (General).	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
RECEIPTS:										
Railway Companies - - - -	-	-	-	7,285	3,792	1,248	-	30	2,553	14
Public Departments, Private Persons, &c.	696	1,516	16	1,361	1,483	715	6	5,496	1,147	10
Municipalities, &c. - - - -	-	-	-	10,387	-	199	-	8,473	5,098	24
Village Police - - - - -	-	4,853	-	-	-	-	28	-	1,008	5
Fees, Fines, and Forfeitures - -	714	36,65	4,860	18,401	9,411	15,389	4,579	25,728	16,976	132
Contributions for Pensions - -	52	673	9	1,047	208	88	34	300	1,427	3
Miscellaneous - - - - -	5,905	5,073	3,914	2,066	3,607	1,466	286	1,050	18,649	25
TOTAL RECEIPTS - - - £.	7,377	46,645	8,799	41,117	18,510	19,038	4,992	30,014	30,660	237
CHARGES:										
Presidency Towns - - - - -	-	18,611	-	-	-	-	-	18,206	16,659	83
Provincial Superintendents - -	-	12,051	2,645	12,012	14,011	3,753	4,197	21,011	1,876	71
District Executive Police - - -	15,444	259,173	72,387	232,950	340,180	117,870	151,061	292,147	322,937	1,945
Government Railway Police - -	9,956	4,737	-	9,440	11,562	4,000	985	-	15,973	85
Municipal Police - - - - -	-	18,861	-	2,850	-	-	22,080	-	-	48
Village Police - - - - -	-	8,096	61	231,881	-	-	22,485	449	78,749	351
Guards for Customs, Salt, and Public Works.	-	-	-	-	1,628	-	-	18,446	-	24
Special Police - - - - -	613	18,579	4,847	4,163	17,990	-	11,899	-	-	51
Collection of Cattle Trespass Fines -	340	9,942	1,416	4,047	2,002	4,900	158	12,521	5,673	24
Miscellaneous - - - - -	6,010	8,118	-	520	302	218	197	2,169	1,089	15
TOTAL CHARGES - - - £.	34,302	446,063	81,786	596,739	382,306	150,748	223,318	390,349	450,949	2,642
EXCESS CHARGES - - - - -	27,065	399,418	73,087	555,642	264,066	111,702	218,326	360,735	11,280	2,415

The two remaining tables (III. and IV.) are taken, not from the Finance Accounts, but from the Departmental Police Reports for the several Provinces; and the period they cover is not the financial year ending on 31st March, but the calendar year. The tables also include Berar, which is a Province under British administration, though its finances are not brought into the Imperial Treasury. The figures, therefore, do not agree with those in the previous tables.

Table III. shows certain police statistics (excluding altogether the village police) for all India for the six years, 1877 to 1882. It is difficult to draw any conclusions from this table, because Mysore is included for the first four years, and not for the last two, having been restored to its native Raja in 1880. It must be sufficient to say that there is a growing tendency to charge the entire cost of police upon Imperial or Provincial Revenues, this heading having increased from 2,165,433 l. in the first year of the series to 2,201,437 l. in the last year, despite the loss of Mysore; while the cost payable from other sources has decreased in the same period from 346,631 l. to 176,706 l.

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III.—POLICE STATISTICS for the Six Calendar Years, 1877 to 1882.

	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.*	1882.*
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Number of Officers - - -	16,239	16,034	16,180	15,976	15,441	15,775
" Constables - - -	130,383	127,333	126,189	126,731	121,859	121,002
TOTAL Number - - -	146,622	143,367	142,369	142,607	137,300	137,377
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Cost payable from Imperial or Provincial Revenues - - -	2,165,433	2,064,371	2,138,045	2,143,141	2,079,287	2,201,437
Cost payable from other sources	346,631	294,968	291,365	263,679	251,187	176,706
TOTAL Cost - - - £.	2,512,064	2,359,339	2,429,410	2,406,820	2,330,474	2,378,143

* Mysore excluded.

Table IV. gives the details of the corresponding police statistics for each Province in the calendar year 1882. The differences of system in the several Provinces again reveal themselves, both in the relative proportion of officers to men, and in the amount of cost payable by local bodies.

IV.—POLICE STATISTICS, according to Provinces, for the Calendar Year 1882.

	Ajmere.	Bera.	Coorg.	Bangalore.	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Number of Officers - - -	98	493	5	68	3,722	533	4,633	629	1,370	648	480	2,058	15,775
" Men - - -	506	2,134	49	227	21,224	3,324	20,931	19,830	7,740	6,599	22,989	16,050	121,602
TOTAL Number - - -	604	2,627	54	305	24,956	4,067	25,564	-	8,810	7,247	23,419	19,138	137,377
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Cost payable from Imperial or Provincial Revenues.	7,240	45,515	1,197	4,161	437,169	78,790	259,749	268,329	120,237	176,869	266,729	212,434	2,201,437
Cost payable from other sources -	1,250	2,529	-	2,926	-	669	79,700	54,611	4,415	16,784	-	20,218	176,706
TOTAL Cost - - - £.	8,490	48,044	1,197	7,087	437,169	79,459	439,449	322,940	124,652	193,653	266,729	232,652	2,378,143

IX.

REGISTRATION.

So far back as 1799 a Regulation was passed in Bombay for the registration of assurances. This was incorporated, with amendments, into Elphinstone's Bombay Code of 1827. As regards the rest of India, the attention of Government seems to have been first called to the subject by the Court of Directors in 1837, but no general enactment was passed until 1864. The existing law, as codified and amended, is contained in Act III. of 1877, which is in force throughout India under British administration.

Under this Act, assurances are divided into two classes, those of which registration is compulsory, and those of which registration is optional. The former class consists of (1) deeds of gift and other non-testamentary documents (including receipts) affecting the disposal of immoveable property of the value of 100 rupees (10 l.) or upwards; (2) leases of immoveable property for any term exceeding one year. The latter class consists of (1) deeds of gift of immoveable property and other non-testamentary documents (including receipts) affecting immoveable property of the value of less than 100 rupees (10 l.); (2) leases of immoveable property for a term less than one year; (3) documents affecting moveable property; (4) wills; (5) all other documents of which registration is not compulsory.

In each Province registration forms a Department under the supervision of an Inspector General. The actual work of registration is performed in some cases by the regular executive staff, in other cases by special officers. The mode of payment is by fees, at the rate of 2 l. 5 s. per cent. *ad valorem*, with a minimum of 4. *annas* (6 d.), and also by copying fees. The total receipts are credited to the Department, and now form part of the Provincial revenue; the registration officers are remunerated partly by salary, partly by a commission on the fees.

In accordance with the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act of 1879, a special system of registration is in force in four Districts of Bombay—Ahmadnagar, Poona, Satara, and Sholapur. In these four Districts all documents executed by an agriculturist that relate to money, all mortgages, sales, and leases are required to be written and signed before village registrars appointed for the purpose.

The registration of Joint Stock Companies, on the plan of the English Companies Act, was first introduced in 1866, and is now regulated by an amending Act passed in 1882. Literary societies and libraries are registered under a Act of 1860.

Following table (I.) gives the financial results of Registration in all India during the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. It will be seen that there has been an increase in both revenue and expenditure in each successive year. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the increase of gross revenue is 103,451 l., or 57 per cent.; the increase of expenditure is 62,462 l., or 51 per cent.; and the increase of net revenue is 40,989 l., or 68 per cent. Taking the last year alone, the cost of collection is at the rate of 64 per cent. on the gross revenue.

I.—GROSS and NET REVENUE from REGISTRATION, 1873-74 to 1883-84.

	Gross Revenue.	Charges for Collection.	Net Revenue.
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	182,378	122,039	60,339
1874-75 - - - -	185,160	130,217	54,943
1875-76 - - - -	187,651	136,449	51,202
1876-77 - - - -	199,253	141,458	57,795
1877-78 - - - -	234,100	149,670	84,430
1878-79 - - - -	266,361	160,800	105,561
1879-80 - - - -	260,239	165,208	104,031
1880-81 - - - -	281,230	173,351	107,879
1881-82 - - - -	284,714	179,401	105,313
1882-83 - - - -	285,829	184,501	101,328
TOTAL - - - - £.	2,375,984	1,543,100	832,884

Table

Table II., which is also taken from the Finance Accounts, shows the details of revenue and expenditure under Registration for each Province in the year 1882-83.

II.—DETAILS of REGISTRATION REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	India, General.	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
REVENUE.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Fees for Registering Documents	780	89,317	2,677	125	13,273	3,686	1,347	33,163	25,433	219,054
Fees for Copies	20	2,590	65	2,650	3,383	3,011	23	1,577	414	19,642
Revenue Record Room Receipts	23	3,473	469	35,247	6,048	82	-	-	986	41,326
Land Registration Fees	66	831	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	941
Miscellaneous	3	2,737	35	231	13	1,073	49	306	506	4,844
TOTAL REVENUE	890	103,988	3,160	60,153	22,716	6,854	1,819	37,945	26,844	283,839
EXPENDITURE:										
Refunds	4	946	28	87	51	20	3	198	343	1,864
Superintendence	-	7,387	245	2,238	1,933	864	-	3,439	2,673	18,989
District Charges	401	43,715	1,409	16,037	6,833	1,931	1,041	41,620	31,563	133,224
Revenue Record Room Charges	-	7,163	388	14,770	2,940	28	-	-	530	25,323
Land Registration Charges	-	4,468	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,468
TOTAL EXPENDITURE	405	63,676	2,068	33,792	11,777	2,941	1,043	45,346	26,123	166,187
NET REVENUE - £.	445	40,312	1,092	26,361	10,939	3,913	776	12,599	2,115	99,642

Table III., which is taken from the departmental returns, gives other details of Registration for the same year. As regard receipt and expenditure, there are important discrepancies between the two tables, which it would be hopeless to attempt to explain; but it may be stated that Berar is not included in the Finance Accounts, while Ajmere is (apparently) omitted from the Departmental Reports. Details of Registration.

III.—DETAILS of REGISTRATIONS effected in 1882-83.

	Number of Offices.	Number of Registrations.					Value of Property Transferred.			Gross Receipts.	Expenditure.	Net Receipts.
		Immovable Property.			Moveable.	GRAND TOTAL.	Immovable.	Moveable.	TOTAL.			
		Compulsory.	Optional.	TOTAL.								
Berar	86	14,904	4,867	19,771	2,427	22,218	473,625	37,707	510,332	5,684	3,030	2,654
Coorg	16	474	38	513	63	575	65,739	30,761	97,490	377	171	196
Bengal	285	307,909	146,521	454,430	101,011	555,141	10,363,597	1,877,761	12,741,358	94,810	49,618	45,292
Assam	23	7,769	3,783	11,553	2,784	14,319	299,175	116,841	406,016	3,614	1,655	1,959
North-West Provinces and Oudh	246	93,651	45,074	138,325	44,133	183,457	6,383,454	939,401	7,253,065	24,719	13,971	10,748
Punjab	201	41,507	11,390	52,797	10,768	63,565	2,193,459	211,009	2,403,198	16,514	3,663	7,849
Central Provinces	74	13,693	4,789	18,481	3,333	21,804	766,490	37,384	814,144	6,331	2,912	3,339
British Burma	74	6,337	471	6,708	1,317	8,025	640,739	234,373	875,112	1,776	994	782
Madras	307	215,933	158,406	404,361	81,030	485,391	11,296,237	861,484	12,156,901	37,471	35,036	2,435
Bombay	248	63,622	17,943	80,265	4,826	84,908	4,764,281	223,040	5,007,321	23,631	22,234	3,367
TOTAL	1,633	764,419	423,508	1,187,923	201,963	1,389,885	37,723,408	4,610,071	43,268,077	243,847	103,235	82,612

Taking table III. only, and comparing it with corresponding figures for the previous years, it appears that registration of assurances on the whole displays no tendency to increase in number, though there is a slight increase in value.

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value. Among the Provinces Bengal just surpasses Madras, in both number and value, while it exceeds all the others put together in the amount of net revenue. Madras closely presses Bengal in number and value, actually surpassing Bengal in the optional registration of assurances of immoveable property, and also in the total value of immoveable property transferred; but the gross revenue is much less and the expenditure higher, so that the net revenue is insignificant. The figures for Bombay are very small throughout. The North-West Provinces and Oudh show a result only second to Bengal, and the figures for the Punjab closely resemble, as usual, those for the North-West. The Central Provinces is the only case in which the expenditure is less than one-half of the revenue, though the Punjab also stands well in this respect. The Central Provinces, together with British Burma, show the greatest improvement in registration during recent years.

Village Registration in the Deccan.

Special interest attaches to the compulsory system of village registration under the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act, which has now been in force for three years. Its operation extends over four Districts of Bombay, with 4,648 villages, which have been grouped into 223 circles, each containing about 20 villages. At first the *kulkarnis*, or village accountants, were employed, but it has now been found necessary to engage a special staff of village registrars. In 1882-83 the total number of registrations was 10,528, being a decrease of 3,137 on the previous year, confined to documents relating to moveable property. The aggregate value of property affected by the documents registered amounted to 742,701 *l.*, being an increase of 7,310 *l.*; the average value in each case was 6 *l.* 14 *s.* The total expenditure was 4,815 *l.*, and the total receipts from fees 3,192 *l.*, showing an excess expenditure of 1,623 *l.* The aim of this special system of registration was to bring to the light of publicity all dealings between the *saukar*, or money-lender, and the *rayat*, or cultivator. The results apparently have been to discourage loans on personal security, and also mortgages, but to increase the number of sales and leases, the land passing into the legal possession of the money-lender, and the cultivator becoming his tenant, often with an understanding that he may recover possession on repayment of the purchase-money. It happens that recent years have been marked by bountiful harvests, so that the policy of the Act has not yet been tested by agricultural distress. Inasmuch, however, as difficulties are put in the way of borrowing, it is hoped that the cultivators have retained in their own hands the surplus of their crops, and are thus enabled to resist better the future pressure of unfavourable seasons.

Registration of Joint Stock Companies.

Table IV. shows the total number of Joint Stock Companies which have been registered in India (including Mysore and Berar) up to 31st March 1883. The large number of banking companies in Madras and Mysore is noticeable; most of them are mutual loan societies. The miscellaneous companies in Burma are chiefly for the formation of markets; the other entries explain themselves.

IV.—JOINT STOCK COMPANIES REGISTERED UP TO 31ST MARCH 1883.

	Mysore.	Berar.	Bengal (including Assam).	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
Companies Working:										
Banking	30	-	17	18	5	-	1	72	1	124
Insurance	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	5	5
Mills and Presses	-	-	28	3	1	1	-	5	79	114
Mining and Quarrying	-	-	8	-	2	-	-	6	7	19
Planting	-	-	117	3	2	-	-	6	2	130
Trading	2	1	47	16	9	1	1	10	31	118
Miscellaneous	-	-	3	-	1	-	10	4	5	23
TOTAL	33	1	210	33	21	2	12	128	128	547
Companies being Wound up, or having discontinued business	41	-	68	8	5	-	2	31	80	227
Companies Dissolved, or never having commenced business	21	-	123	15	15	1	4	51	121	451
GRAND TOTAL	94	1	417	56	40	3	18	215	387	1,225

X.

FINANCE.

In this chapter it is proposed to deal with Finance in general, that is to say Finance in general with the figures of Revenue and Expenditure as mere matters of account, disregarding alike the sources of revenue and the objects of expenditure. Finance in general, Land Revenue, and also the other principal heads of revenue, will be treated separately in later chapters. No attempt will be made to carry back the subject over a long period of history. The gradual extension of the Indian Empire would of itself be sufficient to render such a comparative treatment misleading. But even more important than the changes in area are the changes that have been introduced from time to time into the form of the accounts. In the Appendix to the Financial Statement for 1884-85, are tables of the Accounts from 1871-72 to 1882-83 prepared in the form now adopted, and, in order to make a true comparison, reference will be made to those figures, rather than to the Accounts which had been annually presented to Parliament.

The only way to show clearly the main features of Indian finance is by a series of tables, with a short explanation appended to each, even though this may involve some repetition. So far as possible, the present form of accounts has been adopted throughout; and the rupee is taken at the conventional exchange of 2 s.

Table I. gives an abstract of the gross revenue and expenditure in 1882-83, compared with each of the four decennial years, 1842-43, 1852-53, 1862-63, and 1872-73. For shortness, the figures are expressed in millions sterling approximately to two decimal places. For reasons already implied, no useful comparison can be made between the different periods, though something will be attempted further on for the last decade. It must suffice here to point out the great increase that took place under every head between 1852-53 and 1862-63, a period that includes the Mutiny and the assumption of the Government by the Crown. During the same ten years the debt increased by nearly 50 millions, or just two fold.

I.—ABSTRACT OF GROSS REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE for each of the FIVE Decennial Years, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

	REVENUE.						EXPENDITURE.							TOTAL.	Surplus or Deficit.
	Land.	Opium.	Taxes.	Public Works.	Miscellaneous.	TOTAL.	Claims on Revenue, Charges of Collection, &c.	Civil Administration.	Interest.	Army.	Public Works.	Famine.	Miscellaneous.		
1842-43	£. Mil. 18.50	£. Mil. 2.00	£. Mil. 5.75	-	£. Mil. 1.20	£. Mil. 22.60	£. Mil. 5.28	£. Mil. 5.32	£. Mil. 2.47	£. Mil. 10.61	£. Mil. .19	-	-	£. Mil. 23.87	£. Mil. -1.27
1852-53	16.19	5.09	5.82	-	1.51	28.61	6.56	6.48	3.30	11.09	.55	-	-	27.98	+ .63
1862-63	19.57	8.06	13.55	.44	3.52	45.14	8.49	7.39	5.47	14.80	5.97	-	1.11	43.32	+1.82
1872-73	21.37	8.69	16.25	3.90	6.10	56.31	7.26	9.62	5.57	15.50	10.63	-	5.06	54.54	+1.77
1882-83	21.67	9.50	17.66	13.03	8.04	70.12	8.48	10.95	4.47	17.44	18.90	1.50	7.68	69.42	+ .70

Table II. gives the gross totals of revenue and expenditure in each of the ten years from 1873-74 to 1882-83, with the figures for 1872-73 included. The net deficit for the entire period amounts to 5,449,089 l. During the same ten years (as will be shown in a subsequent table) the debt increased by 53,803,475 l., but against this there falls to be set off a capital expenditure on Productive Public Works,

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Works, amounting to 56,050,095 £. Between 1872-73 and 1882-83 the revenue increased by 13,819,052 £, and the expenditure by 14,878,091 £, the difference between these two figures representing the amount by which the surplus in the former year exceeded the surplus in the latter. Considerably more than one-half the increase under revenue is due to the single heading of Productive Public Works, which yielded 3,228,718 £. in the former year, and 12,224,100 £., in the latter year, being an augmentation of nearly four-fold. But about 1,800,000 £. of this augmentation is merely a matter of account, due to the transfer of the East Indian Railway to the State, and the consequent change in the mode of entering the gross receipts. Under the principal heads of revenue (a title that will be explained later on) the increase is from 47,821,916 £. to 50,953,611 £., or more than 6 per cent. Customs has decreased by more than 1,360,000 £., assessed taxes by about 84,000 £., and salt remains stationary, owing in each case to changes in the imposition of taxation; but every other item has improved, stamps by as much as one quarter, and excise by more than one half. Turning to expenditure, we again find more than half the increase accounted for by Public Works. In 1872-73, the expenditure out of revenue on Productive Public Works amounted to 5,458,111 £., and on Public Works not classed as productive to 5,176,015 £. In 1882-83, the corresponding figures were 11,741,747 £. and 7,165,747 £., showing an increase under the two headings added together of as much as 8,273,368 £. Another large item of increase is Exchange on transactions with London (to be explained later) which amounted to only 691,287 £. in the former year as compared with 3,081,433 £. in the latter year. Of expenditure proper, Civil Departments show an increase of about 1,300,000 £., and Army Services of nearly two millions. Under Interest on Ordinary Debt there is an actual decrease of more than one million, from 5,564,444 £. to 4,468,132 £. The heading of Famine Relief was not introduced into the Accounts till 1873-74, in which year the charge was 3,864,706 £. In 1882-83 the expenditure on Famine Relief and Insurance was only 1,500,000 £., of which, moreover, only 22,103 £. was actually expended in relief, nearly the whole of the remainder being applied to the reduction of debt.

II.—GROSS REVENUE and EXPENDITURE in 1872-73, and in each of the TEN Years, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Gross Revenue.	Gross Expenditure.	Surplus or Deficiency of Revenue.	
			Surplus.	Deficiency.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
1872-73	56,806,170	54,540,507	1,765,672	—
1873-74	56,412,370	58,220,088	—	1,807,668
1874-75	58,011,148	57,691,951	819,197	—
1875-76	58,911,734	57,242,809	1,668,945	—
1876-77	58,551,870	60,767,048	—	2,182,778
1877-78	61,973,651	65,416,738	—	3,543,087
1878-79	65,065,310	63,031,070	2,034,240	—
1879-80	68,372,840	69,555,795	—	1,182,949
1880-81	73,034,778	77,670,128	—	4,044,356
1881-82	75,144,601	72,561,874	2,582,727	—
1882-83	70,125,231	69,416,598	708,633	—
TOTAL for the Ten Years	£. 646,130,560	651,585,649	7,311,748	12,700,837
			Net Deficiency	£. 5,449,089

Again,

Again, taking up table II. as a whole, it should be observed that a considerable portion of the total expenditure of 651,585,649 *l.* during the ten years may fairly be regarded as "extraordinary." By this it is not meant that the items will not recur—many of them in fact are permanent charges—but only that they are not of the nature of ordinary expenditure on administration. First of these extraordinary heads is Famine Relief and Insurance, upon which a total of 17,652,889 *l.* was expended in the ten years. Of this, 14,709,841 *l.* was actually devoted to the relief of starvation, chiefly in the two periods of 1873-75, (Bengal) and 1876-78 (Southern India); 485,450 *l.* was assigned to protective railways, 398,892 *l.* to protective irrigation, and 2,058,706 *l.* to reduction of debt. The second extraordinary heading is Special Military Operations, showing a total of 19,808,241 *l.*, of which 18,524,288 *l.* was for the war in Afghanistan and 1,283,953 *l.* for the war in Egypt. Against this, however, must be set off a total of 6,592,738 *l.* included in the revenue under the same heading, which is composed of 6,008,035 *l.* for the Afghan War, and 584,703 *l.* for the Egyptian War, of which amounts 5,000,000 *l.* in the former case, and 500,000 *l.* in the latter, were repaid to India by England. The net war expenditure of the ten years amounts, therefore, to 13,215,503 *l.* Whether the heading of "Public Works not classed as Productive" should be reckoned as extraordinary may be doubted; though certainly the outlay of 4,112,147 *l.* on Frontier Railways, undertaken for special military purposes may be so classed. But it is right to put on record that the total expenditure on this account during the ten years amounted to 59,357,462 *l.*, from which 7,497,293 *l.* on the revenue side should be deducted, leaving a net expenditure of 51,860,169 *l.* It remains to mention the heading of Exchange, which absorbed a total of 22,142,501 *l.* on the expenditure side of the account during the ten years.

Extraordinary Expenditure.

Table III. shows the main headings of gross revenue and gross expenditure for 1882-83, with the figures for 1872-73 included for comparison. The main results of such a comparison have already been given. Something will now be said about those headings which seem to need explanation.

Headings of Revenue and Expenditure.

III.—GROSS REVENUE and EXPENDITURE in 1872-73 and in 1882-83.

REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.		
	1872-73.	1882-83.		1872-73.	1882-83.
PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE:	£.	£.		£.	£.
Land	21,875,076	21,878,047	Interest	5,504,444	4,408,132
Opium	8,684,001	9,499,594	Direct Demands on the Revenue	7,962,754	8,470,968
Salt	6,167,032	6,177,781	Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint	1,939,077	1,908,669
Stamps	2,610,025	3,378,681	Civil Departments (Salaries &c.)	9,015,645	10,947,971
Excise	2,324,915	3,608,561	Miscellaneous Civil Charges	3,441,771	3,890,407
Provincial Rates	1,693,398	2,082,015	Famine Relief and Insurance	-	1,500,000
Customs	2,657,878	1,296,119	Productive Public Works (Revenue Account).	5,458,111	11,741,747
Assessed Taxes	601,473	517,811	Public Works not classed as Productive.	5,170,015	7,166,747
Forests	688,002	938,328	Army Services	15,503,612	17,440,250
Registration	177,901	225,829	Exchange on Transactions with London.	691,287	3,081,433
Tributes	241,465	649,945	Provincial Adjustments (Net)	-487,661	-1,202,620
TOTAL - - - £.	47,821,916	50,953,011	TOTAL - - - £.	54,540,507	60,418,598
Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint	884,650	1,708,994			
Receipts by Civil Departments	1,240,808	1,437,246			
Miscellaneous	1,557,655	1,378,615			
Productive Public Works	3,228,718	12,294,100			
Public Works not classed as Productive.	663,622	830,562			
Military Receipts	900,810	1,592,183			

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Headings of Revenue.

In arranging these headings, the statement issued by the English Treasury has been adopted as a model by the Indian Government, *mutatis mutandis*. Under Revenue, first come the Principal Heads of Revenue, eleven in number, which will be explained in detail in later chapters. These are the only headings in the revenue column which yield revenue proper, that is to say, a surplus of revenue over expenditure, except Productive Public Works. In 1882-83 the total gross receipts from these eleven Principal Heads of Revenue amounted to 50,953,611 L., against which there falls to be set off a total of 8,476,968 L., entered in the expenditure column as direct demands on the revenue, leaving a net revenue from these sources of 42,476,643 L., as shown later in table XIII. Then comes Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint, the receipts from which group are not sufficient to cover the expenses. Details are given in table IV., showing an excess expenditure of 199,575 L. The details of Civil Departments are given in table V., showing an excess expenditure of 9,510,725 L. The details of Miscellaneous Civil Charges are given in table VI. The items are not properly a set off against each other in every case; but if they are regarded in that light they show an excess expenditure of 2,511,892 L.

IV.—DETAILS of POST, TELEGRAPH, and MINT (Revenue and Expenditure), 1882-83.

	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Net Receipts.	Excess Expenditure.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Post Office - - - -	977,797	1,194,010	- - -	216,213
Telegraph - - - -	545,315	626,279	- - -	79,964
Mint - - - -	186,882	80,280	96,602	-
TOTAL - - - £.	1,708,994	1,908,569	- - -	199,575

V.—DETAILS of CIVIL DEPARTMENTS (Revenue and Expenditure), 1882-83.

	Receipts.	Gross Expenditure.	Excess Expenditure.
	£.	£.	£.
General Administration - - - -	- - -	1,563,882	1,563,882
Law and Justice - - - -	656,934	3,253,071	2,596,137
Police - - - -	227,642	2,642,892	2,415,250
Marine (including River Navigation) - -	222,422	490,200	267,778
Education - - - -	196,558	1,145,970	947,412
Ecclesiastical - - - -	- - -	161,477	161,477
Medical - - - -	56,010	602,872	546,862
Political - - - -	- - -	513,791	513,791
Scientific and other Minor Departments	75,680	481,816	406,136
TOTAL - - - £.	1,487,246	10,947,971	9,510,725

VI.—DETAILS

VI.—DETAILS OF MISCELLANEOUS (Revenue and Expenditure), 1882-83.

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
	£.		£.
Interest	698,864	Territorial and Political Pensions	685,761
Receipts in aid of Superannuations, &c.	305,260	Civil Furlough and Absentee Allowances.	211,908
Stationery and Printing	57,858	Superannuation Allowances and Pensions.	2,203,771
Miscellaneous	321,533	Stationery and Printing	507,673
		Miscellaneous	281,394
TOTAL	1,378,515	TOTAL	3,890,407
		EXCESS EXPENDITURE	2,511,892

The heading of Productive Public Works requires more elaborate explanation. The actual working of the system will be described later; it is sufficient now to state its financial aspects. The Indian Government has always regarded the construction of public works as a primary duty, not so much because they may turn out remunerative, but because they are necessary for the welfare of the people and would not be done at all if left to private enterprise. The only class of public works that need be considered now is railways and canals for irrigation or navigation. The first railways in India, including most of the trunk lines, were constructed by private companies, who received a guarantee from the Government at the rate of 5 per cent. on their capital, with a moiety of the surplus profits after 5 per cent. has been earned, and were placed under corresponding restrictions. In all cases a right of purchase was reserved to the Government, which was exercised as regards the East Indian Railway, the largest of all, in 1880, and also as regards the Eastern Bengal Railway after the close of the period with which this Report deals. In 1868, the Government resolved that in future it would construct railways itself; and still more recently it has introduced the practice of granting subsidies to private railway companies, or, as in the case of the Southern Mahratta undertaking, of employing a Company as its agent to raise the requisite money and construct and work the railway, the company receiving a fixed rate of interest, and a share in the net earnings of the line. At the present time, therefore, the financial classification of Indian Railways is divided into five heads:—State, East Indian, Guaranteed, Subsidised, and Southern Mahratta. The attempt to construct and work canals by means of guaranteed companies has resulted in financial failure, the two enterprises in Orissa and in Madras having now both been purchased by the Government. Far more successful have been the canals constructed directly by the State in many parts of India. Excluding the case of Guaranteed companies, the early policy of the Government was to construct public works of all kinds alike out of the ordinary expenditure of the year. In 1867-68, the year following the terrible famine in Orissa, a new system was introduced, according to which certain canals for irrigation and navigation that promised to repay their cost were to be constructed out of borrowed money. They were called "Extraordinary Public Works," as not being paid for out of the ordinary revenue of the year; and a separate account of capital, interest, and working expenses was kept for each; and as has been already mentioned, the same financial policy was adopted for the construction of State Railways. In 1876 the name was changed to "Productive Public Works," in order to express more clearly the character of the undertakings for which loans might be incurred. The debt contracted for their construction was to be separated from the general debt; and the amount of all capital expenditure was to be entered as debt, even though it might not have been actually borrowed, so that the accounts of capital and interest might show the true results. The amount of land revenue due to "productive" canals was also deducted from the general entry under this head, and credited to the revenue account of irrigation under "Productive Public Works." Besides railways and canals, the only other undertaking regarded as "productive" and therefore constructed out of borrowed capital, was the Madras Harbour:

Harbour; but the outlay was subsequently repaid out of revenue in 1883-84, so that the charges defrayed by borrowing are now strictly limited to expenditure on the construction of railways and canals. All other public works in India, including a few railways, are still constructed and maintained from the ordinary expenditure of the year, and are entered in the accounts as "Public Works not classed as Productive."

Table VII. gives the details of the revenue account of "Productive Public Works" for 1882-83, showing a net profit of 482,353 *l.* It will be observed that the gross earnings are entered for State Railways, and also for the East Indian Railway (which was acquired by the State in 1880), but only the net earnings of the guaranteed railways; and also that the receipts from irrigation include a portion of land revenue which is estimated to be due to "productive" canals. The receipts from "Productive Public Works" exceeded the expenditure for the first time in 1877-78, when the railways gained largely from the transport of rice to the famine-stricken south. They did not again show a net profit until 1880-81, but the balance on the right side has continued since beyond the period covered by this Report. It must, however, be remembered that, of the charge under the head of Exchange, a very large portion is due to the necessity for paying in England the interest on guaranteed capital, the annuities to the former owners of the purchased railways, and similar disbursements; and that, if this were charged in the Productive Public Works portion of the Account, there would be a very considerable annual payment under this group, perhaps about 1,000,000 *l.* in 1882-83. The capital expenditure on "Productive Public Works" during 1882-83 amounted to 4,649,898 *l.*, though the net amount of permanent debt incurred in the year was only 2,509,150 *l.* The total capital expenditure from the beginning down to 31st March 1883 has been 64,485,489 *l.* The details will be shown later on in connexion with debt.

VII.—DETAILS OF PRODUCTIVE PUBLIC WORKS (Revenue Account),
1882-83.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE (Revenue Account).	
State Railways (Gross Earnings) - - -	£. 2,646,327	Working Expenses :	£.
East Indian Railway (Gross Earnings)	4,601,288	State Railways - - - - -	1,534,178
Guaranteed Railways (Net Traffic Receipts)	3,582,046	East Indian Railway - - - - -	2,060,398
TOTAL - - - - £.	10,829,661	Irrigation and Navigation - - - - -	502,011
Irrigation and Navigation (including Land Revenue due to Irrigation)	1,304,430	Surplus Profits, Land &c. :	4,105,685
TOTAL - - - - £.	12,224,100	Guaranteed Railways - - - - -	558,272
		Interest, &c. :	
		State Railways - - - - -	1,320,702
		East-Indian Railway (Interest) - - - - -	480,063
		East Indian Railway (Annuity) - - - - -	1,216,735
		Guaranteed Railways - - - - -	8,317,873
		Irrigation and Navigation - - - - -	800,001
		Madras Harbour - - - - -	20,327
		TOTAL - - - - -	7,077,300
		TOTAL - - - - -	11,741,747
		Net Receipts - - - - -	482,353

Public Works not classed as Productive.

Table VIII. gives the details of receipts and expenditure during 1882-83 in connexion with "Public Works not classed as Productive," showing an excess expenditure of 6,335,165 *l.* It will be observed that railways and canals are included under this head, these being either small in size, or such that the direct profit anticipated from the undertakings is not sufficient to justify their being included in the class of Productive Public Works. During the ten years ending 1882-83, 1,787,631 *l.* was expended on the capital account of "State Railways

Railways not classed as Productive," and 150,122 l. on their working expenses; 57,190 l. on Subsidised Railways, and 32,950 l. for the Southern Mahratta line; 4,112,147 l. on Frontier Railways, chiefly in connexion with the Afghan war; 7,107,013 l. on Irrigation Works; 11,163,721 l. on Military Works, and 34,946,688 l. on Civil Buildings, Roads, and Services; total, 59,357,462 l. It should be stated that Military works now receive a fixed annual grant of 1,000,000 l. a year.

VIII.—DETAILS of PUBLIC WORKS not Classed as Productive, 1882-83.

RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURE.	
	£.		£.
State Railways - - - - -	198,792	State Railways :	
Subsidised Railways - - - - -	3,680	Capital Account - - - - -	467,776
Irrigation and Navigation - - - - -	139,057	Working and Maintenance - - - - -	150,122
Military Works - - - - -	44,306	Subsidised Railways - - - - -	39,663
Civil Works - - - - -	504,747	Southern Mahratta Railway - - - - -	32,950
		Frontier Railways - - - - -	259,500
		Irrigation and Navigation - - - - -	801,115
		Military Works - - - - -	964,307
		Civil Buildings, Roads, and Services - - - - -	4,850,314
TOTAL - - - - £.	830,582	TOTAL - - - - £.	7,165,747
		EXCESS EXPENDITURE - - - - £.	6,335,165

The last item in the Revenue column is "Military Receipts," amounting in 1882-83 to 1,592,183 l., of which 500,000 l. represents the repayment by England to India of part of the cost of the War in Egypt. Military Receipts

Turning to the expenditure column, it should be first stated that many of the headings have already been explained in connexion with the corresponding headings in the Revenue column. Such is the case with "Direct Demands on the Revenue," which are really a set off against "Principal Heads of Revenue," as shown in detail in table III.; "Post Office, Telegraph and Mint," table IV.; "Salaries, &c. of Civil Departments," table V.; "Miscellaneous Civil Charges," table VI.; "Productive Public Works," table VII.; "Public Works not classed as Productive," table VIII. Five headings only remain to be explained. Headings of Expenditure.

Interest stands for 4,468,132 l. in 1882-83, as against 5,564,444 l. in 1872-73. In both years, this includes the interest on the general debt only, the interest on the capital expended on "Productive Public Works" being entered separately. This heading of interest is again divisible into two parts, 3,997,469 l. representing the interest on ordinary debt excluding "Productive Public Works," and 470,663 l. the interest on other obligations. The ordinary debt, excluding "Productive Public Works," amounted on 31st March 1883 to 94,863,033 l., so that the average rate of interest was not quite 4½ per cent. Interest.

"Famine Relief" first made its appearance in 1873-74, and has never since been entirely absent. In 1881-82, the heading was changed to "Famine Relief and Insurance," and is now sub-divided into several items. In 1877, the practice was introduced of so arranging the Budget as to provide each year from the ordinary revenue a surplus of 1,500,000 l. for "Famine Relief and Insurance." Whatever part of this sum was not actually spent in relieving distress was to be devoted either to the construction of protective works, or to the reduction of debt. As a matter of fact, this sum of 1,500,000 l. does not appear in the accounts until 1881-82, the surplus provided having been swept away by the exigencies of war. In that and the following year, 485,450 l. was spent on Protective Railways, 398,892 l. on Protective Irrigation (both sums being entirely independent of the expenditure on Productive Public Works and Public Work not classed as Productive), and 2,058,706 l. was devoted to the reduction of debt. The total expenditure therefore under this heading since 1873-74 amounts to 17,652,889 l. Famine Relief.

The total expenditure on Army Services during the ten years ending 1882-83 amounts to 181,537,158 l., thus subdivided: Effective, 136,455,582 l.; Non- Army Services.

Effective, 25,273,335 L.; Special Operations in Afghanistan (not including Frontier Railways), 18,524,288 L.; and Special Operations in Egypt, 1,283,953 L. Against this falls to be set off 9,938,360 L. ordinary Army Receipts, 6,008,035 L. on account of the military operations in Afghanistan and in Egypt, of which 5,000,000 L. and 500,000 L. respectively were repaid by England; total 16,531,098 L., making a net military expenditure during the ten years of 165,006,060 L. It is to be observed that the expenditure on "Effective" Army Services has remained pretty stationary during the ten years, the charge for the last year being actually the lowest of all; while the expenditure on "Non-Effective" Army Services has increased almost every year, the charge in 1882-83 being more than one-half larger than in 1873-74.

Exchange.

"Exchange on Transactions with London" shows the net result of what used formerly to be entered under two headings: "Loss by Exchange" on the expenditure side, and "Gain by Exchange" on the revenue side. An abstract of the debits and credits on this account for 1882-83 is given in table IX., showing a net charge of 3,081,433 L. "Gain by Exchange," it may be stated at once, represented the recovery from various sources of sums which had been already directly or indirectly charged under "Loss by Exchange." The term "Loss by Exchange" was also misleading as implying the actual loss of money. It has therefore been altered to "Exchange on Transactions with London," in order to show its real significance. In one sense, this heading under Expenditure may be regarded merely as a matter of account; for, in order to combine the Indian and English transactions, an arbitrary relative value between the currencies of the two countries must be assumed, and the necessary consequence of this combination is the insertion of a certain sum under "Exchange," which is the difference between the rupees paid or received in India in respect of transactions in England, and the sterling received or paid in those transactions converted into rupees at that arbitrary or conventional rate, which for many years has been taken at 2 s. to the rupee. But in another sense "Exchange" is a real charge on the Indian taxpayer, who would have to pay just so many rupees less if the gold value of the silver rupee were to stand at its conventional rate. This aspect of the case would be seen at once if every item of expenditure in England were to be entered in the accounts (as was at one time suggested by the Indian Government) at the average rate obtained during the year for the bills drawn on India by the Secretary of State, instead of at the conventional rate of 2 s. This would show approximately the true result in rupees of each transaction, and, so long as the rate obtainable is much lower than 2 s., would of course add largely to the nominal total of English expenditure. The present system, however, has advantages of its own. Besides stating the real amount of the sterling payments, it saves the trouble of calculating a charge for exchange on each transaction in England; it states the transactions in India in tens of rupees conventionally described as pounds sterling; it shows under one heading the total charge in respect of exchange; and it maintains an apparent uniformity between the accounts in England and in India.

Financial transactions with London

In order, therefore, to understand the heading of "Exchange," it becomes necessary to explain the financial relations between India and England. For the present purpose, these may be divided into two classes: (1) the transactions of the Government proper; (2) the transactions of the Government as bankers for the guaranteed and subsidized railway companies, and as agents for the British Government and others. The transactions of the Government proper must be again subdivided into two classes: (1) revenue receipts and expenditure chargeable against revenue; (2) receipts and disbursements in respect of debt, and expenditure on capital account. An Abstract Statement of the transactions in England in 1882-83 is given in table IX. The revenue receipts in England amounted to 831,990 L. (of which 500,000 L. was the contribution of the British Government towards the expenditure incurred by the Government of India in connection with the expedition to Egypt); the expenditure in England chargeable against revenue amounted to 14,131,966 L., showing a net expenditure in England of 13,299,976 L. chargeable against revenue. Taking into account an increase of the cash balance in England of 808,965 L., that statement shows on the disbursement side a total of 17,780,986 L., and on the receipt side 3,661,858 L. The difference between these two sums, namely, 14,119,128 L., is the amount in sterling which the Indian Government remitted to England by means of silver rupees in order to meet the demands of the Home Treasury. Of course the rupees

rupees are not actually sent home. What is sent in their place is a balance of exports over imports; and this balance is mainly paid for, and at the same time the Government accounts are closed, by means of bills drawn by the Secretary of State upon the Indian treasuries, which are bought in London, at the exchange of the day, by bankers and others who require remittances to India. The bills are expressed in rupees and paid for in sterling; and the difference between the amount of the bills in rupees converted into sterling at the rate of 2 s. per rupee, and the amount realised in gold by their sale, constitutes the charge of "Exchange" in respect of these bills. In 1882-83, the bills sold for general purposes amounted to Rs. 17,35,79,593, and realised the average rate of 1 s. 7.522 d. the rupee, producing, as has been already seen, the sum of 14,119,128 l. in sterling, which closed the account of transactions between India and England for the year. The difference between that amount of bills converted into sterling at 2 s. the rupee, namely, 17,357,959 l., and 14,119,128 l., being 3,238,831 l., represents the charge for "Exchange" on account of the Secretary of State's bills drawn for the supply of the Home Treasury. It should here be explained that the same figures are not reproduced in the receipts and disbursements in India, for the bills drawn in England in any given twelve months are not identical with those paid in India within the same period. For example, the bills paid in India in 1882-83 amounted to Rs. 18,41,52,593, which had been previously bought in England for 15,018,050 l.; and this last figure is the amount entered as paid for them in the Indian accounts. It remains to add that the total amount of bills drawn by the Secretary of State was in 1882-83 not limited to the payment of the net amount due from India to England on the balance sheet of the year. It also included a remittance from India to England on account of the reduction of debt, amounting in bills to Rs. 1,22,77,000, equivalent to 1,001,393 l., in sterling. The total, therefore, of bills drawn in 1882-83 is raised to Rs. 18,58,56,593, for which 15,120,521 l. was received in sterling, at the average rate of 1 s. 7.525 d. per rupee. The charge for "Exchange" on these additional bills was, however, borne by the Commission for the Reduction of Debt, and does not modify the charge of 3,238,831 l. in "Exchange" on account of the Secretary of State's bills.

The Secretary of State's Bills.

XI.—STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS IN ENGLAND, 1882-83.

RECEIPTS.		DISBURSEMENTS.	
	£.		£.
Revenue Receipts	831,090	Expenditure chargeable against Revenue	14,131,906
Permanent Debt Incurred (Net)	473,548	Net Expenditure chargeable against Revenue	13,200,976
Sum remitted from India on account of the Commission for the Reduction of Debt	1,001,393	Capital Expenditure on Productive Public Works	2,013,029
Capital of Guaranteed and Subsidized Railway Companies (Net)	1,087,605	Remittances (Net)	1,050,016
Deposits and Advances (Net)	499,223	Increase of Balance	808,965
Amount realized by the sale of the Secretary of State's Bills	14,119,128		
TOTAL	17,780,986	TOTAL	17,780,986

The transactions of the Indian Government with England on account of guaranteed railways, &c. need not be described in detail. The general results for 1882-83 under "Exchange" are given in table X., which shows an excess of credits over debits on this account of 157,398 l., which when subtracted from 3,238,831 l., on account of the Secretary of State's bills, leaves a net debit of 3,081,433 l., being the amount entered under this heading on the expenditure side in the accounts of the year. The explanation of the exchange involved in the transactions with the railway companies is this: the capital of the companies is almost entirely subscribed in England; the capital account of the companies are adjusted at various specified rates (for the most part 1 s. 10 d.

Financial Transactions on account of Guarrant Railways.

per rupee); and consequently the rupees drawn from the Indian treasuries by the agents of the Companies for expenditure in India have to be converted into sterling at those rates in order to be set against the subscribed capital; and inasmuch as the rates specified in the several contracts are (with only one exception) below 2 s. the rupee, the sums thus charged in sterling are less than they would be if the rupees were converted into sterling at 2 s. the rupee, and this difference constitutes a charge for exchange. To the extent that the payments in India are met by receipts in India, that charge is saved; and consequently in the years in which the credits in India on capital account exceed the payments in that country there is a credit to Exchange on this account, which is now generally the case in respect of the older railway companies, for all payments in England, except advances of interest, are in the first instance charged to capital account, which receives credit in India for those ultimately chargeable to revenue account. There are also credits to "Exchange" of sums which the companies pay to Government in respect of these latter charges, being the difference between these charges converted into rupees at the contract rates and at the rate at which the remittances are actually effected.

X.—DETAILS OF EXCHANGE TRANSACTIONS, 1882-83.

	Credits.	Debits.
	£.	£
Secretary of State's Bills drawn - - -	- - -	3,238,831
Transactions of East Indian Railway -	92,258	-
Transactions of Southern Mahratta Railway	- - -	113,063
Transactions of Guaranteed and Subsidized Railways - - - - -	138,915	-
Transactions of the Civil, Military, and Public Works Departments - - -	17,830	-
Overland Money Orders - - - - -	22,349	-
TOTAL - - - £.	271,361	3,352,794
		Net Charge - - - £. 3,081,433

Depreciation of Silver.

That the depreciation of silver enters very largely into this item of "Exchange" appears from table XI., which shows the results of the Secretary of State's bills in each of the ten years ending 1882-83. It should be stated that the figures in this table do not include the results of exchange transactions on account of guaranteed railways, &c. They, therefore, differ from the charge entered in the Expenditure for each year. The column headed "Amount received in respect of Bills drawn," represents the amount remitted each year from India to England. The variations between these sums and the net disbursements in England shows in the last column of the Table are considerable; these are nowever mainly by the variations in the debt transactions in England in each year. But, if the year 1872-73 be compared with 1882-83, it will be found that there is an increase of only 180,033 l. in the amount of sterling remitted, whereas the increase in the amount of bills drawn is Rs. 3,09,22,593, or nominally 3,092,259 l., the difference being due to the lower rate obtained for the bills sold, which was 1 s. 10.754 d. per rupee in the first year and 1 s. 7.522 d. in the last.

TABLE XI.—RESULTS of SECRETARY of STATE'S BILLS, in 1872-73, and in each of the TEN Years, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Amount of Secretary of State's Bills Drawn.	Amount Received in respect of Bills Drawn.	Average Rate obtained per Rupee.	Difference as compared with Rate of 2s. per Rupee.	Net Disbursements in England.
	Rupees.	£.	s. d.	£.	£.
1872-73	14,70,25,000	13,989,095	1 10-764	763,405	14,164,782
1873-74	14,20,57,000	13,285,679	1 10-351	900,022	14,288,943
1874-75	11,74,37,000	10,841,615	1 10-150	903,985	15,044,921
1875-76	13,75,00,000	12,890,613	1 9-625	1,360,387	15,468,133
1876-77	14,85,75,122	12,095,799	1 8-508	2,161,713	16,517,899
1877-78	11,69,85,000	10,134,455	1 8-791	1,564,045	16,110,900
1878-79	16,91,23,612	13,948,565	1 7-794	2,963,700	16,793,197
1879-80	18,35,00,000	15,261,610	1 7-961	3,088,190	15,880,431
1880-81	16,32,77,000	15,230,677	1 7-956	3,088,023	16,648,226
1881-82	22,21,09,350	18,412,429	1 7-895	3,798,506	16,370,790
1882-83	17,35,79,503	14,119,128	1 7-522	3,238,831	15,637,956

Several circumstances have conspired towards augmenting this charge for "Exchange" in recent years. In the first place, the ordinary expenditure of the Indian Government in England is much larger than formerly, not only for interest on debt and guaranteed railways, but also on account of pensions, furlough allowances, stores, &c. But for many years this increase was disguised by the large receipts in England on account of the capital of guaranteed railways and from borrowing. For example, in 1861-62, the net disbursements in England (excluding the capital transactions of Guaranteed Companies) amounted to 6,408,750 *l.* But mainly owing to the large receipts from those Companies on capital account, which amounted to 5,216,888 *l.*, the net expenditure in England met by bills drawn on India was only 1,193,729 *l.*; and as the rupee then stood at 1 *s.* 11-867 *d.*, the charge for exchange on those bills was only 6,630 *l.* Recently, however, while the ordinary expenditure in England has become much heavier, the receipts on capital account have almost disappeared. In 1881-82, for example, the remittance from India amounted to no less than 18,412,429 *l.*, which with the rupee at 1 *s.* 7-895 *d.* caused a charge under "Exchange" of 3,798,506 *l.* The depreciation of silver is, in great measure, due to causes altogether foreign to India; but its effect upon the rate of Indian exchange has, no doubt, been emphasised by the necessity to which the Indian Government is put of meeting each year its net expenditure in England by means of bills. The only other alternative is to borrow in England, which would afford a temporary alleviation, but would ultimately increase the difficulty by augmenting the charge for interest.

Increased Home Charges.

"Provincial Adjustments," like "Exchange," represents the net result of items which used formerly to be entered on each side of the account, "Provincial Deficit" under Revenue, and "Provincial Surplus" under Expenditure. The details on both sides for the year 1882-83 are given in table XII., showing a net amount of 1,202,626 *l.*, which, having been paid out of the Provincial and Local balances, forms a reduction from the Imperial Expenditure of the year. The system of Provincial Finance will be explained later; it is sufficient now to say that a certain sum from the imperial treasury is appropriated every year to each of the Provincial Governments, in addition to receipts which have always been regarded as local, and which are technically styled "Incorporated Local Funds." The expenditure of these appropriations is at the discretion of the Provincial Governments, with the proviso that any saving may be carried over to the Provincial balance of the ensuing year, while any excess of expenditure comes out of the previous balance. The accounts of Local Funds are kept separate from Provincial accounts, except that their balances are included in the present heading of "Provincial Adjustments." The details of Provincial and Local Funds are distributed among the proper entries in the two columns of Revenue and Expenditure; and only the

Provincial Adjustments.

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general result, so far as shown in the balances, appears under "Provincial Adjustments." For example, in 1882-83, the Province of Bengal exceeded its appropriation by the sum of 548,808 £., which was actually obtained by a reduction of the Provincial balance; and, accordingly in the Imperial accounts this appears under "Provincial Deficits" as a set off in reduction of the total expenditure. Madras, on the other hand, spent 62,519 £. less than its appropriation, and accordingly increased its balance by that amount, which appears under "Provincial Surpluses" as an amount paid from the Imperial balances in addition to the expenditure of the year. The general result for all the Provinces was that five Provinces exceeded their several appropriations by a total of 1,314,797 £., while four economised altogether 112,171 £., leaving a net excess of 1,202,626 £., which is the amount of reduction entered under "Provincial Adjustments" in the expenditure column of the Imperial accounts. In this explanation, absolute accuracy has been sacrificed for the sake of avoiding confusion, in so far as the accounts of Local Funds have not been disentangled from Provincial Funds proper.

XII.—PROVINCIAL ADJUSTMENTS, 1882-83.

	Surplus.	Deficit.
	£.	£.
India, General - - - - -	4,846	—
Bengal - - - - -	—	548,803
Assam - - - - -	13,700	—
North-West Provinces and Oudh - - - - -	—	282,788
Punjab - - - - -	—	104,033
Central Provinces - - - - -	81,606	—
British Burma - - - - -	—	100,882
Madras - - - - -	62,510	—
Bombay - - - - -	—	179,796
TOTAL - - - - £.	112,171	1,314,797
Net Deficit - - - - £		1,202,626

Net Revenue and Expenditure.

Table XIII. gives a statement of net revenue and net expenditure for 1882-83, the several items of set off being shown under each heading before being deducted to make the net totals. The result is that the gross revenue of 70,125,231 £. is reduced to a net revenue of 42,958,996 £., which was the amount actually available to meet the net expenditure of the year.

XIII.—STATEMENT OF NET REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

NET REVENUE.					NET EXPENDITURE.			
	Gross Revenue.	Refunds and Drawbacks.	Charges of Collection.	Net Revenue.		Gross Expenditure.	Receipts.	Net Expenditure.
	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.	£.	£.
Land - - - - -	21,576,047	91,471	3,042,491	18,742,065	Interest - - - - -	4,468,182	—	4,468,182
Opium - - - - -	2,489,594	380	2,282,516	7,216,448	Post Office, Telegraph, and Aliut - - - - -	1,408,489	1,708,594	190,675
Salt - - - - -	6,177,781	58,797	449,680	6,874,254	Civil Departments - - - - -	10,947,971	1,457,346	9,510,725
Stamps - - - - -	3,379,681	36,063	123,308	3,319,650	Miscellaneous Civil Charges - - - - -	3,880,407	1,378,616	2,511,869
Excise - - - - -	4,000,561	30,782	94,431	3,475,368	Famine Relief and Insurance - - - - -	1,500,000	—	1,500,000
Provincial Rates - - - - -	2,683,018	16,578	63,435	2,619,982	Public Works not classed as Productive - - - - -	7,169,747	830,549	6,338,166
Customs - - - - -	1,286,119	62,391	154, 83	1,088,746	Army Services - - - - -	17,440,240	1,589,184	15,848,067
Assessed Taxes - - - - -	517,811	28,975	12,853	483,968	Exchange Transactions - - - - -	3,087,433	—	3,087,433
Forest - - - - -	928,228	2,843	567,818	367,957				
Registration - - - - -	285,829	1,626	184,601	90,642				
Tributes - - - - -	689,945	10	—	689,935				
TOTAL - - - - £.	50,958,511	316,907	8,963,273	42,678,230	TOTAL - - - - £.	30,308,592	6,947,520	43,484,980
Deduct Assignments and Compensations - - - - -	—	—	—	—1,195,087	Provincial Adjustments - - - - -	112,171	—1,314,797	—1,302,626
Productive Public Works - - - - -	12,234,100	—	11,741,747	482,358			TOTAL - £.	42,252,358
							Surplus - - - - -	706,638
				Net TOTAL - - - - £.			GRAND TOTAL - - £.	42,958,996

Table

Table XIV, gives a classification of the revenue and expenditure in 1882-83 according to three headings: England, India (Imperial), and India (Provincial and Local). The significant features are, (1), the excess of expenditure over revenue in England; (2), the corresponding excess of revenue over expenditure in India (Imperial); and (3), the balancing of revenue and expenditure under India (Provincial and Local) effected by means of the heading "Provincial Adjustments."

Classification of Revenue and Expenditure.

XIV.—CLASSIFICATION OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

REVENUE	EXPENDITURE								
	England.	India.		TOTAL	England.	India.		TOTAL	
		Imperial.	Provincial and Local.			Imperial.	Provincial and Local.		
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	
Principal Heads of Revenue	2,734	35,587,751	15,363,126	54,953,611	Interest	2,481,978	1,275,000	11,104	4,008,132
Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint	75,388	1,636,930	6,876	1,708,994	Direct Demands on the Revenue	62,364	4,066,541	4,378,163	8,478,968
Receipts by Civil Departments	6,977	176,718	1,255,451	1,437,946	Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint	264,820	1,564,480	99,560	1,904,760
Miscellaneous	153,870	961,984	369,653	1,378,515	Civil Departments (Salaries), &c.	483,665	1,964,769	8,547,517	10,947,971
Productive Public Works	1,678	10,867,212	1,235,110	12,224,100	Miscellaneous Civil Charges	1,933,614	950,119	1,116,774	3,800,407
Public Works not classed as Productive	18,120	198,120	614,242	830,482	Famine Relief and Insurance	-	1,464,191	15,809	1,500,000
Military Receipts	375,111	1,017,069	-	1,392,180	Productive Public Works	4,899,770	5,442,316	1,369,661	11,741,747
					Public Works not classed as Productive	377,516	3,427,186	4,661,896	7,165,747
					Army Services	4,007,019	18,433,381	-	17,440,250
					Exchange on Transactions with London	-	3,081,423	-	3,081,423
					Provincial Adjustments	-	-	-	-1,202,626
Total	£. 831,990	£. 30,265,694	£. 16,927,357	£. 79,125,381	TOTAL	£. 16,121,986	£. 30,265,694	£. 20,120,963	£. 69,418,598

As the revenue and expenditure in England will not again be referred to, it may be as well here to explain some of the items, which can only be done by means of the Home Accounts. As regards revenue, not much need be said. The entry under "Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint" consists almost entirely of receipts from the Indo-European Telegraph; under "Miscellaneous," the largest item is 103,995 l. received in aid of superannuation allowances and pensions; of the total "Military Receipts," 500,000 l. was a repayment on account of the War in Egypt. Turning to expenditure, it will be seen that three headings alone—Interest, Public Works, and Army—account for more than 80 per cent. of the whole. Taking another general classification, the total expenditure on Stores chargeable against revenue was 1,085,986 l., chiefly under the headings of Army, Stationery, Non-Productive Public Works, Telegraph, and Marine (the stores for Productive Public Works being charged to capital account). Turning to the successive items in the Table, "Interest" needs no explanation; "Direct demands on the Revenue" consists almost entirely of supplies of stamps; "Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint" comprises 73,600 l. for postal contracts, and 27,870 l. for postal stores, 45,811 l. for Indo-European Telegraph, and 101,207 l. for other telegraph charges, including 75,767 l. for stores. "Civil Departments" includes 220,907 l. for the India Office and every item of expenditure connected therewith; 44,237 l. as a contribution towards naval expenses in the Indian seas (which is less than the usual payment of 70,000 l., certain payments having been deferred), and 78,071 l. for marine stores; 26,701 l. for political charges, chiefly in Persia and China (including 1,000 l. for secret service); 26,041 l. for scientific and other minor departments, besides a few other expenses. "Miscellaneous Civil Charges" are composed of 31,265 l. for political and territorial pensions (including 21,065 l. for the Maharaja Dhulip Sing, and 10,000 l. for the Nawab Nazim of Bengal); 210,988 l. for civil furlough and absentee allowances; 1,390,146 l. for Superannuation Allowances and Pensions; 153,754 l. for Stationery stores for India, besides 8,834 l. for the stationery, printing, &c., at the India Office; and 28,527 l. for Miscellaneous (chiefly in connection with the dispatch of stores to India, and the examination of candidates for the Indian Civil Service). "Productive Public Works" consists entirely of interest on the Guaranteed Railways, and the

Revenue and Expenditure in England.

the Madras Irrigation Company's Works, and the East Indian Railway interest and annuity. "Public Works not classed as Productive" includes 78,302 *l.* for stores for Frontier Railways; 20,219 *l.* for the Engineering College at Cooper's Hill; and 52,245 *l.* for Furlough Pay and Allowances of Public Works officers. "Army Services" is subdivided into "Effective" and "Non-Effective," each with many items. Under "Effective" the most important are, payments to the English Treasury, 507,090 *l.*; furlough allowances, 267,101 *l.*; troop service, 322,202 *l.*; stores, 529,724 *l.*; the total being 1,676,526 *l.* Under "Non-Effective" are included payments to the English Treasury, on account of Retired Pay and Pensions, 700,000 *l.*; colonels of Royal Artillery, 31,230 *l.*; officers of the Indian service, 1,368,504 *l.*; non-commissioned officers and soldiers, 40,150 *l.*; widows and families of officers, 74,937 *l.*, making with other charges a total 2,222,682 *l.* Besides "Effective" and "Non-Effective," the war in Egypt cost 107,811 *l.*

Revenue and Expenditure according to Provinces.

Table XV. gives the subdivision of revenue and expenditure in 1882-83, according to Provinces, regarding the Government of India as a single Province for the present purpose. This classification has no connexion with the system of Provincial finance, to be explained later. It merely shows the actual facts according to locality—where the revenue was received, and where the expenditure was disbursed. As regards England, a full explanation has been given in the last paragraph. The revenue under "India" is mainly composed of receipts from Productive Public Works, the Salt tax in the North, Telegraph, and Military Receipts. In Bengal, and to a less extent in Bombay, the receipts are largely swollen by opium. Of the Provinces, the Punjab has by far the largest revenue from Public Works, both Productive and Non-productive. Turning to expenditure, "India" bears the chief charge for Interest, Productive Public Works, and Army. The two Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, alone among the Provinces, have a separate military expenditure. Among the Provinces, the expenditure on Public Works, Productive as well as Non-productive, is highest in Bengal.

XV.—REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, according to PROVINCES, 1882-83.

	Revenue.	Expenditure.
	£.	£.
India - - - - -	13,080,114	10,986,721
Bengal - - - - -	17,740,501	7,787,875
Assam - - - - -	836,771	584,921
North-West Provinces and Oudh - -	8,873,058	3,962,536
Punjab - - - - -	4,465,118	8,307,909
Central Provinces - - - - -	1,479,180	997,922
British Burma - - - - -	2,702,086	1,493,702
Madras - - - - -	9,462,756	7,238,915
Bombay - - - - -	10,644,657	9,920,731
TOTAL India - - - - -	69,293,241	55,286,632
„ England - - - - -	831,990	14,181,966
TOTAL - - - - - £.	70,125,231	69,418,598

Incidence of Taxation.

It remains to examine the incidence of taxation upon the population. According to the Census of 1881, the total population of British India numbers 198,790,853 souls. As compared with 70,125,231 *l.*, the gross revenue in 1882-83, this gives an average incidence of exactly 7s. per head. But to obtain the revenue from taxation, it is necessary to make large deductions from the gross revenue. First, we must take away Receipts by Civil Departments, Military Receipts, and

Miscellaneous, all of which are in the nature of a set off against corresponding items of expenditure; then Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint, and Public Works of both classes, which are all charges for services rendered. We are thus left with the eleven principal heads of revenue, which yielded in 1882-83 a gross total of 50,953,611 l. But some of these again are not taxation. Opium falls almost entirely upon the Chinese consumer of the drug; tributes are paid by the Native States, whose population is not included; Forests represent the produce of State property. Whether Land Revenue should be regarded as taxation, or only as a portion of the rent which is appropriated by the Government, is a doubtful question that need not be argued here. Table XVI. gives the revenue in 1882-83 from each source of taxation proper, with Land Revenue entered independently. The figures for revenue have been obtained by deducting refunds and drawbacks from the gross revenue; and a separate column shows the incidence per head of the population of each source of taxation. Excluding Land Revenue, the incidence of actual taxation in 1882-83 was nearly 1 s. 9½ d. per head; including Land Revenue, the incidence was nearly 3 s. 11¼ d. per head. These figures comprise every form of taxation, imperial, provincial, and local, excepting only municipal taxation; but it should be stated that a certain small proportion of the taxation from Salt and Customs falls upon the inhabitants of Native States.

XVI.—REVENUE FROM TAXATION (less Refunds and Drawbacks), showing Incidence of Taxation, 1882-83.

	Revenue.	Incidence per Head.
	£.	d.
Salt - - - - -	6,123,964	7-398
Stamps - - - - -	3,343,048	4-036
Excise - - - - -	3,509,779	4-310
Provincial Rates - - - - -	2,666,487	3-220
Customs - - - - -	1,243,728	1-501
Assessed Taxes - - - - -	406,836	0-600
Registration - - - - -	284,143	0-313
TOTAL - - - - £.	17,727,955	21-403
Land - - - - -	21,784,576	26-800
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	39,512,531	47-703

The process of deduction has been pushed yet further by curious inquirers who take the case of a landless day labourer, who does not happen to live in a municipality. *Ex hypothesi*, he pays no Land Revenue nor Provincial Rates; Stamps and Registration involve either the possession of property, or at least the hope of property implied by litigation; Excise the labourer may avoid if he chooses, nor would he find much difficulty in avoiding Customs also, which are no longer levied on cotton goods; Assessed Taxes are limited to incomes exceeding 50 l. The only tax, therefore, that it is absolutely necessary for our labourer to pay is Salt, which falls at the average rate of less than 7½ d. per head in the year, or nearly half-a-crown for a family of four persons.

Besides ordinary Revenue and Expenditure, the balance sheet of the year contains many other items on both sides of the account which have now to be considered. These include receipts and disbursements on account of capital, both for the Government itself and on behalf of Guaranteed Railways; the result of the financial transactions between India and England, and also the opening and closing balances. Table XVII. gives a general statement of the accounts for 1882-83, so compiled as to show only the net results of transactions that are entered on both sides. Tables XVIII. and XIX. give the same accounts, so compiled as to show the details of each transaction.

The Balance Sheet of the Year.

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XVII.—GENERAL STATEMENT OF ACCOUNTS, 1882-83.

RECEIPTS.		DISBURSEMENTS.	
	£.		£.
Total Gross Revenue - - - -	70,125,231	Total Expenditure charged against Revenue - - - -	69,418,598
Extraordinary Receipts:		Productive Public Works (Capital Account):	
Assets of Bombay Civil Fund taken over by Government - - - -	815,345	State Railways - - - -	1,647,252
Debt, Deposits, and Advances:		East Indian Railway - - - -	628,530
Permanent Debt (net incurred) - - - -	3,086,791	Irrigation and Navigation - - - -	561,726
Deposits and Advances - - - -	180,332	Madras Irrigation Company - - - -	1,702,582
Loans to Municipalities, Native States &c. (net recoveries) - - - -	299,042	Miscellaneous Public Improvements - - - -	49,808
Capital of Guaranteed and Subsidised Companies (net receipts) - - - -	1,595,619	TOTAL - - - £.	4,649,898
Remittances (net) - - - -	186,211	Unfunded Debt (net discharged) - - - -	164,601
Secretary of State's Bills drawn - - - -	14,119,128	Secretary of State's Bills paid - - - -	15,018,050
TOTAL Receipts - - - £.	90,358,749	TOTAL Disbursements - - - £.	69,251,147
Balance on 1st April 1882:		Balance on 31st March 1883:	
India - - - - -	14,522,913	India - - - - -	14,821,550
England - - - - -	2,020,909	England - - - - -	3,429,874
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	107,502,571	GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	107,502,571

XVIII.—DETAILS OF RECEIPTS other than REVENUE, 1882-83.

	Gross.	Net.
	£.	£.
Gross Revenue - - - - -	70,125,231	70,125,231
Extraordinary Receipts:		
Assets of Bombay Civil Fund taken over by Government - - - - -	815,345	815,345
Permanent Debt incurred:		
India 3½ per cent. Stock - - - - -	480,333	
India 4 per cent. Debentures - - - - -	2,000,000	
4 per cent. Rupee Loan - - - - -	2,500,000	
Stock Notes - - - - -	169,200	
Miscellaneous - - - - -	910	
TOTAL - - - £.	5,150,443	
Net - - - - -		3,086,791
Unfunded Debt:		
Temporary Loans - - - - -	4,250,000	
Special Loans - - - - -	1,275	
Treasury Notes - - - - -	889,569	
Deposits of Service Funds - - - - -	844,528	
Savings Bank Deposits - - - - -	1,901,268	
TOTAL - - - £.	7,336,035	
Carried forward - - - £.	83,427,664	74,027,367

XVIII.—Details of Receipts other than Revenue, 1882-83—continued.

	Gross.	Net.
	£.	£.
Brought forward - - -	83,427,654	74,027,367
Deposits and Advances:		
Unspent Balances of Provincial Allotments - - -	112,171	
Commission for Reduction of Debt - - -	2,344,948	
Excluded Local Funds - - -	683,301	
Political, Railway, and Military Prize Funds - - -	29,165	
Departmental and Judicial Deposits - - -	12,572,323	
Advances - - -	7,087,877	
Suspense Accounts - - -	151,317	
Miscellaneous - - -	1,233,291	
TOTAL - - - £.	24,836,398	
Net - - -	-	130,382
Loans to Municipalities, Native States, &c.		
	390,628	
Net - - -	-	298,042
Capital of Guaranteed and Subsidised Companies		
Southern Mahratta Railway - - -	3,331,227	
	1,726,601	
TOTAL - - - £.	5,057,828	
Net - - -	-	1,596,616
Remittances:		
Inland Money Orders - - -	6,468,418	
Other Local Remittances (net) - - -	84,042	
Other Departmental Accounts - - -	766,864	
Net Receipts by Civil Treasuries from Post Office - - -	300,849	
" " " from Civil Treasuries by Telegraph - - -	65,283	
" " " " Marine - - -	871,751	
" " " " Military - - -	11,305,609	
" " " " Public Works - - -	3,712,197	
Remittance Account between England and India - - -	1,920,225	
TOTAL - - - £.	25,554,238	
Net - - -	-	186,211
Secretary of State's Bills drawn - - -	14,119,128	14,119,128
TOTAL Receipts - - - £.	153,385,764	90,358,749
Opening Balance - - -	17,143,822	17,143,822
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	170,529,586	107,502,571

XIX.—DETAILS of DISBURSEMENTS other than EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	Gross.	Net.
	£.	£.
Total Expenditure charged against Revenue - - -	69,418,598	69,418,598
Productive Public Works (Capital Account) - - -	4,649,898	4,649,898
Permanent Debt Discharged:		
East India Bonds - - -	69,800	
India 5 per cent. Stock - - -	7,585	
5½ per cent. Loans - - -	1,960	
5 per cent. Loans - - -	1,220	
5 per cent. Debentures - - -	53,300	
4 per cent. Loans - - -	131	
Debentures, &c., East Indian Railway - - -	1,939,600	
Miscellaneous - - -	56	
TOTAL - - - £.	2,063,052	
Carried forward - - - £.	76,152,148	74,068,496

XIX.—Details of Disbursements other than Expenditure, 1882-83—continued.

	Gross.	Net.
	£.	£.
Brought forward - - -	76,132,148	76,068,496
Unfunded Debt:		
Temporary Loans - - - - -	4,250,000	
Treasury Notes - - - - -	154,197	
Deposits of Service Funds - - - - -	1,074,138	
Savings Bank Deposits - - - - -	1,522,006	
TOTAL - - - £.	7,501,236	
Net - - - - -		164,601
Deposits and Advances:		
Unspent Balances of Provincial Allotments - - - - -	1,814,797	
Commission for Reduction of Debt - - - - -	1,058,641	
Excluded Local Funds - - - - -	692,991	
Political, Railway, and Military Prize Funds - - - - -	37,162	
Departmental and Judicial Deposits - - - - -	12,735,273	
Advances - - - - -	7,962,841	
Suspense Accounts - - - - -	87,255	
Miscellaneous - - - - -	817,031	
TOTAL - - - £.	24,706,011	
Loans to Municipalities, Native States, &c. - - - - -	91,481	
Capital of Guaranteed and Subsidised Companies - - - - -	2,760,241	
Southern Mahratta Railway - - - - -	710,968	
TOTAL - - - £.	3,461,209	
Remittances:		
Inland Money Orders - - - - -	6,454,198	
Other Departmental Accounts - - - - -	762,276	
Net Payments into Civil Treasuries by Post Office - - - - -	283,240	
Net Issues from Civil Treasuries to Telegraph - - - - -	65,583	
" " " " to Marine - - - - -	872,587	
" " " " to Military - - - - -	11,974,632	
" " " " to Public Works - - - - -	3,659,011	
Remittance Account between England and India - - - - -	1,896,630	
TOTAL - - - £.	25,938,027	
Secretary of State's Bills paid - - - - -	15,019,030	15,018,050
TOTAL DISBURSEMENTS - - - - -	152,278,162	89,251,147
Closing Balance - - - - -	18,251,424	18,251,424
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	170,529,586	107,502,571

Obligations not bearing interest.

Debt.

To complete our view of Indian finance, it is necessary to include the capital obligations of the Government, namely permanent debt and other miscellaneous obligations bearing interest. In addition to the sum of 2,063,652 *l.* shown in table XIX. as Permanent Debt discharged in 1882-83, 577,641 *l.* of rupee debt was purchased and cancelled on account of the Commission for the Reduction of Debt, and 29,801 *l.* India 4 per cent. Stock on account of the East Indian Railway Sinking Fund. On 31st March 1883, there was no temporary debt, the sum of 4,250,000 *l.* which had been raised in England during the year having also been paid off during the year. The obligations bearing interest not included in the permanent debt amounted on 31st March 1883 to a total of 10,257,936 *l.*, chiefly composed of Service Funds, Savings Bank Deposits, Pension Funds, Treasury Notes for special purposes, and the capital of certain charitable endowments of old standing. One curious entry is a perpetual irredeemable annuity granted at Madras so long ago as 1727. The total interest on these obligations amounted in 1882-83 to 470,663 *l.*, which is included in the charge for interest in the ordinary expenditure.

Permanent Debt.

Table XX. gives the amount of the permanent debt at the end of 1872-73 and each of the ten years 1873-74, to 1882-33, classified under three headings—India (bearing

(bearing interest), England (bearing interest), and not bearing interest. The total augmentation in the ten years is 53,803,474 *l.*, or an increase of more than one-half. Before explaining this increase, it will be convenient to give a sketch of the growth of the debt from an earlier date.

XX.—AMOUNT of PERMANENT DEBT at end of 1872-73, and each of the TEN Years 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Bearing Interest.			Not bearing Interest.	GRAND TOTAL.
	India.	England.	TOTAL.		
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1872-73	66,168,428	38,991,700	105,160,128	310,858	105,470,986
1873-74	66,273,250	41,095,700	107,368,950	165,958	107,534,908
1874-75	69,737,079	48,576,116	118,313,195	113,197	118,426,392
1875-76	72,705,641	49,776,116	122,481,757	88,257	122,570,014
1876-77	71,805,936	55,376,116	127,242,052	78,107	127,320,159
1877-78	74,900,450	59,656,116	134,556,566	68,087	134,624,653
1878-79	77,176,739	59,008,200	136,184,939	1,688,104	137,873,043
1879-80	82,720,163	68,834,639	151,554,802	164,203	151,719,005
1880-81	85,877,190	71,334,670	157,211,860	177,019	157,388,879
1881-82	88,531,221	68,020,513	156,551,734	237,376	156,789,110
1882-83	90,601,715	68,527,044	159,128,759	145,701	159,274,460

Under the Company, the debt was divided into two classes: (1) the Registered Debt in India, raised in rupees with interest payable in India, or in respect of a comparatively small portion in Europe at a fixed rate of exchange; and (2) Bond Debt raised in England in sterling and limited by Act of Parliament. These classes, of course, correspond to the present distinction between debt in India and debt in England. During the first 60 years of the present century, it appears that the debt increased in no fewer than 43 years, while it decreased in only 17 years. Previous to 1868 the one great cause of debt was always war. The Mutiny alone added forty-six millions sterling. On 30th April 1834, the total debt amounted to 41,350,952 *l.*, of which 37,827,715 *l.* was incurred in India, and 3,523,237 *l.* in England. On 30th April 1839 it had fallen to 33,980,873 *l.* Before the outbreak of the Mutiny, on 30th April 1857, the registered debt in India (excluding special loans and obligations) stood at 47,412,641 *l.*, while the bond debt in England was 3,915,317 *l.*, making a total of 51,327,958 *l.* On 30th April 1860, after the expenses of the Mutiny had been defrayed, though the finances had not yet been restored to an equilibrium, the debt amounted to 89,705,319 *l.*, of which 63,546,402 *l.* was incurred in India, and 26,158,917 *l.* in England. At that time the proportion of debt in England was only about 29 per cent.; by 1873 it had increased to about 37 per cent., and by 1883 to 43 per cent.

But the increase of debt that has taken place in recent years is nominal rather than real, and has been accompanied by a positive decrease in the amount of interest payable.

To ascertain the true burden of the debt, it is necessary to deduct the capital expenditure on Productive Public Works. The whole of this has not actually been borrowed; but in the system of accounts now adopted it is treated as if it had been borrowed, on the principle that, if not spent on public works, the money might have been used to repay debt, and the interest on it is not included in the interest on the general debt, but is debited specially against the receipts from Productive Public Works. The total capital expenditure on Productive Public Works down to 31st March 1883 amounted to 64,485,489 *l.*, as shown in table XXI. Of this amount, 8,420,180 *l.* was incurred before 31st March 1873, which must be deducted from the debt at that time, reducing it to 97,050,806 *l.*; and the whole amount must be deducted from the debt on 31st March 1883, reducing it to 94,788,971 *l.* Instead of a nominal increase of 53,803,474 *l.*, it appears, therefore, that the general debt (excluding capital expenditure on Productive Public Works) has actually decreased within the last ten years by 2,261,835 *l.* The interest payable has decreased even more in proportion, owing to the improved credit of the Government and the consequent diminution in the rate at which it can borrow. In 1872-73 the charge for interest on general debt (excluding "Other Obligations," as well as capital expenditure on Productive Public Works) amounted to 4,378,583 *l.*, being at the rate of rather more than 4½ per cent. on the general debt of 97,050,806 *l.* existing at that

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that time. In 1882-83, the corresponding charge was only 3,997,469 l., being at the rate of slightly under 4½ per cent. on the general debt of 94,788,971 l. then existing.

Capital Expenditure on Productive Public Works.

XXI.—DETAILS of CAPITAL EXPENDITURE ON PRODUCTIVE PUBLIC WORKS at end of 1872-73, and for the Ten Years ending 1882-83.

	State Railways.	Irrigation.	Madras Harbour.	East Indian Railway.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
At end of 1872-73	3,251,503	5,168,677	-	-	8,420,180
" 1873-74	2,354,025	1,196,682	-	-	3,550,707
" 1874-75	3,014,180	1,236,291	-	-	4,250,471
" 1875-76	3,166,184	1,105,445	-	-	4,271,629
" 1876-77	2,865,961	943,423	-	-	3,809,384
" 1877-78	3,984,908	806,084	-	-	4,791,002
" 1878-79	3,327,888	794,654	259,356	-	4,381,898
" 1879-80	2,680,403	508,837	85,000	9,780,862	13,095,102
" 1880-81	3,402,331	5,406,407	70,000	418,435	9,297,283
" 1881-82	1,656,675	1,184,888	68,906	1,041,562	3,952,031
" 1882-83	1,662,466	2,324,308	49,808	628,530	4,665,112
GRAND TOTAL	31,366,174	20,706,856	533,070	11,819,389	64,485,489

Details of Debt, 1883.

The details of the debt on 31st March 1883 are given in table XXII., showing the total incurred in India and in England, and also the amount that does not bear interest.

XXII.—DETAILS of DEBT at end of 1882-83.

In India:		£.
Imperial Loans bearing Interest:		
4½ per cent. Transfer Loan, 1870	- - -	1,231,340
4½ " Indore State Railway	- - -	1,000,000
4½ " Transfer Loan, 1878	- - -	1,858,150
Transfer Loan, 1879, 4½ per cent. portion	- - -	18,731,267
" " 7s. sterling per cent. portion.	- - -	24,000
4 per cent. Loan, 1832-33	- - -	935,024
4 " " 1836-36	- - -	2,405,630
4 " " 1841-43	- - -	23,453,080
4 " " 1854-55	- - -	5,320,840
4 " Transfer Loan, 1865	- - -	21,441,908
4 " " 1854	- - -	1,226,778
Reduced 4 per cent. Loan, 1879	- - -	10,297,500
4 per cent. Promissory Notes, Mysore Family	- - -	98,041
4 " Railway Loan from Maharaja Sindia	- - -	1,500,000
4 " East Indian Railway Commuted Stock	- - -	10,675
3½ " Loan, 1859-64	- - -	57,170
TOTAL	£.	90,261,648
Imperial Loans not bearing Interest	- - -	87,051
Provincial Debenture Loans bearing Interest	- - -	170,867
Government Stock Notes bearing Interest	- - -	169,200
TOTAL IN INDIA	£.	90,688,766
In England:		
Bearing Interest:		
India 4 per cent. Debentures	- - -	8,996,500
" 4 " Stock	- - -	58,463,911
" 3½ " "	- - -	4,566,633
East Indian Railway Debenture Stock	- - -	1,500,000
TOTAL	£.	66,527,044
Not bearing Interest	- - -	58,650
TOTAL IN ENGLAND	£.	68,685,694
GRAND TOTAL DEBT	£.	159,274,460

Table XXIII gives the details of loans advanced by the Government of India to Native States, Municipalities, local bodies, &c., on 31st March 1883, showing a total of 7,765,528 l. In strictness, this total ought to be deducted from the total of the general debt; and the interest received on this account ought to be regarded as a set off against the interest paid on the general debt.

XXIII.—AMOUNT of LOANS, &c., to NATIVE CHIEFS, LOCAL BODIES, &c. at end of 1882-83.

	£.
Loans to Native States - - - - -	1,214,653
„ Presidency Corporations (including Port Trusts)	5,408,676
„ <i>Muzassal</i> Municipalities - - - - -	383,923
„ Local Fund Committees - - - - -	104,129
„ Landholders, &c. - - - - -	654,143
TOTAL - - - £.	7,765,528

The system of Provincial Finance, first introduced in 1871, has since received so large an extension that it demands special consideration. Originally, the financial affairs of the three Presidencies were in the main kept separate until 1833 when, by Act of Parliament (3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 85, ss. 39 and 59), the Governor General was entrusted with a general control over Madras and Bombay. By this statute it was provided that “no Governor * * shall have the power of creating any new office, or granting any salary, gratuity, or allowance, without the previous sanction of the Governor-General.” The financial embarrassment caused by the Mutiny led to the enforcement of rigorous economy upon the Provincial Governments, and at the same time to a reconsideration of the system by which all financial authority was centralised at Calcutta. The evils of this system were manifest. In the words of Sir John Strachey (*The Finances and Public Works of India*, p. 134 (London, 1882), “The Supreme Government took upon itself the entire distribution of the funds needed for the public service throughout India. It controlled the smallest details of every branch of the expenditure; its authority was required for the employment of every person paid with public money, however small his salary; and its sanction was necessary for the grant of funds even for purely local works of improvement, for every local road, and every building however insignificant.” While intended to effect economy, the system resulted in extravagance, for each Provincial Government was tempted to ask for more than it expected to receive, and expend every penny that it did receive even when it might have managed with less. An indirect consequence was continual friction between the Government of India and the Provincial Governments, whose interests were made antagonistic. So far back as 1860, a reform of the system in the direction of provincializing finance was suggested by General Dickens, then Secretary to the Government of India in the Department of Public Works. Mr. Laing, the Finance Minister, drew attention to the subject in his Budget Statement for 1861-62, and again in 1862-63. In 1867, a definite scheme of Provincial Finance was drawn up by General Richard Strachey for Mr. Massey, then Finance Minister; but nothing was actually accomplished at that time.

At last, in 1871, Lord Mayo, the Governor General, took the matter in hand himself, as part of a plan for restoring equilibrium to the imperial finances, which were in a state of chronic deficit. The financial management of certain services was transferred to the Provincial Governments, together with a fixed annual sum allotted to each upon an estimate of the previous expenditure. Within the limits of that sum the Provincial Governments were allowed entire freedom as to the distribution of the expenditure, and any savings from one year were available to be spent in the next. The services thus transferred were:—Jails, Police, Education, Registration, Medical Services, Printing, Roads, and Civil Buildings. The total Provincial allotment, as slightly modified in succeeding years, amounted to about 5,600,000 l. At about the same time a Road Cess was introduced into Bengal, and new rates for local purposes were

levied in the North West Provinces and Oudh, the Punjab, Madras, and Bombay. These augmentations of revenue, however, were not for imperial but for strictly local purposes. They formed no part of the scheme of Provincial Finance, which was limited at its inception to a reform in expenditure, except in so far as the receipts of the spending departments, which are really a set off against expenditure, were resigned to the Provincial Governments.

Lord Lytton,
1877.

In 1877, when Lord Lytton was Governor General and Sir John Strachey was Finance Minister, the question of Provincial Finance again came up for consideration. A new scheme was introduced, which extended Provincial independence in the matter of expenditure, and also conferred upon the Provincial Governments for the first time a large interest in the revenue receipts. Madras alone remained under the scheme of 1871. All the other Provincial Governments received complete responsibility for every branch of expenditure that is not of necessity imperial, such as Army, Interest, Guaranteed Railways, &c. To the services that had been assigned in 1871 there were now added the following, in a greater or less degree:—Land Revenue, Excise, Customs, Salt, Stamps, General Administration, Law and Justice, Minor Departments, and a few smaller items. A more important change was made in the assignment of revenue. In addition to the allotment of a lump sum, the Imperial Government now transferred to the Provincial Governments the entire receipts under certain heads of revenue, reserving to itself only a share in the prospective increase. The heads of revenue thus made mainly Provincial were Excise, Stamps, Law and Justice, with a few minor items which it was thought would expand under local management; at the same time, some of the Productive Public Works were made Provincial as regards both expenditure and receipts. The general result of the reform of 1877 was to give to the Provincial Governments a free budget of about 16,000,000 £, including Local Funds.

The Marquis of
Ripon, 1882.

In 1882, when the Marquis of Ripon was Governor General and Major Baring Finance Minister, a modified scheme of Provincial Finance was introduced for a further period of five years. The principal change, which was based upon revised arrangements made with British Burma and Assam in 1879, was to transfer to the Provincial Governments a still larger proportion of the main heads of revenue. A few, including Opium, Salt, Customs, Tributes, Post Office, and Military Receipts, are still reserved almost wholly as Imperial. A few others, such as Receipts by Civil Departments and Receipts from Provincial Public Works, are handed over almost entirely to the Provincial Governments. The majority, being those before transferred, with the addition of Forests and Registration, are now divided, for the most in equal proportions, between the Imperial and the Provincial exchequers; and as the balance would thus be against the Provinces, this is rectified not by the allotment of a lump sum, but by a fixed percentage on the Land Revenue, which is thus also in a measure made Provincial. In British Burma, for special reasons, this percentage is struck on the receipts from the export rice duty and the salt tax. Madras came under the new scheme of 1882, together with all the other Provinces except those under the direct administration of the Government of India.

The general result of the modified arrangements was thus described by Major Baring in his Budget Speech on 8th March 1882. "About three-fifths of the revenue of British India, amounting roughly to 42,000,000 £, and about one-fourth of the expenditure, amounting roughly to 19,000,000 £, will be provincialised: That is to say, the Provincial Governments will have, to a greater or less extent, according to the circumstances of each head, an interest in, and responsibility for, their administration. To be more explicit, they will receive the whole of the revenue under heads which produce about 4,000,000 £, half of the revenue under heads which produce about 8,000,000 £, a larger or smaller percentage on heads (chiefly Land Revenue) which produce about 23,000,000 £, and an almost nominal share in revenues which produce 7,000,000 £, while they will administer the expenditure wholly under heads for which the grants amount to about 15,000,000 £, and to a very small extent under heads for which the grants amount to 4,000,000 £."

War and Famine.

At the same time, financial relations between the Imperial and Provincial Governments were defined in respect to the two extraordinary charges of war and famine. No demand would be made on the Provincial Governments except in the case of disaster so abnormal as to exhaust the Imperial reserves, and to necessitate the suspension of the entire machinery of public improvement throughout

throughout the Empire. With regard to famine, it was declared that the Imperial Government would come to the assistance of the Provincial at an earlier point than before, that is to say, when the famine was proved to be severe, and as soon as the Provincial resources were embarrassed, without regard to the actual amount expended. And, as the Imperial Government made an allotment every year of 1,500,000 *l.* for Famine Relief and Insurance, it was no longer held incumbent on the Provincial Governments to accumulate any special reserve on this account.

Table XXIV. gives the Provincial revenue and expenditure of each Province in 1882-83, the first year of the new scheme. The figures are of course, included in those already given for the general revenue and expenditure. The headings Provincial Surplus and Deficit show how far each Province has fallen short of, or exceeded, its total appropriation for the year. The result is to increase or decrease by so much the Provincial balances; but, as the entire appropriation is entered as receipts, therefore the difference between the appropriation and the expenditure must be entered on the other side. Provincial Revenue and Expenditure.

Local Funds, now known as Incorporated Local Funds, were included for the first time in 1878-79 in the totals of general revenue and expenditure. The machinery for their administration has already been described (Chapter VI.). It is enough to say here that they are managed by representative boards whose powers are usually coterminous with the area of Districts. The principal source of income is local rates; and the chief objects of expenditure are roads and (everywhere except in Bengal) schools and dispensaries. Table XXV gives the revenue and expenditure of Incorporated Local Funds in 1882-3, for each Province, including as one the several Provinces under the immediate administration of the Governor General. On the expenditure side, three exceptional items require mention. In the North-West Provinces and Oudh 230,040 *l.* was spent on Police; and in British Burma 33,694 *l.* and in Madras 302,247 *l.* was spent on village servants. Incorporated Local Funds.

The other class of Local Funds, now known as Excluded Local Funds, have no place in the tables of General Finance. They consist chiefly of special trusts and endowments. But it may be convenient to mention here that in 1882-83 the total receipts under Excluded Local Funds amounted to 685,301 *l.*, and the total payments to 692,991 *l.* Excluded Local Funds.

Municipal Finance likewise has no place in the General Finance Accounts. In 1882-83, the total income of all the municipalities in India, including the three Presidency towns, amounted to 3,084,913 *l.*, and the total expenditure to 3,016,134 *l.* Municipal Revenue and Expenditure.

XXIV.—PROVINCIAL REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	R E V E N U E.								
	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE :	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Land - - - - -	1,305,412	240,926	1,131,092	794,517	206,439	413,332	1,372,144	2,399,535	7,953,397
Salt - - - - -	16,500	-	-	-	-	5,392	2,535	6,565	30,992
Stamps - - - - -	610,676	35,847	991,304	162,592	61,238	41,310	200,418	210,480	1,673,865
Excise - - - - -	489,419	100,500	237,612	65,747	109,097	112,748	322,021	350,478	1,788,550
Provincial Rates - - - - -	300,671	-	173,619	50,324	20,340	-	-	-	618,954
Customs - - - - -	7,127	-	-	-	-	186,265	3,801	5,093	202,886
Assessed Taxes - - - - -	76,017	-	59,056	25,072	12,744	-	23,018	62,093	258,900
Forests - - - - -	34,698	12,430	50,670	36,336	48,883	125,195	90,044	104,618	505,374
Registration - - - - -	51,994	1,580	30,077	11,358	2,427	909	28,973	14,172	142,490
TOTAL - - - £.	2,952,544	391,283	1,973,430	1,147,046	681,168	835,149	2,104,454	3,154,434	13,170,408
Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint - - - - -	-	-	-	3,183	-	-	-	518	3,701
Civil Departments - - - - -	393,031	27,713	138,389	112,683	73,201	76,010	157,535	192,005	1,110,473
Miscellaneous - - - - -	81,737	8,050	41,372	23,857	6,194	22,020	21,842	40,705	240,577
Productive Public Works - - - - -	93,056	-	587,476	-	85,890	158,638	-	-	1,325,110
Public Works not classed as Productive	166,504	1,026	140,493	65,123	7,144	10,035	21,900	71,633	484,518
TOTAL - - - £.	4,066,872	423,672	2,881,160	1,352,823	733,597	1,151,903	2,305,591	3,399,295	16,334,787

XXV.—LOCAL REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	R E V E N U E.									
	India, General.	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE :	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Land - - - - -	1,857	-	-	-	654	-	-	109,154	11,112	122,777
Excise - - - - -	1,459	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,459
Provincial Rates - - - - -	6,787	379,808	34,102	472,520	206,271	25,256	81,500	638,912	224,320	2,068,482
TOTAL - - - £.	9,103	379,808	34,102	472,520	206,925	25,256	81,500	748,066	235,438	2,102,718
Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint - - - - -	-	2,928	-	-	-	-	47	-	-	2,975
Civil Departments - - - - -	3,280	6,803	17	32,708	-	16,049	5,181	10,955	63,881	144,978
Miscellaneous - - - - -	7,571	21,677	1,067	2,728	9,803	8,686	5,865	46,212	18,466	122,075
Public Works not classed as Productive	1,976	1,144	11,351	7,105	22	7,429	4,143	62,956	33,698	120,824
TOTAL - - - £.	21,936	412,300	46,537	515,059	216,750	58,020	96,736	874,189	350,083	2,502,570

XXIV.—PROVINCIAL REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	EXPENDITURE								
	Rengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Interest	-	-	5,326	55	2,729	-	-	-	8,110
Direct Demands on the Revenue	470,894	87,610	711,904	242,486	92,318	205,034	570,815	1,612,917	3,993,979
Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint	-	97	-	8,880	4,423	3,905	10,630	10,316	38,151
Civil Departments	2,093,714	192,483	1,124,594	826,740	334,615	497,985	1,219,484	1,321,707	7,661,272
Miscellaneous	208,331	12,185	179,209	102,763	33,938	42,657	184,313	195,940	1,019,345
Famine Relief and Insurance	-	-	1,007	-	-	-	13,332	1,180	15,800
Productive Public Works	659,798	-	487,735	3,358	80,905	167,865	-	-	1,399,661
Public Works not classed as Productive	1,107,555	56,223	527,614	308,845	100,894	403,368	236,255	368,720	3,009,376
TOTAL	4,600,202	348,598	3,037,379	1,403,127	699,829	1,320,615	2,234,879	3,500,789	17,235,701
Provincial Surplus	-	13,887	-	-	33,775	-	108,421	-	-
Provincial Deficit	530,611	-	261,222	110,000	-	171,307	-	149,894	1,000,817
GRAND TOTAL	4,060,681	362,485	2,750,157	1,392,161	733,597	1,149,608	2,349,300	3,350,895	16,138,884

XXV.—LOCAL REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	EXPENDITURE.									
	India, General.	Rengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Interest	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,264	1,730	2,994
Direct Demands on the Revenue	2,852	26,099	1,177	4,289	19,443	11,923	5,090	307,098	6,214	384,186
Post Office, Telegraph, and Mint	78	31,567	1,847	19,118	5,760	-	3,001	-	38	61,400
Civil Departments	10,128	16,152	9,831	415,373	76,861	13,498	46,940	133,723	169,739	880,246
Miscellaneous	755	5,889	4,231	635	2,480	2,183	6,058	52,380	22,818	97,429
Public Works not classed as Productive	2,777	308,041	90,825	202,213	75,794	32,585	72,122	387,917	228,746	1,462,020
TOTAL	17,590	447,748	107,911	641,623	180,338	60,189	127,211	882,382	429,285	2,804,282
Local Surplus	4,546	-	-	-	6,943	-	-	-	-	-
Local Deficit	-	9,197	187	1,566	-	2,169	28,175	45,802	20,902	105,909
GRAND TOTAL	21,936	438,551	107,724	640,082	187,281	58,020	99,036	836,480	309,389	2,788,473

XI.

LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

THE collection of the land revenue forms so important a part in Indian administration as to demand treatment in a chapter by itself, separate from Finance. Throughout the East, the entire framework of government has been based from time immemorial upon the payment of agricultural tribute. The commencement of British Sovereignty in India dates from 1765, when the *diwani* or fiscal administration of Bengal was conferred upon the Company; and to this day the title of Collector is borne by the chief executive official in every Regulation District, though his magisterial and miscellaneous duties now occupy a large share of his attention.

Growth of Land Revenue.

The land revenue holds by far the first place both among the receipts and also in the work of fiscal administration. In 1882-83 the gross revenue credited to this head amounted to 31 per cent. of the total gross revenue; while the net receipts amounted to as much as 43.5 per cent. Large as this proportion is, it has tended to diminish in recent years, owing to the growth of other sources of income. On the first introduction of British rule, practically the entire revenue was credited to the one head of land. It was only by degrees that other items of taxation came to be distinguished. The following table shows the gross receipts from land revenue in each of the five decennial years 1842-43 to 1882-83, together with the total revenue, and the proportion that the land revenue bore to the total. The figures are given in millions sterling, to two decimal places.

GROSS LAND REVENUE in the FIVE DECENNIAL YEARS, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

	Land Revenue.	Total Revenue.	Per-centage of Land Revenue to Total Revenue.
	£. Mil.	£. Mil.	£. Nil.
1842-43 - - - -	12.60	22.00	60.0
1852-53 - - - -	16.19	28.01	58.6
1862-63 - - - -	19.57	46.14	48.4
1872-73 - - - -	21.37	56.55	37.7
1882-83 - - - -	21.87	70.12	31.0

During the last forty years, therefore, the land revenue has increased by more than 8,000,000 £., while the proportion that the land revenue bears to the total revenue has decreased by nearly one half. This comparative decrease has already been explained by the large growth of other heads of revenue. To account for the actual increase, several causes may be assigned. In the first place, the total area of British territory has been augmented between 1843 and 1883 by about 242,000 square miles. In the second place, while the actual rate of assessment has been lowered, especially in Madras and Bombay, and the proportion of assessment to rent has been reduced from one-half to one-third in the North-West Provinces, the total revenue demand has risen everywhere, owing partly to

increase of cultivation, partly to a rise in prices. This improvement has been specially marked in the Central Provinces and British Burma, where a vast quantity of fertile land is still available for tillage. It has been calculated that these natural causes ought to augment the land revenue of all India at the average rate of about 75,000 l. a year.

The following table gives the gross and net land revenue for each of the ten years ending 1882-83. It should be stated that refunds have not been deducted, and that the rule of entering separately the portion of land revenue due to Government irrigation works was first adopted in 1877-78. The most important feature in this table is the heavy decrease caused by the famine of 1876-78, and the corresponding increase in the two following years due to the collection of arrears. If we compare the first year of the series with the last, the increase in gross revenue is 815,773 l., or at the rate of 81,577 l. a year; the increase in net revenue is 639,901 l. or 63,990 l. a year; and the increase in net revenue, including the amount credited to irrigation, is 1,108,982 l., or 110,898 l. a year. The cost of collection during the ten years averaged 14 per cent. on the gross revenue.

Land Revenue,
1873-74 to
1882-83.

GROSS and NET LAND REVENUE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Gross Revenue.	Charges for Collection.	Net Revenue.*	Credited to Irrigation.†	TOTAL Net Land Revenue.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	21,060,274	2,860,590	18,199,675	- - -	18,199,675
1874-75	21,832,176	2,865,172	18,467,004	- - -	18,467,004
1875-76	21,540,480	2,050,865	18,589,595	- - -	18,589,595
1876-77	10,891,491	2,898,647	16,992,844	- - -	16,992,844
1877-78	10,891,145	2,943,057	16,948,088	156,300	17,104,457
1878-79	22,323,868	2,969,010	19,363,858	124,934	19,490,792
1879-80	21,801,150	2,997,185	18,923,965	602,308	19,526,308
1880-81	21,112,995	2,983,679	18,129,316	797,319	18,926,636
1881-82	21,948,022	3,003,792	18,944,230	491,320	19,435,450
1882-83	21,876,047	3,042,491	18,833,576	469,081	19,302,657
TOTAL - - - £.	212,837,648	29,451,517	183,386,131	2,243,321	185,629,452

* Not including Refunds and Drawbacks.

† Not separated until 1877-78.

The Table on the following page gives the details of Land Revenue, together with the corresponding expenditure, for each Province in 1882-83. The figures are taken from the Finance Accounts, and therefore agree with those in the previous chapter. But henceforth, when we come to examine the Land Revenue of the several Provinces, it will be necessary to adopt the figures given in the Provincial Administration Reports, which are drawn up on different principles to the Finance Accounts. The object of the Finance Accounts is simply to show the receipts and disbursements of the year. The object of the departmental reports is to disclose the whole work of administration, and to test its efficiency. The one has to do with results, the other with processes which happen to be very complicated. For the most part, also, the agricultural year, while varying in the several Provinces, does not cover the same twelve months as the fiscal year. No attempt, therefore, will be made here to reconcile discrepancies that must appear between different sets of figures.

Land Revenue according to Provinces.

DETAILS OF LAND REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	India, General (including England.)	Bengal.	Assam.	North West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Pro- vinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
REVENUE.										
Ordinary Land Revenue - -	£. 83,992	£. 3,752,904	£. 347,528	£. 5,703,301	£. 1,993,639	£. 600,808	£. 829,684	£. 4,604,882	£. 2,947,914	£. 20,670,412
Sale of Government Proprietary Rights.	-	186	2	3,511	-	-	-	278	-	3,977
Rent of Resumed Police Lands and Service Concessions.	-	7,335	-	-	18,696	-	-	-	676,714	702,645
Sale of Waste Lands and Redemption of Land Revenue.	199	2,680	6,446	302	163	-	-	2,179	458	12,336
Capitation and House Tax - -	1,264	1,097	-	-	-	-	305,075	-	-	307,436
Fisheries and Miscellaneous - -	3,228	30,024	31,518	36,767	64,207	2,951	123,277	213,501	103,411	609,884
Receipts for Improvement of Government Estates.	-	39,438	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	39,438
TOTAL Gross Revenue - -	88,683	3,833,673	385,504	5,743,781	2,076,605	609,759	1,057,886	4,820,840	3,728,397	22,345,128
credited to Productive Public Works.	-	-	-	87,238	33,833	-	-	341,381	33,629	469,081
TOTAL in Revenue Accounts	88,683	3,833,673	385,504	5,656,543	2,042,772	609,759	1,057,886	4,508,459	3,694,768	21,876,047
EXPENDITURE.										
Grants and Drawbacks - -	521	6,703	1,768	1,501	6,033	2,117	5,025	21,019	46,788	91,471
Charges in respect of Collection:										
Salaries and Establishment	23,431	289,594	30,060	365,784	165,202	75,227	128,799	352,791	291,087	1,772,971
Allowances to District and Village Officers.	-	-	-	244,133	4,607	-	-	300,803	271,413	620,606
Revenue Survey - -	12,189	14,463	2,269	22,278	1,933	-	-	62,052	64,933	180,607
Land Settlement - -	283	13,284	8,904	31,597	62,438	-	86,700	23,585	24,096	250,887
Miscellaneous - -	* 1,464	10,810	-	3,438	698	-	-	1,014	-	17,420
TOTAL Charges - -	37,367	328,161	91,679	687,208	235,076	75,227	215,799	740,245	652,029	3,042,491
TOTAL Expenditure - -	37,898	334,864	93,445	668,709	241,109	77,344	220,524	701,264	608,815	3,132,962
NET REVENUE - -	50,785	3,498,809	292,059	4,988,794	1,801,663	532,415	837,362	3,745,195	2,085,953	18,742,085

* Includes two items, 420 £. for Law Charges and 30 £. for Survey Stores, incurred in England.

General view of
Land Revenue
Administration.

The subject of land administration in its widest sense comprehends not only the collection of the revenue, together with the elaborate process of assessing the revenue known as "settlement," but also the determination of the individuals or communities upon whom the assessment is levied, and to some extent a consideration of the tenure holders (if any) subordinate to these individuals or communities. The rent, or at least a considerable portion of the rent, is acknowledged by ancient custom to be due to the State, unless it happens to have been specifically surrendered in favour of some official personage or religious grantee. In such cases the land is known as *lakhiraj*, *inam*, or "alienated;" but it is not the land strictly speaking that is alienated, but only the right to receive the Government share of the produce. Elsewhere the dominant claim of the State to exact its share is uncontested, though as a matter of fact it is exercised very differently in the different Provinces. In ultimate resort, the land revenue must everywhere alike be paid by the actual cultivator of the soil, the *rayat*, for

for petty tillage by peasants is universal throughout India. But for many reasons the State does not everywhere levy payment directly from the *rayat*. In some parts, as in Bengal, an intermediate class, half revenue agent, half feudal chief, called *zamindars*, were found in possession of the right of collecting the revenue from large tracts of country, with the duty of paying it over, after certain deductions, to the State. By the measure known as the Permanent Settlement (1793), the revenue paid by the *zamindars* to the State was fixed in perpetuity, while the *zamindars* were declared to be landlords, and the *rayats* gradually dropped to the position of their tenants. In the North-West Provinces and the Punjab, the village has always been the unit of revenue payment, whether the village be owned by one landlord or many, or by a joint community. The system in the Central Provinces combines features from Bengal with features from the North-West. In Madras and Bombay, for the greater part, as well as in Assam and British Burma the settlement is *rayatwari*, recognising no one between the cultivator and the State. Further details about the land administration of the several Provinces will be given later on. A general view of the entire system, chiefly with reference to the perplexing variations in the different systems of settlement, is given in the following memorandum, which has been specially written by Mr. W. G. Pedder for this Report.

Memorandum on Land Settlement.

“By Hindu law and practice in times previous to the subjugation of India by the Muhammadans, the king or ruler of any territory, whether a great monarch or a petty chief, was entitled to a share of the produce of cultivated land. This due was generally converted by the Muhammadan conquerors into a cash tax or rent. The most extensive measure which effected this change was the celebrated settlement of Akbar. It was based upon a field survey, and its principle was the assessment of the value of each field in cash. The assessment was fixed at one-third, or in some places apparently at one-fourth, of the average gross produce of the field, according to the average prices obtaining over a series of preceding years. The assessment thus ascertained was fixed for ten years, during which period the cultivator was to have the full returns of his own improvements, and was then liable to revision on similar principles. In joint villages, the community was mutually responsible for the total revenue assessed on the village lands. By the reign of Aurangzeb, the land revenue appears to have been administered on principles more or less closely resembling those introduced by Akbar over the greater part of the territories under the direct administration of the Mughal Emperors or their deputies. In Bengal, however, the revenue was generally collected by contractors, sometimes the representatives of ancient chiefs, sometimes mere speculators. And in Southern India, which did not come under Musalman rule till a late period, the ancient Hindu principle as the right of the ruler to an actual share of the produce, usually a very large one, was generally maintained. But the cultivators were often required to pay in cash the value of that share at rates annually fixed with reference to the current prices of produce.

“The enlightened system of Akbar did not survive the break-up of the Mughal Empire. During the period of anarchy which lasted from the death of Aurangzeb till the commencement of the present century, every power which became predominant, and especially the conquering Marhattas, endeavoured to extort the utmost possible from the landowners or cultivators. To better effect this object, the farming, or, in the technical sense of the word, the *zamindari* system was extensively employed throughout almost all India. The right of collecting the land revenue of a certain tract, village, *pargana*, or District, was sold to the highest bidder for a short term. The contractor often sub-lets portions of his farm on similar terms, and his lessee frequently again sub-lets, so that the cultivators had to pay, in addition to the exorbitant demands of the Government, the profits of a series of middle-men. As this practice has left deep traces on the revenue system and economic conditions of most Provinces, it is important to notice that under it the cultivators were often able to maintain some reference to the old or established rates of assessment, the additional demands upon them being levied by extra cesses or by separate rates on the land; and that the contractors frequently succeeded in getting their farms

renewed for successive periods, till they established a sort of hereditary title to them.

“On the introduction of British rule in each Province, it was soon found necessary, in the interests both of the State and of the people, to supersede this oppressive system by what are technically called ‘settlements’ of the land revenue, by which its amount is determined, and also who is to pay it. As regards the latter point, the policy of the British Government has always been to encourage proprietorship, and the person who is made directly responsible for the payment of the State demand on any land is considered to be its owner, though his proprietary right is, or may be, limited on the one hand by the right of the State to its revenue, on the other, by interests in the land subordinate to his. The variations of land tenure found in existence by the British in different parts of the country gave rise to three distinct systems of settlement, since the general rule was that the person having the highest existing interest in the land should be made responsible for the revenue. For in some Provinces, the present cultivators, who everywhere in India till the land in *petite culture*, hold immediately from, and pay their rent or revenue directly to, the State. In others, they hold from, either with or without some occupancy right, and pay rent to private persons who may be shortly though not altogether accurately called the landlords. Elsewhere, they are either members or tenants of a village community which jointly holds from and pays to the State. On these three distinctions are based the three great varieties of settlements.

“In the Bengal Provinces which came earliest into the possession of the East India Company, as well as in some later acquisitions, especially in the Eastern territories, two classes were found in possession of distinct interests and responsibilities in the land, (1) the peasant cultivators as tenants and rent payers; (2) the superior holders (sometimes the descendants or representatives of ancient nobles, sometimes of military chiefs, in other cases of middlemen or farmers of the revenue) as landlords, receiving the rent, and paying the revenue. Under this state of things, the settlement was made with the latter class, the *zamindars*, *talukdars*, or *malquzars*, and it is hence called the *zamindari* settlement. This system prevails especially in Bengal, in the North-east Districts of Madras, in Oudh, and in the Central Provinces.

“In the greater part of Southern and Western India, there existed no class with any permanent or hereditary right which intervened between the right of the peasant to till the soil and that of the State to receive the revenue, while speaking generally the village communities were not bound together by joint or mutual responsibility for the revenue, and each cultivator was answerable only for the fields he himself held. The settlement was therefore made with individual *rayats*, and is hence called *rayatwari*. It prevails in the greater part of the Madras and Bombay Presidencies, in Berar, and, with some modifications, in Assam and in Burma.

“A third or intermediate system is common in other parts, especially in the Punjab and the North West Provinces. The village community, apparently introduced by the Aryan settlers into India, is of two kinds, the simple or non-united, and the joint, both of which forms are still in existence. The former, under which the land is held in severalty, prevails in Western, Southern and Eastern India, and is perhaps the oldest; but by a process of disintegration on the one hand, and from the effects of the rules of Hindu inheritance and of our revenue system on the other, the two forms have some tendency each to approximate to the other. Under the joint form, the village lands belong to the village community, the descendants or representatives of the original founders, as a body linked together by an ancestral bond of union, and jointly responsible for the payment of the village revenue. Though the common property of the community, the lands are mostly cultivated by its members in severalty, but such as are not needed by members, are let to cultivators not belonging to the proprietary body who are its tenants. Where then the joint system prevailed, the settlement was made with the community as a body, and this is the village system of settlement.

“As regards the determination of the amount of the Land Revenue.—On the assumption by the East India Company of the direct administration of Bengal in 1772, the settlement was, as has been said, made with the *zamindars*, and their estates (or more accurately the right of collecting the payments of the cultivators) were leased to them for terms of years at fixed annual sums determined chiefly with reference to what they had been paying to the

Native Government, and believed to represent approximately from eight-tenths to nine-tenths of what they actually received from the *rayats*. It was intended to ascertain more precisely the real value of each estate before the leases expired; but this proved impracticable from a variety of causes—the want of anything like a survey, the absence of village accounts said to have been destroyed during previous troubles, the disinclination both of the *zamindars* and of the *rayats* to give accurate information, and the ignorance of the British officials, new to revenue work. Hence the leases were renewed quinquennially till 1791. In that year decennial leases, at sums not materially differing from those of the former leases, were given. But in 1793, Lord Cornwallis declared the *zamindars* proprietors of their estates at annual assessments fixed in perpetuity at the amount payable under the decennial leases. Similar settlements were effected for the Province of Benares in 1795, and in what are now known as the *zamindari* tracts of Madras in 1802; and the application of the same measures to other British acquisitions was contemplated. But early in the century different views began to prevail, chiefly under the influence of Sir T. Munro, and it became admitted that the principles of the Bengal settlement were erroneous or at least not everywhere applicable. From this time therefore settlements were periodical, the amount not being fixed in perpetuity, and an attempt was made to determine the assessments more accurately with reference to the value of the land.

“Both in the North-West Provinces, in Bombay, and in Madras, the principle adopted for the determination of the amount of land revenue in the earliest regular settlements was that of a percentage on net produce. It was attempted to ascertain for each field, or at least each class of land, the average gross produce and its value, and to eliminate therefrom the net produce (*i.e.*, the amount remaining after deducting cost of cultivation and profits of stock), a proportion of which was to be the Government assessment. This principle proved an entire failure in the North-West Provinces, and was formally abandoned by Regulation IX. of 1832. Upon it was based Mr. Pringle's abortive settlement of the Bombay Deccan about 1830, which utterly broke down. It has never been applied in the settlement of territories such as the Punjab, Oudh, the Central Provinces, which came under British rule after 1840, and the only Province in which it is still, at least nominally, maintained, is Madras.

“Under the Madras system the average yield of certain staple crops per acre of each class of land is ascertained by a great number of actual experiments extending over a series of years. The average gross produce thus determined is converted into cash at the ‘commutation rate,’ or average harvest price of the 20 or more years preceding settlement. The average cost of cultivation and profits of stock are then ascertained by careful and extensive investigation, and the amount arrived at being deducted from the value of the gross produce, the balance is net produce. Half the net produce is the ‘revenue rate’ per acre, or Government cash assessment, and the quantity of grain representing this sum at the ‘commutation rate’ adopted is the ‘grain assessment.’

“Such is the theory of the Madras Settlement. In practice, however, it has been found impossible or dangerous to adhere to it strictly. In the first place the difficulty of determining with accuracy the average yield of land is great; next, the only way of finding the average cost of cultivation is to ascertain what it would cost to cultivate a given holding by hired labour, and, as this labour would be needed for only a certain number of weeks or months, it is obvious that nothing would be allowed as wage for the subsistence of the cultivator and his family during the rest of the year. Hence the first step in a Madras settlement practically is to determine, on general considerations (such as those to be described under Bombay), whether the tract coming under settlement requires a decrease or will bear an enhancement of its land revenue, and to what extent. The total amount of assessment to be imposed having thus been decided on, the results of the process above described are adjusted so as to yield it. The estimates of average yield are reduced to allow for error or for exceptionally bad seasons, and the commutation rate is lowered to cover possible fluctuations of prices in the future. In practice, therefore, the elaborate process above described determines rather the relative than the absolute assessments of different classes of land, and the Madras method does not really differ very widely from that of Bombay.

“The Bombay method is avowedly an empirical one. When a tract (usually the *taluk* or Subdivision of a District) comes under settlement, original or revise,

revised, its revenue history for the preceding 30 or more years is carefully ascertained and tabulated in figured statements and diagrams. These show in juxtaposition, for each year of the series, the amount and incidence of the assessment, the remissions or arrears, the ease or difficulty with which the revenue was realised, the rainfall and nature of the season, the harvest prices, the extension or decrease of cultivation, and how these particulars are influenced by each other. The effect of any public improvements, such as roads, railways, canals, markets, on the tract, or on parts of it, is estimated. The prices for which land sold, or the rents for which it is let, are ascertained; and the tract is compared as regards the above particulars with other tracts similar to it in soil, climate, and situation. Upon a consideration of all these data the total assessment is determined. That amount is then apportioned, pretty much in the same manner, upon the different villages; and the total assessment of each village is then distributed over its assessable fields in accordance with their classification, which determines their relative values in point of soil, water supply, and situation.

"It will have been seen that the rent for which land actually lets is one of the minor elements taken into consideration in deciding on the amount of Bombay assessment. To base the assessments chiefly on existing rents would be impossible where, as in Western and Southern India, the proportion of land let is almost infinitesimal in comparison with that of land cultivated by its owner. But this is not the case in Upper India, where a large though varying proportion of land is let out to tenants, and where there exists distinct classes of rent payers and rent receivers.

"When, about 1832, the Government of India determined finally to abandon the attempt to ascertain the net produce of land for the settlement of the North-West Provinces, they decided to substitute as the basis of the assessment of each estate its actual 'assets'—that is to say, where the land is let out for cultivation, the rents actually paid by the tenants (unless obviously inadequate in particular cases, when a 'fair rent,' founded chiefly on the prevailing rates of rent, is substituted for the purpose of the calculation); where the land is cultivated by its proprietor, its fair rental value, assumed on a consideration of the prevailing rent-rate of similar lands let in the vicinity and of other circumstances. The former method of calculating the assets is naturally that chiefly relied on in Oudh, where there are large landlords, the latter among the village communities of the North-West Provinces. These methods are considerably modified in the Punjab and Central Provinces settlements, and where rents are chiefly paid in kind, and sometimes approximate to the Bombay plan. But, speaking generally, whatever the exact method employed, the principle of settlements throughout Upper India is to ascertain the rental value of each estate, and to fix a proportion of that value as its assessment. In the original North-West Provinces settlements (made *circa* 1833-44 for 30 years) this proportion was two-thirds; on revision it was reduced to one-half, and the latter proportion is now universally adopted in the settlements of Upper India, though to it must be added the local cesses, about 10 per cent of the assets.

"One difference between the settlement of a village of peasant proprietors in the *rayatwari* Provinces and that of a proprietary village community or *zamindari* village of Upper India must not be overlooked. In the latter the whole area of the village lands belongs to the community or proprietors who dispose of the waste as they choose. In the former, each peasant is the owner of his own holding only; the unoccupied waste belongs to Government, and is, when necessary, given out for cultivation at fixed field rates. Consequently the revenues of a *Rayatwari* village may increase during the currency of a settlement from the cultivation of waste or decrease from the resignation of cultivated fields, but not that of a proprietary community; and hence there are greater variations during the currency of a settlement in the land revenue of a Bombay or Madras District than in a District of Upper India. Finally, it will be observed that, with insignificant exceptions, there is no longer such a person as a tenant of the State. In the *rayatwari* provinces, the Government tenant has been converted into a peasant proprietor. Elsewhere, the cultivator, if not himself a proprietor, is a tenant of the *zamindar* or of a proprietary body.

"The above sketch will give some idea of the origin and nature of the Indian land revenue system. There remain two or three points which have come prominently into notice during the past decade.

"The

"The first of these is the question of the comparative incidence of ancient and of modern assessments. It has been shown that the assessment of Akbar was usually the average value of one-third the gross produce. The net amount of the land revenue in A.D. 1580, when this settlement was in force, from the 13 Provinces north of about latitude 20 degrees was about 1,320 lakhs of rupees. The existing land revenue in the same Provinces is now about 1,400 lakhs. The assessed or cultivated area of the Provinces is believed to be now much larger than in 1580, while the purchasing power of silver, expressed in the prices of the staple food grains, appears to have fallen about three-fifths. In A.D. 1697 the land revenue had risen immensely, partly from extension of territory, partly from increase of cultivation, rise of prices, or heavier exactions, and is said to have amounted to 3,759 lakhs, from 22 Provinces, inclusive of some territory now Native States, but exclusive of the greater part of Madras. The total land revenue of British India is now 2,190 lakhs. The Famine Commission (page 112 of Part II. of their Report) framed a careful estimate of the present incidence of the land revenue in different provinces, and found that the percentage of the assessments to the value of gross produce varies from 3.8 per cent in the Central Provinces and 3.9 per cent. in Bengal, to 7.6 per cent. in Bombay, and 7.8 per cent. in the North-West Provinces and Oudh.

"This estimate is supported, as far as the Bombay Presidency is concerned, by the returns of the cotton trade, which show that the value of the produce of less than 1-10th the cultivated land of that Presidency is equal to nearly double the total land revenue. In Upper India, the fact that modern assessments are based on half the ascertained rent of land, while in the last century they absorbed the full rent, and even trenched upon the profits of cultivation, points in the same direction.

"Whatever may be the precise value of the estimates of the Famine Commission, it is certain that the incidence of modern assessments is much lighter, not only than that of the oppressive imposts which they superseded, but than that of the reasonable rates of the early Mughal rulers. The difference has been brought about, partly by an absolute reduction in the amount of assessments effected by the first regular settlements, partly by subsequent increase of cultivation, and, to a great extent, by the general rise of prices which has occurred since about 1850, the result, in great measure, of the investment of capital by the State in public improvements, such as roads, railways and harbours. Of late years, the question to what extent, on the revision of periodical settlement, the assessment should be raised upon the latter considerations has become one of much practical importance, especially in Western India, and will be noticed again below.

"The second question to which reference is here necessary has a close connection with the above. It is that of the policy of permanent settlement.

"The Bengal settlement of 1793 was not only *samindari* but its assessments were fixed for ever in amount. It is not however essential to the principle of a *samindari* settlement that the amount of land revenue should be unchangeable, nor, on the other hand, to that of a *rayatwari* or village settlement that the amount should be liable to periodical revision. Lord Cornwallis fixed the revenue of Bengal in perpetuity for political and economical reasons which appeared to him adequate, and when the *samindari* principle was abandoned for the settlement of later acquisitions of the East India Company, it seems to have been doubted whether the principle of perpetuity was not also erroneous or at the least premature. There always existed, however, an influential party among Indian administrators or economists who held that the Land Revenue should be generally made perpetual in amount; and in 1862 Sir C. Wood decided to sanction a permanent settlement wherever the existing settlement was equitable, and where no considerable increase was to be expected in the revenue. These conditions, it was anticipated, would be found to be fulfilled in the greater part of Upper India. The reasons which led to this decision may be briefly stated as follows:—It was considered that permanency of assessment would bind the landowners to the Government which had granted, and which alone would maintain, so great a boon; that it would encourage the investment of capital in land, and therefore the growth of a middle-class; that it would lead to more lenient and considerate treatment of the tenants by the landlords, and would thus promote general prosperity, and consequently an increase of commercial and general, as well as of agricultural wealth; and hence, that

the sacrifice of a prospective increase of land revenue would be made up by increased ability of the population to contribute to general taxation, especially to the indirect taxation which was then thought to afford the most legitimate and least injurious mode of filling the Treasury.

“Great practical difficulties in carrying out the measure soon became apparent. In 1864-65 it was decided that it could not be applied to estates or villages in which the cultivated did not amount to four-fifths of the cultivable area. Immediately after this decision, the great extension of Government works of irrigation in Upper India made it apparent that an estate actually irrigated from a Government work at the introduction of the settlement would be permanently assessed much higher than one to which irrigation was extended after it had been permanently settled. It was therefore decided, in 1866 and 1867, that the permanent settlement should be applied to no estate in which there was a prospect of irrigation within 20 years likely to increase the assets more than 20 per cent. Finally, in 1870-71, a still more important point was raised by the Lieutenant Governor of the North West Provinces, that of the adequacy of the standard of rents on which the assessments to be made permanent were based. The Government of India were much struck with the importance of this view, which, they pointed out, raised new questions of the utmost gravity. It postulated, as the condition of his receiving a permanent settlement of his estate, that the proprietor should be receiving a full rental. But it was not desirable in the interests either of the State or of the public, that tenants generally should pay rack-rents; that the restrictions placed by law or custom on enhancement of rents should be done away with; that rights of occupancy should cease. It was also undesirable that, each assessments being fixed, proprietors should receive the whole advantage of a natural and proper increment of rents due to general progress, and in no degree to their own improvements.

“The principles on which the conditions above mentioned of a permanent settlement were based, were: first, that no improvements made by the landholders should occasion any increase of assessment: this was, in theory at least, admitted by every one; second, that the State should not sacrifice that share of the increased profits of land which would, within a period which could be easily foreseen, result from improvements made by the State. Irrigation was the only improvement directly contemplated; but in reality there were many other improvements made by the State, such as railways, roads, the opening out of markets, which would equally increase the value of land. And besides such improvements made directly at the cost of the State, the immense economical revolution through which India was passing, the diminution in the value of the precious metals, and the enormous increase in the prices of produce, was adding, without any expenditure of labour or capital on the part of the landholder, to the value of land to a degree which was not apparent when a permanent settlement was decided on.

“The Lieutenant-Governor was therefore to reconsider the whole question of a permanent settlement for the North West Provinces, and the Secretary of State was asked, pending the report, to hold in obedience the existing orders regarding the introduction of a permanent settlement. They had in no instance been acted on, the proprietors of land in Upper India had taken no interest in the subject, and they could not be put in force without the most serious and certain injury to the future interests of the public.

“Views similar to these of the Government of India had been urged before the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Indian Finance, who, in 1871, recommended that further proceedings to carry out a permanent settlement should be suspended till the subject had been reconsidered; and instructions to this effect were sent to the Government of India by the Duke of Argyll.

“The enquiry made in Upper India under these orders showed that the opinion of the great majority of the officers consulted was unfavourable to a permanent settlement; and the Lieutenant-Governor of the North West Provinces (Sir W. Muir), remarked that though he believed a permanent settlement had many advantages, he could not advocate a gratuitous sacrifice of the interests of the State, which it was now clear was involved in the measure. He suggested, therefore, for adoption principles which, he believed, would secure most of the advantages of assessments fixed in perpetuity, while reserv-

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ing to the State a share in the increased returns from land which arise, not from private improvements, but from the general progress of the country; from, that is, the 'unearned increment.' These principles, it will be seen, have since been generally adopted.

"The Government of India passed no immediate orders on Sir W. Muir's Report, and nothing further was done in the matter till 1882. But, meanwhile, the objections to absolute perpetuity of assessments became more apparent. In 1862, it was believed that no very considerable increase in the temporarily settled land revenue was probable, but since that date, this revenue has risen by 17½ per cent., an increase without which numerous improvements in Indian finance and administration could not have been effected. A change in fiscal policy has greatly diminished the sources of indirect taxation, an improved yield of which anticipated from the increase of general wealth due to a permanent settlement was relied on to compensate the Treasury from any prospective sacrifice of land revenue. It seems likely that the general dislike of additional direct taxation would outweigh the popularity of a permanent settlement among the landowning classes. The experience of the Provinces which have been for three generations under a permanent settlement, has not been that their general condition is better, their wealth greater, their contributions to general revenue larger than those of the temporarily settled Provinces; nor that fixity of the Government demand on the landlords had led to more considerate treatment by them of their tenants, to improved cultivation, or to greater agricultural prosperity.

"In 1882, therefore, the Government of India determined finally to abandon the policy of the extension of the permanent settlement. At the same time, they considered that the existing system of complete periodical re-settlements involved several evils, the most prominent of which are the uneasiness arising from uncertainty, the risk of undue enhancements, the annoyance to the people and cost to the State of field operations, and detailed enquiries into the returns of landed property, and the check to expenditure on improvements. These evils, it was thought, might in the main be avoided without incurring the disadvantages of assessments absolutely fixed in perpetuity.

"It has, therefore, been decided that, in the first place, the rule already existing, but which, on the half-assets principle, has not always been observed, shall be effectually enforced that assessments shall not be enhanced on account of improvements made by the owner or cultivator. Subject to this rule, where experience has shown existing settlements to be reasonably adequate and equitable, there will be no general revision of the field work, and assessments will be raised on three grounds only: extension of cultivation, increase of produce due to improvements made by the State, and rise of prices, enhancements on the latter ground being strictly limited.

"These principles, which have been in general accepted by the Local Governments and approved by the Secretary of State, will for the future govern the revision of periodical settlements throughout India."

The *diwani* or financial administration of Bengal was conferred upon the East India Company in 1765, but at first the native system of Government was left without interference. In 1772, Warren Hastings was appointed Governor, with express orders to manage the revenues by the direct agency of the Company's servants. His first step was to grant a lease of the land revenue for five years at the amount already fixed, with the intention of conducting in the meantime an elaborate inquiry into the resources of the country. As a matter of fact, this enquiry was never carried out; dissensions in Council, and the press of foreign affairs, diverted Hastings from giving adequate attention to the administration of the revenue. When the five years' lease expired in 1777, it was renewed on the best terms available until the Decennial Settlement of Lord Cornwallis in 1789. Lord Cornwallis had received instructions from the Court of Directors to make a settlement for ten years, with a view to its being ultimately fixed in perpetuity. The chief advocate for a permanent settlement had been Francis, the great rival of Hastings; but the credit of determining the assessment belongs to John Shore (afterwards Lord Teignmouth), who, however, strenuously argued that it was premature to fix it for ever. The Decennial Settlement, as it was called at first, was made in 1789, and declared permanent, by authority of the Court of Directors, in 1793. The total assessment amounted to sikka Rs. 2,69,00,989, equivalent to Company's

BENGAL.
The Permanent
Settlement.

Rs. 2,85,87,722, say, 2,858,772 *l.* The total assessment of the same Provinces in 1882-3 amounted to 3,627,835 *l.*, showing an increase in 90 years of no less than 769,063 *l.* This increase has been in operation steadily from the first, and still yields an average growth of about 10,000 *l.* a year. The chief causes are the resumption of holdings claimed on invalid titles to be revenue free, the assessment of land brought to light by survey, the re-settlement of Government estates and of land forfeited by escheat. These causes of increase have worked much more strongly in Behar than in Bengal Proper, the total increase in Behar alone having been from 566,312 *l.* to 966,592 *l.* or 400,280 *l.* The area covered by the Permanent Settlement was both greater and smaller than the area of the present Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. The Districts of Goalpara and Sylhet, which now form part of Assam, were included; the whole of Orissa Proper, and the Districts of Lohardaga, Singhbhum, and the Santal Parganas were excluded. In 1882-3, the total land revenue demand in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal amounted to 3,786,192 *l.*

Orissa.

Orissa proper, comprising the three Districts of Cuttack, Balasor, and Puri, together with the Tributary States, was conquered from the Mahrattas in 1803, ten years after the date of the Permanent Settlement. Excluding certain *zamin-dari* estates held by feudal chieftains, which were assessed at a perpetual quit-rent, the rest of the Province was settled summarily under a succession of temporary arrangements for varying terms of years. It was hoped that, after the experience of a few years, a permanent settlement might be introduced on the Bengal model; but this hope was never realised, and the temporary arrangements were continued down to 1837. In that year it was resolved to effect an elaborate settlement according to the system of survey and appraisement of each village adopted in the North-West Provinces. The settlement was made with the *zamindars*, the rates of assessment being roughly calculated at between 72 and 63 per cent. of the "assets" or net produce. The rents of the *thani* or "resident" cultivators were fixed at the same time for the term of the settlement. The operations of survey and settlement lasted from 1838 to 1843, and the total cost amounted to 203,634 *l.* The total assessment amounted to 157,211 *l.*, showing an increase on the former assessment of only 3,412 *l.* The original term was for 30 years, expiring in 1867; but, in consideration of the famine of 1866-67, the term was renewed for an additional period of 30 years, which will expire in 1897. In addition to the few permanently settled estates, and the main tract under temporary settlement, Orissa also comprises the large estate of Khurda, 1,000 square miles in area, which was confiscated for the rebellion of its Raja in 1804, but has always retained its fiscal independence. At first, temporary arrangements were made with native officials called *sarbarahkars*; but in 1837 a *rayatwari* settlement, very similar to that prevailing in Assam, was effected with the actual cultivators after measurement and estimate of the classes of soil, leaving to the *sarbarahkars* only the privilege of collecting the revenue with a commission of 20 per cent. This settlement was originally for 20 years, but was renewed for a further term of 20 years after measurement of new cultivation. In 1875, when the second term was approaching expiry, a new settlement was begun on the basis of an accurate cadastral survey, which has resulted in a considerable enhancement of revenue. The assessment is fixed at one-fifth of the gross produce, and the new term will expire in 1897, together with the temporary settlement for the rest of Orissa. In 1804-5, the land revenue demand for the whole of Orissa, including tributes and quit rents, amounted to Rs. 14,19,312 (probably Sikka rupees); in 1844-45, after the temporary settlement, the corresponding demand was Rs. 16,89,630, say 168,963 *l.*; in 1872-73, it was 173,684 *l.*; and in 1882-83, it was 192,391 *l.* The increase in the last period is chiefly due to the re-settlement of Khurda.

Temporarily
Settled and
Government
Estates.

Even in Bengal and Behar, excluding Orissa, the area covered by the permanent settlement is not co-extensive with the total area. A certain portion has from time to time lapsed to the Government for various reasons, and is now placed either under temporary settlement or under the direct management of Government officials. In former times the rule was to grant a permanent settlement of all lapsed estates; but at present another policy is in force which favours temporary settlements, and favours still more the system of Government management. In 1882-83, the total number of estates in Bengal (including Orissa)

Orissa) under temporary settlement amounted to 7,772, with an aggregate revenue of 278,214 l., being 7.6 per cent. of the total land revenue of the Province. The proportion is largest in the Bardwan, Dacca, Presidency, and Patna Divisions. According to the rules now in force, which were promulgated in 1872-73, the system adopted in making a temporary settlement is similar to that in the North-West Provinces. The assessment is preceded by a survey and accompanied by a record of all subordinate rights in the land. In 1882-83 the total number of estates under direct Government management amounted to 1,061, with an aggregate revenue of 262,736 l. The greatest number of Government estates are in the Chittagong and Dacca Divisions, but the largest revenue is derived from the Bardwan and Orissa Divisions. The mode of management is either by officials of the ordinary revenue staff, by managers specially appointed, or by a *tahsildari* establishment on the model of the North-West Provinces.

The case of Chittagong is so peculiar as to demand special mention. Nominally it was included in the permanent settlement of 1789, according to a measurement that had been made as early as 1764, for Chittagong had been ceded to the company in 1760, five years before the grant of the *diwani* in 1765. But in 1797 it was ascertained that the *zamindars* of a large estate had attempted, by means of a forged deed, to usurp possession of all lands excluded from the measurement of 1764. After long litigation, it was decided that these excluded lands, known as *noabad* or "newly cultivated," were the property of Government. Accordingly, a temporary settlement of them was effected by Sir Henry Ricketts between 1841 and 1848. Including resumed *lakhiraj*, or revenue free lands, the total number of estates then surveyed and settled amounted to 89,389, with an aggregate assessment of 29,017 l.; the total cost was 152,341 l. The average rate of assessment was 3s. 4½d. per acre, which was assumed to amount to about 19 per cent. of the gross produce. The settlement was made with the actual possessors, under the title of *talukdars*; where the land was already under cultivation, the term of settlement was for 50 years; where there was still much waste, the term was for only 25 years. When the shorter term expired, a fresh settlement was begun in 1875 and lasted for seven years, at a total cost of about 32,000 l. The operations extended over 740 different villages, with an aggregate area of about 475,000 acres. The old assessment was 4,390 l., which was raised to 14,180 l. The settlement was made with the *talukdars*, on the principle of allowing them 20 per cent. of the rents they actually received from the cultivators, together with a free grant of waste land equal to one-third of the area of their *taluks*. The term was fixed in every case so as to expire with the end of the 50 years' settlement of the other *noabad taluks*, i.e., in 1898. There are altogether in Chittagong about 45,000 *taluks* under Government management, widely scattered among the permanently settled *zamindaris*; for convenience of management they are grouped into five circles or so-called "estates," three of which are at present under *tahsildars* especially appointed, and two under ordinary deputy collectors.

Chittagong.

Waste lands outside the limits of the Permanent Settlement are regarded as the property of Government. Since the formation of Assam into an independent province, waste lands in Bengal exist only in Darjiling and the adjoining *tarai*, in the Hill Tracts of Chittagong, and in the Sundarbans or swampy fringe of the Gangetic delta. At first, under rules framed by Lord Canning in 1861, such waste lands were sold in fee simple, chiefly for tea planting. In 1879, the sale rules were withdrawn; and the practice now is to grant leases renewable in perpetuity, rent free at first, and afterwards liable to progressive increases. In Chittagong and in the Sundarbans the leases are sold by auction. The total number of leases of waste lands in Bengal granted up to 31st March 1883, amounted to 2,269, covering an area of 210,104 acres; the present revenue is 4,083 l., increasing ultimately to 15,997 l. A scheme for granting more favourable terms both to tea planters and to native cultivators is now under consideration.

Waste Land Leases.

According to a new principle of classification adopted in 1874-75, the entire number of estates on the revenue rolls of Bengal are arranged in four classes. Class I. consists of permanently settled estates. In 1882-83, the total number of estates in Class I. amounted to 142,929, with an aggregate current demand of 3,230,638 l. Class II. consists of temporarily settled estates,

Classification of Estates.

including those which are the property of private persons, but which are either farmed or managed directly by Government on account of the refusal of the proprietor to accept a settlement. In 1882-83, the total number of estates in Class II. amounted to 7,682, with an aggregate current demand of 271,365 *l.* Class III. consists of Government estates, including all those estates or groups of estates in which the proprietary right is vested in Government, whether they are actually settled, or farmed, or under direct management, exclusive only of those that fall within Class IV. In 1882-83, the total number of estates in Class III. amounted to 2,706, with an aggregate current demand of 199,605 *l.* Class IV. consists of *rayatwari* tracts, defined as certain groups of adjoining estates, the property of Government, with an aggregate area not less than 5,000 acres, in which the settlement is made direct with the *rayats*. In 1882-83, the total number of so-called "estates" in Class IV. amounted to 26, with an aggregate current demand of 84,584 *l.* In that year, therefore, the grand total of estates of all four classes was 153,343, and the grand total of the current demand was 3,786,192 *l.* One result of this new classification was to effect an extraordinary reduction in the number of estates on the roll, by forming them into groups under Classes III. and IV. For example, about 10,000 holdings in Calcutta were transferred at one stroke from Class I. to constitute a single estate in Class III. Similarly, Khurda in Orissa, with its area of 1,000 square miles, is now reckoned as a single estate in the same class, which also comprises the *noabad taluks* in Chittagong. The best example of the *rayatwari* tracts of which Class IV. is composed is the Daman-i-koh, or "Skirts of the Hills," in the Santal Parganas, with an area of 1,366 square miles.

Multiplication of
states.

Previous to the introduction of the new classification, the multiplication of the number of estates on the roll had gone on unimpeded since the time of the Decennial Settlement (1789). The chief causes of this multiplication have been four. First, the admission of *talukdars* to a place on the roll independent of the *zamindars* within whose estates their own were at first included. In the single district of Jessor no less than 1,000 "independent" *taluks* were accorded separate registration between the years 1796 and 1798; second, the inexorable law of sale for default in the payment of revenue, which resulted within ten years after the Decennial Settlement in a complete revolution as regards the ownership of land in Bengal; third, the free power of sale by private bargain, which was first recognised by the Regulations declaring the Decennial Settlement permanent; fourth, the right of partition among coparceners, which was recognised in the same Regulations. These two last causes are in active operation at the present day, more especially in Behar. Within the last twenty years the number of estates on the roll in the Patna Division has nearly doubled, while in the single District of Tirhut it has more than trebled. Between 1881-82 and 1882-83, the total number of estates in Class I., or permanently settled, increased by 1,538.

The actual distribution of landed property at the present time is shown by the following figures. The total number of estates on the revenue roll of Bengal proper and Behar, exclusive of resumed *lahhiraj* estates under 20 acres, amounts to 110,456; of these, 457 may be called large properties with an area of more than 20,000 acres; 12,304 are moderate estates, with an area between 20,000 and 500 acres; while 97,695 are small estates with an area of less than 500 acres. Behar, despite the fact that it includes three or four of the largest properties of all, is on the whole (excepting the district of Champaran) emphatically a country of petty landholders, who are especially numerous in the districts of Muzaffarpur, Darbhanga, and Patna. The great *zamindars* are chiefly in Maimansingh, Purniah, Dinajpur, Midnapur, Dacca, Gaya, Hazaribagh, and Rangpur.

Subordinate
tenures.

In Bengal, however, the distribution of estates on the roll by no means corresponds to the beneficial ownership of landed property. By the reckless granting of subordinate tenures, it has come about that at the present time only a small proportion of the permanently settled area remains in the direct possession of the *zamindars*. Some of these subordinate tenures date from before the Decennial Settlement, such as the "dependent" *taluks*, which differ from the "independent" only in so far as the Government revenue is paid through the *zamindar*; and the *istimrari* and *mukarari* tenures, which are perpetual leases at a fixed rent.

rent. But the more important class of subordinate tenures are those known as *patnis*, which are said to owe their origin to a plan devised by the Raja of Bardwan, the greatest of all the *zamindars*, to avoid the fate that befel most of his brethren within a few years after the Decennial Settlement. A *patni* is a perpetual lease, granted generally in consideration of a lump sum or premium, as well as an annual rent somewhat higher than the Government assessment. *Patnis* were legalised in 1813; i.e., it was then first declared that their existence would be recognised on the sale of the parent *zamindari* for arrears of revenue; and the same powers for recovering arrears against the *patnidar* were conferred upon the *zamindar* which the Government already possessed against the *zamindar*. The motive that had caused the creation of *patnis* naturally led the *patnidar* to carve out a fresh subordinate tenure, of a similar sort, and so to a long chain of subinfeudation, hence it may happen that a *zamindar* who is desirous of regaining possession of his own lands (e.g., for the cultivation of indigo) has to accept a sub-lease from his own tenant. Nor does the complication stop here, for the usual practice is to grant leases, not of this or that entire field or village, but of a certain aliquot share (say two annas in the rupee or one-eighth) of the entire estate, reserving to the *zamindar* the lands adjoining his own residence. *Patnis* predominate in Bengal proper. In Behar their place is taken by the *thika*, or farming lease, which is equally effectual in severing direct relations between the *zamindar* and the actual cultivators of the soil.

At the time that the Decennial Settlement was declared permanent, it was fully intended to restrict the demand of the *zamindar* against the *rayat* as carefully as the demand of Government against the *zamindar* has been restricted. The belief was that the *zamindar* would derive his future profit, not from enhancement of rent, but from extension of cultivation and rise of prices. But the language of the Regulations of 1793 in favour of the *rayat* was allowed to become a dead letter. Indeed, the position of the *rayats* was rendered distinctly worse by two Regulations passed in 1799 and 1812, which empowered the *zamindar* to seize their persons and distrain their property in default of due payment of rent. No change was made in the law of landlord and tenant (for such the relationship had become) until 1859, when a restriction upon rents under certain circumstances was first introduced by what is known as Act X. of that year. All *rayats* were divided into four classes. Class 1 consisted of those who had held at fixed rates since the Permanent Settlement, and who were now declared altogether free from enhancement. Class 2 consisted of those who had held at fixed rates for 20 years, and who were presumed to have held since the Permanent Settlement unless the contrary should be proved. Class 3 consisted of those who had held for 12 years. In their case a right of occupancy was recognised under which the rent could only be raised for certain specified reasons, and by a certain procedure. Class 4 consisted of tenants-at-will, whose status remained untouched. In 1879 a Commission was appointed to inquire into the whole subject of landlord and tenant in Bengal; and a Bill framed on the Report of that Commission has recently been passed by the Legislative Council of India, and now awaits the sanction of the Secretary of State.

Cultivating
Tenancies.

An important branch of land administration is that performed by the Board of Revenue in its capacity of Court of Wards. The estates not only of minors but also of other disqualified proprietors are liable to be placed under the direct management of Government officers through the Court of Wards, originally as a security for the due payment of the revenue, but now rather with a view to the improvement of the estates. The expenses are met by a rate levied on every estate under the Court of Wards in a certain fixed proportion to its rent-roll. A series of statutes govern the subject, the last of which was passed in 1881. The general principle is that the manager appointed by the Court of Wards should act the part of an enlightened landlord, fixing fair and uniform rates of rent, introducing such agricultural improvements as have been proved to be successful, and devoting the surplus income towards capital expenditure that will promote the permanent benefit of the estate and the tenantry. Whenever the circumstances of the estate admit, it has been determined to conduct a systematic field survey, together with the preparation of a record of rights. The education of the minors also receives attention. Down to 1881 the more wealthy of them used to be brought up in a special Wards Institution

Court of Wards.

stitution at Calcutta; but it has now been decided to place them in the principal schools in their Districts, and to train them from an early time in the practical work of *zamindari* management. The age of majority has been fixed by a recent statute (Act IX. of 1875) at 21 years.

The Darbhanga
Raj.

The Darbhanga Raj in Behar is the largest property that has been under the management of the Court of Wards in recent years. The Government assessment is 40,748 *l.*; and when the Court took charge in 1860, the nominal rental was found to be 163,936 *l.* All the villages were let on farming leases, mostly to relatives of servants of the Raj or to men of straw. The arrears of rent amounted to 564,497 *l.*; and the debts of the late Raja had to be compounded for by a total payment of 718,843 *l.* When the Court of Wards gave over charge of the estate to the young Raja in 1879, after a management of 19 years, the aggregate rent-roll (after deducting remissions) had been raised to 216,188 *l.*, and the arrears were insignificant. All debts had been paid off long before; and there was a cash balance in hand of 27,573 *l.*, besides 385,450 *l.* invested in Government securities. The cost of management represented only 6 per cent. of the total receipts. The total expenditure on public works amounted to 549,224 *l.*, the chief objects being extensive irrigation works in Kharakpur, over 150 miles of roads and bridges, 20 vernacular schools, three hospitals, and six dispensaries. The mischievous system of farming leases had been abolished, and the condition of the tenantry greatly improved. The Raja of Darbhanga is now a member of the Legislative Council of India, while his brother is an Assistant Magistrate in the Civil Service.

Village Records,

By the Regulations of 1793, from which the Permanent Settlement derives its validity, the *zamindars* were required to maintain a staff of *patwaris*, or village accountants, and to file their accounts with *kanungos* or registrars appointed by Government. By these means it was intended to compile not only a register of estates and tenancies, but also a record of rates of rent, prices of produce, and other agricultural information. But these provisions of the Permanent Settlement, like those framed in the interests of the *rayats*, were never actually enforced, and soon became a dead letter. Several attempts have been made from time to time to revive the office of *patwari*, but with little success except in the case of Behar and the District of Monghyr; and fresh legislation on the subject is now pending. A partial substitute for a record of rights has been indirectly provided by the Cess Act of 1871, which requires a return of the value of all holdings in Bengal; similarly a register of possessory titles in estates, whether revenue paying or revenue free, is provided by Act VII. of 1876, which enacts heavy penalties against those who refuse to register. Down to 31st March 1883, registration under this Act had been completed in 31 Districts, leaving 12 unfinished. The total number of applications disposed of amounted to 935,027; the total cost was 40,786 *l.*, as a set-off against which fees had been received to the amount of 11,412 *l.*

Professional Sur-
vey.

Almost the entire area of Bengal has been professionally surveyed in such a way as to show the boundaries of every village and estate; but there has been no field measurement except in a few limited tracts. The last District to be taken up was Midnapur, where the survey began in 1874 and finished in 1879. The process of survey proper is preceded by that of demarcation, the objects of which are to define the boundaries of villages and estates, to decide disputes concerning these boundaries and set up boundary marks, to make a rough compass and chain survey, and a map on the scale of 16 inches to the mile. Where it happens that the entire area of a village belongs to a single estate, only the outer boundary of the village is defined. But in the more common case where a village comprises several estates, each consisting of separate plots, the boundaries of every plot have to be defined. Thus in the District of Hugli, out of about 4,000 villages, about 1,000 were co-extensive with the areas of estates, while for the remaining 3,000 villages no less than 80,000 plot measurements were required. Down to the year 1875 there was no legislative provision compelling *zamindars* to maintain in good order the boundary marks set up by the demarcation department, which has greatly impaired the practical use of the survey. After demarcation follows the professional survey, the objects of which are to make a scientific survey of every village, and to compile a map showing the geographical and topographical features

features of the country. This map is usually on the scale of 4 inches to the mile, but in 1 or 2 cases it is on the larger scale of 8 inches. Some of the hill districts, such as Darjiling and the Santal Parganas, have been surveyed only topographically, with maps on the smaller scale of 1 or 2 inches to the mile. A cadastral or field survey was undertaken between 1875 and 1878 of the lands irrigable from the Sone Canal; and a map compiled on the scale of 32 inches to the mile. A small area of irrigable land in Cuttack has been similarly surveyed; and a cadastral survey has been made of two estates in Chutia Nagpur, and of the Government estate of Khurda in Orissa.

At the present time the most important work of the Survey Department is that concerned with alluvion and diluvion caused by the Ganges and other great rivers, known as the *deara* survey. The object of these operations, as defined by Act IX. of 1847, is to assess new land that has formed by alluvion on the banks or in the bed of rivers, and to grant corresponding remissions to proprietors whose estates may have suffered by diluvion. Formerly such new lands were settled permanently, but now they are always brought under a temporary settlement. During the six years ending March 1873, the banks of the chief rivers in Eastern Bengal have been professionally surveyed by a native Deputy Collector, specially appointed for the purpose. The total area surveyed was 5,682 square miles, at a total cost of 15,943 £, being 2 £. 17 s. per square mile. The total area of new land brought to light was 479 square miles, of which 120 square miles, attached to 273 estates, have been definitely assessed at a revenue of 5,946 £; and about as much more is awaiting settlement.

The Survey Department.

The general results of the administration of land revenue in Bengal in 1882-83 are shown in the following table:—

Land Revenue Administration, 1882-83.

DETAILS OF ESTATES, LAND REVENUE DEMAND, and COLLECTIONS in BENGAL, 1882-

	Number of Estates.	Arrear Demand.	Current Demand.	Total Demand.	Actual Collections.	Percent of Collection.
		£.	£.	£.	£.	
Class I. Permanently Settled Estates -	142,949	45,571	3,230,638	3,276,209	3,234,345	98.
„ II. Temporarily Settled Estates -	7,682	94,682	271,363	366,047	298,961	81.
„ III. Government Estates -	2,706	81,679	199,005	281,284	193,133	68.
„ IV. <i>Rayatwari</i> Tracts -	26	16,252	84,584	100,836	90,357	89.
TOTALS -	153,343	238,184	3,766,192	4,024,376	3,816,796	94.

As compared with the corresponding figures of the previous year, the total number of estates increased by 1,409, owing to the operation of the *deara* survey partitions, escheats, and purchases by Government at auction sales. Under Classes II. and III. (temporarily settled and Government estates) the number decreased, chiefly from the consolidation of holdings in Chittagong. The arrear demand was less than in the previous year by 155,045 £.; the current demand was larger by 12,470 £., almost entirely due to Class III., or the *rayatwari* tracts. The total demand, therefore, was 4,024,376 £. of which 11,572 £. was remitted during the year, leaving a realisable balance of 4,012,804 £. The actual amount collected was 3,816,796 £., leaving 196,008 £. outstanding, much of which has since been recovered. This is the most satisfactory result attained in Bengal during recent years, and it is said to have been achieved rather by careful administration than by any increased pressure on *zamindars* and *rayats*. Under the provisions of the sale law, 9,735 estates or shares of estates became liable to sale for arrears of revenue, of which 2,148 were actually sold. As many as two-thirds of the sales took place in the one District of Chittagong.

The land revenue administration of Assam is complicated by the diverse history and other circumstances of the several parts of which the Province is composed. The two Districts of Sylhet and Goalpara formed

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portion of Bengal, as acquired by the *diwani* grant of 1765, and they were both included in the Permanent Settlement. The Hill Tracts, from the Garo to the Naga Hills, pay no land revenue, but a house-tax instead. The characteristic revenue system of Assam is to be found in the five Districts of the Brahmaputra valley. The District of Cachar, at the head of the Surma valley has a peculiar settlement of its own.

The Bramaputra
Valley.

The land system of the Brahmaputra valley, or Assam proper, may be described as pure *rayatwari*, modified only by the circumstance that a native contractor, styled *mauzadar*, intervenes between the Government and the actual cultivators of the soil. The entire area, including waste land, is divided into convenient blocks or revenue circles, known as *mauzas*, which vary much in size, but average about 55 square miles. Excluding waste land, and also grants for tea cultivation, the average area of each *mauza* would be reduced to about 4,536 acres of cultivated land. Each *mauza* constitutes the charge of a *mauzadar*, whose duties are to measure the cultivated portion, to assess the revenue in accordance with certain fixed rules, and to pay over the collections to Government, subject to the deduction of his own commission. Subordinate to the *mauzadars* there are *mandals*, who correspond to the *patwaris* or village accountants of Northern India. They assist the *mauzadar* and keep the records of their circles, which usually comprise the third or fourth part of a *mauza*. No scientific survey precedes settlement. The measurements of the *mauzadars* are made in the roughest way by means of a 30-foot chain, and proceed on the assumption that every field is a rectangle, of which the area can be ascertained by multiplying its length into its breadth. A few sample measurements only are tested by the Deputy Commissioner. Land that has been once measured and assessed is not measured again every year, unless part of it has been abandoned or an addition has been made of new cultivation. After measurement, the fields are assessed by the *mauzadar* at the following rates: *basti*, or homestead and garden land, 6 s. per acre; *rupit*, or low-lying land on which the great winter crop of transplanted rice is grown, 3 s. 9 d. per acre; *faringati*, or high land on which all other crops are grown, 3 s. per acre. When the assessments have been confirmed, each cultivator receives a *patta* or lease in the name of the Government, and executes a *kabulyat* or counterpart in exchange. A supplementary settlement is needed to assess land taken up for cultivation in the latter half of the year. The *mauzadar* is responsible for the due payment of the revenue, whether he realises it from the cultivators or not. His commission is calculated at 10 per cent. on the first 600 l. of revenue, and 5 per cent. on any amount above 600 l. Besides the ordinary *mauzadari* tenure, it is necessary to mention two other tenures in the Brahmaputra valley, apart from the *lakhiraj* or revenue free tenure which is common to all India. These are the *chamuã* or *khirajhat*, which only differs from the ordinary tenure in that the holder has the privilege of paying his revenue direct to Government without the intervention of a *mauzadar*; and the *nistkhiraj*, a sort of resumed *lakhiraj*, assessed at half rates.

In the course of the year 1882 83 some important changes were introduced into the land system of Assam. Hitherto the settlement had been nominally annual, *i. e.*, it was renewed afresh each year, though no change was made except for extent of cultivation. Though a set of rules for the encouragement of 10 year leases had been promulgated in 1870, these were practically inoperative. In 1883, it was ordered that the settlement should henceforth be decennial, wherever cultivation was of a permanent character. At the same time the first steps were taken to begin a cadastral survey of the land under regular cultivation; and a trial was made of substituting *tahsildars* or Government officials for the *mauzadars*.

Sylhet.

The land system of Sylhet District in Assam reproduces in its general features the land system of Chittagong District in Bengal. Both were included in the Permanent Settlement; and in both cases the settlement had been preceded by measurement, so that all land not included within estates that were permanently settled, remains the property of Government. In both cases, also, it happens that the permanently settled estates were extremely small, and therefore exceptionally numerous. Lands excluded from the Permanent Settlement, corresponding to the *noábád* of Chittagong, is known in Sylhet as *ilam*, from
having

having been "proclaimed" in 1802. These *ilam* lands were first surveyed in 1835, and the cultivated portions were settled with their occupants on a 10 years' lease, which has since been renewed from time to time. A large part of what was waste in 1835 has since been granted to tea planters. In 1869 a systematic re-survey and resettlement of the *ilam* lands of Sylhet was undertaken, resulting in a considerable increase of revenue. The assessment is based upon the rates of rent paid by cultivators of similar lands in the neighbourhood, subject to a deduction of 15 per cent. The term is for 20 years; the holders have a permanent and heritable right of occupancy, but the proprietary right vests in the Government. The plains portion of the Jaintia estate, confiscated in 1835, is also included in Sylhet District. A survey and settlement of this tract was first made in 1838-40; a fresh assessment, without re-measurement, was made in 1856; and an entirely new survey, begun in 1876, has just been completed. The result of the recent survey has been to raise the revenue more than twofold. The only difference between the tenure in the Jaintia estate and in the temporarily settled portion of Sylhet proper is that transfers are subject to the approval of Government.

The District of Cachar, lying beyond Sylhet, has a peculiar tenure of its own, known as *mirasdari*, the characteristic of which is that the estates are held in common by a voluntary body of cultivators, often of different castes, tribes, and religions, who are jointly liable for the revenue. The first settlement was made in 1838-39, for a term of 5 years, after a rough survey. A fresh survey was made in 1841-42, upon which was based a 15 years' settlement, renewed for an additional term of 20 years. In 1875 a more elaborate survey was begun, which was intended at first to be cadastral, but was ultimately concluded in a less scientific way. The assessment based upon this survey had been concluded by the end of March 1883 in two *tahsils* out of three, showing an increase of 30 per cent. and 35 per cent. respectively. The term is for 15 years. The tenure conferred is permanent, heritable, and transferable.

Cachar-

Waste land tenures for tea cultivation form an important feature in the land system of Assam. In this matter there have been several changes in the policy of Government. The first rules, drawn up in 1838, sanctioned the grant of leases of not less than 100 nor more than 10,000 acres. One-fourth of the area must be brought under cultivation within five years, under penalty of resumption. One-fourth of the whole was revenue free for ever; the remainder was liable to varying rates of assessment, subject to revision every 21 years. Only 16 grants are now held under these rules, with a total area of 5,533 acres. In 1854 a fresh set of rules were introduced, now known as the old Assam Rules. The lower limit of a waste land grant was raised to 500 acres, except under special circumstances; and the proportion that must be brought under cultivation, under penalty of resumption, was fixed progressively until it reached three-fourths at the end of 30 years. One-fourth of the area was still revenue free for ever; the remainder was free for 15 years, to be assessed thereafter at 4½ *d.* an acre for 10 years, and at 9 *d.* an acre for 74 years more, making 99 years in all, after which it is subject to re-survey and re-settlement. In 1861 an option was given of redeeming the future assessment at 20 years' purchase, which has been largely availed of. There are now 262 grants thus redeemed, with a total area of 282,758 acres, besides 52 grants held upon the original terms, with a total area of 45,673 acres. The policy of selling in fee-simple was introduced by Lord Canning in 1861, and modified in 1862, and again in 1874. The land was to be surveyed prior to sale, and then put up to auction at an upset price, first fixed at 5 *s.*, and afterwards raised to 16 *s.* an acre. The grants were limited, except under special circumstances, to a maximum of 3,000 acres. The price might either be paid down at once, or in instalments spread over 10 years, with interest at 10 per cent. There now exist 325 fee-simple grants, with a total area of 201,131 acres. In 1876 the policy of leases was reverted to, without any stipulations regarding the area to be brought under cultivation. The rules then issued, which are still in force, provide for the sale of leases by auction at the upset price of 2 *s.* an acre. The term is for 30 years, of which two years are revenue free, the rent thereafter rising progressively to 2 *s.* an acre. On the termination of the lease, the land may not be assessed at rates higher than those prevailing for ordinary cultivation. The

Waste Land
Leases.

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lessee is required to reside in the District, either himself or by an agent; and the estate can only be alienated in its entirety. At the end of March 1883 there were 545 of these leases in existence, with a total area of 221,379 acres. A combination of the last-mentioned lease with the *ilam* tenure has been permitted in South Sylhet, where there are 59 such estates, with a total area of 29,536 acres. The total area of land in Assam held under special terms for tea cultivation amounts, therefore, to 786,710 acres, or 1,229 square miles, of which about 180,000 acres are actually under plant. In addition, a total area of 76,500 acres is held by tea-planters under ordinary *rayatwari* tenure in Assam Proper, besides a considerable area in Cachar under the *mirasdari* tenure.

Land Revenue Administration, 1882-83.

In 1882-83 the number of permanently-settled estates in Assam amounted to 50,055, of which all but 20 are in the single District of Sylhet. The number of temporarily-settled estates was 488,563, being an increase of 7,362 on the previous year. The current demand on the permanently-settled estates was 7,386 *l.*, and on the temporarily-settled estates, 293,447 *l.*; total, 300,833 *l.*, showing a net decrease of 52,773 *l.* on the previous year. But this decrease is entirely due to a change made in the time for paying instalments in Sylhet District. The arrear demand amounted to 42,658 *l.*, raising the total demand to 343,491 *l.*, of which 328,101 *l.*, or 95.32 per cent., was actually collected in the year; 1,817 *l.* was remitted, and 13,773 *l.* remained for future adjustment.

NORTH-WEST PROVINCES.

The land system of the North-West Provinces is sufficiently distinct from that of Oudh to justify separate treatment. That portion of the North-Western Provinces immediately adjoining Bengal, which formed the *zamindari* of Benares ceded by the Nawab Wazir of Oudh in 1775, was included in the Permanent Settlement of Bengal made by Lord Cornwallis in 1793. It comprises the five existing Districts of Benares, Ghazipur, Mirzapur, Jaunpur, Ballia, together with part of Azamgarh. The total area is 10,626 square miles; and the total permanent assessment is 476,593 *l.*, being at the rate of about 3 *s.* 1½ *d.* per cultivated acre. The rest of the North-West Provinces, consisting mainly of the country (ceded) by the Nawab Wazir of Oudh in 1800, and (conquered) from the Mahrattas in 1803, has always been under temporary settlement. At first the assessments were made on no definite principle, except to maintain the revenue borne on the roll of the Native Government. Thus, to take the example of Cawnpur District. The rent roll under native rule was found to be 225,616 *l.*; the first English assessment raised it to 235,936 *l.* New settlements were made in 1805, 1807, and 1812, the last of which remained in force till 1840. The existing settlement, which was concluded between 1868 and 1878, brings in a revenue of only 216,144 *l.*

Principles of Settlement, 1822.

The first serious attempt to lay down the principles of what is now understood by a "settlement" was embodied in Regulation VII. of 1822. Assessments were not to be based upon the mere statements of past collections furnished by native officials, but upon an exhaustive investigation into the circumstances of every village, the object prescribed being "to ascertain and record not only the fiscal capabilities of the different estates, their extent and produce, the value of that produce and the cost of production, but also all interests attaching to the land." In short, it was proposed to ascertain the true agricultural rent of the country, and to determine at the same time the relations of all parties with regard to the soil in subordination to the Government. The attempt failed from excess of elaboration, but it may be said still to represent the ideal of the North West revenue system.

The First Regular Settlement, 1833.

The first regular settlement dates from 1833, when a simpler set of regulations was promulgated. The assessment was based, not upon calculations of gross and net produce, but upon an estimate of the actual rent for different classes of soil, the proportion of rent to be taken as revenue being put at two-thirds. The universal use of a field survey was prescribed for the first time. This settlement occupied seven years, from 1833 to 1840, and fixed the revenue (excluding Jhansi)

Jhansi) at about 3,372,200 *l.* The term was for 30 years, which began to expire in some Districts just before the Mutiny.

The next regular settlement, which has just been completed and is now everywhere in force, was begun in 1858 and finished in 1882. The average duration for each District was nine years; and the total cost, including that of the cadastral survey where undertaken, amounted to a little more than 1,500,000 *l.* The proportion of rent taken as revenue has been reduced from two-thirds to one-half; but the total assessment (excluding Jhansi) has been raised from 3,372,200 *l.* to 3,665,300 *l.*, or by 293,100 *l.*, which represents 9 per cent. on the old assessment, and 20 per cent. on the cost of settlement. The average rate is about 3 *s.* 5 *d.* per cultivated acre, ranging from 4 *s.* 11½ *d.* in Cawnpur to 2 *s.* 1½ *d.* in Jhansi.

The Second Regular Settlement, 1868.

The actual process of settlement is preceded by survey, which used formerly to consist of two branches, the professional revenue survey, and the settlement survey proper. Both are now combined in the cadastral survey conducted by the regular Revenue Survey Department of the Government of India. According to the dual system formerly in force, upon which the whole of the first settlement and part of the second were based, the Revenue Survey Department prepared a topographical map of every village, on the scale of 4 inches to the mile; while the Settlement Department prepared a map of every field within the village, on the scale of 16 inches to the mile. The topographical map represented a strictly scientific survey; the field map, though accurate enough for practical purposes, was constructed at first only upon chain measurements, and since 1852 upon survey by plane table, the work being done partly by the *patwaris* or village accountants, partly by native *amins*. The total cost of the Revenue Survey for the first settlement, from 1833 to 1844, amounted to about 220,000 *l.* The new system of a cadastral survey by the Revenue Survey Department, which prepares a field map by the agency of scientific survey parties, was begun in 1871, and has since been extended to the permanently-settled Districts.

Survey.

Some of the early settlements were left to the Collector of the District; they are now always conducted by a special settlement officer, who is a member of the Covenanted Service. The first step is to divide the District into "assessment circles," usually identical with the *parganas* or old fiscal divisions. The next process, which is the corner stone of the whole operation, is to ascertain the rental or "assets" of the "assessment circle." For the first settlement this process was comparatively simple. The usual practice was to compile an estimated rent roll of the whole of the "assessment circle," which was based upon the actual rents paid, as modified by the settlement officer's judgment of what a fair rent should be. Having thus obtained the aggregate rental, he then distributed it in detail over the several villages, of which the "assessment" circle was composed, with due consideration for the special circumstances of each case. The method now adopted is far more elaborate. It begins with a classification of soils, which is carried out with such minuteness that no less than 99 distinct varieties of soil have been recognised by a settlement officer in a single "assessment circle." For ordinary purposes, however, a threefold distinction is sufficient clay, loam, and sand. Besides natural differences of soil, artificial differences have to be considered, such as the use of manure, facilities for irrigation, and proximity to the inhabited portion of the village. Combining all these considerations, the settlement officer divides the area of every village into as many blocks or *hars* as there are recognised differences of productiveness. He then proceeds to ascertain the actual rent of every field, excluding those which offer no fair criterion of average rents. The rest of the process is purely statistical. The fields are apportioned among the classified blocks or *hars* to which they belong; the total of the rents of the field in each *har* forms the total rental of the *har*; and the total rental of the *har*, divided by the area, gives the average rate of rent to be assigned to every field within the *har*. And so for every *har* within the "assessment circle." The Government revenue, at the rate of one-half the estimated rent, is then assessed upon the proprietor for a term of 30 years. If the proprietor refuses to enter into an engagement to pay the revenue assessed, the estate is either taken under Government management or

Process of Assessment.

let in farm, an allowance of from 5 to 15 per cent. being granted to him for subsistence have the privilege of holding.

Record of Rights.

The final operation of a settlement is that of framing the record of rights, which comprises a series of papers relating to both proprietors and tenants. The proprietors, with whom the settlement is made, are those who are found to be actually in possession, all disputed rights being referred by the settlement officer to the civil courts. The different kinds of proprietors will be explained subsequently. It is sufficient now to mention the exceptional case of two proprietary interests in a single village, the *talukdari*, or superior, and the *zamindari*, or inferior. The settlement may be made with either, as the special circumstances demand; but in both cases alike the superior right of the *talukdar* over the *zamindar* has been commuted for a money payment of 10 per cent. on the revenue. It will be observed that the relation between *talukdar* and *zamindar* in the North-West Provinces is exactly the converse of the relation between the parties who bear the same name in Bengal, where the *talukdar* is the subordinate. As regards tenants, the record of rights shows the fields held by each, the rent paid, and the *status* of the tenant, whether occupancy or at will. There is also a separate roll for undertenants.

Proprietary Tenures.

The unit of revenue administration is the village or *mauza*, though the village is not now invariably the unit of assessment. The principle of joint responsibility has so far been relaxed that an individual sharer is allowed to apply for partition; hence has arisen a new unit called the *mahal* or estate, which may consist of more than one village, or of part of a single village, or (not unfrequently) of aliquot portions of several villages. The total number of villages in the North-West Provinces is 81,084, each with an average area of about one square mile. By far the greater number are held by *zamindars* or village proprietors, who are divided into four classes according to tenure: (I.) the *zamindari* tenure proper, where the whole land of the village (if there is more than one proprietor) is held and managed in common by a coparcenary body and the produce or rents (as the case may be) are thrown into a common stock and divided among the proprietors according to their recognised shares; (II.) *pattidari* tenure, where the land is held in severalty by the different proprietors, each managing his own share and paying his own portion of the revenue, but with a joint liability upon all for the default of any one; (III.) imperfect *pattidari* tenure, a combination of the two former, where part of the land is held in common and part in severalty, the shares in each being proportionate to the shares in the original interest. In this case the produce of the common land is first appropriated to the payment of the Government revenue, any balance being made up, or overplus distributed, according to a rate upon the individual holdings; (IV.) *bhayachara*, or "brotherhood" tenure, which differs from "imperfect" *pattidari* in that the shares of land, whether held in common or severalty, bear no proportion to the shares in the original interest. This class also includes the case where the whole land is held in severalty, but the shares have no intelligible proportion one to another. In other words, the shares in a *bhayachara* village are regulated, not by ancestral right, but by arbitrary custom, as usually happens when the entire area is cultivated by the proprietors themselves. The revenue is annually distributed over the holdings by means of a rate. In all these coparcenary tenures, the payment of revenue is made through certain representatives styled *lanbardars* (a corruption of the English "number"), who engage with the Government on behalf of the rest.

Cultivating Tenancies.

The actual cultivating tenancies in the North-West Provinces are divided into five classes: (1) *sir*, or land cultivated by the proprietors themselves, which has either been recorded as such at settlement, or recognised as such by village custom, or actually cultivated as such continuously for 12 years. In *sir* land no right of occupancy can accrue to under-tenants; the total of *sir* land amounts to about 16 per cent. of the cultivated area of the Province; (2) land cultivated by proprietors, but not as *sir*, to which no privileges attach; total, 8 per cent. of the cultivated area of the Province; (3) privileged tenants, found only in the permanently-settled Districts, who have held continuously at the same rate of rent since the permanent settlement (1793), or who are presumed to have done so by reason of having held at the same rate for at least

least 20 years. They are entitled to a permanent occupancy without enhancement; they cultivate 1 per cent. of the total area of the Provinces; (4) occupancy tenants, being those who have held continuously for 12 years, and who are protected against enhancement of rent except by agreement, or by order of a rent court; they cultivate 36·5 per cent. of the total area of the Province; (5) tenants at will, who cultivate 38·5 per cent. of the total area; they are liable to eviction at the end of the agricultural year, provided that the landlord serves a notice before 1st April, and pays the value of all unexhausted improvements. The farm of an occupancy tenant is on an average one-fourth larger than that of a tenant at will, and he usually holds the best land in the village. He is thus enabled to pay sometimes a higher rent, and yet be better off than a tenant at will. But the area of farms varies with the density of population; and it is upon this, rather upon the rate of rent, that the wealth of the agricultural classes depends.

In addition to the land revenue proper, certain cesses and miscellaneous branches of revenue are collected with it. These include the ordinary cess at the rate of 10 per cent. on the revenue, or 5 per cent. on the rental, which is devoted to the maintenance of schools and roads; and an extraordinary cess of 2 per cent. additional, first levied in 1878 for the relief and prevention of famine. These two together yield about 473,000 *l.* a year. Another cess of 6 per cent. used to be levied for the support of the *patwaris* or village accountants, yielding about 241,000 *l.*; but this was abolished in 1882. Wherever lands derive a large profit from canals constructed at the public expense, which was not taken into account at the time of settlement, an owner's irrigation rate is levied in addition to the land revenue, yielding about 150,000 *l.* The total miscellaneous revenue realised from forests and mines in Kumaon, from grazing lands in Gorakhpur, and from stone quarries in Mirzapur, is somewhat less than 100,000 *l.*

Cesses and
Miscellaneous.

An important change in the land system of the North-West Provinces has recently been effected in the reorganisation of the office of *patwari* or village accountant. This office, of immemorial antiquity in the village system for all public revenue purposes, was allowed to degenerate until the *patwari* had become little more than the personal servant of the *zamindars*. He has now been declared a Government official, and his records public property; at the same time, the area of his functions has been enlarged so as to include a group of villages of convenient size; and a supervising staff of *sadr kanungos*, registrars, &c., has been called into existence. To each temporarily settled district a *sadr kanungo* has been appointed, and to each *tahsil* a registrar, together with a staff of supervisors, whose special duty is to examine on the spot the records kept by the *patwaris*. The total number of *patwaris* is 21,588, each of whom has charge of an area of about 1,278 cultivated acres. The principal duties of the *patwari* are to insert on the village map all changes either in the area under cultivation or in the form of fields; to maintain a record of all changes either in proprietary right or in cultivating tenures; to record for both harvests the area under each crop, the extent of irrigation, and any special calamity; to keep an account of the land in possession of every cultivator, and of the amount of rent payable and paid; to keep an account of the receipts and disbursements of every member of the proprietary body, and of the adjustments of profits among themselves. The supreme control of the *patwari* establishment has been placed in the hands of the newly-appointed Director of Agriculture.

Village Records.

For purposes of revenue administration, the year in the North-West Provinces ends on 30th September, and not on 31st March. The financial results for the revenue year 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The total current demand for "land revenue borne on the roll" amounted to 4,282,146 *l.*, being a decrease of 4,757 *l.* as compared with the previous year, chiefly due to a reduction of the assessment in Banda District as the result of the recently-concluded settlement. The total collections amounted to 4,262,133 *l.*, leaving a balance of 20,013 *l.*, of which 11,427 *l.* is classed as "nominal," and 8,586 *l.* as "real." The real balance shows a per-centage on the total demand of 20, as compared with 12 for the previous year, the best result on record. In addition, there was a balance of 44,369 *l.* outstanding at the commencement of the year, of which 10,519 *l.* was collected during the year, and 28,789 *l.* remitted,

Land Revenue
Administration
1882-83.

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leaving 5,061 *l.* for future adjustment. The actual receipts for the year under all headings are shown in the following table:—

RECEIPTS OF LAND REVENUE, &c., in the NORTH-WEST PROVINCES, 1882-83.

	£.
Fixed Land Revenue, Current Demand - - -	4,262,133
Fixed Land Revenue, Outstanding Balance - -	10,519
Land Revenue not borne on the Roll - - -	7,001
<i>Malikana</i> (excluded from Government Demand) -	17,035
12 per Cent. Acreage, Road, School, and Post Cesses	516,930
<i>Chaukidars'</i> Commuted <i>Jagirs</i> and Cash Payments -	11,525
Miscellaneous Land Revenue - - - -	9,392
Occupiers' Rate - - - - -	473,583
Owners' Rate - - - - -	26,472
Sale of State Properties - - - - -	8,837
Sale of Waste Lands - - - - -	1,170
Interest on Purchase Money of State Properties and Waste Lands.	21
Profits from State Properties - - - - -	3,056
Surplus Process Fees - - - - -	1,016
Collections from Estates under Direct Management	4,321
Advances under Land Improvement Act, Principal	4,063
Advances under Land Improvement Act, Interest -	660
Advances under <i>Takavi</i> Act of 1879, Principal -	16,593
Advances under <i>Takavi</i> Act of 1879, Interest -	1,092
<i>Patwari</i> Rate and Miscellaneous - - - - -	1,382
TOTAL - - - - £.	5,375,681

ODDH.

Oudh was summarily settled immediately after annexation in 1856, and again after the Mutiny. Regular settlement operations began in 1860, and lasted (including the work of revision) until 1878. The total summary demand assessed after annexation amounted to 1,054,800 *l.*, and the increase obtained by the recent settlement is 394,300 *l.*, or nearly 38 per cent. The total cost of the settlement was 625,400 *l.*, besides 109,700 *l.*, for the revenue survey. The average rate of assessment is 3 *s.* 5½ *d.* per cultivated acre, as compared with 3 *s.* 5 *d.* in the North-West Provinces.

The *Talukdars.*

The land system of Oudh differs in several important respects from that of the North-West Provinces. In the first place must be mentioned the *talukdars*, who represent for the most part a body of powerful local chiefs, who were found in possession of large estates and great popular influence on British annexation. At first the policy of the Government (adopted from the North-West Provinces) was to disregard the *talukdars* as usurpers, and to make the revenue settlement with the subordinate village proprietors; but the experience of the Mutiny (which in Oudh took the form almost of a national rebellion) showed that the people continued to regard the *talukdars* as their leaders. On the restoration of order, it was therefore determined to recognise the position of the *talukdars*. Those who had been disloyal but now submitted received back their old estates; those who had proved loyal throughout received large additional grants assessed in perpetuity at a low rental. In order to strengthen their position, they were allowed to adopt the custom of primogeniture; and they further obtained the privilege of devise by will, which is unknown to Hindu and Muhammadan law alike. The *talukdars* number altogether 337, of whom 38 each pay a revenue exceeding 5,000 *l.* The total area to which a permanent settlement has been granted is 1,908 square miles, with an assessment of 87,500 *l.*

Another

Another peculiarity of the Oudh system is the extensive recognition of under-proprietors, represented in the descendants of former *zamindars*, who have been more or less displaced by the *talukdars*. In the North-West Provinces such under-proprietors are very rare; and where they still exist it is at the option of the settlement officer of each district to make the settlement either with them or with the superior proprietor. In Oudh, on the other hand, the rule laid down was to make the settlement always with the *talukdar* or superior proprietor; while the rights of the under-proprietors were either commuted for a proportion of the rental, varying according to circumstances, from 10 to 50 per cent., or were recognised in the possession of *sir* or domain land at a favourable rate of rent. About 7 per cent. of the total area of the Province is thus held by sub-proprietary tenants. A third peculiarity of Oudh is the non-existence of occupancy right in the eye of the law. As much as 78 per cent. of the cultivated area is held by tenants at will, as compared with 38.5 per cent. in the North-West Provinces; and the occupancy tenants, who are returned as holding 1 per cent., really represent a weak form of sub-proprietary right.

Under Tenure.

The regular settlement of 1860 to 1878 was preceded by the usual revenue survey, effected by trained parties of the Survey Department, and also by the village survey conducted by native *amins* under the control of the Settlement Department. The actual settlement was in all cases made by a special settlement officer, not by the ordinary administrative staff. The process of assessment in Oudh differed from that in the North-West Provinces by less regard for scientific precision. The village was taken as the unit of assessment, not the *pargana* or larger circle. No elaborate attempt was made to subdivide classes of land according to their soil or artificial advantages. The chief reliance was placed upon the actual rent-rolls of the village, which were found to have been carefully kept up by the *patwaris*; but allowance had to be made for lands where the customary rent was either too high or too low, and also for lands where the rent was payable in kind and not in money. As in the North-West Provinces, the basis of assessment was one-half of the rental or "assets," and the term of settlement is 30 years. For the purpose of drawing up the record of rights, the settlement officer was constituted a court of final jurisdiction for the determination of all disputes, to the exclusion of the ordinary civil courts.

Settlement.

Two cesses are levied with the land revenue, one of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for general local purposes, and another of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. imposed in 1878 for insurance against famine. There is no Government irrigation in Oudh. The *patwaris* have recently been recognised in the same way as in the North-West, except that they are paid by the landlords, who are allowed a corresponding deduction from their revenue. There are altogether 24,337 villages in Oudh, with an average area of about one square mile; about two-thirds of them are owned by *talukdars*, and the remainder by village communities of the same types as in the North-West.

In Oudh as in the North-West, the revenue year ends on 30th September. The financial results for 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The total current demand amounted to 1,396,290 *l.*, being an increase of 4,643 *l.* on the previous year. The total collections amounted to 1,386,573 *l.*, leaving a balance of 9,717 *l.*, of which 2,077 *l.* is classed as "nominal," and 7,640 *l.* as "real." The "real" balance shows a percentage on the total demand of .55. In addition, there was a balance of 14,802 *l.* outstanding at the commencement of the year, of which 1,487 *l.* was remitted and 12,012 collected during the year, leaving 1,303 *l.* for future adjustment.

Land Revenue Administration, 1882-83.

The actual receipts for the year under all headings are shown in the following table:—

RECEIPTS OF LAND REVENUE, &c., in OUDH, 1882-83.

	£.
Land Revenue on the Roll - - - - -	1,386,573
Fluctuating Collections - - - - -	11,560
Surplus Collections - - - - -	1,293
Government Estates - - - - -	1,650
Sale of Government Estates - - - - -	1,486
Miscellaneous - - - - -	2,488
TOTAL - - - - £.	1,405,050

THE PUNJAB.

The whole of the Punjab is under temporary settlement, but the settlements of the several Districts vary much both in the method of assessment, and in the duration of the term. In brief, the land system is not uniform as in the North-West Provinces, but has been modified to suit the special circumstances that arise from the geographical and historical position. The earliest regular settlements are those of the Delhi and Hissar Divisions, made between 1836 and 1847, when this tract still formed part of the North-West Provinces. The rest of the Punjab was summarily settled immediately after annexation for short terms. The assessment then made was based upon the Sikh collections in grain, converted into money at ruling prices. But a rapid fall in prices followed, and large reductions had to be made. A regular settlement was made between 1846 and 1855 of the territories annexed after the first Sikh war, and between 1849 and 1859 of the territories acquired by the second Sikh war. The general result was to reduce still further the earlier summary assessments. The frontier districts on the Indus were regularly settled for the first time between 1868 and 1880. The first regular settlement was for various terms, from 10 to 30 years. A revised settlement was therefore begun in 1863, which is still in operation. It is one of the characteristics of the Punjab system to regard settlement not as a unique process, but as one of the ordinary duties of administration, performed by a special staff. It is assumed that districts will continue to come up for settlement in the future with such regularity as to keep five settlement parties continually employed.

Settlement.

The revenue survey, the field survey, and the record of rights, are the same in the Punjab as in the North-West Provinces, except that it is the duty of the settlement officer, and not of the civil court, to determine disputed questions of title, as in Oudh. But the method adopted for fixing the assessment differs considerably. The object is to ascertain revenue rates at first hand, and not by halving rent rates. The process usually adopted was that known as "from aggregate to detail," *i. e.*, a general revenue rate was first obtained for the assessment circle or *pargana*, and then distributed among the component villages. In 1875 rules were issued for the guidance of settlement officers, which required that produce estimates should be framed for every assessment circle, for the purpose of testing the revenue rate arrived at by other means. The natural and artificial capacity of the soil, the customary rates on each plough or well, and all other available sources of information, are to be considered. But the process remains an empirical one, and leaves much to the discretion and experience of the settlement officer. Irrigated land is variously dealt with. Under the early settlements it was subjected to a consolidated rate; but the plan now adopted is first to fix a "dry" revenue rate, and then to add either a separate water rate (of 10 s. to 2 l. per well) when the land is irrigated from wells, or a "water advantage rate" at so much per acre when it is irrigated from canals. In the latter case, the revenue fluctuates year by year according as the land is actually irrigated or not; and the portion due to irrigation is shown separately under canal income. A similar system of fluctuating revenue prevails in the tract beyond the Indus, where cultivation is dependent upon the hill torrents.

Proprietary
Tenures.

The unit of assessment is the village, except in a few exceptional cases, as in Kangra, where the mountain hamlets have been grouped together, and in parts of the Indus valley; where the possession of a well is the basis of landed property. In the greater portion of the Punjab the joint village community is more strongly organised than anywhere else in India; and the coparcenary body are left to divide the total village assessment among themselves in their own traditional way. The mode of apportionment may be by a rate on wells or ploughs, by a division into irrigated and unirrigated area, or into different soils, or according to shares. Landlords with large estates are very rare in the Punjab. The organisation of proprietary villages is similar to that already described for the North-West Provinces; *zamindari* tenure, however, according to which the entire land is held in undivided shares, is not common. The prevailing forms are *pattidari* or *bhayachara*, which allow for great diversity in the extent to which partition of shares has been carried. Sometimes nothing is left for common enjoyment except waste land, and the right to use wells. But the entire body is always jointly responsible for the payment of revenue, and if any member wishes to part with his interest, the others have a right of pre-emption. In some cases, where the lands of a village are subject to diluvion,

diluvion, a custom exists of redistributing the separate interests in order to redress inequalities that may have arisen since the original partition. In the tract beyond the Indus inhabited by Pathan or Afghan tribes, this custom of periodical distribution, there known as *vesh*, was formerly carried one stage further. A complete interchange, not only of lands but also of houses, would be effected at intervals of from three to 30 years between fellow-tribesmen, even though they lived in distinct villages. This custom still survives in a modified form in Bannu District. Subordinate tenures are not common in the Punjab. In some cases the village communities are bound to pay a quit rent to superior proprietors known as *ala malik*, corresponding to the *talukdars* of the North West Provinces. There are also cases of proprietors of plots within the area of a village, who have been admitted to separate settlement and form no part of the community. And in the Indus Valley the right of property in wells or irrigation channels is sometimes dissociated from the right of property in the lands irrigated therefrom.

The general distribution of land in the Punjab is shown in the following table :— Distribution of Estates.

DISTRIBUTION OF LAND in the PUNJAB.

-----	Number of Estates.	Acres.
Zamindari estates held by individuals or families - - -	1,895	2,690,904
Village Communities paying in common - - -	3,392	2,778,920
Ditto - ditto - divided upon ancestral or customary shares.	4,088	4,600,559
Village Communities in which possession is the measure of right.	8,568	15,036,573
Village Communities holding partly in severalty and partly in common.	16,972	25,861,787
Grantees or Lessees of Government - - - -	1,584	1,772,342
Landholders who have redeemed the Revenue - - -	63	51,001
Purchasers of Government Waste - - - -	64	17,078
Government Waste unassigned - - - -	—	10,216,872
TOTAL - - -	37,659	63,026,126

The position of cultivators holding under proprietors is regulated by the Punjab Tenancy Act (XXVIII of 1868), which confers upon occupancy tenants the right both of inheritance and sale, and permits enhancement of rent only in accordance with fixed rules. Occupancy tenants also have a pre-emptive claim to purchase lands situated in their village. Tenants at will are so far protected that they cannot be ejected except by a suit at law, and the payment of compensation for unexhausted improvements is a condition precedent. The different kinds of holdings are shown in the following table, which fails, however, to distinguish the holdings of proprietors :— Cultivating Tenancies.

CLASSIFICATION of TENANCIES in the PUNJAB.

-----	Number.	Average Area.
		A. R. P.
Tenants with right of occupancy paying rent in money -	369,849	5 8 13
Tenants with right of occupancy paying rent in kind -	142,221	8 1 4
Tenants holding conditionally - - - -	28,417	6 2 17
Tenants at will paying rent in money - - - -	570,352	5 4 10
Tenants at will paying rent in kind - - - -	526,238	7 0 6
Holder of service grants - - - -	40,400	1 3 2
TOTAL - - -	1,677,486	6 0 4

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Assignments of Land Revenue.

A peculiarity of the Punjab land system is the large proportion of the Government revenue which has been assigned, either in perpetuity or for life, to private individuals. About one-tenth of the total has been thus alienated in *jagirs*, which are especially numerous in the district of Umballa. These assignments have no necessary connexion with proprietary right in the land. In some instances the revenue has been re-leased to those who would otherwise be liable for it; but in the majority of cases the grantees are merely entitled to receive the revenue assessed at settlement in the usual way. The following table shows the number, area, and revenue of these assignments existing in 1882-83:—

ASSIGNMENTS OF LAND REVENUE in the PUNJAB, 1882-83.

	Number.	Area in Acres.	Revenue.
			£.
Assignments in Perpetuity - - - -	59,573	4,162,752	194,358
" for Life - - - -	58,759	1,249,179	62,031
" for Two or more Lives - - - -	14,026	217,378	16,568
" for Maintenance of Institutions -	17,040	251,227	19,571
" under Orders - - - -	5,676	71,072	3,701
TOTAL - - - -	160,074	5,971,609	205,119

Increase of Land Revenue.

In the course of the last eleven years, 1872-73 to 1882-83, the total land revenue of the Punjab (including tribute) has increased from 2,033,019 l. to 2,092,218 l., or by 54,199 l. This increase is almost entirely under the heading of fluctuating revenue, and is due to the increase of water assessment under the recent settlements. The increase by lapse of assignments amounts to only 6,691 l.

Sales and Mortgages.

In the Punjab fairly accurate statistics are available relating to transfers of land by sale and mortgage. These statistics come from two sources, the papers of the *patwaris* or village accountants; and the returns of the Registration Department. The former set show a gradual increase of transfers, which may be ascribed partly to the improved organisation of the *patwaris*; the latter set, on the other hand, show a decrease, due partly to a decline in the popularity of optional registration. The following table exhibits the figures of both Departments for 1882-83:—

STATISTICS OF TRANSFERS OF LAND in the PUNJAB, 1882-83.

	Number.	Area in Acres.	Price Paid.
			£.
Revenue Returns:			
Sales - - - -	13,538	168,885	314,076
Mortgages - - - -	28,238	267,391	527,602
Registration Returns:			
Sales - - - -	8,078		401,700
Mortgages - - - -	25,240		852,022

The Revenue Returns admit of yet further analysis. Out of the total number of 168,885 acres sold, as many as 124,709, or just three-fourths, were sold to agriculturists; out of 267,391 acres mortgaged, 157,782, or considerably more than one-half, were mortgaged to agriculturists; only 12,637 acres were pledged to raise funds for agricultural improvements. These figures, if they can be trusted, prove that land in the Punjab is not passing out of the hands of the agricultural class. The average price paid for land sold was 1 l. 17 s. per acre; the average amount advanced on mortgage was 1 l. 19 s. per acre.

In 1882-83 a great increase took place in the amount of the loans made by Government for agricultural improvements, known as *takavi* advances. The total advanced under Act XXVI. of 1871 rose to 26,370 *l.* as compared with 8,414 *l.* in the previous year, chiefly for the construction of wells and irrigation channels in the Indus Valley. The total advanced under Act X. of 1879 rose to 14,036 *l.* as compared with 4,768 *l.* in the previous year, chiefly for the purchase of bullocks in the impoverished parts of Gurgaon District. After the close of the year, a new and more liberal *takavi* Act (XIX. of 1883) was passed by the Legislature; and it may be anticipated that this branch of revenue business will steadily increase.

Government Ad-
vances.

The financial results of land administration in the Punjab for 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The total current demand amounted to 2,103,979 *l.*, being an increase of 22,615 *l.* on the previous year, due mainly to the lapse of assignments and the revision of settlements. The total collections amounted to 2,071,402 *l.*, leaving a balance of 32,577 *l.*, or 1.5 per cent. The larger portion of this balance is due to the single District of Gurgaon, where the assessment is in need of revision. In addition, there was a balance of 12,594 *l.* outstanding at the commencement of the year, of which 10,399 *l.* was collected during the year, leaving 2,555 *l.* for future adjustment.

Land Revenue
Administration,
1882-83.

The land system of the Central Provinces, though based upon that of the North-West, out of which the new administration was constituted in 1861, possesses many peculiar features, due to its history, its geographical position, and its backward state of cultivation. In that portion known as the Sagar and Narbada territories, which was acquired in 1818, a series of summary settlements continued until 1834, when a regular settlement for 20 years was undertaken. Nagpur proper, which lapsed to the British in 1853, was at first settled from year to year in the same way. All these early assessments erred by attempting to exact too much from a country that had been laid waste by the Mahrattas. The first general settlement of the whole Province was begun in 1859 and finished in 1869. Its total cost, excluding the Revenue Survey, amounted to 366,000 *l.* The result was to raise the total revenue from 525,000 *l.* to 597,000 *l.*, or by nearly 14 per cent.; but in no less than five districts the assessment was actually reduced. The field survey was conducted by native *amins* and *patwaris*, as in the North-West; the principle of assessing at one-half the "assets" or estimated rental was also adopted from the North-West; the determination of all rights by the settlement officer and not by the civil courts is identical with the Oudh and Punjab system. One peculiarity of the Central Provinces is that the professional Revenue Survey did not precede but followed the ordinary operations of settlement.

CENTRAL
PROVINCES.

The land tenures of the Central Provinces exhibit the result of the confusion caused by the Mahrattas. The prevailing system is neither *zamindari* as in Bengal, nor based upon the village community as in Northern India, nor *rayatwari* as in the South; but a mixture of all three. It is best described as *malguzari*, a term which implies merely that the settlement is made with those persons (whoever they may be) by whom the revenue had formerly been paid. In some cases these are *zamindars* proper or landlords of large estates, preserved from partition by the custom of primogeniture. Sometimes they are *talukdars* (locally called *tahutdars*), whose proprietary right is limited by the rights of inferior tenure-holders. Most of them, however, are either village head-men or mere farmers of the revenue, upon whom a proprietary right has been conferred by the settlement. Where the village head-men are representatives of a coparcenary community, the *zamindari* and *pattidari* tenures of the North West exist. But in the majority of cases the *malguzar* is an individual landlord, whose rights against the cultivators are regulated by law and not by custom. In the Central Provinces, even more than in the Punjab, the principle of the settlement has inclined towards liberality in recognising subordinate tenures. Shareholders who have preferred to accept this equivalent for proprietary right, as well as head-men or farmers not admitted to settlement, and the holders of resumed revenue-free tenures, are placed on the roll as inferior proprietors, with the obligation of paying their assessment through the *malguzars*. In the single District of Sambalpur, a summary settlement has been concluded on a special system akin to *rayatwari*. The head-men, here known as *gauntias*, have not been admitted to the status of *malguzars*; they are merely collectors of the revenue from the cultivators, who are regarded as tenants of the Government.

Tenures.

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Classification of Estates.

A classification of all the estates in the Central Provinces in 1882-83 is given in the following table :—

CLASSIFICATION of ESTATES in the CENTRAL PROVINCES, 1882-83.

	Number of Estates.	Number of Villages.	Number of Shareholders.	Area in Acres.
Large zamindaris paying more than 500 l. Revenue :				
Under Rule of Primogeniture - - - - -	8	2,191	15	2,216,854
Under Ordinary Law - - - - -	35	1,267	52	1,410,000
Small zamindaris paying between 500 l. and 10 l. revenue.	14,961	22,609	40,787	29,613,501
Proprietary Communities paying in common - - -	2,448	620	2,892	346,460
Proprietary Cultivators paying separately - - -	29,011	8,120	34,795	6,201,337
Revenue-free Grants :				
In Perpetuity - - - - -	3,281	870	3,590	522,022
For Life - - - - -	3,871	535	4,981	284,328
Quit Rent Tenures :				
In Perpetuity - - - - -	1,000	868	1,280	849,613
For Life - - - - -	712	676	807	513,877
Under Government Management - - - - -	15	15	-	14,289
Landholders who have redeemed the Revenue - - -	12	51	51	37,514
Waste Land Grants - - - - -	183	192	192	203,463
TOTAL - - - - -	55,530	38,281	89,392	42,213,318

Cultivating Tenancies.

The position of the actual cultivators is now regulated by the Central Provinces Tenancy Act (IX of 1883), which was passed into law after the date covered by this Report. Three classes of tenants are there recognised : (1) those holding at rates of rent fixed for the period of settlement, who have free power of sale; (2) those who have been in occupation for 12 years, whose rent can be enhanced only by a civil suit, and who cannot sell without the consent of their landlords; (3) tenants at will, who are subject to ejection after a suit at law, upon payment of compensation for disturbance as well as for tenant's improvements. The following table gives a classification of tenancies in the Central Provinces in 1882-83 :—

CLASSIFICATION of TENANCIES in the CENTRAL PROVINCES, 1882-83.

	Number of Holdings.	Average Area.	Average Rent per Acre.
Intermediate Holders :			s. d.
On Permanent Tenure - - - - -	1,684	695	5½
On Farming Leases - - - - -	2,409	850	7
Cultivators at Fixed Rates - - - - -	185,125	18	1 7
Occupancy Tenants - - - - -	279,881	14	1 6½
Tenants at will - - - - -	471,933	11	1 8½
 Holders of Service Grants - - - - -	52,550	6	7

Land Revenue Administration, 1882-83.

The financial results of land administration in the Central Provinces for 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The total current demand amounted to 624,323 l., being an increase of 1,175 l. on the previous year, entirely under revenue not on the roll and miscellaneous. The total collections amounted to 624,237 l., and 14 l. was remitted, leaving a balance of 72 l., or only .011 per cent. In addition, there was a balance of 173 l. outstanding at the commencement of the year, of which 54 l. was collected during the year, and 16 l. remitted, leaving 103 l. for future adjustment.

BRITISH BURMA.

The existing land system of British Burma is regulated by the Burma Land and

and Revenue Act (II. of 1876), in accordance with which a cadastral survey is now being extended through the Province. Under native rule, an inconsiderable revenue was raised by a tax on ploughs, for which the British Government substituted a moderate assessment on the land, based upon a rough survey conducted by *thugyis* or native revenue officials. The standard of assessment was in theory one-fifth of the gross produce, but this rate was rarely realised.

The new system of scientific survey began in 1879. This consists of two departments; (1) the original cadastral survey, conducted by officers of the Revenue Survey of India, after whom comes the settlement officer; (2) the supplementary survey effected by trained *thugyis*, upon whose report the annual revision is based. The unit of survey is the field, which happens in Burma to be well defined by boundary ridges of clay or sand. It is usually a rectangular area, ranging from one acre to a quarter of an acre in size. Villages proper do not exist in Burma. For the purposes of the survey, their place is taken by polygons called *kwins*, consisting of convenient blocks of rice cultivation and waste, usually enclosed within natural boundaries, and rarely exceeding $1\frac{1}{2}$ square miles in area. Scientific accuracy is maintained by testing the areas of all the fields within a *kwin* until the total exactly equals the aggregate area of the *kwin*. The maps are compiled on the scale of 16 inches to the mile. By the end of the year 1882-83, the total area cadastrally surveyed amounted to 7,414 square miles, or 4,742,066 acres: the total cost was 171,161 £, being at the rate of 8½ *d.* per acre. Three survey parties are now at work, each of which completes from 700 to 800 square miles of country in the year. Survey.

For the purposes of settlement, the *kwin* corresponds to the assessment circle of Northern India. The *kwins* are roughly classified according to their soils; and more careful classifications are framed for each kind of soil within the *kwin*. Estimates are then formed of the gross produce of each class of soil, by the process of cutting samples at harvest time. Formerly, the nominal revenue rate was one-fifth of the gross produce, but the present standard is one-half of the net produce, which is arrived at by deducting cost of cultivation and expense of living. This revenue rate is apportioned among the fields of the same class of soil within a *kwin* according to the acreage, and remains fixed for the term of settlement, which is either 10 or 15 years. The actual money rates range from 2 *s.* to 6 *s.* per acre. The ultimate unit of assessment is the field, and several fields may be included within the holding of a single cultivator. Though the revenue rate is fixed for the term of settlement, the Burman cultivator possesses the privilege of paying the reduced rate of only 3 *d.* per acre for any portion of his holding that he chooses to leave fallow, provided that he announces his intention by a certain date; and he is further entitled to liberal remissions if he has been unable to cultivate by reason of such accidental circumstances as flood or death of cattle; he may also abandon his holding altogether, and take up fresh land for tillage out of the abundant waste available. In order to adapt the system of assessment to this liberty of cultivation, the supplementary survey has to undertake year by year an elaborate revision of the work of the original survey, and also of the register of holdings compiled by the settlement officer. By the end of the year 1882-83 the total area brought under settlement amounted to 5,025 square miles, or 3,217,412 acres; the total cost was 37,044 £, being at the rate of 2½ *d.* per acre. The assessments sanctioned during the year resulted in a reduction of revenue to the extent of 2.9 per cent. Settlement.

The title to ownership in land in British Burma is regulated by Act II. of 1876, which gave the force of law to existing modes of acquisition. These are two-fold: (1) specific grant by the State, and (2) occupation by 12 years' continuous squatting. The former is commonly resorted to by new comers in the more remote tracts, where exemption from revenue is granted for the first few years. The latter is the regular mode of acquisition in the more permanently settled tracts. A numerous tenant class has been growing up of late years under the old landholders, who obtained large grants in 1839 and again in 1863 under rules no longer in force. The tenants usually pay as rent one-tenth of the gross produce in addition to the Government assessment. They possess no statutory rights whatever. Tenures.

A total area of about 400,000 acres in Burma has been granted to lessees under special rules. The area held under the Old Waste Land Rules is about 220,000 acres, of which 70,000 acres are cultivated, yielding a revenue of 5,000 £. In addition, about 180,000 acres are held under ordinary cultivation rules, Waste Land Leases.

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rules, of which 50,000 acres will come under assessment in the year 1883-84. In the course of the year 1882-83, the total area granted under the latter rules amounted to 28,471 acres, as compared with 61,322 acres in the previous year.

Besides regular tillage with the plough, nomad cultivation by the hill tribes, known as *taungya*, is carried on to some extent in almost every district of Burma. The mode of assessment in this case is to impose a tax on each cultivating family, averaging about 2 s. In 1882-83, the total number of *taungya* cultivators was 63,743, being an increase of 3.3 per cent. on the previous year. The total area is estimated at 127,486 acres, at the assumed rate of two acres per cultivator.

The financial results of land administration in British Burma for 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The total current demand amounted to 666,844 l., being at the average rate of 3 s. 6 d., per acre on an assessed area of 3,807,716 acres. Compared with the previous year, the demand decreased by 1,285 l., or .18 per cent., though the assessed area increased by 131,106 acres, or 35.7 per cent. This decrease is due partly to a larger proportion of fallow, and partly to an actual reduction of the assessment in Bassein District by the new settlement. The collections for the year amounted to 356,966 l., and 3,966 l. was remitted, leaving a balance of 305,920 l. But the apparently excessive amount of this balance is due to the fact that the agricultural year in Burma ends on 30th June, three months after the financial year. To show the actual facts, it is necessary, therefore, first to add the balance from the previous financial year, and then to show how the whole was accounted for. The total balance at the beginning of the year amounted to 292,939 l., of which 5,416 l. was remitted and 272,271 l. collected, leaving 15,267 l. for future adjustment. Adding this to the balance of the year, the total comes to 321,187 l., of which 1,922 l. was remitted in the three months ending 30th June 1883, and 284,237 l. collected, leaving a true balance of 35,079 l., or 3.6 per cent. on the corresponding total demand.

In addition to land revenue proper, the land administration of British Burma includes a capitation tax, a land rate levied in the large towns in lieu of capitation tax, and a tax on fisheries. The capitation tax, which is a relic of native rule, is levied on the male population between the ages of 18 and 60, at the rate of 10 s. per head for married men, and 5 s. per head for bachelors. Exemptions are allowed in favour of religious and other teachers, Government servants, persons unable to earn their own living, and immigrants for the first five years. In 1882-83, the number of persons assessed to capitation tax was 745,646, being an increase of 12,658 on the previous year. The total demand was 303,649 l., being an increase of 6,190 l. The actual collections were 306,710 l., including 8,167 l. on account of previous balances. A land rate is levied in seven towns of the Province in lieu of capitation tax, in accordance with the provisions of Act II. of 1876. In 1882-83, the demand under this head amounted to 9,479 l. as compared with 9,364 l., in the previous year. The fishery revenue is derived from two main sources, rents of inland fisheries and sale of licenses for fishing nets and boats. The former of the two is by far the more important. Hitherto the practice has been to sell the leases by public auction, which has resulted in excessive competition and eventual failure on the part of the lessees. It is now proposed to let by tender, reserving a preference to former lessees. In 1882-83 the total fishery demand amounted to 125,776 l., being a decrease of 6,156 l. on the previous year.

The following table shows the net demand under each head of land revenue in 1873-74, as compared with 1882-83, together with the rate of increase or decrease.

LAND REVENUE of BRITISH BURMA in 1873-74 compared with 1882-83.

	1873-74.	1882-83.	Increase or Decrease per Cent.
Land Revenue Proper - - - - -	£. 894,395	£. 657,462	+ 00.7
Capitation Tax - - - - -	244,805	300,531	+ 23.0
Land Rate in lieu of Capitation Tax - - - - -	15,081	9,434	- 37.8
Fisheries - - - - -	76,955	122,982	+ 56.6
TOTAL - - - £.	732,736	1,090,409	+ 48.8

Nomad cultivation.

Land Revenue Administration, 1882-83.

Capitation Tax, Land Rate, and Tax on Fisheries.

The characteristic feature of the Madras land system is the predominance of simple *rayatwari*; but about three-eighths of the entire area of the Presidency is held by *zamindars* under permanent settlement. The first territorial acquisition placed under Fort St. George or Madras was the tract known as the Northern Circars, which was ceded by the Emperor of Delhi in 1765. The land was found to be divided into two classes, *zamindaris* or large estates owned by powerful hereditary chiefs, and (2) *haveli*, or Crown demesnes. The *zamindaris* remain for the most part to the present day, having been assessed in 1802 at a *peshkash* or permanent tribute. The *haveli* lands were in the same year parcelled out into estates of convenient size, called *mutas*, each yielding from 350 l. to 1,750 l. of annual revenue, which were permanently assessed and then sold in full proprietorship to the highest bidder at auction. Most of these *mutas* have since lapsed to Government for nonpayment of arrears, and are now become *rayatwari*. The tract round Madras, formerly known as the *jagir* (now Chingleput District), was ceded by the Nawab of Arcot in 1750 and 1763, but was not placed under British administration until 1794. In that year a settlement was made with the village communities which, under the name of *mirasi*, were found to be strongly organised. But shortly afterwards the precedent of the Bengal Permanent Settlement made itself felt. In 1802, all the villages were distributed among 61 *mutas*, paying from 700 l. to 1,750 l., and sold at auction subject to an assessment in perpetuity. Here, again, the *mutas* have now become *rayatwari*, though the *mirasidars* or village proprietors still cling firmly to their ancestral privileges.

The greater part of the present area of the Madras Presidency was acquired by conquest from Mysore in 1792 and 1800, and by cession from the Nawab of Arcot in 1801. As in the Northern Circars, hereditary chiefs of various origin, called in the south *paligars*, were found in possession of considerable tracts of country. Many of these *paligars* resisted British authority, and were only subjected after a long and harassing war. Others accepted permanent settlements at a low assessment of about one-third of their estimated revenue; and their descendants are now in the same position as the old *zamindars* in the Northern Circars. The rest of the country was settled in different ways at different times. The first attempt at the modern *rayatwari* system was made in 1792 in the tract then known as the Baramahal, comprising the present District of Salem and part of Madura. A Commission was appointed of which Captain Read was the chief, and Munro (afterwards Sir Thomas) one of four subordinate members. They effected a rough survey of the land, and made a settlement with the *rayats* or actual cultivators of the soil at rates averaging about 3 s. an acre. In 1802, the artificial system of *mutas* was introduced into the Baramahal, but with no more success than elsewhere, and *rayatwari* was shortly afterwards restored. Meanwhile, Munro passed on in 1800 into Malabar and Kanara, where he introduced a system analogous to *rayatwari*, so far as the traditional tenures of the people would permit; and a few years later he settled the Ceded Districts (Bellary and Cuddapah) also on the *rayatwari* principle. At about this time, the village system had been tried in several of the Southern Districts, beginning from 1808; while the *zamindari* system continued to prevail in the north. In 1817, however, the Court of Directors issued final orders that *rayatwari* should be adopted wherever practicable; and Munro, the great advocate of *rayatwari*, was appointed Governor of Madras in 1820.

The early *rayatwari* settlements were not preceded by any accurate survey. The assessments were based either upon measurements made in haste and with imperfect machinery, or upon the unchecked statements of the *kurnams* or village accountants. The prescriptive demand of the State amounted to as much as one-half of the gross produce, commuted into money at the average of current prices. It happened that prices ruled abnormally high during the early years of the century. Between 1830 and 1845 they fell heavily, thus exaggerating the pressure originally caused by a stringent assessment. Accordingly, in 1858, it was decided to introduce a new survey and settlement, which are still in operation.

The Madras Revenue Survey is under a Surveyor General, independent of the general survey of India. It combines the operations of a cadastral survey for revenue purposes with those of a topographical survey on a trigonometrical basis. The revenue survey proper, with maps on the scale of 16 inches to the mile,

mile, is confined to *rayatwari* villages. *Zamindari* tracts, and waste land generally, are topographically surveyed, and mapped on a smaller scale, usually 4 inches to the mile. The duties of the survey include the demarcation of boundaries of villages, and also of fields. But the survey field is not necessarily identical with the field as cultivated. Strictly speaking, it is a "number" constituted for convenience of measurement, which may comprise more than one field, but may not exceed a certain area, varying according to the character of the cultivation. The interior plots are measured, not by the survey, but by the settlement department; otherwise, all the measurements are made with such scientific accuracy that the average error, when compared with the work of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, does not exceed seven inches per mile. During the year 1882-3, ten Districts were under survey; the amount of work completed was 1,304 square miles of the cadastral map of 16 inches to the mile, and 1,879 squares on the smaller topographical scales; the total expenditure was 60,361*l.* From the commencement in 1858 down to 31st March 1883, 50,775 square miles of cadastral survey, and 45,289 square miles of topographical square miles have been finished, leaving about 10,797 and 18,699 square miles respectively to be undertaken.

Process of Assessment.

The settlement proper is under the charge of the Director of Revenue Settlement and Agriculture, with Deputy Directors and special assistants, numbering six in all. The operations may be arranged under some six heads. First comes a careful examination of the agricultural condition of the district, and of every *taluk* and village in the District, which is conducted by the settlement officer in person. The most important objects of this enquiry are:—the general physical features of the country, the rainfall, the liability to drought, the recent fiscal history, the roads, canals, and market towns, the prevailing kinds of soil, and above all, the facilities for irrigation. The next process, which is conducted by a subordinate native establishment under the supervision of the settlement officer, is an elaborate classification of the different kinds of soil in every village. Five chief varieties of soil are specified in the settlement instructions: (1.) Alluvial and exceptional, as in river islands or gardens; (2.) *regar* or black cotton soil; (3.) red ferruginous, derived from the decomposition of sandstone, laterite, &c.; (4.) calcareous, derived from chalk or lime, but of rare occurrence; (5.) arenaceous, chiefly along the sea-shore. These five primary series of soils are then subdivided into clay, loam, and sand, according to their mechanical composition; and further subdivided into from three to five grades, according to their fertility and natural advantages. Next comes the process of determining gross produce, and its value in cash. For this purpose numerous experiments (sometimes as many as 3,000 for a single District) are conducted in sample fields; and commutation prices are fixed with reference to the average market prices during 20 years. After this, revenue rates are assessed, not only on each cultivated field, but also on such waste land as may probably be brought under tillage; the standard of assessment is one-half of the net produce, after deducting expenses of cultivation. The result, however, is not arrived at by applying this standard to every plot of ground in each of the different classes of soil, but after bracketing several classes of soil according to their fertility, and after grouping villages with reference to their natural advantages. Under the old system there might be as many as 800 different revenue rates in a single District, ranging from 8*l.* 10*s.* per acre to a fraction of a shilling. Under the new system no one District has more than 35 rates, with a maximum of 1*l.* 4*s.* The average is about 2*s.* 3*d.* for "dry" land, and 9*s.* 6*d.* for "wet" land. An additional rate of one-half is charged for "wet" land when cultivated with a second crop, which may be compounded for by a consolidated rate at time of settlement; and a special water rate is charged in the deltas of the Godavari and Kistna, as well as in the case of *zamindari* and *inam* lands irrigated from a Government source of supply. The term of settlement is for 30 years. Finally, after the assessment has received the sanction of Government it is the duty of the settlement officer to prepare a register showing the survey "number," area, soil, assessment, &c. of every field, and to issue a *patta* or extract from this register to every *rayat*. Each District contains on an average about 1,200 villages, 1,000,000 fields, and 120,000 occupying *rayats*. The cost of settlement of eight Districts completed up to 1879 was 414,338*l.*, and the cost of survey of the same was 498,052*l.*; total 912,390*l.* The increase of revenue was 78,002*l.*, being 9 per cent. on the

outlay

outlay. During the year 1882-3, settlement operations were carried on in six Districts. The total cost was 23,218 *l.*, and the result was to reduce the rate of assessment by 12,024 *l.* Between 1858 and 1883, the total cost of the settlement (excluding survey) has been 724,982 *l.*; and the result has been to increase the assessment from 2,062,938 *l.* to 2,183,089 *l.*, or by 120,158 *l.* The cost, however, includes all operations begun, while the increase is confined to Districts (or portions of Districts) where operations have been completed.

The tenures of land in Madras fall under three chief heads, *zamindari*, or permanently assessed; *inam*, or revenue free; and the ordinary *rayatwari*. The *zamindari* estates may again be divided into two classes; (1) those of old standing, in the nature of chiefships, where the succession followed the rule of primogeniture; and (2) the surviving *mutas* created by the Government in the beginning of this century, which are liable to partition according to the Hindu or Muhammadan law of inheritance. In both cases the assessment or *peshkash* was fixed in perpetuity in 1802; and, owing to increased cultivation and rise in prices, it now amounts in some cases to little more than a quit-rent. All waste land is the property of the *zamindar*; and the law recognises no rights in his tenants except such as may have been sanctioned by custom. *Zamindars* are liable for the usual local cesses, as well as for water rate when their fields are irrigated from a Government source; and they are required to maintain the regular establishment of *kurnams* or village accountants. In 1882-3, the total number of *zamindari* estates was 790, with an area of 19,085,910 acres (being exactly equal to the cultivated area of *rayatwari* lands in the same year), and paying a total *peshkash* of 508,937 *l.*, out of a total estimated rental of 1,500,000 *l.*

Zamindari
Estates.

Inam or revenue free lands may also be divided into two classes; (1) those which have been enfranchised by the *Inam* Commission, and assessed at a quit-rent in perpetuity; and (2) those which remain under the former uncertain tenure. When the English came into possession of Madras, they found, as everywhere else in India, that a considerable proportion of the land revenue due to the State had been assigned to private individuals, or to religious and charitable bodies. Many of these assignments had undoubtedly been made without due authority from the supreme power; but it was a very invidious duty to examine into titles and to enforce resumptions. Accordingly, in 1858 a special *Inam* Commission was appointed to settle the matter on an equitable basis. Lands granted as religious endowments for Hindu temples or Muhammadan mosques were confirmed on their existing tenures. These amount altogether to 1,458,081 acres, on which the Government assessment would be 242,247 *l.* Lands granted personally to Brahmans or Muhammadan priests are still more numerous, forming nearly one-half of the total *inams* of the Presidency. Their area has been returned at 3,694,394 acres, with an assessment of 548,993 *l.* These, like all other personal grants, have been enfranchised at a moderate quit-rent. Lands granted for special services have been continued when the services are still required, and in other cases have been fully assessed.

Inam, or Revenue
free Lands.

The special work of the *Inam* Commission was finished by 1869, but a certain number of cases of enfranchisement still come up for consideration year by year. Between 1858 and 1883, the total number of *inams* confirmed was 438,844, with an area of 6,680,233 acres, and an assessment of 1,051,333 *l.*; the total quit-rent payable has been raised from 93,894 *l.* to 160,543 *l.*, in addition to a full assessment of 13,911 *l.* imposed in certain cases; the total cost has been 138,170 *l.* In the year 1882-3, the number of entire *inam* villages was 3,799, paying a total quit-rent or *shotriem jodi* of 67,142 *l.*, besides 329,528 *l.* included in "Miscellaneous," which is derived from *inam* lands not forming complete villages.

The *rayatwari* tenure, which is the characteristic tenure of the Madras Presidency, may be described as an occupancy holding with full power of alienation, subject to the payment of the Government revenue. In theory, the occupier is the actual cultivator; and as a matter of fact he usually is so but no inquiry is made on this point. In short, the revenue department has nothing to do with title. The *pattas* issued by the settlement officer are merely a recognition of *prima facie* right to possession, nor is registration of transfer compulsory. In the case of land that happens to be unoccupied, a preference in granting it for cultivation is given to residents in the same village and to occupiers of fields immediately adjoining. The peculiar feature of the *rayatwari* tenure is the annual

Rayatwari
Lands.

revision of holdings known as the *jamabandi*, which usually takes place after December, by which time most of the important crops have been harvested. Though the assessment is fixed for 30 years, it is only payable by the individual cultivators on the lands which they actually occupied during the year, and is moreover liable to certain additions or remissions in accordance with recognised principles. The object of the annual *jamabandi* is to ascertain and record all these variations. The first step is to determine the actual area of occupation, which gives the current revenue demand for the year. To this is added, as a distinct item, the area of second crop cultivation on "wet" land, with the corresponding amount of assessment. Another matter for addition is "dry" land which has been irrigated from Government sources, and is therefore subject to "wet" rates. Then comes the important matter of remissions, arranged under three heads; (1) occasional remissions, or those allowed in consequence of losses actually sustained by the cultivators during the year. The largest item is "waste remitted" on account of "wet" land that could not be cultivated at all through failure of the Government source of irrigation. (2) Fixed remissions, not dependent upon the season, which include permanent deductions from the original assessment where it has not yet been revised by the new settlement, and temporary deductions where the new rate of assessment is gradually introduced; (3) Sundry deductions, which are not strictly remissions at all, but portions of the land revenue assigned for various objects, such as village servants or road cess, and maintained under this head for convenience of account. Finally, the *jamabandi* is concluded by the issue of new *pattas* or the modification of old *pattas* as may be required from changes in occupation. In 1882-83, 345,280 fresh *pattas* were issued in the whole Presidency, 470,357 old *pattas* were modified, and 1,819,673 were left unaltered; total 2,644,310, as compared with 2,543,036 in the previous year. Any increase in cultivation after the date of the *jamabandi* is accounted for under "miscellaneous"; any remissions made afterwards are written off the accounts of the following year under "arrears." The following table shows the results of the *jamabandi* of the whole Presidency in 1882-83, as compared with the previous year:—

" RAYATWARI " SETTLEMENT in MADRAS in 1881-82 and 1882-83.

	1881-2.	1882-3.	Increase or Decrease.
	£.	£.	£.
Dry Lands - - - - -	1,027,463	1,060,783	+ 29,800
Wet Lands - - - - -	1,714,424	1,718,908	+ 4,544
<i>Add</i> , South Kanara - - - - -	123,924	136,056	+ 8,032
TOTAL - - - £.	3,480,811	3,522,087	+ 41,876
Second Crop - - - - -	69,277	79,161	+ 11,885
Water Charge - - - - -	243,499	258,592	+ 10,093
Gross TOTAL Assessment - £.	3,791,586	3,856,440	+ 68,854
<i>Deduct</i> , Occasional Remissions - - -	122,531	112,675	+ 9,856
" Fixed Remissions - - - - -	22,658	20,739	- 1,914
" Sundry Deductions - - - - -	171,003	180,899	+ 9,806
TOTAL Remissions - - - £.	316,277	314,313	+ 1,964
Net TOTAL Assessment - - £.	3,475,309	3,541,127	+ 65,818

The financial results of land administration in Madras for the year 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The agricultural or *fashi* year ends on 30th June.

The total current demand amounted to 4,519,818 L., being an increase of 60,797 L. on the previous year, due to an extension of *rayatwari* holdings. The total collections amounted to 4,183,472 L., leaving a balance of 336,346 L., or 7.5 per cent.; and of this balance 266,901 L. was collected by February 1884. In addition there was a balance of 938,835 L. outstanding at the commencement of the year, of which 548,681 L. was collected during the year, and 303,731 L. written off, leaving 86,423 L. for future adjustment.

The following table gives the details of the current land revenue in Madras for 1882-83 :—

ANALYSIS of LAND REVENUE in MADRAS for 1882-83.

	Current Demand.	Collections.	Balance.
	£.	£.	£.
<i>Peshkash</i> on Permanently Settled Estates -	508,937	442,630	66,407
<i>Shotriem jodi</i> or Quit Rent on <i>Inam</i> Villages -	67,342	59,456	7,886
<i>Rayatwari</i> Holdings - - - - -	3,541,127	3,346,704	194,423
Miscellaneous - - - - -	402,412	394,782	67,630
TOTAL - - -	4,519,818	4,183,472	336,346.

The characteristic of land administration in Bombay is that form of *rayatwari* known as the "survey tenure," which dates from 1835. The greater part of the Presidency was acquired in 1818, on the downfall of the Peshwa; and the early efforts of British rule were no more successful here than in other parts of India. The first attempt at regular settlement, which was conducted in the Deccan by Mr. Pringle, resulted in complete failure. This settlement was based upon a survey, left entirely to native agency, an elaborate calculation of the gross and net produce, and an assessment fixed at 55 per cent. of the net produce. But the survey was inaccurate, the calculations of gross produce were equally erroneous, and the actual assessment was much higher than the cultivators could afford to pay. In addition, the prices of grain fell heavily during this period. The result was that the nominal revenue was never exacted, and land rapidly began to go out of cultivation.

BOMBAY.
The old Settlement.

The new system dates from 1835, when an experimental revision of the existing settlement was entrusted to Mr. Goldsmid and Lieutenant Wingate in the Indapur *taluk* of Poonah District. They found it necessary to make a fresh survey, and then proceeded to assess the revenue in accordance with practical considerations. Abandoning altogether the attempt to obtain accurate figures of gross and net produce, they formed for themselves a general estimate of the agricultural capacity of the country, and apportioned the sum thus arrived at among the different villages and fields according to a rough classification of their soils, which resulted in a great reduction of assessments. Extension of cultivation and easy collection of revenue followed on their experiment, which was gradually extended over other Districts, and was recognised in 1846 as the system of the Presidency. The system was first legalised in the Bombay Survey and Settlement Act (I. of 1865), which has since been incorporated in the Bombay Land Revenue Code (Act V. of 1879).

The new Settlement.

In Bombay, Survey and Settlement are combined in a single department, independent both of the Trigonometrical Survey of India, and also of the administrative Civil Service. The head of the department is styled Commissioner of Survey and Settlement, to which office a member of the Covenanted Service was appointed for the first time in 1881. Subordinate to him are Superintendents for each particular survey that may be in hand, with a staff of Assistants. The survey and settlement of Sind are directly under the Commissioner of that Province, though conducted on similar principles. The Assigned Province of Berar and the Native State of Mysore have both been surveyed and settled by the Bombay Department.

The Survey and Settlement Department.

The Bombay survey was limited at first strictly to revenue purposes; that is Survey.

to say, it purported to record only villages and fields; it did not pretend to produce a District map of scientific accuracy, nor to give topographical features. The later surveys, however, and especially the revised surveys, have on the one hand been connected with the Great Trigonometrical Triangulation, and on the other hand have aimed at greater fullness of detail in their maps. The unit both of survey and assessment is the field, which is not necessarily identical with the area of an actual holding. Technically, it is a "survey number," or a recognised share of a "survey number," formed for convenience of measurement with reference to soil and kind of cultivation. It varies from a minimum that can be cultivated with a pair of bullocks to a maximum of twice that area. Larger holdings are divided; smaller holdings are clubbed together. For "dry crop" cultivation the minimum ranges from six acres in the Deccan to two acres in the Konkan. This "survey number" marks the limit which may be taken up for cultivation or abandoned in any year, and also the limit of subdivision in case of sale. On transfer by inheritance, further partition is allowed to the extent of recognising aliquot shares. Each "survey number" is demarcated by permanent boundaries such as stones or earthen banks, the maintenance of which is rigorously enforced. As the result of the survey a village map is prepared on the scale of 8 inches to the mile.

Classification of
Soils.

The next process is that of the classification of fields according to soil, which is conducted by native subordinates in accordance with definite principles. Soils are first divided into three "orders," differing in mechanical composition and also in colour. Each "order" is then placed under one of nine classes according to its depth of surface, after account has been also taken of seven kinds of "faults," the presence of any one of which degrades it by one class. To each class a relative value is affixed, expressed in fractions of sixteenths, ranging from 1 to $\frac{9}{16}$. A simple but exhaustive scale is thus arrived at under which every variety of soil in the tract taken for assessment must fall. The classer then proceeds to test each single field by taking samples at intervals and striking an average for the entire field. The process is so expeditious that a 20-acre field can be classed in half an hour, and so accurate that when tested by the Assistant Superintendent the average error does not exceed 5 per cent. The native establishment of one Assistant Superintendent, consisting of about 14 persons, will get through 50,000 acres of plain country in a month. The process of classification here described is primarily applicable to "dry crop" land in the Deccan, and is modified to suit the local circumstances elsewhere; rice land and gardens are classed on special principles.

Assessment.

In the final process of assessment, it has always been the practice to group villages into "assessment circles" with reference to the common circumstances of climate, markets, and state of husbandry. The size of an "assessment circle" is never larger than a *taluk*, and is often much smaller. The Superintendent is thus enabled to give minute attention to all the local circumstances, and the agricultural and fiscal history. The actual assessment is arrived at by fixing a maximum rate, applicable to the soil classed as number 1; the rates on the other classes settle themselves as fractions of the maximum rate expressed in sixteenths. The proposed assessment, after being submitted to the Collector, requires the ultimate sanction of the Government; and for the purpose of introducing it into the *taluk*, the Assistant Collector in charge is usually associated with the Superintendent of Survey. The average rates of assessment throughout the Presidency (excluding Sind) range from 8 s. 4 d. per acre in Broach District to 9 d. per acre in Kaladgi District. They are estimated to average about one-fifteenth of the value of the gross produce. The term of settlement is for 30 years.

Results of new
Settlement.

The total cost of survey and settlement (including Sind) from the beginning down to 1883 has amounted to 1,903,256 l.; the general result has been to increase the land revenue from 1,835,120 l. to 2,371,022 l., or by 535,902 l., being 29.2 per cent. During the year 1882-3, 31 survey parties were at work in Bombay proper (excluding Sind); the total area measured was 1,667,542 acres, and the total area classified was 1,719,437 acres. Revised settlements were introduced in 90 villages of Bombay proper, resulting in an increase of revenue from 6,257 l. to 6,991 l., or 10.48 per cent. In addition, assessments were fixed for 100 alienated villages, and for 41 villages in Native States. The total cost amounted

to 57,760 *l.*, of which 49,593 *l.* was charged to Native States. In Sind 414,771 acres were measured and 2,192 acres classified; total cost, 19,342 *l.*

The characteristic tenure of the Bombay Presidency is that known as the "survey tenure," which has been legislatively defined as "a transferable and heritable property, continuable without question at the expiration of a settlement lease, on the occupant's consenting to the revised rate." The occupant is liable for the full assessment of his holding, whether he cultivates it or not, except that he may abandon any entire "survey number" by signifying his intention within a certain date. In the same way he is permitted to take up any entire "survey number" of assessed arable land on application to the district officer. This tenure, the creation of the survey, has now become universal in the Deccan, to the obliteration of the former distinction between the *mirasdar* or freeman of the village, and the *upri* or stranger. The former had permanent rights of occupancy, and was jointly liable with his fellows for the total village assessment; the latter was merely a tenant at will. In Gujarat and the Konkan old tenures still survive by the side of the "survey tenures." Some four of these in Gujarat require to be distinguished, which are all relics of ancient proprietary rights in land. The *talukdari* tenure, which prevails in Ahmadabad District, corresponds to the *zamindari* of Bengal. The *talukdars* are descended from Rajput landholders, or *thakurs*, whose estates have been much reduced by partition, and are now held in shares. Their proprietary right is recognised by Government; and their assessment is fixed at from 50 to 70 per cent. of the full rate. They may mortgage, but their power of alienation is subject to restriction. Their tenants generally pay them as rent one-half of the crop in kind. The *vanta* (divided) tenure, which is found in many villages to the north of the river Tapti, may be considered to represent *talukdari* villages broken up by Muhammadan conquest. Instead of imposing a general assessment upon the Rajput proprietors, the conquerors took for themselves three parts of every estate as Crown lands, and left the remaining fourth to the proprietors, either revenue free or subject to a quit rent. The *narvadari* and *bhagdari* tenures are found mainly in the two Districts of Kaira and Broach. They are joint village tenures, resembling the *pattidari* of Northern India; the sharers are jointly and severally liable for the revenue, which is apportioned according to custom and paid through a representative of the community. The *mehwasi* tenure, which exists only in backward tracts, is a survival from the time when border chiefs paid a small tribute on condition of keeping the peace. As regards the Konkan, the prevailing tenure in the two Districts of Kolaba and Ratnagiri is that known as *khoti*. Originally a farming lease, the *khoti* has now been recognised as a proprietary right in the soil, similar to the *zamindari* of Bengal, but subject to a revision of assessment. Subordinate to the *khots* are several classes of occupancy tenants who cannot be dispossessed, and also tenants at will, who pay as rent varying portions of the crop. In Thana District, in the north of the Konkan, the survey tenure has been introduced almost universally; and the *khoti*, so far as it exists, remains a mere farming lease.

Inam, or alienated lands, are those which are free from Government assessment, or liable only to a quit rent (*judi*). They are divided into four classes (1), political *inams*, comprising pensions, Muhammadan *jagirs*, and Mahratta *saranjams*, all alike conferred for public services; (2) service *inams*, which impose duties on the holder towards either the State or the village; (3), religious endowments for the support of Hindu temples or Muhammadan mosques; (4), personal *inams*, which, whatever may have been their origin, are now regarded as the unconditional property of their holders, generally in perpetuity. In 1851, an *Inam* Commission was appointed to inquire into the validity of the titles by which revenue free grants were held. But its operations were both vexatious and slow; and in 1863 it was converted into an Alienation Department, which was empowered to compound all claims by the summary assessment of a quit rent. At the commencement of the inquiry, the total amount of revenue alienated both in land and cash was found to amount to 1,325,101 *l.*, of which 518,640 *l.* had been recovered by 1877, at a total expenditure of 261,018 *l.*; the total revenue confirmed to alienees amounted to 803,836 *l.*

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The following table gives a classification of alienated lands in Bombay (including Sind) for 1882-83, according to the revenue returns:—

CLASSIFICATION OF ALIENATED LANDS IN BOMBAY (INCLUDING SIND), 1882-83.

	Estimate Value.
	£.
Sharers of Revenue collected by Sharers direct - - - - -	2,886
Political <i>Inams</i> - - - - -	73,276
Personal <i>Inams</i> - - - - -	344,408
<i>Devasthan</i> and <i>Dharmadai Inams</i> - - - - -	50,937
<i>Watan Inams</i> which have been brought under the <i>Watan</i> Settlement (Bombay proper).	62,379
<i>Inams</i> of <i>Taluk Service Watandars</i> whose services have been retained.	3,908
Allowances of Village Servants useful to Government (Bombay proper).	120,271
Allowances of Village Servants useful to Village Community (Bombay proper).	18,468
Deducted by Special Agreement (Sind) - - - - -	268
TOTAL - - - £.	676,801

The province of Sind has a land system of its own, though since 1862 the main features of the Bombay survey have been introduced. The prevailing tenure is peasant proprietorship, with holdings seldom exceeding 10 acres, though there are also some large landlords or *zamindars*. The village community can hardly be said to exist. Under native rule the revenue was universally paid in kind, according to the system known as *batai*, which was continued during the early years after British conquest. In 1847, a seven years' settlement was effected, based upon a measurement of crops and a commutation price for the *rayatwari* holdings, and upon a gross assessment for the *zamindari* estates. When this expired in 1853-54, a rough survey was commenced, upon which it was intended to base a regular settlement. By 1862 about one-third of the Province had been measured, at a total cost of 85,000 l.; but no assessments had been attempted. In that year a settlement officer was introduced from Bombay, and the department began in 1863-64 the operations now known as the original settlement. The only classification of soils was into four kinds, differing according to the proportion of sand, and liable to be degraded by the presence of "faults." A more important principle of classification was founded upon the nature of the water supply, for Sind is a rainless country where agriculture depends absolutely on irrigation from the river Indus. The three main classes of water supply are natural flooding, flow by gravitation through canals, and lift by Persian wheel from canals. In each class the certainty of the flood, the constancy of the flow, and the expense of the lift had to be taken into consideration. The chief difficulty in Sind has been to determine the question of fallow or waste land. Under the original settlement of 1863-64, large "survey numbers" were formed, with the object of including a sufficient proportion of waste; and a low rate of assessment was fixed for the whole, so that the holder could afford to leave a proper amount fallow year by year. But in the result it was found that the holder preferred to cultivate the entire "survey number" at once until it was exhausted, and then took up fresh land out of the waste which had to be roughly surveyed and assessed for the purpose; the revenue thus suffered in two ways, first, from the original low assessment, and second, by the laxity that attended the summary assessment of the new land. Accordingly a new system was introduced for the revision settlement, under which the survey numbers are small and a full rate of assessment is imposed

posed upon them, reserving to the holder a right of lien over his fallow fields without any payment of revenue. In 1883, 11 *taluks* were under the original, and 13 *taluks* under the revision settlement, while there were seven *taluks* in which the former had expired, and the latter had not yet been introduced. The total cost of survey and settlement in Sind from the beginning has been about 390,000 *l.* The term of settlement is 10 years.

The financial results of land administration in Bombay (including Sind) for the year 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The total current demand amounted to 3,036,374 *l.*, being a decrease of 73,445 *l.* on the previous year, chiefly due to a reduction of assessments, or, more strictly, to a temporary surrender of the increase that will ultimately be derived from the revision settlement. The total collections amounted to 2,955,206 *l.*, leaving a balance of 81,168 *l.*, or 2.75 per cent. In addition, there was a balance of 149,094 *l.* outstanding at the commencement of the year, of which 31,975 *l.* was collected during the year, and 80,199 *l.* written off, leaving 36,920 *l.* for future adjustment.

Land Revenue
Administration
1882-83.

The following table gives an analysis of the current land revenue in Bombay (including Sind) for 1882-83:—

ANALYSIS OF LAND REVENUE IN BOMBAY (INCLUDING SIND), 1882-83.

	£.
Gross Land Revenue - - - - -	3,910,170
Total Alienations - - - - -	676,801
GROSS TOTAL Demand (as below) - - -	3,233,369
Assessment on <i>Khalsa</i> Lands (including irrigation)	2,819,334
<i>Judi</i> or Quit Rents on alienated Lands - - -	311,662
Sale Proceeds of Permanent Occupancy - - -	18,271
Sale Proceeds of Grass Preserves - - -	18,399
Land liable to Floods, sold annually by Auction -	6,534
Revenue Process and Notice Fees - - -	3,207
Miscellaneous - - - - -	55,962
GROSS TOTAL Demand (as above) - - -	3,233,369
<i>Deduct:</i>	
Irrigation Revenue (credited to Public Works) -	26,244
<i>Remissions:</i>	
Introduction of Revision Survey - - -	121,284
Failure of Crops - - - - -	69
Poverty, Death, and Desertion - - -	513
Accidents, Locusts, Flood, &c. - - -	39,465
Other Causes - - - - -	9,420
TOTAL Deductions and Remissions - - -	196,995
TOTAL Net Demand - - - - -	3,036,374
TOTAL Collections † - - - - -	2,955,206
Balance - - -	81,168

* Not deducted for the Northern Division of Bombay.
† Including 13,290 *l.* on account of Village Cess in Sind.

It remains to mention briefly the so-called "Provinces" under the direct authority of the Governor General, viz.: Berar, Ajmere, Coorg, and the Andaman

Andaman Islands. Of these, Berar, or the Assigned Districts of Hyderabad, is only under British administration in trust for the Nizam; its revenue is not credited to the Imperial treasury. The Andaman Islands, which are merely a penal settlement for convicts, have no land revenue. It may here also be mentioned that the State of Mysore, which was restored to its native Raja in 1880, is in process of being settled on the Bombay system.

Berar.

Berar, like Mysore, has been settled on the Bombay system, with the exception of the hill country known as the Melghat, and a few uncultivated tracts which were surveyed in blocks without classification of soil. The operations of survey and settlement began in 1861 and ended in 1878, having thus extended over 17 years. The total cost was 222,787 *l.*, being at the rate of 13 *l.* 8 *s.* per square mile. The increase of annual revenue due to the settlement is returned as 151,200 *l.* The term of settlement, as in Bombay, is 30 years.

Land Revenue
Administration,
1882-83.

In 1882-3, the total current demand of land revenue in Berar (including miscellaneous) amounted to 638,716 *l.*, being an increase of 2,940 *l.* on the previous year. But, owing to a change by which one of the instalments was made payable in April, after the close of the financial year, the amount actually due is reduced to 575,407 *l.* Of this, 573,034 *l.* was collected, leaving a balance of 2,373 *l.*, or 4 per cent. In addition, there was a balance of 1,310 *l.* outstanding at the commencement of the year, of which 1,097 *l.* was collected and 110 *l.* remitted, leaving 103 *l.* for future adjustment.

Ajmere.

In Ajmere-Merwara the tenure of land is similar to that which prevails throughout the Native States of Rajputana, except that the British Government has conferred a proprietary right upon its own immediate tenants. The entire land is divided into two main classes: (1) *khalsa* or crown lands, of which a considerable portion have been granted away in *jagir* or revenue free; and (2) *istimari*, or the estates of feudal chieftains, who pay a tribute permanently fixed, together with a *nazar* or relief on succession. In Merwara, the total area is *khalsa*, amounting to 677 square miles, and paying an assessment of 11,866 *l.* In Ajmere proper, the *khalsa* and *jagir* lands together cover 796 square miles, with an assessment on the former of 8,443 *l.* and an estimated assessment on the latter of 6,847 *l.*; in addition, the *istimari* estates have a total area of 2,077 square miles and a permanent assessment of 12,473 *l.* Hitherto the term of settlement has been 10 years; and the last settlement would expire in 1884.

Land Revenue
Administration,
1882-83.

In 1882-3, the total current demand (including water revenue and miscellaneous) in Ajmere amounted to 38,803 *l.*, being an increase of 379 *l.* on the previous year. The total collections amounted to 38,669 *l.*, leaving a balance of 134 *l.*, or 3 per cent. In addition, there was a balance of 36 *l.* outstanding at the commencement of the year, of which 9 *l.* was remitted, leaving 27 *l.* for future adjustment.

Coorg.

The mountainous region of Coorg preserves to a large extent its own indigenous land system, in accordance with the proclamation by which the country was annexed in 1834. The ancient division of the land is into *nads* or cantons, which are sub-divided into *grams* or townships. Cultivation is confined to the river valleys, which are partitioned into ricefields, known as *wargas*. To most *wargas* a considerable allotment of forest land is attached, called *bane*. The remaining waste is the property of the State. The existing system of assessment is based upon ancient custom, as preserved in the records of native rule. The *wargas* or ricefields are divided into two classes: (1) *jamma*, held by the dominant race of Coorgs proper and a few favoured individuals of other castes; (2) *sagu*, the ordinary tenure held by inferior castes. In the case of *sagu* land, the traditional assessment is at the rate of 1 *l.* on an area estimated to produce 100 *chattis* or measures of rice, which may be taken to average about three acres. The occupier may claim exemption for any portion of his holding that he was unable to cultivate. The *jamma* tenants hold by title-deeds on condition of military service, and pay one-half of the *sagu* rate of assessment. The only service they now perform is police duty. In strict theory, they cannot sell, mortgage, or sub-let any portion of their holding, though this rule has lately been relaxed; nor are they entitled to remission for land left fallow. In Coorg proper the *jamma* holdings are to the *sagu* holdings in the proportion of two to one. In the tracts bordering on Mysore, where the Coorg race is not found and there are no *jamma* holdings, the assessment is based on a different principle, equally traditional with the other. The standard here is the quantity of seed required, not the quantity of produce raised; and it is estimated in measures called

khandis

khandis and *kolagas*. The result is a cash assessment supposed to represent one-sixth of the produce.

The *banes*, or blocks of forest attached to the *wargas* or holdings of riceland, are exempt from revenue, as being originally intended to supply wood and pasture. But of late years many of them have been turned into coffee plantations; and it has been found necessary to limit to 10 acres the area within a *bane* which the holder may himself cultivate with coffee, and to subject the land to the full rate of revenue if alienated to a European planter. In former years all land taken up for coffee was granted out of the waste revenue free, subject to the payment of an export duty on the produce called *halat*. But in 1864 the *halat* was abolished, and a fixed cash assessment substituted. Land for plantations is now acquired under the Waste Land Rules. It is first surveyed, and then put up to auction at an upset price sufficient to cover the cost of survey (4 s. per acre), and also the valuation of the timber. For the first four years it is held revenue free, from the fifth to the twelfth year at the rate of 2 s. per acre, and thereafter at the rate of 4 s. per acre. A survey of all lands held under the Waste Land Rules was undertaken by the Madras Revenue Survey Department in 1862, and finished in 1879. At the same time a topographical survey was made of the entire Province. The total number of coffee plantations in Coorg is 4,672, covering an area of 75,922 acres, of which 40,800 acres are in bearing. Of these, 218 estates are held by Europeans, with an area of 40,454 acres, and an assessment of 7,269 l.; and 4,454 estates are held by natives, with an area of 35,468 acres, and an assessment of 6,525 l. In addition, about 13,000 acres in the *banes* are estimated to be under coffee.

In 1882-83, the total current demand of land revenue in Coorg amounted to 33,569 l., being a decrease of 1,065 l. on the previous year. The total collections amounted to 17,778 l., leaving a balance of 15,791 l. But this balance is to a great extent nominal, being due to the circumstance that two instalments of land revenue out of four fall due in April and May, after the financial year has closed. As a matter of fact, the total amount collected during the year under the head of land revenue was 33,128 l.

Waste land leases

Land Revenue Administration, 1882-83.

XII.

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE, OTHER THAN LAND.

OPIUM.

Opium Revenue,
1842-43 to
1882-83.

OPIUM occupies the second place in Indian finance, next after land revenue; and it has held this position for at least the last forty years. The following table shows the gross amount of opium revenue in each of the five decennial years, 1842-43 to 1882-83, together with the total gross revenue, and the proportion that the opium revenue bore to the total. The figures are expressed in millions sterling to two decimal places. It will be seen that, while the gross opium revenue has steadily grown from 2 millions in 1842-43 to 9½ millions in 1882-83, the proportion that the opium revenue bears to the total revenue has increased in the same period by only 4·3 per cent.

OPIUM REVENUE in the FIVE Decennial Years, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

	Gross Opium Revenue.	Total Gross Revenue.	Percentage of Opium Revenue to Total Revenue.
	£. Mill.	£. Mill.	
1842-43 - - - -	2·09	22·60	9·2
1852-53 - - - -	5·09	26·61	18·0
1862-63 - - - -	8·08	45·14	17·4
1872-73 - - - -	8·69	56·55	15·4
1882-83 - - - -	9·50	70·12	13·5

Sources of Opium

The opium revenue, of course, is not properly a tax upon the inhabitants of India, except in so far as an excise duty is levied upon local consumption. Substantially, it is a contribution from China to the Indian exchequer, which the latter is enabled to exact by reason of its practical monopoly of the finest quality of the drug. If the Chinese were to decline to take opium, or to prefer it from another source, the finances of India would inevitably suffer. But the opium revenue, while ultimately paid by the Chinese consumer, is received in India in one of two ways: (1.) A monopoly price charged to the wholesale merchants in Bengal; (2.) A transit duty levied on the landward frontier of Bombay. In addition, the value of opium sold to the Excise Department for local consumption is included in the Bengal receipts. In Bengal, the cultivation of the poppy is a strict monopoly, permitted only on Government account; and the manufacture of the drug is also conducted directly by Government agency. The necessary expenditure, therefore, in Bengal, forms a considerable item for deduction from the gross receipts, while in Bombay the only cost is that of providing a few clerks with weighing scales at certain railway stations.

Gross and Net
Opium Revenue,
1873-74 to
1882-73.

The following table shows the gross and net opium revenue, in Bengal and Bombay, for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. The opium revenue is particularly exposed to fluctuations, due partly to the risks of cultivation in India, and partly to changes in the Chinese demand. It is the policy of the Government to meet these fluctuations by the expedient of always maintaining in reserve a considerable surplus stock, so as to steady the market. It should also be stated that, as regards Bengal, the entries of "Gross Revenue" and "Cost of Production" in each year do not cover corresponding periods. The "Gross Revenue" represents the actual sales, which are limited to a certain number of chests a year, whatever the actual production may amount to. The "Cost of Production" represents the actual expenditure for all the opium grown and manufactured within the twelve months, whether sold or put into store. It happens also that the opium year runs from 1st October to 30th September, though of course the finance accounts are closed at the end

GROSS and NET OPIUM REVENUE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	BENGAL			BOMBAY			TOTAL		
	Gross Revenue.	Cost of Production.	Net Revenue.	Gross Revenue.	Charges of Collection.	Net Revenue.	Gross Revenue.	Expenditure.	Net Revenue.*
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	5,582,984	1,998,226	3,584,758	2,741,295	8,064	2,733,231	8,324,878	2,601,260	5,723,618
1874-75	5,602,825	2,338,569	3,264,256	2,953,904	2,987	2,950,917	8,558,629	2,341,546	6,217,083
1875-76	5,921,928	2,216,738	3,705,190	3,549,487	807	3,548,680	8,471,425	2,218,505	6,252,920
1876-77	6,174,170	2,939,432	3,234,738	2,948,290	1,815	2,946,475	9,122,160	2,841,647	6,280,513
1877-78	6,432,581	2,858,021	3,574,560	3,748,841	2,345	3,746,496	9,182,722	2,661,266	6,521,456
1878-79	7,006,132	1,696,066	5,310,066	2,893,269	2,068	2,891,201	9,398,461	1,638,730	7,759,731
1879-80	7,177,815	2,066,460	5,111,355	3,141,347	2,002	3,139,345	10,318,182	2,167,402	8,150,780
1880-81	7,553,576	2,926,810	4,626,766	2,526,376	1,917	2,524,459	10,480,051	2,028,787	8,451,264
1881-82	7,677,512	2,066,430	5,611,082	3,184,032	1,805	3,182,227	9,602,144	2,057,336	7,544,808
1882-83	7,103,928	2,282,213	4,821,715	2,395,069	603	2,394,466	9,499,594	2,282,534	7,216,448
TOTAL	£. 66,633,848	22,176,034	44,457,814	26,684,919	19,600	26,665,319	93,318,767	22,169,434	71,149,333

* Not excluding Refunds and Drawbacks.

Subject to these explanations, it may be said that the opium revenue exhibits a fairly uniform growth from 1873-74 to 1880-81, since which date there has been a considerable falling off, though still an increase as compared with 1873-74. Taking only the first and last years of the decade, the increase in gross revenue has been 1,174,697 L., or 14 per cent.; while the increase in net revenue has been 893,179 L., or 14 per cent. likewise.

The following table gives the details of Opium Revenue and Expenditure for 1882-83. Its totals differ from those of the previous table in that "Refunds and Drawbacks" have been included under expenditure. Under Bengal revenue is comprised a total of 198,942 L., being the amount paid by the several Excise Departments for opium for local consumption. The price paid by the Excise is 14 s. 6 d. per *scr* (say 2 lbs.); and the total quantity thus bought in 1882-83 was 7,364 *maunds* 20 *seers*. The total number of chests sold at Calcutta for export was 56,400, at the average rate of 122 L. 3 s. 5 d. per chest. The Bombay revenue was derived from 594 chests of Ahmedabad and 6,109½ chests of Malwa opium at 70 L. per chest, 314½ chests of Ajmere opium at 67 l. 10 s. a chest, and 591½ chests of Ahmedabad opium and 28,717½ chests of Malwa opium, at 65 l. a chest. Of the total "Cost of Production" of Bengal opium, 979,009 L. is debited against 1880-81 and previous years, and 1,177,030 L. against 1881-82, while nothing is entered for the actual year 1882-83.

Details of Opium Revenue and Expenditure, 1882-83.

DETAILS OF OPIUM REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

REVENUE:	£.
BENGAL OPIUM:	
Calcutta Sales - - - - -	6,890,456
Miscellaneous - - - - -	14,527
Excise, India General - - - - -	42
" Bengal - - - - -	52,780
" Assam - - - - -	50,410
" North-West Provinces and Oudh - - - - -	44,098
" Central Provinces - - - - -	21,635
" British Burma - - - - -	29,977
TOTAL - - - - - £.	7,103,925
BOMBAY OPIUM:	
Duty - - - - -	2,895,559
Miscellaneous - - - - -	110
TOTAL - - - - - £.	2,895,669
TOTAL GROSS REVENUE - - - - -	9,499,594
EXPENDITURE:	
BENGAL OPIUM:	
Refunds and Drawbacks - - - - -	821
Cost of Production, &c. - - - - -	2,282,213
TOTAL - - - - - £.	2,282,534
BOMBAY OPIUM:	
Refunds and Drawbacks - - - - -	9
Charges of Collection - - - - -	603
TOTAL - - - - - £.	612
TOTAL EXPENDITURE - - - - -	2,283,146
NET REVENUE - - - - - £.	7,216,448

Opium in Bengal.

The Bengal opium system owes its present form to changes made by Lord Dalhousie in 1852. When the Company acquired the *diwani* of Bengal in 1765, the opium monopoly was already in existence; and the plan of farming the monopoly for an annual payment in advance, subject to the delivery of opium at a specified price, was continued for several years. In 1799 Lord Cornwallis discontinued the farming system, and placed the management under a covenanted servant of the Company. One result of this change was to increase the net revenue from an average of 95,050 *l.* during the last four years of the farming system to an average of 693,700 *l.* for the last four years recorded in the "Fifth Report from the Select Committee on the Affairs of the East India Company" (1812). Rules for enforcing the monopoly, and at the same time for protecting the cultivator, were embodied in Regulation XIII. of 1816.

The management of Bengal opium is vested in the Bengal Board of Revenue, though nearly one-half is both cultivated and manufactured within the jurisdiction of the North-West Provinces. There are two Opium Agencies, which take their names from the old Provinces of Behar and Benares, but have their headquarters at Patna in Bengal and Ghazipur in the North-West Provinces. Subordinate to the Agents are a large staff of Sub-Deputy and Assistant Sub-Deputy Agents, who are all Europeans, with two surgeons as Principal Assistants.

The entire system is a strict Government monopoly. Nowhere throughout British India (except to a slight extent in the Punjab) is either the cultivation of poppy or the manufacture of opium permitted, except on account of Government. No pressure is put upon the cultivators in the Opium Agencies to grow poppy in preference to any other crop. They enter into annual engagements, in which they undertake to cultivate a certain area, and to deliver over their whole produce at a specified price, according to quality. The present price is 10 *s.* per *ser* (say 2 lbs.) of crude opium of a certain consistency. As with most other Indian industries, a pecuniary advance is made to the cultivator before he commences operations, to be deducted from the price of the opium when delivered. The total area under poppy varies considerably from year to year, and has recently shown a tendency to decline. It may be taken as between 500,000 and 550,000 acres, pretty equally divided between the two Agencies. The produce also varies, according to the character of the season; but the average may be put at about 100,000 *maunds* (say 8,000,000 lbs.).

The manufacture of the crude opium delivered by the cultivators into "provision" opium for the Chinese market is conducted at the headquarters of the two Opium Agencies, Patna and Ghazipur. The opium is made into balls of about 3 lbs. 5½ ozs. each, and packed in chests each containing 40 balls. The chest uniformly weighs a fraction over 140 lbs., being equivalent to the Chinese *picul* (133½ lbs.), with 5 per cent. thrown in for trade perquisites. Owing, however, to difference in manufacture, a chest of Behar opium, which is made of the "consistence" of 75, contains 105·107 lbs. of "fine" opium; while a chest of Benares opium, which is made of the "consistence" of 70, contains only 98·1 of "fine" opium. The "consistence" is the percentage of "fine" opium, excluding all water. In Bombay, where the mode of levying the duty favours a high consistence, a chest of the same weight is estimated to contain at least 126 lbs. of "fine" opium.

The chests are sold at Calcutta by auction to the highest bidder, without reserve. The sales take place monthly; and, in order to ensure a steady market, the Government announces that it will sell a certain number of chests each month, and that it will not alter this quantity without giving 12 months' notice.

The following table shows the number of chests sold during each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83, together with the price per chest, and the number of chests kept in reserve at the close of the year. The number of chests that paid duty at Bombay is also given, for convenience of comparison, with the rate of duty per chest.

STATISTICS OF OPIUM, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	BENGAL			BOMBAY.	
	Number of Chests Sold for Export.	Average Price per Chest.	Number of Chests for Export in Store on 31 March.	Number of Chests Paying Duty.	Rate of Duty per Chest.
	<i>Chests.</i>	<i>£. s.</i>	<i>Chests.</i>	<i>Chests.</i>	<i>£.</i>
1873-74	42,750	126 12	84,544	45,679	60
1874-75	45,000	120 14	44,260	49,212	60
1875-76	45,510	125 18	50,504	42,941	60
1876-77	47,240	127 -	71,315	49,186	60
1877-78	49,500	126 13	88,982	45,808	60
1878-79	55,500	122 12	76,622	36,807	65
1879-80	59,100	117 -	67,483	46,211	65
1880-81	56,400	136 4	64,052	36,070	70
1881-82	56,400	132 1	57,384	31,196	70
1882-83	56,400	122 4	52,681	36,127	65
TOTAL	519,800	- - -	- - -	418,732	- - -
Average	- - -	125 14	60,783	- - -	64

* £. 2 10 s. per chest more on Ajmere opium, and 5 l. more on Ahmedabad opium, from 1878-79.

In Bombay the Government has no responsibility for either cultivation or manufacture of opium; it merely levies a duty on the drug imported from the Native States of Malwa and Rajputana in Central India, where poppy grows luxuriantly. This system is so economical that in 1882-83 a revenue of 2,395,669 l. was collected at the cost of only 603 l. Opium in Bombay

Down to the year 1831 the British Government reserved to itself a monopoly of the opium grown in Malwa, which was enforced by means of treaties with the Native States concerned. The produce was purchased by the Resident at Indore, and sold by auction at Bombay and Calcutta. This system involved much smuggling and constant disputes with the Native States. It was, therefore, abandoned in 1831 in favour of the present system, by which a "pass fee," or transit duty, is levied when the opium enters British territory. At first the duty was fixed at the rate of 17 l. 5 s. per chest of 140 lbs., which has been gradually raised to the rate of 70 l. The transit trade and also the retail trade for local consumption are regulated by an Act of the Bombay Legislature passed in 1878. The cultivation of poppy is prohibited throughout the Bombay Presidency, both in British Districts and in Native States, with the exception of Baroda. The importation of opium from Malwa is restricted to certain specified routes, all by railway. The transit trade has been entirely separated from the retail trade. All the Native States have been required to adopt regulations for the local consumption of opium similar to those in force in British Districts; and, in return, a remission is granted to them of the whole or part of the British duty levied on opium consumed within their limits. The Government maintain scales and a weighing staff at the following eight places in Central India and Rajputana:—Indore, Ujain, Ratlam, Udaipur, Dhar, Jaora, Ajmere, Mandisur, and Bhopal; and also at Ahmedabad in Gujarat for the opium produced in Baroda. The Opium Department is under the control of the Commissioner of Customs, Salt, Opium, and Excise, subordinate to whom is an Opium Agent stationed at Ratlam, in Central India.

Of taxation proper (excluding the land and opium revenue), salt contributes by far the largest amount to the Indian exchequer. This position it owes entirely to British fiscal policy, for under native rule salt was taxed at a low rate in common with a great number of other commodities. The policy of our Government has been to abolish imposts on all these other articles of trade and consumption, and to compensate for the deficiency by charging a comparatively high duty on salt. In recent years, however, the incidence of the salt duty has been generally reduced, and for the first time made uniform throughout India. SALT.

The following table shows the gross amount of salt revenue in each of the five decennial years 1842-43 to 1882-83, together with the total gross revenue, and the proportion that the salt revenue bore to the total. The figures are expressed in millions sterling to two decimal places. It will be seen that, while Salt Revenue, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

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the growth in the salt revenue steadily accompanied the growth in the total revenue down to 1872-73 (and even later), there has since been a relative decline, due solely to reductions in the rate of duty.

SALT REVENUE in the FIVE DECENNIAL Years, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

	Gross Salt Revenue.	Total Gross Revenue.	Per-centage of Salt Revenue to Total Revenue.
	£. MILL.	£. MILL.	
1842-43 - - - -	2.60	22.60	11.9
1842-53 - - - -	3.17	28.61	11.1
1862-63 - - - -	4.58	45.14	10.1
1872-73 - - - -	6.16	66.56	10.0
1882-83 - - - -	6.18	70.12	8.8

The net revenue from salt in 1882-83, after deducting charges of collection and also refunds and drawbacks, amounted to 5,674,954 £., or just under 7 d. per head of the total population under British administration. From this, however, there should be deducted a total of 372,962 £., paid in compensation on account of salt to the Native States in Central India and to the French and Portuguese Governments, leaving 5,301,992 £. It must also be recollected that a considerable proportion of the total salt revenue is paid by the inhabitants of Native States.

Gross and Net Salt Revenue, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

The following table shows the Gross and Net Salt Revenue, subdivided according to modes of collection, for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. On comparing the first year of the series with the last, it will appear that the revenue has remained practically stationary; but this result is due to reductions in the rate of duty, to be explained later.

GROSS and NET SALT REVENUE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	GROSS REVENUE.					TOTAL.	Charges of Collection.	Net Revenue*
	Inland Customs.	Imports by Sea.	Sales of Government Salt.	Excise on Manufacture.	Miscellaneous.			
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - -	997,960	2,487,297	1,795,111	819,269	53,340	6,152,977	479,656	5,673,341
1874-75 - - -	4,003,643	2,570,818	1,806,543	797,863	51,629	6,229,306	403,714	5,765,682
1875-76 - - -	1,023,735	2,478,263	1,802,614	895,623	45,320	6,245,555	508,661	5,736,894
1876-77 - - -	1,050,813	2,524,424	1,740,198	934,869	55,365	6,305,869	488,987	5,816,882
1877-78 - - -	961,300	2,601,677	1,698,646	1,142,601	67,002	6,461,225	546,173	5,915,052
1878-79 - - -	992,301	2,313,807	2,065,698	1,530,058	39,256	6,941,120	404,743	6,536,377
1879-80 - - -	1,470,924	2,383,800	1,801,774	1,568,860	41,055	7,266,418	340,387	6,925,726
1880-81 - - -	1,432,358	2,312,776	1,741,362	1,590,798	38,694	7,116,988	368,337	6,752,451
1881-82 - - -	1,655,910	2,392,600	1,651,972	1,587,577	87,561	7,375,020	486,209	6,889,411
1882-83 - - -	1,276,211	1,764,837	1,685,864	1,468,317	82,552	6,177,761	449,030	5,728,751
TOTAL - - -	11,865,155	23,830,209	17,688,761	12,385,835	551,574	66,271,944	4,331,377	61,740,567

* Not excluding Refunds and Drawbacks.

Quantity of salt paying duty, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

The following table shows the quantity of salt that paid duty in each of the same ten years, from which it will be seen that, while the revenue has remained stationary, the consumption has increased by no less than 27 per cent.

QUANTITY of SALT Paying Duty, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

(The maund is approximately 82 lbs.)

	Northern India.*	Bengal.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.*
	<i>Maunds.</i>	<i>Maunds.</i>	<i>Maunds.</i>	<i>Maunds.</i>	<i>Maunds.</i>	<i>Maunds.</i>
1873-74	4,489,380	7,912,371	646,467	6,486,609	4,079,370	23,564,703
1874-75	4,481,672	8,198,096	790,122	6,539,622	4,018,208	23,972,620
1875-76	4,449,361	7,914,887	†2,627,338	6,564,397	4,296,233	25,742,236
1876-77	4,582,496	8,112,193	†1,928,100	6,402,364	4,432,016	25,457,859
1877-78	4,563,487	8,512,150	†1,600,788	6,321,405	4,497,576	25,496,861
1878-79	5,443,347	8,461,802	†1,592,089	5,976,699	4,633,564	26,111,191
1879-80	6,307,376	9,067,411	†2,058,035	6,215,093	4,862,929	28,500,843
1880-81	5,995,652	8,697,883	†2,334,970	6,362,873	4,801,072	28,196,100
1881-82	6,836,464	9,221,613	1,251,275	6,207,581	4,892,534	28,409,867
1882-83	6,768,440	9,498,509	1,128,518	7,068,270	5,384,536	29,848,273
Increase in Ten Years	<i>Per Cent.</i> 52	<i>Per Cent.</i> 20	<i>Per Cent.</i> 75	<i>Per Cent.</i> 10	<i>Per Cent.</i> 33	<i>Per Cent.</i> 27

* Omitting, apparently, the Kohat Mines on the Punjab frontier. † Including Estimate for Salt Excised.

The following table shows the rates of duty per *maund* of 82 lbs. which were levied in the different Provinces in the same ten years. In British Burma the rate has remained constant at 4½ *d.* per *maund*; and in the portion of the Punjab that lies beyond the Indus the rate has also remained constant at from 4 *d.* to 6 *d.* per *maund*. In both Madras and Bombay the rate was raised in 1878 from 3 *s.* 7½ *d.* to 5 *s.* per *maund*, and lowered in 1882 to 4 *s.* In Northern India the rate was lowered in 1878 from 6 *s.* to 5 *s.* 6 *d.*, and again in the same year to 5 *s.*, and finally in 1882 to 4 *s.* Similarly, in Bengal the rate was lowered in 1878 from 6 *s.* 6 *d.* to 6 *s.* and then to 5 *s.* 8 *d.*, and finally in 1882 to 4 *s.* which is now the uniform rate throughout India. The full significance of this general reduction of salt duty will be explained later.

Rates of Salt Duty, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

RATES of SALT DUTY per "Maund," 1873-74 to 1882-83.

(The maund is approximately 82 lbs.)

	Northern India.	Bengal.	Trans-Indus Punjab.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.
	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>d. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
1873-74	6 -	6 6	4 to 6	- 4½	3 7½	3 7½
1874-75	6 -	6 6	4 to 6	- 4½	3 7½	3 7½
1875-76	6 -	6 6	4 to 6	- 4½	3 7½	3 7½
1876-77	6 -	6 6	4 to 6	- 4½	3 7½	3 7½
1877-78	6 -	6 6	4 to 6	- 4½	3 7½	3 7½
1878-79	{ 5 6 5 -	{ 6 - 5 8	4 to 6	- 4½	5 -	5 -
1879-80	5 -	5 8	4 to 6	- 4½	5 -	5 -
1880-81	5 -	5 8	4 to 6	- 4½	5 -	5 -
1881-82	5 -	5 8	4 to 6	- 4½	5 -	5 -
1882-83	4 -	4 -	4 to 6	- 4½	4 -	4 -

The following table gives the details of Salt Revenue and Expenditure in 1882-83, classified according to modes of collection and also according to Provinces, or rather Salt Divisions, for the whole of Northern India is comprised under "India, General." Excluding Burma, where the duty is insignificant, it will be seen that the revenue is derived pretty equally from the other four Salt Divisions, and that each of them has its characteristic mode of collection. In Northern India the duty is still described as being levied at the Inland Custom Line, though really it is obtained from an excise duty on salt manufactured at works belonging to Government; in Bengal the greater part is obtained by a customs duty on imports by sea, in Madras from sales of salt manufactured under a Government monopoly, and in Bombay by an excise or local manufacture.

Details of Salt Revenue and Expenditure, 1882-83.

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DETAILS of SALT REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	India, General.	Bengal.	British Burmah.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
REVENUE :	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Sales of Government Salt - -	205,636	-	-	1,342,853	37,375	1,585,864
Excise on Local Manufacture - -	34,154	72,753	8,451	42,179	1,315,750	1,468,317
Duty on English Imports - -	-	1,444,465	12,940	124	196	1,457,725
Duty on other Imports - -	-	302,796	-	3,160	1,156	307,112
Duty at Inland Customs Line - -	1,274,852	-	-	2	1,357	1,276,211
Miscellaneous - - - -	54,856	16,500	-	2,535	8,661	82,552
TOTAL GROSS REVENUE - £.	1,569,498	1,836,514	16,421	1,390,853	1,364,495	6,177,781
EXPENDITURE :						
Refunds and Drawbacks - - -	18,105	28,480	340	1,474	10,398	53,797
Charges of Collection - - -	172,334	5,369	263	152,259	120,755	449,030
TOTAL EXPENDITURE - - £.	185,489	31,849	603	153,733	131,153	502,827
NET REVENUE - - - £.	1,384,009	1,804,665	15,718	1,237,120	1,233,342	5,674,954

It Compensa-
ns to Native
ates, &c.

The following table gives the details of the compensations paid to Native States and to the French and Portuguese Governments on account of salt in 1882-83. The payments to the Native States arise out of the monopoly over all sources of salt supply in Central India which the British Government has obtained by treaties from the Native States. The principal of these sources is the Sambhar Lake, which lies between the two States of Jodhpur and Jaipur in Rajputana. The other sources have been acquired rather with a view to check illicit consumption than for remunerative manufacture.

COMPENSATIONS PAID on Account of SALT REVENUE, 1882-83.

INDIA, GENERAL:	£.
Jodhpur - - - - -	81,139
Jaipur - - - - -	68,831
Kishingari - - - - -	2,500
Gwalior - - - - -	31,250
Bhartpur - - - - -	15,050
Alwar - - - - -	12,500
Bhawalpur - - - - -	8,000
Dholpur - - - - -	6,000
Udaipur - - - - -	19,857
Various Petty States	8,754
Jodhpur and Jaipur for excess sales	24,025
Miscellaneous - - - - -	418
TOTAL - - - £.	276,824
BENGAL:	
French Government - - - - -	2,000
MADRAS:	
French Government - - - - -	44,000
BOMBAY:	
Portuguese Government - - - - -	48,638
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	372,862

It Divisions.

Excluding Burma and the trans-Indus portion of the Punjab, the rest of India may be divided into four Salt Divisions,—Bengal, Madras, Bombay, and Northern India,—in each of which a uniform duty of 4 s. per maund is now levied; but the mode of collecting the duty varies so much in each of these Divisions as to demand separate treatment.

It in Bengal.

In Bengal (including for the present purpose the neighbouring Districts of the North-West Provinces and Oudh), almost the entire duty is now derived in the form of customs from imported salt; but the importation of salt dates only from 1818.

1818, nor did it acquire large proportions until 1835. Prior to 1818, the entire supply was obtained from local manufacture by boiling or by evaporation along the sea coast, from Chittagong to Puri in Orissa. The manufacture of salt, and also the trade in salt, were taxed under Mahomedan rule, like everything else that could be made a subject of taxation; but the prominence given to salt as a source of revenue is due in Bengal, as in other parts of India, to British fiscal policy. In 1766, the year after the *diwani* grant, Lord Clive established a monopoly of salt, through the agency of a private company, with the express object of providing a new source of income from which to pay adequate salaries to the Civil Service. The price for the sale of salt was fixed at 4 s. per *maund* (exactly equal to the present rate of duty); and the annual revenue was estimated at 120,000 *l.* Clive's scheme was disapproved by the Court of Directors, and in 1772 farming leases were substituted without much success. In 1780, Warren Hastings introduced a system of Government monopoly, somewhat similar to that which now prevails in Madras. Salt agents were appointed who gave advances to the manufacturers on the condition that all their produce should be delivered to Government. The salt was then sold by Government, either by auction or at fixed prices, the difference between the cost of manufacture and the price realised representing the Government duty. During the first three years after the introduction of this system, the salt revenue averaged 464,060 *l.*; during the three years preceding the "Fifth Report from the Select Committee on the Affairs of the East India Company" (1812), it averaged 1,360,180 *l.* With certain modifications, the monopoly system continued till 1862, when it was gradually abolished, leaving the supply of salt, whether by importation or excise manufacture, to private enterprise. Excise manufacture on private account was first tried in 1835, but was not authorised until 1847. It is now carried on to a considerable extent in each of the three Districts of Orissa, and to a small extent in the District of the Twenty-four Parganas on the Gangetic seaboard; but the industry does not thrive, and the quantity made has steadily decreased of late years. In 1883, the manufacture entirely stopped in the Twenty-four Parganas, where the salt water of the sea is said to be too much diluted with fresh water from the river to allow profit on the cost of evaporation; and it has been proposed to place the manufacture in Orissa under the control of the Madras salt department. The total quantity of excise salt manufactured in Bengal in 1882-83 was only 287,846 *maunds*, as compared with 475,763 *maunds* in 1881-82, and 615,776 *maunds* in 1880-81.

The following table shows the changes in the rate of Customs duty on imported salt in Bengal that have taken place since 1817.

CHANGES in the CUSTOMS DUTY per "MAUND" on Imported SALT in BENGAL.

(The *maund* is approximately 82 lbs.)

	s.	d.		s.	d.
1817 - - - -	6	6	1859 - - - -	6	-
1844 - - - -	6	-	1861 - - - -	6	6
1847 - - - -	5	6	1878 - - - -	5	8
1849 - - - -	5	-	1882 - - - -	4	-

The salt manufactured in Madras supplies not only the Madras Presidency, Mysore, and Coorg, but also the eastern and southern portions of the Central Provinces, and a large part of the Native State of Hyderabad. On the other hand, the Malabar, or western coast of Madras, obtains its salt to a large extent by importation from Bombay. The existing Government monopoly was established in 1805, and has since undergone but little change. Under native rule, the salt producing grounds were either farmed out like agricultural land, or the produce was divided between the State and the manufacturer. Hence have arisen rights of property in a salt pan, which are recognised by the British Government as the subject of inheritance and alienation, and for which a certain share of the produce is paid, called *kudivaram*, as well as compensation if the manufacture is discontinued. The management of the salt revenue was formerly in the hands of the Collector of each District. Since 1878 it has been vested in an officer styled Commissioner of Salt Revenue, with a staff of Deputy and Assistant Commissioners, subordinate, ultimately, to the Board of Revenue. There are altogether

altogether about 60 salt factories in the Presidency, scattered along the entire length of the eastern coast, with the exception of three in South Kanara District. The process of manufacture is by solar evaporation in pans that communicate with the back-waters, or inlets from the sea, that abound along this coast. The permission of Government is required before the process may begin; and all the salt produced must be delivered to Government officers, who pay for it at certain fixed rates, averaging 2½ d. per maund. It is estimated that other expenses raise the total cost to Government to 4½ d. per maund. At the present time, the price at which Government sells is 4 s. 4½ d. per maund, the difference (4 s.) representing the rate of duty. Down to 1877 the manufacture of salt, except on Government account, was prohibited everywhere throughout the Madras, but in that year an excise system of manufacture was first introduced in South Kanara, and has since been gradually extended on the East Coast. Under this system licences are granted to private persons, who conduct all the operations of manufacture under strict supervision. Their stores are also guarded, in the same way as the Government stores. The sale is entirely free, except that the duty of 4 s. per maund must be paid before the salt is removed beyond the line of guards. It was hoped that the excise system would lead to an improvement in the quality of the salt made, as well as to a reduction in the price to the consumer. In 1882-83, the average retail price of salt throughout all the Districts of Madras was returned at 5 s. 11 d. per maund, of which 4 s. represents Government duty.

The following table shows the changes in the price per maund for Government salt in Madras that have taken place since 1805.

CHANGES in the PRICE per "MAUND" charged for GOVERNMENT SALT in MADRAS*

(The maund is approximately 82 lbs.)

	s.	d.		s.	d.
1805 - - - -	1	2	1866 - - - -	8	4½
1809 - - - -	1	9	1870 - - - -	4	-
1820 - - - -	1	2		6	-
1828 - - - -	1	9		4	3
1848 - - - -	3	-	1874 - - - -	4	4½
to				4	6
1845 - - - -	2	-		4	7½
1859 - - - -	2	-	1878 - - - -	5	4½
to	2	3	1882 - - - -	4	4½
1861 - - - -	2	9			
	3	-			

*To obtain the actual duty, 3 d. should be deducted in the earlier years, and 4½ d. in the later years, as the estimated cost of manufacture and storage.

Salt in Bombay.

The salt manufactured in Bombay not only supplies the British Districts and Native States of the Presidency and the Portuguese Settlements, but is also exported by rail to Berar and the Central Provinces, and by sea to the Malabar coast and even to Calcutta. Down to 1838 the manufacture was untaxed, transit and octroi duties being levied upon salt as upon many other commodities. In 1838, these various imposts were abolished and an excise duty of 1 s. per maund was, for the first time, levied upon the manufacture of salt, with a corresponding customs duty upon the imports of salt by land and sea. In 1844 the duty on salt was raised to 1 s. 6 d. per maund, to compensate for the abolition of *mohatarfa*, or tax on trades and professions. Subsequent changes in the rate of duty are shown in the following table:—

CHANGES in the EXCISE DUTY per "MAUND" on SALT Manufactured in BOMBAY.

(The maund is approximately 82 lbs.)

	s.	d.		s.	d.
1837 - - - -	1	-	1869 - - - -	3	7½
1844 - - - -	1	6	1878 - - - -	5	-
1859 - - - -	2	-	1882 - - - -	4	-
1865 - - - -	3	-			

The Bombay Salt Department was constituted in its present form by two Acts of the Local Legislature, passed in 1873 and 1882. It is under the charge of a Collector of Salt Revenue, who is himself subordinate to the Commissioner of Customs, Salt, Opium, and Excise. Under him again are Deputy and Assistant Collectors, with a numerous supervising and preventive staff, numbering 5,927 men in all. The aim of recent reforms has been to bring under complete control the manufacture, storage, and sale of salt. Small and isolated salt works have been suppressed, subject to the payment of compensation to the proprietors. The total number of works now open is 410, the larger portion of which are in the immediate neighbourhood of Bombay city. Nearly all are private property, and the few that belong to Government are leased to private persons. The salt generally is produced by evaporation from the sea, and varies much in quality. In the Ran of Cutch, however, it is obtained from the brine of wells, and being made under Government supervision, the quality is uniform. It is known as *baragara* salt. In 1882-83, the total manufacture in the Presidency amounted to nearly 7,600,000 *maunds*, of which 2,849,400 *maunds* were consumed locally, and 4,021,400 *maunds* were exported. The rate of consumption for the whole Presidency was 11.78 lbs. per head of the population, having increased from 9.96 lbs. per head in 1879-80. The gross revenue in 1882-83 amounted to 1,327,653 *l.*, showing a decrease of about 127,500 *l.* on the previous year, due to the reduction of duty from 5*s.* to 4*s.* per *maund*. The wholesale price paid at the works by traders to manufacturers ranged from 3*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per *maund*, the average being 3½*d.* (not including duty); and the wholesale price paid by the public ranged from 5*s.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* per *maund*.

The salt revenue in Sind is managed on the same system as in Bombay. Small and isolated salt works have been closed, so that nine-tenths of the total supply is now derived from a single source, the works at Maurypur-Moach. Smuggling from Khelat is still carried on to a considerable extent; but arrangements have been made with the Native State of Khairpur, by which the works there will be closed, and the inhabitants supplied from British depôts, at the price of the cost of manufacture. The consumption of taxed salt in Sind is steadily increasing. In 1882-83, the total amounted to 181,198 *maunds*, being at the rate of 6 lbs. 7 ozs. per head of the population, as compared with 5 lbs. 12 ozs. per head in 1881-82, and 4 lbs. 5 ozs. per head in 1880-81. The gross receipts in 1882-83 were 40,317 *l.*, and the expenditure was 8,985 *l.*, giving a net revenue of 31,332 *l.*

The Salt Department of Northern India has to do with the salt revenue of the following Provinces and Native States: the Punjab, North-West Provinces, Oudh, Central Provinces, Berar, Rajputana, Central India, and Behar (in Bengal), except in so far as some of them receive part of their supply from Bengal, Madras, or Bombay. It is under the charge of an officer styled Commissioner of Northern India Salt Revenue, who is appointed by the Government of India. Subordinate to him is a staff numbering 190 officers and 4,939 men. Including the Kohat Mines beyond the Indus, the number of distinct sources of salt supply under the management of this Department is 10, details of each of which for 1882-83 are given in the following table:—

DETAILS OF NORTHERN INDIA SALT REVENUE DEPARTMENT, 1882-83.

	Salt paying Duty.	Gross Receipts.	Charges (excluding Treaty Payments).	Net Receipts.
	<i>Maunds.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>
Central Office			8,777	—8,777
Punjab Mines	1,572,186	333,033	39,633	293,400
Kohat	465,489	8,032	2,682	5,350
Mandi Mines	100,084	4,170	711	3,459
Delhi Salt Sources	689,922	186,689	6,545	130,124
Sambhar Lake	3,016,689	887,823	70,631	817,192
Didwana Salt Source	288,264	65,267	2,704	62,563
Puchbadra Salt Source	429,396	102,472	13,934	88,538
Phalodi Salt Source	6,823	1,716	1,302	414
Luni Tract		17	1,803	—1,786
Internal Branch	65,106	20,006	34,936	—14,930
TOTAL	7,233,929	1,559,205	183,658	1,375,547

* This differs from the total in the table on page 157 by the inclusion of the Kohat Mines, which are not strictly speaking) under the management of this Department.

The Punjab Salt Range.

The Punjab Mines consist of excavations in what is known as the Salt Range in Jhelam District, near the Jhelam river. The salt occurs in the shape of beds of solid rock, cropping out from the red marls and sandstones of the Devonian group. The supply is practically inexhaustible, and unrivalled for quality and cheapness. It is obtained by simple quarrying. The chief source of supply is called the Mayo Mines, which were placed under the charge of what was then the Imperial Customs Department in 1870. There are also mines at Nurpur, Warcha, and Kalabagh. A steel wire tramway runs from the mouth of the principal Mayo mine to Khewra, a village on the river Jhelam, whence there is direct railway communication with Lahore, subject to interruptions from the rising of the river, for there is yet no permanent bridge. In 1882-83, the total quantity of salt excavated at the Mayo Mines was 1,972,355 *maunds*, at a total cost of 5,700 *l.*, being at the rate of 5 *s.* 9½ *d.* per hundred *maunds*. In the same year the selling price at the mouth of the mine was reduced to 1½ *d.* per *maund* (excluding duty); and arrangements have been made by which traders at a distance can obtain their consignments by rail, on paying the price into their local treasury, without the intervention of an agent on the spot.

The Kohat Mines.

The Kohat Mines beyond the Indus are not under the Salt Department, but are managed by the Deputy Commissioner of Kohat District. The Department, however, maintains a preventive line of posts along the river Indus, in order to check smuggling from Kohat. This line is 325 miles in length, and is guarded by 527 officers and men. The salt is here again in the form of solid rock, which can be easily quarried. It occurs in beds of immense thickness in a low line of hills crossing the valley of a stream called the Teri Toi. It is of a bluish-grey colour, contrasting strongly with the salt from the Mayo Mines, which is red. In 1882-83, the total quantity of salt sold in Kohat was 465,489 *maunds*, of which it is estimated that 110,968 *maunds* were exported across the frontier, mostly to Afghanistan. For political reasons the duty is maintained at the nominal rate of from 4 *d.* to 6 *d.* per *maund*.

The Mandi Salt Mines.

The Mandi Mines are in the State of the same name, which is one of the Simla Hill States of the Punjab. The mines, or rather quarries, are situated at Guma and Drang, where the salt is dug out of the face of the cliff. The mineral is estimated to contain at least one half of impurities. The management of the mines remains with the Raja, subject to the payment of one-third of the duty to the British Government. In 1882-83 the total quantity sold was 100,084 *maunds*, being a considerable decrease on previous years; of this, 55,518 *maunds* were for export to British territory, and 44,566 *maunds* for sale in Native States. The total amount realised on the sale was 12,510 *l.*, at the rate of 2 *s.* 6 *d.* per *maund*, of which 4,170 *l.* was due to the British Government and 8,340 *l.* to the Raja.

The Delhi Salt Sources.

The Delhi Salt Sources consist of two saline tracts in Gurgaon District, south east of Delhi. One is called Sultanpur, which borders on the great Najafgarh *jhil* or marsh; the other takes its name from the town of Nuh. In both the salt is manufactured by solar evaporation from brine collected in wells; and both have suffered recently from competition with the superior salt made at the Sambhar Lake. At Sultanpur, the quantity made in 1882-83 was 646,115 *maunds*; the average price realised by the manufacturers was 7½ *d.* per *maund* (excluding duty) as compared with 10 *d.* in the previous year. The produce is chiefly consumed in Rohilkhand and the country north of Delhi. In 1882-83 the price of Sultanpur salt at Delhi was 5 *s.* 9½ *d.* per *maund*, the price of Sambhar salt in the same market being 6 *s.* 4 *d.* In the same year the quantity of salt manufacture at Nuh was only 7,156 *maunds*, as compared with 103,145 *maunds* two years previously. The Nuh salt is of very inferior quality, and the industry has long been declining. It has, therefore, been determined by Government to buy up the stocks and close the works.

The following table shows the changes that have been made in the rate of salt duty in the Punjab generally since 1849:—

CHANGES in the DUTY per "MAUND" ON SALT in the PUNJAB (CIS-INDUS).

(The *maund* is approximately 82 lbs.)

	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1849 - - - -	4	-	}	5	6
1860 - - - -	4	3		5	-
1861 - - - -	6	-		4	-
			1878 - - - -		
			1882 - - - -		

The Sambhar Lake is a large shallow sheet of salt water in Rajputana, east of the Aravalli Mountains, and on the joint border of the two Native States of Jodhpur and Jaipur. When full it measures about 20 miles in length, by from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles in breadth, with a depth varying from one to four feet. Salt is known to have been manufactured here at least as early as the seventeenth century, on account of the Jodhpur and Jaipur Rajas. During the ten years from 1835 to 1844 the British Government took the manufacture into its own hands, in order to repay itself expenditure incurred on behalf of these two States; and in 1870 it obtained a lease of the manufacture by two separate treaties. The native process was simply to collect into baskets the crust of salt which formed naturally as the waters of the lake dried up in the hot season. The present methods are two: first, by the construction of large walled enclosures, now three in number, where the brine is evaporated in pans; second, by open pans, placed wherever convenient along the margin of the lake, into which the brine is raised from trenches and reservoirs by means of leather baskets. In 1882-83 the number of these pans was 4,394. The salt is of three colours, bluish grey, white, and red, said to be due to the presence of microscopic algæ, and each colour has its own field of demand.

The financial results of the manufacture in 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The quantity of salt made (excluding free supplies to Native States) was 1,427,343 *maunds*; the cost of manufacture, storage, and supervision was 20,258*L.*; rents and royalties amounted to 93,828*L.*, and miscellaneous charges to 6,117*L.*, making a total cost of 120,203*L.*, or an average of $6\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per *maund*. The sales were 3,621,659 *maunds*, the balance going to augment stocks. The total price realised (including miscellaneous) amounted to 119,444*L.*, or an average of nearly 8*d.* per *maund*. The average profit per *maund* was, therefore, nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* This is, of course, entirely exclusive of the duty, which is at the rate of 4*s.* per *maund*. At present the mode of sale is threefold. In the first place, all persons ordering from a distance on the "through traffic" system are supplied at the fixed rate of $5\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per *maund*, which is also charged at the depôts and agencies. Another plan is that known as the "selection fee," according to which, after a few stores of the poorest quality have been set aside for issue at the minimum price, the Assistant Commissioner sets on each remaining heap what he considers a fair price. The third plan is sale by public auction on the edge of the lake. In 1882-83 the total quantity sold, at the minimum price of $1\frac{1}{2}$ *d.*, was 1,784,366 *maunds*; while 1,337,910 *maunds* were disposed of by "selection fee," at the average price of 9*d.*, and 462,132 *maunds* by auction, at the average price of 1*s.* Since the close of that year, the system of "selection fee" has been abolished, and the minimum price slightly raised, the auction being for a time continued.

The following table shows the sales of Sambhar Lake salt, with the average price, since the commencement of the Government lease in 1870:—

SALES OF SAMBHAR LAKE SALT, 1870-71 to 1882-83.

(The *maund* is approximately 82 lbs.)

	<i>Maunds Sold.</i>	<i>Average Price per Maund.</i>	
		<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1870-71*	1,246,892	1	3
1871-72	1,128,982	1	2
1872-73	1,813,409	1	$4\frac{1}{2}$
1873-74	1,162,870	1	$3\frac{1}{2}$
1874-75	1,065,471	1	$3\frac{1}{2}$
1875-76	1,591,664	1	2
1876-77	1,762,494	—	$10\frac{1}{2}$
1877-78	2,629,171	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$
1878-79	2,870,953	—	10
1879-80	3,349,016	—	7
1880-81	3,064,188	—	8
1881-82	3,720,536	—	$7\frac{1}{2}$
1882-83	3,621,659	—	$7\frac{1}{2}$

* Including two months of 1869-70.

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The only Government depôt now maintained for the sale of Sambhar Lake salt is at Agra, the depôts at Delhi, Neemuch, and Pali having recently been closed. In 1882-83 the total sales at Agra were 336,614 *maunds*. The following table shows the changes in the wholesale price at Agra that have been effected since 1868, partly by the opening of direct railway communication with Sambhar, and partly by the reduction of duty.

CHANGES in the WHOLESALE PRICE per "MAUND" of SAMBHAR LAKE SALT at AGRA.
(The *maund* is approximately 82 lbs.)

	s.	d.		s.	d.		
January 1868	-	-	11	-	January 1880	6	4½
" 1869	-	-	12	-	February 1882	6	5½
" 1876	-	-	8	9	" 1883	6	8

Minor Salt Sources in Rajputana.

There are four other salt sources in Rajputana, of which the British Government has acquired the control by treaty, with the object of maintaining its monopoly rather than for commercial profit. These are named Didwana, Pachbadra, Phalodi, and Luni, all situated within the State of Jodhpur. Didwana alone is in communication with the railway; Pachbadra is situated in the midst of a desert, to which Banjaras with pack bullocks can come only during three months of the year; Phalodi yields no net profit on an average of years; and the Luni tract is merely a source of expenditure for the prevention of smuggling, all the salt made there being either distributed free of charge, or sold free of duty. The price charged for salt at all these four sources is now 5½ *d.* per *maund* (excluding duty), which shows a heavy loss in each case as compared with the average cost per *maund*, if we include under the cost the treaty payments to Jodhpur.

In order to acquire the monopoly of the salt sources in Central India, and to protect the revenue, the British Government has entered into treaties with no less than 31 Native States. The general financial result of these treaties may be expressed in the following form: on the credit side of the account is placed the amount actually received for the salt sold to the Native States, together with the amount of duty which would have been due except for the treaty, and also the average cost of maintaining the Inland Customs Line, abolished in 1879; on the debit side is placed the total amount actually paid to the Native States for rents and royalties under the treaties, together with a share of the total expenditure at Sambhar Lake proportionate to the quantity of Sambhar salt consumed in the Native States, and the entire expenditure at the four other salt sources. As thus drawn up, the total credits in 1882-83 amounted to 307,318 *l.*, and the total debits to 249,965 *l.*, leaving a credit balance of 57,353 *l.*

The following table, in continuation of those before given, shows the changes in the rate of duty on salt in Northern India that have taken place since 1843:—

CHANGES in the DUTY per "MAUND" on SALT in NORTHERN INDIA.
(The *maund* is approximately 82 lbs.)

	s.	d.		s.	d.		
1843	-	-	8	-	1860	6	-
1846	-	-	4	-	1878	5	6
1858	-	-	6	-	1882	4	-

Salt from Saltpetre.

The "Internal Branch" of the Northern India Salt Department consists of a strong preventive establishment, maintained in the North-West Provinces and Behar, in order to supervise the manufacture of saltpetre, in which operation a certain amount of salt is necessarily educed. The area under supervision covers 116,189 square miles, in which are numerous saline tracts possessing great capabilities

capabilities for the clandestine manufacture of salt. In 1882-83, the supervising staff numbered 87 officers and 4,939 men; the number of saltpetre refineries licensed was 658; while 50,785 licenses were issued for the manufacture of crude saltpetre, sulphate of soda, and different forms of carbonate of soda. The object of supervision is to secure that all salt educed in the processes of manufacture should be at once bonded, and then either destroyed or removed after payment of duty as the refiners may prefer. The proportion of salt educed to crude saltpetre was 7.77 per cent. in 1882-83. Saltpetre salt, of which only a good quality is sent into the market, sells well. In 1882-83, the average price was 4 s. 8½ d. per *maund* (including duty), ruling somewhat higher in the North-West Provinces than in Behar. Deducting the gross receipts from the total charges, the net cost of the "Internal Branch" in the same year was 14,931 l.; but if the duty paid on the salt educed were not deducted, the cost would rise to 27,952 l.

In British Burma salt is taxed at the rate of 4½ d. per *maund*, which is levied both as a customs duty on imports and as an excise duty on manufacture. This low rate of duty is justified by the existence of a capitation tax. In 1882-83, the total imports of salt into British Burma were 1,128,518 *maunds*, yielding a duty of 12,940 l.; and the estimated amount of salt locally manufactured was 395,653 *maunds*, yielding a duty of 3,049 l. The manufacture is conducted all along the coast from Akyab to Mergui, and also in some of the inland tracts where the soil is impregnated with saline matter. In both cases the salt is obtained by boiling the brine in large earthenware pots. The industry is everywhere on the decline, owing to the competition of imported salt. Independent Burma is almost entirely dependent upon British imports for its salt supply; and, by the existing treaty, the nominal duty of one per cent. *ad valorem* (say ¼ d. per *maund*) is imposed.

Salt in British
Burma.

It remains to give an historical summary of fiscal policy with regard to salt. Down to 1882 there had been great variety in the rates of duty in different parts of India. In Bengal the duty has always been comparatively high. In Madras the duty has been gradually increased fourfold since its imposition at the beginning of the century. In Bombay, a duty was first imposed in 1837, and had increased fivefold by 1878. In both Madras and Bombay this great increase of duty must be regarded as in part a compensation for the abolition of a number of transit duties and other imposts on trade. In Northern India generally the rate has remained pretty uniform, though it is here that the greatest reforms have been effected, partly by the introduction of Government monopoly and partly by the improvement of railway communication. Down to 1869, the Sambhar Lake, the one great source of supply for Northern and Central India, lay within what must be called for fiscal purposes independent territory. In order to protect our own salt revenue, it was necessary to maintain a customs line stretching across the peninsula from the river Indus to the river Mahanadi, 2,300 miles in length, guarded by nearly 12,000 men, at a cost of 162,000 l. a year. At this barrier duty was levied upon the import of salt from Native States and upon the export of sugar from British territory. In 1869, under the Government of Lord Mayo, the Sambhar Lake was taken on lease; and the rates of duty were raised in both Madras and Bombay, as a step towards ultimate equalisation. In 1874, under Lord Northbrook, the extension of railways in Central India rendered possible the abolition of about 800 miles of the customs line. But the greatest reform is due to the Government of Lord Lytton, with Sir John Strachey as Finance Minister. In 1878, the rates of duty in Madras and Bombay were again raised, while the rates in Northern India and Bengal were reduced, thus making a further approximation to uniformity. In the same year leases were obtained of the remaining salt sources in Rajputana; and with the opening of the next financial year (1879-80) the entire customs line, with its salt and sugar duties, was swept away. Finally, in 1882, under Lord Ripon, the duty on salt was rendered uniform throughout all India (except British Burma) by a reduction in every other Province to the standard rate of 4 s. per *maund*.

History of the Salt
Revenue

The revenue from Stamps is a complex item in the Indian, as also in the English accounts. Broadly speaking, it consists of a mass of small payments

levied

levied by Government, in the form of impressed or adhesive stamps, upon litigation and upon commercial documents. Where the fees on litigation are levied in cash, and not by stamps, they come under another heading, that of Law and Justice. Where the fees are levied on documents of title, they come under yet another heading, that of "Registration," which was first separated from Law and Justice in 1879. Of the total revenue from Stamps, a little more than two-thirds is derived from fees on litigation, which ought strictly to be regarded as set off against the expenditure on Courts of Justice. The remainder is a tax, properly so called, imposed upon commercial documents, such as bills of exchange, cheques, receipts, &c.

History of Stamps
Revenue.

The heading of Stamps first appears in the Indian Accounts as early as 1797-98, when it yielded the sum of 1,975 *l.* The amount derived from Stamps continued to increase slowly but steadily until 1859-60, by which time it had reached a total of 684,400 *l.* In the following year (1860-61) the law affecting Stamps was revised, and the revenue was raised at a stroke to 1,105,472 *l.* Another revision in the next year (1861-62) further raised the revenue to 1,577,234 *l.* In carrying out these changes, regard was paid to the model of the English Stamps law, to local custom, to the interests of the various classes of suitors, and to the convenience of trade. The object aimed at was to simplify the scale of duties, lowering them slightly on the whole, and trusting for increased returns to improvements in administration as regards fees on litigation. The existing scale was settled in 1870 by the Court Fees Act, known as Act VII. of that year; as regards commercial stamps, the law was codified by Act I. of 1879. The impressed stamps and dies used are supplied by contract with Messrs. De La Rue & Co. in England.

Stamps Revenue,
1842-43 to
1882-83.

The following table shows the net amount of revenue from Stamps in each of the five decennial years, 1842-43 to 1882-83, together with the total gross revenue, and the proportion that the revenue from Stamps bore to the total. The figures are expressed in millions sterling to two decimal places. It will be seen that, in the last ten years, the revenue from Stamps has increased at exactly the same rate as the total revenue. If the net revenue in each case had been taken, the proportionate rate of increase in Stamps would appear much greater.

REVENUE FROM STAMPS IN THE FIVE DECENNIAL YEARS, 1842-43 TO 1882-83.

	Net Revenue from Stamps.	Total Gross Revenue.	Percentage of Revenue from Stamps to Total Revenue.
	<i>£. Mill.</i>	<i>£. Mill.</i>	
1842-43 - - - -	40	2260	1.8
1852-53 - - - -	46	2861	1.6
1862-63 - - - -	158	4514	3.5
1872-73 - - - -	252	5655	4.5
1882-83 - - - -	326	7012	4.5

Gross and Net
Stamps Revenue
1873-74 to
1892-93.

The following table shows the gross and net Stamps revenue for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83, together with the charges of collection. The increase has been continuous in both gross and net revenue, until the last year of the series. Comparing the first year with the last, the total increase in gross revenue is 679,745 *l.*, or 26 per cent.; the increase in charges of collection is 34,558 *l.*, or 30 per cent.; the increase in net revenue is 645,187 *l.*, or 24 per cent. In 1882-83, the charges of collection amounted to less than 4 per cent. on the gross revenue. In the same year the average incidence of Stamps revenue, excluding Refunds and Drawbacks, but not charges of collection, was exactly 4 *d.* per head of the population.

GROSS and NET STAMPS REVENUE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Gross Revenue.	Charges of Collection.	Net Revenue.*
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	2,699,936	83,840	2,611,096
1874-75	2,758,042	125,470	2,632,572
1875-76	2,885,368	106,486	2,728,882
1876-77	2,888,628	96,266	2,742,362
1877-78	2,908,488	102,073	2,800,810
1878-79	3,110,540	115,542	2,995,008
1879-80	3,198,739	114,324	3,070,415
1880-81	3,250,581	107,465	3,143,106
1881-82	3,381,372	110,623	3,270,749
1882-83	3,379,681	123,398	3,256,283
TOTAL	30,441,870	1,000,947	29,350,423

* Not excluding Refunds and Drawbacks.

The following table gives the details of Stamps revenue and expenditure for 1882-83, according to Provinces, together with a classification of the two principal sorts of Stamps. It will be seen that Bengal alone supplies more than one-third of the total receipts from Judicial Stamps, and nearly one-third of the total receipts from Commercial Stamps, though the actual yield per head of population is one-half higher in Bombay. Bengal, also, has yielded the greater part of the increase that has taken place in the last ten years. In Bombay, there has been an actual decrease of more than 100,000 £. in the ten years; while the Stamps revenue in Madras seems to be stationary. The amount derived from Court Fee Stamps is proportionately very large in the North-West Provinces, and also in the Punjab. As stated in a previous chapter, if the revenue from Court Fee Stamps were credited to Law and Justice, it would suffice not only to cover the entire judicial expenses, but also to defray the cost of jails, less 297,565 £.

Details of Stamp Revenue, 1882-83

DETAILS OF STAMPS REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	India, General.	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
REVENUE:										
Court Fee Stamps	17,868	885,474	49,978	425,194	225,768	81,303	53,858	326,826	328,306	2,300,670
Commercial and other Stamps	18,987	328,549	21,376	763,767	97,093	39,971	28,169	186,383	153,015	1,019,233
Fines and Penalties	84	3,790	244	1,711	1,081	825	512	4,500	1,881	14,128
Miscellaneous	42	3,540	95	1,936	1,313	877	60	4,129	32,068	48,750
TOTAL GROSS REVENUE	31,961	1,231,363	71,694	1,192,608	325,163	122,976	82,619	420,837	420,900	3,379,881
EXPENDITURE:										
Refunds and Drawbacks	177	1,168	11,017	7,368	3,186	1,166	283	8,340	6,498	36,623
Charges of Collection	26,634*	14,481	1,047	11,829	12,276	1,668	343	14,281	17,869	78,603
Stores in England	32,203*	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,078	6,589	44,868
TOTAL EXPENDITURE	3,066	14,627	12,064	19,194	15,462	2,834	726	28,699	31,016	160,093
NET REVENUE	28,145	1,206,728	59,630	1,173,414	309,701	119,642	81,893	392,138	389,884	3,219,688

* To be distributed over all the Bengal Presidency.

Incidence of Stamps Revenue. The following table shows the incidence of gross Stamps Revenue in 1882-83, per head of population, in the several Provinces :

STAMPS REVENUE per Head of POPULATION, 1882-83.

	d.		d.
Bombay - - - - -	6·1	Assam - - - - -	3·5
British Burma - - - - -	4·9	North-West Provinces - - - - -	3·2
Punjab - - - - -	4·2	Central Provinces - - - - -	3·0
Bengal - - - - -	4·0	Average - - - - -	4·1
Madras - - - - -			

Excise. History of Excise Revenue. Under the name of *abkari* (a Persian word which means euphemistically the "manufacture of water") duties were generally imposed under native rule upon the manufacture and sale of spirituous liquors and intoxicating drugs. When all other sources of miscellaneous revenue, known collectively as *sayer*, were abolished in Bengal at the end of the last century, *abkari* was expressly reserved ; and its collection was enforced by an elaborate series of Regulations, dated 1813 and 1824. The most recent Acts of the Local Legislature on the subject bear date 1878 and 1883. In Madras the first *abkari* Regulation was passed in 1808, and amended in 1820, and again in 1864. In Bombay *abkari* does not appear as a separate item in the Finance Accounts until 1860-61. The entire system of collecting the *abkari* revenue in that Presidency was remodelled by an Act of the Local Legislature in 1878. For the rest of India (including the North-West Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and British Burma) a uniform Excise Act was passed by the Legislative Council of the Governor General in 1881, amending an Act of 1871. Assam is under the Excise law of Bengal.

Excise Revenue, 1852-53 to 1882-83. Though Excise or *abkari* is of such ancient date, its prominence as a source of revenue is comparatively recent, and its rate of increase in the last few years has no parallel. The following table shows the gross amount of Excise Revenue in each of the four decennial years, 1852-53 to 1882-83, together with the total gross revenue and the proportion that Excise bore to the total. The figures are expressed in millions sterling to two decimal places. It will be seen that not only has Excise steadily increased, but its proportion to total revenue has also increased by 1 per cent. within the last ten years.

EXCISE REVENUE in the FOUR Decennial Years, 1852-53 to 1882-83.

	Gross Excise Revenue.	Total Gross Revenue.	Per-centage of Excise Revenue to Total Revenue.
	£. Mill.	£. Mill.	
1852-53*	·87	28·61	3·0
1862-63 - - - - -	1·95	46·14	4·3
1872-73 - - - - -	2·32	56·55	4·1
1882-83 - - - - -	3·61	70·12	5·1

* Excluding Bombay.

Gross and Net Excise Revenue, 1873-74 to 1882-83. This great increase is displayed yet more clearly in the following table, which gives the gross and net Excise revenue in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83, together with the charges of collection. In every year except 1877-78 (the year of the famine in Southern India) there has been an increase ; and the increase has been much more marked in the later than in the earlier years of the decade. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the increase in gross revenue has been 1,321,881 £., or 58 per cent. ; while, owing to an actual decrease in the charges of collection, the increase in net revenue has been 1,325,894 £., or 61 per cent. In 1882-83 the charges of collection amounted to only 2·6 per cent. on the gross revenue. In the same year the average incidence of Excise Revenue, excluding Refunds and Drawbacks, but not charges of collection, was just 4½ d. per head of the population.

GROSS and NET EXCISE REVENUE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Gross Revenue.	Charges of Collection.	Net Revenue. *
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	2,287,680	98,444	2,189,236
1874-75 - - - -	2,347,274	91,916	2,255,358
1875-76 - - - -	2,494,339	87,226	2,417,113
1876-77 - - - -	2,523,986	91,409	2,432,577
1877-78 - - - -	2,458,029	99,350	2,358,679
1878-79 - - - -	2,619,349	87,839	2,531,510
1879-80 - - - -	2,838,021	92,088	2,745,933
1880-81 - - - -	3,185,296	95,404	3,089,892
1881-82 - - - -	3,427,274	96,886	3,330,388
1882-83 - - - -	3,609,561	94,431	3,515,130
TOTAL - - - £.	27,740,739	634,943	26,605,796

* Not excluding Refunds and Drawbacks.

The following table gives details of the Excise revenue and expenditure in 1882-83, classified according to Provinces, and also according to the main sources from which the revenue is derived. The Provinces that contribute most to the Excise in proportion to their population are British Burma and Assam, chiefly from opium; Bombay, both opium and spirits; the Central Provinces and Madras, chiefly spirits; and Bengal, where *ganja* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp) is largely used, as well as spirits. The small amount contributed by the Punjab is noticeable.

Details of Excise Revenue, 1882-83

DETAILS of EXCISE REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	India, General.	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
REVENUE:										
Licence Fees and Farmers' Rents - - - -	15,829	612,571	20,480	145,037	36,641	66,810	64,461	374,733	297,401	1,621,968
Distillery Fees - - - - -	-	1,327	256	163	244	47,662	7,941	27	21,967	79,407
Still-head Duty - - - - -	14,620	106,007	1,501	206,133	26,643	26,974	12,060	217,351	267,275	686,772
Duties on Drugs - - - - -	-	108,380	17,974	70,362	16,316	40,792	51,372	6,735	17,553	328,674
Duty on Opium - - - - -	677	150,653	160,719	53,222	37,375	42,618	98,433	44,662	81,230	669,589
Poppy Cultivation - - - - -	-	-	-	-	3,917	-	-	-	-	3,917
Miscellaneous - - - - -	1,337	667	69	316	360	341	716	134	13,509	19,389
TOTAL GROSS REVENUE - £.	32,463	976,997	200,999	475,223	121,493	218,195	225,492	645,842	700,955	3,609,561
EXPENDITURE:										
Refunds and Drawbacks - - - -	25	767	61	578	386	374	352	430	26,580	39,782
Charges of Collection - - - -	986	26,791	868	13,356	5,862	4,735	1,509	19,732	19,580	94,481
TOTAL EXPENDITURE - £.	1,011	27,558	919	13,934	6,247	5,108	2,061	20,292	56,160	134,213
NET REVENUE - £.	31,452	951,339	200,080	461,289	115,246	213,087	223,431	625,550	644,395	3,475,348

Taking all branches of Excise together, the rate per head of population in the several Provinces is shown in the following table:

Incidence of Excise Revenue.

EXCISE REVENUE per Head of POPULATION, 1882-83.

British Burma - - - - -	d.
Assam - - - - -	14.0
Bombay - - - - -	11.7
Central Provinces - - - - -	10.2
Madras - - - - -	5.2
Bengal - - - - -	5.0
North-West Provinces and Oudh - - - - -	3.5
Punjab - - - - -	2.7
	1.8
AVERAGE - - - - -	4.3

Excise
Administration.

The principle on which the Excise revenue is administered is to obtain a maximum of duty with a minimum of consumption. The rates of duty are raised from time to time to the highest point that will not encourage illicit manufacture or illicit importation: so that the recent increase of revenue by no means involves a corresponding increase in consumption. In the case of *ganja* and opium, the most deleterious drugs in popular use, the consumption is steadily being reduced by successive augmentations in the rate of duty; while as regards spirits, it has been found in Bombay since 1878 that a higher duty and stricter administration have resulted in a diminution of consumption.

The Out-still and
central Distillery
systems.

The administration of Excise is Provincial and not Imperial; that is to say, it varies with the different Provinces. The old plan, known as the out-still system, inherited from the days of native rule, was to grant to the highest bidder at auction farming leases of certain tracts of country, within which the farmer might manufacture and sell as he pleased. The advantages of this system are that a large revenue is cheaply realised, and that the farmer is interested in the prevention of smuggling; the disadvantages are that the consumption may be unduly stimulated, and that there is no guarantee of good quality in the liquors supplied. Another plan, which has now to some extent superseded the other, is that known as the *sadr* or central distillery system, according to which excisable articles are manufactured at central sites only, under strict supervision, and the duty is levied at fixed rates on the manufacture, besides a license fee on the sale. The advantages of this plan are that consumption can be checked by raising the rate of duty, and that the quality of the liquor, &c., can be secured; the disadvantages are that the high duty tends to encourage illicit manufacture and also smuggling from adjoining territory.

EXCISE ON
COUNTRY LIQUOR.

The central distillery system was introduced into Bengal in 1813, and was gradually extended till 1864; but of recent years the tendency has been to revert to the out-still system. In 1864-65, there were in Bengal 9,155 liquor shops, of which 5,664 were on the central distillery, and 3,486 on the out-still system; by 1882-83 the total number of shops had been reduced to 4,560, of which only 466 were on the central distillery system. Within the same period the revenue had increased from 177,707 L. to 482,630 L. At the present time the central distillery system is confined to Calcutta and its suburbs, and a few other tracts where the circumstances are exceptional. In Assam, the central distillery system has never been in force; the out-still system is worked by means of leases either of *mahals* or definite tracts of country, or of single shops. In the North-West Provinces and Oudh the central distillery system was introduced, by orders of the Government of India, in 1863. The immediate result was to cause a large reduction in revenue and a large increase (presumably) in illicit manufacture and smuggling. In 1861-62, the revenue from country spirits exceeded 170,000 L.; in 1864-65, after the substitution of the central for the out-still system, it dropped to 100,000 L.; nor did it again rise to its former amount until 1881-82. Meanwhile, it had been found necessary not only to reform the central system as at first introduced, but also to return over large tracts of country to the out-still system. The present policy in the North-West Provinces favours an improved central system, with an out-still system side by side in backward tracts or along the frontier of Native States. In Oudh the central system seems to have worked fairly well from the first. In the Punjab, also, the central system is universal, though it was proposed to introduce in 1884 the out-still system, as a tentative measure, into a portion of Kangra District. In the Central Provinces, the larger part of the revenue from country spirits is derived from out-stills, a considerable share from central distilleries, and about one-seventh from a modified plan known as contract stills. In British Burma, a cheap imported spirit called Penang rum seems to be gradually superseding local manufacture; the out-stills for the manufacture of toddy hold their own, but there is a steady decrease in spirits distilled after the English method, and the proportion distilled after the native method is insignificant. In Madras, a distinction is drawn between arrack, or country spirit, which is, strictly speaking, rum distilled from molasses; and toddy, which is the fermented juice of various kinds of palm. The revenue from the latter has always been raised by the farming or out-still system, and the leases of toddy are now kept separate from those of arrack. Down to 1869 the revenue from arrack was likewise raised on the farming system; but in that year the excise or central distillery system was experimentally introduced into Ganjam, and has since been extended to the majority of other Districts. In Madras city the Excise is a strict monopoly, spirits being either distilled by Government contractors or imported

imported on Government account. In Bombay, as in Madras, the country liquor consumed consists of two kinds (1), spirit, here distilled almost entirely from the dried flowers of the *mowra* or *mahua* tree (*Bassia latifolia*), which are grown abundantly in the north of the Presidency, and also imported from the Central Provinces; and (2) toddy, which is itself sometimes distilled into spirit. In the manufacture of both elaborate reforms have recently been effected, on a similar principle to the reforms in the manufacture of salt. The old plan was to collect the revenue by means of farming leases, which gave rise to serious abuses. This is now being superseded by the system of charging a fixed duty, both upon central distilleries working under excise supervision, and also upon the palm trees from which toddy is collected. During the five years ending 1877-78 the revenue from country spirits and toddy averaged 316,000 *l.*, of which 62 per cent. was derived from farming leases, and 38 per cent. from fixed duties. By 1882-83, the revenue had risen to 544,000 *l.*, of which only 27 per cent. was derived from leases, and as much as 73 per cent. from duties; and, despite this great increase in revenue, it seems certain that the consumption of liquor (at least licit liquor) has actually decreased. The farming system is now retained in only five Districts, where the geographical circumstances are peculiar; and nine Districts have now but one central distillery each. At the same time the Government has taken into its own hands at considerable rentals the entire Excise system in most of the Native States of the Konkan, the Deccan, and the South Mahratta country; and also maintains a preventive establishment against illicit manufacture and smuggling at a total cost of more than 10,000 *l.* The city of Bombay, with the adjoining district, is supplied with *mowra* spirits from distilleries at Uran, which produced in 1882-83 a total of 723,832 gallons, yielding a duty of 139,844 *l.* In the same year the total revenue from spirits (including import duty) amounted for the whole Presidency to 655,706 *l.*, being at the rate of 9½ *d.* per head of the population. The Excise Department in Bombay is under the charge of the Commissioner of Customs, Salt, Opium, and Excise; and the entire cost of the preventive establishment is debited against the Salt Revenue.

The duty on imported liquor is credited to Customs Revenue, but a small excise licence fee is charged on the shops where it is sold. Beer brewed at breweries conducted on the European system is subject to an excise duty of 1½ *d.* per gallon. In 1882-83 there were 16 such breweries at work in India, mostly situated at the hill stations in the North-West Provinces and the Punjab; the total estimated out-turn was 2,594,667 gallons, of which 1,699,914 gallons were purchased by the Bengal Commissariat Department. A kind of beer prepared from rice or other grain is almost universally consumed by the hill tribes throughout India, which largely escapes taxation; in Bengal it is known as *pachwai*.

Excise on imported
Liquor and Beer.

The second great branch of Excise Revenue is that derived from the sale of opium and other intoxicating drugs. This is managed everywhere as a Government monopoly, the price of the drugs, the number of shops licensed to sell them, and the rate of licence fee being strictly regulated so as to check consumption without encouraging smuggling. The usual mode of collecting the revenue is to put the privilege of sale within a limited area up to auction for a term of one year or more.

Excise on Drugs.

The entire supply of opium (except a small manufacture in the Punjab) is derived either from the Bengal Opium Department or from Malwa. Down to 1882, all the Provinces except Bombay used to be supplied from Bengal, but in that year, owing to the depletion of the stock for the Chinese market, an experiment was made of buying in Malwa. Assam and British Burma are the two Provinces in which opium is most largely consumed. In Assam opium yielded in 1882-83 as much as 83 per cent. of the total Excise Revenue, being at the rate of 8·2 *d.* per head of the population. But the consumption is not spread equally over the Province, being confined almost entirely to the Brahmaputra Valley, where the rate rises to 16·7 *d.* per head, or more than twice the Provincial rate. The revenue is obtained in two ways: First, the Government retains in its own hands the entire supply, which it obtains at the cost of 14 *s.* 6 *d.* per *ser* (say 2 lbs.), and sells to the retail dealers at a monopoly price, the difference constituting the rate of duty. At the close of the year 1882-83 the monopoly price was raised from 2 *l.* 12 *s.* to 3 *l.* 4 *s.* per *ser*. Secondly, the Government sells each year by auction the privilege of retail sale within a specified area or *mahal*, and at the same time limits the number of shops. At the close of the

Excise on Opium.

year 1883-83, the *mahal* system was discontinued, and each individual shop put up to competition. Despite a considerable growth of revenue there seems no reason to suppose that the actual consumption of opium has increased of late years in any part of Assam. In British Burma opium yielded, in 1882-83, 66 per cent. of the total excise revenue (exclusive of the Customs duty on imported liquors), being at the rate of 9'6 *d.* per head of the population. Great efforts have recently been made to check consumption, which have been attended by an actual increase in the revenue. In 1880-81, the total number of opium shops was 68, which was reduced to only 18 in 1882-83. At the same time the selling price has been raised to 3 *l.* 4 *s.* per *ser* (say 2 lbs.) in most Districts, and to 2 *l.* 16 *s.* in Akyab, the average being 3 *l.* 2 *s.* 1½ *d.*; adding the amount derived from licence fees, the total duty on opium amounts to 4 *l.* 7 *s.* 0½ *d.* per *ser.* of which 14 *s.* 6 *d.* represents the cost price to Government.

Excise on
"Ganja."

Ganja, an intoxicating preparation of hemp, similar to *bhanga* and *haschisch*, is most largely consumed in Bengal, especially by the Muhammadan population. As with opium, the use is steadily checked by means of progressive augmentations in the rate of duty, so as to obtain an increased revenue from a smaller consumption. In Bengal, *ganja* now yields a larger duty than opium. In 1882-83 the amount was 186,050 *l.*, being 19 per cent. of the total excise revenue, and at the rate of 7 *d.* per head of the population. In the course of the year the total number of shops was reduced from 3,488 to 3,271, and the duty was raised 2 *s.* per *ser.* By these means the consumption was reduced from 6,431 *maunds* to 5,466 *maunds*, or by 15 per cent., while the revenue increased from 171,379 *l.* to 186,050 *l.*, or by 8 per cent. The revenue per *maund* derived from *ganja* amounted in 1882-83 to 32 *l.* 18 *s.*, as compared with an average of 23 *l.* 6 *s.* for the five previous years.

Excise on other
Drugs.

The principal other drugs upon which an excise duty is levied are *madak* (or *madad*) and *chandu* (or *chandol*), two preparations of opium, the latter of which is said to be specially deleterious; and various preparations of hemp akin to *ganja*, the best known being *bhanga* (or *sidhi* or *sabzi*) and *charas*.

Customs.

Customs duties on imports and exports now form little more than 1 per cent. of the total revenue of India. According to the existing tariff, as revised in March 1882, import duties are levied on only five classes of goods,—arms, liquors, wines, opium, and salt. Everything else is free. Indeed, as a corresponding excise duty is levied upon the domestic manufacture of liquors, opium, and salt, it may be said that arms, ammunition, and military stores, together with wines, are the only articles of foreign manufacture now subject to special duties. Since August 1875, the only article subject to export duty is rice. The last inland customs duty, that on sugar crossing the Inland Customs Line, was abolished in March 1878. Therefore, with the exception of *octroi* dues levied in certain municipalities, India may be said to enjoy at the present time almost absolute free trade. The total amount of Customs revenue (excluding salt, and also deducting refunds) in 1882-83 was 1,243,728 *l.*, of which more than two-thirds was derived from the export duty on rice, and less than one-third from the import duties on arms and liquors.

History of
Customs Revenue.

The stages by which the tariff in India has been purged are numerous and complicated. The subject is exhaustively dealt with by Mr. H. Waterfield in a Memorandum appended to the Moral and Material Progress Report for 1873-74. It must be sufficient here to record briefly the most important changes in fiscal policy. Under the rule of the Company the tariffs varied slightly in the three Presidencies; but the general rates did not exceed 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, with a differentiation in favour of British goods and exports to British possessions. In 1859, as part of the financial measures required to defray the cost of suppressing the Mutiny, a uniform tariff was introduced for all India, with the general result of doubling the import duties, raising them in some cases to 20 per cent., and on unenumerated articles to 10 per cent. Since that date no less than fifteen Acts have been passed more or less modifying the Customs. The following are the most important. In 1860 the free list was extended, and the duties at 20 per cent. were reduced to 10 per cent. In 1864 the duties on unenumerated articles (which formed the great majority) were reduced from 10 to 7½ per cent. In 1867 the system of the tariff was revised, only specified articles being taxed, and those unenumerated becoming free. The effect was to relieve upwards of 40 articles from import duty, and upwards of 88 articles from export duty. The rates of duty on the remaining articles were not materially altered. In 1869 a practical

practical reduction in duty was made by lowering the tariff valuation of cotton goods and metals by 15 per cent. In 1875 the general rate of duty on imports was reduced from 7½ to 5 per cent., and at the same time all exports (including wheat and oilseeds) were freed, excepting only rice, indigo, and lac. The two most important import duties that then remained were on cotton goods and metals, the former of which in 1876-77 yielded 811,340*l.*, and the latter 112,740*l.*, leaving 464,185*l.* for miscellaneous articles. The cotton duties in especial were obnoxious to the charge of operating as a protection to the native manufacture, which was at this time making rapid progress on English methods at Bombay. In 1878 the import duty was abolished on a certain class of grey or unbleached cotton goods made of yarns not finer than 30^s, which came into direct competition with the product of the Bombay mills; and at the same time 29 out of 62 articles were taken out of the tariff and placed on the free list. The inland duty on sugar was likewise removed. In 1879 the abolition of the cotton duties was carried a step further. Grey piece goods of all kinds, when made of yarns not finer than 30^s, were freed, causing a reduction of revenue estimated at 200,000*l.* The previous reduction had been only 25,000*l.* In 1880 the export duties on indigo and lac were abolished, leaving rice the only export liable to duty. Finally, in 1882, not only were cotton goods of all sorts as well as metals placed on the free list, but also all other articles except the five enumerated above—arms, liquors, wines, opium, and salt. The Customs tariff, as it stands at present, is shown in table I. Table II. gives the actual receipts of Customs duty received under that tariff in 1882-83. It includes salt, which is placed under a separate heading in the Finance Accounts; and it excludes certain receipts for duties repealed, which had to be refunded.

I.—CUSTOMS TARIFF, according to Act XI. of 1882.

	Tariff Valuation.	Rate of Duty.
Imports:		
Arms, Ammunition, and Military Stores:*		
Firearms other than pistols	Each	5 - -
Barrels, whether single or double	Each	3 - -
Pistols	Each	1 10 -
Pistol barrels	Each	1 - -
Springs	Each	- 16 -
Gunstocks, &c.	Each	- 10 -
Revolver breeches	Each	- 5 -
Parts of a firearm, and tools for cleaning, &c.	Each	- 3 -
Machines for making, &c. cartridges	Each	1 - -
Machines for capping cartridges	Each	- 5 -
Gunpowder, common	7½ <i>d.</i> per lb.	10 per cent.
„ sporting	2 <i>s.</i> per lb.	- ditto.
„ other sorts	<i>Ad valorem</i>	- ditto.
Liquors:		
Ale, beer, and porter	Per imperial gallon, or six quart bottles.	- - 1½
Spirit for use in manufactures, &c.	<i>Ad valorem</i>	5 per cent.
Spirit for use in drugs, under 20 per cent. proof	- ditto - - -	- ditto.
Spirit for use in drugs, above 20 per cent. proof	Per imperial gallon, or six quart bottles, of London proof	- 8 -
Spirit perfumes	- - - - -	with proportionate increase above proof.
Other spirits	- - - - -	- - - - -
Wines:		
Champagne and other sparkling wines	Per imperial gallon, or six quart bottles.	- 5 -
All other sorts	- ditto - ditto	- 2 -
Liqueurs	- ditto - ditto	- 8 -
Cider and other fermented liquors	- ditto - ditto	- - 1½
Opium	Per <i>ser</i> of 80 <i>toles</i>	2 8 -
Salt	Per <i>maund</i> of 82½ lbs.	- 4 -
		(In Burma 4½ <i>d.</i>)
Exports:		
Rice, whether husked or unhusked	- ditto - - -	- - 4½

* A proviso limits the amount of duty to 10 per cent. *ad valorem*.

II.—DETAILS of CUSTOMS DUTY, 1882-83, on the Tariff in force.

IMPORTS:		£.
Arms, ammunition, and military stores	- - - - -	5,987
Gunpowder	- - - - -	4,887
Ale, beer, and porter	- - - - -	7,293
Spirits	- - - - -	354,624
Champagne	- - - - -	15,224
Other wines	- - - - -	41,408
Opium	- - - - -	280
Salt	- - - - -	1,761,854
Miscellaneous	- - - - -	2,342
TOTAL IMPORTS - - - - £.		2,195,059
EXPORTS:		
Rice	- - - - -	831,994
Miscellaneous	- - - - -	318
GRAND TOTAL * - - - - £.		3,028,271

* This differs from the total in the table on the next page, by the inclusion of salt, and the exclusion of goods on which the duties had been repealed.

When so great changes have been made in the tariff it is, of course, impossible to institute profitable comparisons between the amount of Customs Revenue at different periods. The largest sum ever realised was 3,017,861*l.* in 1860-61. It may be convenient, however, to print the same series of tables that have been given for other sources of revenue. In each case salt is excluded.

Customs Revenue,
1842-43 to
1882-83.

The following table shows the gross amount of Customs revenue in each of the five decennial years, from 1842-43 to 1882-83, together with the total gross revenue, and the proportion that the Customs revenue bore to the total. The figures are expressed in millions sterling to two decimal places. It will be seen that, while the total amount of Customs Revenue is but slightly lower than it was 40 years ago, its proportion to the total revenue has decreased fourfold:—

CUSTOMS REVENUE (excluding Salt) in the FIVE Decennial Years, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

	Gross Customs Revenue.	Gross Total Revenue.	Per-centage of Customs Revenue to Total Revenue.
	£. Mill.	£. Mill.	
1842-48 *	1.60	22.60	6.6
1852-53 *	.88	28.61	3.1
1862-63 *	2.39	45.14	5.3
1872-73 -	2.66	56.55	4.7
1882-83 -	1.80	70.12	1.8

* Excluding Refunds and Drawbacks.

Gross and Net
Customs Revenue,
1873-74 to
18-8283.

The following table shows the gross and net Customs revenue in each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83, under several different headings, which bring out clearly the changes that have been effected during the period. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the total gross revenue has decreased by 1,340,331 *l.*, or 50 per cent.; the charges of collection have decreased by 31,785 *l.*, or 17 per cent.; and the net revenue has decreased by 1,308,546 *l.*, or

or 53 per cent. The import duty on liquors, though with large fluctuations, shows an increase on the ten years of 154,054 £., or 58 per cent.; while the total export duty, despite the removal of so many articles from the tariff, shows an increase of 104,769 £., or 14 per cent., owing to the large development of the Burmese rice trade, which has approximately doubled itself within the period.

GROSS and NET CUSTOMS REVENUE (excluding Salt), 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Imports by Sea.				Exports by Sea.			TOTAL Imports and Exports by Sea.	Land Customs.	Miscellaneous.	Total Gross Revenue.	Charges of Collection.	Net Revenue.*
	Cotton Goods.	Liquors.	Other Articles.	TOTAL.	Rice.	Other Articles.	TOTAL.						
1873-74	842,398	296,474	374,083	1,512,955	† 519,499	187,385	706,884	2,421,739	190,193	24,466	2,636,400	180,767	2,455,633
1874-75	906,632	297,226	619,400	1,812,258	† 478,519	109,021	678,140	2,490,398	167,879	23,956	2,652,233	187,124	2,465,109
1875-76	872,021	312,980	602,364	1,787,365	663,118	189,417	852,535	2,641,100	162,781	20,546	2,724,426	187,695	2,536,731
1876-77	822,822	426,237	403,949	1,652,998	541,556	76,044	617,600	2,261,698	172,586	80,284	2,434,468	202,174	2,232,294
1877-78	842,646	340,339	363,228	1,546,213	601,237	69,716	671,432	2,467,446	124,948	31,732	2,624,126	207,611	2,416,515
1878-79	772,046	366,630	512,034	1,650,710	578,048	56,961	635,009	2,289,708	2,188	33,672	2,325,568	200,417	2,125,151
1879-80	682,584	328,479	528,222	1,539,285	604,189	49,390	653,579	2,262,244	86	27,463	2,289,793	201,280	2,088,513
1880-81	724,684	379,836	667,010	1,771,530	731,038	453	731,591	2,511,368	-	28,943	2,540,311	198,927	2,341,384
1881-82	574,918	407,133	680,312	1,662,363	767,428	541	767,969	2,320,319	-	31,069	2,351,388	195,110	2,156,278
1882-83	186	420,528	12,637	433,251	828,154	2,179	841,633	1,276,983	-	21,136	1,298,119	134,082	1,164,037
TOTAL - £.	7,162,839	3,612,816	5,094,019	15,869,674	6,153,498	882,686	6,986,184	22,861,868	331,638	272,697	23,936,153	1,922,087	22,014,066

* Not excluding Refunds and Drawbacks.

† Including "other grain" not shown separately for these years.

The following table gives the details of Customs revenue and expenditure in 1882-83 for each of the four maritime Provinces. It will be seen that British Burma alone contributes just one-half of the total revenue, by reason of its exports of rice, and also through its comparatively large imports of liquor. Bengal stands next, with a total revenue more than double that of Bombay, due again to exports of rice, for in import duty Bombay almost equals Bengal. In Madras the import duty is considerably less even than in Burma, while the export duty is raised above that of Bombay by the shipments of rice to Ceylon. In respect of charges of collection, Burma stands abnormally low. The proportion that the total charges bear to the total revenue is 12 per cent., ranging from 34 per cent. in Bombay to only 3 per cent. in Burma.

Details of Customs Revenue, 1882-83.

DETAILS OF CUSTOMS REVENUE and EXPENDITURE (excluding Salt), 1882-83.

	Bengal.	Punjab.*	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
REVENUE:	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Duties on Imports	148,701	-	87,173	56,979	144,407	433,260
Duties on Exports	212,849	-	558,616	43,779	20,380	841,633
Miscellaneous	7,128	-	2,757	3,822	7,420	21,136
TOTAL GROSS REVENUE - £.	368,678	-	644,546	104,580	178,215	1,296,119
EXPENDITURE:						
Refunds and Drawbacks	15,681	1,164	19,148	1,857	21,541	52,391
Charges of Collection	55,755	-	19,577	18,541	61,109	154,982
TOTAL EXPENDITURE - £.	71,436	1,164	31,725	20,398	82,650	207,373
NET REVENUE - £.	297,242	- 1,164	612,821	84,182	95,665	1,088,746

* Represents Refunds of Land Customs collected in previous years.

ASSESSED TAXES.

The name of Assessed Taxes may be taken to include a number of direct taxes upon individuals, according to their incomes or means of livelihood, which have been imposed from time to time. Under native rule, all trades and professions were subject to an impost known in the South of India as *mohtarfa*, from an Arabic word meaning an "artificer." In Bengal this impost was comprised in the *sayer* or miscellaneous revenue, which was abolished at the end of the last century, shortly after the date of the Permanent Settlement. In Madras, *mohtarfa* was continued down to the introduction of the income tax in 1860, though with so light an assessment as to yield only 100,000 *l.* a year. In the Native State of Mysore it remains to the present day. In Bombay it was abolished in 1844, when the duty on salt was raised to make up the deficiency. A corresponding tax called *pandhri* has been preserved in the Central Provinces; its incidence is limited to persons not engaged in agriculture, and it takes the place of the Licence Tax. It is now collected under the provisions of an Act of the Supreme Legislature (XXI. of 1867).

History of Assessed Taxes.

An income tax proper was first introduced in 1860, as part of the fiscal policy for defraying the cost of the Mutiny. It was originally imposed on all incomes exceeding 20 *l.*, at the rate of 2 per cent. on incomes between 20 *l.* and 50 *l.*, and at the rate of 4 per cent. on incomes above 50 *l.* It embraced all incomes, whether from land, trade, profession, or Government service, military officers alone excepted. In 1861 a licence duty was added to the income tax, though it was in force for only seven months. It imposed a duty of 2 *s.*, 4 *s.*, or 6 *s.* on all artisans, shopkeepers, merchants, and professional men. In 1861-62, the income tax and licence tax together yielded a total revenue of 2,054,696 *l.* In 1863, the rate of income tax was reduced uniformly to 2 per cent., and in 1866 it was abolished altogether. In the following year, however, a licence tax was introduced on all incomes exceeding 20 *l.*, levied according to a graduated scale, ranging from 8 *s.* to 50 *s.*, in such a way that the rate should in no case exceed 2 per cent. In 1868, a new licence tax was substituted, in which the minimum income assessable was raised to 50 *l.*, and the graduated scale was altered so as to range from 16 *s.* to 640 *l.* In 1869, recourse was again had to the form of an income tax, levied upon all incomes exceeding 50 *l.* according to a graduated scale from 12 *s.* upwards. The rate of tax on official salaries was 2½ per cent. In 1870, the income tax was raised to 3½ per cent. (6 pies in the rupee), which yielded in 1870-71 a total revenue of 2,072,025 *l.*, the largest figure ever reached by Assessed Taxes. In 1871, the rate was reduced to 1¼ per cent. (2 pies in the rupee), and the minimum income assessable was raised to 75 *l.* In 1872, the minimum was further raised to 100 *l.* In 1873 the income tax was allowed to expire altogether. Four years afterwards, as part of a fiscal policy for the permanent relief of famine, it was decided to reintroduce a licence tax on trades and professions, which was first applied in the North-West Provinces, and extended in 1878 to the whole of India. The rate of the tax was in no case to exceed 2 per cent., and ultimately averaged 1¼ per cent.; the minimum assessable income, which at first varied in the several Provinces, was fixed uniformly in 1879 at 50 *l.* Since that time the licence tax has remained unaltered, a proposal to extend it to the official classes having failed. The total number of traders paying the tax is about 250,000.

Assessed Taxes, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

In the face of so great variations, no profitable comparison can be instituted between the returns of Assessed Taxes in different years. In continuation, however, of the usual tables, it has been thought advisable to print the following table, which shows the gross and net revenue from Assessed Taxes in each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. The only noticeable features are the steady decrease in revenue during the last three years, and the gradual decrease in charges of collection after the first year of the imposition of the present licence tax.

GROSS and NET REVENUE from ASSESSED TAXES, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Gross Revenue.	Charges of Collection.	Net Revenue.*
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	34,483	2,232	32,251
1874-75 - - - -	20,191	14	20,177
1875-76 - - - -	14,642	10	14,632
1876-77 - - - -	14,535	919	13,616
1877-78 - - - -	101,682	692	100,990
1878-79 - - - -	900,920	37,617	863,303
1879-80 - - - -	765,318	29,886	735,432
1880-81 - - - -	558,720	21,237	537,483
1881-82 - - - -	536,820	13,071	523,755
1882-83 - - - -	517,811	12,853	504,958
TOTAL - - - £.	3,485,131	118,524	3,366,607

* Not excluding Refunds and Drawbacks.

The following table gives the details of revenue from Assessed Taxes in 1882-83 for the several Provinces, excluding Assam and British Burma, where the Licence Tax is not in force. It will be seen that Bombay contributes nearly as much as Bengal, while Madras contributes less than the Punjab. The charges of collection seem very high in Bengal. For the whole of India the charges of collection amount to 4 per cent. of the revenue.

Details of Assessed Taxes, 1882-83.

DETAILS OF ASSESSED TAXES, REVENUE and EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	India, General.	Bengal.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
REVENUE:								
Gross Receipts - - -	10	152,034	118,113	50,143	25,488	46,036	125,987	517,811
EXPENDITURE:								
Refunds - - - - -	-	6,065	5,536	3,037	750	540	5,032	20,975
Charges of Collection -	-	2,484	624	145	49	565	1,086	12,853
TOTAL Expenditure - £.	-	15,549	6,150	3,182	808	1,111	7,018	33,826
NET REVENUE - - £.	10	136,485	111,963	46,961	24,680	44,925	118,969	483,985

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Incidence of Assessed Taxes.

The following table shows the amount yielded by Assessed Taxes per head of the population in each Province :

ASSESSED TAXES per HEAD of POPULATION, 1882-83.

	<i>d.</i>
Bombay - - - - -	1.83
North-West Provinces and Oudh - - -	.64
Punjab - - - - -	.64
Central Provinces - - - - -	.62
Bengal - - - - -	.55
Madras - - - - -	.38

In Bengal the total number of persons assessed in 1882-83 was 69,841, or one to every 941 of the population. Of this total 388 were in Class I., paying 50*l.*; 716 in Class II., paying 20*l.*; 1,417 in Class III., paying 10*l.*; 3,581 in Class IV., paying 5*l.*; 14,790 in Class V., paying 2*l.*; and 48,976 in Class VI., paying 1*l.* In Bombay the total number of persons assessed was 49,925, or one to every 310 of the population. Of these, 13,727, or more than one-fourth, were money lenders, and they also paid more than one-fourth of the total tax. Grain dealers formed the next most numerous class, but they did not pay so much collectively as general merchants. Bankers were also numerous, and they paid as much as six per cent. of the tax. In Bombay city alone the average payment from each person assessed was 4*l.*; in Sind it was only 1*l.* 16*s.*

XIII.

AGRICULTURE.

ACCORDING to the Census of 1881, the number of male agriculturists in all India (including the Native States) amounts to 51,089,021, or 39 per cent. of the total male population. If persons of no stated occupation (who are mostly children) are excluded, the proportion would rise to 64 per cent. In addition, 18,863,726 women were returned as agriculturists, being 15 per cent. of the total female population, or 50 per cent. if those of no stated occupation are excluded. These figures include the people dwelling in towns with over 5,000 inhabitants, who form 9 per cent. of the total population. In the rural population proper, male agriculturists form 43 per cent., or 66 per cent. excluding those of no stated occupation. In order to obtain the true number of those who are supported directly or indirectly from the soil, it is necessary to add the greater part of the labourers (7,248,491 males and 5,244,206 females), and also many artisans and members of the professional classes, who own and cultivate land as incidental to their regular occupation. The Report of the Indian Famine Commission (1880) estimates that "90 per cent. of the rural population, or rather more than 80 per cent. of the total population, is closely connected with the land."

The Agricultural Population.

Unfortunately, it is impossible to furnish even approximately accurate figures regarding the industry upon which so large a portion of the Indian people are dependent. In the largest Province of all, Bengal, no attempt whatever has been made to collect agricultural statistics. In most of the other Provinces calculations of cultivated area, crops, and outturn are made in connexion with settlement operations; but up to the present time no adequate machinery has been provided for securing that these calculations shall be tested and revised from year to year. Hitherto agriculture has chiefly been considered by the Government rather in its relation to the land revenue, which forms the mainstay of Indian finance, than from the point of view of the food supply of the people. Quite recently, in accordance with the recommendations of the Famine Commission, Departments of Agriculture have been established in the several Provinces, together with a Secretariat for Agriculture in the Supreme Government.

Agricultural statistics.

The first effort in this direction was made in 1871, when Lord Mayo was Governor-General. A new Secretariat was constituted in the Supreme Government, under the title of the Department of Agriculture, Revenue, and Commerce, which had as one of its chief functions to collect agricultural statistics and to promote measures for the improvement of native cultivation. But no corresponding Departments were created in the Provinces, with the single exception of the North-West Provinces; and the special Secretariat was ultimately again amalgamated with the Home Department, which then took the style of Home, Revenue, and Agriculture, Commerce being associated with Finance. In 1881, after the Report of the Famine Commission, a Department of Revenue and Agriculture was again formed in the Supreme Government, with Mr. E. C. Buck for Secretary, who had been for some years at the head of the Department of Agriculture and Commerce in the North-West Provinces. Since that date, Departments of Agriculture, under the charge of a special Director, have been constituted in each of the Provinces. In most cases the new Department has been closely combined with the already existing work of Revenue Settlement. In Madras, the chief officer is styled Director of Revenue Settlement and Agriculture; in the Punjab, Commissioner of Settlements and Agriculture; and in British Burma the Settlement Secretary was gazetted Director of the Agricultural Department in addition to his own duties, but without increase of salary. In Bombay the Directorship of Agriculture is at present independent of the Revenue Settlement, being filled by a civilian who attended the Cirencester College during his furlough in England. In the North-West Provinces the Department, which dates from the earlier scheme of Lord Mayo, is called Agriculture and Commerce; it is conducted by a Director and an assistant, with a second assistant for Oudh.

The Agricultural Department.

As none of the Departments of Agriculture, with the exception of that for the North-West Provinces, had been established long enough to present a report before the close of the official year 1882-83, it must suffice here to enumerate the classes of subjects to which their attention has been directed by the Government. These are (1) the organisation and maintenance of village records; (2) an analysis of districts with reference to security from famine; (3) the system of collection of revenue and rental in precarious tracts; (4) measures of protection, including arboriculture; (5) agricultural experiments, including farms; (6) cattle breeding and veterinary establishments; (7) agricultural and fiscal statistics; (8) trade and trade statistics.

It may be convenient also to quote from the Report of the Famine Commission (pp. 40-1) their recommendations regarding an Agricultural Department:—

Recommendations
of the Famine
Commission.

“The revenue system in the greater part of British India is such as to present unrivalled means of ascertaining in the fullest manner all necessary facts relating to agriculture, and to the different incidents of landed tenures in every village; but those means have nowhere been completely utilised or made so efficient as they might be. We recommend that the body of village accountants should everywhere be put on a sound and satisfactory footing as responsible public officers, with a clearly defined set of duties, but with due consideration to the importance of their permanent connection with their own villages; and that where, as in parts of Bengal and Sind, the class has ceased to exist through long desuetude, it should be resuscitated. Officials of this class should be appointed for all villages, whether the estates are free from assessment, or pay a quit rent, or pay the land revenue in full; and the same annual returns should be prepared for all kinds of estates, whether under the permanent or temporary settlement. The field survey, which supplies the basis of all agricultural statistics, should be pushed on in the Provinces where it is now in progress, and should be set on foot in Bengal, where hitherto it has not been introduced.

“Over the village accountants there should be a staff of active subordinate officers, employed in keeping them to their duty, inspecting their work, visiting each village in turn, and checking the accuracy of all items recorded concerning it.

“Above these there should be a special officer in every district, who would be, as a rule, of the rank of a Deputy Collector, and whose main or only duty should be to take charge of all matters connected with the economic condition and well-being of the people. He would test and compile the agricultural returns and examine the market prices, and ascertain from these and other data the relative value of each year's crop, according as it is below or above the average. From such a continuous record of the harvests, he would obtain data for judging whether the landed classes were in a depressed or a prosperous condition, and how far they were prepared to meet a calamitous season. It would be his object to obtain similar information as to all sections of the population, and to learn what are the causes of depression, and what classes would be the first to succumb under the pressure of scarcity and high prices. The accurate registration of vital statistics and the investigation of the causes of any abnormal mortality would lie within his province, and he would be the agent of the health officer of the District for the purpose of scrutinising the record of births and deaths. The extent of the food stocks, the ebb and flow of local trade, the current rates of interest charged on loans to different classes, the deficient or superabundant supply of any kinds of labour, and the customary wages paid to each kind; these and other kindred topics, on which information is at present far from precise, would fall within the scope of his inquiries. These officers, while generally subordinate to the Collector or chief officer of the District in which they are placed, would be specially under the orders of the Agricultural Department, in respect to the system on which their returns are to be prepared and checked.

“A Director of Agriculture should be appointed in each Province as executive head of this Department, chosen for his knowledge of the condition of the people, and particularly of the agricultural classes. He would directly control the special statistical officers, and would be the adviser of the Local Government on all matters relating to agriculture and statistics. In ordinary times he should discharge these duties, and superintend all measures designed to improve the agriculture of the country; and in times of famine he would be the officer responsible for warning the Government as to the agricultural outlook,

outlook, and for preparing such a forecast as should guide it in issuing instructions and setting on foot measures of relief. A corresponding officer should perform analogous duties under the Government of India, assisting it in its dealings with the Local Governments in the Agricultural Department, and in the supervision of the Local Directors of Agriculture. All these officials, and a certain proportion of the special officers in each district, should have been prepared for their duties by a technical training in scientific and practical agriculture."

The Report of the Famine Commission still remains the only available source of agricultural statistics for the whole of India. The following tables, which are taken from that Report, must be regarded as only approximations to the actual truth. Table I. gives the estimated area under cultivation in the several Provinces, together with the estimated out-turn of grain in an ordinary year; table II. gives the estimated per-centage of the food-growing area under different crops, with the per-centage of the population that eat rice; table III. gives the estimated area under artificial irrigation. Assam is omitted from all three tables, Burma from the two last, and Bengal from table II. In the case of Bengal, all the figures given are based merely upon reasonable conjecture. It may be stated that in both Assam and Burma rice is the sole food crop, and that no irrigation is required in either Province; and that in Bengal about 50 per cent. of the total food-growing area is under rice, which feeds about 70 per cent. of the population.

General Statistics
of Cultivation.

I.—ESTIMATED AREA under CULTIVATION, and ESTIMATED OUT-TURN.*

	Area under Food Crops.	Area under other Crops.	Out-turn of Food.	Consumption.	Surplus.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Bengal	48,000,000	?	17,100,000	15,900,000	1,200,000
North-West Provinces and Oudh	31,450,000	5,900,000	11,230,000	10,570,000	660,000
Punjab	18,500,000	2,500,000	5,330,000	4,710,000	620,000
Central Provinces	12,000,000	2,500,000	2,750,000	2,450,000	300,000
British Burma	?	?	?	?	800,000
Madras	26,000,000	2,500,000	8,500,000	7,560,000	940,000
Bombay	21,500,000	5,500,000	4,500,000	4,150,000	350,000
Berar	3,700,000	2,800,000	620,000	540,000	80,000
Mysore	5,100,000	500,000	1,500,000	1,285,000	215,000
TOTAL	166,250,000	21,500,000	51,630,000	47,165,000	5,165,000

* Excluding Assam.

II.—ESTIMATED PER-CENTAGE of FOOD-GROWING AREA under different CROPS.*

	Wheat or Earley.	Millets.	Rice.	Per-centage of Rice-eating Population.
North-West Provinces and Oudh	57	34	9	10
Punjab	54	41	5	5
Central Provinces	27	39	34	31
Madras	—	67	33	32
Bombay	7	83	10	12
Berar	17	82	1	2
Mysore	—	84	16	20

* Excluding Bengal, Assam, and British Burma.

III.—ESTIMATED AREA under IRRIGATION.*

	Total Cultivated Area.	Irrigated Area.	Per-centage of Irrigation to Cultivation.
	Acres.	Acres.	
Bengal - - - - -	54,500,000	1,000,000	1·8
North-West Provinces and Oudh - - - - -	36,000,000	11,500,000	32·
Punjab - - - - -	21,000,000	5,500,000	26·2
Central Provinces - - - - -	15,500,000	770,000	5·
Madras - - - - -	32,000,000	7,300,000	23·
Bombay Proper - - - - -	24,500,000	450,000	1·8
Sind - - - - -	2,250,000	1,800,000	80·
Behar - - - - -	6,500,000	100,000	1·5
Mysore - - - - -	5,000,000	800,000	16·
TOTAL - - - - -	197,250,000	29,220,000	14·8

* Excluding Assam and British Burma.

BENGAL.

For Bengal no agricultural statistics are available, not even for the great commercial staple of indigo. According to the estimates of the Famine Commission, the eastern portion of the Province, with an area of 100,000 square miles and a population of 46,000,000, may be regarded as naturally safe from famine; and two tracts, Northern Behar and the Orissa delta, with an area of 20,000 square miles and a population of 9,000,000, were specially affected in the two last famines of 1865-66 and 1873-74. The Government canals in Orissa, and in South and North Behar, will provide protection for nearly 2,000,000 acres. In 1882-83 the irrigated area, or rather the area under lease for irrigation, was 124,244 acres in Orissa, 100,089 acres in Midnapur, and 148,533 acres from the Sone canals.

The harvest of the year.

Throughout the whole of Bengal, except in Chittagong, the rainfall of 1882-83 was short and unevenly distributed. The harvests were below the average, though prices rose but slightly, and the general condition of the people was not affected. Indigo was a fair crop, the estimated out-turn being 15,800 maunds in Bengal proper and 56,000 maunds in Behar. The area under jute was considerably extended, which caused a fall in the price. The cultivation of sugar cane has largely increased of late years in the Rajshahi Division.

ASSAM.

Principal Crops.

For Assam fairly accurate statistics are available for the Brahmaputra valley, where the area under rice amounts to 69 per cent. of the total cultivated area; and the same proportion probably holds good in the Surma valley. In accordance with a series of experiments that have been conducted for several years, the average out-turn of "paddy" or unhusked rice per acre may be estimated at 1,500 lbs. for the *sali* or winter crop, and 1,300 lbs. for the *ahu* or summer crop. After making all necessary deductions for seed, wastage, &c., this out-turn would yield about 500 lbs. of cleaned rice per head of the population in the Brahmaputra valley. In addition, about 30,000,000 lbs. are annually imported for the supply of the tea labourers. From the Surma valley, on the other hand, rice is largely exported. Next to rice, the most important crop in Assam is mustard seed, of which the average out-turn may be estimated at 450 lbs. per acre. Sugar cane is grown only to a small (but increasing) extent; it has been made the subject of some interesting experiments. The average weight of cane per acre is about 13 tons; the weight of juice per 100 lbs. of cane ranges from 40 to 50 lbs.; and the weight of *gur*, or raw sugar, from 7 to 10 lbs. It results that the sugar cane of Assam yields only about half as much *gur* to the

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the acre as the sugar cane of Rohilkhand. Assam has never been visited by famine, nor is any part of it in need of irrigation.

The rainfall in Assam during 1882-83 was, on the whole, below the average, but was excessive in the month of October, when the cold weather cultivation is being carried on. The result was a fair harvest of rice, both early and late; but mustard seed was in many places almost a complete failure. The price of rice remained moderate.

The harvest of the year.

The North-West Provinces and Oudh may conveniently be treated apart. For both much valuable information can be derived from the Settlement Papers, which however fail us for the five permanently settled Districts in the North West. The total area of the North-West Provinces is 81,865 square miles; of which 73,846 square miles, or 90 per cent., are assessed for Government revenue, the remainder being either unassessed waste or held revenue free. Of the total assessed area, 39,264 square miles, or 53 per cent., are cultivated; 13,870 square miles, or 19 per cent., are cultivable (including grazing lands); and 20,712 square miles, or 28 per cent., are uncultivable waste. Of the total cultivated area, 1,515,810 acres, or 5·7 per cent., are irrigated from Government works, and 5,293,739 acres, or 20 per cent., are irrigated by private enterprise. The Government assessment is at the rate of 3s. 2½d. per cultivated acre, and 1s. 5d. per assessed acre.

NORTH-WEST PROVINCES.
Cultivated Area.

The total area of Oudh is 24,072 square miles, of which as much as 23,234 square miles, or 97 per cent., are assessed for Government revenue. Of the total assessed area, 12,928 square miles, or 56 per cent., are cultivated; 6,295 square miles, or 27 per cent., are cultivable (including grazing lands); and 4,011 square miles, or 17 per cent., are uncultivable waste. Of the total cultivated area, 2,957,765 acres, or 38 per cent., are irrigated by private enterprise. There are no Government canals in Oudh. The Government assessment is at the rate of 3s. 6d. per cultivated acre, and 1s. 11½d. per assessed acre. The general subject of irrigation will be discussed in a later chapter, in connection with Public Works. It must suffice here to say that the large tract of country between the Ganges and Jumna, known as the Doab, is better protected against famine than any other tract of the same area in all India, and that irrigation works are being pushed on in the remote and hilly country of Bundelkhand.

Cultivated Area in Oudh.

The general statistics of cultivation for the North-West Provinces do not allow of being presented in a tabular form. For the permanently settled Districts none are available. An additional difficulty is the common practice of growing different crops on the same field at the same time. Wheat is often sown with barley, and both wheat and barley are sown with gram; while in the case of the two millets (*joar* and *bajra*), pulses and oilseeds are frequently mixed with them, with the object of insuring the cultivator against a total loss. Wheat is the most important crop of all, being grown largely for export, while barley and the millets are retained for consumption, and a considerable quantity of rice is imported from Bengal. Oilseeds are also grown for export. Among special crops, cotton is cultivated chiefly in the Districts of Aligarh, Muttra, Agra, and Banda, where it covers more than 10 per cent. of the total cultivated area. It is exported chiefly from Agra; and in recent years, owing to the opening of the Rajputana Railway, the traffic is being directed towards Bombay instead of Calcutta. Sugar-cane is cultivated chiefly in Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, and Rohilkhand; though it requires both manure and irrigation, it is a remunerative crop. Great improvement has recently been introduced into the process of crushing by the Bihia mill, patented by a European inventor. Sugar is sent to the Punjab and Rajputana, in exchange for salt. Indigo is chiefly cultivated in the Benares Division, and in the irrigated lands of the Doab. In Oudh, only about 12,000 acres are under indigo, yet the greater part of the produce of the North-West Provinces is known in the Calcutta market as "Oudhs." It is cultivated mainly by native cultivators, under the system of advances; only about 13 per cent. is grown by European planters. The quality of the dye is inferior to that made in Behar, though seed from the North-West Provinces is there held in great demand. The exports are entirely to Calcutta. Tea is grown by European planters along the slopes of the Himalayas, in the districts of Dehra Dun and Kumaon, and to a small extent in Garhwal. Formerly the leaf was manufactured as green and exported through the Punjab to Central Asia; but that trade is now closed,

Principal Crops.

and the tea has to be sent to Calcutta. Opium is a Government monopoly, the cultivation being confined to certain tracts around the central factory at Ghazipur. The total area under opium is about 250,000 acres; like indigo, it is grown on the system of advances to the cultivators. Tobacco is cultivated generally in patches of highly manured garden land; out of a total area of about 100,000 acres under tobacco, as much as two-thirds are in Oudh. For a few years past two Government farms at Ghazipur and Pusa (in Behar) have been leased for tobacco cultivation to a European firm, who work up the produce after the American system of curing.

The harvest of the year.

The year 1882-83 was, on the whole, favourable to agriculture throughout the North-West Provinces and Oudh, though the rice crop in Oudh suffered from a failure of rain in September. Grain was everywhere cheap and prices steady; the surplus of wheat available for export was so large as to overtax the capacity of the railways to carry it off.

Export Crops.

The following table shows the acreage under the principal staples grown for export during the four years, 1879-80 to 1882-83. It will be seen that there is a steady increase in the case of all except cotton:—

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF CULTIVATION OF SPECIAL CROPS in the NORTH-WEST PROVINCES, 1879-80 to 1882-83.

	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>
Wheat - - - -	3,068,391	3,227,660	3,366,262	3,507,586
Sugar-cane - - -	-	682,330	964,253	1,002,377
✓ Cotton - - - -	564,239	491,052	490,052	408,170
Indigo - - - -	280,781	258,541	399,210	-

Irrigated Area.

The following table shows the total area, distributed according to crops, that was irrigated from Government canals in 1882-83. The entire subject of irrigation will be considered in a later chapter, in connection with Public Works:—

AREA Irrigated from GOVERNMENT CANALS in the NORTH-WEST PROVINCES, 1882-83.

<i>Kharif, or Autumn Harvest:</i>		<i>Acres.</i>
Rice, &c. - - - -	- - - -	140,468
Cotton, &c. - - - -	- - - -	49,722
Indigo, &c. - - - -	- - - -	316,572
Fodder crops - - - -	- - - -	9,980
TOTAL - - - -		510,692
<i>Rabi, or Spring Harvest:</i>		
Wheat - - - -	- - - -	727,740
Other food grains - - - -	- - - -	400,390
Oil seeds - - - -	- - - -	1,865
Fibres - - - -	- - - -	8,108
TOTAL - - - -		1,109,124
<i>Miscellaneous:</i>		
Sugar-cane - - - -	- - - -	198,156
Opium - - - -	- - - -	10,293
Other drugs - - - -	- - - -	1,151
Garden produce - - - -	- - - -	21,721
Other crops - - - -	- - - -	20,657
TOTAL - - - -		257,820
GRAND TOTAL - - - -		1,973,686

The following table shows the increase in canal irrigation that has taken place during the years 1873-74 to 1882-83. A large portion of the total increase is due to wheat, indigo, sugar-cane, and cotton :—

AREA Irrigated from GOVERNMENT CANALS in the NORTH-WEST PROVINCES, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Acres.		Acres.
1873-74	1,049,334	1878-79	1,735,078
1874-75	1,142,452	1879-80	1,399,123
1875-76	1,188,363	1880-81	1,782,149
1876-77	1,239,783	1881-82	1,915,348
1877-78	1,461,429	1882-83	1,973,636

One of the main duties of the Agricultural Department in the North-West Provinces is the compilation of village statistics, which supply trustworthy information with regard to the condition of the people. This is effected through the agency of the *patwaris* or village accountants and *kanungos* or supervisors, both of which establishments have recently been reorganised. Training schools for *patwaris* are to be founded in every District; and examinations have already been held for *kanungos*, of whom 88 per cent. passed. The Director of Agriculture and his assistants, as well as the ordinary revenue staff, test the papers of the *patwaris* and *kanungos*, with results that tend to become every year more satisfactory. For some years past experiments have been conducted with the object of reclaiming *usar* lands, which are spoilt for agriculture by a saline efflorescence known as *reh*. Drainage, both surface and subsoil, flushing, manuring, and the planting of trees have been all tried without any real success. The only way of reclaiming *usar* land at a reasonable cost seems to be to cover it with silt, which can only be done where canal water is available. To some extent *usar* land can be utilised for the cultivation of grasses and plants which thrive on a saline soil and can be used as fodder, such as the Australian salt bush (*Atriplex nummularia*). Elaborate experiments have also been made with reference to the cost and profit of well-sinking, for the benefit of estates under Government management. As regards ordinary agriculture, much good work has been done at the Cawnpur Experimental Farm in ploughing, irrigation, sowing, and manure. In 1882-83, favourable results were obtained from the manuring of wheat land with saltpetre, which yielded 2,181 lbs. an acre, worth 7 l. 11 s. 5 d.; American cotton realised a return of 4 l. 12 s. per acre, as compared with 3 l. 10 s. an acre from an equally fine crop of country cotton; Cape oats yielded 2,026 lbs. an acre; marketable sugar was manufactured from *Sorghum saccharatum*; and continued experiments with ensilage proved successful, fodder stored green in September being taken out in May and eaten readily by cattle. Improved ploughs were distributed to the number of 712; and trials were made of a chain water lift, a winnower, a hand thresher, and an evaporating pan for sugar boiling on the American principle. The total gross expenditure of the Department of Agriculture in 1882-83 amounted to 10,207 l., and the total receipts to 1,346 l., leaving a net expenditure of 8,861 l.

The Agricultural Department.

In the Punjab, agricultural statistics are revised every five years, the last such revision having been made in 1878-79. The total area was returned at 107,010 square miles, of which 36,656 square miles or 34 per cent. were cultivated, 36,706 square miles or 34 per cent. were cultivable, and 33,648 square miles or 32 per cent. were uncultivable waste. Changing the denomination, the total area surveyed and assessed amounted to 64,652,334 acres, of which 23,523,504 acres or 36 per cent. were cultivated, and 41,128,830 acres or 64 per cent. were uncultivated. Of the total cultivated area, 1,808,005 acres or 8 per cent. were irrigated from Government works, and 5,340,724 acres or 23 per cent. by private individuals. Of the total uncultivated area, 4,932,058 acres or 12 per cent. were grazing lands, 19,820,426 acres or 48 per cent. were cultivable, and 16,377,346 acres or 40 per cent. were uncultivable waste. The total assess-

THE PUNJAB.
Cultivated Area.

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ment was at the rate of 1s. 11d. per cultivated acre, and 8s. per assessed acre. According to the Report of the Famine Commission, about 22 per cent. of the total food-producing area of the Punjab is securely irrigated from canals or wells; about 46 per cent. is partially protected by river flooding, precarious irrigation from tanks and small streams, and a tolerably sure rainfall; and about 32 per cent. is dependent upon an extremely uncertain rainfall.

Principal Crops.

The following table shows the area under the several crops in the Punjab in 1882-83, as compared with the corresponding area in 1873-74, together with the increase or decrease per cent. It will be seen that the total area under cultivation has increased within ten years by 19 per cent., almost equally divided between the spring and autumn harvests. Broadly speaking, it may be said that the increase in millets represents the growth in local consumption, while the increase in wheat represents the growth in exportation, which has been greatly stimulated by the opening of the railway to Karachi.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS of CULTIVATION in the PUNJAB in 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	1873-74.	1882-83.	Increase or Decrease per Cent.
<i>Rabi</i> , or Spring Harvest:	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	
Wheat - - - - -	5,820,861	6,784,357	+ 14
Barley - - - - -	1,784,920	1,648,076	- 8
Gram - - - - -	1,306,061	1,940,222	+ 5
Mustard - - - - -	337,006	294,408	- 13
Vegetables - - - - -	103,281	135,409	+ 3
Tea - - - - -	9,805	10,160	+ 4
Tobacco - - - - -	72,754	62,143	- 15
Poppy - - - - -	12,498	14,219	+ 14
Other Crops - - - - -	587,016	830,011	+ 42
TOTAL - - - - -	10,034,202	11,870,135	+ 18
<i>Kharif</i> , or Autumn Harvest:			
Rice - - - - -	734,957	775,367	+ 5
<i>Bajra</i> (Spiked Millet) - - - - -	2,490,078	3,218,243	+ 30
<i>Joar</i> (Great Millet) - - - - -	1,994,252	2,552,248	+ 28
Maize - - - - -	986,033	1,380,781	+ 40
Pulses - - - - -	1,724,276	1,724,740	-
Cotton - - - - -	624,459	860,631	+ 38
Indigo - - - - -	89,959	162,903	+ 81
Sugar-cane - - - - -	373,952	401,045	+ 7
Other Crops - - - - -	672,372	428,638	- 37
TOTAL - - - - -	9,690,838	11,519,596	+ 19
GRAND TOTAL - - - - -	19,724,540	23,389,731	+ 19

The year 1882-83 was on the whole very favourable to agriculture. Though the rainfall was somewhat short, it was distributed over the right seasons. The spring crop of 1882 was unusually abundant; and the autumn crop of 1882 and the spring crop of 1883 were also above the average generally. In the Districts, however, of Gurgaon and Rohtak, the tardy advent of the winter showers so injured the harvest that remissions of revenue were necessary; while the south-west corner of the Province suffered from floods. Owing to a succession of two excellent harvests, prices ruled very low, despite an increase of nearly twofold in the export of wheat. The harvest of the year.

As regards agricultural experiments, it is stated that the Bihia sugar-mills are becoming popular, and also the improved "Kaisar" ploughs for the preparation of heavy soils for valuable crops. Experiments with ensilage were commenced. For some time past the breed of cattle has been improved by the distribution of Hissar bulls, which are much prized by the villagers. The promotion of sericulture in the submontane Districts beneath the Himalayas has been seriously checked by disease among the worms, which unfortunately spread to the stock imported from Japan. Since the close of the year the Agri-Horticultural Gardens at Lahore, previously managed by a private society, have been taken over by Government and placed in charge of a committee presided over by the Commissioner of Settlements and Agriculture. The objects of the gardens remain the same: to distribute plants and seeds, to conduct experiments, and to train skilled gardeners. Agricultural Experiments.

The Central Provinces contain a total area of 84,445 square miles, of which 24,057 square miles or 29 per cent. are returned as cultivated; 29,139 square miles or 34 per cent. as cultivable, and 31,249 square miles or 37 per cent. as uncultivable waste. (In the Native States attached to the Central Provinces the corresponding proportions are thus estimated: cultivated, 19 per cent.; cultivable, 45 per cent.; uncultivable, 36 per cent.) Changing the denomination, the total surveyed and assessed area of the Central Provinces amounts to 38,459,439 acres, of which 14,165,242 acres or 37 per cent. are cultivated, and 24,294,197 acres or 63 per cent. are uncultivated. Of the total cultivated area, only 238 acres in Nimar District are irrigated from Government works; and 770,583 acres or 5 per cent., mainly in the four Districts of Bhandara, Bilaspur, Chanda, and Sambalpur, are irrigated from private tanks. Of the total uncultivated area, 1,866,841 acres or 8 per cent. are grazing land; 11,907,232 or 49 per cent. are cultivable, and 10,520,124 or 43 per cent. are uncultivable waste. The average rate of assessment is 10d. per cultivated acre, and 3½d. per assessed acre. With regard to famine, it may be said that no part of India is more free from apprehension of drought than the Central Provinces, where the rainfall has never been known to fail. The annual exports of grain, chiefly wheat, exceed 200,000 tons. CENTRAL PROVINCES. Cultivated Area.

The season of 1882-83 was marked by an exceptional rainfall in July, followed by a break in August, which caused the autumn harvest to be a poor one. The spring crops were greatly benefited by a heavy fall in November, the soil retaining the moisture for many months; and, on the whole, they yielded up to the average. Prices rose generally, owing to the demand for export. The harvest of the year.

For about ten years past a Model Farm has been maintained by the Government at Nagpur, rather for ordinary cultivation than for agricultural experiments. No success has resulted, for the site was not suitable: and it has now been determined to abandon the farm altogether, and to conduct experiments on a much smaller piece of land. In March 1883, the Nagpur Horticultural Society was dissolved, and its functions transferred to the newly-founded Department of Agriculture. Agricultural Experiments.

The total area of British Burma amounts to 87,220 square miles, of which 5,834 square miles or 7 per cent. are returned as cultivated, 36,632 square miles, or 42 per cent., as cultivable, and 44,753, or 51 per cent., as uncultivated waste. Changing the denomination, the surveyed and assessed area amounts to 3,807,716 acres, of which 3,591,498 acres, or 94 per cent., are cultivated, and 216,218 acres, or 6 per cent., are uncultivated. Of the total cultivated area, BRITISH BURMA. Cultivated Area.

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4,698 acres are irrigated by private enterprise, and none from Government works. Of the total uncultivated area, 288 acres are grazing land and the remainder cultivable. The rate of assessment ranges from 8s. to 3s. per cultivated acre, the average rate per assessed acre being 3s. 6d.

Principal Crops.

Rice may be said to be the sole crop; being grown on 3,380,996 acres, or 90 per cent. of the total cultivated area, not including the *taungyas* or patches of nomad cultivation in the forests. Oil seeds cover 19,399 acres, tobacco 15,746, cocoanuts 11,728, betelnuts 11,317, plaintains 14,968, and mixed fruit-trees 104,820 acres. The average yield of rice is estimated at 1,351 lbs. per acre, which would give a total out-turn of more than 47,000,000 cwts.; in 1882-83, the exports by sea exceeded 21,000,000 cwts.

The harvest of the year.

The rainfall in 1882-83 was both plentiful and seasonable, and the harvest was abundant. Prices, however, ranged low, owing to the depression in the markets of Europe.

The Agricultural Department.

A Department of Agriculture, under a Director who is also Settlement Secretary, was organised in British Burma in 1882. Four small experimental farms are maintained by Government, two of which were opened in the course of the year; at each of them the chief object is to encourage the cultivation of tobacco, wheat, and jute. The Paundge farm consists of about 28 acres attached to a reformatory for juvenile offenders. The tobacco, wheat, and jute grown here during the year all turned out well. The Kyauktan farm, under the newly-appointed Assistant Director of Agriculture, is mainly devoted to the cultivation and curing of tobacco; and it has already led to the adoption of tobacco, as a subsidiary crop on poor rice-lands, by many of the neighbouring cultivators. The Paletwa farm in the Arakan Hill Tracts is under the charge of a tobacco manufacturer from Coconada in Madras. The Ma-ubin farm consists of 20 acres on an island in the Irrawadi, which has recently been reclaimed. It is under the charge of a tobacco planter and curer from Sumatra. In the same island the cultivation of jute and tobacco are encouraged by special exemption from assessment. Experiments with wheat were conducted in several parts of the Province, with different varieties of seed. The greater number of these experiments failed; but some succeeded, chiefly those with seed from Bankipur, in Behar. Experiments conducted with jute promise well, and the Government has guaranteed a fixed price for the fibre produced. Coffee, tea, cinchona, and potatoes have been introduced into the Hill Tracts, and are now cultivated by a few European planters. A series of trials made with the "Kaisar" plough seem to have proved that on low-lying clay lands, which are the best for rice, it is not more efficient than the ordinary Burman plough harrow of seven prongs; but on higher and more sandy lands the advantage was found to be greatly in favour of the "Kaisar" plough, of which a large number have been distributed among the cultivators. Eight reaping machines have recently been imported: but the result of experiments made with them proves that they are quite unsuited to the conditions of agriculture in Burma.

MADRAS.
Cultivated Area.

In Madras, no agricultural statistics are available for the estates held under *zamindari* tenure, which occupy about one-fifth of the entire Presidency. The remainder consists of the ordinary *rayatwari* holdings assessed to Government revenue, and of *inam* holdings which are either revenue free or liable only to a quit rent. (The total area of these two classes of land (excluding the site of Madras city) amounts to 59,929,611 acres, of which 21,474,685 acres, or 36 per cent., were returned in 1882-83 as cultivated, and 38,454,926, or 64 per cent., as cultivable. In the *rayatwari* lands alone the proportion of cultivation is only 32 per cent., while in the *inam* lands alone it rises to 57 per cent. Of the total cultivated area, 5,564,255 acres, or 24 per cent., are irrigated, and 1,314,969 acres or 6 per cent. are under a double crop; of the total uncultivated area, 17,324,561 acres, or 45 per cent., are cultivable, 5,635,254 acres or 15 per cent. are pasture and forest lands, and 15,495,111 acres or 40 per cent. are uncultivable waste. The average rate of assessment is 9s. 1d. per cultivated acre in the case of "wet" lands (exclusive of water rate in the Godavari and Kistna deltas), and 2s. 2d. per cultivated acre in the case of "dry" lands. According to the Report of the Famine Commission, about 7,000,000 acres in the entire Presidency are irrigated from canals, tanks, and wells, of which about 4,000,000 acres may be

be regarded as completely secure from drought; while the two western Districts of Malabar and South Kanara are protected by a rainfall that never fails.

For the three special crops of indigo, cotton, and sugar-cane, information is available for the *zamindari* lands as well as for the *rayatwari* lands, which is embodied in the following table, giving the total area under each of these crops for the average of three years before the famine, for 1880-81, and for 1882-83. It will be seen that the cultivation of each of these special crops shows an increase, which is specially marked in the case of indigo. In Madras, the cultivation and manufacture of indigo is entirely in the hands of the natives:—

Indigo, Cotton, and Sugar-cane.

STATISTICS of CULTIVATION of Special Crops in MADRAS.

	Average of Three Years before the Famine.	1880-81.	1882-83.
Indigo	294,131	419,305	530,321
Cotton	1,657,910	1,655,060	1,706,582
Sugar-cane	50,674	69,912	68,231

The effect of the great famine of 1876-77 upon the general agriculture of the Presidency is shown in the following table, which gives the total area of holdings and of cultivation in *rayatwari* lands only (excluding South Kanara) for the two years before the famine, for the famine year itself, and for each subsequent year down to 1882-83. It will be seen that this last year (1882-83) is the first in which there has been any appreciable increase, either in the area of holdings or in the area of cultivation; but compared with the average of the two years preceding the famine, there is still a decrease of 893,833 acres or 4.5 per cent. in the area of holdings, and of 1,136,923 acres or 6.5 per cent. in the area of cultivation. In the case of the Districts that suffered most severely, the decrease in cultivation is of course much greater, rising to 20 per cent. in Bellary and Kurnool, and 10 per cent. in Cuddapah and Salem. It is curious to notice that a decrease in the area of holdings hardly began to show itself until 1879-80, three years after the famine; while the area under cultivation, which dropped nearly 2,000,000 acres below the average in the year after the famine, remained almost uniform during the four years following.

Effects of the Famine of 1876-77.

CHANGES of Cultivated "Rayatwari" Area in MADRAS (excluding SOUTH KANARA), to illustrate the Results of the Famine.

	Area of Holdings.	Area Cultivated.	Proportion of Cultivation to Total Holdings.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	
Average of 1874-75 and 1876-76	19,089,700	17,604,174	89.1
1876-77 (Famine Year)	19,956,856	14,150,277	70.9
1877-78	20,009,815	15,752,462	78.7
1878-79	19,904,580	15,760,071	79.2
1879-80	19,171,537	15,575,205	81.2
1880-81	18,932,079	15,840,466	83.6
1881-82	18,772,370	15,790,708	84.1
1882-83	19,095,867	10,467,251	86.2

The harvest of the year.

The year 1882-83 was, on the whole, distinctly favourable to agriculture in Madras. The rainfall was considerably above the average, causing heavy floods in July on the principal rivers, and consequent damage both to crops and irrigation works in the deltas. The general out-turn of crops is estimated to have exceeded the average, taken at three-fourths of a full yield. The prices of food grains were steady, being lower, and notably lower in the case of dry grains, than the average of three years preceding the famine.

The Agricultural Department.

In the latter part of 1882 a Department of Agriculture was constituted at Madras under charge of a Director, who also holds the revived office of Director of Revenue Settlement. At the same time, Mr. Robertson, who has been Superintendent of the Experimental Farm at Saidapet since its foundation in 1867, was appointed Agricultural Reporter to the Government in addition to his other duties. An Inspector of Cattle Diseases was also appointed, under whom it is intended that there shall ultimately be 23 local inspectors. The number of students attending the School of Agriculture, founded in 1876, increased during the year from 41 to 69. A consignment of 250 Swedish ploughs was received from England and distributed among the districts for trials. Where the cattle are strong, and where black soils prevail, the plough met with much appreciation; but on the whole, and especially in the south, the cultivators report that it is too dear for their means and too heavy for their cattle. At the Saidapet Farm the most successful experiments have been those with fodder crops, especially guinea grass, planter's friend, *kambu*, and horse gram. *Mauilla* hemp (*Musa textilis*) has been thoroughly acclimatised, but no means has been devised of extracting the fibre cheaply. Experiments with rice seed from Madagascar turned out unfavourably, but there is much promise from those conducted with Minnesota amber sugar-cane. A series of experiments with various manures tends to confirm the ordinary practice of the cultivators. Farm-yard dung is the best, then oil cake, then ashes, and last slacked lime. The live stock kept at the farm include a herd of small cattle from Aden and a flock of native sheep, of which the breed has been so improved in regard to fleece that it could now be crossed profitably with merinoes from Queensland. It has been determined to establish a model farm at Saidapet, to be conducted on strictly commercial principles. In 1882-83 the total cost of the Agricultural Department amounted to 7,744*l.* and the receipts to 605*l.*

BOMBAY.
Cultivated Area.

In Bombay no agricultural statistics are available for North Kanara District, which has not yet been surveyed, and it is convenient to treat separately the outlying Province of Sind. For the rest of the Presidency the total cultivable area bearing Government assessment (exclusive of *inam* holdings) is returned at 24,692,128 acres, of which 22,038,710 acres, or 90 per cent., were cultivated in 1882-83. Of the total cultivated area, 411,928 acres, or 2 per cent., were classed as irrigated garden lands; 140,064 acres, or 1 per cent., as rice lands, irrigated from ponds or watercourses; 899,351 acres, or 4 per cent., as rice lands wholly dependent upon the rainfall; and 20,587,367 acres, or 93 per cent., as dry-crop lands. It would thus appear that 97 per cent. of the total area of the Presidency is unirrigated, and depends solely upon the rainfall which, especially in the Deccan, is very liable to fail.

Cultivated Area in Sind.

For Sind, the agricultural statistics may be presented differently. The total cultivable area bearing Government assessment is returned at 8,118,946 acres, of which 2,972,433 acres, or 37 per cent., were cultivated in 1882-83; 702,802 acres, or 9 per cent., were fallow; and 4,443,711 acres, or 54 per cent., were waste. As the rainfall in Sind is altogether insignificant, averaging at Hyderabad only about six inches in the year, cultivation is almost everywhere dependent upon irrigation, either by inundation canals drawn off from the Indus or by direct flooding.

The harvest of the year.

The year 1882-83 was, on the whole, distinctly favourable to agriculture in Bombay proper, though it was marked in some places by floods and by the ravages of locusts. The rain came early and fell heavily, and the later rainy season was also propitious. The best crops were cotton and rice, which both require a large amount of moisture. In Sind the rainfall was unusually heavy, and the floods rose higher than had ever been known. The canals were breached and much cultivated land was swamped, so that large remissions of revenue were found necessary. Prices throughout the Presidency remained pretty steadily

steadily at the low level to which they had fallen in the preceding year. The area under cotton largely increased, but not the total value of the out-turn, owing to the low prices ruling in England.

A Director of Agriculture for Bombay was appointed in July 1883, after the close of the year covered by this Report. There are two experimental farms in the Presidency, at Bhadgaon in Khandesh District, and at Hyderabad in Sind. The Bhadgaon farm was originally started in 1867. As a model farm the results have not been remunerative; and for the future it has been decided to limit the area of cultivation to experimental crops. Henceforth about 700 acres will be under permanent pasture to feed the herd of Mysore cattle; about 350 acres will be used to produce selected cotton seed, with other crops in rotation; and the remaining 300 acres will be devoted to experiments. The Hyderabad farm has been in existence for only three years. Irrigation is provided by means of a steam pump, and the example has been followed by four native cultivators. Success has also followed the distribution of ploughs of the Strachan-Bayliss make. Some attempts have been made to improve the quality of indigenous cotton and to introduce tobacco. For the breeding of horses, the Government maintained, in 1882-83, 80 stallions, of which 64 were Arabs, 7 English thoroughbreds, and 7 Norfolk trotters; and for the breeding of mules, 12 donkey stallions, of which 7 came from Arabia, 3 from Persia, and 2 from Italy. The total cost of the stud amounted to 5,087 l. Horse and cattle shows are also encouraged by the Government.

The Agricultural Department.

The total area of Berar amounts to 17,711 square miles, of which 11,541 square miles, or 65 per cent., are returned as cultivated; 1,595 square miles, or 9 per cent., as cultivable; and 4,575 square miles, or 26 per cent., as uncultivable waste. Changing the denomination, and excluding the Melghat taluk, for which no agricultural statistics are available, the total assessed area amounts to 8,031,142 acres, of which 7,314,508 acres, or 91 per cent., are cultivated, and 716,634 acres, or 9 per cent., are cultivable. In addition, 541,703 acres are returned as grazing lands, and 1,709,102 acres as uncultivable waste. Of the total cultivated area, only 258 acres are irrigated from Government works, and 46,879 acres by private enterprise. The rate of assessment is at the rate of 1 s. 11 d. per cultivated acre, and 1 s. 8½ d. per acre of assessment.

BERAR.
Cultivated Area.

Berar is happy in its agricultural position. The rainfall has never been known to fail to such an extent as to cause famine. In ordinary years the cotton crop is sufficient to pay the land revenue three times over, while there are also considerable exports of wheat and oil seeds. (It is estimated that the annual surplus of grain amounts to about 60,000 tons, available for storage or export; and in 1882-83 an enumeration showed that about 300,000 tons of grain were actually stored in the Province, equivalent to the consumption of the entire population for 254 days.) Irrigation is confined to the Eastern Districts, where the rice crop is watered from tanks.

Agricultural Prosperity.

Writing in 1867, in the "Berar Gazetteer," Sir Richard Temple (then Resident at Hyderabad, and in charge of the Province) drew attention to the extraordinary prosperity that prevailed throughout Berar, owing mainly to the demand for cotton in Europe during the American War, and partly also to the construction of the railway. This extraordinary prosperity has undergone no check. The Report on the Census of 1881 shows that since 1867 the total area of occupied land has increased by 50 per cent., being an increase from 3.70 acres to 3.97 acres per head of the agricultural population; while the total revenue has increased during the same period by 42 per cent. It is also pointed out that "the good wages enjoyed by landless field labourers are evidenced by the fact that they are sufficient to attract outsiders into the Province at harvest time."

The year 1882-83 was on the whole fairly propitious for agriculture. The rainfall in June and July was sufficient, but this was followed by a long break, until seasonable showers in November came in time to save the *rabi* crop. Prices generally rose, owing to increased exports of wheat, and to a diminished out-turn of *jowari*, the staple food of the people. No important agricultural experiments are conducted in Berar.

The harvest of the year.

AJMERE.
Cultivated Area.

The total area of Ajmere-Merwara is returned at 2,711 square miles, of which 923 square miles or 34 per cent. are cultivated. Changing the denomination and excluding the lands held on *jagir* and *istimrar* tenure, the total assessed area amounts to 792,413 acres, of which 171,416 acres or 22 per cent. are cultivated, 139,898 acres or 18 per cent. are cultivable, and 481,099 acres or 60 per cent. are uncultivable waste. Of the total cultivable area, 18,461 acres or 11 per cent. are irrigated from Government tanks, and 33,488 acres or 20 per cent. are irrigated from private wells. The rate of assessment is 2 s. 3 d. per cultivated acre, and 8½ d. per assessed acre.

The harvest of the year.

The year 1882-83 was marked by an unusually heavy rainfall which filled the tanks to overflowing and somewhat damaged the late crops. But on the whole the season was not unfavourable, and prices remained steady.

COORG.

For Coorg it would be useless to attempt to give detailed crop statistics. In 1882-83 the total area under rice was returned at 73,028 acres; and the total area under coffee at 48,150 acres. In addition, a little *ragi*, oil-seeds, and sugar-cane is grown, with vegetables, near the homestead; while 290 acres in the jungles are under cardamoms.

The harvest of the year.

The year was remarkable for the severity of the south-west monsoon, the total rainfall being higher than any former record. This was not altogether unfavourable to the rice crop, though coffee was in many parts almost a complete failure. The heavy rain proved disastrous in another way, no less than 14,000 cattle having died from exposure and failure of pasturage. The price of common rice fell considerably. Many planters are now paying attention to cinchona, and a few to cardamoms. The total area under cinchona is estimated at 1,086 acres, with 868,725 plants. The long continued and expensive efforts to acclimatise the cocoa plant (*Theobroma cacao*) have not been successful. It seems probable that the orange might be profitably grown on a larger scale than at present.

WHEAT.

Varieties of Wheat.

The recent rapid growth in the export of wheat from India, which reached a maximum of more than 22 million cwts. in the calendar year 1883, has led to an inquiry into the cultivation of wheat in different parts of the country, which is summed up in a Resolution of Government, dated 10th March 1884. The innumerable varieties of wheat distinguished by native cultivators may be arranged into four great classes, which cross one another. (These are white and red, hard and soft.) It appears that hard wheats, both white and red, are preferred for local consumption in India, and used formerly to command the highest prices. Hard white wheat is grown chiefly in the Deccan and Southern Mahratta country; hard red wheat chiefly in Rajputana, the Central Provinces, and Bombay generally. But the report of English experts is decisively in favour of soft wheats. They place soft white wheat on a level with English and the best colonial wheats, while soft red wheats are from 4 s. to 5 s. a quarter less valuable. Soft white wheat is grown to great perfection throughout Northern India, and also in Rajputana and Gujarat. It prefers a rich loam, well manured and irrigated, and a moderately severe winter. Soft red wheat is also common throughout Northern India, where it is frequently sown intermixed with barley or gram. But the most valuable sort, under the name of *pissi*, comes from the Central Provinces, especially from the Nerbada valley. The predominant soil in this tract is the heavy black loam known as *regar*, or "black cotton soil," which retains moisture throughout the year without irrigation. As showing the quickness with which the native cultivator adapts himself to the changes of the market, it is interesting to learn that, while in former days a ploughman used to bargain not to get *pissi* wheat, he would not now get it if he asked for it, for its price has risen to at least 5 s. a quarter above hard wheats.

Area under Wheat.

In Madras, Assam, and Burma, wheat is not grown to any appreciable extent. In Bengal, its cultivation is chiefly confined to Behar. A rough estimate of the total area under wheat in the British Provinces, and also in the principal Native States, is given in the following table, which may be accepted (at least for the Native States) as a minimum estimate.

ESTIMATED AREA under WHEAT.

BRITISH INDIA:		Acres.
Bengal	- - - - -	850,000
North-West Provinces and Oudh	- - - - -	8,200,000
Punjab	- - - - -	7,000,000
Central Provinces	- - - - -	4,000,000
Bombay	- - - - -	1,800,000
Berar	- - - - -	700,000
TOTAL		20,350,000
NATIVE STATES:		
Hyderabad	- - - - -	750,000
Central India Agency	- - - - -	2,500,000
Rajputana	- - - - -	2,500,000
Baroda	- - - - -	88,000
TOTAL		5,838,000
GRAND TOTAL		26,188,000

To estimate the yield of wheat is still more difficult. The following table, which is based upon a large number of returns, is professedly only a vague attempt in this direction. It is confined to the British Provinces, for no materials whatever exist for the Native States. But it may be assumed that the yield in Hyderabad does not exceed that given for Berar; and that the yield in Central India and Rajputana is approximately equal to that given for the Central Provinces. The general result would be to give a total yield of between five-and-a-half and six million tons for the British Provinces, and of about one-and-a-quarter million tons for the Native States; grand total for all India (say) six-and-three quarter million tons or 135 million cwts. What proportion of this is available for export must be matter of the vaguest conjecture. In the two calendar years 1882 and 1883, the total exports averaged nearly 19 million cwts. The exports have since fallen off largely, owing not to a rise of prices in India, but to the fall of prices in Europe. In January 1884, wheat was selling at Jabalpur for 22½ *seers* the rupee, which (taking the quarter at 496 lbs., and after allowing for exchange) represents a price of about 18 s. 6 d. per quarter. This price, it is believed, gave a good margin for profit when the London price was 43 s. per quarter. In the words of the Government Resolution above referred to, "it is perhaps not unreasonable to suppose that, when the railway system is more developed, one-fourth (possibly more) of the total outturn of six-and-three quarter million tons may be available for Europe." The country has other food grains to fall back upon if the export of wheat pays; and it has already been noticed that the poorer classes are prompt to contract their consumption of wheat when its price rises.

ESTIMATED YIELD OF WHEAT, in BUSHELS per ACRE.

	CLASS I. (Land manured and irrigated.)	CLASS II. (Land fairly cultivated.)	CLASS III. (Land inefficiently cultivated.)	AVERAGE.
North-West Provinces and Oudh	23	15	9	13
Punjab	20	11	7½	10
Central Provinces	16	10	6	8
Bombay	19	10	6	9
Berar	13	8	5	7

Cost of Production of Wheat.

The actual cost of production is by no means easy to determine, for the cultivator's outgoings in money are very small, while to value his labour in cash must involve many hypotheses. In Northern India, the cost of growing wheat on manured and irrigated land has been calculated at 1 s. per 31 *seers* (equivalent to 8 s. the quarter), exclusive of rent, or at 1 s. 6 d. per 31 *seers* (equivalent to 12 s. the quarter), inclusive of rent. This calculation comprises all charges from the purchase of the seed to the threshing of the crop. A market rate of 18 s. 6 d. the quarter implies village prices not exceeding 15 s. or 16 s. With a yield of 20 bushels per acre (the maximum recorded for the Punjab), this price would leave a profit to the cultivator of 10 s. per acre, exclusive of the value of the straw; and with a yield of 8 bushels per acre (the average recorded for the Central Provinces) the profit would be 4 s. per acre. It is true that the cost of cultivation in the Central Provinces is much less than in Northern India, but it may be assumed that the cost per bushel of yield is approximately the same and as the average size of holdings in the Central Provinces is very much larger than in Northern India, it may well be that the cultivator gets a larger profit from a lower yield per acre.

COTTON.

Cotton is cultivated in every part of India for local consumption; but the great cotton growing tracts, which furnish the bulk of the exports, are Gujarat, Khandesh and the Southern Mahratta Country (all in Bombay) and the neighbouring Province of Berar. The cultivation was immensely stimulated at the time of the American war, when the ordinary sources of supply to the English markets were closed. The exports rapidly rose till they attained a maximum of 7 million cwts., valued at 35,000,000 l., in 1866-67. After that date they dropped almost as rapidly as they had risen, the minimum of 3 million cwts. valued at less than 8,000,000 l. being reached in 1878-79. There has since been a marked increase year by year; and by 1882-83 the quantity had risen to 6 million cwts., valued at 16,000,000 l.

Statistics of Cultivation.

The following table gives the statistics of cotton cultivation in the different Provinces of India (exclusive of Bengal) for 1881-82. No total is assigned for the column of exports, as the figures for Berar, the Central Provinces, and Hyderabad represent exports by rail, great part of which are comprised in the exports by sea from Bombay. The actual exports by sea from all India in 1881-82 amounted to 5,629,544 cwts., valued at 14,941,423 l.

STATISTICS OF COTTON CULTIVATION, 1881-82.*

	Area under Cultivation.	Out-turn of Cleaned Cotton.	Estimated Yield of Cleaned Cotton per Acre.	Exports.	Average Price of Exports per Cwt.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>£. s. d.</i>
North-West Provinces	1,594,168	1,059,424	74	987,929	2 - 10
Oudh	42,896	17,609	46	1,017	2 3 1
Punjab	918,265	787,581	96	52,819	1 16 4
Central Provinces	620,716	173,328	31	94,167	2 6 4
Madras	1,650,633	493,043	33	459,351	2 8 7
Bombay and Sind	2,495,160	1,171,370	60	5,402,850	2 13 7
Bombay Native States	2,915,988	1,407,185			
Berar	2,189,888	1,003,728	51	1,082,291	2 7 6
Hyderabad	1,000,766	438,891	48	263,365	1 - 7
Mysore	20,747	2,550	15	1,633	2 6 7
Other Provinces	15,193	6,565	—	—	—
TOTAL	12,879,458	6,565,149	57 Average	—	—

* Exclusive of Bengal.

The following table gives comparative statistics for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82, showing that the cultivation has steadily increased, though the yield per acre exhibits considerable variations.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF COTTON CULTIVATION for Five Years, 1877-78 to 1881-82.

	Area under Cultivation.	Out-turn of Cleaned Cotton.	Estimated Yield of Cleaned Cotton per Acre.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Cwts.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
1877-78 - - - -	9,055,802	3,777,869	61
1878-79 - - - -	10,162,580	4,160,812	68
1879-80 - - - -	10,703,002	5,237,845	65
1880-81 - - - -	11,204,630	5,077,862	50
1881-82 - - - -	12,870,438	6,565,149	57

For Bombay alone is it worth while to give fuller statistics for a later year. In 1882-83, the total area under cotton in both British Districts and Native States amounted to 5,698,862 acres, being an increase of 16 per cent. on the previous year; the out-turn amounted to 3,141,421 cwts., being an increase of 24 per cent. The total value, however, of the crop was less than in 1880-81, owing to a lower range of prices; and a larger stock remained in the country at the end of the year. The area under cotton in the whole of Bombay is nearly double what it was five years ago, the chief increase having been in Gujarat, which now supplies 61 per cent. of the total. There is, however, still room for further increase, as it is estimated that only one-third of the land adopted to growing cotton is at present under that crop. Out of the total area under cotton in 1882-83, 796,608 acres, or 14 per cent. were cultivated with "exotic" cotton so-called, almost entirely in the Districts of Khandesh and Dharwar, and in the Native States of the Southern Mahratta Country. The "exotic" varieties grown are two, Hinganghati cotton from Berar, and an American cotton that was first acclimatised in Dharwar. The total number of ginning factories for cleaning cotton worked by steam power throughout the Presidency in 1882-83 was 2,787, showing a large increase on the previous year. The total number of cotton presses was 237, of which 96 were worked by steam.

Cotton in Bombay.

The tea plant grows wild in Assam, in both the Brahmaputra and the Surma valleys, or rather in the hills dividing these two valleys; but its cultivation on Chinese methods was first experimentally attempted by the Indian Government in 1834. Chinese seed was at the same time introduced, and it has been found that the most profitable plant is a hybrid between the indigenous and the Chinese varieties. Assam is still the great home of the industry; but tea planting is also securely established at Darjiling in Bengal, along the foot of the Himalayas as far west as Simla, at Chittagong on the further side of the Bay of Bengal, and on the Nilgiris and other hill ranges in the south. It has been started with fair prospects in Chutia Nagpur and in British Burma. Except in Kangra District in the North-West Provinces, tea planting is entirely in the hands of Europeans.

Table I. gives the statistics of tea cultivation in each Province and District for the calendar year 1882. It will be seen that Assam alone supplies 77 per cent. of the total yield, and that the two great tea Districts of Assam are Cachar in the Surma valley, and Sibsagar in the Brahmaputra valley. The green tea made in the North-West Provinces and the Punjab is intended for the markets of Central Asia.

Statistics of Cultivation.

I.—STATISTICS OF TEA CULTIVATION, 1882.

	Number of Plantations.	Area		Total Area under Tea.	Area taken up for Tea but not yet planted.	Approximate Yield.			Average Yield per Acre of Mature Plants.
		Under Mature Plants.	Under Im-mature Plants.			Black Tea.	Green Tea.	Total.	
		Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
ASSAM :									
Cachar	180	45,215	3,658	48,873	168,798	12,646,543	74,782	12,721,327	281
Sylhet	93	16,861	4,050	20,911	90,687	4,648,368	11,841	4,660,209	276
Goupara	11	223	141	364	1,082	63,878	2,400	66,278	287
Kamrup	101	5,286	1,016	6,302	8,917	951,344		951,344	180
Darrang	125	12,065	2,224	14,289	55,199	4,356,198		4,356,198	361
Nowgong	66	8,866	1,079	9,945	52,636	3,253,289		3,253,289	367
Sibsagar	233	35,219	3,881	39,100	143,908	11,162,933	174,504	11,337,437	322
Lakhimpur	207	32,952	6,085	39,037	88,040	8,125,259		8,125,259	247
Khasi and Jaintia Hills	1	20	10	30	50	1,600		1,600	80
TOTAL	1,017	166,707	32,144	178,851	604,511	46,209,414	283,827	46,472,941	280
BENGAL :									
Darjiling	165	26,716	6,854	32,570	12,282	8,080,208		8,080,208	303
Jalpaiguri	60	4,670	3,598	8,268	6,400	1,865,801		1,865,801	309
Dacca	6	31	1	31		3,346		3,346	110
Chittagong	27	2,831	509	3,340	21,823	912,083	1,400	913,483	323
Chittagong Hill Tracts	4	62	103	165	1,472	17,350		17,350	279
Hazaribagh	6	846	189	1,035		93,510		93,510	110
Lohardoga	31	924	1,741	2,665	4,117	198,781		198,781	170
Manbhum	1		7	7					
Mairansingh	14	10	20	36	74	1,840		1,840	112
TOTAL	314	86,096	12,632	98,728	46,108	11,171,004	1,400	11,172,404	309
NORTH WEST PROVINCES :									
Kumaon	43	2,048	778	2,826	556	571,125	37,510	608,635	199
Garhwal	10	490	12	501	107	72,912		72,912	149
Dehra Dun	33	3,135	1,477	4,612	1,754	676,406	113,277	789,773	252
TOTAL	86	5,673	2,267	7,940	2,417	1,220,533	150,787	1,371,320	224
PUNJAB :									
Kemra	* 1,890	5,386	2,257	7,643	2,482	632,151	398,368	1,218,519	220
MADRAS :									
Nilgiris	77	3,724	1,558	5,282	4,273	659,676	193,710	853,386	229
Madras	4	2		3				165	73
Malabar	3	32	23	55				960	30
Travancore	12	80	88	177	130	11,150		11,150	371
TOTAL	96	3,847	1,669	5,517	4,706	670,826	193,710	865,536	225
BRITISH BURMA :									
Akyab	1	150		150		15,000		15,000	107
Toung-gu	3	3	6	9	31	563		563	170
TOTAL	4	153	6	159	31	15,563		15,563	108
GRAND TOTAL	3,407	207,862	40,875	248,737	660,204	58,020,481	995,792	58,017,398	280

* Includes small plots of tea owned by natives.

Table II. gives comparative statistics for the eight years; 1875-76 to 1882, showing that the total area under tea has doubled in that time, while the total yield has increased in a still larger proportion. It is also noteworthy that the area taken up for tea, but not yet planted, has increased largely in each of the two last years.

II.—COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF TEA CULTIVATION, 1875-76 to 1882.

	Number of Plantations.	Total Area under Tea.	Area taken up but not yet planted.	Approximate Yield.	Average Yield per Acre of Mature Plants.*
		<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
1875-76	1,737	124,836	473,801	26,526,317	229
1876-77	1,800	145,685	483,423	29,557,482	228
1877-78	2,103	187,961	442,016	36,143,045	236
1878	2,330	199,122	465,194	38,605,112	200
1879	2,474	205,312	490,721	38,727,076	237
1880	2,918	208,492	451,852	41,925,025	232
1881	3,368	221,071	594,781	45,371,623	282
1882	3,407	248,237	660,204	59,020,481	290

* Assam only.

The coffee plant is said to have been introduced into Mysore, in Southern India, by a Muhamadan pilgrim from Mecca two centuries ago. It first attracted the attention of European planters in about 1840, but the industry did not make much progress until twenty years later. Since 1860 it has spread with great rapidity throughout the entire region of the Western Ghats south of Kanara, including the greater part of Coorg, Hassan and Kadur Districts in Mysore, the Nilgiris, the neighbouring portion of Malabar District, and (more recently) the Native States of Travancore and Cochin. It has also extended to the Shevaroy Hills in Salem District, and to the Palni Hills in Madura District; but repeated efforts to acclimatise the coffee plant in other parts of India have not met with much success. Coffee remains a product of the extreme south even more exclusively than tea remains a product of Assam. It differs from tea in being largely grown by native cultivators as well as by European planters. Unfortunately coffee is a very delicate plant, being exposed not only to the vicissitudes of the season, but also to several insect pests of its own. Of late years the crop has not proved remunerative, either in Southern India or in the adjoining island of Ceylon. In 1871-72 the total exports of coffee from India reached their maximum of 507,296 cwts.; in 1877-78 they fell to 298,587 cwts., and by 1882-83 they had only recovered to 364,008 cwts. The corresponding values do not show such large variations, for East India plantation coffee is always in demand in the English market.

Table I. gives the statistics of coffee cultivation in each Province, District, and Native State for the calendar year 1882. It will be seen that Coorg alone supplies 28 per cent. of the total produce, the Nilgiris and Malabar District (comprising the tract known as the Wainad), 31 per cent., and Mysore, 11 per cent. The native cultivation is chiefly in Mysore, which partly explains the low average yield per acre in that State. It should also be stated that the season of 1882 was exceptionally unfavourable.

I.—STATISTICS of COFFEE CULTIVATION, 1882.

	Number of Plantations.	AREA.				Approximate Yield.	Average Yield per Acre of Mature Plants.
		Under Mature Plants.	Under Immature Plants.	Taken up, but not yet planted.	TOTAL.		
		Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Lbs.	Lbs.
BENGAL:							
Lohardaga - - - -	1	8	2	-	10	2,400	300
Chittagong Hill Tracts - - -	-	-	5	-	5	-	-
TOTAL - - -	1	8	7	-	15	2,400	300
MADRAS:							
Vizagapatam - - - -	9	5	74	-	8	198	38
Madura - - - -	3,113	3,462	726	1,063	5,261	603,166	278
Tinnevely - - - -	61	1,030	224	807	2,061	52,279	40
Salem - - - -	331	4,240	1,540	4,980	10,760	848,000	200
Malabar - - - -	14,124	20,133	3,565	26,709	49,407	3,041,542	104
Coimbatore - - - -	17	479	290	834	1,603	133,010	279
Nilgiris - - - -	232	17,142	2,700	11,619	31,470	6,003,778	350
TOTAL - - -	17,887	56,391	9,064	46,013	111,468	11,042,873	196
MYSORE:							
Kolar - - - -	1	18	5	22	45	78	4
Hassan - - - -	16,407	33,941	5,434	10,621	49,998	1,057,720	31
Shimoga - - - -	104	108	261	1,019	1,388	4,704	44
Kadur - - - -	7,826	44,541	14,632	34,134	93,307	3,406,585	76
TOTAL - - -	23,338	78,608	20,332	45,796	144,738	4,469,027	57
Coorg - - - -	4,672	40,800	7,350	27,772	75,922	6,002,500	224
Cochin - - - -	17	1,757	573	5,920	8,251	706,515	402
Travancore - - - -	63	6,737	1,086	5,060	12,894	1,330,078	169
GRAND TOTAL - - -	45,977	184,301	38,414	130,570	343,286	24,462,453	133

Table II. gives comparative statistics, so far as available, for the eight years, 1875-76 to 1882. A slight increase is shown every year in the area under mature plants; but the decrease in 1882 in the area under immature plants, and also in the area taken up for coffee but not yet planted, proves that the industry is not flourishing.

II.—COMPARATIVE STATISTICS of COFFEE CULTIVATION, 1875-76 to 1882.

	Number of Plantations.	AREA.				Approximate Yield.	Average Yield per Acre of Mature Plants.*
		Under Mature Plants.	Under Immature Plants.	Taken up, but not yet planted.	TOTAL.		
		Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1875-76 - - -	44,455	-	-	-	202,000	35,204,105	268
1876-77 - - -	45,434	-	-	-	307,001	31,659,340	268
1877-78 - - -	46,802	-	-	-	384,198	20,540,952	223
1878 - - -	46,892	157,291	40,307	129,178	405,146	36,274,461	282
1879 - - -	46,506	162,373	37,837	198,156	417,425	42,932,437	325
1880 - - -	47,978	162,847	35,482	135,354	412,947	33,100,778	294
1881 - - -	38,682	173,012	43,290	183,491	309,794	38,621,844	287
1882 - - -	45,977	184,361	38,414	130,571	343,286	24,462,453	196

* Madras only.

Cinchona,

Cinchona, the tree yielding quinine or Peruvian bark, which had never before been reared artificially, was introduced into India from South America by Mr. Clements Markham on account of Government in 1860. The novel experiment succeeded beyond expectation. Not only has a cheap febrifuge been provided for the fever-stricken inhabitants of the Indian plains, but the bark sold in the open market yields a profit that more than pays interest upon the capital expended. The success of the Government plantations has led to a rapid extension of private cultivation, both in Southern India and in the adjoining island of Ceylon. At the original plantation on the Nilgiris in Madras the species most cultivated are *Cinchona succirubra* and *C. officinalis*. The bark is no longer manufactured into a febrifuge on the spot, but is all sold when dried, either at Madras or in England. The season of 1882-3 was most unfavourable, owing to excessive rainfall and high winds, which killed a large number of full-grown trees. The total receipts amounted to only 20,843 l., including 9,768 l., as the estimated value of bark sent to England. The bark sold at Madras average 3 s. 1½ d. per lb. The sale of seeds, plants, and seedlings realised 420 l. In the previous year the total receipts reached 52,484 l. The plantation near Darjiling in the North of Bengal is now conducted on a much larger scale than the older plantation on the Nilgiris. The vast majority of the plants here are *C. succirubra*, which yields red bark; but the cultivation is being extended of *Calisaya ledgeriana*, which yields yellow bark, and also of a hybrid between the two, one variety of which has been found to be very rich in quinine. In 1882-3 the total yield of dry bark amounted to 396,980 lbs., of which 41,800 lbs. were sent to England, and the remainder was manufactured on the spot into cinchona febrifuge. The total yield of febrifuge was 8,901 lbs. produced at the average cost of 17 s. per lb.; about half of this was distributed among the medical departments in India, and the rest sold to the public. The financial result for the year was a net profit of 6,600 l. representing a return of 6½ per cent. on the capital expenditure. The plantation at Thandaung in British Burma consists mainly of *C. succirubra*. In 1882-3 the yield of bark was 507 lbs., all obtained from the thinnings of the trees; it was sent to England, and sold at prices ranging from 6½ d. to 1 s. 2 d. per lb. Attempts to establish cinchona plantations at Mahabaleshwar in Bombay, and on the Khasi Hills in Assam, have resulted in failure.

CINCHONA

The following table gives statistics of cinchona cultivation in different Provinces for 1882-83. Unfortunately no information is available for the numerous private plantations in the Madras Presidency, where cinchona is often grown in connection with coffee and tea; nor for a small plantation at Kalhati in Mysore, which was sold by Government in 1881.

Statistics of Cultivation.

STATISTICS OF CINCHONA CULTIVATION,* 1882-83.

	Area under Cultivation.	Number of Plants in Permanent Cultivation.	Number of Seedlings and Cuttings.	Output of Bark.	Expenditure.	Receipts.
GOVERNMENT PLANTATIONS:	<i>Acres.</i>			<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>
Darjiling (Bengal)	2,204	4,711,168	334,223	396,980	9,246	15,016
Thandaung (Burma)	-	52,517	27,800	507	185	-
Nilgiris (Madras)	847	967,795	765,763	199,713	8,335	11,074
TOTAL	-	5,731,480	1,127,786	527,100	17,766	26,090
PRIVATE PLANTATIONS:						
Bengal	331	614,335	-	24,000	-	-
Mysore	23	22,949	-	3,600	-	-
Coorg	1,800	866,725	177,000	-	-	-
TOTAL	2,160	1,505,909	-	-	-	-
GRAND TOTAL	-	7,237,389	-	-	-	-

* Exclusive of private plantations in Madras.

THE following MEMORANDUM ON PRICES, with the accompanying DIAGRAM, has been specially prepared for this REPORT by Mr. Pedder.

PRICES.

"SINCE 1860, the prices of the chief agricultural products in the principal marts of India have been carefully ascertained and recorded, and have been published (1884) in a volume, compiled in the Financial Department of the Government of India, which should be consulted by those who desire to study the subject in detail. Before 1860, the information is by no means complete, and for the earlier years of the century is almost totally wanting. Still there are a few markets for which accurate information, chiefly compiled for purposes of settlement of land revenue, is forthcoming for a considerable period.

"The diagram opposite exhibits the course of prices of the four principal food grains of the people since the early years of the century in four markets in different parts of the country, the staple grain of the Province in which each market is situated being selected for it. The markets are,—for wheat, Agra, in the North-West Provinces; for rice, Salem, in Madras; for *jowar* (great millet), Dhalia (Khandesh), in the Deccan; for *bajra* (bulrush millet), Kaira, in Gujarat.

"It should be premised that the prices are harvest prices; that the rice taken is "paddy" or common rice in husk, the price of husked rice being usually nearly as high again as that of paddy; and that the price of *bajra* in India generally is not much higher than that of *jowar*, but most agricultural prices have always been much higher in Gujarat than almost anywhere else in India. This is caused by the populousness of the Province, and by its situation along the coast of the gulf of Cambay with numerous ports, which has always given it a large export trade to the great city of Bombay and to foreign countries.

"In examining the diagram, the most noteworthy points appear to be the following:—

"(1.) The general tendency of prices to fall till about the middle of the century, and then the great rise which occurred about 1860. This will be clearly seen from the following table shewing the average decennial prices.

Decade ending	"Bajra."	Rice.	Wheat.	"Jowar."
	"Sers" per Rupee.	"Sers" per Rupee.	"Sers" per Rupee.	"Sers" per Rupee.
1810 - - - - -	27½	—	—	—
1820 - - - - -	23	56½	—	—
1830 - - - - -	26	52½	28½	—
1840 - - - - -	20	52	26½	47
1850 - - - - -	31½	62½	32	61½
1860 - - - - -	31½	50	31*	46½
1870 - - - - -	18	28	18	22½
1880 - - - - -	15½	25	18½	22

* Average for eight years.

"(2.) The immense fluctuation of prices in the years before 1860, and their comparative steadiness after that date. *Bajra* was 7½ sers in 1812, 31 in 1815, 15 in 1819, 60 in 1832, 15 in 1834, 42½ in 1848, 21½ in 1860. Paddy was 62½ sers in 1810, 37 in 1813, 71½ in 1820, 36½ in 1824, 75 in 1832, 33½ in 1823, 81 in 1844, 38 in 1847, 78½ in 1852, 27½ in 1859. Wheat was 41½ sers in 1815, 17 in 1819, 13½ in 1838, 42 in 1861, 17 in 1860. *Jowar* was 37 sers in 1824, 72 in 1829, 19 in 1846, 85½ in 1848, 84 in 1854, 25 in 1861. On the other hand, though the period after 1860 includes the great famine of 1876-78 and several other years of scarcity, and also some seasons of unusual abundance,

abundance, the greatest fluctuations are, *bajra*, 7½ and 24 *seers*; paddy, 10½ *ser* (in the worst of the famine of 1876-77) and 47 *seers*; wheat, 12 and 26½ *seers jowar*; 12½ and 35 *seers*.

The principal causes of the great economic change which these figures indicate appear to be the immense growth of the export trade of India, giving her a market for her surplus produce; the great expansion of the circulating medium, tending to raise the money prices of produce; and the development of means of communication, enabling one Province to supply a deficiency of food in another.

India does not produce the precious metals, and can obtain her currency only in exchange for exports. Before the introduction of British rule, there was comparatively little trade; much of what trade there was was carried on by way of barter; and a considerable portion of the receipts and disbursements of the Government was in kind, not in cash. Hence, if the circulating medium was limited in quantity, its "duty," that is, the number and amount of the transactions in which it had to be exchanged for goods or labour, was still more limited, and prices were high. After the general introduction of British rule, a heavier "duty" was thrown upon the circulating medium by the extension of trade; by the greater demands of the revenue for cash (especially of the land revenue, assessments in kind being converted into assessments in coin); by the system of the British Government of paying its army and its officers in money. The circulating medium could not expand to the extent demanded by this altered state of things; importation of bullion was not sufficient to make up the amount annually withdrawn from circulation by waste, by being hoarded, or by being converted into ornaments; or, at any rate, was not sufficient to increase the currency in proportion to the greater "duty" thrown upon it, while at the same time, with peace and a settled Government, there was a great extension of cultivation and consequent increase of production. Hence prices steadily fell. But about the middle of the century, the foreign demand for Indian produce began to increase greatly, the first impulse being given by the Crimean and American wars. In 1840-41, the total value of merchandize exported from India was less than 13½ millions pounds; in 1864-65, it had risen to 68 million pounds; in 1882-83, to 83½ million pounds. And about the same time English capital began to be largely transmitted to India for the construction of railways, which again, by bringing the interior of the country into communication with the ports, facilitated the expansion of the export trade. Hence India, in addition to paying what is conveniently though inaccurately termed the "tribute" to England, was able to import bullion largely. In the forty years 1841 to 1880, the gross imports of the precious metals exceeded 392,000,000 L., while bullion to the nominal value (at 2 s. the rupee) of not less than 246,000,000 L. was coined at the Government mints. Thus about 12½ rupees, or 1 L. 5 s., per head of the total population of British India, was added to the metallic currency, while the circulation was in effect further augmented by the introduction of currency notes, and by the more general use of cheques and similar banking facilities. The result of this expansion of the currency, theoretically, should have been greatly to raise cash prices; and in reality, as the diagram shows, this was what took place about 1860.

The effect also of the improvement of means of communication, in rendering it possible for the surplus produce of one Province to supply the wants of another, must not be overlooked. The diagram affords some remarkable examples of this. In 1802-4 there was a terrible famine in the Deccan and Rajputana, but the price of *bajra* in Gujarat did not rise higher than 27 *seers* the rupee, because there was no means of conveying the surplus grain of Gujarat to the distressed districts. In 1864-65 and in 1877-79 there was no famine in Gujarat, but very severe famine in other parts of India, and, as it was possible to export grain, the price of *bajra* at Kara actually rose to 7½ and 9 *seers*. Similarly, in 1838 there was a bad famine in the North-West Provinces, and the price of wheat at Agra rose to 13½ *seers*, while in Khandesh the price of *jowar* was as low as 61 *seers*. In 1861 and 1869 there were again famines in the North-West Provinces, and no failure in Khandesh. But the railway had brought Khandesh into direct communication with Agra, and when the price of wheat in Agra was 14 and 12 *seers*, the price of *jowar* in Khandesh rose to 16 and 12½ *seers*."

XIV.

FORESTS.

THE peninsula of India, and more especially the outlying province of British Burma, possess in their forests a vast store of natural wealth, which is now under the charge of a special Department of the Government. No precise estimate can be given of the total area covered by forests, for a large portion of the forests are in private hands, and have never been surveyed. In Bengal, for example, the *zamindars* own from 40,000 to 50,000 square miles of forest lands, while the Government manage only 11,754 square miles. Similarly in the Central Provinces private forests cover about 30,000 square miles, and Government forests under 20,000 square miles. These, however, are extreme cases; and for the whole of India it may be approximately stated that the area of private forests is somewhat less than the area of Government forests, which amounted in 1882-83 to 75,270 square miles.

Dr. Brandis.

The importance of forests, not only for the supply of wood and other produce, but also as affecting the climate and rainfall of the country, has rendered necessary the adoption of elaborate measures of conservancy, which can only be adequately enforced by the direct authority of the Government. The need of administrative supervision, independent of that which could be exercised by the ordinary district officials, was first recognised in Bombay, where a Conservator of Forests for the entire Presidency was appointed so far back as 1847. Madras followed the example in 1856; and finally in 1864 Dr. Dietrich Brandis was created Inspector General of Forests to the Government of India. The history of the Indian Forest Department is almost co-extensive with the career of Dr. Brandis, who retired in 1883 after a service of 27 years. In 1856 he received his first appointment as Superintendent of Forests in British Burma, where he explored the valuable teak forests, and founded a system of management that now yields a revenue of 220,000 l. a year. In 1862 he was summoned to India to assist in organising Forest Departments in the Provinces of Northern India. In 1865, the year following his appointment as Inspector General, the first Indian Forest Act was passed, which defined the legal position of Government forests, and provided for their protection and better management. In 1866 he came home to England to make arrangements for the training of forest officers for India in the Government schools of France and Germany. In 1869 he was deputed to Bombay, where the reorganisation of the Forest Department was then under consideration. During 1873 he was in England, engaged in writing his *Forest Flora of North-West and Central India*. In 1877 he prepared a scheme for the establishment of an Indian Forest School at Dehra Doo, where natives should be trained for the post of Ranger. Meanwhile an amended Forest Act had been long under consideration, and it was finally passed in 1878, and applied to Bombay as well as to all Northern India. British Burma received an Act of its own in 1881; and in the same year Dr. Brandis was deputed to visit Madras, the only Province in India without special forest legislation. The Madras Forest Act was passed in 1882, and Dr. Brandis's work was done. He had personally visited every part of India, and supervised the organisation of every local Forest Department; he had assisted in the preparation of a series of Forest Acts for the whole country; he had established a system of training both for Englishmen in Europe and for natives in India; he had himself written the standard text book, and had encouraged the publication of several others, among which may be specially mentioned the *Manual of Jurisprudence for Forest Officers*, by Mr. B. H. Baden-Powell. Dr. Brandis was succeeded as Inspector General by Dr. W. Schlich, who had been officiating for him since 1881.

The Forest Department.

The Forest Department, though it preserves some features of the old division into three Presidencies, is in the main organised according to Provinces. At the head of the whole is the Inspector General, who is an officer of the Supreme Government, and whose Reports down to the year 1881-82 were confined to what may be called Bengal, *i.e.*, all India exclusive of Madras and Bombay.

The Superior Staff.

The superior staff of the Department consists of Conservators, Deputy Conservators, and Assistant Conservators, who are Europeans originally nominated in England

England by the Secretary of State, subject to an entrance examination and a course of professional study. Intermediate promotions are made by the several Provincial Governments; but throughout Bengal (in its widest sense) the higher appointments are reserved to the Governor General. Excluding Madras and Bombay, the superior staff, as remodelled in 1882, consists of about 100 members, of whom 10 possess the rank of Conservators, and five hold special appointments. These special appointments have reference to the Forest School at Dehra Dun, or to the office of the Inspector General. The Conservators are, broadly speaking, the heads of the Provincial Forest Departments, though some of the provinces have more than one Conservator. Including Madras and Bombay, the total number of conservators is 15, of whom only four have had the advantage of a professional training in Europe, the rest having been originally members of the various ordinary branches of the administration. In the lower ranks, however, of the superior staff, no less than 79 members have been specially educated in the forest schools of France or Germany. At present Nancy is the one place to which selected candidates are sent; but it has been decided to establish a forest school in England, in connection with the Royal Indian Engineering College at Cooper's Hill.

The subordinate staff consists of Sub-Assistant Conservators and Forest Rangers, who are all natives. As these must be the real executive officers of the Department, their training and mode of appointment become of great importance. In 1878 a forest school was established at Dehra Dun, which, it is hoped, will turn out every year about 30 students with a ranger's certificate. Candidates for this school must not only have passed the entrance examination of an Indian University, but must also have served for at least 12 months as foresters. Up to the present it has been found practicable to give instruction only in the English language; but it is intended to have also an elementary class in Hindustani. The duration of the term of study is at least 16 months, including both theoretical teaching and practical training. For the future, therefore, all Rangers must enter the service as Foresters; promotion is open for them to the rank of Sub-Assistant Conservator, and in exceptional cases to that of Assistant Conservator in the superior staff. The Subordinate Staff.

The special staff attached to the office of the Inspector General comprises a Superintendent of Forest Surveys and a Superintendent of Working plans. The forest surveys have been in full working order for some years past. Their operations, which are independent of the Imperial Survey Department, have been confined almost entirely to the mountainous tracts in the north-west and the Melghat *taluk* of Berar. In 1882-83 the total area "plane tabled," on the scale of four inches to the mile, was 361 square miles, at an average cost of 9 l. 8 s. per square mile. In addition, a proportion of the cost of the Imperial Survey of Thana District in Bombay is debited against the Forest Survey; and it is proposed to adopt the same system of account for the survey of the forests in Burma by the Imperial Survey Department. Forest Surveys.

The system of working plans, so essential to the economical management of forest property, has not yet been fully developed. A working plan comprises an estimate of the stock in a forest at any given date, of its annual increase, of the amount that may be removed yearly, and of the measures required for keeping up the supply. It will be the duty of the Superintendent of Forest Plans to prepare such estimates himself, or to approve those submitted by local officers, and to watch over their due execution. Working Plans.

For local purposes, the Forest Department is classified into Circles, Divisions, and Ranges, which vary in area according to the proportion of forest that exists in different parts of the country. A Forest Circle, the highest unit, is the charge of a Conservator, and is usually co-extensive with the area of a Province, though some Provinces contain more than one circle. A Forest Division is the charge of a Deputy Conservator, and is usually co-extensive with a District, though in not a few cases, where forests are few and unimportant, it includes several Districts. A Forest Range, the lowest unit, consists of part of a District, and is placed under an Assistant Conservator, or a Ranger, according to circumstances. Forest Areas.

The relations of forest officers to the ordinary administrative staff, after passing through many changes, have been finally settled on the principle (first introduced in Bombay) that the District forest officer is subordinate to the Collector, through whom alone does he correspond with the Conservator. He, in short, is the assistant of the Collector (or, it may be, of more than one Collector)

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in all forest matters. The functions of the Conservator, in regard to local work, are mainly those of advice, though he retains control over the departmental organisation and over finance.

Government Forests.

The total area of Government forests in India, as shown in table L, amounted in 1882-83 to 75,270 square miles, not including the area of "District Forests" in Burma, Ajmere, Coorg, Madras, and Bombay, for which no information is available. The area of "Reserved Forests" in the Native State of Mysore, which are excluded as not being under the control of the Inspector General, amounted in the same year to 787 square miles. Table II. shows the increase that has taken place during the last ten years in the area of "Demarcated Forest Reserves" (including those in Mysore), which constitute by far the most important class of Government forests. In 1878-79 a large addition was made by the inclusion for the first time of Madras and Bombay, and also of the Second Class Reserves in the Central Provinces. It is, therefore, impossible to compare the first half of the period with the latter half. It must suffice to say that during the first five years the annual increase in Forest Reserves was 1,622 square miles, and during the last five years 1,617 square miles, or almost precisely the same rate.

L.—DETAILED AREA OF GOVERNMENT FORESTS, 1882-83.*

	Reserved Forests:	Protected Forests:	District Forests:	TOTAL.
	Sq. Miles.	Sq. Miles.	Sq. Miles.	Sq. Miles.
Bengal - - - - -	4,322	2,325	6,107	12,754
Assam - - - - -	2,177	662	0,786	9,005
North-West Provinces and Oudh - - - - -	3,339	95	118	3,553
Punjab - - - - -	1,228	311	3,155	4,694
Central Provinces - - - - -	†19,480	-	318	19,748
British Burma - - - - -	‡3,427	-	-	3,427
Berar - - - - -	1,389	-	2,955	4,344
Ajmere - - - - -	122	-	-	122
Coorg - - - - -	233	-	-	233
Biluchistan - - - - -	-	-	9	9
TOTAL under Government of India - - - - -	35,667	3,397	18,428	57,492
Madras - - - - -	2,782	-	-	2,782
Bombay - - - - -	9,823	6,173	-	14,996
GRAND TOTAL - - - - -	48,272	8,570	18,428	75,270

* Excluding Mysore.
 † Comprising 2,593 square miles of First Class, and 16,887 of Second Class Reserves.
 ‡ Including 398 square miles of *tanjya*.

II.—AREA OF DEMARCATED FOREST RESERVES, 1873-74 to 1882-83. §

	Square Miles.		Square Miles.
1873-74 - - - - -	10,003	1878-79 - - - - -	40,971 †
1874-75 - - - - -	12,071	1879-80 - - - - -	41,821
1875-76 - - - - -	15,089	1880-81 - - - - -	42,770
1876-77 - - - - -	17,836	1881-82 - - - - -	43,594
1877-78 - - - - -	18,113	1882-83 - - - - -	49,059

§ Including Mysore.
 † The increase is due to the inclusion for the first time of Madras and Bombay, and of Second Class Reserves in the Central Provinces.

“ Reserved

"Reserved Forests" are those constituted under the provisions of Chapter II. of the Indian Forest Act of 1878, or under corresponding regulations. They are so-called because they are "reserved" from alienation, and from being devoted to other purposes than the production of forest produce. The term does not imply that all rights of property are absolutely vested in Government, but only that the management has been undertaken by Government, subject to any rights of user by private persons or village communities that may be found to exist after investigation. In some cases there are no private rights of user in existence; in other cases they have been bought up by Government; in the remaining cases they have been accurately determined, and their exercise has been brought under control. In the constitution of a Reserved Forest, the first step is the notification of the intention of Government; the next is the appointment of a forest settlement officer (usually not a member of the Forest Department), to determine all private rights claimed in the tract notified, subject to appeal; and finally the tract is demarcated by permanent boundary marks, and the acquisition of any new private rights is prohibited. The total area of Government Forest Reserves in 1882-83 included 380 square miles held on lease from private proprietors; the remaining area (47,892 square miles) belongs to Government.

"Reserved Forests."

"Protected Forests" are an anomalous class constituted under the provisions of Chapter IV. of the Indian Forest Act of 1878, which have not been adopted in the Acts subsequently passed for Burma and Madras, nor in the Regulations framed on the model of the Act of 1878 for "Scheduled" Tracts. The aim of these provisions is to extend a limited amount of protection to those forests to which it has not yet been thought desirable to apply the elaborate processes of survey, settlement of rights, and demarcation.

"Protected Forests."

"District Forests" is a loose name applied to forest tracts which are wholly or partially at the disposal of Government, but which for various reasons have not been brought under the provisions regulating either "Reserved" or "Protected" Forests. They used to be known as "Unreserved" Forests. The Forest Department does not attempt to interfere with their management, except to levy dues upon their products. A good example of "District Forests" is supplied in Assam, where there are immense tracts of but half-explored jungle, so remote from the inhabited plains that the produce is comparatively valueless, and therefore does not require any protection.

"District Forests."

The work of the Forest Department for 1882-83 may be thus expressed. The total area of Reserved Forests was increased by 2,059 square miles, of which the larger part is nominal, being due to a reclassification in Madras; the total cost of demarcation amounted to 7,498 l.; 4,552 l. was paid as compensation for land and rights; and 9,393 l. as rent for leased forests, &c. Excluding Madras and Bombay, the area which it was attempted to protect from fire was 4,826 square miles, being 14 per cent. of the total area of Reserved Forests; the area actually protected from fire was 4,562 square miles, at an average cost of 2 l. per square mile. The total area of artificial plantations was 101,146 acres, the most important of which are the plantations of teak in Madras and Burma, of india rubber (*Ficus elastica*) in Assam, and of cutch (*Acacia catechu*) in Burma. It has been estimated that the teak plantation at Nilambur, in the Madras district of Malabar, which was first formed in 1844, is capable of yielding a gross revenue of 6,000,000 l. in the course of the next hundred years. The india-rubber trees at Balipara, in Assam, were tapped for the first time in 1882-83, and yielded on an average about nine lbs. of dry rubber per tree, which realised 11 s. 7½ d. after deducting all expenses. The total expenditure during the year on plantations was 19,973 l.

The work of the year.

The profits of the Forest Department are obtained from the sale of produce, which is effected in a variety of ways. On the first constitution of the Department it was found necessary to employ Government agency to a great extent for the cutting and removal of timber, &c., in order to secure supervision and encourage a careful system of working. But the tendency is now setting in favour of the alternative plan of leaving the business to private enterprise, which may not be perhaps so remunerative, but which will leave the Forest officers free for the more important work of conservancy. In Bengal, in 1882-83, about 77 per cent. of the total receipts were derived from timber, &c., removed by private persons, Government agency being confined to the Sub-Himalayan forest. In British Burma, teak is almost entirely removed by Government agency, and other timber by private enterprise. In the Central Provinces,

The profits of the Department.

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Provinces, a licensing system is in force, according to which private persons pay at a certain rate for a cartload of forest produce, or for each head of cattle they graze in the forest, the rates for strangers being much higher than for residents. In Assam, the rubber *mahals*, or right of collecting rubber within certain tracts, are sold annually by public auction, realising 3,279 *l.* in 1882-3, and Government agency is now limited to the obtaining of timber, &c., required for the Department.

Madras.

In Madras the year was marked by the passing of the Forest Act (Madras Act V. of 1882), which came into force on 1st January 1883. Five classes of forest are constituted under this Act: (1) "Reserved"; (2) land at the disposal of Government but not included in a "Reserved" Forest, for the management of which rules may be framed; (3) waste land not the property of Government, which may be brought under management for special reasons; (4) forests the property of private persons, the management of which may be undertaken at their request; and (5) forests in which Government and private persons are jointly interested. In connexion with this Act, what is known as the Jungle Conservancy Fund was amalgamated with the Forest Department. This fund, which was started in 1859, had for its object the preservation of jungles in which villagers and others exercised prescriptive rights. A tax was levied on firewood, &c., cut for sale, and the proceeds were devoted to planting, &c. The management was vested in the Collector, but has now been transferred to the Forest Department.

Forest Revenue and Expenditure.

The following table (III.) gives the details of Forest Revenue and Expenditure in each of the several Provinces for 1882-3. The figures are taken from the Finance Accounts, and do not agree with those returned by the Forest Department. According to the report of the Inspector General, the total receipts amounted to 935,155 *l.*, and the total expenditure to 562,724 *l.*, leaving a net revenue or surplus of 372,431 *l.* The difference arises from the non-inclusion of the receipts and expenses of the Department in England. The charges of collection amounted to 60 per cent. of the gross revenue.

III.—DETAILS OF FOREST REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, 1882-83.

	India, General (including England).*	Bengal.	Assam.	North-West Provinces and Oudh.	Punjab.	Central Provinces.	British Burma.	Madras.	Bombay.	Total
REVENUE:	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Gross Receipts - -	18,127	69,396	24,861	101,340	76,671	97,705	250,960	99,644	209,085	938,229
EXPENDITURE:										
Refunds and Drawbacks -	4	6	7	130	21	81	1,026	49	1,620	2,934
Conservancy and Works -	5,199	20,551	7,586	55,550	28,335	23,474	95,249	30,980	81,910	340,934
Establishments - -	13,167	17,662	0,589	28,222	27,719	17,670	28,521	33,506	44,398	217,384
TOTAL Expenditure - £	18,300	38,219	17,182	83,902	56,075	41,225	122,896	64,635	127,877	570,273
NET REVENUE - £.	333	31,177	7,679	17,438	20,596	56,540	127,493	28,009	81,158	367,956

* Includes the receipts and expenses of the Indian Forest Department in England.

Table IV. gives the corresponding figures for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. During the first years of this period the revenue was subject to wide fluctuations; but since 1878-79, the increase has been steady and rapid. Comparing the first year of the period with the last, the increase in gross revenue has been 298,715 *l.*, or 47 per cent.; the increase in charges of collection has been 163,871 *l.*, or 41 per cent.; and the increase in net revenue has been 134,844 *l.*, or 36 per cent.

IV.—GROSS and NET REVENUE from FORESTS, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Gross Revenue.	Charges of Collection.	Net Revenue.*
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	699,513	408,447	290,066
1874-75 - - - -	598,367	444,021	154,346
1875-76 - - - -	697,543	419,811	277,732
1876-77 - - - -	616,468	458,099	158,369
1877-78 - - - -	678,699	439,938	238,761
1878-79 - - - -	605,433	454,934	150,499
1879-80 - - - -	676,234	466,056	211,178
1880-81 - - - -	709,320	463,970	245,344
1881-82 - - - -	874,433	557,645	316,788
1882-83 - - - -	938,228	607,318	330,910
TOTAL - - - -	7,034,240	4,676,245	2,357,995

* Not excluding Refunds and Drawbacks.

Table V. gives the quantity and value of forest produce exported from India in 1882-83. The figures show an increase on the previous year in every item except caoutchouc and lac-dye, and a total increase of 202,566 £., or 12 per cent.

V.—EXPORTS OF FOREST PRODUCE, 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.	Value per Ton.
	Tons.	£.	£. s.
Caoutchouc - - - -	528	125,916	238 10
Shell-lac - - - -	5,143	554,782	107 18
Lac-dye - - - -	196	4,610	23 10
Sandalwood, Ebony, and other ornamental woods.	- - - -	40,704	—
Cutch and Gambier - - - -	12,325	305,243	24 10
Myrobalans - - - -	23,558	184,698	7 16
Teak - - - -	* 59,187	611,200	10 5
TOTAL - - - -	- - - -	1,827,193	—

* In the case of teak, the quantity is in tons of 50 cubic feet.

XV:

FACTORIES AND MINES.

INSTEAD of the usual chapters upon Manufactures in general, and upon Mines and Minerals, it is proposed to give in this Report merely an account of those Factories and Coal Mines for which statistics are available.

COTTON MILLS.

The first mill, for the spinning of cotton by machinery, was started in the island of Bombay in 1857. Weaving was shortly added to spinning; and, besides meeting the local demand, a considerable export trade sprang up in the products of the Indian mills. The industry extended to other Provinces, and even to some of the Native States, but is still chiefly concentrated in the neighbourhood of Bombay. In 1882-83, out of a total of 62 cotton mills in all India, as many as 46 were in the Bombay Presidency; and of these 29 were in the island of Bombay, the rest, almost without exception, being in Gujarat. The total capital thus employed in the Bombay Presidency is estimated at 900,000 l.; and the total amount of raw cotton worked up in 1882-83 is estimated at 1,232,000 cwts., as compared with 4,742,624 cwts. exported from Bombay in the same year. The mills are usually owned by joint stock companies, in which natives have a large interest.

Statistics of Cotton Mills.

The following table shows the number of cotton mills in all India in 1882-83, according to Provinces, with the number of looms and spindles, and the average daily number of hands employed. It will be seen that the Bombay Presidency alone possesses 68 per cent. of the mills, 89 per cent. of the looms, 74 per cent. of the spindles, and 77 per cent. of the hands. Unfortunately it is impossible to classify the hands accurately with respect to sex and age; but 29,546 are returned as men, 8,555 as women, 7,882 as young persons, and 2,732 as children. The proportion of children is exceptionally low in Bombay, and the proportion of women and young persons exceptionally high.

STATISTICS OF COTTON MILLS worked by STEAM, 1882-83.

	Number of Mills.	Number of Looms.	Number of Spindles.	Average Daily Number of Hands Employed.
Bengal - - - -	7	41	221,990	5,029
North-West Provinces - -	2	696	66,048	2,219
Central Provinces - - -	2	325	30,400	2,895
Madras - - - -	3	-	69,076	1,529
Bombay - - - -	46	38,390	1,224,958	40,667
Hyderabad - - - -	1	200	15,000	592
Indore - - - -	1	454	26,036	693
TOTAL - - - -	62	15,116	1,854,108	53,624

The following table gives corresponding statistics for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the number of mills has increased by 15, or 32 per cent.; the number of looms has increased by 5,977, or 65 per cent.; and the number of spindles has increased by 553,996, or 50 per cent.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF COTTON MILLS, 1876-77—1882-83.

	Number of Mills.	Number of Looms.	Number of Spindles.	Average Daily Number of Hands Employed.
1876-77 - - - -	47	9,139	1,100,112	-
1877-78 - - - -	53	10,533	1,289,706	-
1878-79 - - - -	58	12,993	1,436,464	-
1879-80 - - - -	58	13,307	1,470,830	39,537
1880-81 - - - -	58	13,233	1,471,730	47,955
1881-82 - - - -	62	14,386	1,650,944	52,231
1882-83 - - - -	62	15,116	1,854,108	53,624

The following table gives the foreign exports of Indian machine-made cotton goods for each of the five years, 1878-79 to 1882-83. These exports, which are made almost entirely from Bombay, consist of two classes, (1) twist and yarn, and (2) grey piece goods. The exports of coloured piece goods of Indian manufactures are the produce of handlooms, chiefly in Madras. The twist and yarn is sent mainly to China and Japan; the grey piece goods mainly to Aden, Zanzibar, Mozambique, and Arabia. The export of both classes has approximately doubled in value within the period of five years, the increase being most marked in the last year of the series. The growth in value has been more rapid than the growth in quantity, especially in the case of piece goods:

Exports of Indian cotton goods.

FOREIGN EXPORTS OF INDIAN MACHINE-MADE COTTON GOODS, 1878-79 to 1882-83.

	Twist and Yarn.		Grey Piece Goods.		Total Value. £.
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
	Lbs.	£.	Yards.	£.	
1878-79	21,292,508	866,481	14,992,336	198,380	1,064,861
1879-80	25,862,474	1,109,234	17,930,629	224,511	1,333,745
1880-81	26,901,346	1,282,576	21,739,050	276,711	1,558,287
1881-82	30,286,904	1,368,836	20,606,843	251,163	1,619,999
1882-83	45,378,040	1,816,878	30,956,366	360,559	2,177,477

The following table gives the total exports by sea and by land, so far as practicable, of Indian cotton manufactures from Bombay City in 1882-83. The twist and yarn is entirely the produce of the mills, but the piece goods include a proportion of hand-loom manufactures, which is unascertainable, but not large.

EXPORTS OF INDIAN COTTON GOODS FROM BOMBAY CITY, 1882-83.

	Twist and Yarn.	Piece Goods.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.
Scaborne:			
Foreign	1,705,978	446,068	2,152,046
Coasting	690,446	379,245	1,075,691
Railway:			
Great Indian Peninsula	188,850	456,444	645,308
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India	64,728	980,465	1,045,193
TOTAL	2,656,011	2,263,112	4,919,123

During the period covered by this Report the business of the Indian cotton mills has been affected in two ways by changes in the Customs tariff. The export duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem* imposed upon cotton manufactures, as upon most other articles of Indian produce, was abolished in 1875. The import duties of 3½ per cent. upon twist and yarn, and 5 per cent. upon piece goods, were abolished in 1882, the duty on grey piece goods not exceeding a certain fineness (which alone came into competition with the produce of the Indian mills), having been first modified in 1878, and finally abolished in 1879. The Indian mills have

Removal of Customs duties cotton goods.

thus been relieved, on the one hand, from the restrictions of an export tariff, and exposed, on the other hand, to the absolutely free competition of the rest of the world. Their only advantages lie in the cheapness of labour, and in the fact that both the raw produce and the market for the manufactured article are at their very doors.

e Indian Fac-
ies Act.

Down to 1881 the labour employed in the cotton mills of India was subject to no regulation whatever by the Government. In that year an Act was passed by the Governor General in Council, known as the Indian Factories Act, 1881, which has been extended to Bombay and the Central Provinces. Its application is limited to factories wherein not less than 100 persons are employed; and indigo factories, and tea and coffee plantations are expressly excluded. No restriction whatever is placed upon the employment of men, women, and young persons, who, as a matter of fact, usually work (in Bombay) for seven days in the week, and not uncommonly for 14 hours in the day. Children under the age of 7 may not be employed at all; and the employment of children between the ages of 7 and 12 is subject to the following restrictions. The total number of hours in a day is limited to nine, with intervals amounting to at least one hour for food and rest; four days are to be allowed in each month for holidays; no child is to be engaged in certain dangerous work in connection with machinery; and a register is to be kept of all children employed. To ensure the enforcement of these rules for the protection of children, and of other provisions in the Act, inspectors of factories are to be appointed, the first of whom in Bombay was Mr. W. O. Meade-King, an inspector of long experience in England. The other provisions have reference to the fencing of machinery and gearing in motion, and the notification of accident. The immediate consequence of the introduction of the Act into Bombay was a large diminution in the number of children employed. In 1880, out of 31 mills in the island of Bombay, all but one employed children. In 1882-83, out of 38 mills, only 18 employed children, the total number employed being 668. The entire subject of factory legislation is at the present time under the consideration of a Commission.

THE MILLS.

As Bombay is the centre of the cotton mills of India, so Calcutta is still more emphatically the centre of the jute mills. In 1882-83, out of 20 jute mills, no less than 18 were in Bengal, and of these all but one were in the immediate neighbourhood of Calcutta, on both banks of the Hugli.

Statistics of jute
mills.

The following table gives statistics of the jute mills in India in 1882-83, according to Provinces.

STATISTICS OF JUTE MILLS worked by STEAM, 1882-83.

	Number of Mills.	Number of Looms.	Number of Spindles.	Average Daily Number of Hands Employed.
Bengal - - - -	18	5,418	92,033	41,263
Madras - - - -	1	150	2,320	530
Bombay - - - -	1	70	1,384	995
TOTAL - - - -	20	5,638	95,737	42,797

The following table gives corresponding statistics for each of the seven years, 1876-77 to 1882-83. During that period the number of mills increased only by two; but the number of looms increased by 2,584, or 85 per cent., while the number of spindles multiplied more than fourfold. Of the total number of hands employed in 1882-83, 22,024 were returned as men, 9,794 as women, 6,339 as young persons, and 3,490 as children. As compared with the cotton mills of Bombay,

may, the jute mills of Calcutta employ a larger proportion of women, and a much larger proportion of children. The total amount of raw jute picked up by the steam mills during 1882-83 may be roughly estimated at only 2,500,000 cwts., as compared with an export of 5,846,926 cwts. in the same year.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF JUTE MILLS, 1876-77 to 1882-83.

	Number of Mills.	Number of Looms.	Number of Spindles.	Average Daily Number of Hands Employed.
6-77 - - - -	16	3,040	22,610	—
7-78 - - - -	21	4,094	38,046	—
8-79 - - - -	21	4,645	65,882	—
9-80 - - - -	22	4,946	70,640	27,494
0-81 - - - -	21	5,065	69,978	35,235
1-82 - - - -	21	5,655	90,765	40,561
2-83 - - - -	20	5,633	95,737	42,797

The following table gives the foreign exports of jute manufactures in each of the years, 1873-74 to 1882-83, showing an increase within the period of more than sevenfold. Jute manufactures, which are known as "gunny," are exported in the form of bags and cloth, chiefly to the United States and Australia, for sowing wheat, &c. Besides the foreign export, a considerable quantity is shipped from Calcutta coastwise, and also landwards. In 1882-83 the exports coastwise of power-loom jute manufactures were—gunny-bags, 922,801 l.; gunny-cloth, 61,924 l.; total, 983,725 l.

Exports of jute manufactures.

FOREIGN EXPORTS OF JUTE MANUFACTURES, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	£.		£.
73-74 - - - -	201,669	1878-79 - - - -	1,098,626
74-75 - - - -	238,640	1879-80 - - - -	1,195,495
75-76 - - - -	489,226	1880-81 - - - -	1,130,722
76-77 - - - -	719,478	1881-82 - - - -	1,097,643
77-78 - - - -	771,129	1882-83 - - - -	1,487,861

Another large industry for which statistics are available is that of brewing, which is now conducted at many of the hill stations throughout India, and has also been attempted in the plains with fair promise of success. The first brewery was established at Mussooree in the North-West Provinces in 1850, which was immediately followed by the establishment of another on the Nilgiris in the following year; but the Himalayan hill stations remain the great centres of brewing, having produced no less than 94 per cent. of the total outturn of beer in 1882-83. The breweries in other parts of India are all very small concerns, and some of them have proved failures. The largest brewery of all is that at Murree, in the Punjab, owned by a joint stock company, with a paid-up capital of 60,000 l. On an average of six years, this brewery had produced more than one-third of the total outturn of beer in all India. Next come the breweries at Kasauli and Solon (close to Simla), both also in the Punjab; and then two breweries at Mussooree, in the North-West Provinces. All the hops used require to be imported, for the plant does not thrive in the plains of India, and its cultivation in the valley of Kashmir has not yet passed beyond the range of experiment. In 1882-83 the imports of hops were 1,940 cwts., of which nearly one-half were Bavarian hops received through

BREWERIES.

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through Italy. Concurrently with the successful establishment of Indian breweries, there has been a marked decrease in the imports of beer, which have fallen from a maximum of 5,258,020 gallons in 1874-75, to only 2,656,788 gallons in 1882-83, a decrease of 98 per cent. This decrease is the more noteworthy, as the English population has considerably increased during the same period. While partly due to a change in drinking habits, by which whiskey is taking the place of both beer and wine, it must be mainly attributed to the large orders now given to the Indian breweries by the Army Commissariat Department. These are shown in the following table, which gives the quantity of Indian brewed beer purchased by the Bengal Commissariat in each of the eight calendar years, 1875 to 1882. It will be seen that the quantity, despite certain fluctuations, has multiplied fivefold during that period.

INDIAN BREWED BEER purchased by the BENGAL COMMISSARIAT DEPARTMENT, 1875 to 1882.

	Gallons.		Gallons.
1875	349,096	1879	872,296
1876	537,333	1880	1,293,773
1877	954,933	1881	1,764,927
1878	869,270	1882	1,699,914

Statistics of Breweries.

The following table gives statistics of Indian breweries, according to Provinces, for the calendar year 1882.

STATISTICS OF BREWERIES, 1882.

	Number of Breweries.	Estimated Outturn.
		Gallons.
North-West Provinces and Oudh	5	763,560
Punjab	6	1,686,341
British Burma	1	12,525
Madras	2	44,409
Mysore	4	107,822
TOTAL	17	2,594,667

The following table gives corresponding statistics for each of the six years, 1877 to 1882. During that period the number of breweries has increased by two, and the outturn of beer by 431,779 gallons, or 20 per cent.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF BREWERIES, 1877 to 1882.

—	Number of Breweries.	Estimated Outturn.	—	Number of Breweries.	Estimated Outturn.
		Gallons.			Gallons.
1877	15	2,162,888	1880	17	1,974,573
1878	15	1,522,769	1881	19	2,448,711
1879	15	1,669,026	1882	17	2,594,667

For the scientific aspects and the possible yield in the future of the coalfields of India, reference must be made to the publications of the Geological Survey. In this place all that can be attempted is a summary of the actual economic results of the collieries now at work. Coal was known in 1774 to occur at Raniganj, in Bengal, about 120 miles from Calcutta, and was actually worked as early as 1777. The colliery that still yields the largest output in this tract was first opened in 1820; and from that time the industry has been steadily carried on at Raniganj. The Bengal Coal Company, which was founded in 1858, has a paid-up capital of 220,000 £.; and there are three other coal mining companies each with a capital exceeding 70,000 £. Many collieries are also worked by private firms, and by associations of natives. In 1882 the total number of collieries open in the Raniganj coalfield was 45, with an output of 532,846 tons, and employing 9,246 miners. Unfortunately the coal, though easily mined, is of inferior quality. The Karharbari coalfield, also in Bengal, about 200 miles from Calcutta, did not begin to attract attention until 1869. The coal is of superior quality, and also has the advantage of being near the line of railway that leads to Northern India. The East India Railway Company has two collieries here, with a total output in 1882 of 260,657 tons; and about half as much more is obtained from two other mines owned by joint stock companies. Still more recently an extension of the Raniganj coalfield in Manbhum District, called the Jharia or Gobindpur field, has been profitably worked by a joint stock company. In 1882 the total output from two collieries, of which one was opened in 1873, and the other in 1881, amounted to 129,303 tons. These three coalfields, Raniganj, Karharbari, and Jharia, make up all those now worked in Bengal, though many others are known to exist, and might be worked profitably after the extension to them of railway communication.

COLLIERIES.

Collieries in Bengal.

Excluding Assam (for which no statistics are available), the only other collieries worked in India are two comparatively small ones in the Central Provinces. The larger of these, the Warora colliery, is scientifically interesting, as representing a coalfield that extends throughout the valley of the Godavari. It is the property of Government, who have spent a very large sum of money in exploring and testing the field; a branch State railway connects the colliery with the Great Indian Peninsula line. In 1882-83 the total output was 80,416 tons, the cost of working being 29,609 £., or about 3 s. 8 d. per ton; the price charged to private consumers was 15 s. per ton, for large coal unscreened. The quality is inferior. The other colliery, which is at Mohpani, in the Narbada Valley, represents a distinct coalfield called after the Satpura Mountains. It is also connected with the Great India Peninsula Railway by a branch line. Since 1871 it has been worked by a joint stock company, who sell the coal to the railway at about 1 £. a ton. In 1882 the total output was 18,571 tons.

Collieries in the Central Provinces.

The prosperity of Indian collieries, which was adversely effected by the first opening of the Suez Canal, has since more than recovered, owing to the extension of the railway system. Bombay, which consumes a large quantity of coal on its railways and in its mills, still draws its entire supply from England; but the Bengal collieries satisfy the greater part of the demand not only in Calcutta but also throughout Northern India. In 1881-82, out of the total imports of coal into India, Bombay received 404,243 tons, or more than two-thirds; while Bengal received only 85,044 tons. In the same year 148,067 tons of coal were exported from Calcutta as ships' stores, of which only 23,679 tons were declared to be English coal, the remainder being Indian coal. In 1858 about 23,000 tons of coal were imported into India from Australia; but this trade seems now to have dwindled into insignificance, as English coal goes out to India at a very low freight, in exchange for cargoes of raw produce. In 1883 the average price of English coal at Bombay was 1 £. 12 s. per ton; the price of Indian coal at the pit's mouth ranging from 6 s. to 19 s. per ton, with the exception of the Karharbari coal of the East Indian Railway, which cost the Company for raising only 4 s. 3 d. per ton. The statistics of coal consumed on the railways will be given in a later chapter.

Use of Indian coal

The following table shows the number of collieries worked in the calendar year 1882, according to Provinces; with the output, and the number of miners employed. The Raniganj collieries in Bardwan District supplied 47 per cent. of the total output; the Karharbari collieries in Hazaribagh District, 33 per cent.; and the Jharia collieries in Manbhum District, 11 per cent. Of the total

Statistics of Collieries.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

number of miners employed, 10,149 were returned as men, 3,501 as women, and 1,128 as children. There is no law restricting the employment of women or children, or interfering in any way with the management of the collieries.

STATISTICS OF COLLIERIES, 1882.

	Number of Mines Worked.	Output of Coal.	Number of Miners, &c., Employed.
Bengal:		<i>Tons.</i>	
Bardwan - - -	45	532,840	9,246
Hazaribagh - - -	4	376,667	7,228
Manbhum - - -	2	129,303	2,168
Santal Parganas - - -	1	36	—
TOTAL - - -	52	1,038,872	18,742
Central Provinces:			
Mohpani - - -	1	18,571	637
Warora - - -	1	72,799	672
TOTAL - - -	2	91,370	1,309
GRAND TOTAL - - -	54	1,130,242	20,051

The following table gives corresponding statistics for each of the five years, 1878 to 1882. They show fluctuations rather than progress; but if the first year of the series is compared with the last, the number of collieries has increased by 8, and the output by 115,032 tons, or 10 per cent.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF COLLIERIES, 1878 to 1882.

	Number of Mines Worked.	Output of Coal.
		<i>Tons.</i>
1878 - - - - -	46	1,015,210
1879 - - - - -	56	924,662
1880 - - - - -	60	1,019,793
1881 - - - - -	46	907,730
1882 - - - - -	54	1,130,242

CHAPTER XVI.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.

The trade of India may be considered under four headings: (1) Foreign sea-borne trade; (2) Foreign land trade; (3) Coasting trade; (4) Internal land trade. The foreign sea-borne trade is, of course, by far the most important, and the only heading for which continuous statistics are available.

Broadly speaking, the foreign seaborne trade of India consists of the export of agricultural produce, and the import of cotton manufactures, metals, and treasure. With the single exception of a Customs duty on rice of 6 *d.* per cwt., the export trade is now entirely free. The Customs tariff on imports is confined to arms and ammunition, liquors, salt, and opium, upon all of which (except arms and ammunition) corresponding Excise duty is levied. No transit duties are levied within the boundaries of British India, though several Native States still retain this form of taxation. The stages by which India has reached this large measure of free trade have already been described in the chapter of this Report dealing with Customs. The extension of railways throughout the country, and the opening of a short sea route to Europe through the Suez Canal, have combined with the abolition of Customs duties to augment greatly the foreign trade of India in recent years. The following table shows the increase in the aggregate volume of both imports and exports in each decennial year since 1842-43.

FOREIGN TRADE.
Increase since
1842-43.

TOTAL FOREIGN TRADE in the FIVE DECENNIAL Years, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

	Total of Imports and Exports.	Increase per Cent. in Ten Years.
1842-43	£. 24,614,517	—
1852-53	33,422,103	55
1862-63	92,112,136	137
1872-73	92,971,252	1
1882-83	150,076,050	61

Within the entire period of forty-one years the aggregate volume of trade has multiplied just sixfold, the rate of increase having been most rapid between 1852-53 and 1862-63.

The most conspicuous feature in the foreign trade of India is the normal excess of exports over imports. Taking the forty-one years since 1842-43, the exports of merchandise exceeded the imports of merchandise in every single year, the average excess being at the rate of about 16,170,000 *l.* a year. In the same period, the imports of treasure exceeded the exports of treasure in every single year, the average excess being at the rate of about 8,650,000 *l.* a year. The total exports exceeded the total imports in every year except the seven years 1855-56 to 1861-62, the average excess being at the rate of about 7,520,000 *l.* a year. Taking the last ten years only since 1873-74, the excess of exports of merchandise was at the rate of 24,273,615 *l.* a year; the excess of imports of treasure was at the rate of 7,891,204 *l.* a year; and the net excess

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excess of total exports was, therefore, at the rate of 16,382,411*l.* a year. In the same ten years, the amount of the Secretary of State's bills drawn averaged 16,070,208*l.*, thus approximately balancing the net excess of exports. These figures reveal in a striking form the dominant influences that regulate the foreign trade of India. The exports have to pay not only for the merchandise and treasure imported, but also for the expenses of administration incurred in England, and for the interest on the debt held in England and on the English capital sunk in public works of India on Government account.

Foreign Trade,
1842-43 to
1882-83.

Table I. shows the general features of the foreign trade in each of the five decennial years, 1842-43 to 1882-83, the values being expressed in millions sterling to two decimal places. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the total imports (including treasure) have multiplied about six-fold, cotton manufactures having multiplied nearly eight-fold, and treasure just four-fold. The total exports (including treasure) have also multiplied about six-fold, raw cotton having multiplied nearly seven-fold, and grain more than twenty-fold. In fact, the trade in grain, as well as in jute and oilseeds, may be said to have been created within the last twenty years. The exports of treasure remain practically stationary. The excess of total exports over total imports has multiplied seven-fold, almost entirely within the last twenty years.

I.--FOREIGN TRADE in the Five Decennial Years, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

	IMPORTS.					EXPORTS.							Excess of Exports.
	Cotton Manufactures.	Other Articles.	TOTAL.	Treasure.	GRAND TOTAL.	Raw Cotton.	Opium.	Grain.	Other Articles.	TOTAL.	Treasure.	GRAND TOTAL.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1842-43 -	3.13	4.47	7.60	3.44	11.04	2.39	3.37	.63	7.16	13.55	.42	13.77	2.73
1852-53 -	4.80	5.27	10.07	6.83	16.90	3.63	7.03	.89	8.91	20.46	1.08	21.52	4.62
1862-63 -	9.63	13.90	22.63	20.51	48.14	18.78	12.49	3.73	19.86	47.56	1.11	48.67	5.83
1872-73 -	17.23	14.64	31.87	4.56	36.43	14.02	11.43	6.97	23.73	55.25	1.90	56.55	20.12
1882-83 -	24.80	27.20	52.00	13.45	65.54	16.05	11.48	14.68	41.07	63.48	1.04	64.52	18.98

Foreign Trade,
1873-74 to
1882-83.

Table II. shows the total imports and exports in each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1883-84, divided into merchandise and treasure, together with the excess of exports, and the amount of Secretary of State's bills drawn. Despite some fluctuations, notably in the case of treasure, the figures show on the whole a steady increase. The only important decrease is in 1878-79, when a sudden diminution in the import of treasure coincided with the depression caused by a long and severe famine, and by the war in Afghanistan. Comparing the first year of the period with the last, the aggregate volume of trade has increased by 53,553,617*l.*, or 55 per cent., the imports having increased by 25,936,506*l.*, or 65 per cent., and the exports by 27,617,101*l.*, or 47 per cent. Excluding treasure, the imports of merchandise have increased by 18,275,823*l.*, or 54 per cent., and the exports of merchandise by 28,489,113*l.*, or 62 per cent. Excluding treasure, the excess of exports has increased by 10,213,230*l.*, or 91 per cent.; including treasure, the excess of exports has increased by 1,680,595*l.*, or 9 per cent. The net imports of treasure, after deducting exports, have increased by no less than 8,532,635*l.*, or 220 per cent. To sum up, while the increase in the total imports has been proportionately more rapid than the increase in the total exports, this has been brought about almost entirely by the very large increase in the imports of treasure.

II.—FOREIGN TRADE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	I M P O R T S.			E X P O R T S.			GRAND TOTAL.	Excess of Exports.	Amount of Secretary of State's Bills Drawn.
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	TOTAL.	Merchandise	Treasure.	TOTAL.			
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	33,919,828	5,792,534	39,612,362	54,996,016	1,914,071	56,910,081	96,522,443	17,297,719	14,963,700
1874-75	36,922,113	8,141,047	44,963,160	50,359,240	1,625,909	57,984,549	102,347,709	13,621,369	11,743,700
1875-76	38,891,056	5,300,722	44,192,378	58,091,405	2,200,236	60,291,741	104,494,100	16,099,358	13,750,000
1876-77	37,440,631	11,436,120	48,876,751	61,013,891	4,029,898	65,043,789	113,920,549	16,167,036	14,857,512
1877-78	41,464,195	17,355,459	58,819,644	65,222,328	2,210,996	67,433,324	126,262,968	8,613,680	11,698,500
1878-79	37,800,524	7,050,749	44,857,343	60,957,518	3,982,228	64,919,741	109,877,064	30,068,398	16,912,361
1879-80	41,160,008	11,855,395	52,921,308	67,212,358	2,035,148	69,247,511	122,068,909	10,426,113	12,850,000
1880-81	33,116,770	8,988,214	42,104,984	74,580,602	1,440,441	76,021,043	138,120,027	13,916,059	18,327,700
1881-82	49,113,374	11,322,781	60,436,155	81,968,451	1,009,747	83,068,198	143,504,353	22,632,043	22,210,035
1882-83	52,096,711	13,453,157	65,548,868	83,485,123	1,042,059	84,527,182	150,076,050	18,978,314	18,585,659
Average	42,113,087	10,050,218	52,163,304	66,386,708	2,158,013	68,544,715	120,708,019	16,382,411	16,070,208

Table III. gives an analysis of the total foreign-trade in 1882-83, distinguishing the transactions on Government account, and also the re-exports of foreign merchandise. The aggregate volume of foreign trade in that year amounted to 150,076,050 L., being just 11 s. 6 d. per head of the total population of India, under British Administration and in Native States.

Foreign Trade, 1882-83.

III.—ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN TRADE, 1882-83.

I M P O R T S.		E X P O R T S.	
	£.		£.
Private Merchandise	50,008,041	Private Merchandise:	
Government Stores	2,992,870	Indian Produce and Manufactures	80,598,158
TOTAL	52,096,711	Re-exports of Foreign Merchandise	2,802,710
Treasure on Private Account	13,453,157	Government Stores	84,258
GRAND TOTAL	65,548,868	TOTAL	83,485,123
Excess Imports of Treasure	12,411,099	Treasure on Private Account	980,850
		Government Treasure	61,900
		TOTAL	1,042,059
		GRAND TOTAL	84,527,182
		Excess Exports of Merchandise	31,289,612
		Net Excess Exports	18,978,314
		Amount of Secretary of State's Bills Drawn.	18,655,659

Tables IV. and V. give details of the imports and exports of merchandise on private account in 1882-83, with the corresponding figures for 1873-74. The several items will be considered in a later portion of this chapter.

Imports and Exports, 1882-83.

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DETAILS of IMPORTS of PRIVATE MERCHANDISE, 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	1873-74.	1882-83.	Increase or Decrease per Cent.
	£.	£.	
Apparel - - - - -	578,220	769,752	+ 33
Arms, ammunition, and military stores -	76,820	79,577	+ 4
Books, paper, and stationery - - - - -	475,027	625,431	+ 45
Coal, coke, &c. - - - - -	740,026	1,019,863	+ 38
Cotton twist and yarn - - - - -	2,628,959	3,376,190	+ 28
Cotton manufactures - - - - -	15,155,666	21,431,872	+ 41
Drugs and medicines - - - - -	207,538	391,073	+ 46
Dyes - - - - -	139,929	206,640	+ 48
Fruits and vegetables - - - - -	279,773	211,455	- 23
Glass, and manufactures of - - - - -	333,324	483,743	+ 45
Gums and resins - - - - -	141,394	117,921	- 16
Hardware, cutlery, and plated ware - -	*	791,791	-
Horses - - - - -	70,759	166,615	+ 166
Ivory - - - - -	165,969	212,107	+ 24
Jewellery and precious stones - - - -	171,438	307,189	+ 80
Liquors:			
Malt - - - - -	337,916	272,323	- 19
Spirits - - - - -	488,697	674,969	+ 38
Wines, liquors, &c. - - - - -	476,198	327,322	- 19
Machinery and millwork - - - - -	1,002,347	1,342,398	+ 34
Metals - - - - -	1,738,507	4,615,986	+ 164
Oils - - - - -	67,449	1,050,897	+1,469
Paints and colours, &c. - - - - -	118,003	234,450	+ 98
Perfumery - - - - -	33,189	63,336	+ 90
Porcelain and earthenware - - - - -	98,533	170,002	+ 72
Provisions - - - - -	372,867	1,087,166	+ 191
Railway plant and rolling stock - - -	439,339	1,116,431	+ 154
Salt - - - - -	635,354	515,184	- 58
Silk, raw - - - - -	786,014	1,074,166	+ 36
Silk, manufactures of - - - - -	608,874	977,768	+ 61
Spices - - - - -	150,562	510,854	+ 240
Sugar - - - - -	558,978	1,086,901	+ 95
Tea - - - - -	182,859	193,052	+ 10
Tobacco - - - - -	71,407	83,008	+ 13
Umbrellas - - - - -	90,246	232,829	+ 155
Wood, and manufactures of - - - - -	53,405	99,394	+ 87
Wool, raw - - - - -	38,562	68,931	79
Wool, manufactures of - - - - -	668,911	984,873	+ 47
All other articles - - - - -	1,165,628	2,946,119	+ 153
TOTAL - - - £.	31,628,497	50,003,041	+ 58

* Included with Metals.

V.—DETAILS of EXPORTS of PRIVATE MERCHANDISE (including RE-EXPORTS), 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	1873-74.	1882-83.	Increase or Decrease per Cent.
	£.	£.	£.
Coffee - - - - -	1,490,496	1,419,181	- 5
Coir, and manufactures of - - - - -	164,282	152,129	- 7
Cotton, raw - - - - -	13,212,241	16,055,758	+ 22
Cotton twist and yarn - - - - -	181,178	1,874,464	+ 991
Cotton manufactures - - - - -	1,414,197	2,093,146	+ 33
Drugs and medicines - - - - -	68,897	164,463	+ 123
Dyes :			
Indigo - - - - -	3,555,300	3,912,997	+ 10
Other (except lac) - - - - -	169,282	258,436	+ 52
Grain and Pulse :			
Rice (including paddy) - - - - -	5,549,798	8,476,327	+ 53
Wheat - - - - -	827,606	6,088,814	+ 685
Other - - - - -	170,943	319,571	+ 87
Gums and resins - - - - -	146,940	356,931	+ 143
Hemp, and manufactures of - - - - -	70,617	44,236	- 38
Hides and skins - - - - -	2,618,358	4,444,946	+ 70
Horns - - - - -	62,398	181,783	+ 194
Ivory, and manufactures of - - - - -	129,854	112,469	- 14
Jewellery and precious stones - - - - -	50,822	65,177	+ 27
Jute, raw - - - - -	3,436,015	5,846,926	+ 70
Jute, manufactures of - - - - -	201,669	1,487,831	+ 637
Lac (dye, shell, &c.) - - - - -	257,653	699,118	+ 171
Oils - - - - -	262,899	443,764	+ 69
Opium - - - - -	11,341,857	11,481,379	-
Saltpetre - - - - -	464,974	368,766	- 16
Seeds - - - - -	2,361,451	7,205,924	+ 205
Silk, raw - - - - -	1,225,599	596,838	- 51
Silk, manufactures of - - - - -	239,865	306,928	+ 28
Spices - - - - -	238,217	417,391	+ 75
Sugar - - - - -	281,748	989,069	+ 251
Tea - - - - -	1,754,013	3,738,842	+ 113
Tobacco - - - - -	167,148	117,156	- 30
Wood, and manufactures of - - - - -	415,904	672,477	+ 62
Wool, raw - - - - -	966,832	1,002,833	+ 5
Wool, manufactures of - - - - -	229,502	183,348	- 2
All other articles - - - - -	1,222,687	1,811,500	+ 48
TOTAL - - - - £.	54,960,786	83,400,865	+ 52
Viz., Indian Produce or Manufactures -	53,114,427	80,598,155	+ 52
Foreign ditto - - - - -	1,846,359	2,802,710	+ 52

Table VI. shows the distribution according to Provinces of the foreign trade (excluding transactions on Government account) in 1882-83, with the corresponding figures for 1873-74. In the course of the ten years both imports and exports have

Distribution of Foreign Trade according to Provinces.

have increased in every Province, but they have not increased in every Province at the same rate. The two Provinces of Bengal and Bombay share between them about 80 per cent. of the total foreign trade. As regards exports, the proportion between these two Provinces has remained almost uniform during the ten years; while as regards imports their relative positions have been reversed, so that Bombay now surpasses Bengal in the total of both exports and imports. In 1873-74, the total foreign trade of Bengal amounted to 40,137,530 £, or 42.58 per cent. of the aggregate foreign trade of India; while the trade of Bombay amounted to 36,388,538 £ or 38.58 per cent. In 1882-83 these proportions were practically reversed. In that year the total foreign trade of Bengal amounted to 57,851,478 £., or 39.13 per cent. of the aggregate foreign trade of India; while the trade of Bombay amounted to 61,981,774 £., or 41.92 per cent. This change of position is entirely due to an increase in the imports of treasure into Bombay. As regards merchandise alone, Bengal still stands first in imports as well as exports, though Bombay has largely benefited in the last few years by the opening of direct railway communication with Delhi. It must also be stated that the Bombay totals are swollen by the double inclusion of imports that are intended to be re-exported to various places in the Indian Ocean. As regards the minor Provinces, Madras shows a relative decline in exports more than in imports; while both Burma and Sind have increased largely.

VI.—FOREIGN TRADE according to Provinces, 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	IMPORTS.				EXPORTS.			
	1873-74.		1882-83.		1873-74.		1882-83.	
	Value.	Percentage of Total.	Value.	Percentage of Total.	Value.	Percentage of Total.	Value.	Percentage of Total.
	£.		£.		£.		£.	
Bengal	16,935,702	45.26	28,418,430	36.90	23,201,828	40.82	34,433,049	40.81
British Burma	1,839,095	4.91	3,772,887	5.95	3,480,407	6.13	7,099,525	8.34
Madras	3,638,117	9.72	4,928,956	7.77	7,258,147	12.77	6,382,488	9.04
Bombay	14,724,967	39.35	30,116,868	47.46	21,603,571	38.11	31,864,908	37.76
Sind	283,150	.76	1,219,059	1.92	1,235,904	2.17	2,081,754	3.15

Foreign Trade of Principal Ports.

Table VII. gives the foreign trade of the five principal ports in India in 1882-83, with the corresponding figures for 1875-76. These five ports share between them about 94 per cent. of the aggregate trade of India. It will be seen that the trade of the port of Bombay is practically identical with that of the Province; while in Bengal, Chittagong and the Orissa ports add about 1,000,000 £. to the trade of Calcutta. Karachi is identical with Sind; while the port of Madras possesses 61 per cent. of the total trade of the Presidency, and Rangoon 75 per cent. of the trade of Burma. Comparing the trade of the several ports in 1882-83 with 1875-76, it will be seen that though all show an increase, their relative positions have altered. Bombay now stands first, having precisely changed places with Calcutta as regards the percentage of the total trade; while Rangoon presses hard upon Madras.

VII.—FOREIGN TRADE of the FIVE PRINCIPAL PORTS, 1875-76 and 1882-83.

	1875-76.		1882-83.	
	Value.	Per-centage of Total.	Value.	Per-centage of Total.
	£.		£.	
Bombay	39,611,296	36.52	61,937,440	41.91
Calcutta	42,123,869	42.04	56,798,162	38.42
Madras	6,172,861	6.02	8,139,771	5.51
Rangoon	3,731,551	3.64	7,984,972	5.40
Karachi	2,005,079	2.00	3,880,784	2.62

Table VIII.

Table VIII. gives the total seaborne trade, coasting as well as foreign, of the ten principal ports in India in 1882-83. By the addition of the coasting trade, Bombay is placed yet further ahead of Calcutta, while Rangoon takes precedence of Madras. At Maulmain and Akyab in Burma, at Chittagong in Bengal, and at Coconada in Madras, the coasting trade is larger than the foreign; and at Karachi it is almost equal.

Total Trade of Principal Ports.

VIII.—SEABORNE TRADE, FOREIGN and COASTING, of the TEN PRINCIPAL PORTS, 1882-83.

	Foreign.	Coasting.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
Bombay	61,957,440	17,812,292	79,269,732
Calcutta	56,798,162	9,679,751	66,477,913
Rangoon	7,984,972	4,739,828	12,724,800
Madras	8,139,771	1,561,761	9,701,532
Karachi	3,880,784	3,193,612	7,074,396
Maulmain	1,020,119	1,752,388	2,772,506
Chittagong	941,855	1,424,174	2,366,029
Akyab	845,871	1,024,779	1,870,650
Coconada	756,998	980,748	1,737,046
Tuticoria	1,289,182	309,317	1,598,499

Table IX. shows the distribution, according to principal countries, of the foreign trade in 1882-83, with the corresponding figures for 1873-74. The trade of India with other countries of Asia and Africa does not show many important variations; with both the United States and Australia there is a satisfactory increase; while as regards Europe, the general tendency is for the Continent to gain at the expense of the United Kingdom, especially in exports. In 1873-74, the total trade of India with the United Kingdom (including both imports and exports) amounted to 56,736,660 £., or 61.25 per cent. of the aggregate foreign trade. In 1882-83 the trade with the United Kingdom had risen to 81,770,117 £., but the proportion to the total had fallen to 55.31 per cent. The change is yet more marked if the imports and exports are separated. In 1873-74, the imports from the United Kingdom amounted to 28,904,389 £., being 77.24 per cent. of the total imports; in 1882-83 they had risen to 46,149,633 £., or by 59 per cent., but the proportion to the total had fallen to 72.55 per cent. In 1873-74, the exports to the United Kingdom amounted to 28,832,281 £., being 50.73 per cent. of the total exports; in 1882-83 they had risen to 35,620,484 £., or by 24 per cent., but the proportion to the total had fallen to 42.21 per cent. The main cause of this relative decline in the trade of India with the United Kingdom is the opening of the Suez Canal, which has tended to diminish the importance of London as a central mart of Eastern produce. The ports in the Mediterranean first felt the advantage of the new route, but no European country has advanced so rapidly as regards Indian trade in the last few years as Belgium. Egypt, Malta, and Gibraltar have also grown into importance in the returns of Indian exports, as places of call for which steamers clear, to be subsequently ordered to any European port where their cargoes may be wanted. During the ten years between 1873-74 and 1882-83, the direct exports to France have increased from 3,134,078 £. to 7,221,869 £., or from 5.51 to 8.56 of the total exports; the exports to Italy have increased from 1,319,579 £. to 3,383,507 £., or from 2.32 to 4.01 per cent. of the total; the exports to Austria (i.e. Trieste) have increased from 939,053 £. to 2,602,556 £., or from 1.65 to 3.08 per cent. of the total; the exports to Belgium have increased from practically nil to 2,151,728 £., or 2.55 per cent. of the total; the exports to Egypt (which are not really landed there) have increased from 55,788 £. to 2,113,512 £., or from .10 to 2.50 per cent. As regards imports into

Distribution of Foreign Trade according to Countries.

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India from the countries on the continent of Europe, the increase during the past ten years is comparatively insignificant, except in the case of treasure, which is now shipped in considerable amounts from Italy and Austria.

Foreign Trade
with British
Possessions.

In Table IX. the countries have been arranged geographically. If, however, they are divided into British possessions and foreign countries, the preponderance of the trade of India with British possessions is rendered very marked, for British possessions include Hong Kong (where three-fourths of the trade with China is concentrated), the Straits Settlements, Ceylon, Australasia, and Mauritius. In 1873-74 the trade of India with British possessions excluding treasure) amounted to 71,383,945 l., or 82.48 per cent. of the total; in 1882-83 the trade with British possessions amounted to 99,698,603 l., or 74.73 per cent. of the total; but this relative decline is entirely in exports. In imports from British possessions the actual increase in the ten years is from 28,625,146 l. to 45,868,398 l., and the relative increase is from 90.52 to 91.73 per cent. In the exports to British possessions, while there is an actual increase from 44,758,799 l. to 53,830,205 l., there is a relative decrease from 81.38 to 64.30 per cent.

IX.—FOREIGN TRADE, according to PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES, 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	IMPORTS.				EXPORTS.			
	1873-74.		1882-83.		1873-74.		1882-83.	
	Value.	Percentage of Total.	Value.	Percentage of Total.	Value.	Percentage of Total.	Value.	Percentage of Total.
EUROPE:	£.		£.		£.		£.	
United Kingdom - - -	28,904,389	77.24	46,149,633	72.55	29,832,231	50.73	35,620,484	42.21
Austria - - - - -	93,254	.25	614,548	.97	939,059	1.65	2,602,556	3.08
Belgium - - - - -	13	.	78,484	.12	-	.	2,151,728	2.55
France - - - - -	362,333	.94	535,949	.84	3,134,078	5.51	7,221,869	8.56
Germany - - - - -	29,423	0.6	91,448	.14	60,145	.11	517,705	.61
Holland - - - - -	14,116	0.4	18,462	.03	238,490	.42	452,777	.54
Italy - - - - -	338,995	.91	2,026,297	3.19	1,319,570	2.32	3,883,507	4.61
Malta - - - - -	663	.	11,803	.02	15,995	.03	755,139	.90
AFRICA:								
Zanzibar* - - - -	181,747	.48	285,438	.45	251,040	.44	470,420	.56
Egypt - - - - -	29,071	.08	291,999	.46	55,788	.10	2,118,512	2.50
Mauritius - - - -	442,489	1.18	885,606	1.40	948,731	1.73	502,669	.60
AMERICA:								
United States † - -	98,205	.26	934,342	1.47	1,925,222	3.21	3,349,219	3.99
ASIA:								
Aden - - - - -	168,435	.45	143,680	.23	381,406	.67	577,572	.68
Arabia (Red Sea Ports)	416,448	1.11	731,635	1.15	265,056	.46	836,631	.98
Ceylon - - - - -	890,511	2.40	877,412	1.38	2,822,794	4.97	1,861,736	2.21
China - - - - -	3,122,163	8.34	4,505,781	7.10	11,500,632	20.24	13,179,249	15.62
Persia - - - - -	847,786	2.27	760,340	1.21	1,244,617	2.19	1,298,036	1.54
Straits Settlements -	1,000,340	2.67	1,673,131	2.64	2,003,706	3.53	3,667,340	4.33
Turkey in Asia - - -	2,732	.01	635,165	1.00	44,453	.08	428,612	.50
AUSTRALASIA - - -	345,537	.92	1,902,274	3.00	215,409	.36	1,088,916	1.29

* In 1873-74, Madagascar and Mozambique included with Zanzibar.

† In 1873-74, Canada and South and Central America included with United States.

Vessels engaged in
Foreign Trade.

Table X. shows the number and tonnage of the vessels by which the foreign trade of India was carried in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83, distinguishing the steam from the sailing vessels. Comparing the first year of the period with the last, the number of vessels that either entered or cleared, with cargo or in ballast, has decreased by 1,024, or 8 per cent., while their tonnage

tonnage has increased by 2,424,474 tons, or 52 per cent. In other words the average tonnage of each vessel has increased from 365 to 604 tons. Taking steam vessels alone, the number has increased since 1874-75 by 1,467 or 90 per cent., the tonnage by 2,228,613 tons, or 119 per cent. and the average tonnage from 1,151 tons to 1,325 tons. The number of sailing vessels has decreased since 1873-74 by 2,289, or 21 per cent., while the tonnage has remained practically stationary, and the average tonnage has increased from 273 to 345 tons. It was not until 1880-81 that the total tonnage of the steam vessels for the first time exceeded the total tonnage of the sailing vessels; but it is noticeable that the progress of steam has been attended with no absolute decline in the employment of sailing ships. On 1st April 1882 a change was made in the system of registering the statistics of navigation in India, by which an apparent decrease was caused in the number of vessels in the foreign trade. According to the former system, if a vessel engaged in the foreign trade touched at more than one Indian port in succession, it was entered more than once in the returns. It is now entered, beginning with 1882-83, only once in the foreign returns, its other voyage or voyages being entered in the coasting returns. The decrease, therefore, in the figures for 1882-83, as compared with the previous year, is only nominal.

X.—VESSELS ENTERED and CLEARED in the FOREIGN TRADE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Steam.		Sailing.		TOTAL.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
1873-74	-	-	-	-	12,739	4,647,410
1874-75	1,627	1,872,451	10,810	2,953,091	12,437	4,825,542
1875-76	2,018	2,244,200	10,449	3,184,786	12,460	5,428,986
1876-77	2,125	2,359,096	10,639	3,274,948	12,764	4,634,042
1877-78	2,267	2,554,879	10,274	3,209,512	12,537	5,764,391
1878-79	2,144	2,427,085	9,582	2,039,649	11,726	5,306,734
1879-80	2,499	2,820,907	9,721	2,876,145	12,160	5,708,087
1880-81	2,930	3,528,797	9,366	2,940,289	12,305	6,469,036
1881-82	3,688	4,573,976	9,054	2,794,910	12,742	7,368,886
1882-83	3,064	4,104,064	8,621	2,970,820	11,715	7,071,884

Table XI. gives details of the vessels that entered and cleared in the foreign trade in 1882-83, classified into British, British Indian, Native, and Foreign. The three first classes make up together no less than 83 per cent. of the total tonnage. Of the total foreign tonnage Italy possessed 24 per cent., Germany 13 per cent., France 16 per cent., Austria 12 per cent., Norway 9 per cent., and America 7 per cent. Since 1873-74 the total British tonnage has increased by 71 per cent., the native tonnage by 115 per cent., and the foreign tonnage by 47 per cent., while the British Indian tonnage has decreased by 43 per cent.

Nationality of Vessels in Foreign Trade.

XI.—NATIONALITY of VESSELS ENTERED and CLEARED in the FOREIGN TRADE, 1882-83.

	Entered.		Cleared.		TOTAL.		Average Tonnage.	Percentage of Total Tonnage.
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.		
British	2,126	2,686,523	2,131	2,680,247	4,257	5,366,770	1,261	76
British Indian	1,302	189,197	1,223	171,992	2,525	361,189	143	5
Native	1,514	87,631	1,585	86,001	3,000	173,632	57	2
Foreign	922	575,527	912	592,766	1,834	1,168,293	637	17
Total	5,864	3,538,878	5,851	3,533,006	11,715	7,071,884	604	

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Trade through
Suez Canal.

Table XII. shows the number and tonnage of the steamers engaged in the foreign trade of India that passed through the Suez Canal in each of the nine years 1874-75 to 1882-83. Comparing the first year of the period with the last, the number has increased by exactly 100 per cent., while the tonnage has increased by 129 per cent., the average tonnage of each steamer having risen from 1,378 to 1,560 tons. In the same period the proportion of steamers that passed through the Suez Canal to the total number of steamers engaged in the foreign trade increased by only 2 per cent., with an increase of 2 per cent. also in tonnage. But if we take the value of the trade that passed through the Suez Canal as compared with the value of the total trade (as shown in Table XIII.), it will be seen that the Suez Canal proportion has increased by nearly 8 per cent. in eight years. But even this statement fails to exhibit the actual use made of the Suez Canal by the trade of India. That is shown in Table XIV., which is limited to that portion of the total trade which alone could pass through the Canal. In 1882-83 no less than 86.61 of the trade (excluding treasure) that might take that route actually did so, the proportion having risen by 13.21 per cent. within five years. Of the treasure as much as 90.25 per cent. passed through the Canal.

XII.—STEAMERS CLEARED and ENTERED through the SUEZ CANAL, 1874-75 to 1882-83.

	Number.	Tonnage.	Per-centage to Total Number of Steamers.	Per-centage to Total Tonnage of Steamers.	Average Tonnage of each Steamer.
1874-75	822	1,133,968	51	51	<i>Tons.</i> 1,378
1875-76	1,005	1,440,270	50	54	1,438
1876-77	1,040	1,518,690	50	54	1,460
1877-78	1,187	1,617,889	49	54	1,428
1878-79	941	1,426,067	44	50	1,516
1879-80	1,067	1,609,760	44	57	1,509
1880-81	1,459	2,133,822	50	60	1,468
1881-82	1,989	2,867,988	54	63	1,458
1882-83	1,845	2,515,920	53	63	1,560

XIII.—VALUE of FOREIGN TRADE through the SUEZ CANAL, 1875-76 to 1882-83.

	£.	Per-centage to Total.
1875-76	55,640,857	54.23
1876-77	60,243,280	53.94
1877-78	66,260,719	54.10
1878-79	53,398,876	48.64
1879-80	63,038,281	51.64
1880-81	81,203,246	68.79
1881-82	86,092,789	61.39
1882-83	93,436,008	62.25

XIV.—PROPORTION of FOREIGN TRADE (excluding Treasure) through the SUEZ CANAL to Total that might take that Route, 1878-79 to 1882-83.

1878-79	-	-	-	-	-	-	73.40
1879-80	-	-	-	-	-	-	78.23
1880-81	-	-	-	-	-	-	82.43
1881-82	-	-	-	-	-	-	85.20
1882-83	-	-	-	-	-	-	86.61

Before considering the imports and exports in detail, it is necessary to mention that great changes have been made in the Customs tariff during the ten years under review. As regards imports, there was in 1873-74 a general Customs duty of 7½ per cent. *ad valorem* levied on all articles except those specially free, the most important dutiable articles being cotton manufactures, metals, and sugar. In 1875, the general rate of import duty was reduced from 7½ to 5 per cent. In 1878, and again in 1879, modifications were made in the duty on cotton manufactures, with a view to free those kinds that came into competition with similar kinds made in India. Finally, in 1882, all import duties were abolished, except those on arms, liquors, opium, and salt. As regards exports, there was in 1873-74 a general Customs duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem*, levied on most articles. In 1875, all exports were freed, except rice, indigo, and lac. In 1880, indigo and lac were also placed on the free list, leaving, as the sole remaining export duty, that of 4½ *d.* per *maund* (say 6 *d.* per cwt.) on rice.

Changes in Customs Tariff.

The value of the principal imports of private merchandise in 1882-83, as compared with 1873-74, has already been given in Table IV. It is now proposed to examine in greater detail every article of import of which the value exceeds 500,000 *l.*

IMPORTS.

The imports of apparel have increased from 578,220 *l.* in 1873-74, to 769,752 *l.* in 1882-83, or by 33 per cent., with considerable fluctuations within the period. They consist mainly of millinery and haberdashery, intended for the European population; and they come from the United Kingdom, France, Russia, and the Straits Settlements.

Apparel.

Books, paper, and stationery have increased from 475,027 *l.*, to 625,431 *l.*, or by 45 per cent. Here, again, the figures show considerable fluctuations within the period, which are to be explained partly by changes of system, according to which stationery on Government account was at one time imported from England as Government stores, and at another time bought by contract in India. The value of books alone imported in 1882-83 was 143,551 *l.*, which of course does not include those sent through the post.

Books, Paper, and Stationery.

The quantity and value of coal, coke, &c., imported in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83 are shown in the following table:—

Coal, Coke, &c.

IMPORTS of COAL, &c., 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.	£.
1873-74	359,903	740,026
1874-75	330,997	680,468
1875-76	383,429	665,535
1876-77	519,749	981,710
1877-78	601,257	1,008,155
1878-79	475,960	889,477
1879-80	567,928	1,188,208
1880-81	688,768	1,289,656
1881-82	637,124	1,020,044
1882-83	628,284	1,019,883

In the period of ten years the imports have increased in quantity by 74 per cent., and in value by 38 per cent., the average value per ton having fallen from 2 *l.* 1 *s.* to 1 *l.* 12 *s.* In 1882-83, out of the total quantity, 6,850 tons were coke, and 6,687 tons were patent fuel.

Cotton Manufactures.

Adding together twist and piece goods, the total value of all cotton manufactures imported into India has increased from 17,784,625 *l.* in 1873-74 to 24,820,592 *l.* in 1882-83, or by 39 per cent. But while the actual amount has thus increased, the proportion that cotton manufactures bear to the aggregate value of merchandise imported has declined in recent years. In 1860-61 it was 47 per cent.; in 1870-71 it reached its maximum of 57 per cent.; while in 1882-83 it had fallen again to 47 per cent. The total imports of cotton manufactures in 1883-83 were in the proportion of 1 *s.* 11 *d.* per head of the total population of India, under British administration and in Native States.

Cotton Twist and Yarn.

The quantity and value of cotton twist and yarn imported in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83 are shown in the following table:—

IMPORTS OF COTTON TWIST AND YARN, 1873-74 TO 1882-83.

		Quantity.	Value.
		<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£.</i>
1873-74	- - - -	30,678,815	2,628,950
1874-75	- - - -	37,097,260	3,157,760
1875-76	- - - -	31,927,340	2,794,260
1876-77	- - - -	33,270,208	2,733,314
1877-78	- - - -	36,194,125	2,856,403
1878-79	- - - -	33,145,661	2,779,772
1879-80	- - - -	33,212,952	2,745,306
1880-81	- - - -	45,870,575	3,699,177
1881-82	- - - -	40,761,751	3,222,065
1882-83	- - - -	44,859,175	3,378,190

It will be seen that the imports reached their maximum in 1880-81 by a sudden bound. Taking the whole period of 10 years, they have increased in quantity by 47 per cent. and in value by 28 per cent., the average value per lb. having fallen from 1 *s.* 9 *d.* to 1 *s.* 6 *d.* Of the total imports in 1882-83 Madras and Bengal each took 30 per cent. in value, Bombay 27 per cent. (of which a small portion was re-exported), and Burma 11 per cent. By far the greater part of the imports consists of "counts" exceeding 40s in fineness, and therefore does not come into competition with the lower "counts" spun in the Bombay mills.

Other Cotton Manufactures.

The total value of other cotton manufactures (including thread) has increased from 15,155,666 *l.* in 1873-74 to 21,431,872 *l.* in 1882-83, or by 41 per cent. As with twist, the imports reached their maximum in 1880-81. Of the total imports of cotton piece goods of all kinds in 1882-83, Bengal took 53 per cent., Bombay 35 per cent. (of which a considerable portion was re-exported), Madras 8 per cent., and Burma 4 per cent.

Cotton Grey Goods.

The quantity and value of grey or unbleached piece goods (by far the most important kind) imported in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83 is shown in the following table:—

IMPORTS OF GREY PIECE GOODS, 1873-74 TO 1882-83.

		Quantity.	Value.
		<i>Yards.</i>	<i>£.</i>
1873-74	- - - -	768,829,000	10,041,879
1874-75	- - - -	877,802,000	11,875,536
1875-76	- - - -	856,534,622	10,689,712
1876-77	- - - -	840,606,329	10,125,259
1877-78	- - - -	892,537,579	11,562,853
1878-79	- - - -	775,120,894	8,848,845
1879-80	- - - -	908,630,133	10,391,903
1880-81	- - - -	1,170,553,819	13,545,933
1881-82	- - - -	1,098,468,695	12,894,877
1882-83	- - - -	1,086,286,672	12,650,397

It will be seen that the imports dropped heavily in 1878-79, and reached their maximum in 1880-81. Taking the whole period of ten years, they have increased in quantity by 41 per cent. and in value by 26 per cent., the average value per yard having fallen from 3·1 *d.* to 2·8 *d.* Bengal takes more than three-fifths of the total imports of grey piece goods.

Of white piece goods, the imports in 1882-83 amounted to 233,373,431 yards, valued at 3,307,199 *l.* The increase in the last five years has been 21 per cent. in quantity and 29 per cent. in value. A little more than half of the total is taken by Bengal, while of the remainder it is noteworthy that Burma takes twice as much as Madras.

✓ Cotton White Goods.

Of coloured piece goods, the imports in 1882-83 amounted to 320,935,918 yards, valued at 4,999,243 *l.* The increase in the last five years has been 101 per cent. in quantity, and 93 per cent. in value. The greater part of the total is taken by Bombay and Madras.

✓ Cotton Coloured Goods.

Hardware, cutlery, and plated ware were not distinguished from metals until 1875-76. In that year the imports were valued at 475,338 *l.*, as compared with 791,791 *l.* in 1882-83. The increase, therefore, in eight years, has been 67 per cent.

Hardware, Cutlery, and Plated Ware.

The importation of malt liquors shows a considerable decrease, which becomes yet more marked when the importation on Government account is included. The following table gives the quantity and value on both accounts in 1873-74 and 1882-83.

Malt Liquors.

IMPORTS of MALT LIQUORS, 1873-74 and 1882-83

	1873-74.		1882-83.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Gallons.	£.	Gallons.	£.
Private - - - - -	1,435,845	837,016	1,170,554	272,823
Government - - - - -	2,787,210	146,825	1,486,234	91,493
TOTAL - - -	4,222,555	484,741	2,656,788	364,316

In the ten years, the total imports have decreased in quantity by 37 per cent., and in value by 25 per cent., the cheaper beer imported on Government account having decreased much more than the private imports. As stated in a previous chapter, the Bengal Commissariat Department purchased 1,699,914 gallons of Indian brewed beer in 1882.

The importation of spirits, on the other hand, shows an increase on both private and Government account. The following table gives the quantity and value in 1873-74 and 1882-83.

IMPORTS of SPIRITS, 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	1873-74.		1882-83.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Gallons.	£.	Gallons.	£.
Private - - - - -	608,824	488,597	949,169	674,069
Government - - - - -	58,231	9,041	91,629	45,923
TOTAL - - -	667,075	497,638	1,040,798	720,992

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In the ten years the total imports have increased in quantity by 56 per cent., and in value by 45 per cent.

Wines, Liqueurs,
etc.

The importation of wines, liqueurs, &c., shows, like that of beer, a considerable decrease, which has been especially marked during the last three years. Between 1873-74 and 1882-83 the decrease in quantity has been 25 per cent., and the decrease in value 19 per cent. The wines imported on Government account are insignificant.

Machinery and
Millwork.

The imports of machinery and millwork vary considerably, the maximum having been reached in 1875-76 and the minimum in 1879-80. But comparing 1873-74 with 1882-83, the increase is 34 per cent.

Metals.

Metals show a greater increase than any other of the large items of the import trade; and the increase would appear yet greater if hardware, &c., were excluded from the returns of the first two years. Taking all the metals together, the total increase in value between 1873-74 and 1882-83 has been 164 per cent. Excluding the first two years of the decade, when hardware was included among metals, and when also the returns of quantity were incomplete, all the metals, except quicksilver, show increases both in quantity and value, as in the following table.

INCREASE OR DECREASE per cent. in the Imports of METALS, 1875-76 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
Iron - - - - -	+ 51	+ 31
Steel - - - - -	+ 159	+ 80
Brass - - - - -	+ 60	+ 33
Copper - - - - -	+ 91	+ 60
Spelter - - - - -	+ 115	+ 52
Tin - - - - -	+ 18	+ 64
Lead - - - - -	+ 103	+ 00
Quicksilver - - - - -	- 66	- 66
Unenumerated - - - - -	-	- 9
TOTAL - - - - -		+ 43

IRON.

Of iron, the imports in 1882-83 amounted to 3,151,935 cwts., valued at 1,870,494*l.* Excepting 192,000 cwts. of cast iron and old iron for re-manufacture, the whole was manufactured iron of sorts—bar, angle, bolt, rod, hoop, galvanized, sheet and plate, wire, beams, girders, columns, pipes, tubes, rice-bowls, nails, screws, rivets, &c. Belgium sent 65,066 cwts.; the rest came from England. Of the old iron for re-manufacture, the greater part was imported into Madras from Ceylon.

Steel.

Of steel, the imports in 1882-83 amounted to 212,900 cwts., valued at 163,415 *l.* Excepting less than 6,000 cwts. of Belgian steel, the whole came from England. Steel of inferior quality is taking the place of iron for hooping cotton bales and other packages.

Copper.

Of copper, the imports in 1882-83 amounted to 450,098 cwts., valued at 1,938,376 *l.* About three-fourths of the total come from England, and the remainder from Australia, China, and Japan. The copper is used for the manufacture of domestic utensils, and is mostly imported in the form of mixed or yellow metal for sheeting and sheets.

Zinc.

Of spelter or zinc, the imports in 1882-83 amounted to 127,383 cwts., valued at 125,669 *l.* Nearly the whole came from England. It is used for mixing with copper.

Tin.

Of tin, the imports in 1882-83 amounted to 42,718 cwts., valued at 277,306 *l.* The whole comes from the Straits Settlements in the form of block tin. Like spelter, it is used for mixing with copper in the manufacture of domestic utensils.

Of

Of lead, the imports in 1882-83 amounted to 73,583 cwts., valued at 101,104*l.* Nearly the whole comes from England. More than one-half is in the form of sheets for lining tea-chests, the rest is pig lead, pipes, sheets, tubes, &c.

The imports of oils show the immense increase of 1,469 per cent. This is mainly due to the rapid introduction of kerosine oil from the United States, the imports of which have increased nearly sevenfold in quantity and more than fourfold in value during the last five years.

Of the total imports into India from the United States, no less than 92 per cent. consist of this single article of kerosine oil. A considerable amount of cocoanut oil is imported from Ceylon.

IMPORTS of MINERAL OIL from the United States, 1878-79 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
	Gallons.	£.
1878-79	3,020,810	210,791
1879-80	7,200,164	481,902
1880-81	9,513,173	454,945
1881-82	9,057,350	445,027
1882-83	20,122,965	868,963

The imports of provisions have increased from 372,867 *l.* to 1,087,186 *l.*, or by 191 per cent. This is a very miscellaneous heading, comprising dried fruits, salted fish, canned provisions of all sorts, butter, cheese, hams, bacon, &c. The largest item is dates, imported from the Persian Gulf to the value of 282,000 *l.* The quantity of salted fish imported was 10,621,929 lbs., chiefly from the Persian Gulf; but this trade has declined since the reduction of the salt duty in India. About 2,000,000 lbs. of flour are imported from the Straits Settlements and Hong-Kong into Rangoon and Calcutta; and about 500,000 lbs. of *ghi*, or clarified butter, into Bombay and Sind from the Persian Gulf.

The imports of railway plant and rolling stock are nearly equally divided between private merchandise and Government stores, as shown in the following table.

IMPORTS of RAILWAY MATERIALS, 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	1873-74.	1882-83.	Increase per Cent.
	£.	£.	
Private	439,339	1,116,434	154
Government	450,399	912,367	103
TOTAL	889,738	2,028,801	128

The imports of railway materials reached their maximum in 1880-81, when 1,117,765 *l.* was imported as private merchandise, and 1,624,924 *l.* as Government stores; total, 2,742,689 *l.*

The imports of salt have increased in quantity from 279,246 tons to 338,065 tons, or by 21 per cent; but they have decreased in value from 835,354 *l.* to 515,184 *l.*, or by 38 per cent., the average value per ton having fallen from 3 *l.* to 1 *l.* 10 *s.*, or just one half. Salt is imported only into Calcutta and Burma. The chief source of supply is England; but in 1882-83 Arabia sent 16,461 tons, Egypt (from the Red Sea ports) 7,069 tons, Germany 6,885 tons, and Italy (mainly from Cagliari) 6,683 tons. The value of the salt imported reached its maximum in 1873-74, the quantity reached its maximum (373,376 tons) in 1880-81.

Raw Silk.

The imports and exports of raw silk may conveniently be treated together, for they prove that India, instead of being an exporting country, is now compelled to import for her own consumption. The following table shows the change that has taken place in the trade during the past ten years.

IMPORTS and EXPORTS of RAW SILK, 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	1873-74.		1882-83.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Imports - - - - -	<i>Lbs.</i> 2,282,758	£. 786,914	<i>Lbs.</i> 2,386,160	£. 1,074,166
Exports - - - - -	2,392,230	1,225,599	1,523,345	596,838
Excess Exports - - - - -	109,472	438,685	—	—
Excess Imports - - - - -	—	—	862,805	477,313

The imports of raw silk have increased in quantity 4 per cent., and in value 36 per cent., the average value per lb. having risen from 6*s.* 11*d.* to 9*s.* The imports came almost entirely from China, and they are taken almost entirely by Bombay, for the use of the mills. In 1882-83, Burma took 212,000 lbs., or 9 per cent of the total.

The exports of raw silk from India reached their maximum in the four years 1867-68 to 1870-71, when the value averaged about 1,450,000 *l.* a year. They reached their minimum in 1881-82, when the value was only 443,427 *l.*, or less than one-third of the maximum. Comparing the first year of the decennial period with the last, the exports of raw silk have decreased in quantity 41 per cent., and in value 51 per cent., the average price per lb. having fallen from 10*s.* 3*d.* to 7*s.* 10*d.* The exports for 1882-83, given above, include re-exports amounting to 163,912 lbs., valued at 52,695 *l.* The exports proper amounted to 1,359,433 lbs., valued at 544,143 *l.*, of which 857,857 lbs., or 63 per cent. consisted of *chasam*; or waste, and cocoons, and 501,576 lbs., or 37 per cent., of fairly reeled silk. The exports are despatched almost entirely from Bengal.

Silk Manufactures.

The imports of silk manufactures have increased in quantity from 5,419,646 yards to 9,671,261 yards, or by 78 per cent.; and in value from 608,374 *l.* to 977,768 *l.*, or by 36 per cent., the average price per yard having fallen from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* The trade reached its maximum in 1880-81, when the imports amounted to 13,574,085 yards, valued at 1,350,384 *l.* Of the total imports in 1882-83 Burma took 443,690 *l.*, or 45 per cent., being at the rate of 2*s.* 5*d.* per head of the population; Bombay 431,106 *l.*, or 44 per cent.; Bengal 97,079 *l.*, or 10 per cent., and Madras only 5,893 *l.*

Spices.

The imports of spices have increased in quantity from 26,149,088 lbs. to 33,463,969 lbs., or by 28 per cent., and in value from 150,562 *l.* to 510,854 *l.*, or by 240 per cent. But this increase took place almost entirely in the first five years of the period, and the trade reached its maximum in 1880-81. About two-thirds of the spices imported are betel-nuts, which are brought from Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, and Sumatra. Cloves are also imported from Zanzibar to Bombay, and pepper from the Straits to Bengal. It is noteworthy that the total imports of spices into India exceed the total exports. The re-exports in 1882-83 were valued at 40,480 *l.*, consisting almost entirely of cloves.

Sugar.

The imports and exports of sugar may conveniently be treated together, for they show that though India still imports a larger value of sugar than she exports, her exports are already larger in quantity, and are increasing at a faster rate, than her imports. The imports are almost entirely of refined sugar, the exports of unrefined.

The imports of sugar have increased in quantity from 435,570 cwts. in 1873-74, to 672,672 cwts. in 1882-83, or by 54 per cent., and in value from 558,978 *l.* to 1,086,961 *l.*, or by 95 per cent., the average value per cwt. having risen from 1 *l.* 6*s.*, to 1 *l.* 11*s.* But this increase took place entirely in the first six years of the period; since 1880-81 there has been a marked decrease. About five-sixths of the total imports come from Mauritius and are taken by Bombay; the remainder comes from China, Java, and the Straits, and the larger portion of it is taken by Burma.

The

The exports of sugar have increased in quantity from 337,465 cwts. in 1873-74, to 1,428,360 cwts. in 1882-83, or by 324 per cent.; and in value from 281,743 l. to 989,069 l., or by 251 per cent., the average value per cwt. having fallen from 16 s. 9 d. to 13 s. 10 d. The rate of increase has been very irregular, the maximum value having been reached in 1876-77; but 1882-83 is by far the highest in value of any subsequent year, and considerably exceeds even that year in quantity. The re-exports of sugar in 1882-83 were valued at 180,293 l.; of the exports proper 678,643 l., or 84 per cent., was unrefined sugar, and 130,133 l., or 16 per cent., was refined sugar. The former is exported chiefly from Madras to England, to be there refined or used in brewing; the latter is exported from Calcutta, chiefly to England, Arabia, and Ceylon. There is also a considerable export coastwise of refined sugar from Calcutta to Bombay.

The imports of woollen manufactures have increased from 668,911 l. to 984,873 l., or by 47 per cent. They reached their maximum of 1,299,130 l. in 1880-81. By far the most important class is piece goods, which have increased in quantity from 6,068,538 yards to 6,932,779 yards, or by 14 per cent.; and in value from 582,614 l. to 775,205 l., or by 33 per cent. The comparative increase in value is really greater than appears from these figures, for a certain amount that cannot be estimated in yards is included in the quantity for 1873-74, but not in the value. Of the total imports of woollen manufactures in 1882-83, Bengal took 462,483 l., or 47 per cent.; Bombay 372,772 l., or 38 per cent.; Burma 186,957 l., or 20 per cent.; and Madras 54,175 l., or 5 per cent.

Table XIV. shows the re-exports of imported merchandise in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83. Every year of the series except the second marks an increase; the total increase in the ten years being 51 per cent.

XIV.—RE-EXPORTS of Imported MERCHANDISE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	£.
1873-74 - - - - -	1,846,359
1874-75 - - - - -	1,811,170
1875-76 - - - - -	1,833,161
1876-77 - - - - -	2,081,563
1877-78 - - - - -	2,042,180
1878-79 - - - - -	2,185,682
1879-80 - - - - -	2,222,327
1880-81 - - - - -	2,557,214
1881-82 - - - - -	2,646,717
1882-83 - - - - -	2,802,710

Table XV. enumerates the principal articles of imported merchandise that were re-exported in 1882-83, with the corresponding figures for 1873-74.

XV.—RE-EXPORTS of Imported MERCHANDISE, 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	1873-74.	1882-83.	Increase or Decrease per Cent.
	£.	£.	
Apparel - - - - -	42,619	53,545	+ 2
Cotton Twist - - - - -	62,732	57,645	+ 9
Cotton manufactures - - - - -	1,089,613	1,331,582	+ 22
Drugs and Medicines - - - - -	40,998	34,364	- 16
Gums - - - - -	29,375	50,251	+ 71
Ivory, and manufactures of - - - - -	95,887	106,212	+ 11
Metals - - - - -	60,899	133,094	+ 133
Provisions - - - - -	102,331	85,171	- 7
Raw Silk - - - - -	46,690	52,695	+ 12
Spices - - - - -	21,379	40,480	+ 89
Sugar - - - - -	104,716	180,293	+ 71
Wool, raw - - - - -	23,200	212,427	+ 816

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The re-export trade consists mainly in the export from Bombay of Manchester cottons and other European goods to the neighbouring coasts of Arabia, Persia, and Africa; and in the export, also from Bombay, of articles sent from those coasts, and from China and Mauritius. Of the total re-exports in 1882-83 cotton manufactures of all kinds formed 50 per cent.

Imports of Government Stores.

Table XVI. gives the imports of Government stores in 1882-83, with the corresponding figures for 1873-74. The total shows a slight decrease in the ten years, which is more than accounted for by the importation of rice in 1873-74 on account of the Bengal famine. The more exact classification in 1882-83 prevents any profitable comparison of the several items in the two years. It will be seen, however, that the imports of railway materials on Government account have increased twofold.

XVI.—DETAILS OF IMPORTS OF GOVERNMENT STORES, 1873-74 and 1882-83.

	1873-74.	1882-83.
	£.	£.
Arms, Ammunition, &c. - - -	338,301	104,430
Coal - - - - -	2,070	23,436
Rice - - - - -	198,589	-
Drugs - - - - -	-	6,868
Leather - - - - -	-	36,698
Liquors - - - - -	156,486	129,148
Machinery - - - - -	-	33,452
Metal and Hardware - - -	-	284,562
Paper, Stationery, &c. - -	-	129,141
Railway Materials - - -	450,899	912,367
Telegraph Materials - - -	45,628	89,285
Woollen Goods - - - - -	-	91,628
Other Articles - - - - -	999,568	293,766
TOTAL - - - £.	2,191,331	2,092,670

EXPORTS.

The value of the principal exports of private merchandise in 1882-83, as compared with 1873-74, has already been given in Table V. It is now proposed to examine in greater detail every article of export of which the value exceeds 500,000 £.

Among the exports no single article possesses the preponderance that cotton manufactures do among the imports. Raw cotton continues to occupy the first place, but it is closely pressed by grain, which has now passed opium; oilseeds come next, followed by jute, and at a distance by hides, indigo, tea, and native cotton manufactures. No other article of export exceeds 2,000,000 £.

Coffee.

The exports of coffee have remained fairly steady during the ten years; but while other exports have advanced so rapidly, to remain steady is relatively to decline. In 1873-74 the exports of coffee amounted to 367,132 cwts., valued at 1,499,496; in 1882-83 they amounted to 364,008 cwts., valued at 1,419,431 £. The decrease in quantity is less than 1 per cent., but the decrease in value is 5 per cent., the average value per cwt. having fallen from 4 £. 1 s. 8 d. to 3 £. 18 s. The quantity of coffee exported reached its maximum of 507,296 cwts. in 1871-72; the value reached its maximum of 1,633,395 £. in 1875-76. It is curious to find that in 1882-83 India imported coffee to the value of 75,255 £., of which 26,927 £. was again exported. It is also noteworthy that as much as 43,000 cwts. of Indian coffee were exported to Persia, Egypt, Turkey in Asia, and Mauritius. The bulk of the exports go to England.

Raw Cotton.

The exports of raw cotton have always been subject to great variations. They reached their maximum value at the time of the American War, when during the

the three years 1863-64 to 1865-66 they averaged about 36,500,000 *l.* a year. The maximum quantity of 7,225,411 cwts. was reached in 1871-72. The minimum both of quantity and value was reached in 1878-79; but there has since been a steady revival in the trade, until the quantity is now not much smaller than it was in the extreme period of inflation. The following table shows the exports of raw cotton, excluding re-exports, in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83 :—

EXPORTS OF RAW COTTON, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>£.</i>
1873-74	4,499,698	13,212,241
1874-75	5,600,086	15,257,342
1875-76	5,009,788	13,278,963
1876-77	4,557,914	11,746,184
1877-78	3,459,077	9,383,534
1878-79	2,966,660	7,913,046
1879-80	3,946,476	11,145,453
1880-81	4,541,539	13,241,734
1881-82	5,627,453	14,934,960
1882-83	6,168,278	16,049,017

Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the increase in quantity has been 39 per cent., and the increase in value 21 per cent., the average value per cwt. having fallen from 2 *l.* 19 *s.* to 2 *l.* 12 *s.* Of the total exports in 1882-83 2,891,444 cwts., or 47 per cent., were sent to the Continent, and about the same quantity to England, of which more than half is re-shipped to the Continent. China took 368,556 cwts., chiefly Bengal cotton. Bombay almost monopolises the cotton trade, her share in 1882-83 having been 82 per cent. of the whole.

The trade in cotton twist, the produce of the Bombay mills, is a creation of the last ten years. Since 1873-74 the exports have multiplied eighteen-fold in quantity and fourteen-fold in value. Of the total exports in 1882-83 China took 37,372,185 lbs., or 82 per cent.; Japan 5,600,600 lbs., or 12 per cent.; and Aden 1,266,210 lbs., or 3 per cent. Bombay monopolises this trade also, her share in 1882-83 having amounted to 94 per cent. of the whole. The following table shows the exports of Indian-made cotton twist in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83 :—

Indian Cotton
Twist.

EXPORTS OF INDIAN-MADE COTTON TWIST, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£.</i>
1873-74	2,464,852	128,386
1874-75	2,934,725	147,562
1875-76	6,328,511	266,951
1876-77	7,926,710	367,303
1877-78	15,800,291	682,058
1878-79	21,332,598	886,481
1879-80	25,862,474	1,109,224
1880-81	26,901,346	1,282,576
1881-82	30,786,304	1,368,830
1882-83	45,378,040	1,816,818

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India now exports a larger quantity of cotton twist than she imports, though the value of the imports still exceeds the value of the exports. In 1882-83, the imports of cotton twist amounted to 44,859,175 lbs., valued at 3,378,190 l.; but from this must be deducted the re-exports, amounting to 862,913 lbs., valued at 57,645 l. The net imports, therefore, amounted to 43,996,258 lbs., valued at 3,320,545 l. In the same year the exports of native-made cotton twist amounted to 45,378,040 lbs., valued at 1,816,818 l. In quantity, the exports exceeded the net imports by 1,381,782 lbs.; but in value, the net imports exceeded the exports by 1,503,727 l. (As already explained, the cotton twist imported is of finer "counts" than the twist made in the Indian mills, the average value per pound of the imports being returned at 1s. 6d., and of the exports at only 9½ d.)

Indian Cotton Piece Goods.

The trade in Indian cotton manufactures is now of less importance than the trade in twist. Between 1873-74 and 1882-83 the total exports of cotton piece goods (after deducting re-exports) increased from 384,938 l. to 729,387 l., or by 89 per cent. But these exports require to be sub-divided into grey goods, white goods, and coloured goods. It is only the first class that is made in the Bombay mills, and it is this class that has increased most largely. The following table shows the exports of Indian-made cotton grey goods in each of the six years 1877-78 to 1882-83:—

Cotton Grey Goods.

EXPORTS of Indian-made COTTON GREY GOODS, 1877-78 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.		Value.
		Yards.	£.
1877-78	- - - -	10,017,082	141,509
1878-79	- - - -	14,903,386	198,380
1879-80	- - - -	17,936,629	224,511
1880-81	- - - -	21,739,056	275,711
1881-82	- - - -	20,506,848	251,163
1882-83	- - - -	30,956,386	360,559

It will be seen that the trade suffered a check in 1881-82, which was compensated by a great advance in the following year. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the increase in quantity is 208 per cent., and the increase in value 155 per cent., the average value per yard having fallen from 3d. to 2 6d. In 1882-83, the average value of the imports of the same class was 2 8d. The Indian-made cotton grey goods are sent from Bombay, mostly to Aden, Zanzibar, Mozambique, and Arabia. Very little is sent to either China or Japan. In addition to the foreign exports, Bombay despatched coastwise in 1882-83 an equal quantity of grey goods (31,012,062 yards).

ton White Coloured goods.

Handloom

Both cotton white goods and coloured goods are made in handlooms. The white goods exported consist of fine muslins, but their total value is insignificant. The coloured goods exported in 1882-83 amounted to 10,454,382 yards, having increased by 44 per cent. in the last five years. In addition, nearly 6,000,000 yards were despatched coastwise. More than three-fifths of the total exports of coloured goods are sent from Madras, chiefly to Ceylon and the Straits Settlements. The remainder is despatched to Arabia, the Persian Gulf and the African Coast. The average value per yard of coloured goods is more than 2½ times larger than that of grey goods.

Indian Cotton manufactures.

Indigo.

The total value of the exports of Indian-made cotton manufactures of all kinds (including both twist and piece goods) has increased from 522,631 l. in 1873-74 to 2,578,383 l. in 1882-83, or by nearly fivefold.

The exports of indigo are liable to occasional fluctuations, but on the whole they have remained fairly steady throughout the ten years. The maximum both of quantity and value was reached in 1881-82. As compared with 1873-74 the exports of 1882-83 show an increase of 22 per cent. in quantity and of 10 per cent. in value, the average value per cwt. having fallen from 31 l. 10 s. to 28 l. 14 s. Of the total exports in 1882-83, England took 60,645 cwts., or 43 per cent., the remainder

remainder going to the United States, Egypt, France, Austria, Persia, and Turkey in Asia. Bengal despatched nearly 100,000 cwts., or 71 per cent. of the total, and Madras all the rest.

The total value of the exports of grain of all kinds (including both rice and wheat) has increased from 6,548,346 *l.* in 1873-74 to 14,862,267 in 1882-83, or by 127 per cent. In the former year grain formed only 12 per cent. of the total exports, in the latter year it formed more than 18 per cent.

The following table shows the exports of rice (including "paddy" or unhusked rice) in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83:—

EXPORTS OF RICE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Cwts.</i>	<i>£.</i>
1873-74 - - - -	20,245,385	5,549,798
1874-75 - - - -	17,892,988	4,765,334
1875-76 - - - -	20,416,032	5,311,095
1876-77 - - - -	19,914,334	5,315,221
1877-78 - - - -	18,428,625	6,950,386
1878-79 - - - -	21,250,232	6,978,951
1879-80 - - - -	22,166,308	8,402,756
1880-81 - - - -	27,266,051	9,057,159
1881-82 - - - -	28,888,436	8,308,175
1882-83 - - - -	31,258,288	8,476,327

It will be seen that the maximum quantity was reached in 1882-83, but the maximum value in 1880-81, the average value having fallen heavily in the last few years. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the quantity has increased by 50 per cent. and the value by 53 per cent., the average value per cwt. having increased from 5 *s.* 6 *d.* to 5 *s.* 5 *d.* Of the total exports in 1882-83, about 21,250,000 cwts., or 68 per cent., were despatched from Burma; nearly 8,000,000 cwts., or 26 per cent., from Bengal; 1,318,967 cwts., or 4 per cent., from Madras; and a little over 500,000 cwts. from Bombay. As regards their destination, about 19,000,000 cwts., or 61 per cent., were sent to England and the Continent (including Egypt); 8,500,000 cwts., or 27 per cent., to other countries of Asia, 2,000,000 cwts., or 6 per cent., to the East Coast of Africa and the British Colonies in Southern Africa; 1,200,000 cwts., or 4 per cent., to South America and the West Indies; 88,600 cwts. to Canada and the United States; and 70,000 cwts. to Australia. The rice sent to Europe is used for food, for conversion into starch, and for distillation. What proportion is used for each purpose it is impossible to say; but the use of Indian rice for distillation is rapidly extending in Germany, Holland, France, and Italy. The exports of "paddy" or unhusked rice were limited to under 229,000 cwts., mainly sent from Madras to Ceylon. About four-fifths of the total exports from Burma consisted of "cargo rice," *i.e.*, rice of which only one part in six is husked.

The export of wheat from India first attracted attention in 1877, and has risen to great importance in the last few years. The trade is subject to violent fluctuations, for it depends not so much upon the local harvests as upon the harvests of the United States and the prices ruling in Europe. The following table shows the exports of wheat in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83:—

EXPORTS of WHEAT. 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
	Cwts.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	1,755,954	827,606
1874-75 - - - -	1,073,655	491,451
1875-76 - - - -	2,510,768	906,331
1876-77 - - - -	5,586,604	1,957,640
1877-78 - - - -	6,373,168	2,873,765
1878-79 - - - -	1,056,720	520,138
1879-80 - - - -	2,201,515	1,124,267
1880-81 - - - -	7,444,375	3,277,942
1881-82 - - - -	10,001,005	8,869,562
1882-83 - - - -	14,193,763	6,088,814

It will be seen that the trade reached its maximum in 1881-82, when the value of the wheat exported from India exceeded the value of the rice, and formed 11 per cent. of the total exports. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the quantity has increased by 765 per cent., and the value by 635 per cent., the average value per cwt. having fallen from 9 s. 5 d. to 8 s. 7 d. (Of the total exports in 1882-83, Bombay despatched 6,957,752 cwts., or 49 per cent.; Bengal 4,439,405 cwts., or 31 per cent.; and Karachi 2,732,275 cwts., or 20 per cent. Owing to the opening of new railways, the share of both Bombay and Karachi in the wheat trade has largely increased at the expense of Calcutta.) Comparing 1882-83 with the previous year, the exports from Bombay decreased by 38 per cent., and the exports from Calcutta decreased by 33 per cent.; while, on the other hand, the exports from Karachi increased by 47 per cent. As regards the destination of the exports in 1882-83, 6,575,160 cwts., or 46 per cent., were sent to England; 3,567,712 cwts., or 25 per cent.; to France; 1,458,898 cwts., or 11 per cent., to Belgium; 799,550 cwts., or 6 per cent., to Egypt, to be re-exported to Europe; 578,246 cwts., or 4 per cent., to Holland; and 494,098 cwts., or 3 per cent., to Gibraltar, which, like Egypt, is only a port of call for orders.

Hides and Skins.

The trade in hides and skins shows a steady growth throughout the decade, and now exceeds in value the trade in indigo, forming 5 per cent. of the total exports. Between 1873-74 and 1882-84, the exports of hides have increased in number from 19,207,051 to 26,539,888, or by 37 per cent.; and in value from 2,618,358 l. to 4,444,946 l., or by 70 per cent. Of the total exports in 1882-83, Bengal sent 44 per cent., Madras 42 per cent., and Bombay only 10 per cent.; but it is noticeable that Bombay has the largest proportion of the trade in horns. Dressed or tanned hides and skins, which form nearly half the total, are sent almost exclusively from Madras. The distribution of the exports is to England, the United States, Italy, Austria, France, and the Straits Settlements, according to the order given.

The trade in jute fibre, which is an absolute monopoly of Calcutta, was first called into existence at the time of the Crimean War, when the supply of hemp from Russia was cut off. The exports first exceeded the value of 1,000,000 l. in 1867-68, and suddenly reached 4,000,000 l. in 1871-72. In the two years 1875-76 and 1876-77, they dropped heavily; but the exports of 1882-83 are the largest on record, both in quantity and value. In that year the exports of jute almost equalled the exports of wheat, forming 7 per cent. of the total exports. The fluctuations in value are yet larger than the fluctuations in quantity. The following table shows the exports of jute in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83.

EXPORTS of JUTE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
	Cwts.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	6,127,279	3,426,016
1874-75 - - - -	5,493,957	3,246,882
1875-76 - - - -	6,206,570	2,805,310
1876-77 - - - -	4,632,253	2,636,647
1877-78 - - - -	5,450,276	3,518,114
1878-79 - - - -	6,021,382	3,800,426
1879-80 - - - -	6,680,670	4,370,022
1880-81 - - - -	5,809,815	4,934,030
1881-82 - - - -	7,510,314	5,030,302
1882-83 - - - -	10,318,909	5,846,020

Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the exports of jute have increased by 69 per cent. in quantity and by 70 per cent. in value, the average value per cwt. being practically the same (11 s. 4 d.) in the two years, though it fluctuated very widely in the interval. Of the total exports in 1882-83, 7,826,561 cwts., or 76 per cent., were sent to England; 2,002,731 cwts., or 20 per cent., to the United States; 147,466 cwts. to Austria; and 65,528 cwts. to Italy. The exports direct to France, which used to be considerable, dropped to only 11,056 cwts.

The trade in jute manufactures, the produce of the Calcutta mills, has developed almost as rapidly as the trade in the cotton twist of Bombay. Jute manufactures first appear in the returns for 1866-67, when they were exported to the value of 366,755 £. This amount was not again reached until 1875-76, but three years afterwards there was a rapid rise to over 1,000,000 £., and the trade reached its maximum in 1882-83. Jute manufactures consist mainly of gunny bags of various sizes, which are used for packing wheat and cotton. Gunny bags formed 96 per cent. of the total exports in 1882-83, the remainder being gunny cloth, twine, &c. The following table shows the total exports of jute manufactures in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83, the quantity referring only to gunny bags.

EXPORTS of JUTE MANUFACTURES, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity; number of Gunny Bags only.	Value.
		£.
1873-74 - - - -	6,594,694	201,660
1874-75 - - - -	8,010,824	238,640
1875-76 - - - -	19,256,250	429,181
1876-77 - - - -	32,859,545	719,478
1877-78 - - - -	26,416,580	771,127
1878-79 - - - -	45,354,044	1,098,484
1879-80 - - - -	55,608,731	1,193,481
1880-81 - - - -	52,386,227	1,130,672
1881-82 - - - -	42,072,819	1,097,569
1882-83 - - - -	66,727,651	1,487,831

Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the quantity has increased tenfold, while the value has increased more than sevenfold. Of the total number of gunny bags exported in 1882-83, 10,744,600 were sent direct to the United States, and 13,444,150 to Hong Kong, mostly for transshipment to San Francisco, making 35 per cent. in all; 21,867,902, or 32 per cent., to Australia; and 8,885,904, or 13 per cent., to the Straits Settlements. The remainder were pretty equally distributed.

The exports of lac, which again is a monopoly of Calcutta, fluctuate widely, but show on the whole a tendency to increase. The maximum value of 755,748*l.* was reached in 1875-76; and the maximum quantity of 138,844 cwts. in 1882-83. The exports are classified as lac-dye, which constituted only 6 per cent. of the total value in 1882-83; shell-lac, 79 per cent.; and other kinds, including button-lac and stick-lac, 20 per cent. Comparing 1873-74 with 1882-83, the total exports of lac have increased in quantity from 75,798 cwts. to 138,844 cwts., or by 83 per cent., and in value from 257,653 *l.* to 699,113 *l.*, or by 171 per cent., the average value per cwt. having risen from 3 *l.* 8 *s.* to 5 *l.* Of the total exports in 1882-83, 57 per cent. was despatched to England, 32 per cent. to the United States, 4 per cent. to France, 3 per cent. to Austria, and 2 per cent. to Italy.

The trade in oils is a fluctuating one, with a tendency to increase. The exports reached their maximum of 598,341 *l.* in 1880-81. Comparing 1873-74 with 1882-83, the exports have increased in value from 262,899 *l.* to 443,764 *l.*, or by 69 per cent. Of the total exports in 1882-83, Bengal sent 53 per cent., Madras 27 per cent., and Bombay 13 per cent. The principal kinds are castor oil, cocoa-nut oil, and dregs of gingelly oil.

The value of the opium exported in 1882-83 (11,481,379 *l.*) was almost identical with that exported in 1873-74 (11,341,857 *l.*), but the proportion to the total exports has fallen from 21 to 14 per cent. The exports reached the maximum value of 14,323,314 *l.* in 1879-80, and the maximum quantity of 130,775 chests in 1876-77. Comparing 1873-74 with 1882-83, the number of chests exported has increased from 88,727 to 91,798, or 3 per cent., the average value per chest having fallen from 128 *l.* to 125 *l.* Of the total exports in 1882-83, 56,045 chests, or 61 per cent., were despatched from Bengal, and 35,753 chests, or 49 per cent., from Bombay. With regard to their distribution; Hong Kong took 55,853 chests, or 61 per cent., the Treaty Ports of China 24,843 chests, or 27 per cent., and the Straits Settlements 10,316 chests, or 11 per cent.

The trade in saltpetre, which is again a monopoly of Calcutta, is a very fluctuating one, with apparently no tendency to increase. The maximum was reached in 1874-75 with 533,330 cwts., valued at 501,468 *l.* Comparing 1873-74 with 1882-83 the exports of saltpetre have decreased in quantity from 451,197 cwts. to 399,565 cwts., or by 12 per cent., and in value from 464,974 *l.* to 388,766 *l.*, or by 16 per cent., the average value per cwt. having fallen from 1 *l.* - *s.* 7 *d.* to 19 *s.* 5 *d.* Of the total exports in 1882-83, 130,128 cwts., or 33 per cent., were despatched to England, 103,853 cwts., or 26 per cent., to the United States, 78,508 cwts., or 20 per cent., to China, and 56,240 cwts., or 14 per cent., to France.

The trade in seeds, which means substantially oilseeds, is liable to wide fluctuations, with a general tendency to increase. In 1867-68, the quantity exported first reached 4,000,000 cwts.; in 1870-71, it rose to 7,120,642 cwts.; in 1872-73, it dropped to 2,779,243; the subsequent fluctuations are shown in the following table.—

EXPORTS of OILSEEDS, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.
	Cwts.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	4,433,270	2,361,451
1874-75 - - - -	6,074,756	3,235,950
1875-76 - - - -	10,507,404	5,462,388
1876-77 - - - -	0,583,189	5,319,447
1877-78 - - - -	12,187,618	7,360,683
1878-79 - - - -	7,211,790	4,682,512
1879-80 - - - -	7,246,182	4,781,465
1880-81 - - - -	10,303,776	6,392,185
1881-82 - - - -	10,482,612	6,064,732
1882-83 - - - -	13,147,982	7,205,924

It will be seen that the maximum quantity was reached in 1882-83, but the maximum value in 1877-78. Comparing the first year of the decade with the last, the exports of oilseeds have increased in quantity by 197 per cent. and in value by 205 per cent., the average value per cwt. having risen from 10 s. 8 d. to 10 s. 11 d. The proportion of oilseeds exported to the total exports has risen in the ten years from 4 to 9 per cent.

Oilseeds are classified into linseed, rape or mustard-seed, *til* or gingelly (the sesame of commerce), poppy-seed, castor-oil seed, and earth-nuts. In 1882-83 the exports of linseed amounted to 6,737,114 cwts., or 51 per cent. of the whole, valued at 3,528,481 l. Prior to 1881-82, Bengal exported twice as much as Bombay, but the trade is now shared equally between the two Provinces. As much as 70 per cent. of the total exports were sent to England, the bulk of the remainder going to France, Holland, and Belgium. The exports of rape-seed in the same year amounted to 2,821,240 cwts., or 21 per cent. of the whole, valued at 1,570,523 l. This is a considerable trade at Karachi as well as at Bombay, but Bengal despatches more than both together. The destination is England, France, and Belgium. The exports of *til*, or gingelly, amounted to 2,305,414 cwts., or 17 per cent. of the whole, valued at 1,462,373 l. In recent years this trade has largely been transferred from Bengal and Madras to Bombay. By far the larger portion of the exports are taken by France, for use in soap-making. It is noticeable that the exports are much more steady than those of either linseed or rape. The exports of poppy-seed were 571,542 cwts., valued at 302,640 l., mostly to France; of castor-oil-seed, 222,156 cwts., valued at 100,252 l., mostly to Italy and France; and of earth-nuts (called pig-nuts in America) 131,392 cwts.

The exports of raw silk and sugar have already been considered in connexion with the imports of the same articles.

The exports of spices fluctuate largely. The maximum value was reached in 1882-83 with 376,911 l., being an increase of 66 per cent. on the value ten years before. This does not include re-exports of imported spices. Of the total value in 1882-83, 230,672 l., or 61 per cent., was pepper; 65,554 l., or 17 per cent., ginger; and 40,208 l., or 11 per cent., cardamoms. Both pepper and cardamoms come entirely from Madras, and two-thirds of the pepper is sent to France.

The trade in tea, which is a monopoly of Calcutta, has uniformly advanced, without a single break, during the last twenty years. In 1869-70 the exports of tea for the first time exceeded those of coffee in value; in 1878-79, they first exceeded those of indigo, and they now form nearly 4 per cent. of the total exports. The following table shows the exports of tea in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83.

Linseed.

Rape Seed.

Til, or Gingelly.

Poppy Seed.

Castor-oil Seed.

Earth-nuts.

Silk and Sugar.

Spices.

Tea.

EXPORTS of TEA, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Quantity.	Value.	Average Value per lb.
	Lbs.	£.	s. d.
1873-74 - - - - -	19,324,235	1,742,926	1 9-00
1874-75 - - - - -	21,137,087	1,937,429	1 10-00
1875-76 - - - - -	24,301,599	2,106,417	1 9-34
1876-77 - - - - -	27,764,124	2,607,425	1 10-52
1877-78 - - - - -	33,459,075	3,044,571	1 9-84
1878-79 - - - - -	34,432,573	3,138,423	1 9-87
1879-80 - - - - -	38,173,521	3,051,020	1 7-18
1880-81 - - - - -	46,413,510	3,054,240	1 3-79
1881-82 - - - - -	48,601,725	3,600,136	1 5-77
1882-83 - - - - -	57,766,225	3,899,496	1 3-36

Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the quantity has increased by 198 per cent., while the value has increased by only 113 per cent., the average value per pound having fallen from 1 s. 9-00 d. to 1 s. 3-36 d. Of the total exports in 1882-83, Australia took 2,750,000 lbs. and the United States about 700,000 lbs.; all the rest was sent to England. It is curious to find that India imports tea annually to a considerable amount. In 1882-83 the imports were 2,751,085 lbs., valued at 193,051 l., being an average of 1 s. 4-84 d. per lb. Since 1873-74 the imports of tea have increased in quantity by 50 per cent., and in value by 6 per cent. In 1882-83, about 500,000 lbs. of the imported tea were re-exported, chiefly from Bombay to Persia and Arabia; of the remainder it may be assumed that half is consumed in the country and half exported overland to Central Asia.

The exports of wood and its manufactures show little tendency to increase, except for the augmented value of teak timber. In 1882-83 the total exports were valued at 672,477 l., as compared with 415,904 l. in 1873-74, being an increase of 62 per cent. In the course of the ten years the exports of teak timber have increased in quantity from 51,124 cubic tons to 59,198 cubic tons, or by 16 per cent.; and in value from 381,293 l. to 611,260 l., or by 60 per cent., the average value per cubic ton having risen from 7 l. 9 s. to 10 l. 7 s. Besides teak, the only other important class of wood is ornamented manufactures, valued in 1882-83 at 40,704 l. Of the total exports in that year, 90 per cent. came from Burma.

The exports of wool show no tendency to increase. As far back as 1864-65, the quantity was 23,432,689 lbs., valued at 1,151,002 l. The maximum of 28,666,852 lbs., valued at 1,187,799 l., was reached in 1879-80. Between 1873-74 and 1882-83, the exports increased in quantity from 20,981,198 lbs. to 26,380,327 lbs., or by 26 per cent.; and in value from 966,832 l. to 1,002,833 l., or by 5 per cent., the average value per pound having fallen from 11-6 d. to 9-1 d. The trade is entirely carried on by Bombay and Karachi with England.

With regard to treasure, it is not so much the gross imports and exports as the net imports that demand consideration. Ever since India has enjoyed a direct trade with Europe, her exports of merchandise have exceeded her imports of merchandise, and the trade could only be balanced by the transmission of the precious metals. In the early days of the East India Company, one of the popular grievances brought against that body was that it drained England of her treasure. The very first voyage undertaken on account of the Company in 1601 took out a cargo of 28,742 l. in bullion and only 6,860 l. in goods. The voyage of 1619 took out 62,490 l. in bullion and 28,508 l. in goods. During the twenty years ending 1728, the annual consignments of the Company to India averaged 442,350 l. of bullion and 92,288 l. of goods. Towards the end of the last century, when the Company first assumed territorial sovereignty, and while at the same time immense fortunes were being amassed by private individuals, the balance probably turned the other way. It is certain that Bengal was largely drained

drained of her hoards of treasure between 1750 and 1780. But ever since accurate returns of trade are available, the imports of treasure have always exceeded the exports. And it must be remarked that the net imports of treasure would be yet larger than they are, if the trade of India were not balanced by the Secretary of State's bills. These bills, which substantially represent the tribute due from India to England on Government account, both for cost of administration and for interest on capital expended on public works, may be regarded from the present point of view as so much added to the annual imports. In other words, they take the place at least to a considerable degree, of imports of treasure.

During the forty-four years beginning with 1839-40 and ending with 1882-83, the total imports of treasure into India have amounted to about 419 millions sterling, and the total exports of treasure from India have amounted to about 60 millions sterling, showing a net import of about 359 millions, or an average of 8 millions a year. But the net imports have not been distributed uniformly over the whole period, which may be conveniently divided into three sub-periods: During the first of these sub-periods, the sixteen years from 1839-40 to 1854-55, the net imports of treasure averaged only 2½ millions a year. The second sub-period, covering the fifteen years from 1855-56 to 1869-70, comprises the abnormal expenditure incurred in suppressing the Mutiny, in developing the administration under the Crown, in pushing forward public works, and in paying for the raw cotton exported at the time of the American War. During this sub-period, the net imports of treasure averaged nearly 15 millions a year; and in four successive years, from 1862-63 to 1865-66, the average net imports exceeded 21 millions. The maximum was reached in 1865-66, with a net import of more than 24 millions. The last sub-period comprises the thirteen years from 1870-71 to 1882-83. The abnormal expenditure in the nature of capital account had now ceased; but interest had to be paid on it in the shape of augmented drawings by the Secretary of State, while at the same time silver suffered a heavy depreciation in relation to gold. During the last sub-period, the net imports of treasure into India slightly exceeded an average of 7 millions a year.

Net Imports of
Treasure, 1839-40
to 1882-83.

Table XVII. shows the imports and exports of treasure, sub-divided into gold and silver, for each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83. During that period the net imports of treasure have averaged 7,891,204 l. a year. The fluctuations from year to year are very great, the maximum having been reached in 1877-78, and the minimum in the following year; but on the whole there is a tendency to increase. Comparing the first year with the last (which is in this case a misleading comparison) the net imports have increased more than threefold. In 1882-83, they amounted to 12,411,098 l., being nearly 1 s. per head of the total population of India, under British administration and in Native States.

Net Imports of
Treasure, 1873-74
to 1882-83.

XVII.—IMPORTS and EXPORTS of TREASURE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.			Net Imports.
	Gold.	Silver.	TOTAL.	Gold.	Silver.	TOTAL.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	1,648,808	4,143,726	5,792,534	266,169	1,647,902	1,914,071	3,878,463
1874-75	2,089,236	6,051,811	8,141,047	215,701	1,400,608	1,616,309	6,524,738
1875-76	1,836,381	3,484,341	5,300,722	291,250	1,908,980	2,200,230	3,100,492
1876-77	1,443,712	9,992,408	11,436,120	1,236,363	2,792,536	4,028,899	7,407,221
1877-78	1,578,927	15,776,532	17,355,459	1,110,798	1,100,199	2,210,997	15,144,462
1878-79	1,463,050	5,593,009	7,056,059	2,339,223	1,623,005	3,962,228	3,093,831
1879-80	2,050,393	9,603,002	11,653,395	299,880	1,736,250	2,036,130	9,617,265
1880-81	3,672,058	5,316,158	8,988,216	16,859	1,423,582	1,440,441	7,547,775
1881-82	4,856,393	6,466,389	11,322,782	12,408	1,087,339	1,100,747	10,222,035
1882-83	5,095,135	8,358,022	13,453,157	104,264	877,795	1,042,059	12,411,098
TOTAL	25,734,093	74,768,086	100,502,179	5,972,923	15,607,210	21,580,133	78,922,046

Imports of Treasure according to Provinces.

Table XVIII. shows the distribution according to Provinces of the gross imports of treasure in 1882-83.

XVIII.—IMPORTS of TREASURE according to Provinces, 1882-83.

	Gold.	Per-centage to Total.	Silver.	Per-centage to Total.	Total Treasure.	Per-centage to Total.
	£.		£.		£.	
Bengal - - - -	991,228	20	1,807,065	16	2,298,288	17
Burma - - - -	11,520	-	36,324	-	40,844	-
Madras - - - -	249,799	5	95,790	1	345,589	3
Bombay - - - -	3,838,771	75	6,888,468	82	10,727,234	80
Sind - - - -	3,822	-	28,380	-	32,202	-

It will be observed that 80 per cent of the gross imports of treasure were received at Bombay; and that Madras stands alone in taking more gold than silver. The direct imports into Burma are insignificant, but that Province receives by far the larger part of her treasure coastwise from Calcutta. In 1882-83, the total net imports of treasure into Burma, including both the foreign and the coasting trade, amounted to 1,675,535 l., being nearly 2 s. per head of the population, as compared with 1 s. per head for the whole of India. As regards the source of the imports in 1882-83, the gold was derived in almost equal proportions from Australia (28 per cent.), England (27 per cent.), and China (23 per cent.); while England sent the larger portion of the silver (35 per cent.), followed by other countries of Europe (22 per cent.), and China (15 per cent.)

Exports of Treasure according to Provinces.

Table XIX. shows the distribution according to Provinces of the exports of treasure in 1882-83.

XIX.—EXPORTS of TREASURE according to Provinces, 1882-83.

	Gold.	Per-centage to Total.	Silver.	Per-centage to Total.	Total Treasure.	Per-centage to Total.
	£.		£.		£.	
Bengal - - - -	178	-	287,500	26	287,678	18
Burma - - - -	-	-	6,911	8	6,911	-
Madras - - - -	50,184	30	92,070	10	142,664	14
Bombay - - - -	113,897	70	447,344	51	561,241	54
Sind - - - -	-	-	48,370	5	48,370	4

It will be observed that the share of Bombay in the exports is much smaller than in the imports, and that Madras exports as well as imports a considerable amount of gold. As regards the destination of the exports in 1882-83, England took almost all the gold (90 per cent.), while China took the larger part of the silver (54 per cent.), the rest being divided pretty equally between the continent of Europe, the Persian Gulf, Aden, Arabia, and England.

Imports of Gold.

Turning back to Table XVII., it is interesting to observe that the imports of gold have increased in recent years much more rapidly than the imports of silver. Taking the whole period of ten years, the gross imports of gold alone amounted to 25,734,092 l., and the exports to 5,972,923 l., leaving a net import of 19,761,169 l., or an average of 1,976,117 l. a year. But the figures fluctuate

so widely that in one year (1878-79) the exports actually exceeded the imports; and if the first year of the series be compared with the last, the increase in the net imports is more than sevenfold. This large importation of gold into India, where it is not wanted at all for currency, but only for ornaments or for hoarding, is by no means a new thing. The feature that is new is the comparatively small imports between 1873-74 and 1879-80, and the excessive exports in the three years 1876-77 to 1878-79. During the thirty-seven years, beginning with 1846-47 (when gold was first distinguished from silver in the returns) and ending with 1882-83, the aggregate gross imports of gold into India have amounted to 123,224,696 l., and the aggregate exports to 8,810,424 l., leaving an aggregate net import of 114,414,272 l., or an average of 3,092,277 l. Only in one year (1878-79) did the exports exceed the imports; and of the aggregate exports for thirtys-even years considerably more than one-half were dispatched in the three exceptional years mentioned above (1876-77 to 1878-79). The maximum net import of gold was reached in 1864-65, when the cotton fever at Bombay was at its height, with 9,839,964 l. But during the whole period of fifteen years, from 1855-56 to 1869-70, which has already been described as marked throughout by its large importation of treasure, the net import of gold averaged about 5 millions, which happens to be identical with the net import in 1882-83. It is the imports of silver that have proportionately decreased. They reached their maximum of 18,668,673 l. in 1865-66, and have only in one year since (1877-78) exceeded 10 millions. Taking a long period of years, it may be said that the imports of gold into India stand to the imports of silver as three to five.

The work of the Government mints at Calcutta and Bombay is not, of course, dependent solely upon the annual imports of silver. Besides supplying bullion for these mints, the imports have also to provide for the mints still in operation in some of the Native States, as well as the large amount required for personal ornaments and for hoarding. It might, therefore, be expected that the value of silver annually coined at the Government mints would be considerably less than the annual import of silver. Such, probably, is the case in ordinary years. But during the period between 1873-74 and 1882-83, the total value of the silver coined exceeded the total value of the net imports, as shown in the following table.

SILVER COINED at the MINT, compared with the Net Imports of Silver, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Silver Coined at the Mint.	Net Imports of Silver.
	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	2,370,006	2,495,824
1874-75 - - - -	4,896,884	4,041,708
1875-76 - - - -	2,550,218	1,555,355
1876-77 - - - -	6,271,122	7,198,872
1877-78 - - - -	16,180,326	14,676,334
1878-79 - - - -	7,210,770	3,970,694
1879-80 - - - -	10,256,967	7,869,748
1880-81 - - - -	4,249,676	3,893,574
1881-82 - - - -	2,186,275	5,379,050
1882-83 - - - -	6,508,458	7,281,227
TOTAL - - - £.	62,680,702	59,160,876

The excess of silver coined over the net imports of silver amounts to 3,519,826 l. for the ten years. Except in so far as silver may possibly have been coined twice over, this excess represents the amount drawn from the ornaments or hoardings of the people. And it may be observed that the excess is almost entirely confined to the three years, 1877-78 to 1879-80, showing the results of the great famine.

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Treasure available for Ornament or Hoarding.

The total coinage of gold during the same period of ten years amounted to 141,952 l. Deducting this from the net imports of gold, the balance is 19,619,217 l., which represents the amount of gold turned into ornaments or hoarded. Again, deducting from this balance the excess coinage of silver, it would appear that 14,099,391 l. was the total amount of treasure of both kinds that India received for ornaments or for hoarding in the course of the ten years, being an annual average of 1,409,939 l. And even this amount requires to be reduced by the unascertained amount exported over land into Central Asia.

TRADE OF ADEN.

Aden, which is a political dependency of Bombay, ranks in the trade returns as a foreign place. Its trade consists mainly of the transshipment of miscellaneous merchandise received from, or destined for, the neighbouring coasts of Arabia and Africa. The importation of coal for steamers is also considerable. The following table exhibits the total trade of Aden in 1882-83, excluding stores and treasure on Government account.

TRADE OF ADEN, 1882-83.

	Imports.	Exports.
By Sea:	£.	£.
Merchandise - - -	2,014,571	1,444,891
Treasure - - -	132,288	190,045
TOTAL - - - £.	2,146,854	1,635,836
By Land - - -	201,429	79,479
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	2,348,283	1,715,815

Vessels entering Aden

The seaborne trade shows an increase, and the landward trade a decrease, as compared with the previous year. The following table classifies the vessels that entered the Port of Aden in 1882-83.

VESSELS entering ADEN, 1882-83.

	Number.	Tonnage.
British Men of War - -	31	—
British Troop Ships - -	6	—
Indian Government Ships -	16	—
Foreign Men of War - -	51	—
Foreign Troop Ships - -	16	—
Hired Transports - - -	88	—
Merchant Steamers - - -	1,577	2,299,160
Merchant Sailing Ships - -	10	6,248
Native Craft - - -	1,216	40,597
TOTAL - - -	3,008	2,355,005

The hired transports in this table were on account of the war in Egypt. The merchant steamers show an increase on the previous year of 364 in number, and 593,507 in tonnage. Sailing ships and native craft both show a decrease. Of the total number of merchant steamers, 1,179 or 73 per cent. were British, and 109 or 7 per cent. French. Of the sailing vessels one only was British, and four American.

To complete the survey of the foreign commerce of India, it is necessary to include the trade that passes across the landward frontier on the north, from Sind to Burma. Registering stations have been established for some years past on most of the routes by which the frontier trade passes; but the results of this registration can only be regarded as approximate estimates of the actual truth.

The following table exhibits the registered frontier trade, according to Provinces, in each of the five years, 1878-79 to 1882-83. So far as the figures may be trusted, they show that the imports into India have remained stationary, the maximum having been reached in 1880-81; while the exports from India have increased by 17 per cent., the maximum having also been reached in 1880-81. In every year except the abnormal year 1880-81, the exports exceeded the imports in value, the excess in 1882-83 amounting to 274,361 l. As a matter of fact, there can be little doubt that the true balance of trade is the other way, for in the case of the imports the valuation includes the cost of carriage; and it is known that a considerable amount of treasure is annually exported across the frontier, which for the most part escapes registration.

REGISTERED LANDWARD FRONTIER TRADE, according to Provinces, 1878-79 to 1882-83.

	IMPORTS.					EXPORTS.				
	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.
Sind - - -	240,842	251,558	238,550	352,316	282,223	215,235	403,212	1,580,947	1,045,391	1,744,73.
Punjab - - -	1,218,269	820,501	1,071,329	912,813	981,167	949,963	1,080,940	1,403,449	1,308,995	1,083,920
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	439,164	531,595	615,507	633,684	617,222	203,343	296,767	339,146	280,326	279,349
Bengal - - -	844,006	961,140	1,075,853	827,376	832,724	628,587	614,146	629,246	629,224	618,063
Assam - - -	40,566	50,642	55,234	70,990	83,318	20,272	17,515	28,404	24,314	31,888
British Burma - -	2,108,158	2,302,212	2,223,977	2,150,312	2,544,484	1,954,159	1,880,052	1,958,540	1,764,298	1,894,257
TOTAL - -	4,889,995	4,917,638	5,280,450	4,927,471	5,341,138	3,971,559	4,292,032	5,939,741	4,142,848	4,633,111

Table XX. (on the following page), exhibits the registered frontier trade, according to foreign countries, in 1882-83, showing also the Province of India with which the trade was carried on.

The frontier trade of the Punjab is conducted almost entirely with Kabul and Kashmir. As compared with 1881-82, the total imports for 1882-83 show a slight decline, and the total exports a heavy fall, which is attributed to the protective duties enforced by the Russians in Central Asia. The following table gives the value of the principal articles of import and export in 1881-82, and 1882-83.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FRONTIER TRADE in the PUNJAB, 1881-82 and 1882-83.

	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	1881-82.	1882-83.	1881-82.	1882-83.
	£.	£.		£.
Fruits, Nuts, &c.	85,468	93,376	Piece Goods (European)	489,766
Raw Silk	114,239	149,298	Piece Goods (Indian)	282,689
Raw Wool	44,985	33,844	Salt	47,690
Shawls	108,771	111,598	Tea (Indian)	43,322
Ghi	125,990	127,386	Tea (Chinese)	210,243
Wood	146,338	123,533		119,939

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XX.—REGISTERED LANDWARD FRONTIER TRADE, according to Countries, 1882-83.

FOREIGN COUNTRY.	Province of India.	Imports.	Exports.
		£.	£.
Eus Bela - - - - -	Sind - - - - -	80,687	10,957
Khelat - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	45,412	75,002
Kandabar - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	35,321	75,627
Girishk - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	4,277	172
Frontier Railway - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	162,501	581,975
Kabul - - - - -	Sind - - - - -	4,024	1,001
	Punjab - - - - -	310,983	373,327
	Total - - - - -	314,917	374,328
Tirah - - - - -	Punjab - - - - -	8,558	4,649
Bajaur - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	51,914	50,687
Sewestan - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	35,478	72,024
Kashmir - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	505,335	349,477
Ladak - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	51,284	32,228
Tibet - - - - -	Punjab - - - - -	17,710	1,530
	North - West Provinces and Oudh - - - - -	40,612	22,667
	Total - - - - -	58,322	24,197
Nepal - - - - -	North - West Provinces and Oudh. - - - - -	576,810	255,682
	Bengal - - - - -	810,565	598,664
	Total - - - - -	1,378,175	855,346
Sikkim - - - - -	Bengal - - - - -	20,015	11,629
Bhutan - - - - -	Bengal - - - - -	11,144	3,669
	Assam - - - - -	2,240	4,876
	Total - - - - -	13,384	18,344
Towang - - - - -	Assam - - - - -	15,640	7,456
Daffa and Aka Hills - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	2,703	1,431
Naga and Mishmi Hills - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	10,139	3,938
Hill Tipperah - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	39,618	2,537
Lushai Hills - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	6,455	4,208
Manipur - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	6,523	7,643
Upper Burma - - - - -	Burma - - - - -	1,670,682	1,581,079
Karenni - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	554,058	135,039
North Shan States - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	41,341	27,751
South Shan States - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	2,625	4,138
Zimme - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	235,434	4,292
Siam - - - - -	Ditto - - - - -	40,349	141,958
	GRAND TOTAL - - £.	5,341,138	4,653,111

The frontier trade of the North-West Provinces and Oudh, which is conducted entirely with Nepal and Tibet, shows a total excess of imports amounting in 1882-83 to as much as 337,873 *l.* This excess of imports is balanced by an unascertained export of treasure, variously estimated at from 150,000 *l.* to 330,000 *l.*

Frontier Trade of the North-West Provinces and Oudh.

The following table shows the value of the principal articles of trade between the North-West Provinces and Nepal in 1881-82 and 1882-83 :—

With Nepal.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FRONTIER TRADE between the NORTH-WEST PROVINCES and NEPAL, 1881-82 and 1882-83.

IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	1881-82.	1882-83.		1881-82.	1882-83.
	£.	£.		£.	£.
Rice - - - - -	226,809	158,075	Cotton Goods - - - - -	180,870	174,897
Oilseeds - - - - -	58,167	52,599	Metals - - - - -	10,613	13,986
Timber - - - - -	112,191	168,382	Salt - - - - -	19,483	17,214
Drugs - - - - -	23,700	29,657	Sugar - - - - -	10,702	13,042
Spices - - - - -	50,712	41,127			

The principal articles of trade between the North West Provinces and Tibet in 1882-83 were: imports, borax, 17,222 *l.*; salt, 13,978 *l.*; and wool and woollen goods, 4,936 *l.*; exports: grain, 13,587 *l.*; cotton goods, 2,875 *l.*; and sugar, 2,395 *l.*

With Tibet.

The frontier trade of Bengal, which is carried on with Nepal, Sikkim, and Bhutan, shows a total excess of imports amounting in 1882-83 to 213,761 *l.* The following table gives the principal articles of trade between Bengal and Nepal in 1881-82 and 1882-83 :—

Frontier Trade of Bengal. With Nepal.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF TRADE between BENGAL and NEPAL, 1881-82 and 1882-83.

IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	1881-82.	1882-83.		1881-82.	1882-83.
	₹.	₹.		₹.	₹.
Animals - - - - -	60,588	55,088	Cattle - - - - -	10,017	14,115
Rice - - - - -	280,464	241,323	Raw Cotton - - - - -	9,559	13,862
Other Grains - - - - -	54,797	56,519	Cotton Goods (European) - - - - -	183,482	181,359
Pulses - - - - -	16,361	11,652	Cotton Goods (Indian) - - - - -	23,269	17,800
Provisions - - - - -	70,107	65,839	Metals - - - - -	34,828	49,292
Hides and Skins - - - - -	15,841	27,985	Provisions - - - - -	60,695	65,786
Oil Seeds - - - - -	68,281	89,636	Salt - - - - -	32,788	34,164
Timber - - - - -	77,029	97,185	Tobacco - - - - -	13,205	15,356
			Woollen goods - - - - -	21,090	33,642

The principal articles of trade between Bengal and Sikkim in 1882-83 were: imports, ponies, 4,972 *l.*; other animals, 3,192 *l.*; grain, 3,368 *l.*; and woollen goods, 3,551 *l.*; exports, European cotton goods, 4,570 *l.*; indigo, 2,852 *l.*; tobacco, 967 *l.*; and metals, 812 *l.* In the same year the principal articles of trade between Bengal and Bhutan were: imports, ponies, 5,737 *l.*; woollen goods, 1,644 *l.*; and *ghi*, 835 *l.*; exports, tobacco, 2,135 *l.*; betel nuts, 1,726 *l.*; European cotton goods, 1,641 *l.*; rice, 1,077 *l.*; and sugar, 827 *l.*

With Sikkim.

With Bhutan.

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Frontier Trade of Assam.

The frontier trade of Assam, which is altogether insignificant in value, shows a total excess of imports amounting in 1882-83 to 51,530 *l.* The principal articles were: imports, caoutchouc, 22,496 *l.*; and bamboos, 21,426 *l.*; exports, rice, 5,929 *l.*; silk manufactures, 5,420 *l.*; and cotton manufactures, 5,412 *l.*

Frontier Trade of British Burma.

The frontier trade of British Burma forms nearly one-half of the frontier trade of all India. The countries with which this trade is carried on have already been shown in Table XX. Of the total, including both imports and exports, 73 per cent. is with Upper Burma, 16 per cent. with Karenni, 5 per cent. with Zimme, 4 per cent. with Siam, and 2 per cent. with the North and South Shan States. The figures for 1882-83 show an increase in the total volume of trade of 524,133 *l.*, or 13 per cent., as compared with the previous year, marking the maximum yet attained. This increase is attributed partly to the removal of the royal monopolies in Upper Burma, partly to the deficient harvest in that country, which led to an unusual import of rice, and partly to the large exports of teak down the Salween river. The total excess of imports in 1882-83 was 652,226 *l.*, which may perhaps be taken to represent the difference between the value of the trade where registered and its value at its ultimate destination, together with the profits of the traders. The transactions in treasure seem to be fairly well recorded. In 1882-83 the imports of treasure (chiefly from Upper Burma) amounted to 414,420 *l.*; while the exports of treasure (mostly to Siam and Karenni, to pay for timber) amounted to 312,661 *l.*, leaving a net import of 101,769 *l.*

According to Routes.

The following table shows the frontier trade of British Burma in 1882-83, distributed according to the routes by which it passed:—

FRONTIER TRADE of BURMA, according to Routes, 1882-83.

	Imports.	Per-centage.	Exports.	Per-centage.	TOTAL.	Per-centage.
River :	£.		£.		£.	
Irrawaddy - - - -	1,384,160	54	1,523,452	81	2,907,612	66
Sittang - - - -	173,425	7	25,818	1	199,243	4
Salween - - - -	773,026	30	-	-	773,026	17
Total - - - £.	2,330,611	91	1,549,270	82	3,879,881	87
Road :						
Salween - - - -	30,783	1	267,271	14	298,054	7
Toungoo - - - -	100,188	4	47,240	2	147,428	3
Other Routes - - -	82,902	4	30,476	2	113,378	3
TOTAL - - - £.	213,873	9	344,987	18	558,860	18
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	2,544,484	-	1,894,257	-	4,438,741	-

by River.

The traffic on the Salween river is entirely confined to the teak timber floated down to Moulmein from the forests of Karenni and Zimme, the treasure, &c. that is received in exchange going by land routes. The principal articles of trade on the Irrawaddy and Sittang rivers in 1880-81 and 1882-83 are shown in the following table. Except timber to the value of 162,756 *l.* floated down the Sittang, almost the entire trade is carried by the Irrawaddy.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FRONTIER TRADE in BURMA on the IRRAWADDY and SITTANG RIVERS, 1881-82 and 1882-83.

IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	1881-82.	1882-83.		1881-82.	1882-83.
	£.	£.		£.	£.
Lacquered Ware - - -	20,940	17,771	Cotton Twist - - -	176,496	161,073
Raw Cotton - - -	26,256	76,367	Cotton Piece Goods - - -	226,015	295,132
Cotton Manufactures - - -	25,403	28,811	Earthenware - - -	21,665	21,634
Grain and Pulse - - -	36,087	57,080	Rice - - -	41,185	175,053
Cutch - - -	66,629	105,118	<i>Ngapi</i> - - -	204,079	142,500
Hides - - -	33,081	62,843	Salted or Dried Fish - - -		
Petroleum - - -	47,075	50,976	Salt - - -	24,920	25,378
Other Oils - - -	68,032	93,337	Raw silk - - -	100,522	115,968
Oilseeds - - -	10,470	11,011	Silk Piece Goods - - -	202,799	179,500
Silk Manufactures - - -	68,128	63,338	Sugar, Refined - - -	10,040	8,198
Jade Stone - - -	99,091	71,577	Woollen Goods - - -	50,088	83,143
Sugar, Unrefined - - -	73,117	117,451	Treasure - - -	136,743	76,527
Pickled Tea - - -	16,573	20,065			
Timber - - -	106,793	205,101			
Treasure - - -	258,882	398,633			

The following table shows the principal articles of frontier trade in Burma By Land Routes. by land routes in 1881-82 and 1882-83. By far the larger part, including nearly all the exports and about four-fifths of the imports, is conducted with the Tennasserim Division, the chief stations being Dagwin, Kyaukhnyat, and Toungoo:—

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FRONTIER TRADE in BURMA by LAND ROUTES, 1881-82 and 1882-83.

IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	1881-82.	1882-83.		1881-82.	1882-83.
				£.	£.
Horses - - -	24,692	17,350	Animals - - -	5,590	7,371
Cattle - - -	191,791	113,623	Cotton Piece Goods - - -	17,245	21,308
Cutch - - -	5,518	23,920	<i>Ngapi</i> - - -	12,450	6,330
Stick Lac - - -	5,168	2,380	Salted or Dried Fish - - -		
Silk Goods - - -	12,725	10,566	Silk Goods - - -	37,263	34,734
Treasure - - -	11,049	16,797	Betal Nuts - - -	6,101	6,895
			Treasure - - -	219,832	236,134

The coasting or interportal trade of India consists partly of the interchange of commodities of native production for local consumption, partly of the collection of commodities of native production for foreign export, and partly of the distribution of foreign imports. It is carried on not only between the several ports of British India, but also between these British ports and ports on the Indian coast which may be called "foreign." By far the most prosperous of the "foreign" ports are those in the Native States of Gujarat (especially Kathiawar) in political connexion with Bombay, which possess an aggregate coasting trade larger than that of Burma and more than twice as large as that of Sind. The other "foreign" ports are in the Madras Native States of Travancore and Cochin, and in the Portuguese and French Settlements, of which the most important are Goa on the west coast and Pondicherry on the east.

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Analysis of
Coasting Trade,
1882-83.

Table XXI. gives an analysis of the coasting trade in 1882-83. The aggregate volume of the coasting trade in that year, including both imports and exports, amounted to 62,524,443 *l.*, being 4 *s.* 9 *d.* per head of the total population of India, under British administration and in Native States. Adding this to the foreign trade, the aggregate volume of seaborne trade of both kinds amounted to 212,600,493 *l.*, being 16 *s.* 3 *d.* per head of the population.

XXI.—ANALYSIS OF COASTING TRADE, 1882-83.

	Imports.	Exports.
	£.	£.
Private Merchandise:		
Country - - - -	20,202,508	18,488,568
Foreign - - - -	5,217,829	6,086,678
TOTAL - - - -	25,419,832	24,524,241
Private Treasure - - - -	4,066,557	3,316,125
TOTAL Private - - - -	29,486,389	27,840,366
Government Stores:		
Country - - - -	213,941	185,030
Foreign - - - -	246,044	172,948
TOTAL - - - -	449,985	358,026
Government Treasure - - - -	1,882,411	2,497,266
TOTAL Government - - - -	2,342,896	2,855,292
GRAND TOTAL - - - -	31,828,785	30,695,658

Coasting Trade,
Imports and
Exports.

In so far as the coasting trade consists of the trade carried on between the ports of British India, the imports and exports are substantially a repetition of each other. Everything entered as an import must have been previously an export, though not necessarily in the same year; and in an average of years the two totals must closely correspond, except that the imports should exceed the exports in value by the addition of freight and profit. As a matter of fact, the trade between British ports in 1882-83, in country merchandise only on private account, shows a total of imports valued at 16,845,321 *l.*, and a total of exports valued at 17,100,033 *l.*, showing an excess of exports amounting to 154,712 *l.* This is probably as near to the actual truth as might be expected from returns collected twice over under different circumstances, without any special guarantee for accuracy. In the coasting trade with the "foreign" ports, the imports and exports are, of course, not entered twice over, for no returns are received from the "foreign" ports. The imports from these ports largely exceed the exports in value, chiefly owing to the raw cotton sent from Kathiawar to Bombay for transshipment to Europe. In 1882-83 the total imports of country merchandise only on private account from all the "foreign" ports amounted to 3,257,182 *l.*, and the total exports amounted to 1,388,530 *l.*, leaving an excess of imports of 1,868,652 *l.* In the coasting trade in foreign merchandise, which consists almost entirely of English cotton manufactures, the imports and exports between British Indian ports again approximately balance, the imports in 1882-83 being 5,190,273 *l.*, and the exports 5,222,881 *l.*; but in the trade between British Indian and "foreign" Indian ports, the conditions are reversed. The imports in 1882-83 were 27,056 *l.*, and the exports 812,797 *l.*, showing an excess of exports of 785,741 *l.*

Coasting Trade,
1873-74 to
1882-83.

Table XXII. shows the aggregate coasting trade of India (imports only) in each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83, so far as the figures are available. As the exports are substantially a repetition of the imports, they are not included. No attempt can be made to compare the first year of the series with the last, as the returns down to September 1877 omit the large trade

trade carried on between the several ports of the Bombay Presidency, which amounted in 1882-83 to no less than 4,645,506 l. for imports only. In the first two years also the trade is omitted of the Bombay ports with the neighbouring "foreign" ports, which amounted in 1882-83 to 3,151,149 l. for imports only. It should also be pointed out that the coasting trade of 1877-78 was largely swollen by the demand for grain, due to the famine in Southern India. In that year the total imports of rice alone amounted to 18,643,129 cwts., valued at 10,026,931 l., as compared with only 6,959,918 cwts., valued at 2,108,058 l. in 1882-83. Taking only the last five years in the series, the aggregate imports in the coasting trade have increased from 28,835,750 l. in 1878-79 to 31,828,785 l. in 1882-83, or by 10 per cent. If the imports of treasure and Government stores are excluded, the rate of increase is 15 per cent.

XXII.—AGGREGATE COASTING TRADE (Imports only), 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	On Private Account.		On Government Account.		TOTAL.
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Stores.	Treasure.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74*	12,117,879	4,151,916	1,191,532	554,184	18,014,911
1874-75*	13,528,492	2,007,110	1,228,226	1,474,569	18,228,417
1875-76*	13,592,851	1,350,050	369,589	516,893	15,831,383
1876-77*	19,534,008	3,537,039	298,760	1,424,646	24,614,463
1877-78*	28,223,220	5,095,506	452,147	1,346,536	35,117,709
1878-79	21,978,011	3,777,852	436,407	2,044,480	28,836,750
1879-80	23,077,229	4,334,900	303,653	3,411,569	31,817,351
1880-81	24,337,143	2,933,111	689,132	2,176,779	30,136,165
1881-82	24,430,298	2,387,063	505,128	1,785,120	29,007,618
1882-83	25,419,832	4,066,557	459,985	1,892,411	31,828,785

* Trade between Bombay Ports not included until September 1877.

Table XXIII. shows the share of each Province in the coasting trade in 1882-83, excluding the transactions on Government account. It will be seen that Bombay possesses nearly one-half of the total merchandise, both in imports and exports; and that in Bengal the exports, both of merchandise and treasure, largely exceed the imports, while the converse is the case in Burma.

XXIII.—COASTING TRADE (on Private Account only) according to PROVINCES, 1882-83.

	IMPORTS.				EXPORTS.			
	Merchandise.	Percentage to Total.	Treasure.	Percentage to Total.	Merchandise.	Percentage to Total.	Treasure.	Percentage to Total.
	£.		£.		£.		£.	
Bengal	4,251,752	17	702,309	17	6,461,460	20	1,582,011	48
Bombay	12,531,848	40	366,514	10	11,470,434	47	735,003	22
Sind	1,939,122	8	202,152	5	1,159,713	5	—	—
Madras	3,680,518	14	371,623	9	3,629,677	15	284,581	9
Burma	3,060,501	12	2,403,909	59	1,804,557	7	714,470	21

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Coasting Trade, according to Ports.

Table XXIV. shows the inter-distribution of the coasting trade between the several classes of ports in 1882-83, excluding foreign merchandise, treasure, and Government stores.

XXIV.—INTER-DISTRIBUTION OF COASTING TRADE (Country Merchandise only), 1882-83.

FROM and INTO	IMPORTS INTO						EXPORTS FROM					
	Bengal.	Bombay.	Sind.	Madras.	Burma.	TOTAL.	Bengal.	Bombay.	Sind.	Madras.	Burma.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
British Ports in other Provinces:												
Bengal	-	1,322,513	27,805	887,893	1,352,443	3,790,655	-	870,803	6,438	887,687	541,020	2,005,948
Bombay	938,677	-	334,888	462,527	63,014	1,840,106	1,371,941	-	814,947	1,192,281	367,923	3,746,192
Sind	2,877	319,846	-	1,424	24	884,181	25,766	340,970	-	16,625	-	392,310
Madras	652,530	1,111,659	19,506	-	416,798	2,201,533	1,105,091	688,220	675	-	163,659	1,937,045
Burma	559,964	343,954	-	118,653	-	1,021,571	1,095,137	43,643	10	295,575	-	1,434,365
TOTAL	2,155,048	3,982,873	422,220	1,465,904	1,822,268	9,887,371	3,597,874	1,902,650	822,070	3,092,178	1,101,102	9,515,860
British Ports within the Province.	1,325,983	4,645,506	42,578	966,313	277,275	7,237,655	1,320,087	4,962,936	45,804	1,006,127	240,219	7,584,173
Indian Ports not British:												
Portuguese:												
Daman	-	3,061	1,989	-	-	4,851	-	474	-	5	-	479
Diu	-	13,785	20	-	-	13,805	-	10,035	-	48	-	10,103
Goa	-	118,913	2,253	3,954	-	124,190	-	58,650	6	46,845	-	105,601
French:												
Karikal	-	-	-	3,005	417	4,282	-	-	-	72	-	72
Mahé	-	1,423	-	3,061	-	5,194	-	-	-	1,740	-	1,740
Pondicherry	2,202	6,879	-	4,418	2,093	25,392	23,950	133	-	7,116	5,325	43,015
Native:												
Coombay	-	24,237	-	-	-	24,237	-	6,989	-	-	-	6,989
Cutch	-	512,765	4,151	809	-	517,725	-	146,725	62,363	63,513	-	272,601
Kathilwar	-	2,176,204	12,522	96	-	2,188,826	9,016	523,972	97,635	10,588	-	632,201
Konkan	-	85,510	-	-	-	85,510	-	17,058	-	656	-	17,714
Travancore	44,395	116,043	889	6,599	-	167,926	29,117	38,220	-	71,589	-	138,926
Cochin	2,820	12,733	-	757	-	17,310	99,684	22,492	-	171	-	122,357
Baroda	-	76,717	782	-	-	77,509	-	18,022	984	-	-	19,006
TOTAL	50,418	3,151,149	21,487	93,719	10,410	3,227,131	146,067	672,796	150,688	202,533	5,326	1,388,390
GRAND TOTAL	3,331,466	11,599,927	496,319	2,454,433	2,130,373	20,292,503	5,875,028	7,738,368	1,027,462	3,306,653	1,346,947	16,468,563

Principal Articles. Table XXV. gives the value of the principal articles of the coasting trade in 1882-83, excluding treasure and Government stores. These two tables may conveniently be treated in combination, as they exhibit together the transactions of each Province as regards the other Provinces and "foreign" ports, and also as regards the separate items.

Coasting Trade of Bengal: Imports. The imports coastwise of country merchandise into Bengal in 1882-83 amounted to 3,531,448 l. Of this total, 1,325,983 l., or 38 per cent., was received from other ports within the Province; 938,677 l., or 26 per cent., from Bombay; 653,530 l., or 19 per cent., from Madras; 559,964 l., or 16 per cent., from Burma; and 44,395 l., or 1 per cent., from the Native State of Travancore. The coasting trade between the ports of the Province consists chiefly of the importation into Calcutta of raw jute (736,573 l.) from Chittagong, and of rice (113,853 l.), hides, &c. (110,562 l.), from Chittagong and Orissa. The imports into Bengal from Bombay consist chiefly of raw cotton (332,521 l.), cotton twist (292,105 l.), and cotton grey goods (222,891 l.) The imports into Bengal from Madras are widely distributed over many articles, the most important being castor oil seeds (245,976 l.), hides and skins (63,400 l.), sugar (59,367 l.), pepper (42,964 l.), and cigars (16,123 l.) The imports into Bengal from Burma are almost confined to teak (367,805 l.), manufactures of wood (35,530 l.), and cutch (48,557 l.).

Coasting Trade of Bombay: Imports. The imports coastwise of country merchandise into Bombay amounted in 1882-83 to 11,598,927. Of this total, 4,645,506 l., or 40 per cent. was received from

LXV.—VALUE of Principal Articles of MERCHANDISE in the COASTING TRADE (on Private Account only), 1882-83.

	IMPORTS INTO.						EXPORTS FROM					
	Bengal.	Bombay.	Sind.	Madras.	Burma.	Total.	Bengal.	Bombay.	Sind.	Madras.	Burma.	Total.
Produce and Manufactures:	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Raw Cotton	394,168	4,731,992	3	1,333	1,129	5,128,642	33,640	4,414,011	196,111	97,375	13,765	2,763,748
Cotton Twist and Yarn	324,108	113,283	14,821	243,394	132,725	835,346	190,938	695,445	39	7,321	1,375	896,869
Miscellaneous Piece-goods	231,140	118,286	125,127	98,954	43,001	615,478	2,280	480,376	2,529	149,293	1,475	616,896
Fruits and Vegetables	46,230	429,397	85,937	27,768	57,783	607,679	20,150	125,616	2,417	250,333	11,053	449,468
Rice and Paddy	120,282	1,121,103	27,638	602,630	34,285	2,108,038	1,156,124	692,079	30,726	220,217	78,211	2,206,658
Hides and Skins	173,691	87,830	6,589	130,894	8,717	408,101	124,085	21,024	72,129	192,612	14,456	432,718
Raw Jute	736,573	41,068	778	6,120	251	784,730	761,727	188	-	1,623	1	784,589
Jute Manufactures	47,247	729,015	83,207	106,601	261,694	1,241,764	1,182,250	171,844	616	49,222	6,733	1,366,664
Teak	68,123	173,018	1,659	41,969	26,908	403,657	23,276	29,422	1,221	262,420	7,153	347,896
Revolvers	22,601	178,904	6,363	31,040	173,986	407,995	41,258	56,922	20,639	87,643	41,148	200,616
Salt	24,120	369,217	903	40,377	3,244	436,166	-	708,902	711	4,686	8,224	708,797
Opium	206,067	132,206	8,582	47,780	57,740	543,665	55,220	190,972	23,111	271,472	1,022	511,667
Pices	108,097	373,685	10,541	141,569	236,207	1,122,099	229,265	340,903	1,228	401,020	21,271	1,017,456
Sugar	76,830	319,587	16,710	96,512	77,222	582,901	151,890	268,019	1,164	212,923	28,653	647,643
Tobacco	46,791	56,240	4,263	29,584	288,238	429,146	152,021	37,822	124	145,120	27,900	372,976
Food and its Manufactures	425,095	588,221	23,121	96,268	44,485	1,166,899	11,965	208,127	10,570	184,286	831,400	1,346,822
Raw Wool	722	289,021	626	-	-	290,409	3	26,412	207,169	2,222	-	290,116
Produce and Manufactures:												
Cotton Twist and Yarn	180,415	136,882	41,685	348,227	100,719	808,421	262,263	220,423	181	146,263	47,078	624,460
Miscellaneous Piece-goods	165,874	150,300	518,719	183,912	72,591	1,831,286	218,247	989,706	2,223	20,263	28,288	1,320,744
White Piece-goods	26,729	16,246	152,799	61,799	112,727	449,446	202,427	259,141	729	4,016	29,763	513,086
Coloured Piece-goods	19,631	42,222	246,262	73,444	99,021	483,683	24,784	406,464	2,656	23,126	29,216	664,608
Teak	74,200	114,933	68,683	166,230	41,740	466,116	144,237	278,195	2,798	17,971	17,471	506,791
Sugar	15	49,271	145,606	7,203	93	304,249	-	242,777	1,267	489	263	245,896

from other ports within the Presidency; 1,522,513 l., or 13 per cent., from Bengal; 119,846 l., or 7 per cent., from Sind; 1,111,659 l., or 10 per cent., from Madras; 148,254 l., or 3 per cent., from Burma; and 3,151,149 l., or 27 per cent., from "foreign" ports, chiefly in Kathiawar and Cutch. By far the largest article of import into Bombay is raw cotton (total, 4,731,992 l.), of which 2,052,691 l. comes from Kathiawar, 1,854,032 l. from other ports within the Presidency, 141,705 l. from Cutch, 233,078 l. from Sind, 85,284 l. from Madras, and 18,405 l. from the Konkan Native States. Next after cotton comes rice (1,121,103 l.), of which 647,338 l. comes from Bengal, and 414,214 l. from other ports within the Presidency. Then follow jute manufactures (729,015 l.), entirely from Bengal; raw wool (389,021 l.), of which 307,169 l. comes from Sind; coconuts and coconut kernel (382,925 l.), chiefly from Madras, Travancore, and Goa; salt (369,217 l.), and sugar (319,587 l.), which are both local trades between ports within the Presidency; teak timber (361,059 l.), chiefly from Burma; and betel nuts (266,777 l.), chiefly from other Bombay ports, Madras, Bengal, and Goa.

The imports coastwise of country merchandise into Sind amounted in 1882-83 to 496,319 l., of which 384,888 l., or 78 per cent., was received from Bombay. The most important articles are cotton piece goods (125,127 l.), and jute manufactures (88,207 l.).

Coasting Trade of Sind: Imports.

The imports coastwise of country merchandise into Madras amounted in 1882-83 to 2,454,436 l. Of this total, 966,213 l., or 39 per cent., was received from ports within the Presidency; 887,895 l., or 36 per cent., from Bengal; 162,527 l., or 19 per cent., from Bombay; 113,658 l., or 5 per cent., from Burma; and 23,719 l., or 1 per cent., from "foreign" ports, chiefly Travancore and the French Settlements. By far the largest article of import into Madras is rice (803,630 l.), of which 576,462 l. comes from Bengal, and 148,021 l. from ports within the Presidency. Next follow cotton twist (243,394 l.), entirely from Bombay; hides and skins (130,894 l.), chiefly from other Madras ports; jute manufactures

Coasting Trade of Madras: Imports.

manufactures (136,691 *l.*), entirely from Bengal; cotton piece goods (98,954 *l.*), chiefly coloured hand-made goods from other Madras ports; unrefined sugar (82,773 *l.*), and pepper (95,352 *l.*), both likewise from other Madras ports.

Coasting Trade of
Burma: Imports.

The imports coastwise of country merchandise into Burma amounted in 1882-83 to 2,120,373 *l.* Of this total, 1,352,442 *l.*, or 64 per cent., came from Bengal; 63,014 *l.*, or 3 per cent., from Bombay; 416,798 *l.*, or 15 per cent., from Madras; and 277,675 *l.*, or 16 per cent., from other ports within the Province. The two largest articles of imports into Burma are tobacco (388,758 *l.*), chiefly from Bengal and Madras; and jute manufactures (361,594 *l.*), entirely from Bengal; betel nuts (262,942 *l.*), also entirely from Bengal; provisions (172,386 *l.*), chiefly *ghi* from Madras, preserved fruits and vegetables from Bengal and Bombay, and salted fish from Madras; cotton twist (139,725 *l.*), mainly from Bengal; and refined sugar (54,755 *l.*), from Bengal and Madras.

Coasting Trade of
Bengal: Exports.

The exports coastwise of country merchandise from Bengal amounted in 1882-83 to 5,075,028 *l.* Of this total, 1,329,087 *l.*, or 26 per cent., represents exports of jute, rice, hides, &c. to other ports within the Province, which have already been included among imports; 1,371,941 *l.*, or 27 per cent., was sent to Bombay; 1,105,491 *l.*, or 22 per cent., to Madras; 1,095,137 *l.*, or 21 per cent., to Burma; and 86,984 *l.*, or 2 per cent., to the Native State of Cochin. The two largest articles of export from Bengal are rice (1,456,124 *l.*), chiefly sent to Madras, Bombay, and Cochin; and jute manufactures (1,132,359 *l.*), which are sent in the form of power-loom, and hand-loom gunnybags to every Province, but chiefly to Bombay and Burma. Next follow cotton twist (190,938 *l.*), betel-nuts (231,445 *l.*), and tobacco (152,624 *l.*), all three almost entirely to Burma; and refined sugar (148,059 *l.*), chiefly to Bombay.

Coasting Trade of
Bombay: Exports.

The exports coastwise of country merchandise from Bombay amounted in 1882-83 to 7,738,368 *l.* Of this total, 4,962,936 *l.*, or 64 per cent., represents exports of cotton, rice, salt, sugar, &c., to other ports within the Presidency, which have already been included among imports; 870,803 *l.*, or 11 per cent., was sent to Bengal; 349,970 *l.*, or 5 per cent., to Sind; 638,220 *l.*, or 8 per cent., to Madras; and 872,796 *l.*, or 11 per cent., to "foreign" ports, chiefly in Kathiawar, Cutch, Goa, and Travancore. The three largest nominal exports are raw cotton (2,414,011 *l.*), salt (700,002 *l.*), and rice, (699,079 *l.*), which are only shipped from one port within the Presidency to another. Of exports proper the largest are cotton twist (696,446 *l.*), sent chiefly to Madras and Bengal in almost equal amounts; and cotton piece goods (460,176 *l.*), sent chiefly to Bengal, Sind, and other ports within the Presidency. Next follow jute manufactures, (171,844 *l.*), sent to Sind ports within the Presidency, Kathiawar, and Cutch; and oilseeds (150,972 *l.*), sent to other Bombay ports, Kathiawar, and Sind.

Coasting Trade of
Sind: Exports.

The exports coastwise of country merchandise from Sind amounted in 1882-83 to 1,027,462 *l.* Of this total, 814,947 *l.*, or 79 per cent., was sent to Bombay, 97,035 *l.* to Kathiawar, and 62,263 *l.* to Cutch. The chief articles were wool (307,169 *l.*), cotton (198,111 *l.*), rice (80,728 *l.*), and hides (72,129 *l.*).

Coasting Trade of
Madras: Exports.

The exports coastwise of country merchandise from Madras amounted in 1882-83 to 3,300,858 *l.* Of this total, 1,006,127 *l.*, or 31 per cent., represents exports of rice, hides, coloured hand-loom cotton goods, unrefined sugar, pepper, &c., to other ports within the Presidency, which have already been included among imports; 587,687 *l.*, or 8 per cent., was sent to Bengal; 1,192,281 *l.*, or 36 per cent., to Bombay; 295,575 *l.*, or 9 per cent., to Burma; and 402,553, or 6 per cent., to "foreign" ports, chiefly in Travancore, Cutch, and Goa. The principal articles of exports are pretty equal in value, and pretty equally distributed. The largest are spices (401,659 *l.*), chiefly pepper, sent to other Madras ports, Bombay, and Bengal; cocoanuts and cocoanut kernel (274,779 *l.*), chiefly to Bombay, other Madras ports, and Cutch; oilseeds (271,472 *l.*), chiefly castor oil seed, sent to Bengal; oils (262,630 *l.*), chiefly cocoanut oil, earthnut oil, and castor oil, sent to Bombay, Burma, Bengal, and Travancore; rice (259,817 *l.*), chiefly to other Madras ports, Goa, and Bombay; sugar (213,025 *l.*), of which the unrefined is chiefly sent to other Madras ports, and the refined to Bombay and Bengal in almost equal quantities; hides and skins (192,012 *l.*), of which the undressed are chiefly sent to other Madras ports, and the dressed or tanned to Bengal; wood (184,336 *l.*), chiefly ornamental wood, teak, and timber, all sent to Bombay; cotton piece goods (149,993 *l.*), chiefly coloured hand-loom goods, sent to other Madras ports, Burma, and Bombay; tobacco (145,120 *l.*), chiefly to Burma; raw cotton (97,275 *l.*), chiefly to Bombay.

The exports coastwise of country merchandise from Burma amounted in 1882-83 to 1,346,847 *l.* Of this total, 243,219 *l.*, or 18 per cent., represents exports to other ports in the Province, which have already been included among imports; 541,020 *l.*, or 40 per cent., was sent to Bengal; 367,023 *l.*, or 28 per cent., to Bombay; and 190,059 *l.*, or 14 per cent., to Madras. The only important article of export from Burma is teak timber (792,981 *l.*), sent to Bengal, Bombay, and Madras. Next follow rice (70,311 *l.*), sent to Madras and Bombay; provisions (41,148 *l.*), and tobacco (37,086 *l.*), both to other Burmese ports.

Coasting Trade of Burma. Exports.

Table XXVI. shows the number of vessels engaged in the coasting trade in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83, divided into steam and sailing. It is impossible to compare the first year of the series with the last, for reasons that have been already stated. Down to September 1877, the returns omit the trade carried on between the several ports of the Bombay Presidency; and for the first two years they omit the trade carried on by Bombay with the neighbouring "foreign" ports. Besides, the method of entering foreign and coasting voyages was revised in 1882-83, with the object of representing the facts more accurately, and with the result of augmenting the coasting voyages at the expense of the foreign. It must be sufficient to point out here that the share in the coasting trade taken by steamers has increased from 41 per cent. of the total tonnage in 1873-74 to 65 per cent. in 1882-83. In the same time the number of sailing vessels has actually increased, though their tonnage has diminished. The general result is that the average tonnage of each vessel (steam and sailing) has increased from 35 to 52 tons.

Vessels engaged in Coasting Trade.

XXVI.—VESSELS ENTERED and CLEARED in the COASTING TRADE, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Steam.		Sailing.		TOTAL.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
1873-74 - - - - -	6,823	4,223,235	287,551	6,156,627	294,374	10,379,862
1874-75 - - - - -	8,147	6,006,116	304,700	7,034,051	312,853	13,160,173
1875-76 - - - - -	9,314	7,329,812	308,814	6,313,842	318,128	13,643,654
1876-77 - - - - -	10,596	7,398,292	331,120	7,461,342	341,718	14,859,634
1877-78 - - - - -	10,613	8,476,107	309,011	7,254,139	319,624	15,730,246
1878-79 - - - - -	9,557	7,908,323	297,474	6,277,376	307,031	14,285,699
1879-80 - - - - -	9,376	8,767,054	292,976	5,987,478	302,352	14,754,532
1880-81 - - - - -	9,378	9,269,773	292,027	5,845,430	301,405	15,135,203
1881-82 - - - - -	9,374	9,487,323	307,203	5,691,274	317,077	15,178,597
1882-83 - - - - -	11,038	11,064,170	317,133	5,992,924	328,221	17,057,094

Table XXVII. shows the nationality of the vessels engaged in the coasting trade in 1882-83, excluding those that entered and cleared in ballast. It will be seen that 68 per cent. of the total tonnage was British (not including British Indian or Native), and that the average tonnage of each British vessel was 1,128 tons.

Nationality of Vessels in Coasting Trade.

XXVII.—NATIONALITY of VESSELS ENTERED and CLEARED (with Cargoes only) in the COASTING TRADE, 1882-83.

	Entered.		Cleared.		TOTAL.		Average Tonnage.	Per-centage of Total Tonnage.
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.		
British - - - - -	4,231	4,605,733	4,192	4,690,940	8,423	9,400,682	1,128	68
British Indian - - - - -	2,244	478,335	2,097	457,222	4,341	936,057	216	7
Foreign - - - - -	1,577	105,748	1,489	99,010	3,066	204,758	67	1
Native - - - - -	99,931	1,721,798	90,340	1,609,925	190,271	3,331,633	17	24
TOTAL - - - - -	107,983	7,111,524	98,118	6,857,600	206,101	13,979,130	68	-

INLAND TRADE.

System of
Registration.

For some years past a system of registration has been in force in most of the Provinces of India, with the object of ascertaining the amount and the principal routes of internal trade. The general method adopted is to divide the railway system of each Province into a series of convenient blocks, and to obtain returns from the railway officials of the weight of the goods traffic that passes along each block, with a statement of its origin and its destination. A value is then assigned to each article in accordance with a recognised standard of prices. In Bengal and Assam the traffic by water is registered on the same principles; and in some cases an attempt is also made to register the traffic that passes along certain frequented roads. The returns thus obtained are published quarterly, and it is believed that, however imperfect, they are of some use to traders.

Inter-Provincial
Trade.

It is, of course, impossible to combine the returns from the several Provinces so as to present a complete view of the internal trade of India; nor has the system been in operation long enough to enable profitable comparisons to be instituted over a series of years. All that can be attempted here is a statement of the inter-provincial trade of some of the Provinces, with special reference to the routes by which the trade passes.

Inland Trade of
Calcutta.

In Bengal the system of registering the railway traffic by means of blocks was not introduced until after the close of the year 1882-83. But the traffic of Calcutta, and also that which passes along certain other routes in the interior, has been registered for several years past. To a large extent the landward trade of Calcutta is identical with the seaborne trade, so that it is not necessary to enumerate the principal articles. The following table (XXVIII.) shows the main routes by which the landward trade entered and left Calcutta in 1882-83: It will be seen that country boats and river steamers carried between them exactly one-fourth of the total, and that the East Indian Railway carried more than one-half. It is also interesting to observe that as much as 36 per cent. of the imports, which are chiefly raw products of heavy bulk, proportionately to their value, were brought by river and road; while only 26 per cent. of the exports were sent by river and road.

XXVIII.—INLAND TRADE OF CALCUTTA, 1882-83.

ROUTE.	Imports.	Per-centage.	Exports.	Per-centage.	TOTAL.	Per-centage.
	£.		£.		£.	
Country Boats - - -	9,776,853	20	3,519,438	13	13,296,291	17
River Steamers - - -	3,971,322	8	1,775,316	7	5,746,638	8
East Indian Railway - - -	25,327,408	51	15,786,980	58	41,114,388	54
Eastern Bengal Railway - -	6,859,344	18	4,204,786	16	10,564,130	14
Calcutta and South Eastern Railway.	90,298	-	14,468	-	104,766	-
Road - - - - -	3,962,237	8	1,729,278	6	5,691,535	7
TOTAL - - - £.	49,487,477	-	27,030,261	-	76,517,738	-

Inter-Provincial
Trade of Assam.

The inter-provincial trade of Assam is conducted entirely by river, and entirely with Bengal. The following table (XXIX.) shows this trade in 1882-83, divided according as it passes by the Brahmaputra or the Surma Valley. Of the total amount, it will be seen that the Brahmaputra carries 55 per cent., and the Surma 45 per cent. But this proportion does not hold good if the imports and exports are taken separately. Of the imports, the Brahmaputra carries only 48 per cent., and the Surma 52 per cent; while of the exports the Brahmaputra carries as much as 60 per cent. and the Surma only 40 per cent. This difference is mainly due to the much larger amount of tea that is sent down the Brahmaputra. The contrast between the traffic on the two rivers becomes yet more striking when the traffic by steamer is distinguished from the traffic by country boat. On the Brahmaputra, 86 per cent. of the total is carried by steamer; and this proportion holds good of imports and exports alike. On the Surma, 66 per cent. of the exports is carried by steamer; and of the imports only 45 per cent. In other words,

navigation

navigation by country boats is much more active on the Surma than on the Brahmaputra, though on both rivers the tea goes by steamer. The total trade of Assam, including both imports and exports, amounted in 1882-83 to 5,572,573 l., being 1 l. 2 s. 10 d. per head of the population.

XXIX.—RIVER TRADE OF ASSAM, 1882-83.

ROUTE.	Imports.	Per-centage.	Exports.	Per-centage.	TOTAL.	Per-centage.
Brahmaputra Valley:	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Steamer - - - -	1,035,130	86	1,597,259	86	2,632,389	86
Boat - - - -	174,838	14	266,459	14	441,297	14
TOTAL - - - £.	1,209,968	48	1,863,718	60	3,073,686	55
Surma Valley:						
Steamer - - - -	586,223	45	798,795	66	1,385,018	55
Boat - - - -	706,751	55	407,118	34	1,113,869	45
TOTAL - - - £.	1,292,974	52	1,205,913	40	2,498,887	45
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	2,502,942	-	3,069,631	-	5,572,573	-

Table XXX. shows the railway-borne trade of the North-West Provinces and Oudh in 1882-83, divided according to routes. It will be seen that 49 per cent. of the total trade is with Calcutta. In former years the proportion was yet larger; but the recent opening of the Rajputana Railway has diverted to Bombay a considerable amount of the exports that formerly used to reach the sea at Calcutta. The total railway-borne trade of the North-West Provinces and Oudh, including both imports and exports, amounted in 1882-83 to 26,881,296 l. being 12 s. 2 d. per head of the population.

Railway-borne Trade of the N.W. Provinces and Oudh.

XXX.—RAILWAY-BORNE TRADE OF THE NORTH-WEST PROVINCES AND OUDH, 1882-83.

From and To	Imports.	Per-centage.	Exports.	Per-centage.	TOTAL.	Per-centage.
	£.		£.		£.	
Calcutta - - - -	5,817,980	45	7,286,968	52	13,104,948	49
Bengal (excluding Calcutta) -	1,676,998	11	1,253,091	10	2,927,089	10
Bombay - - - -	1,346,052	12	1,853,566	9	2,699,618	10
Punjab - - - -	1,902,574	15	1,544,280	11	3,446,854	13
Rajputana and Gwalior - -	1,834,735	14	1,457,769	10	3,292,504	12
Central Provinces - - -	284,169	2	564,492	4	798,661	3
Southern India - - - -	97,713	1	513,914	4	610,627	3
TOTAL - - - £.	12,910,221	-	18,971,075	-	26,881,296	-

Table XXXI. shows the principal articles of railway-borne trade in the North-West Provinces and Oudh in 1882-83. Among the imports, cotton manufactures of all kinds make up together as much as 41 per cent.; salt, 9 per cent.; and metals of all sorts, 8 per cent. The exports are more equally distributed among opium, raw cotton, sugar, oilseeds, indigo, and wheat.

XXXI.—PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF RAILWAY-BORNE TRADE in the NORTH-WEST PROVINCES and OUDH, 1882-83.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	£.		£.
Cotton Twist and Yarn	807,724	Raw Cotton	1,793,080
Cotton Piece Goods (European)	4,791,917	Cotton Piece Goods (European)	99,008
Cotton Piece Goods (Indian)	277,515	Cotton Piece Goods (Indian)	442,505
Gram and Pulse	262,092	Wheat	1,046,920
Rice	254,363	Rice	176,117
Other Grains	204,674	Other Grains	70,123
Lac	190,615	Hides and Skins	319,700
Liquors	354,176	Indigo	1,413,654
Brass and Copper	456,411	Lac	305,880
Iron	431,804	Liquors	150,721
Other Metals	168,421	Metals	193,809
Salt	1,157,674	Opium	2,021,706
Sugar	189,006	Ghi	362,476
Coal	495,041	Oilseeds	1,471,814
Railway Materials	949,799	Sugar	1,490,021
Treasure	484,750	Coal	144,554
		Railway Materials	548,173
		Treasure	428,400

Railway-borne Trade of the Punjab.

Table XXXII. shows the railway-borne trade of the Punjab in 1882-83 divided according to routes. Of the three routes which reach the sea, Calcutta still holds the larger share, by reason of the imports, though the exports are every year being diverted to Karachi. The total railway-borne trade of the Punjab, including both imports and exports, amounted in 1882-83 to 10,834,047 l., being 12 s. 4 d. per head of the population.

XXXII.—RAILWAY-BORNE TRADE of the PUNJAB, 1882-83.

ROUTE.	Imports.	Per centage.	Exports.	Per centage.	TOTAL.	Per centage.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Calcutta	2,566,161	36	390,494	11	2,976,655	27
Bombay	1,748,096	25	213,130	5	1,962,126	18
Karachi	827,460	9	1,624,131	28	2,451,591	23
Other Stations	1,994,977	30	1,509,808	56	3,444,675	32
TOTAL - - - £.	7,096,594	-	3,738,453	-	10,834,047	-

Railway-borne Trade of the Central Provinces.

Table XXXIII. shows the railway borne trade of the Central Provinces in 1882-83, arranged according to principal articles. Of the total imports, cotton piece goods form 36 per cent.; salt, 12 per cent.; and sugar, 10 per cent. Of the total exports, wheat forms 31 per cent.; and oilseeds, 19 per cent. As regards distribution according to routes, information is only available for the weight of the traffic, received at, or sent from, the stations on the several railways which is shown by means of per-centages in Table XXXIV.

XXXIII.—RAILWAY-BORNE TRADE of the CENTRAL PROVINCES, 1882-83.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	£.		£.
Salt	18,936	Coal	21,820
Stoneware	1,140,461	Cotton	200,518
Metals	267,201	Wheat	1,285,440
Iron	864,852	Rice	310,518
Spices	16,650	Other Grains	169,041
Sugar	320,432	Ghi	77,400
Tobacco	104,701	Oilseeds	813,214
Annies Bagg	178,469	Stick Lac	91,937
Miscellaneous	717,489	Dyes	248,240
		Gunny Bagg	18,832
		Miscellaneous	908,908
TOTAL	£. 3,134,785	TOTAL	£. 4,195,875

XXXIV.—DISTRIBUTION according to Weight of the RAILWAY-BORNE TRADE of the CENTRAL PROVINCES, 1882-83.

ROUTE.	Imports. Percentage.	Exports. Percentage.	Total. Percentage.
East Indian	28	13	16
Great Indian Peninsula	56	51	52
Rajputana-Malwa	1	3	3
Wardha Coal	5	10	9
Nagpur-Chhattisgarh	12	23	21

The imports received at stations on the East Indian line consist mainly of salt, sugar, and coal. The exports sent from stations on the Nagpur-Chhattisgarh line consist mainly of wheat and oilseeds. Just one half of the exports on the Rajputana-Malwa line is coal. The total railway-borne trade of the Central Provinces, including both imports and exports, amounted in 1882-83 to 330,660 *l*, being 14 *s*. 11 *d*. per head of the population.

Table XXXV. shows the distribution of the inter-provincial trade of the Bombay Presidency (excluding Sind) in 1882-83, divided according to the provinces with which it is conducted. It will be seen that no less than 67 per cent. of the imports are received from the Central Provinces and Berar, while only 45 per cent. of the exports are sent thither, the excess value of the imports over the exports being as much as fourfold. The large proportion of exports sent to the North-West Provinces and Oudh, as compared with the small proportion of imports received thence, is noteworthy; but this trade is rapidly growing in both directions, the total increase on the previous year being 7 per cent.

Inter-Provincial
Trade of Bombay

XXXV.—DISTRIBUTION of the INTER-PROVINCIAL TRADE of BOMBAY PRESIDENCY (excluding Sind), 1882-83.

PROVINCE, &c.	Imports.	Per-centage.	Exports.	Per-centage.	TOTAL.	Per-centage.
	£.		£.		£.	
Bengal	197,990	1	28,343	—	226,333	1
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	2,001,533	9	1,631,396	19	3,632,929	12
Punjab	315,531	2	361,524	4	677,055	2
Rajputana and Central India	1,170,995	5	619,801	7	1,790,796	6
Central Provinces and Berar	14,514,878	67	3,875,514	45	18,372,392	60
Nizam's Territory	2,639,496	13	1,564,537	18	4,254,033	13
Madras and Mysore	724,700	3	533,886	7	1,358,586	4
TOTAL	21,615,123	—	8,697,001	—	30,312,124	—
By Rail	18,897,607	87	7,803,960	90	26,701,567	88
By Road	2,717,516	13	893,041	10	3,610,557	12

The following Table (XXXVI.) shows the total railway-borne trade of Bombay city in 1882-83, divided according to the lines by which it was carried, and also according as it was conducted within the limits of the Presidency or with other Provinces.

XXXVI.—DISTRIBUTION of the RAILWAY-BORNE TRADE of BOMBAY CITY, 1882-83.

ROUTE.	Imports.	Per-centage.	Exports.	Per-centage.	Total.	Per-centage.
	£.		£.		£.	
Great Indian Peninsula - . .	21,630,235	76	7,722,739	68	29,352,974	74
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India.	6,674,070	24	3,615,410	32	10,289,480	26
TOTAL	28,304,305	—	11,338,149	—	39,642,454	—
External	17,625,191	62	5,678,939	53	23,304,130	60
Internal	10,679,114	38	5,659,210	47	16,338,324	40

Railway-borne Trade of Bombay City.

The total railway-borne trade of Bombay city, including both exports and imports, amounted to 39,642,454 l., as compared with a total railway-borne trade of 51,783,274 l. at Calcutta in the same year; the excess of imports at Bombay being much more marked than at Calcutta. At Bombay the exports are pretty equally divided between the external and internal trade, while the imports from other Provinces largely exceed the imports from within the Presidency. The Great Indian Peninsula line carries a considerably larger share of the imports than of the exports.

Inter-Provincial Trade of Berar.

Table XXXVII. shows the inter-provincial trade of Berar in 1882-83, arranged according to routes. No less than 79 per cent. of the total trade is with Bombay. Of the imports, 37 per cent. are unmanufactured cotton goods, and 8 per cent. sugar; and of the exports 66 per cent. are raw cotton, and 7 per cent. wheat. The town of Amraoti received 30 per cent. of the railway-borne imports, and despatched 33 per cent. of the railway-borne exports; the town of Khamgaon received 14 per cent. and despatched 23 per cent. The total inter-provincial trade of Berar, including both imports and exports, amounted in 1882-83 to 6,168,624 l., being 2 l. 6 s. 2 d. per head of the population.

XXXVII.—INTER-PROVINCIAL TRADE OF BERAR, 1882-83.

ROUTE.	Imports.	Per-centage.	Exports.	Per-centage.	TOTAL.	Per-centage.
Railway :	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Bombay and the West -	1,884,711	69	3,011,182	87	4,895,893	79
Central Provinces - -	369,696	14	59,048	2	428,744	7
TOTAL - - - £.	2,254,407	83	3,070,230	89	5,324,637	86
Road :						
Southern Frontier - -	461,537	17	382,450	11	843,987	14
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	2,715,944	-	3,452,680	-	6,168,624	-

XVII.

PUBLIC WORKS.

History of the
Public Works
Department.

No Department of the Indian Government has grown at so rapid a rate as that of Public Works. Down to the time of Lord Dalhousie the State concerned itself only with the making of a few main roads, and with the construction of the buildings necessary for military and civil purposes. The general superintendence was entrusted to a Military Board for each of the three Presidencies. So late as the year 1849-50, the total expenditure on Public Works in all India amounted to only 345,694 l. The adoption of the policy of constructing railways by the agency of private companies under a system of Government guarantee, and the importance of the irrigation works undertaken by the State itself in Northern India and in Madras, led to the constitution in 1855 of a special Department of Public Works in the Government of India, with subordinate Departments for Madras and Bombay. In 1853-54 the expenditure on Public Works (excluding the capital of the guaranteed railway companies) reached 1,015,577 l.; and within five years it had risen to 4,310,231 l. During the twenty years following the Mutiny about 10 millions sterling was expended on permanent barracks for European troops. Down to the time of Lord Lawrence the entire expenditure upon Public Works (always excluding the capital of the guaranteed companies) was provided out of the current income of the year, even though the result was to show a large deficit, which had, of course, to be met by borrowing. In 1867-68, when the total expenditure on Public Works amounted to 6,300,854 l., a new financial policy was introduced, according to which special loans were incurred on account of irrigation canals, known as "Extraordinary" Public Works, as not being paid for out of the "ordinary" expenditure of the year. Two years later, when it had been decided that the State should in the future construct railways by its own agency, the same policy was adopted. In 1879, as the result of the Report of a Committee of the House of Commons, the epithet of "Productive" was substituted for that of "Extraordinary" Public Works; and the entire system of expenditure on Public Works was revised. A limit of 2,500,000 l. was fixed as the maximum sum to be borrowed in any single year on account of Public Works, which might be apportioned at the discretion of the Government between railways and irrigation. As a matter of fact, about 1,800,000 l. of the total sum has usually been applied to railways, and about 700,000 l. to irrigation; but though a limit was fixed to the amount that might be borrowed, no limit was fixed to the amount that might be expended, provided that the remainder of the expenditure was provided out of the current revenue of the year. At the same time a rigorous definition was given to the word "Productive," restricting its use to those railways and canals which would probably prove remunerative. The test of remunerativeness is that the net earnings are estimated to return 4 per cent. on the total capital expended within five years from the date of opening in the case of railways, and within ten years in the case of canals. Except the Madras Harbour, no other works but railways and canals have been included in the "Productive" class. Borrowing is permitted for "Productive" works alone, all others being left to current revenue; and in the case of all "Productive" works, even when they happen not to have been constructed out of borrowed money, the capital outlay is to be entered as if it had been entirely raised by loan, and interest at 4 per cent. is to be debited in the annual accounts. By these means, the total capital outlay on "Productive" Public Works, and also the financial result of each undertaking, are clearly shown. Such was the system of classification in 1882-83, the period to which this Report refers; the system has since been largely modified.

Extraordinary or
Productive Public
Works.

Ordinary Public
Works.

All other Public Works, except those classed as "Productive," are paid for each year out of current revenue. Besides roads and civil and military buildings, these include a considerable number of both railways and canals which the State has found it necessary to make, but which do not come within the definition of remunerativeness mentioned above. For some of them an account is kept of capital outlay, but no interest is debited against them.

A third

PROGRESS AND CONDITION OF INDIA, 1882-83.

A third class of Public Works is that styled "Protective," which has its origin in the Report of the Famine Commission, and first appears in the Finance Accounts of 1881-82. "Protective" railways and canals are those undertaken by the State for the express object of protecting a special tract of country against the risk of famine, altogether apart from any hope of direct remunerative results. The expenditure is defrayed not from the ordinary grant for Public Works, but out of the total sum of 1,500,000 l. which is set apart every year for Famine Relief and Insurance. Whatever part of this sum is not required for the actual relief of distress is devoted either to the reduction of the debt or to "Protective" Public Works.

Protective Public Works.

Besides the Public Works that are the property of the State, the transactions of the Guaranteed Railway Companies are also included in the Finance Accounts, under the heading of "Productive" Public Works. The net traffic receipts of these railways are paid into the Treasury, and the interest is paid to the shareholders, together with their share of surplus profits, if any. The East India Railway, which was purchased by the State in 1880, though the company still continues to work the line, is treated from the financial point of view as a State railway. Its entire gross earnings are entered under revenue, while on the expenditure side are shown (1), the working expenses, and (2), the amount paid to the shareholders for interest and annuity. The relations of the Government to the guaranteed railways will be referred to again; the present allusion is only meant to explain their presence in the accounts.

Guaranteed Railway Companies.

The new class of Subsidised or Assisted Railways are entered, on the other hand, among Public Works "Other than Productive." These are railways constructed by private companies, to which the State has granted pecuniary support, varying in different cases. The payments due appear on the expenditure side of the Finance Accounts, with no corresponding entry under revenue. Subsidised railways will also be mentioned again later on.

Subsidised or Assisted Railway Companies.

One further classification of the Public Works accounts remains to be noticed. This is based upon the division into Imperial, Provincial, and Local, which has already been explained in the chapter treating of Finance. From the present point of view the distinction is not of great importance. It runs across the classification into "Productive" and "Other than Productive." Most of the "Productive" canals and some of the "Productive" railways come under the heading "Provincial." The expenditure on military works is entirely Imperial, while almost all the Local expenditure on Public Works is devoted to civil buildings and roads.

Imperial, Provincial, and Local Public Works.

The development of the Public Works Department is shown in the following Table, which gives the expenditure charged against Public Works in the Finance Accounts in each of the five decennial years, 1842-43, 1852-53, 1862-63, 1872-73, and 1882-83, together with the total expenditure in those years, and the proportion that the Public Works expenditure bears to the total. It will be seen that the proportion has risen from less than one-hundredth in 1842-43 to nearly one third in 1882-83. The figures are expressed in millions sterling, to two decimal places.

Public Works Expenditure, 1842-43 to 1882-83.

EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC WORKS in the FIVE DECENNIAL YEARS, 1842-43, 1852-53, 1862-63, 1872-73, and 1882-83.

	Expenditure on Public Works.	Total Expenditure.	Proportion of Expenditure on Public Works to Total.
	£. millions.	£. millions.	
1842-43	·10	21·43	·00
1852-53	·63	25·27	2·53
1862-63	4·40	37·75	11·58
1872-73	12·52	56·87	21·90
1882-83	23·71	73·09	32·48

It should be clearly stated that what is here called Expenditure on Public Works is not identical with capital outlay. While it includes all capital expended by the State (but not the capital expended by guaranteed and subsidised companies), it also comprises the working expenses of State railways and canals,

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canals, together with all charges for interest, including not only the interest paid to guaranteed and subsidised companies, but also the interest debited against the capital outlay on Productive Public Works, even when that capital was not actually borrowed, but was provided out of revenue. In other words, it represents not money spent, in the ordinary acceptance of the term, but the financial transactions, both on capital and revenue account, which are involved in the management of an immense business.

Public Works
Expenditure and
Revenue, 1882-83.

The two following tables (I. and II.), which are taken from the Finance Accounts, show in detail the entire series of financial transactions undertaken by the State in connection with Public Works during 1882-83, classified under Productive, "Other than Productive," and "Protective," with a cross division into Imperial, Provincial, and Local, and a special column for those transactions which took place in England. Table I. comprises everything entered on the expenditure side of the account, with the addition of the capital outlay on "Productive" Works.

I.- PUBLIC WORKS EXPENDITURE (according to the Finance Accounts), 1882-83.

	India, Imperial.	England.	Provincial.	Local.	TOTAL.
	£	£.	£.	£.	£.
PRODUCTIVE:					
State Railways (Working Expenses) -	1,153,390	-	380,786	-	1,534,176
East Indian Railway (Working Expenses)	2,069,398	-	-	-	2,069,398
Guaranteed Railways (Surplus Profits, &c.)	552,772	-	-	-	552,772
Irrigation and Navigation (Working Expenses).	199,691	206	302,639	-	501,936
Madras Canal Company (Land and Supervision).	75	-	-	-	75
State Railways (Interest) -	969,122	-	257,580	-	1,226,702
East Indian Railway (Interest) -	138,571	348,002	-	-	486,573
East Indian Railway (Annuity) -	-	1,216,735	-	-	1,216,735
Irrigation and Navigation (Interest)	325,532	-	458,656	-	784,188
Madras Harbour (Interest) -	20,327	-	-	-	20,327
Guaranteed Railways (Interest) -	8,038	3,309,834	-	-	3,317,872
Madras Canal Company (Interest) -	-	24,903	-	-	24,903
TOTAL - - - £.	5,442,316	4,899,770	1,399,661	-	11,741,747
OTHER THAN PRODUCTIVE:					
State Railways (Capital) -	77,611	-	300,165	-	467,776
State Railways (Working Expenses) -	138,185	-	11,937	-	150,122
Subsidised Railways -	24,932	13,671	1,000	-	39,603
Southern Mahratta Railway -	32,950	-	-	-	32,950
Frontier Railways -	181,198	78,302	-	-	259,500
Irrigation and Navigation -	507,344	1,234	391,104	1,433	901,115
Military Works -	962,325	1,771	311	-	964,307
Civil Buildings, Roads, and other Services	502,691	82,236	2,304,798	1,460,587	4,350,314
TOTAL - - - £.	2,427,136	177,216	3,099,375	1,462,020	7,165,747
PROTECTIVE:					
Railways -	129,101	-	-	-	129,101
Irrigation -	263,433	-	-	-	263,433
TOTAL - - - £.	134,342	-	-	-	134,342
TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM REVENUE - £.	8,003,794	5,076,986	4,399,036	1,462,020	19,041,836

Capital Expenditure on Productive Public Works.	State Railways - - -	1,047,252
	East Indian Railway - - -	628,530
	Irrigation - - -	501,726
	Madras Canal Company - - -	1,762,582
	Madras Harbour - - -	49,809
TOTAL - - - £.	4,649,898	
Add transferred from Ordinary	15,214	
	4,065,112	
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	23,706,948	

Table II. comprises everything entered on the revenue side. In the "Productive" class the total expenditure and revenue may be set off against each other, so as to show the financial results of the year. If this be done, there appears a surplus of 482,353 £., which represents the actual profit to the State from "Productive" Public Works in 1882-83. In the case of Public Works Other than Productive, no such set-off can be attempted, for the expenditure includes capital outlay, and the greater portion of the revenue consists of miscellaneous receipts not in the nature of payment for work done.

II.—PUBLIC WORKS REVENUE (according to the Finance Accounts), 1882-83.

	India, Imperial.	England.	Provincial.	Local.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
PRODUCTIVE:					
State Railways (Gross Earnings) - - -	1,070,838	-	666,480	-	2,646,327
East Indian Railway (Gross Earnings) -	4,001,058	230	-	-	4,001,288
Guaranteed Railways (Net Traffic Receipts)	3,582,046	-	-	-	3,582,046
Irrigation and Navigation (Direct Receipts)	270,813	1,448	638,021	-	930,982
Irrigation (Land Revenue) - - -	469,081	-	-	-	469,081
Madras Canal Company (Net Traffic Receipts)	5,624	-	-	-	5,624
TOTAL - - - £.	10,897,312	1,678	1,323,110	-	12,221,100
OTHER THAN PRODUCTIVE:					
State Railways - - - - -	192,678	-	16,114	-	198,792
Subsidised Railways - - - - -	-	3,080	-	-	3,080
Irrigation and Navigation - - - - -	25,396	-	111,006	2,685	139,057
Military Works - - - - -	44,306	-	-	-	44,306
Civil Buildings, Roads, and other Services	5,750	14,440	337,398	127,150	601,747
TOTAL - - - £.	198,120	18,120	484,518	129,824	830,582
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	11,095,432	18,798	1,809,628	129,824	13,054,682

Table III. shows the financial results of "Productive" Public Works in each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. For the first three years of this period there was a heavy deficit. Then came the Famine, which, by adding largely to the railway receipts, had the effect of reducing the deficit in 1876-77, and turning it into a surplus in 1877-78. Since 1880-81 each year shows a surplus, but the net result for the whole period is a deficit of 4,363,814 £. It should be added that certain changes in the mode of keeping the accounts were introduced during the ten years. In 1877-78 the portion of land revenue due to irrigation was first credited to Public Works, though it was not until 1880-81 that this change of system was adopted in Madras and Bombay. In 1880-81 the East Indian Railway was purchased by the State; and henceforth its total gross earnings (as with other State lines), and not its net traffic receipts (as with the guaranteed companies), are included under revenue, while the expenditure is similarly augmented by the inclusion of its working expenses. The total capital expenditure for the ten years amounts to 56,065,309 £.; but this sum represents, not the actual capital outlay from loans and current revenue, but the nominal amount against which interest is charged. It includes the purchase-money of the East Indian Railway and of the Kurnool Canal in Madras, though of course no fresh liability for interest was incurred by these purchases. It also includes considerable sums transferred from "Ordinary" expenditure in past years to "Productive" capital outlay. This transfer is a mere matter of account, being occasioned by the necessity for charging interest whenever a work is removed from the "Ordinary" to the "Productive" class.

Financial Result of Productive Public Works, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

III.—“PRODUCTIVE” PUBLIC WORKS.—CAPITAL, EXPENDITURE, and REVENUE
(according to the Finance Accounts), 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Capital Outlay.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Excess of Revenue or Expenditure.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - - -	3,558,307	4,019,411	5,025,134	-1,006,723
1874-75 - - - - -	4,299,571	4,645,443	6,081,551	-1,436,108
1875-76 - - - - -	4,270,629	4,964,950	6,260,526	-1,295,567
1876-77 - - - - -	3,809,284	5,690,281	6,579,434	-889,153
1877-78 - - - - -	4,791,052	7,826,136	7,369,807	+ 456,329
1878-79 - - - - -	4,381,898	6,927,224	8,180,019	-1,253,695
1879-80 - - - - -	18,093,192	8,075,242	8,952,899	- 277,657
1880-81 - - - - -	9,297,233	10,804,102	10,741,751	+ 122,340
1881-82 - - - - -	3,952,031	12,230,858	11,007,800	+1,133,058
1882-83 - - - - -	4,065,112	12,224,100	11,741,747	+ 482,353
TOTAL - - - - -	£. 56,065,309	78,267,756	82,631,570	-4,263,814

Expenditure on
Public Works
other than Pro-
ductive, 1873-74
to 1882-83.

Table IV. shows the expenditure upon public works “Other than Productive” in each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. It has not been thought necessary to give the corresponding figures for revenue. The aggregate expenditure for the ten years amounts to 59,357,462 £, of which 10 per cent. was devoted to Railways, 12 per cent. to Irrigation, 19 per cent. to Military Buildings, and 59 per cent. to Civil Buildings, &c. Comparing the first year of the period with the last, the increase is 1,544,395 £, or 27 per cent. The increase of expenditure upon railways is very large, the two years 1880-81 and 1881-82 being exceptionally swollen by the heavy capital outlay upon frontier railways, which cannot be included under “Productive” works. Irrigation likewise shows an increase of just one-half on comparing the first year of the period with the last. The total expenditure on Military Buildings in any one year is now limited to 1,000,000 £. Owing to this restriction, it will be seen that the amount since 1879-80 has always been much less than the amount before 1879-80. Comparing the first year of the period with the last, the decrease is 14 per cent. Under Civil Buildings, &c., the important points to notice are the considerable reductions made in the three years 1877-78 to 1879-80, and the large increase in the two last years. Comparing 1882-83 with 1873-74, the increase amounts to 13 per cent.

IV.—TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON PUBLIC WORKS “OTHER THAN PRODUCTIVE”
(according to the Finance Accounts), 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Railways.	Irrigation.	Military.	Civil Build- ings, Roads, &c.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - - -	32,766	595,296	1,122,600	3,870,910	5,621,572
1874-75 - - - - -	105,193	663,034	1,185,920	3,497,700	5,451,847
1875-76 - - - - -	66,279	775,205	1,337,738	3,345,737	5,525,000
1876-77 - - - - -	27,287	615,162	1,202,322	3,347,628	5,192,399
1877-78 - - - - -	71,394	757,759	1,153,929	3,083,883	5,066,965
1878-79 - - - - -	220,850	630,910	1,190,528	3,129,204	5,171,501
1879-80 - - - - -	1,805,700	668,907	966,297	2,980,202	6,371,106
1880-81 - - - - -	3,070,018	709,103	969,168	3,348,554	7,397,443
1881-82 - - - - -	689,882	789,933	1,070,516	4,043,170	6,303,531
1882-83 - - - - -	950,911	901,115	964,307	4,350,314	7,166,747
TOTAL - - - - -	£. 6,140,040	7,107,018	11,163,721	34,946,688	59,357,462

Table V.

Table V. shows the expenditure upon "Protective" works in the two years 1881-82 and 1882-83. This heading was first introduced into the accounts in 1881-82.

Expenditure on Protective Public Works, 1881-82 and 1882-83.

V.—EXPENDITURE ON "PROTECTIVE" WORKS (according to the Finance Accounts), 1881-82 and 1882-83.

	Railways.	Irrigation.	TOTAL.
1881-82	£ 614,551	£ 185,449	£ 750,000
1882-83	— 129,101	268,448	134,342
TOTAL	485,450	398,892	884,342

So far Public Works have been treated from the point of view of the Finance Accounts. The two important headings of Railways and Irrigation will now be considered separately, from the materials provided in the reports of the Public Works Department. The figures will not agree with those already given for many reasons. The accounts are not always compiled on the same principles, nor do they always cover the same period of twelve months; and in the case of railways, not a few lines are excluded from the Finance Accounts as being altogether independent of the State.

The railway system of India dates from the time of Lord Dalhousie, to whom is due the plan of the great trunk lines which now join the furthest corners of the country. So far back as 1843 proposals had been made to construct railways in India by unassisted private enterprise. But all these schemes came to nought; and the system of supporting private enterprise by a Government guarantee, which was led to such great results, was adopted in 1849. In the following year (1850) the first sod of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway was turned at Bombay; and by 1853 the line was open as far as Thana, a distance of about 20 miles. The East Indian Railway, which starts from Calcutta (or rather from Howrah, on the opposite bank of the river to Calcutta) was begun at about the same time; and, though open for only 120 miles when the Mutiny broke out, proved of signal service in the dispatch of troops to the front. Somewhat later came the Madras Railway; and afterwards the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India, the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi, and the South India. The last of all the guaranteed companies was the Oudh and Rohilkhand. With the exception of the South Indian, all these lines are on the broad gauge of 5 ft. 6 in.; the South Indian, like many of the State lines, is on the metre gauge of 3 ft 6 in. In 1871 direct railway communication was established between Bombay and Calcutta, and between Bombay and Madras. After that date the extension of railways was undertaken directly by the State, and yet more recently by subsidised companies.

RAILWAYS.
The History of Railways.

The terms of the contract between the Government and the guaranteed companies may be thus summarised. The Government guarantees interest at the rate of 5 per cent. on all share capital raised with its consent, and at a lower rate upon debenture capital. The Government also gives free of charge all the land required for the undertaking. The company constructs and works the line, subject to the supervision of Government, which is exercised in England through an official director, and in India through a consulting engineer. Mails are carried free; troops and Government stores on favourable terms. Interest is paid half-yearly. If the net profits in any half year do not equal the amount of guaranteed interest, the balance is made good by Government; if the net profits exceed the amount, the excess is divided equally between the Government and the company. The guaranteed interest is paid in sterling. All transactions between India and England are usually entered at the arbitrary rate of exchange of 1 s. 10 d. per rupee, but the surplus profits of the companies have to be brought home at the current rate of exchange. The Government has the option of purchasing the undertaking of any company, at certain specified dates, on payment of the value of the shares calculated at their market price on the average of three preceding years. The first date for exercising such option was unfortunately allowed to let pass in the case of the Indian Peninsula Railway; but the East Indian Railway was acquired by the State under this power in 1880, and the Eastern

Guaranteed Railway Companies.

Bengal Railway in 1884, while notice of a similar intention has yet more recently been given to the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Company. On the other hand, the companies have the option of demanding repayment of their capital, upon their giving six months' notice of their intention to surrender the railway. The only undertaking surrendered to the State under this provision is the Calcutta and South Eastern Railway, which found itself unable to defray its working expenses out of its gross traffic receipts.

Financial Results
of Guaranteed
Railways, 1883.

The financial results of each of the guaranteed railways in the calendar year 1883 are shown in the following table (VI.) Three of the lines earned more than the guaranteed interest, and four earned less, leaving a net surplus of 253,534 l. The Madras, the South Indian, and the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railways have never yet earned the full amount of their interest; the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi has earned the full amount only in one half year, the first half of 1880. The Eastern Bengal Railway has earned more than the full amount in every half year but one since the beginning of 1876. The Great Indian Peninsula usually earns a considerable excess in the first half of each year, but shows a deficit in the second half. The result of this is in favour of the company and against the Government; for, owing to the system of striking the accounts half yearly, the deficit of the last six months is not set off against the surplus of the first six months. The Government makes good the entire deficit, while the company reaps the benefit of a clear half of the surplus. The results of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway similarly show a surplus in the first half of the year, and a deficit in the second half; but in this case the surplus for several half-years was not divided between the company and the Government, but was devoted, by a special arrangement, to the construction of the Narbaña Bridge.

VI.—RESULTS OF GUARANTEED RAILWAYS, 1883.

	Net Receipts.	Guaranteed Interest.	Surplus or Deficit.
	£.	£.	£.
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India	621,858	396,015	+ 225,843
Eastern Bengal	246,000	153,720	+ 92,280
Great Indian Peninsula	1,618,002	1,145,210	+ 472,792
Madras	231,600	522,234	- 290,634
Oudh and Rohilkhand	248,036	313,600	- 65,564
Sind, Punjab, and Delhi	449,863	553,766	- 103,903
South Indian	126,724	203,905	- 77,181
TOTAL	3,542,973	2,280,430	+ 253,534

Financial Results
of Guaranteed
Railways, 1874 to
1883.

Table VII. shows the financial results of the Guaranteed Railways for each of the ten years, 1874 to 1883. Down to 1879 the East Indian Railway is included; afterwards it is excluded as having become a State line. It will be seen that a surplus was first realised in 1877, when the receipts were largely augmented by the traffic in food-grain to the famine stricken districts. The exclusion of the East Indian Railway caused a deficit in 1880 and 1881, but this has again been turned into a surplus for the two last years of the series. The result for the whole ten years is a net deficit of 383,786 l.

VII.—COMPARATIVE RESULTS OF GUARANTEED RAILWAYS, 1874 to 1883.

	Net Receipts.	Guaranteed Interest.	Surplus or Deficit.
	£.	£.	£.
1874	3,956,071	4,651,086	- 695,015
1875	3,576,514	4,641,979	- 1,065,465
1876	4,442,430	4,658,947	- 216,517
1877	6,117,226	4,662,636	+ 1,454,590
1878	5,002,028	4,708,134	+ 293,894
1879	6,062,188	4,748,233	+ 1,313,955
1880*	2,662,213	3,263,179	- 600,966
1881	3,110,824	3,272,651	- 161,827
1882	3,319,439	3,279,407	+ 40,032
1883	3,542,973	3,280,430	+ 263,534
TOTAL DEFICIT	-	-	- 383,786

* East Indian Railway excluded.

The

The financial results to Government for each of the guaranteed railways (excluding the East Indian) from the beginning down to the year 1883, are shown in table VIII. Down to the end of 1883 a total sum of 61,067,964 £ has been paid in interest by the State to the companies, while the total net earnings of the railways (not including the share of surplus profits in any half year which belongs to the companies) amount to 35,439,120 £, leaving 25,628,844 £ as the net sum actually paid by the State.

Financial Results to Government of Guaranteed Railways.

VIII.—FINANCIAL RESULTS to Government of GUARANTEED RAILWAYS* from the beginning to 1883.

	Total paid by Government as Interest.	Total Received by Government as Net Earnings.	Net Total paid by Government.
	£.	£.	£.
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India - - -	7,865,111	4,758,981	3,106,130
Eastern Bengal - - - - -	2,802,372	2,642,352	160,020
Great Indian Peninsula - - - - -	22,686,591	16,595,481	6,091,160
Madras - - - - -	11,924,119	4,778,221	6,245,898
Oudh and Rohilkhand - - - - -	3,510,211	1,630,710	1,879,501
Sind, Punjab, and Delhi - - - - -	10,253,097	3,716,804	6,536,293
South Indian - - - - -	2,022,463	1,286,621	1,035,842
TOTAL - - - - £.	61,067,964	35,439,120	25,628,844

* Excluding the East Indian.

Table IX. shows the total amount of surplus profits that have been earned by each of the guaranteed railways in any half year from the beginning down to the end of 1883. The East India Railway is excluded after 1879, and no account is taken of the surplus profits of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, which were not divided, but devoted to the construction of the Narbada Bridge. In the two half years of 1883 the surplus profits earned by all the companies amounted to 911,382 £. as compared with 917,312 £. in 1882, and 652,195 £. in 1881. From the beginning down to 1883 the total surplus profits have been 10,160,130 £.

Surplus Profits of Guaranteed Railways.

IX.—SURPLUS PROFITS Earned by GUARANTEED RAILWAYS from the beginning to 1883.

	During 1883,		To End of 1883.
	First Half Year.	Second Half Year.	
	£.	£.	£.
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India* - - -	201,974	7,903	553,080
Eastern Bengal - - - - -	45,420	46,276	863,377
East Indian † - - - - -	-	-	5,856,427
Great Indian Peninsula - - - - -	609,803	-	2,804,368
Sind, Punjab, and Delhi - - - - -	-	-	3,872
TOTAL - - - - £.	857,203	54,179	10,160,130

* Excluding profits devoted to the construction of the Narbada Bridge.

† Down to 1879 only.

The East Indian
Railway.

The East Indian Railway, as already mentioned, was acquired by the State in 1880, though it continues to be worked by the company. The terms of purchase were settled by special arrangement, based upon the provision in the original contract that the share capital should be taken at the average market price of the three preceding years. The price agreed upon was 125*l.* per 100*l.* stock, raising the actual capital of 26,200,000*l.* to the nominal total of 32,750,000*l.* The payment was made in the form of an annuity for 74 years of 4*l.* 6*s.* per cent., being at the rate of 5*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* on each 100*l.* of original stock. The annual charge of the annuity, as at first arranged, amounted to 1,473,750*l.* As part of the same arrangement, a fresh contract was entered into between the Government and the company, by which the company should work the line for 50 years, terminable after the twentieth year. As incident to this contract of working, it was agreed that a sum of 6,550,000*l.*, being one-fifth of the total nominal capital of 32,750,000*l.*, should remain with the Secretary of State, subject to the payment of interest at 4 per cent., the annuity representing this sum being deferred for the period of the contract. After deducting working expenses, the net receipts of each half year are subject to the following charges in order: (1) The annuity, now reduced to the amount of 1,179,000*l.*; (2) Interest on the capital of the company, viz., the 6,550,000*l.* above mentioned; (3) Interest on the debenture debt of the company, amounting to a total of 4,750,000*l.*, which was taken over by the Government; (4) Interest at 4½ per cent. on all money advanced by the Government from time to time for the working and development of the undertaking. The residue is then divided in the proportion of four-fifths to the Government and one-fifth to the company. It was further provided that shareholders in the company might convert their annuity into India 4 per cent. stock, at the rate of 125*l.* stock for every 5*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* of annuity; and the option of conversion has subsequently been extended to 3¼ per cent. stock. This conversion, however, is a transaction concerned only with the public debt; the charge against the East Indian Railway remains the same. The general result of the new contract, as compared with the old, yielded an advantage to the Government during the first year (1880) of about 260,000*l.* To this must be added the repayment of capital included in the annuity, which amounts to about 440,000*l.* a year, raising the entire advantage to about 700,000*l.* On the termination of the annuity in 1953, the Government will come into unencumbered possession of the line.

Financial Results
of East Indian
Railway,
1880 to 1883.

The following table (X.) shows the financial results of the East Indian Railway, including branch State lines worked by it, in each of the four calendar years 1880 to 1883.

X.—FINANCIAL RESULTS OF EAST INDIAN RAILWAY, 1880 to 1883.

	Net Traffic Receipts.	Total Charges for Annuity and Interest.	Surplus Profits.	Share of Government.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
1880 - - - - -	2,876,439	1,080,004	886,345	702,204
1881 - - - - -	3,094,831	2,062,808	1,031,933	825,347
1882 - - - - -	2,971,231	2,080,288	890,963	712,770
1883 - - - - -	3,172,954	2,119,098	1,053,861	843,089

State Railways.

The new policy of constructing and working railways by the direct agency of the State, instead of through the intervention of guaranteed companies, was first proposed by Lord Lawrence in 1869, and adopted by Lord Mayo in the following year. At this time the great trunk lines connecting the provincial capitals had been substantially completed, with two exceptions—the continuation of the north western line from Delhi to Peshawar, and a link on the

the Indus Valley connecting two separate portions of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. All the other lines undertaken by the State are in the nature of feeders to the great trunk lines, or projects for the opening up of remote tracts. The question of the gauge to be adopted gave rise to much controversy. It was originally proposed, on grounds of economy, that all State railways should be constructed on the narrow gauge of the metre, or 3 ft. 3½ in. In the case of the Punjab Northern Railway, and of the Indus Valley Railway, above referred to, this decision was changed, and both these lines have been constructed on the broad gauge of 5 ft. 6 in., uniform with the main system, of which they practically form part. Several of the feeder lines, which can be worked profitably only by interchange with the existing trunk lines, have likewise been constructed on the broad gauge. But the remaining State lines, including the important railway across Rajputana and Malwa, and all the railways in Northern Bengal and British Burma, are on the metre gauge. In a few exceptional cases, the still narrower gauge of 2 ft. 6 in. has been adopted. Several of the State railways are worked by the guaranteed companies as part of their system.

From the financial point of view, the State railways are divided into those constructed by the British Government, and those constructed by Native States. The Rajputana-Malwa Railway, and likewise the branch lines to the capitals of Sindia and Holkar, come under the first class, inasmuch as they have been constructed out of capital advanced by the British Government. Some of the Native State lines are worked by the guaranteed companies; but for purposes of account they stand apart from the general railway system of India.

State railways may be further sub-divided according to two different principles. They are either "Productive," or "Other than Productive," to which a third class of "Protective" ought, in strictness, to be added. They are also either "Imperial," or "Provincial." The principles of division, which have already been explained, imply an important difference of account. "Productive" railways are those which, it is anticipated, will yield a return of 4 per cent. within four years after opening. Their construction may be provided out of borrowed money, subject to the general limitation upon all loans for Public Works. But whether the capital is entirely provided by loan, or comes partly out of current revenue, it is treated in either case as if it had been borrowed; and interest upon it is debited against the railway in the Finance Accounts. Railways "Other than Productive," which include frontier railways, must be paid for entirely out of current revenue; and no interest is charged against them, even though the capital expenditure may be kept distinct. The difference between "Imperial" and "Provincial" railways depends solely upon the system of Provincial finance. "Provincial" railways are those for which the subordinate Government is alone financially responsible. They include some "Productive" lines, though most belong to the other class.

Table XI., which is taken from the Finance Accounts, shows the financial results of the several "Productive" State railways (including those not yet open for traffic) in 1882-83. The total capital expended up to 31st March 1883, amounted to 31,366,174 l.; excluding interest, the net profits show a yield of 3.55 per cent. on this amount of capital; including interest at 4 per cent., which is calculated on the total expended at the beginning of the year, and on one-half of the expenditure during the year, the net profits fail to make up the amount due by 37 per cent. But it must be borne in mind, not only that some of the lines have been very recently opened, but also that the total charge for interest includes that on capital expended on lines not yet open.

Productive S
Railways.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

XI.—FINANCIAL RESULTS of "PRODUCTIVE" STATE RAILWAYS (according to the Finance Accounts), 1882-83.

	Capital Outlay.		Gross Earnings.	Working Expenses.	Excluding Interest.		Interest.	Including Interest.	
	During 1882-83.	To end of 1882-83.			Excess Revenue.	Rate per Cent. on Capital.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital.
BENGAL:	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.	£.	
Calcutta and South Eastern	—786	6,30,045	16,629	6,785	7,736	1-15	27,127	—10,242	—2-63
Nalhati	—308	33,001	7,400	8,089	6,848	7-11	1,330	+ 1,018	+ 2-08
Northern Bengal	880	2,00,350	227,990	107,159	120,887	8-78	63,837	+ 27,009	+ 1-77
Tirhut	26,478	645,916	70,981	44,053	26,929	4-77	24,107	+ 2,822	+ 4-44
Patna and Gaya	237	385,829	19,834	27,100	12,784	8-30	15,129	—2,505	—0-81
Tirhut-Extension	290,896	535,500	-	-	-	-	16,894	—16,894	—2-15
Banaghat-Bhagwangola	1,250	1,250	-	-	-	-	25	—25	—0-00
Dacca-Mymensingh	39,061	47,815	-	-	-	-	1,121	—1,121	—2-87
Manikganga-Hajipur	3,974	5,991	-	-	-	-	158	—158	—0-00
BRITISH BURMA:									
Rangoon and Irrawaddy	58,623	1,346,123	158,688	96,816	39,872	4-45	52,064	+ 7,188	+ 5-83
Rangoon and Sittong	390,781	599,503	-	-	-	-	16,264	—16,264	—2-78
CENTRAL PROVINCES:									
Nagpur and Chhatisgarh	166,831	956,966	85,896	40,123	36,755	3-95	35,078	+ 1,077	+ 1-16
Wardha Coal	16,811	609,782	67,267	43,442	21,825	3-08	16,264	—2,316	—3-36
NORTH WEST PROVINCES AND OUDH:									
Ghazipur and Dildaragar	4,292	72,159	4,847	4,100	678	0-84	2,804	—2,126	—2-95
Cawnpur and Farrukhabad	415	320,204	33,686	29,255	12,321	3-89	12,204	—372	—1-16
Mettra and Achnera	—1,296	62,911	7,138	5,819	1,826	2-11	2,543	—1,217	—1-98
Muttra and Hathras	8,515	115,911	11,709	7,511	4,198	3-68	4,458	—245	—0-22
Patna-Uharach	—7,892	-	-	-	-	-	152	—152	-
Bareilly-Milibit	—7,714	21,167	-	-	-	-	512	—512	—2-42
PUNJAB:									
Panjab, Northern	86,839	4,549,929	231,998	176,237	65,591	1-22	180,860	—122,285	—2-76
Indus Valley	162,982	6,898,478	519,279	319,150	200,140	2-91	272,299	—72,149	—1-05
Amritsar-Fathankot	186,744	360,922	-	-	-	-	4,692	—4,692	—2-22
BOMBAY:									
Dhoni and Manmad	6,677	1,002,460	19,999	-	16,000	1-50	39,065	—23,066	—2-30
INDIA, GENERAL:									
Rajputana-Malwa	814,538	3,068,289	1,112,325	586,061	594,674	5-02	372,160	+ 152,514	+ 1-63
Holkar	6,847	1,271,689							
Sidda	15,264	883,226	32,630	22,626	8,309	0-2	25,064	—26,664	—2-04
Storekeeper	2,880	10,480	-	-	-	-	600	—600	—3-65
Stores	—21,071	—21,071	-	-	-	-	—439	+ 439	-
TOTAL	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.	£.	
	1,647,222	31,260,174	2,046,227	1,584,176	1,112,151	3-23	1,226,709	—114,551	—3-7

Table XII shows the financial results of all "Productive" State railways for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. It will be seen that the gross earnings first covered the working expenses in 1874-75, and that a steady improvement in this respect is shown for every year since 1876-77.

XII.—FINANCIAL RESULTS OF "PRODUCTIVE" STATE RAILWAYS (according to the Finance Accounts), 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Capital Outlay		Gross Earnings	Working Expenses	Excluding Interest.		Interest.	Including Interest.	
	During the Year.	To end of the Year.			Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	-	£.	£.	
1873-74	2,334,825	5,606,128	39,914	46,988	- 6,674	- '15	177,192	- 182,626	- 4'15
1874-75	5,014,180	9,670,308	130,988	86,004	+ 84,982	+ '77	284,827	- 329,845	- 2'83
1875-76	3,765,184	11,785,492	292,835	193,414	+ 97,421	+ 1'06	408,116	- 310,695	- 3'62
1876-77	2,865,861	14,651,353	330,668	237,989	+ 92,679	+ '70	528,737	- 434,068	- 3'30
1877-78	1,984,968	18,636,321	582,077	426,005	+ 156,072	+ '94	665,754	- 509,682	- 3'06
1878-79	3,327,888	21,964,200	976,828	740,373	+ 234,455	+ 1'15	918,512	- 779,037	- 3'64
1879-80	2,680,493	24,644,702	1,548,788	1,215,281	+ 333,507	+ 1'38	1,049,700	- 718,307	- 3'83
1880-81	*3,402,331	30,017,933	2,268,005	1,607,528	+ 660,477	+ 0'49	1,304,500	- 548,123	- 1'98
1881-82	*1,856,678	28,702,008	2,356,542	1,686,299	+ 670,243	+ 2'91	1,160,445	- 290,225	- 1'01
1882-83	*1,662,460	31,366,174	2,610,327	1,534,176	+ 1,116,151	+ 3'55	1,228,702	- 114,551	- '37

* The sum of 848,711 £. was transferred from "Ordinary Expenditure" in 1880-81, the sum of 21,524 £. in 1881-82, and the sum of 15,214 £. in 1882-83.

From the nature of the case it is impossible to exhibit the results of State railways "Other than Productive" in the same form; but an attempt has been made to do so in table XV. for those which are open for working and for which a capital account is kept. All the capital, it may be repeated, is provided out of current revenue, and no interest is charged in the accounts. Frontier railways and "Protective" railways are excluded.

Table XIII. gives the total capital expenditure on State railways "Other than Productive" in 1882-83, arranged according to Provinces, and divided into Imperial and Provincial.

XIII.—CAPITAL EXPENDITURE ON STATE RAILWAYS, "Other than PRODUCTIVE" (according to the Finance Accounts), 1882-83.

	Imperial.	Provincial.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.
India, General	82,821	-	82,821
Bengal	16,835	184,946	200,781
Assam	7,277	-	7,277
North-West Provinces and Oudh	-	189,967	189,967
Punjab	-	3,116	3,116
Central Provinces	565	153	718
Madras	257	794	1,051
Bombay	- 29,144	11,189	- 17,955
TOTAL	£. 77,611	390,165	467,776

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Table XIV. gives the corresponding totals for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. The growth of Provincial expenditure in the last two years is noticeable.

XIV.—CAPITAL EXPENDITURE ON STATE RAILWAYS "Other than PRODUCTIVE," (according to the Finance Accounts), 1873-74 to 1884-85.

	Imperial.	Provincial.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - - -	20,436	6,330	32,766
1874-75 - - - - -	97,879	7,314	105,193
1875-76 - - - - -	21,228	45,051	66,279
1876-77 - - - - -	41,777	— 14,490	27,287
1877-78 - - - - -	57,068	14,326	71,394
1878-79 - - - - -	172,042	48,808	220,850
1879-80 - - - - -	408,568	4,842	471,410
1880-81 - - - - -	50,635	20,368	77,003
1881-82 - - - - -	121,418	120,255	247,673
1882-83 - - - - -	77,611	390,165	467,776
TOTAL - - - £.	1,138,662	648,969	1,787,631

Table XV. gives the financial results of those State railways "Other than Productive" which were open for traffic in 1882-83. The net result was that the gross receipts failed to cover the working expenses by the sum of 11,330 l., though the two Provincial lines in Bengal each paid their way.

XV.—FINANCIAL RESULTS OF STATE RAILWAYS "Other than PRODUCTIVE" (according to the Finance Accounts), 1882-83.

	Gross Receipts.	Working Expenses.	Excess Revenue or Expenditure.
	£.	£.	£.
IMPERIAL:			
Bhopal - - - - -	1,438	1,979	— 539
Kandahar - - - - -	48,390	51,412	— 3,022
Punjab, Northern - - - - -	72,850	84,797	— 11,947
TOTAL - - -	122,678	138,186	— 15,507
PROVINCIAL (BENGAL):			
Diamond Harbour - - - - -	5,487	2,898	+ 2,589
Kaunia-Dharla - - - - -	10,627	9,039	+ 1,588
TOTAL - - -	16,114	11,937	+ 4,177
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	138,792	150,123	— 11,330

Frontier Railways.

In order to complete the analysis of the expenditure of the State upon railways "Other than Productive," it is necessary to include not only Frontier and "Protective" railways, but also the new class known as "Subsidised." Frontier railways consist of the line from Sakkhar, on the Indus Valley Railway, to Sibi, in Beluchistan, at the foot of the Bolan Pass, which is now being extended to Quetta; and the extension of the Punjab Northern line across the Indus to Peshawar, which was completed in 1883, together with the extension of the branch from Gujrat through the Sind Sagar Doab to Multan. Both these lines are constructed for military reasons. Down to 1882-83, the total expenditure upon them had been 4,112,147 l. "Protective" railways are those constructed with the primary object of averting famine; and the expenditure is specially charged against the sum of 1,500,000 l. set apart each year for famine relief. Down to 1882-83 the total expenditure on "Protective" railways had been 485,650 l.

Subsidised

Subsidised, or Assisted railways, represent the latest form taken by railway enterprise in India. The amount of assistance promised by the Government varies in each case; but the land is always given free, and an option of purchase is always reserved to the State. In the case of the Bengal and North Western Company, the State gives no pecuniary assistance, whatever but stipulates for an option of purchase at the end of 30 years, on payment of five times the value of the total net earnings of the line for the previous five years. In the case of the Bengal Central Company, a guarantee is given of 4 per cent. on paid-up capital during construction, to be repaid by the company, with simple interest, out of half of the net earnings when they exceed 5 per cent; the option of purchase may be exercised at the end of 30 years by paying 125 l. for 100 l. stock. In the case of the Assam Railway Company, the Government guarantees interest at 5 per cent. for 20 years, subject to the proviso that the contribution shall not exceed 10,000 l. in any one year. The Southern Mahratta Railway Company is a direct agent of the Government rather than an assisted company. The Government gives a guarantee of 3½ per cent., together with one-fourth of the net receipts, and is entitled to purchase the undertaking after 25 years on repayment of the capital expended. Down to 1882-83, the several Subsidised or Assisted companies had only 97 miles of lines open for traffic, of which 50 miles were on the tiny 2-feet gauge of the Darjiling-Himalayan Railway; but the additional length of 1,231 miles had been sanctioned.

Table XVI., which is taken from the Finance Accounts, shows the expenditure on Subsidised and Frontier Railways incurred by the State in 1882-83. The capital outlay of the Subsidised companies is not included.

XVI.—EXPENDITURE by the STATE ON SUBSIDISED RAILWAYS, FRONTIER RAILWAYS, &c. (according to the Finance Accounts), 1882-83.

SUBSIDISED RAILWAYS:	£.
Compensation for Land taken up:	
Tarkessur - - - - -	1,060
Bengal Central - - - - -	21,210
Bengal and North-Western - - - - -	3,732
TOTAL - - - £.	26,002
Interest advanced:	
Bengal Central - - - - -	13,820
Rohilkhand-Kumaon - - - - -	851
TOTAL - - - £.	14,671
TOTAL Subsidised Railways - - £.	40,673
 SOUTHERN MAHRATTA RAILWAY:	
Interest on subscribed capital - - - - -	32,930
 FRONTIER RAILWAYS:	
Punjab, Northern - - - - -	295,517
Kandahar - - - - -	25,292
Storekeeper - - - - -	1,607
Stores in England - - - - -	— 62,916
TOTAL Frontier Railways - - £.	259,500
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	392,113

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Table XVII. shows the total expenditure on Subsidised, Frontier, and "Protective" railways, incurred by the State since the beginning of each system down to 1882-83.

XVII.—EXPENDITURE by the State on SUBSIDISED RAILWAYS, FRONTIER RAILWAYS, &c. (according to the Finance Accounts),—1879-80 to 1882-83.

	1879-80.	1880-81	1881-82.	1882-83.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Subsidised Railways - - - - -	- - -	- - -	17,527	39,663	57,190
Southern Mahratta Railway - - - - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	32,950	32,950
Frontier Railways - - - - -	1,334,350	2,293,615	224,062	259,500	4,112,147
Protective Railways - - - - -	- - -	- - -	614,551	120,101	485,450
TOTAL - - - - £.	1,334,350	2,293,615	856,750	203,012	4,687,787

The entire railway system of India may, therefore, be classified under five heads: (1) East Indian; (2) Guaranteed Companies, seven in number; (3) State Railways, further subdivided into Imperial and Provincial; (4) Native State Railways; (5) Assisted Companies.

The following table (XVIII.) shows the total length sanctioned up to March 1883 for each of these five classes, the total length open, and the length of double lines. The length opened in the course of the year was 373½ miles, of which 299½ miles were State Railways. The length sanctioned, but not yet open, amounts to 2,338 miles, of which 842½ are State Railways, and 1,231 Assisted Companies. The length of double lines was 862½ miles, of which 468½ miles were East Indian, and all the rest Guaranteed Companies.

Length of railway sanctioned and open for traffic.

XVIII.—LENGTH of RAILWAYS SANCTIONED and OPEN for TRAFFIC, March 1883.

	Length Sanctioned.	Length Opened during Year.	Length Open at end of Year.	Length remaining to be Finished.	Length of Double Line.
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.
East Indian - - - - -	1,613	2½	1,506½	6½	468½
Guaranteed Companies - - - - -	4,776½	2½	4,611½	164½	394
State Railways:					
Imperial - - - - -	2,790½	159½	2,572½	218	—
Provincial - - - - -	1,650½	139½	1,026	624½	—
TOTAL - - - - -	4,441½	299½	3,598½	842½	—
Native State Railways - - - - -	597½	30	503½	93½	—
Assisted Companies - - - - -	1,927½	39	96½	1,231	—
GRAND TOTAL - - - - -	12,055½	373½	10,817½	2,338	862½

Railway Gauges.

The following table (XIX.) exhibits the length of line open in each class in March 1883 according to gauge. The East Indian is entirely broad gauge, and so are all the Guaranteed Railways; except the South Indian. The Imperial State Railways are almost equally divided between broad and narrow gauge, the Northern Punjab and Indus Valley being balanced by the Rajputana-Malwa. In the Provincial State Railways narrow gauge largely predominates, and

and so to a less degree in the Native State Railways. The 4-feet gauge, and the gauges narrower than the metre gauge, may be disregarded as exceptional.

XIX.—GAUGES OF RAILWAYS OPEN FOR TRAFFIC, MARCH 1883.

	5 Feet 6 Inches.	3 Feet 3½ Inches.	4 Feet.	2 Feet 6 Inches.	2 Feet.
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.
East Indian - - - - -	1,506½	—	—	—	—
Guaranteed Companies - - - - -	3,958	653½	—	—	—
State Railways:					
Imperial - - - - -	1,295½	1,277½	—	—	—
Provincial - - - - -	126	336½	27½	34½	—
TOTAL - - - - -	1,423½	2,113½	27½	34½	—
Native State Railways - - - - -	146½	297	—	60½	—
Assisted Companies - - - - -	20	26½	—	—	50
GRAND TOTAL - - - - -	7,054½	3,091	27½	94½	50

Following the same classification into five heads, it is now possible to present a series of tables showing uniformly the principal statistics for every railway in India for the calendar year 1883. These statistics comprise (1) The length of line open at the end of the year; (2) The total capital outlay; (3) The capital outlay per mile open; (4) The number of passengers conveyed; (5) The weight of goods carried; (6) The gross earnings; (7) The working expenses; (8) The net receipts; (9) The percentage of working expenses to gross earnings; (10) The percentage of net receipts to capital outlay. Table XX. gives these statistics for the East Indian and the Guaranteed Companies, with a total for the two classes, as being to a great extent identical. Detailed Railway Statistics, 1883.

XX.—DETAILED RAILWAY STATISTICS, 1883.

(A)—EAST INDIAN AND GUARANTEED COMPANIES.

	Length of Line Open.	Total Capital Outlay.	Capital Outlay per Mile Open.	Number of Passengers Conveyed.	Weight of Goods Carried.	Gross Earnings.	Working Expenses.	Net Receipts.	Per- centage of Working Expenses to Gross Earnings.	Per- centage of Net Receipts to Capital Outlay.
	Miles.	£.	£.		Tons.	£.	£.	£.		
EAST INDIAN* - - - - -	1,506.46	34,894,452	22,689	11,929,231	4,991,832	5,833,259	1,860,296	2,172,054	80.06	8.77
GUARANTEED COMPANIES:										
Madras - - - - -	860.86	11,399,207	12,978	4,447,533	709,269	663,191	410,536	254,655	81.00	2.22
South Indian - - - - -	654.09	4,639,762	6,617	5,256,629	897,793	366,967	254,734	182,223	63.83	2.91
Great Indian Peninsula* - - - - -	1,263.23	26,078,870	19,677	6,919,998	3,328,593	3,511,456	1,745,671	1,765,065	49.71	5.77
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India.*	400.20	8,979,078	18,832	9,101,781	1,038,268	1,192,221	515,830	678,391	48.10	7.55
Eastern Bengal* - - - - -	159.64	3,567,642	20,989	2,991,261	548,231	638,642	2,9361	289,461	69.15	7.62
Sind, Punjab, and Delhi - - - - -	692.90	12,148,826	16,413	4,209,796	1,607,189	1,123,759	623,000	490,710	59.33	4.04
Oudh and Rohilkhand - - - - -	540.83	2,076,045	10,771	2,739,496	807,909	845,025	297,589	248,036	54.54	2.50
TOTAL GUARANTEED - - - - -	4,663.46	73,786,230	15,949	25,720,324	7,800,851	7,961,641	4,125,141	3,836,999	81.82	5.29
GRAND TOTAL - - - - -	6,173.86	108,680,682	16,899	47,709,165	12,799,683	12,994,891	5,985,137	7,009,054	49.83	6.45

* The Traffic Returns include those for Branch Lines (State or Native State) worked by the Company.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

Table XXI. gives them for the State Railways, sub-divided into Imperial and Provincial.

XXI.—DETAILED RAILWAY STATISTICS, 1883.

(B.)—STATE RAILWAYS, IMPERIAL AND PROVINCIAL.

	Length of Line Open.	Total Capital Outlay.	Capital Outlay per Mile Open.	Number of Passengers Conveyed.	Weight of Goods Carried.	Gross Earnings.	Working Expenses.	Net Receipts.	Percentage of Working Expenses to Gross Earnings.	Percentage of Net Receipts to Capital Outlay.
	Miles.	£.	£.		Tons.	£.	£.	£.		
IMPERIAL:										
Punjab, Northern	426-50	7,244,735	16,948	1,904,638	312,007	813,067	264,605	59,202	81-11	6-82
Indus Valley and Kandahar	652-48	5,301,390	12,357	1,317,573	889,040	724,113	402,254	221,854	55-55	3-84
Rajputana-Malwa*	1,117-25	9,494,343	8,467	5,261,988	1,651,630	1,268,618	683,614	615,174	52-79	6-11
Sindia†	74-42	805,443	12,032	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wardha Coal	45-00	511,293	11,786	120,641	214,211	29,450	17,616	11,843	50-80	2-19
Dhond-Masnad‡	142-75	1,006,476	6,992	—	—	19,720	508	19,214	—	—
Rewari-Ferozpur*	68-75	539,770	4,370	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
PROVINCIAL:										
Calcutta and South Eastern	56-00	950,883	16,161	1,096,792	63,670	29,538	16,233	13,300	51-97	1-43
Nalhati	27-25	33,396	1,186	130,437	13,601	8,097	5,623	2,479	69-63	7-23
Northern Bengal	250-00	2,153,065	8,685	757,354	238,117	329,419	112,882	116,537	49-20	5-41
Kanua-Dharua	32-28	89,150	2,744	76,140	5,703	12,947	9,909	3,038	76-53	3-41
Tirhut	102-69	1,274,943	5,799	666,799	619,394	69,344	63,274	29,579	76-99	2-04
Patna-Gaya*	57-20	385,633	6,492	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cawnpur-Achnera	138-25	665,652	3,971	1,206,943	106,813	87,599	36,852	29,747	63-18	3-12
Dildarnagar-Ghanpur*	12-00	72,373	5,921	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nagpur and Chhattisgarh	149-00	561,330	5,260	677,580	242,257	182,002	63,616	69,386	48-19	7-09
Rangoon and Irrawaddy Valley	161-00	1,312,700	8,191	1,868,942	157,766	156,289	191,032	53,237	64-66	4-19
TOTAL	3,624-02	30,092,038	9,519	15,314,677	3,952,113	3,161,247	1,776,178	1,331,071	57-10	3-70

* Traffic returns of Rewari-Ferozpur are included in those of Rajputana-Malwa.

† Traffic returns included in East Indian.

‡ Traffic returns show only results to the State, the line being worked by Great Indian Peninsula.

Table XXII. gives them for the Native State Railways, and for the Assisted Companies separately.

XXII.—DETAILED RAILWAY STATISTICS, 1883.

(C.)—NATIVE STATE RAILWAYS AND ASSISTED COMPANIES.

	Length of Line Open.	Total Capital Outlay.	Capital Outlay per Mile Open.	Number of Passengers Conveyed.	Weight of Goods Carried.	Gross Earnings.	Working Expenses.	Net Receipts.	Percentage of Working Expenses to Gross Earnings.	Percentage of Net Receipts to Capital Outlay.
	Miles.	£.	£.	£.	Tons.	£.	£.	£.		
NATIVE STATE RAILWAYS:										
Bhopal	11-30	60,882	5,294	57,049	12,665	2,357	3,471	—914	135-72	—
Bhavnagar-Gondal	192-21	904,923	4,315	691,197	89,654	89,418	56,757	32,661	62-47	3-01
Gackwar of Baroda's	58-65	120,769	2,122	281,800	24,302	14,607	10,639	3,969	78-75	3-04
Khamsan*	8-90	49,100	6,822	—	—	2,474	227	2,247	—	—
Amraoti*	6-00	44,486	7,244	—	—	4,644	205	4,439	—	—
Nizam's	117-10	1,226,356	10,429	425,622	142,176	65,322	61,519	22,768	72-12	1-91
Mysore	87-03	430,880	4,655	362,345	27,959	30,280	20,323	9,957	67-09	2-31
Jodhpur	10-60	49,984	2,631	66,363	10,841	4,026	1,725	2,311	46-74	4-03
TOTAL	500-71	2,695,822	5,892	1,883,930	510,857	285,467	125,104	78,363	66-97	2-70
ASSISTED COMPANIES:										
Bengal Central	52-00	283,032	5,443	—	—	10,705	14,734	—3,929	136-60	—
Darjiling-Himalayan	60-00	266,000	5,200	28,000	17,321	42,125	26,632	15,493	63-11	5-60
Assam	20-00	229,225	5,608	21,648	8,951	4,823	8,360	—3,539	171-70	—
Deoghar	6-50	27,223	4,205	141,066	437	1,964	1,340	624	68-00	2-25
TOTAL	147-50	797,000	5,277	191,633	21,009	59,770	51,036	8,720	66-83	1-09

* Traffic returns show only results to the State, the lines being worked by Great Indian Peninsula.

Table XXIII. adds together the totals of the five classes, so as to show the results for all India.

XXIII.—AGGREGATE RAILWAY STATISTICS, 1883.

	Length of Line Open.	Total Capital Outlay.	Capital Outlay per Mile Open.	Number of Passengers Conveyed.	Weight of Goods Carried.	Gross Earnings.	Working Expenses.	Net Receipts.	Percentage of Working Expenses to Gross Earnings.	Percentage of Net Receipts to Capital Outlay.
	Miles.	£.	£.		Tons.	£.	£.	£.		
East Indian Railway	1,509.45	34,994,452	23,489	11,050,561	4,991,832	5,033,250	1,869,293	3,172,955	36.96	6.77
Guaranteed Companies	4,663.49	73,785,230	15,940	35,749,394	7,806,851	7,961,641	4,125,141	3,836,500	51.89	5.29
State Railways	3,620.02	30,009,952	8,310	15,314,877	3,959,115	3,101,847	1,776,176	1,325,671	57.10	3.79
Native State Railways	506.71	2,805,322	5,562	1,883,230	316,847	223,467	145,104	78,363	66.47	3.78
Assisted Companies	147.50	707,690	5,377	191,933	21,600	59,775	81,056	8,720	66.53	1.99
TOTAL	10,447.00	148,505,646	13,911	63,098,053	17,089,264	16,389,381	7,961,773	8,427,609	48.62	5.68

Table XXIV. gives the same statistics for the whole of India (omitting only the capital outlay per mile open) for each of the ten years 1874 to 1883.

XXIV.—COMPARATIVE RAILWAY STATISTICS, 1874 TO 1883.

	Length of Line Open.	Total Capital Outlay.	Number of Passengers Conveyed.	Weight of Goods Carried.	Gross Earnings.	Working Expenses.	Net Receipts.	Percentage of Working Expenses to Gross Earnings.	Percentage of Net Receipts to Capital Outlay.
	Miles.	£.		Tons.	£.	£.	£.		
1874	5,276	101,324,000	24,280,489	4,696,924	7,813,429	3,843,990	3,969,439	49.20	3.92
1875	6,159	103,790,029	26,779,487	4,868,640	7,416,792	3,769,359	3,647,433	50.81	3.45
1876	6,833	100,304,867	30,335,319	6,478,681	8,753,037	4,235,617	4,517,420	48.38	4.13
1877	7,329	113,114,641	34,156,791	8,133,139	11,342,415	5,034,784	6,307,631	44.77	5.49
1878	8,212	118,016,755	38,496,743	8,171,017	10,420,156	5,215,974	5,204,182	50.00	4.41
1879	8,492	123,134,514	43,144,608	8,825,174	11,336,318	5,662,878	5,673,440	52.17	4.37
1880	9,306	129,006,963	46,610,940	10,453,187	12,470,352	6,217,101	6,255,251	50.65	4.77
1881	9,892	134,200,591	52,230,863	13,211,082	13,725,033	6,773,239	6,952,714	49.35	5.16
1882	10,144	140,636,776	56,675,918	14,833,243	15,352,320	7,608,180	7,694,220	49.95	5.45
1883	10,447	148,505,646	63,098,053	17,089,264	16,389,381	7,961,772	8,427,609	48.62	5.68

It should be stated that the amount entered as total capital outlay includes steamboat service and suspense accounts, but not the expenditure on any lines not yet open for traffic. The capital outlay per mile open has been obtained by taking the capital outlay, exclusive of steamboat service and suspense accounts. All money, including the capital outlay, has been converted from rupees into sterling at the arbitrary exchange of 2 s. per rupee. It may also be mentioned here, as it does not appear from the table, that the average cost of all the broad gauge lines has been 16,773 l. per mile, as compared with an average cost of 6,875 l. per mile for all the metre-gauge lines; but it must be borne in mind that the former were made before experience was gained, and when the cost of materials were higher. According to another statement, which excludes the Assisted Companies and calculates the expenditure on the guaranteed lines at the contract rate of exchange of 1 s. 10 d. per rupee, but which includes all lines under construction, the capital outlay on Indian railways down to the end of 1883 was as under:—

	£.
East Indian	34,908,390
Guaranteed Companies	66,059,592
State Railways	38,321,549
Native State Railways	3,317,380
TOTAL	142,606,911

Turning to the series of tables for 1883, it appears that there were at the end of that year 10,447 miles of railway open in India; the total capital outlay on these lines had been 148,305,646 l.; the total net receipts for the year were 8,427,629 l.

8,427,629 *l.*, showing a return of 5.68 per cent. on the capital expenditure; the average proportion of working expenses to gross earnings was 48.62 per cent.

at Indian Rail-
ways, 1883.

By far the most important railway is the East Indian, now the property of the State, which not only has the advantage of running up the fertile valley of the Ganges from Calcutta to Delhi, but is also fortunate enough to possess the finest coalfield in India, that of Karharbari, in the immediate neighbourhood of its main line. With only 14 per cent. of the total mileage, it conveys 18 per cent. of the total number of passengers and 29 per cent. of the total weight of goods, and yields no less than 38 per cent. of the total receipts. Its return on capital stands as high as 8.77 per cent.; and its proportion of working expenses to gross earnings comes out as low as 36.96 per cent.

Guaranteed
Railways, 1883.

Next in order comes the class of Guaranteed Railways, which occupy the trunk lines of communication from the interior to Bombay and Madras, and have all been open for a considerable time. With 45 per cent. of the mileage, they convey 55 per cent. of the passengers and 46 per cent. of the goods, and yield 45 per cent. of the net receipts. Their average return on capital is 5.20 per cent.; and their proportion of working expenses to gross earnings, 51.82 per cent.

State Railways,
1883.

The State Railways form a miscellaneous group, varying greatly in respect of remunerativeness. In the present table the profits of some of them go to swell those of the East Indian and Guaranteed Companies. Conspicuous both for number of passengers and weight of goods is the Rajputana-Malwa line, constructed on the metre gauge, which connects the Punjab with the Bombay system. Its return on capital is 6.11 per cent., and its proportion of working expenses to gross earnings is 52.79 per cent. The Punjab Northern and the Indus Valley, which come next in importance among State Railways, are both broad gauge lines. Of the Punjab Northern, it is only necessary to say that the bridge over the Indus at Attock, which completed the railway communication between Calcutta and Peshawar, was not opened until May 1883. The Indus Valley line, which joins two separate portions of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, still requires to be completed by another bridge over the Indus at Sakkhar, the opening of which is hoped for in the course of 1887. Meanwhile, in 1883, the line earned 3.84 per cent. on its capital, with the proportion of working expenses below the average. The most remunerative of all the State Railways, on paper, is the Nalhati line, on a 4-feet gauge, which runs from the East Indian main line to Murshidabad. Next in order comes the Nagpur-Chhattisgarh line, a continuation of the Great Indian Peninsula, constructed on the metre gauge. At present it taps the rich wheat fields of the Central Provinces, but will ultimately be extended due east to Calcutta. The Bengal Northern, which runs due north towards Darjiling, through a rice and jute growing country, also shows a good return; and the same may be said of the Irrawaddy Valley line, which connects Rangoon with Prome. Both of these are on the metre gauge.

Native State
Railways, 1883.

The Native State Railways include two little broad-gauge branch lines in Berar, which are worked by the Great Indian Peninsula. The Bhavnagar-Gondal line on the metre gauge in Kathiawar, and the Gaekwar of Baroda's line in Gujarat, on the exceptionally narrow gauge of 2 feet 6 inches, which are both connected with the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India, show fair results. The returns from the Nizam's line (broad gauge), connecting Hyderabad with the Great Indian Peninsula, are disappointing. The Mysore line (metre gauge), which has but recently been opened, connects the old capital of Mysore with the new capital of Bangalore on the Madras Railway.

None of the Assisted Companies have opened their lines for a sufficiently long time to justify an examination of their returns.

Railway Statistics,
1874 to 1883.

Table XXIV., giving comparative railway statistics for each of the ten years 1874 to 1883, may thus be summarised. Within that period the number of miles open has increased by 4,169 or 66 per cent.; the capital outlay has increased by 46,981,646 *l.* or 27 per cent.; the number of passengers by 40,813,494 or 168 per cent.; the weight of goods by 12,322,640 tons or 264 per cent.; the gross earnings by 8,575,952 *l.* or 110 per cent.; the working expenses by 4,117,782 *l.* or 107 per cent., and the net receipts by 4,458,170 *l.* or 112 per cent. The return upon capital has risen from 3.92 per cent. to 5.68 per cent., while the proportion of working expenses to gross earnings has remained almost uniform. This increase has been fairly steady, subject to the exceptional consequences of the famine traffic in 1877. The number of pas-
sengers

senders has increased in every successive year without exception; and between 1879 and 1883 there has been a similar yearly increase in every column, the increase in goods being the most conspicuous. It is right to add that in 1884 this continuous progress suffered a check, owing chiefly to the great diminution in the export of wheat.

The two following tables show the results of railway outlay to the State, (XXV.), for 1882-83, and (XXVI.) from 1858-59, when railway enterprise first began, down to 1882-83. Native State Railways and Assisted Companies are both excluded. For the purpose of calculating interest, the total capital expenditure down to the end of March 1883, is taken at 137,173,164 £; and all surplus profits paid over in any half-year to Guaranteed Companies are deducted from the net receipts, the object being to show, not the general result of railway enterprise in India, but only the direct loss or gain to the Government. No account is taken of the land granted free to the railways by the Government, nor of interest that might be held chargeable upon arrears of interest not earned. Loss by exchange is likewise excluded from consideration.

Results of railway outlay to the State.

XXV.—RESULTS OF RAILWAY OUTLAY to the STATE, 1882-83.

	Net Receipts (less Surplus Profits paid to Companies).	Interest.	Loss or Gain to State.
	£.	£.	£.
East Indian Railway - - - - -	2,581,890	1,703,898	+ 828,492
Guaranteed Railways - - - - -	3,095,456	3,317,973	- 222,416
State Railways - - - - -	1,112,151	1,220,702	- 114,551
TOTAL - - - - -	6,789,497	6,247,972	+ 491,525

XXVI.—AGGREGATE RESULTS OF RAILWAY OUTLAY to the STATE, 1858-59 to 1882-83.

	Total Net Receipts (less Surplus Profits paid to Companies).	Total Interest.	Total Loss or Gain to State.
	£.	£.	£.
East Indian Railway (since 1879-80) - - -	3,192,070	4,802,025	+ 4,390,045
Guaranteed Railways (including East Indian down to 1878-79) - - - - -	61,236,672	86,066,021	- 24,779,149
State Railways - - - - -	3,558,931	3,121,311	- 4,562,380
TOTAL - - - £.	73,977,673	98,920,357	- 24,951,484

In 1882-83, the net result to the State was a gain of 491,525 £, entirely due to the East Indian Railway, for both Guaranteed and State Railways showed a loss. The first year in which a gain appears is 1877-78, the famine year, when Guaranteed Railways (then including the East Indian) showed a gain of 741,505 £, which was reduced to 131,800 £. by the loss on the State Railways. Then followed two more years of loss. In 1880-81 there again appears a gain of 7,002 £, and in 1881-82 a gain of 1,110,087 £, both entirely due to the East Indian.

Taking the entire period of twenty-four years from 1858-59 to 1882-83, the aggregate loss to the Government has been 24,951,484 £, of which 24,779,149 £. is due to the Guaranteed Companies (including the East Indian-down to 1878-79), and 4,562,380 £. to the State Railways; the East Indian, since 1879-80, having yielded a gain of 4,390,045 £.

Fuel consumed on railways.

The question of fuel is of extreme importance in regard to the economical working of the Indian railways. The three principal sources of supply are Indian coal, English coal, and wood; patent fuel is also used to a small extent, and trial has been made of coal from Australia. Speaking broadly, it may be said that all the railways in Northern India burn coal derived from the mines of Bengal. The East Indian, the most important line of all, possesses mines of its own at Karharbari, in Hazaribagh District, which yield the best coal in all India. An inferior coal is derived from the Raniganj mines in Bardwan District, which have the advantage of being nearer to Calcutta. The Great Indian Peninsula system derives a portion of its supply from the mines of Warora and Mohpau in the Central Provinces, but the quality in both cases is poor. The Assisted Railway Company in Assam has obtained from Government the lease of a coal-field at Makun, where the coal is of excellent quality and unlimited in amount. It is hoped that not only the Brahmaputra steamers, but also the railways in Northern Bengal, may in the future be supplied from this source. Coal of a very inferior quality is found in the Punjab Salt Range, but all attempts to utilise it on the railway have, up to the present, resulted in failure. Proposed lines of railway will open up the Umeria coal-field in the State of Rewa, the Singareni field in the Nizam's Dominions, the Palamau field in Chutia-Nagpur, and the Hingir field in the Central Provinces. The railways that radiate from Bombay still derive almost all their coal supply from England. Wood is used in the largest proportion on the Madras, Nizam's, and Indus Valley lines.

Statistics of fuel.

The following table (XXVII.) gives statistics of the fuel used on all the principal railways in the calendar year 1883. The advantage derived by the East Indian from the possession of its own coal supply is very manifest. It pays for its fuel just over 4 s. per ton, and consumes 50 lbs. for every train mile run, at a cost of only 1.12 d. per mile. The Bombay, Baroda, and Central India, which depends almost entirely upon English coal, pays as much as 1 l. 12 s. per ton; and though it consumes only 45 lbs. per train mile, the average cost comes out as high as 7.75 d. per mile. The Northern Punjab is yet more unfortunately circumstanced, for it has to obtain its coal from Bengal at the cost of 2 l. 18 s. per ton, which brings out a cost of 12.13 d. per train mile, being 11 times the cost on the East Indian.

XXVII.—STATISTICS OF FUEL used on the PRINCIPAL RAILWAYS, 1883.

	Description of Fuel used.	Total Consumption.	Average Cost per Ton.	Per Train Mile.	
				Consumption.	Cost.
		<i>Tons.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>d.</i>
East Indian	Bengal coal	236,993	4.16	50.05	1.12
Madras	Wood; some patent fuel	83,446	10.38	*88.07	4.78
South Indian	English coal; some Australian coal.	18,857	30.42	20.55	4.32
Great Indian Peninsula	English coal; some Warora, Mohpau, and Bengal coal.	176,074	25.18	48.18	6.49
Bombay, Baroda, and Central India	English coal and wood	40,271	31.36	45.31	7.75
Eastern Bengal	Bengal coal	20,270	16.10	55.76	4.61
Sind, Punjab, and Delhi	English and Bengal coal; some patent fuel and wood.	62,700	31.52	48.38	8.17
Oudh and Rohilkhand	Bengal coal	32,030	23.64	40.29	5.10
Punjab, Northern	Wood and Bengal coal	16,736	38.16	38.94	12.13
Indus Valley and Kandahar	Wood and English coal	97,748	12.08	*112.80	7.00
Rajputana-Malwa	English and Bengal coal	67,623	41.44	23.43	7.42
Northern Bengal	Bengal coal	9,856	22.74	31.85	3.88
Nagpur-Chhattisgarh	Warora coal	9,143	18.00	37.00	6.00
Nizam's	Wood	9,367	6.90	*69.51	2.56

* In terms of wood.

The following table (XXVIII.) gives statistics of the quantity of fuel consumed on all the railways in each of the four calendar years 1880 to 1883. The quantity of Indian coal consumed has increased in the four years by 149,175 tons or 45 per cent., while the quantity of English coal has increased (almost entirely in the last year of the period) by 24,150 tons or 14 per cent., and the quantity of wood has increased by 16,779 tons or 9 per cent. Of the total quantity of coal consumed in 1882, 70 per cent. was Indian; and of this 85 per cent. was Bengal, 12 per cent. Warora, and 3 per cent. Mohpani.

XXVIII.—FUEL CONSUMED ON INDIAN RAILWAYS, 1880 to 1883.

	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.
Coal:	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Indian - - - - -	330,875	383,709	423,015	480,050
English - - - - -	173,340	175,951	179,087	197,490
TOTAL - - - - -	504,215	559,660	602,002	677,540
Coke - - - - -	7,077	7,935	11,898	13,443
Patent Fuel - - - - -	8,383	9,360	13,759	10,540
Wood - - - - -	183,084	154,318	188,044	200,413
GRAND TOTAL - - - - -	703,309	733,173	815,702	901,945

The following table (XXIX.) gives classified statistics of the persons employed on all the railways in each of the four calendar years, 1880 to 1883. The number of natives employed in 1883 was 95.69 per cent. of the total, and the remainder was equally divided between Europeans and East Indians. Of recent years much attention has been paid to the training of natives as drivers and shunters, with satisfactory results. On the East Indian Railway 125 native drivers, and 125 native shunters were employed in 1883, in working goods and ballast trains on certain sections of the main line, and in working passenger trains on all the branch lines. On the Oudh and Rohilkhand, 29 native drivers and 40 native shunters were employed in the same year. Between 1881 and 1883 the number of native drivers and shunters has increased from 53 to 79 on the Great Indian Peninsula; from 40 to 57 on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi, and from 23 to 36 on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India. On 31st March 1884, the several Railway Volunteer Corps had an aggregate enrolled strength of 4,540 officers and men, of whom 3,941 were efficient.

Railway emplo

XXIX.—PERSONS EMPLOYED ON INDIAN RAILWAYS, 1880 to 1883.

	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.
Europeans - - - - -	3,802	3,703	3,796	3,995
East Indians - - - - -	3,713	3,771	3,922	3,979
Natives - - - - -	148,219	162,043	178,018	177,287
TOTAL - - - - -	155,734	169,517	185,736	185,261

Persons killed or injured on railways.

The following table (XXX.) gives the number of persons killed or injured on Indian railways in each of the four calendar years, 1880 to 1883.

XXX.—PERSONS KILLED OR INJURED ON INDIAN RAILWAYS, 1880 to 1883.

	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.
Passengers :				
Killed - - - - -	93	40	42	33
Injured - - - - -	97	150	140	162
Railway Servants:				
Killed - - - - -	140	171	165	149
Injured - - - - -	477	429	419	410
Other Persons :				
Killed - - - - -	132	154	147	152
Injured - - - - -	37	60	48	58
TOTAL KILLED - - -	305	365	354	334
TOTAL INJURED - - -	511	689	611	630

IRRIGATION.

For military purposes, as well as for trade and the conveyance of grain in time of famine, the advantages of railways may be considered as universal throughout the whole of India. The need for irrigation, on the other hand, varies extremely in different parts of the country. The question must be determined in each case by the special circumstance of the tract, with regard (1), to the amount and regularity of the rainfall, and (2), the facilities for storing and distributing the local supply of water. In some parts of India, such as Sind, and in a less degree the Punjab, artificial irrigation is a necessity of agriculture, while the Indus and its tributaries furnish an ample source of supply. Over a yet larger portion of the country, comprising the North-West Provinces and the plateau of the Deccan, irrigation though not absolutely necessary is yet of extreme importance. A third case is supplied by the deltas of Madras and certain similar regions in Bengal, where irrigation may be regarded as the means of regulating the water supply to the best advantage, and as a preventive against the risk of drought in exceptional years.

History of Irrigation.

The fact that the bulk of the revenue has always been derived directly from the land affords an explanation of the interest which successive governments, Native as well as British, have always taken in irrigation. The whole area of Sind is scored with the traces of artificial channels of the Indus which made this thirsty Province the garden of India in old time. The works on the Cauvery delta in Madras, to this day by far the most remunerative in India, are but the improvement by an English engineer of a structure that is said to date back for 1,600 years. The Western Jumna Canal follows in the main the lines traced by the Emperor Firoz Taghlak, in the fourteenth century; while the Eastern Jumna Canal owes its origin to Shah Jehan in the seventeenth. Having been reopened by British enterprise, these two canals are at the present day the most remunerative in the Punjab and the North West Provinces respectively. The first great irrigation work undertaken by the British Government was the Ganges Canal in the North-West Provinces, which was begun in 1848, under the superintendence of Sir Proby Cautley, and opened by Lord Dalhousie in 1854. At about the same time, Sir Arthur Cotton and other Madras engineers were engaged in constructing the *anicuts* or dams which now regulate the water supply of the three deltas of Southern India, the Godavari, the Kistna, and the Cauvery. Encouraged by the success of these works, two private companies were formed in England to promote Indian irrigation on a large scale. The Madras Irrigation and Canal Company received

received in 1863 a guarantee from Government of 5 per cent. on a capital of 1,000,000 *l.* sterling for the construction of a canal from the Tungabhadra river in Kurnool District. The scheme was never completed in its entirety, and has proved a financial failure. In 1883, this canal was purchased from the Company by the Government. The East India Irrigation and Canal Company, which was formed in 1860, proposed to carry out two important systems of irrigation in Bengal without any guarantee from the State. One of these systems consisted of a network of canals in the Mahanadi delta in Orissa, similar to those on the Madras coast, together with a canal for navigation between Calcutta and Cuttack. The other scheme proposed was to utilise for both irrigation and navigation the waters of the Son, a large tributary of the Ganges in South Behar. The Company never began work on the Son; and its operations in Orissa were stopped after a few years by want of funds. In 1868 both schemes were abandoned to the State, in consideration of a payment of 1,050,000 *l.*, and have since been pushed on by the Bengal Government. At the present time, therefore, all irrigation in India, except so far as conducted by the cultivators from their own resources, is the concern of the Government, which supplies the capital required and manages the working.

From the point of view of the Finance Accounts, the heading "Irrigation" comprises all canals for irrigation and navigation, including some that have been constructed for navigation only, as well as agricultural works such as embankments. Irrigation, like railways, is subdivided into the two main classes of "Productive" and "Other than Productive," with a third anomalous class styled "Protective." "Productive" irrigation works, it may be as well to repeat, are those which may be constructed out of loans; but whether they are actually constructed out of loans, or out of the current revenue of the year, interest is entered in the accounts against the total capital expenditure. Out of the annual loan of 2,500,000 *l.* for "Productive" Public Works, about 700,000 *l.* has usually been devoted to irrigation. All other irrigation works must be constructed out of current revenue; and though in some cases capital and revenue accounts are kept, no interest is debited. "Protective" works are those constructed with special reference to the dangers of famine; and the expenditure upon them is charged in the Finance Accounts against the total sum of 1,500,000 *l.* set apart every year for Famine Relief and Insurance.

Financial Classification of Irrigation Works.

The following tables (I. to VII.), which are taken from the Finance Accounts, show the financial results of "Productive" Irrigation Works according to Provinces in 1882-83, and for the whole of India in each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83. As regards the several Provinces, it will be more convenient to treat later on of the entire system of irrigation works in each, without regard to the distinction of "Productive" and "Other than Productive," which is mainly a financial distinction. It is enough to point out here that in Bengal none of the canals earn enough to pay interest, and that the total receipts from the Orissa system fail to cover the working expenses. The canals in the North-West Provinces (for there are none in Oudh), show altogether a surplus of 3·10 per cent. after paying interest on their capital, the Agra canal alone failing to do more than cover working expenses. In the Punjab there is a bare surplus; but the entire revenue was derived from two canals, the Sirhind canal (upon which more than 1½ millions has been spent), not having been opened until November 1882. Madras shows on the whole a fair surplus, the large profits from the three deltaic canals more than compensating for the heavy loss on the Kurnool canal, which does not cover its working expenses. The Bombay irrigation works, which are all in the outlying Province of Sind, with the exception of the two last on the list, show a poor average return. As regards the distinction between Imperial and Provincial, which is merely a matter of account, all the irrigation works in the Punjab, Madras and Bombay, are treated as Imperial, while all those in the North West Provinces and Bengal are treated as Provincial.

Financial Results of Productive Irrigation Works

A.—BENGAL.

	CAPITAL OUTLAY		TOTAL Revenue.	Expenditure.	EXCLUDING INTEREST.		Interest.	INCLUDING INTEREST.	
	During 1882-83.	To End of 1882-83.			Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent on Capital Outlay.		Excess Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.
	£.	£.			£.	£.		£.	£.
Orissa Project - - - -	36,496	1,992,449	32,001	34,154	- 2,158	- 11	78,968	- 81,121	- 4.07
Midnapur Series - - - -	12,179	795,410	26,801	22,808	+ 2,998	+ 38	31,572	- 28,580	- 8.60
Tidal Canal - - - - -	-	177,271	4,503	4,057	+ 446	+ 25	7,000	- 6,644	- 3.75
Sone Project - - - - -	37,254	2,366,599	68,468	52,984	+ 15,484	+ 65	93,919	- 78,435	- 3.31
TOTAL - - - £.	85,929	5,331,729	131,773	115,008	+ 10,770	+ 31	211,550	- 134,780	- 3.65

II.—FINANCIAL RESULTS of "PRODUCTIVE" IRRIGATION WORKS, 1882-83.

B.—NORTH-WEST PROVINCES.

	CAPITAL OUTLAY		REVENUE			Expenditure.	EXCLUDING INTEREST.		Interest.	INCLUDING INTEREST.	
	During 1882-83.	To End of 1882-83.	Water Rates, &c.	Collected with Land Revenue.	TOTAL.		Excess Revenue.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.	£.		£.	£.
Ganges Canal - - - -	27,058	2,601,848	234,125	44,302	278,427	82,949	195,478	7.51	103,533	+ 91,945	+ 3.53
Lower Ganges Canal - -	88,859	2,398,651	157,833	20,733	178,566	68,215	110,351	4.81	94,177	+ 21,224	+ .90
Agra Canal - - - - -	5,141	790,060	52,798	-	52,798	21,761	31,037	8.93	31,499	- 467	- .06
Eastern Jumna Canal - -	5,195	272,194	83,545	22,158	105,703	19,917	85,786	31.51	10,784	+ 74,997	+ 27.55
TOTAL - - - £.	126,253	6,062,748	528,299	67,193	595,492	187,842	407,650	7.05	239,993	+ 187,699	+ 3.10

III.—FINANCIAL RESULTS of "PRODUCTIVE" IRRIGATION WORKS, 1882-83.

C.—PUNJAB.

	CAPITAL OUTLAY		REVENUE			Expenditure.	EXCLUDING INTEREST.		Interest.	INCLUDING INTEREST.	
	During 1882-83.	To End of 1882-83.	Water Rates, &c.	Collected with Land Revenue.	TOTAL.		Excess Revenue.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.			£.	£.
Western Jumna Canal -	64,846	889,598	115,049	5,836	121,785	44,655	77,130	9.10	82,497	+ 44,638	+ 5.82
Bari Doab Canal -	2,567	1,491,418	109,429	27,997	137,426	51,897	85,529	5.73	59,708	+ 25,821	+ 1.73
Sirhind Canal -	137,740	1,779,160	-	-	-	-	-	-	68,411	- 68,411	- 8.85
Other Minor Canals -	1,715	1,715	-	-	-	-	-	-	35	- 35	- 2.04
TOTAL - £.	191,234	4,111,886	225,378	33,833	259,211	-	162,659	8.16	160,861	+ 2,008	+ .05

IV.—FINANCIAL RESULTS of "PRODUCTIVE" IRRIGATION WORKS, 1882-83.

D.—MADRAS.

	CAPITAL OUTLAY		REVENUE			Expenditure.	EXCLUDING INTEREST.		Interest.	INCLUDING INTEREST.	
	During 1882-83.	To End of 1882-83.	Water Rates, &c.	Collected with Land Revenue.	TOTAL.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.			£.	£.
Godavari Delta System -	22,004	923,998	7,675	146,845	154,520	81,583	+ 122,937	+ 13.30	26,520	+ 86,416	+ 9.35
Cauvery Delta System -	3,049	104,706	839	64,787	65,826	2,923	+ 62,704	+ 59.85	4,130	+ 58,574	+ 55.91
Kistna Delta System -	20,094	587,477	4,973	81,761	86,734	27,217	+ 59,517	+ 10.13	23,097	+ 36,420	+ 6.20
Penner Anicut System -	-	142,886	10	12,047	12,057	1,634	+ 10,423	+ 7.30	5,715	+ 4,714	+ 8.30
Srivaikuntham Weir Project -	1,368	123,808	185	8,041	9,126	1,714	+ 7,412	+ 5.99	4,025	+ 2,447	+ 2.01
Sangam Project -	52,585	75,716	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,977	- 1,977	- 2.61
Kurnool Canal -	1,762,582	1,762,582	7,602	-	7,602	13,341	- 5,739	- .33	35,252	- 40,991	- 2.33
TOTAL - £.	1,861,677	3,721,233	21,290	314,381	335,671	78,411	257,260	6.91	111,616	+ 145,644	+ 2.91

V.—FINANCIAL RESULTS OF "PRODUCTIVE" IRRIGATION WORKS, 1882-83.

E.—BOMBAY.

	CAPITAL OUTLAY.		R E V E N U E.			Expenditure.	EXCLUDING INTEREST.		Interest.	INCLUDING INTEREST.	
	During 1882-83.	To End of 1882-83.	Water Rates, &c.	Collected with Land Revenue.	TOTAL.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.	£.	
Desert Canal - - -	14,045	94,207	1,568	8,645	10,211	1,178	+ 9,038	+ 9.59	3,487	+ 5,551	+ 5.90
Begari Canal - - -	9,585	138,328	3,531	14,440	17,971	7,066	+ 10,905	+ 7.88	5,341	+ 5,564	+ 4.02
Eastern Nara Works - -	19,767	877,601	2,057	10,515	12,572	5,602	+ 6,970	1.85	14,709	- 7,739	- 2.05
Hathmati Canal - - -	168	48,489	820	- 39	781	963	- 182	- .38	1,936	- 2,118	- 4.37
Pravara River Works - -	69	34,267	161	- 4	147	309	- 162	- .47	1,384	- 1,546	- 4.35
Kadva River Works - - -	4,921	38,628	689	28	667	528	+ 139	+ .36	1,447	- 1,308	- 3.39
Lower Panjhra River Works	56	40,893	305	372	677	319	+ 358	+ .88	1,635	- 1,277	- 3.12
Mutha Lake and Canal -	9,238	567,505	12,461	- 236	12,225	5,795	+ 6,430	+ 1.13	22,516	- 16,085	- 2.83
Ekrak Tank - - -	867	121,511	820	- 40	780	1,224	- 444	- .87	4,853	- 5,297	- 4.36
Krishna Canal - - -	1,004	77,187	1,895	- 52	1,843	1,149	694	+ .90	3,067	- 2,573	- 5.07
TOTAL - - - £.	59,215	1,538,971	24,445	88,629	57,874	24,128	+ 33,746	+ 2.19	60,374	- 26,628	- 1.73

VI.—FINANCIAL RESULTS of "PRODUCTIVE" IRRIGATION WORKS, 1882-83.

F.—ALL INDIA.

	CAPITAL OUTLAY.		R E V E N U E.			Expenditure.	EXCLUDING INTEREST.		Interest.	INCLUDING INTEREST.	
	During 1882-83.	To End of 1882-83.	Water Rates, &c.	Collected with Land Revenue.	TOTAL.		Excess Revenue.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.		£.	£.	
Bengal - - - -	83,920	5,331,729	131,773	-	131,773	115,068	16,770	31	211,560	-194,780	-3.65
North-West Provinces - -	126,258	6,062,948	528,296	87,238	615,534	187,842	427,692	7.05	239,998	+187,699	+3.10
Punjab - - - -	191,234	4,111,886	225,378	33,838	259,211	96,552	162,659	3.16	160,651	+2,008	+ .05
Madras - - - -	1,861,677	3,721,238	21,290	314,361	335,671	78,411	257,260	6.91	111,616	+145,644	+3.91
Bombay - - - -	59,215	1,588,971	24,245	33,629	57,874	24,128	33,746	2.19	60,374	-26,628	-1.78
Stores and Reserve - - -	-	89	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-4	-4.60
TOTAL - - - £.	2,324,208	20,766,856	930,982	469,081	1,400,063	501,986	898,127	4.33	784,188	+113,939	+ .55
Add— Madras Canal and Irrigation Company.	-	-	-	-	-5,624	75	-	-	24,003	-	-
GRAND TOTAL - - £.	2,324,208	20,766,856	-	-	1,394,439	502,011	892,428	1.80	809,091	8,337	.40

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

VII.—COMPARATIVE FINANCIAL RESULTS of "PRODUCTIVE" IRRIGATION WORKS, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	CAPITAL OUTLAY.		TOTAL Revenue (including amount collected with Land Revenue).†	Expenditure.	EXCLUDING INTEREST.		Interest.	INCLUDING INTEREST.	
	During Year.	To end of Year.*			Excess Revenue.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.		Excess Revenue or Expenditure.	Rate per Cent. on Capital Outlay.
	£	£	£	£	£		£	£	
1873-74	1,198,682	2,129,941	366,383	206,653	99,730	1.32	290,705	-180,975	-2.40
1874-75	1,235,301	2,305,332	382,893	290,408	82,385	.94	329,386	-247,001	-2.82
1875-76	1,105,445	10,470,777	411,914	351,278	60,636	.63	376,202	-515,568	-3.21
1876-77	943,423	11,414,200	421,972	363,856	58,116	.58	417,179	-359,069	-3.29
1877-78	806,084	12,220,284	650,600	371,199	279,401	2.36	452,169	-172,768	-1.46
1878-79	794,654	13,014,938	749,090	382,135	366,955	2.75	538,459	-171,494	-1.96
1879-80	598,837	13,613,775	1,326,238	415,073	911,165	6.63	569,613	+241,352	+1.80
1880-81	15,406,467	19,020,242	1,428,813	426,028	1,002,785	6.15	812,733	+190,032	+1.16
1881-82	11,184,888	20,205,130	1,348,185	456,148	892,037	4.55	776,369	+115,668	+ .59
1882-83	*2,324,306	20,766,856	1,394,439	502,011	892,428	4.30	809,091	+ 83,337	+ .40

* The purchase money for the Madras Irrigation Canal Company (1,762,682 l.), which was paid in 1882-83, has been added to the capital outlay of each previous year, as the results of that canal are included in the columns for Revenue, Expenditure, and Interest.

† The amount collected with Land Revenue was first credited to Irrigation for the North-West Provinces and Punjab in 1877-78, and for Madras and Bombay in 1879-80.

‡ The sum of 4,792,017 l. was transferred from "Ordinary Expenditure" in 1880-81, and the sum of 619,084 l. in 1881-82.

Financial Results of Productive Irrigation Works, 1882-83.

For the whole of India, the figures for 1882-83 show a total capital outlay on irrigation of 20,766,856 l. up to the close of the year; and net receipts amounting to 892,428 l. Excluding interest, the return upon capital comes to 4.30 per cent.; and including interest at 4 per cent. upon the capital outlay at the beginning of the year, and upon half the capital spent during the year, the rate of profit is .40 per cent.

Financial Results of Productive Irrigation Works, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

The figures for the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83 must be taken subject to the explanation that land revenue due to irrigation was not credited to Public Works until 1877-78, and then only for the North-West Provinces and Punjab, the large amount derived under this account in Madras and Bombay first appearing in 1879-80. Subject to this explanation, it cannot be said that the results of the ten years show much effectual progress. The last four years, from 1879-80 to 1882-83, which are not affected by any change in the system of accounts, show an annual decrease in the rate of profit, both excluding and including interest.

Financial Results of Irrigation, according to the Department.

In the Department of Public Works the financial results of irrigation are calculated on a different principle to that adopted in the Finance Accounts. To (1) the direct capital outlay at the end of the year, there is added (2) the indirect capital outlay, consisting of the capitalised value of the land revenue of the land occupied by the canals, leave and pension allowances, and loss by exchange; and (3), the excess of interest (if any) payable in previous years over the net revenue received in those years. The total composed of these three items is called the "capital sum at charge." The addition of the indirect capital must of course always cause an augmentation of capital. The addition of the excess of interest over net revenue causes an augmentation only in the case of those canals (e.g., Bengal) which are not remunerative, but a diminution in the case of the remunerative canals (e.g., Madras). The general result is that the "total sum at charge" is less than the direct capital outlay by 1,996,211 l. Interest at the rate of 4 per cent. is then calculated on the "capital sum at charge"; and the difference between the interest thus calculated and the net revenue represents the financial result of the year. In 1882-83 this difference amounted to an excess

excess net revenue of 149,549 *l.*, being 79 per cent. on the "capital sum at charge." In order further to ascertain the value of the irrigation works, the net revenue of the year is capitalised at 4 per cent., and the capitalised value thus obtained is deducted from the "total sum at charge." The result of this operation is to show that in 1882-83 the capitalised value of the net revenue exceeded the "total sum at charge" by 3,738,719 *l.*

The financial results of "Productive" Irrigation Works for each Province and for the whole of India in 1882-83, according to the principle adopted by the Public Works Department, are shown in the following table (VIII.) :—

VIII.—FINANCIAL RESULTS of "PRODUCTIVE" IRRIGATION WORKS (according to Departmental System) for, and up to, 1882-83.

	Capital Outlay to end of 1882-83.	Indirect Capital Charges.	Excess of Interest over Net Revenue in past Years.	Total Sum at Charge for Interest at end of 1882-83.	Interest at 4 per cent. on Total Sum at Charge.	Excess or Deficit of Net Revenue as Compared with Interest.	Capitalised Value at 4 per cent. of Net Revenue (excluding Interest).	Excess or Deficit of Capitalised Value as compared with Total Sum at Charge.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Bengal - - - -	5,331,720	200,610	1,924,067	7,456,406	298,256	- 281,486	419,250	- 7,037,156
North-West Provinces -	6,002,948	436,794	— 205,324	6,294,418	251,777	+ 175,915	10,692,300	+ 4,397,882
Punjab - - - -	4,111,886	203,271	- 1,588,224	3,726,933	109,077	+ 53,582	4,066,475	+ 1,339,542
Madras - - - -	3,721,239	260,308	- 3,638,783	351,848	14,074	+ 243,186	6,431,500	+ 6,079,652
Bombay - - - -	1,538,971	67,502	334,478	1,940,951	77,638	- 41,648	809,750	- 1,041,201
TOTAL - - £.	20,766,767*	1,177,575	- 3,173,786	18,770,556	750,822	+ 149,549	22,509,275	+ 3,732,719

* This differs from the total in Table VI, by excluding 89 *l.* for Stores and Reserve.

Irrigation and Navigation Works "Other than Productive" (including also Agricultural Works) are subdivided in the Finance Accounts into (1) those for which capital and revenue accounts are kept; (2), those for which revenue accounts only are kept; and (3), those for which neither capital nor revenue accounts are kept. From the financial point of view, they are further classified into Imperial, Provincial, and Local. The two following tables (IX. and X.) show the expenditure and receipts of Irrigation Works "Other than Productive" under each of these headings in 1882-83. Table XI. gives the details of both expenditure and revenue, according to Provinces, for those works for which capital accounts are kept, together with the total capital expenditure down to the end of the year. Table XII. gives the details of expenditure only, according to Provinces, for those works for which capital accounts are not kept. These two last tables distribute the expenditure according to the financial classification of Imperial, Provincial, and Local. In Bombay the whole of the expenditure, and in the Punjab and Madras by far the larger part, is Imperial; in British Burma the whole, and in the North-West Provinces the greater part, is Provincial; while in Bengal the total is pretty equally divided between the two heads. In Assam, the expenditure on irrigation is insignificant, and in the Central Provinces apparently *nil*.

Irrigation Works
Other than Pro-
ductive.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

IX.—TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON IRRIGATION, NAVIGATION, and AGRICULTURAL WORKS,
“Other than PRODUCTIVE,” 1882-83.

	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	TOTAL.
IRRIGATION AND NAVIGATION.				
Works for which Capital and Revenue Accounts are kept:	£.	£.	£.	£.
Capital Outlay - - - - -	17,596	105,477	-	123,073
Revenue Outlay - - - - -	94,553	86,748	-	181,298
Works for which Revenue Accounts only are kept	84,549	-	-	84,549
Works for which neither Capital nor Revenue Accounts are kept.	157,178	201,068	1,126	359,372
TOTAL - - - £.	353,876	343,288	1,126	698,290
AGRICULTURAL.				
Works for which Capital and Revenue Accounts are kept:				
Capital Outlay - - - - -	-	— 683	-	— 683
Revenue Outlay - - - - -	-	6,752	-	6,752
Works for which neither Capital nor Revenue Accounts are kept.	154,702	41,747	807	198,756
TOTAL - - - £.	154,702	47,816	807	202,825
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	508,578	391,104	1,433	901,115

X.—RECEIPTS FROM IRRIGATION, NAVIGATION, and AGRICULTURAL WORKS, “Other than PRODUCTIVE,” 1882-83.

	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	TOTAL.
IRRIGATION AND NAVIGATION.				
Works for which Capital and Revenue Accounts are kept.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Works for which Revenue Accounts only are kept.	18,970	28,092	-	47,062
Works for which neither Capital nor Revenue Accounts are kept.	3,756	-	-	3,756
Works for which neither Capital nor Revenue Accounts are kept.	1,215	81,613	2,065	85,493
TOTAL - - - £.	23,941	110,675	2,065	137,181
AGRICULTURAL.				
Works for which Capital and Revenue Accounts are kept.	-	131	-	131
Works for which neither Capital nor Revenue Accounts are kept.	1,445	800	-	1,745
TOTAL - - - £.	1,445	431	-	1,976
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	24,286	111,006	2,065	139,057

XI.—EXPENDITURE and RECEIPTS, IRRIGATION, NAVIGATION, and AGRICULTURAL WORKS, "Other than PRODUCTIVE" (for which Capital Accounts are kept), 1882-83.

	CAPITAL EXPENDITURE		Revenue Expenditure, 1882-83.	TOTAL Expenditure, 1882-83.	Receipts, 1882-83.
	During 1882-83.	To End of 1882-83.			
IRRIGATION and NAVIGATION:	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Rajputana (Imperial) - - - -	2,827	147,769	3,941	6,768	829
Bengal:					
Imperial - - - - -	83,998	286,141	-	83,998	-
Provincial - - - - -	—290	82,773	3,360	3,050	1,803
TOTAL - - - - £.	83,708	318,914	3,360	87,068	-
North-West Provinces (Provincial)-	3,968	242,179	15,589	19,552	13,113
Punja (Imperial) - - - - -	—1,586	260,848	40,498	44,012	11,840
Madras:					
Imperial - - - - -	—11,802	271,715	8,155	—3,647	35
Provincial - - - - -	17,516	686,516	17,794	35,310	14,046
TOTAL - - - - £.	5,714	907,263	25,949	31,663	14,081
Bombay (Imperial):					
Deccan - - - - -	19,263	528,006	4,400	23,663	3,368
Sind - - - - -	9,184	329,220	31,559	40,743	2,898
TOTAL - - - - £.	28,447	857,226	35,959	64,406	6,266
TOTAL Irrigation and Navigation - £.	123,073	2,733,200	181,290	254,369	47,062
AGRICULTURAL:					
British Burma (Provincial) - - - -	—688	307,132	6,752	6,069	131
GRAND TOTAL - - - - £.	122,385	3,040,332	188,048	260,438	48,063

XII.—EXPENDITURE ON IRRIGATION, NAVIGATION, and AGRICULTURAL WORKS, "Other than PRODUCTIVE" (for which Capital Accounts are not kept), 1882-83.

	IRRIGATION AND NAVIGATION.				AGRICULTURAL.				GRAND TOTAL
	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	TOTAL.	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	TOTAL.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	
Rajputana - - - -	446	-	-	446	-	-	-	-	446
Bengal - - - -	-	135,039	40	135,079	76,614	14,326	-	90,940	226,019
Assam - - - -	-	4,667	-	4,667	-	-	-	-	4,667
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	-	25	386	411	1,598	1,915	-	3,513	3,924
Punjab - - - -	4,892	1,523	-	6,415	151	-	-	151	6,566
British Burma - - - -	-	59,814	700	60,514	-	25,500	307	25,813	86,327
Madras - - - -	156,732	-	-	156,732	56,799	-	-	56,799	213,531
Bombay - - - -	79,657	-	-	79,657	19,530	-	-	19,530	99,187
TOTAL - - - £.	241,727	201,068	1,126	443,921	154,702	41,747	307	196,756	640,677

Protective Irrigation Works.

There yet remains to include the expenditure on "Protective" Irrigation and Navigation Works, defrayed out of the fund set apart for Famine Relief, which first appears in the accounts for 1881-82. The following table (XIII.) show this expenditure in 1881-82 and 1882-83, together with the amount that has been transferred from "Ordinary" to "Protective." The Buckingham Canal along the east coast of Madras, against which a large part of the total expenditure is debited, has been constructed solely for navigation.

XIII.—EXPENDITURE ON "PROTECTIVE" IRRIGATION and NAVIGATION WORKS to End of 1882-83.

	Famine Relief.		Transferred from "Ordinary" Funds.	TOTAL.
	1881-82.	1882-83.		
	£.	£.	£.	£.
North-West Provinces and Oudh:				
Betwa Canal - - - -	16,615	87,751	17,908	122,269
Punjab:				
Swat River Canal - - -	40,067	58,238	133,867	232,772
Madras:				
Buckingham Canal - - -	4,700	158	484,394	489,252
Surveys - - - - -	1,288	6,267	-	7,550
TOTAL - - - - £.	6,988	6,425	484,384	496,802
Bombay:				
Nira Canal - - - - -	53,794	59,929	80,876	194,599
Mushwad Canal - - - -	15,064	37,578	37,687	91,219
Gokak Canal - - - - -	2,436	13,522	10,641	26,599
TOTAL - - - - £.	72,184	111,029	129,204	312,417
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	135,449	263,443	765,368	1,164,260

Total Expenditure on Irrigation, 1882-83.

Adding together "Productive," "Other than Productive," and "Protective" works, the total expenditure on irrigation in 1882-83 (excluding the capital outlay on "Productive" works), amounted to 1,666,569 l., the distribution of which is shown in the following table (XIV.)

XIV.—TOTAL EXPENDITURE out of REVENUE ON IRRIGATION, NAVIGATION, and AGRICULTURAL WORKS, 1882-83.

	Irrigation and Navigation.	Agricultural.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.
Productive - - - - -	502,011	-	502,011
Other than Productive - - - -	608,290	202,825	901,115
Protective - - - - -	263,443	-	263,443
TOTAL - - - - £.	1,463,744	202,825	1,666,569

Total Expenditure on Irrigation, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

During the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83, the aggregate expenditure on irrigation (still excluding capital outlay on "Productive" works) amounted to 11,333,694 l., as shown in table XV. Comparing the last year of the period with the first, it will be seen that the expenditure on irrigation has just doubled; while a steady increase is shown for each of the last five years.

XV.—TOTAL EXPENDITURE out of REVENUE on IRRIGATION, NAVIGATION, and AGRICULTURAL WORKS, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Productive.	Other than Productive.	Protective.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	266,653	693,296	-	961,949
1874-75	290,408	668,034	-	958,442
1875-76	351,278	775,795	-	1,127,073
1876-77	363,856	615,152	-	978,908
1877-78	371,199	767,759	-	1,128,958
1878-79	382,135	630,919	-	1,012,054
1879-80	415,073	668,907	-	1,083,980
1880-81	426,028	709,103	-	1,135,131
1881-82	456,148	789,933	135,449	1,381,530
1882-83	502,011	901,115	263,443	1,666,569
TOTAL	3,824,769	7,107,013	398,892	11,330,674

The general results of Irrigation Works, both "Productive" and "Other than Productive," in 1882-82 are exhibited in table XVI., which is taken from the Report of the Department. In that year there were altogether 8,376½ miles of main canal in operation, with 16,343½ miles of distributaries; the total area irrigated was 6,920,173 acres; the average gross receipts per acre irrigated were 5 s., the working expenses, 2 s. 1 d., and the net receipts, 2 s. 11 d.; the per-centage of working expenses to gross receipts was 41·61.

XVI.—GENERAL RESULTS OF IRRIGATION WORKS, 1882-83.

	Length in Operation.		Area under Irrigation.	Per Acre Irrigated.			Per-centage of Working Expenses to Gross Receipts.
	Main Canals.	Distributaries.		Gross Receipts.	Working Expenses.	Net Receipts.	
	Miles.	Miles.	Acres.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	
PRODUCTIVE:							
Bengal	628½	1,943½	372,866	7 1	6 2	- 11	87·26
North-West Provinces	1,270	5,291	1,872,460	6 7	2 -	4 7	30·48
Punjab	817	1,513	727,858	7 1	2 7	4 6	37·04
Madras	1,801½	4,983½	1,926,570	3 9	1 1	2 6	28·40
Bombay	522	389	329,027	9 11	1 9	2 2	44·36
TOTAL	5,129	14,119	5,228,781	5 5	2 -	3 5	37·00
OTHER THAN PRODUCTIVE:							
(For which Capital Accounts are kept.)							
Rajputana	-	-	2,340	6 1	3 11	2 9	64·57
British Burma	-	-	-	-	-	-	16·87
Bengal	-	-	-	-	-	-	186·26
North-West Provinces and Oudh	179	239	101,705	4 1	3 1	2 -	74·80
Punjab	1,632	87	606,079	2 11	2 2	- 9	75·77
Madras	372½	149½	113,411	5 6	4 10	- 8	86·81
Bombay	367½	1,749	583,295	2 11	1 6	1 5	51·35
TOTAL	2,551½	2,224½	1,501,840	3 10	2 4	1 6	61·15
(For which Capital Accounts are not kept.)							
Rajputana	-	-	30,167	8 9	3 3	5 6	36·39
Punjab	706	-	269,385	1 8	1 2	- 6	67·38
TOTAL	706	-	299,552	2 5	1 3	1 2	55·79
GRAND TOTAL	8,376½	16,343½	6,920,173	5 -	2 1	2 11	41·61

Irrigation accord-
ing to Provinces.

The following brief description of Irrigation, Navigation, and Agricultural works in each Province is taken from the several Provincial Administration Reports for 1882-83: The financial distinction between Imperial, Provincial, and Local has not been preserved.

Bengal.

In Bengal the total expenditure amounted to 514,898 *l.*, inclusive of all capital outlay, and the total receipts amounted to 207,445 *l.*: The works are managed under three circles of superintendence. (1.) The Orissa Circle, which includes not only the Orissa Canals, properly so called, but also the maintenance of embankments to restrain floods and the improvement of tidal creeks for navigation. (2.) The South Western Circle, comprising the Midnapur Canal, the Hijili Tidal Canal, and the Orissa Coast Canal (of which only the former is used for irrigation), as well as the network of channels through the lower delta of the Ganges known as the Calcutta Canals, the Eden Canal, the upper channels of the Hugli, known as the Nadiya Rivers, and many important embankments and drainage works in Lower Bengal. (3.) The Sone Circle, which includes not only the Sone Canals proper, but also the Saran and Teur Canals in Northern Behar, and some minor embankments and drainage works. Of the total expenditure, about 135,000 *l.* was devoted to navigation, and about 91,000 *l.* to embankments.

Assam.

In Assam, the total expenditure under this heading was 2,119 *l.*, allotted to the construction of landing stages on the Brahmaputra.

North-West
Provinces.

In the North-West Provinces the total expenditure amounted to 424,930 *l.*, inclusive of capital outlay; and the total receipts amounted to 636,380 *l.*, inclusive of indirect revenue. The works may be arranged in three classes. (1.) "Productive," comprising the Ganges, the Lower Ganges, the Agra, and the Eastern Jumna Canals. (2.) "Other than Productive," comprising the Dun Canals, the Rohilkhand Canals, the Bundelkhand Irrigation Survey, the Sarda Canal Survey, and the Cawnpur Branch Extension Survey of the Lower Ganges Canal. (3.) "Protective," consisting of the Betwa Canal alone. Of all these canals, irrigation is the main object, navigation being only subsidiary. Of the total expenditure, only 1,598 *l.* was devoted to agricultural works.

Punjab.

In the Punjab, the total expenditure amounted to 395,990 *l.*, inclusive of capital outlay; and the total receipts amounted to 383,023 *l.*, inclusive of indirect revenue. The works may be arranged in three classes. (1.) "Productive," comprising the Western Jumna and the Doab Canals, the Sirhind Canal (which was only opened in November 1882), and the Lower Sohag and Para, the Chenab, and the Sidhnai (all three of which were first begun in 1882-83). (2.) "Other than Productive," comprising the Upper Sutlej, the Lower Sutlej and Chenab, the Indus, and the Shahpur Canals, the Muzaffargarh system of Canals, Abdul Rahman Khan's Canal (which is not yet open), and the Madhopur workshops. (3.) "Protective," consisting only of the Swat River Canal. The first class are perennial canals, the second class are inundation canals. The Sirhind Canal is not confined to British territory, but runs through portions of six Native States, three of which, Patiala, Jhind, and Nabha, are responsible for 1,283,750 *l.*, out of a total capital outlay estimated at 4,069,403 *l.*

British Burma.

In British Burma, the total expenditure was 92,396 *l.*; the total receipts were 4,347 *l.* Of the total expenditure, 51,872 *l.* was devoted to water communication, the chief works being the completion of the Tunte Canal at a total cost of nearly 200,000 *l.*, and the maintenance of the Pegu and Sittang Canal; while 26,762 *l.* was devoted to embankments, the chief work being the embanking of Ma-ubin Island with a view to the reclamation of the land in the interior. The receipts are derived from canal tolls and embankment rents.

Madras.

In Madras, the subject of irrigation is more complicated than in other Provinces, because the Government is responsible not only for great engineering works, such as those in the deltas, but also for an immense number of tanks and minor works on the rivers, from which the greater part of the "wet" cultivation is irrigated in all the Districts of the Presidency. It has been calculated that a total sum of 5,500,000 *l.* is required to put these tanks and minor works into repair, and for this object an annual grant has been promised from the Imperial Treasury, rising by successive increments to 252,830 *l.* in 1886-87. Class I. comprises seven systems of "Productive" irrigation works, the Godavari Delta, the Kistna Delta, the Penner *anicut*, the Sangam *anicut*, the Kurnool Canal, the Cauvery Canal, and the Srivaikuntham *anicut*. Class II. comprises

comprises five systems of irrigation and navigation works, "Other than Productive," for each of which capital accounts are kept: the Chembrambakam Tank, the Palar *anicut*, the Pelandorai *anicut*, the Madras Water Supply and Irrigation Extension Project (intended primarily to the supply of water to Madras city, and secondarily for irrigation), and the Buckingham Canal. This last, which is a salt-water canal intended solely for navigation, runs along the coast northward from Madras city as far as Cocanada in Godavari District. In 1882-83, the capital expenditure on the Buckingham Canal was transferred from "Ordinary" to "Protective." Class III. consists of minor irrigation works, such as tanks, weirs, sluices, and channels, upon which the total sum of 156,732 *l.* was expended in 1882-83. Class IV. consists of miscellaneous agricultural works, upon which 56,799 *l.* was expended in 1882-83. Class V. consists of "Protective" works, mostly in the nature of projects under survey, upon which 6,425 *l.* was expended in 1882-83, including 158 *l.* on the Buckingham Canal.

In Bombay, the total expenditure was 360,114 *l.*, inclusive of about 200,000 *l.* on capital account; the total receipts were 151,023 *l.*, inclusive of 123,353 *l.*, collected with land revenue. These figures include those for Sind, which it may be convenient to give separately. Sind possesses three "Productive" works, the Desert Canal, the Begari Canal, and the Eastern Nara System, which yielded in 1882-83 a total net revenue (excluding interest charges) of 26,513 *l.* on a total capital outlay of 610,131 *l.* Bombay Proper, *i.e.* the Deccan and Gujarat, possesses seven "Productive" works, of which the most important are the Mutha Canals, the Ekruk Tank, and the Krishna Canal; the total net receipts in 1882-83 were 9,617 *l.*, upon a total capital outlay of 928,841 *l.* In Sind the works "Other than Productive" are five in number, of which the Sukkur and the Fuleli Canals are the most important; the net receipts in 1882-83 were 42,887 *l.*, on a capital of 310,814 *l.* In the Deccan and Gujarat the number of such works is 22, of which the most important are the Jamda Canals, the Ashti Tank, and the Yerla River Irrigation Works; the net receipts in 1882-83 showed a loss of 1,053 *l.* on a capital of 472,815 *l.* In addition, there are in the Deccan and Gujarat three "Protective" works under construction, the Nira Canal, the Mhasvad Tank, and the Gokak Canal, upon which 312,417 *l.* had been expended up to the end of 1882-83. In that year the total expenditure upon agricultural works was about 20,000 *l.*

In Ajmere the total expenditure amounted to 7,214 *l.*, inclusive of 2,827 *l.* on capital account; the total receipts were 9,349 *l.*, showing a return of 6.99 per cent (exclusive of interest) on a total capital outlay of 153,821 *l.* All the irrigation works in Ajmere are tanks, which are classified into old tanks, small new tanks, and large new tanks.

Besides railways and canals, the only other work included in the "Productive" class and constructed out of borrowed money is the Madras Harbour, which remains in an unfinished state, having been severely damaged by a cyclone in November 1881. Up to 31st March 1883, the total capital expenditure on the Madras Harbour amounted to 654,003 *l.*, of which 120,933 *l.* has been paid out of ordinary revenue. The capital expenditure incurred in the year 1882-83 was 49,808 *l.*, chiefly for repairs to the damaged structure.

Besides Railways and Irrigation, Public Works include Military Buildings, &c., Civil Buildings, Roads, and other Services, such as harbours and docks. In past years the expenditure on Military Buildings was exceptionally heavy, owing to the necessity of providing temporary quarters and permanent barracks for the European garrison after the Mutiny. It is estimated that from 10 to 12 millions have altogether been spent on this account since 1857. At present the expenditure on military works is limited to an annual grant of 1,000,000 *l.* In 1882-83 the gross expenditure was 964,307 *l.*, against which must be set off receipts amounting to 44,306 *l.*, leaving a net expenditure of 920,001 *l.* This includes the entire outlay on barracks, officers' quarters, hospitals, fortifications, &c. Of the total gross expenditure, 361,752 *l.* was for new buildings, 345,044 *l.* for repairs, 201,312 *l.* for establishment, and 68,000 *l.* for barrack furniture.

The following table classifies the total expenditure with reference to the Province or other locality in which it was incurred, so far as practicable:—

EXPENDITURE ON MILITARY WORKS, 1882-83.

	£.
INDIA, GENERAL:	
Inspector General of Military Works - - -	512,786
Central India - - - - -	20,645
Coorg - - - - -	96
Hyderabad - - - - -	27,416
Rajputana - - - - -	19,588
Quetta Agency - - - - -	57,422
TOTAL - - - £.	637,953
Bengal - - - - -	32,056
Assam - - - - -	25,191
North-West Provinces and Oudh - - - - -	700
Punjab - - - - -	29,357
Central Provinces - - - - -	25,975
British Burma - - - - -	36,441
Madras - - - - -	66,031
Bombay - - - - -	108,832
England - - - - -	1,771
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	964,307

CIVIL BUILDINGS,
&c.

The gross expenditure on Civil Buildings, Roads, and other Services amounted in 1882-83 to a total of 4,350,314 l., against which must be set off receipts amounting to 504,747 l., leaving a net expenditure of 3,845,567 l. This includes the entire outlay on all civil buildings, roads, miscellaneous public improvements, except that incurred by municipalities; in short, every item spent by or on account of the Public Works Department, which has not already been entered under Railways, Irrigation, or Military Works. It comprises the cost of the Royal Indian Engineering College at Cooper's Hill, which amounts to 20,219 l. gross, and 5,779 l. net, the expenses of engineer students in England, and the pay of all officers of the Public Works Department while on leave.

The two following tables classify the expenditure on Civil Buildings, &c., (I.) according to Provinces and the distinction of Imperial, Provincial, and Local Finance; (II.) according to the objects of expenditure, so far as practicable. It will be seen that Burma is the only Province that does not receive any aid from the Imperial Treasury. The comparatively large expenditure in Bengal under "Imperial," is explained by the buildings erected in Calcutta for the Government of India. In the second table, the only item that seems to require comment is that of 973,097 l. spent by various civil departments, independent of the control of the Public Works Department, which does not admit of classification.

I.—EXPENDITURE ON CIVIL BUILDINGS, ROADS, and other SERVICES, 1882-83.

	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
India, General - - -	249,467	-	8,777	258,244
Bengal - - - - -	180,725	672,989	368,011	1,171,615
Assam - - - - -	2,844	51,556	90,825	145,225
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	15,702	316,055	201,827	533,584
Punjab - - - - -	14,851	304,206	75,794	394,851
Central Provinces - - -	4,015	100,741	32,585	137,341
British Burma - - - - -	-	311,669	71,115	382,784
Madras - - - - -	25,471	200,151	387,917	613,539
Bombay - - - - -	59,616	347,531	228,746	635,893
England - - - - -	82,238	-	-	82,238
TOTAL - - - - £.	584,029	2,304,798	1,460,687	4,350,314

II.—ANALYSIS OF EXPENDITURE ON CIVIL BUILDINGS, ROADS, and other SERVICES, 1882-83.

Civil Buildings - - - - -	£.
Communications - - - - -	1,238,518
Miscellaneous Public Improvements - - - - -	1,243,254
Establishment - - - - -	137,541
Tools and Plant - - - - -	626,153
Profit and Loss - - - - -	40,560
Suspense - - - - -	8,676
Expenditure by Civil Departments - - - - -	2,044
Royal Indian Engineering College - - - - -	973,097
Salaries and Expenses of Students in England - - - - -	20,219
Examination of Candidates, &c. - - - - -	6,605
Furlough Pay of Military Officers - - - - -	1,513
Absentee Allowances of Uncovenanted Officers - - - - -	31,056
Expenses of Officers visiting Works - - - - -	21,189
Stores - - - - -	408
	1,248
TOTAL - - - - £.	4,352,091
<i>Deduct</i> Outlay in England debited against Military Works -	1,777
NET TOTAL - - - - £.	4,350,314

Table III. shows the expenditure on Civil Buildings, &c., classified into Imperial, Provincial, and Local, for each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the total expenditure has increased by 480,004 l., or 13 per cent., almost entirely under Provincial, the Local expenditure having actually decreased. But this increase has been by no means uniform throughout the ten years. The expenditure in the first year (1873-74) was considerably higher than in any of the following years until 1881-82, the reduction being particularly noticeable in the three years 1877-78 to 1879-80.

III.—EXPENDITURE on CIVIL BUILDINGS, ROADS, and other SERVICES, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Imperial.	Provincial.	Local.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	411,816	1,221,588	1,586,006	3,870,310
1874-75 - - - -	393,100	1,431,739	1,672,927	3,497,766
1875-76 - - - -	421,686	1,330,274	1,593,797	3,345,757
1876-77 - - - -	379,772	1,692,488	1,275,278	3,347,528
1877-78 - - - -	416,920	1,454,910	1,210,053	3,082,883
1878-79 - - - -	370,160	1,565,848	1,173,196	3,129,204
1879-80 - - - -	464,636	1,425,482	1,040,084	2,930,202
1880-81 - - - -	487,833	1,698,233	1,212,486	3,398,554
1881-82 - - - -	562,621	2,088,793	1,391,756	4,043,170
1882-83 - - - -	539,920	2,304,798	1,460,587	4,350,314
TOTAL - - - £.	4,445,523	16,934,148	13,567,017	34,946,688

Receipts on account of Military Works, Civil Buildings, &c.

Table IV. shows the details of receipts on account both of Military Works and of Civil Buildings, &c. for 1882-83.

IV.—RECEIPTS ON ACCOUNT of MILITARY WORKS, CIVIL BUILDINGS, ROADS, and other SERVICES, 1882-83.

MILITARY :	£.
Rents of Officers' Quarters - - - -	18,612
Rents of other Buildings - - - -	8,678
Fines, Refunds, &c. - - - -	7,776
Miscellaneous - - - -	9,240
TOTAL - - - £.	44,306
CIVIL BUILDINGS, &c. :	
Rents of Buildings - - - -	27,237
Receipts from Workshops - - - -	45,619
Tolls on Roads and Ferry Receipts - - - -	305,345
Fines, Refunds, &c. - - - -	80,242
Miscellaneous - - - -	31,864
Royal Indian Engineering College - - - -	14,440
TOTAL - - - £.	504,747
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	549,053

Table V. shows, so far as practicable, the length of all means of communication by water, road, and rail in each Province of India. Unfortunately no figures are available for either Bengal or Bombay; and the classification of communications by water and road is not uniform in the several Provinces. The total length of railways in all India (including the Native States) open at the end of 1883 has already been given as 10,447.09 miles.

Length of Means of Communication.

V.—MEANS OF COMMUNICATION BY WATER, ROAD, AND RAIL.

	WATER.			ROADS.				RAILWAYS.
	Rivers.	Canals.	TOTAL.	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.	TOTAL.	
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	
Bengal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Assam	3,711	-	3,711	947	2,168	1,699	4,808	39
North-West Provinces	-	-	525	-	-	-	21,882	1,140
Oudh	-	-	1,649	-	-	-	5,326	287
Punjab	2,676	-	2,676	1,467	23,156	-	24,623	600
Central Provinces	1,323	-	1,323	221	1,268	1,344	2,839	786
British Burma	9,387	37	9,424	430	768	1,051	2,253	184
Madras	1,536	1,304	2,940	-	-	-	20,465	1,464
Bombay	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Benar	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,533	179
Ajmer	-	-	-	296	365	-	591	-
Coorg	-	-	-	-	-	-	140	-
TOTAL	18,633	1,341	22,248	2,797	26,019	4,094	84,355	4,629

CHAPTER XVIII.

POST OFFICE AND TELEGRAPHS.

POST OFFICE,
The Department.

THE Post Office is a Department of the Government of India, under the charge of a Director General. Its local organisation is into 14 Postal Circles, which are for the most part co-extensive with the Provinces. Rajputana and Central India each form a Postal Circle; so also do Oudh and Sind; while the Postal Circles of Eastern Bengal and Behar have recently been separated from the rest of Bengal. The large Provinces are under the charge of Postmasters General; the smaller Provinces and the remaining Postal Circles are under Deputy Postmasters General. The subordinate staff consist of Superintendents of Post Offices and Postmasters.

The District Post.

What is known as the District Post does not form part of the Post Office Department. In its origin, the District Post was a branch of the Police, having been established in order to enable the Magistrates to receive reports about crimes and to issue orders thereon. It is still largely used for the conveyance of official correspondence between the headquarters and the outlying stations of a District; but it has also been utilised for opening ordinary postal communication with remote places, where the receipts would be insufficient to justify the Department in undertaking the work. For the most part, the District Post is now administered by the officials of the Department. Its receipts and charges, however, are not included in the Departmental Accounts, though the charges are included in the Finance Accounts, together with the receipts of the *zamindari dak* in Bengal. The expenses of the District Post are usually defrayed out of a local cess, levied with the land revenue, which yielded in 1882-83 a total of 76,751 *l.* In Madras and Bombay there is no special District Post cess, but a contribution is made for the purpose from Provincial Funds. The total amount of such contributions in all India in 1882-83 was 27,327 *l.*, raising the aggregate revenue to 104,878 *l.* The total expenditure was 92,055 *l.*, showing a surplus of 12,823 *l.* In the same year the total number of District Post Offices and Receiving Offices was 791; the number of District Post Letter Boxes was 1,744; the number of postmen, 2,493; the number of articles posted, 3,398,394; the number of articles delivered, 5,611,356. In Bengal, the receipts of the *zamindari dak* in 1882-83 were 35,573 *l.*, and the charges 31,699 *l.*, showing a surplus of 3,874.

Non-Postal
Branches of the
Department.

But while the Post Office Department is not responsible for the District Post, it does conduct certain services known as the "Non-Postal Branches" of the Post Office. These consist of certain lines in Northern India on which the vehicles that carry the mails are also utilised for the conveyance of passengers and parcels. With the development of the railway system, the number of these lines is rapidly decreasing. In 1881, no less than 8 lines of bullock train in the Punjab and North West Provinces were closed; and in May 1882, on the opening of the railway to Peshawar, the Punjab Military Van *dak* also ceased. On 31st March 1883, only two lines of bullock train remained in operation, between Umballa and Simla, and between Lahore and Ludhiana, *via* Ferozpur, both in the Punjab. The only line of mail cart and parcel van passenger service was that from Umballa to Simla. The total receipts from Non-Postal Branches have decreased from 186,840 *l.* in 1879-80 to 46,690 *l.* in 1882-83, though the charges have not diminished at the same rate, owing to the inclusion under this heading of a subsidy of 71,200 *l.* paid to the British India Steam Navigation Company. This subsidy, it may be observed, represents also the purchase of the privilege of taking up steamers in case of necessity and the conveyance of soldiers and Government officials at a cheap rate. The share really debitable against the Post Office has been estimated at only 29,532 *l.*; and a considerable economy has been effected in a revision of the contract

since the period to which this Report is confined. The financial results for 1882-83 show a surplus of 3,574 *l.* in the Bullock Train department, and a deficit of 284 *l.* in the Punjab Military Van *dak*. The latter, as before mentioned has now been abolished.

The system of Inland Orders was first introduced in January 1880, and has rapidly become one of the most popular branches of the postal service. The number of money order offices open in 1882-83 was 5,453. The following table shows the development of money order transactions from the beginning:—

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF INLAND MONEY ORDERS, 1879-80 to 1882-83.

	Number.	Value.	Commission.
		£.	£.
1879-80 - - - -	232,030	724,821	8,490
1880-81 - - - -	1,604,174	4,570,858	53,598
1881-82 - - - -	2,157,796	5,783,203	67,907
1882-83 - - - -	2,565,904	6,468,418	77,006
Increase per cent. in 1882-83 over 1881-82 - }	18·91	12·82	13·53

Foreign money orders in sterling at a fixed rate of exchange are interchanged with the United Kingdom, and with the United States and Canada through the British Post Office, as well as with several States on the Continent and the Australian Colonies. In 1882-83, the total number of such orders issued in India was 29,929, for a total sterling value of 117,526 *l.*; the number paid in India was 2,974, for a sterling value of 10,903 *l.*; the average rate of exchange was 1 *s.* 7 *d.* 2·48 per rupee. Foreign money orders in Indian currency are also interchanged with Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, China and Japan. In 1882-83 the number issued was 1,443, to a value of 11,205 *l.*; the number paid was 9,243, to a value of 47,371 *l.*

India Postal Notes for fixed sums of money in three denominations (5 *s.*, 2 *s.*, and 1 *s.*) were introduced in January 1883. During the first quarter of the year such notes were sold to the total value of 4,053 *l.*, those for 2 *s.* proving the most popular. The system found most favour in Madras, and it led to no apparent diminution in the number of money orders for small sums.

Government Savings Banks, at the headquarters of each District and under the management of the Treasury Department, were introduced into India in 1870. At the end of 1882-83 the number of these District Savings Banks was 180, exclusive of the three Presidency Banks and 17 State Railway Savings Banks; the number of depositors was 21,972, and the closing balance was 754,767 *l.*; Post Office Savings Banks were first opened on 1st April 1882; but, out of respect for the privileges of the Presidency banks, none were established anywhere throughout Bombay, nor in the large towns of Madras, nor in Calcutta and the neighbouring town of Howrah. The total number opened was 4,046. The minimum deposit is 6 *d.*; interest is payable at the rate of 3½ per cent. on every complete sum of 10 *s.*; and Government securities may be purchased on behalf of depositors. At the end of 1882-83, the number of depositors was 39,121; the closing balance was 279,680 *l.*; and 880 *l.* had been invested in Government Promissory Notes. It is specially interesting to learn that, while nearly 600,000 *l.* passed through the hands of postal employes during the year, in deposits and withdrawals, only two cases of misappropriation occurred, amounting in all to 1 *l.* 16 *s.* 6 *d.* The following table distinguishes the native and European depositors in both Post Office and District Savings Banks in 1882-83:—

DISTRIBUTION of DEPOSITORS in SAVINGS BANKS, 1882-83.

	Natives.		European and Eurasian.	
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.
Post Office Savings Banks - - -	35,623	£. 230,267	3,498	£. 49,412
District Savings Banks - - -	17,934	670,649	4,038	184,116
TOTAL - - -	53,557	800,916	7,536	233,530

Correspondence.

The ordinary business of the Post Office in 1882-83 is shown in the following table, which gives the number of articles of each class received for delivery during the year, together with the percentage of increase on the previous year. Money Orders and Postal Notes are not included.

ARTICLES Received for DELIVERY by the POST OFFICE, 1883-83.

	Number.	Increase per Cent. over 1881-82.
Correspondence Proper :		
Postcards - - - - -	29,844,147	33.04
Letters Paid (including Service) - - -	108,393,422	4.29
Letters Unpaid - - - - -	28,869,670	0.43
Letters Registered - - - - -	3,446,354	6.08
TOTAL - - -	165,553,493	8.14
Newspapers - - - - -	14,075,677	12.86
Parcels - - - - -	1,312,228	13.90
Book and Pattern Packets - - - - -	3,113,267	30.41
GRAND TOTAL - - -	184,054,665	8.81

The largest increase is in postcards, which were first introduced in 1879-80. The Postmaster General of Madras reports that "postcards are largely employed in business for the circulation of advertisements, and the native public are resorting to their use for announcing domestic occurrences." The increase in newspapers is partly due to a reduced rate for light papers, introduced in November 1881; and the increase in registered letters to the reduction of the fee from 6 d. to 3 d. in August 1881.

Besides registration, two other systems are in use for the transmission of valuables through the post, Insurance and "Value Payable," both of which were introduced in December 1877. In 1882-83 letters and parcels were insured to the total value of 8,263,827 l., being an increase of 7.99 per cent. on the previous year; the amount of insurance fees was 19,964 l.; and the total amount of loss that the Post Office had to make good was 628 l. The "Value Payable" system, adopted from Germany, consists in an undertaking made to the Post Office with the sender of an article to realise a specified sum of money from the addressee and pay it to the sender. At first this system did not attract much attention, but its popularity is now established. In 1882-83 the

Insurance and Value Payable.

the total number of articles sent under the "Value Payable" system was 174,301, being an increase of 75.32 per cent. on the previous year; the value declared for realisation was 168,610 l.; and the commission was 3,257 l.

The figures given above include foreign as well as inland business. The dealings with England are shown separately in the following table:—

Correspondence with England.

POST OFFICE TRANSACTIONS between India and England, 1882-83.

	Dispatched from India.	Received in India.
	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Number.</i>
Letters, including Postcards - - -	2,717,798	2,644,410
Newspapers - - - - -	312,418	2,386,162
Books - - - - -	474,205	1,840,945
Parcels - - - - -	22,148	59,812
TOTAL - - -	3,526,570	6,937,329
	<i>Lbs. oz.</i>	<i>Lbs. oz.</i>
Average Weight of Parcel - - -	2 14	6 1

It is noteworthy that the number of letters sent from India to England slightly exceeds the number sent the other way; while the number of newspapers sent to India from England is more than sevenfold the number sent the other way, the number of books fourfold, and the number of parcels nearly threefold.

The postal service between India and England is conducted by contract with the Peninsular and Oriental Company. The subsidy payable under this contract is not nearly covered by the postage realised. The rates of postage are governed by the rules of the Universal Postal Union, to which India became a party in 1876. All that India collects on account of sea postage is credited to England, the amount paid under this head in 1882-83 being 24,257 l.; and when this, together with the collections in England, have been deducted from the total cost of the sea service, the balance is made a charge in equal shares between India and England. In 1882-83 India's share amounted to 70,000 l.

Mail Service with England.

The following table shows the length of postal line over which mails were conveyed by the several methods of conveyance in 1882-83, together with the increase on the previous year:—

Length of Postal Lines.

LENGTH OF POSTAL LINES, 1882-83.

		Increase over 1881-82.
	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>
Railway - - - - -	9,901	156
Mail-cart, Horse, and Camel - - -	3,648	345
Runners and Boats - - - - -	33,135	814
Sea - - - - -	14,520	212
TOTAL - - -	61,204	1,527

The

Indian Packet
Service.

The British India Steam Navigation Company maintains, under contract with the Post Office, the following services weekly, between Calcutta and Rangoon, Moulmein, and the other principal ports of Burma; weekly between Moulmein and Singapore; fortnightly between Madras and Rangoon; weekly between Calcutta and Bombay, touching at the intermediate ports on the Coromandel and Malabar coasts; semi-weekly between Bombay and Karachi, with a weekly continuation to the Persian Gulf; and fortnightly between Karachi and Aden. For these services a total subsidy is paid of 72,500 *l.* a year. Four-weekly communication is maintained between Calcutta and Port Blair by the Asiatic Steam Navigation Company on behalf of the Military Department, but no postal subsidy is paid. The Government of British Burma maintains five local services by the Irrawaddy Flotilla Company, one by the Burmese Tug Company, and two by the British India Company, for which a total subsidy of 13,200 *l.* is paid. The Indian Post Office further pays a subsidy of 3,600 *l.* to the Euphrates and Tigris Steam Navigation Company for a weekly service between Busreh and Bagdad. All other sea lines are paid for, not by subsidy, but according to the weight of mails carried.

Postal Statistics,
1873-74 to 1882-
83.

The following table gives the principal statistics of the Postal Department for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. Except for a decrease in the establishment in 1875-76, and a decrease in the length of postal lines in 1878-79, there is an increase for every year in every column. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the number of post offices has increased by 2,132 or 66 per cent., the number of letter boxes has increased by 4,309 or 119 per cent.; the number of village postmen has increased by 2,371 or 182 per cent.; the strength of the establishment has increased by 9,088 persons or 36 per cent.; the length of postal lines has increased by 6,587 miles or 12 per cent.; and the number of articles received for delivery has increased by 77,385,065 or 71 per cent.

COMPARATIVE POST OFFICE STATISTICS, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Post Offices.	Letter Boxes.	Village Postmen.	Strength of Establish- ment.	Length of Postal Lines.	Articles Received for Delivery (including Money Orders).
	No.	No.	No.	Persons.	Miles.	No.
1873-74 - - -	3,178	3,827	1,299	25,302	54,617	109,235,503
1874-75 - - -	3,403	3,977	1,463	25,942	56,128	116,119,231
1875-76 - - -	3,661	4,916	1,695	25,901	57,044	119,470,921
1876-77 - - -	3,852	5,454	1,950	27,469	57,406	122,541,753
1877-78 - - -	4,107	5,809	2,242	28,992	57,963	126,826,080
1878-79 - - -	4,392	6,167	2,601	29,654	57,954	131,899,268
1879-80 - - -	4,410	6,426	2,702	30,068	58,240	142,977,644
1880-81 - - -	4,522	6,720	2,833	31,074	58,760	158,666,656
1881-82 - - -	4,819	7,100	3,241	32,048	59,677	171,317,619
1882-83 - - -	5,310	7,936	3,670	34,450	61,204	186,620,568

Post Office
Receipts and
Charges, 1882-83.

The receipts and charges of the Post Office are exhibited differently in the accounts of the Department and in the general Finance Accounts. The accounts of the department show only the receipts and charges for those branches of the postal service which are under its immediate charge. The Finance Accounts show in addition all those receipts and charges which are indirectly connected with the postal service, such as the District Post, and the subsidies to the Peninsular and Oriental Company, and to the Tigris and Euphrates Steam Navigation Company. A further distinction requires to be drawn between the receipts and charges for postal service proper, and the receipts and

charges for the non-postal branches, comprising the bullock train and passenger service in Northern India.

Table I. gives the receipts and charges of the Post Office in 1882-83, according to the accounts of the Department, distinguishing postal service proper, from the non-postal branches. In the postal service proper, the financial result was a surplus of 55,771 £., which is only obtained by crediting the Department with 149,080 £. for service stamps for official postage. In the non-postal branches, the financial result was a deficit of 67,910 £., which is more than accounted for by the inclusion under this head of the subsidy of 71,200 £. to the British India Steam Navigation Company. The net financial result on both headings was a deficit of 12,139 £.

I.—POST OFFICE RECEIPTS and CHARGES (according to Departmental Accounts), 1882-83.

	Receipts.	Charges.	Surplus or Deficit.
Postal Service Proper :	£.	£.	£.
Ordinary Postage, &c.	776,869	869,178	— 93,309
Official Postage, &c. -	149,081	—	—
TOTAL - - - £.	924,949	869,178	+ 55,771
Non-Postal Branches (Bullock Train and Passenger Service)	46,890	114,600	— 67,910
GRAND TOTAL - - £.	971,839	983,778	— 12,139

The Director General, however, would present the true financial results of his Department in yet another way. Excluding the non-postal branches, he would charge against postal service proper the items shown in the following table II. amounting to a total of 130,905 £. The surplus of 55,771 £. is thus turned into a deficit of 75,134 £., which does not include the subsidies to the foreign lines of steamers.

II.—CHARGES against the POST OFFICE not included in the Departmental Accounts, 1882-83.

Stationery	£.
New cost of Railway Service	17,869
Stores from England	12,000
Value of Service rendered by Government Press	27,871
Rent of Government Buildings	3,888
Estimated share of Subsidy to British India Steam Navigation Company.	22,784
Gratuitie	29,532
Leave Allowances paid in England	489
Pensions	133
TOTAL - - - £.	16,339
TOTAL - - - £.	130,905

Tables III. and IV. give details of the receipts and charges of the Post Office for 1882-83, according to the Finance Accounts. The financial result is a deficit of 216,213 £., which would be reduced by about 90,000 £. if all the receipts of the District Post could be included.

III.—DETAILS of POST OFFICE RECEIPTS (according to Finance Accounts)
1882-83.

Postal Service Proper :	£.
Cash Receipts - - - - -	337,740
Sale of Postage Stamps - - - - -	459,303
Service Postage Stamps - - - - -	149,080
Miscellaneous - - - - -	5,330
TOTAL - - - £.	951,453
Deduct :	
Postage received in India and paid to London - - -	24,257
Payments to Colonial and Foreign Administrations. - -	2,347
TOTAL - - - £.	26,504
NET TOTAL - - - £.	924,949
Non-Postal Branches :	
Bullock Train - - - - -	27,154
Military Van <i>Dak</i> - - - - -	720
Mail Cart and Parcel Van Passenger Service - - -	18,816
TOTAL - - - £.	46,690
Receipts not shown in Departmental Accounts :	
District Post Collections (including <i>Zamindari Dak</i> in Bengal).	6,158
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	977,797

IV.—DETAILS of POST OFFICE CHARGES (according to Finance Accounts)
1882-83.

Postal Service Proper :	£.
Salaries and Establishments - - - - -	655,016
Miscellaneous - - - - -	105,484
Mail Cart (after deducting Passenger Van Service) - - -	82,006
Bounty to Ships' Captains for Conveyance of Mails - -	141
Construction and Repair of Buildings - - - - -	2,275
Discount on Sale of Stamps - - - - -	14,256
TOTAL - - - £.	869,178
Non-Postal Branches :	
Bullock Train - - - - -	23,580
Military Van <i>Dak</i> - - - - -	1,004
Mail Cart and Parcel Van Passenger Service - - -	18,816
Subsidy to British India Steam Navigation Company - -	71,200
TOTAL - - - £.	114,600
Charges not shown in Departmental Accounts :	
District Post Establishment (including <i>Zamindari Dak</i> in Bengal.)	168,762
Stores from England - - - - -	27,871
Share of Subsidy to Peninsular and Oriental Company -	70,000
Subsidy to Tigris and Euphrates Steam Navigation Company.	3,600
TOTAL - - - £.	210,233
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	1,194,011

Table V. gives the receipts and charges of the Post Office, according to the accounts of the Department, for each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83, distinguishing postal service proper from the non-postal branches. As has already been mentioned, the receipts of the non-postal branches have greatly diminished in the last two years, owing to railway extension in Northern India, and the consequent abolition of the Bullock Train; while the charges have not diminished in the same proportion, because they include the subsidy to the British India Steam Navigation Company. In the postal service proper, both receipts and charges show a steady increase for every successive year. During the first five years of the series the receipts increased more rapidly than the charges, but during the last three years the charges have increased more rapidly than the receipts. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the receipts of the postal service proper have increased by 368,083 £, or 66 per cent.; the charges have increased by 327,053 £, or 60 per cent.; and the net receipts have increased by 40,030 £, or 25 per cent.

Post Office Receipts and Charges 1873-74 to 1882-83.

V.—POST OFFICE RECEIPTS and CHARGES (according to Departmental Accounts), 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Postal Service Proper.			Non-Postal Branches.			TOTAL.		
	Receipts.	Charges.	Excess Receipts.	Receipts.	Charges.	Excess Charges.	Receipts.	Charges.	Excess Receipts Charge
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	557,866	542,125	15,741	118,779	183,232	64,453	676,645	725,357	- 48,712
1874-75	594,873	557,087	37,786	124,714	172,104	47,390	719,587	720,191	- 604
1875-76	633,530	568,931	64,599	118,564	181,514	62,950	752,094	745,445	+ 6,649
1876-77	668,868	578,767	90,099	113,454	165,514	52,060	782,322	744,281	+ 38,041
1877-78	729,717	608,270	121,447	102,933	159,818	56,885	832,650	768,088	+ 64,562
1878-79	747,259	655,731	91,528	147,375	183,747	36,372	894,634	839,478	+ 55,156
1879-80	798,972	689,343	109,629	186,840	225,546	38,706	985,812	914,889	+ 70,923
1880-81	853,960	741,413	111,947	145,873	231,178	75,305	999,233	862,601	+ 136,632
1881-82	884,577	810,028	74,549	60,748	133,570	72,822	945,325	943,598	+ 1,727
1882-83	924,949	869,178	55,771	46,690	114,600	67,910	971,639	983,778	- 12,139

In his Report for 1882-83, the Director General thus explains the increase that has occurred in some of the largest items of expenditure between 1872-73 and 1881-82. Under the head of "Salaries and Establishments," the total increase during the nine years has been 207,843 £, of which 147,164 £ is due to the greater number of officials employed, and 60,729 £ to the augmentation of salaries. The largest items of increase included in the total are 131,862 £ for fixed Post Office Establishments, and 28,874 £ for Railway Mail Service. Under the head of "Miscellaneous and Contingent Charges," the total net increase during the nine years has been 85,196 £, of which 34,770 £ is due to payments to State Railways and 24,950 £ to the increased demand for stores.

Table VI. gives the receipts and charges of the Post Office according to the Finance Accounts, for each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the receipts have increased by 289,338 £, or 42 per cent.; the charges have increased by 310,829 £, or 35 per cent., and the excess charges have increased by 21,491 £, or 11 per cent. With reference to the increase in charges, it may be stated that the share of the subsidy payable by India to the Peninsular and Oriental Company has risen from 54,770 £ in 1873-74 to 70,000 £ in 1882-83, a growth of 15,230 £.

VI.—POST OFFICE RECEIPTS and CHARGES (according to Finance Accounts),
1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Receipts.	Charges.	Excess Charges.
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - - -	688,459	883,181	194,722
1874-75 - - - - -	739,819	895,966	156,147
1876-76 - - - - -	765,751	908,634	137,883
1876-77 - - - - -	797,465	919,749	122,284
1877-78 - - - - -	850,431	964,098	113,567
1878-79 - - - - -	911,806	1,033,470	121,664
1879-80 - - - - -	1,004,372	1,145,554	141,182
1880-81 - - - - -	1,018,653	1,175,505	156,852
1881-82 - - - - -	949,907	1,147,935	198,028
1882-83 - - - - -	977,297	1,194,010	216,213

TELEGRAPHS.
The Department.

Telegraphs, like the Post Office, form a Department of the Government of India, under the charge of a Director General. Its local organisation is into 16 divisions, whose limits for the most part do not coincide with those of the Provinces; Beluchistan, or Quetta, forms a sub-division by itself. The subordinate staff consists of Superintendents of four grades and Assistant Superintendents. With the exception of a short provincial line in Bombay, constructed in 1882-83, the entire management of all the telegraphs in India is Imperial. The wires running along the railways, though used jointly for railway and public purposes, are in all cases maintained by the Department; and only in the case of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway does the telegraph plant still remain the property of the Company. On 31st March 1883, the total length of lines in all of India (exclusive of 130 miles of submarine cable) was 21,740 miles, of which 11,418 miles were laid along railways, and 10,322 along roads. The total length of wire in these lines was 62,830 miles. Included in this last total are 808 miles of telephone lines, some public and some private. Of public telephone lines there were—in Bombay city, 79 miles of wire; in Madras city, on the exchange system, 30; in Lahore, 38; in Calcutta, 17 miles; of private telephone lines, there were—in Calcutta, 73 miles of wire; in Rangoon, 73; in Bombay, 30; in Moulmein, 25; in Lahore, 21.

Telegraph
Communication
with the West.

Besides the internal system of telegraphs, the Government of India is also concerned in the maintenance of telegraphic communication with England. The first attempt to open such communication was by means of a submarine cable from Suez to Bombay, which was undertaken by a private company on a guarantee from the Indian Government. The cable was laid in 1859, but ceased working within a few days after it had been completed, and has never been repaired. A sum of 18,027 *l.* appears as a charge in the Finance Accounts for 1882-83 as "moiety of annuity payable to shareholders of the late Red Sea and India Telegraph Company (25 & 26 Vict. c. 3)."

The next attempt was made in connexion with a line of telegraph constructed by the Turkish Government in 1863 across Asia Minor from Constantinople to Baghdad. In the following year (1864) the Indian Government laid a submarine cable at its own expense from Karachi to Fao at the head of the Persian Gulf, and continued the line by land from Fao to Baghdad. This latter line was exposed to interruption; and therefore in 1865 the Indian Government constructed an alternative line from Bushire in the Persian Gulf to Teheran and thence to Baghdad. Somewhat later the Russian Government constructed a line from Tiflis to the Persian frontier, while the Persian Government continued the line to Teheran. At this time, therefore, there were two alternative land routes under the charge of the Turkish and the Persian Governments, neither of which worked satisfactorily.

In 1870 two new lines of telegraphic communication between India and the West were opened. A submarine cable was successfully laid from Suez to Bombay by the Eastern Telegraph Company, as a private enterprise without any Govern-
ment

ment guarantee; and another private company, the Indo-European, opened a continuous line through Germany, Russia, and the Caucasus to Teheran. The Eastern Telegraph Company has since laid a duplicate cable along the same track as the first; and yet another means of communication has been afforded by means of the extension of the system to China, and thence back to Europe across Northern Asia.

For practical purposes, the telegraphic routes to India are three in number: (1.) the Eastern Telegraph Company's duplicate cables from Bombay to Suez, which carry about two-thirds of the total traffic; (2.) the Indo-European Company's land line from Teheran, which there connects with the land line of the Indian Government from Bushire, which is again a continuation of the Indian Government's submarine cable from Karachi. This route takes on an average nearly one-third of the total traffic; (3.) the line of the Turkish Government through Constantinople, Baghdad, and Fao, connecting at the latter place with the submarine cable of the Indian Government. This route takes about 2 per cent. of the total traffic. It should be stated that the Eastern and Indo-European Companies and the Indian Government have concluded a "joint purse" arrangement, by which the aggregate receipts of both are divided between them in certain proportions. Competition is thus avoided, and at the same time any temporary loss due to interruption is minimised. The Indian Government is responsible only for two sections of the Indo-European system (1), the Persian Gulf Section, consisting of submarine cables from Karachi to Bushire and Fao, with alternative land lines through Beluchistan; and (2), the Persian Section, consisting of a double line from Bushire to Teheran. Each of these sections is under the charge of a director, with a director-in-chief in London. Between 1862 and 1872, the Indian Government spent altogether upwards of 1,150,000 *l.* on telegraphic communication with Europe, not including the annual interest of 18,000 *l.* payable to the Red Sea Company.

The following table (L) gives an analysis of all the foreign telegraph messages that passed through the Department in 1882-83, classified according as their terminus was India, or as they merely passed through India on their way to or from the Further East. The total number of foreign messages was 356,011, with a value of 127,916 *l.* The number of messages that passed between India and places to the westward was 157,860, of which 50.79 per cent. took the Suez route, 47.20 per cent. the route through Teheran, and 2.01 the route through Turkey. The Suez route, it should be stated, was interrupted from 11th July to 28th September 1882. The corresponding per-centage for each of the 12 years 1871-72 to 1882-83 is shown in table II.

Foreign Messages.

L. ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN TELEGRAPH MESSAGES, 1882-83.

	Number.
INDIAN:	
Sent - - - - -	120,246
Received - - - - -	107,857
TOTAL - - -	228,102
TRANSIT:	
Sent - - - - -	57,154
Received - - - - -	61,977
Both Received and Sent - - - - -	8,778
TOTAL - - -	127,909
GRAND TOTAL - - -	356,011

II. STATEMENT showing PERCENTAGE of FOREIGN TELEGRAPH TRAFFIC by several Routes Westward, 1871-72 to 1882-83.

	Via Suez.	Via Teheran.	Via Turkey.
1871-72 - - - -	52·81	20·11	18·08
1872-73 - - - -	65·05	30·20	4·75
1873-74 - - - -	53·14	44·13	2·73
1874-75 - - - -	50·32	47·91	1·57
1875-76 - - - -	43·20	53·11	3·69
1876-77 - - - -	60·22	37·57	2·21
1877-78 - - - -	79·10	17·72	3·18
1878-79 - - - -	75·04	23·07	1·80
1879-80 - - - -	74·88	22·64	2·48
1880-81 - - - -	74·44	23·32	2·04
1881-82 - - - -	66·91	31·02	1·47
1882-83 - - - -	50·79	47·20	2·01

Inland Messages.

Inland telegraph messages are classified, by a tariff introduced in January 1882, according as they are marked Urgent, Ordinary, Deferred, or Local. For Ordinary messages the tariff is 2 s. for a minimum of eight words, with 3 d. for each additional word; for Urgent messages the tariff is double, and for Deferred messages, one-half the ordinary rate. In 1882-83 the total number of inland messages tendered at the offices of the Department was 1,350,778, of which 51·80 per cent. were marked Ordinary, 36·45 per cent. Deferred, and 11·06 Urgent, while 0·69 per cent. were Local. A more complete analysis is given in the following Table (III.).

III. ANALYSIS of INLAND TELEGRAPH MESSAGES,* 1882-83.

	State.		Private.		TOTAL.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Urgent - - - -	78,020	81·80	70,759	6·40	149,879	11·06
Ordinary - - - -	27,430	11·10	672,298	60·90	699,728	51·80
Deferred - - - -	138,546	56·06	353,954	32·06	492,500	36·45
Local - - - -	2,494	1·04	6,377	0·64	9,171	0·69
TOTAL - - - -	247,090	- -	1,103,688	- -	1,350,778	-

* Comprising only those tendered at offices of the Department.

The following table (IV.) gives the total number of messages of all kinds by Government Telegraphs in 1882-83, classified as Inland, Foreign, and Free. The total for inland messages differs from that given in the previous table, because that table included only messages tendered at the office of the Department.

IV.—STATISTICS OF MESSAGES BY GOVERNMENT TELEGRAPHS, 1882-83.

		Number.	Value.
Inland:			£.
State	- - - - -	253,731	60,982
Private	- - - - -	1,189,437	138,663
TOTAL		1,443,168	199,645
Foreign:			
State	- - - - -	5,473	4,749
Private	- - - - -	350,538	123,167
TOTAL		356,011	127,916
Free:			
Public News	- - - - -	895	4,282
Press, &c.	- - - - -	10,832	4,055
TOTAL		11,727	8,337
GRAND TOTAL		1,810,906	335,898

Table V. gives comparative statistics of Government Telegraphs for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83, together with the receipts and charges from the Finance Accounts. The number of messages includes foreign as well as those classed as free. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the length of lines has increased by 6,146 miles or 39 per cent.; the length of wires has increased by 30,442 miles or 94 per cent.; the length of cables has increased by 29 miles or 28 per cent.; the number of offices has increased by 107 or 49 per cent.; the number of messages has increased by 1,057,286 or 140 per cent.; and the value of messages by 147,586 l. or 78 per cent. As regards the receipts and charges, it would be misleading to draw any inference from the figures in the Finance Accounts, as they include not only capital outlay, but also certain exceptional items on Indo-European and Red Sea account.

Telegraph Statistics, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

V.—COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF GOVERNMENT TELEGRAPHS, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Length of Telegraph.			Number of Offices.	Total Messages.		According to Finance Accounts.		
	Line.	Wire.	Cable.		Number.	Value.	Total Receipts.	Total Charges (Including Capital Outlay).	Excess Charges or Receipts.
	Miles.	Miles.	Miles.	No.	No.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1873-74	15,594	32,438	101	217	753,620	188,312	250,638	411,837	- 161,199
1874-75	16,154	32,246	100	215	848,962	203,332	286,479	432,109	- 145,630
1875-76	16,034	35,626	81	216	920,787	217,913	309,040	493,100	- 184,120
1876-77	17,232	39,036	70	222	1,122,050	250,574	341,227	473,127	- 131,900
1877-78	17,600	42,011	105	249	1,371,909	302,320	358,430	480,895	- 122,465
1878-79	17,971	43,783	108	265	1,386,709	316,466	426,694	525,921	- 99,227
1879-80	20,520	52,805	109	303	1,577,207	386,137	505,562	451,143	+ 54,409
1880-81	20,316	55,974	114	310	1,606,845	397,959	530,087	497,334	+ 41,253
1881-82	21,050	59,442	117	319	1,632,062	323,417	409,208	536,201	- 67,993
1882-83	21,740	62,830	130	324	1,810,906	335,898	545,315	625,279	- 79,964

Telegraph
Receipts and
Charges, 1882-83.

Table VI. shows the receipts and charges of Government Telegraphs for 1882-83, according to the Finance Accounts distinguishing the inland and foreign systems, and also separating the capital from the revenue transactions. The total receipts amounted to 545,315 l., and the total charges (inclusive of the annuity of 18,027 l. for the Red Sea Telegraph) amounted to 625,279 l., showing an excess charge of 79,964 l. Deducting the capital transactions from both sides of the account, the inland telegraph system shows excess receipts amounting to 62,777 l., and the foreign telegraph system shows excess receipts amounting to 2,422 l., or 20,449 l. if the Red Sea annuity is excluded.

VI.—RECEIPTS and CHARGES of GOVERNMENT TELEGRAPHS (according to Finance Accounts), 1882-83.

	Receipts.			Charges.			Excess Receipts or Charges, Revenue Account.
	Capital.	Revenue.	Total.	Capital.	Revenue.	Total.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Inland Telegraphs:							
Imperial - - - -	-	410,738	410,738	74,201	340,274	414,475	-
Provincial (Bombay) - -	-	518	518	658	792	1,450	-
In England - - - -	-	-	-	75,767	7,413	83,180	-
TOTAL - - -	-	411,256	411,256	150,626	348,479	499,105	+62,777
Indo-European Telegraph:							
Persian Gulf Section - -	-	51,965	51,965	-3,883	47,546	43,663	-
Persian Section - - -	2,800	3,920	6,720	382	18,291	18,673	-
In England - - - -	7,010	68,364	75,374	7,848	37,963	45,811	-
TOTAL - - -	9,810	124,249	134,059	4,347	103,800	108,147	+20,449
Red Sea and India Telegraph.	-	-	-	-	18,027	18,027	+18,027
GRAND TOTAL - - - £.	9,810	535,505	545,315	164,973	470,303	625,279	+65,109

Capital outlay on
Telegraphs.

Table VII. shows the capital outlay on the inland telegraph system for 1882-83, according to the Finance Accounts, distinguishing the outlay during the year and the total outlay to the end of the year. It will be seen that the amount of 150,626 l. before debited against the Department for the year is here augmented to 198,680 l., by the inclusion of items debited in the Finance Accounts against other Departments. The sum of 658 l. under heading "Provincial" represents the first beginning of a telegraphic system in Bombay independent of the Department.

VII.—CAPITAL OUTLAY ON INLAND TELEGRAPHS, according to Finance Accounts, 1882-83.

	During the Year.				To End of Year.
	In Departmental Accounts.	By other Departments.	Paid in England.	TOTAL.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Lines - - - - -	155,901	25	4,949	160,875	2,444,425
Buildings - - - - -	156	26,264	-	26,420	377,455
Tools and Plant - - - -	1,057	-	-	1,057	113,558
Stores - - - - -	-8,108	3,417	-	-4,691	183,050
Suspense - - - - -	902	-	-	902	6,525
Exchange - - - - -	-	13,399	-	13,399	21,789
Provincial - - - - -	658	-	-	658	658
TOTAL - - - £.	150,626	43,105	4,949	198,680	2,947,460

Table

Table VIII. shows the receipts and charges for inland telegraphs for 1882-83, according to the accounts of the Department, which differ from the Finance Accounts. As compared with Table VIII., the receipts are larger by 4,468 *l.* and the charges are less by 14,525 *l.*, raising the excess receipts from 62,777 *l.* to 81,780 *l.* In both cases the sum due for Government messages is included, but no materials are available to show precisely what this sum amounted to. The "value," however, of Government messages, as given in Table VII., amounted to just 30 per cent. of the total value of inland messages. Assuming that the receipts were in the same proportion as the value, the receipts from Government messages would have amounted to about 100,000 *l.* If this sum were deducted from the total receipts, it would change the excess receipts to an excess charge of about 37,000 *l.* according to the Finance Accounts, and of about 18,000 *l.* according to the accounts of the Department.

Receipts and Charges for Inland Telegraphs, 1882-83.

VIII.—RECEIPTS and CHARGES for INLAND TELEGRAPHS (according to Departmental Accounts) 1882-83.

RECEIPTS.		CHARGES.	
	£.		£.
Revenue from Messages - - -	381,938	Line Maintenance :	
Claims from State Railways - - -	60,541	Repairs - - - - -	22,759
Claims from Guaranteed Railways - - -	9,723	Establishment - - - - -	19,180
Claims from Guarantors - - - - -	9,901	Share of Direction, &c. - - -	45,770
Books, Forms, &c. - - - - -	308	Profit and Loss - - - - -	26
Telegraph Gazettes - - - - -	1,417	TOTAL - - - - -	87,685
Miscellaneous - - - - -	1,896	Signalling :	
TOTAL - - - - -	415,724	Repairs - - - - -	4,140
<i>Deduct—Charges - - - - -</i>	<i>333,944</i>	Check Office - - - - -	4,988
NET Receipts - - - - £.	81,780	Signal Offices - - - - -	189,000
		Share of Direction, &c. - - -	45,769
		Books, Forms, &c. - - - - -	519
		Telegraph Gazette - - - - -	845
		Stamps - - - - -	1,022
		Profit and Loss - - - - -	26
		TOTAL - - - - -	246,259
		GRAND TOTAL - - - - £.	333,944

Table IX. shows the financial results of inland telegraphs for each of the three years 1880-81 to 1882-83, according to the accounts of the Department. It will be seen that the capital outlay here given for 1882-83 differs slightly from the totals arrived at in table VII., which was taken from the Finance Accounts; and it should also be stated that interest is debited at 4½ per cent. for the two first years, and at only 4 per cent. for the last year. The large apparent reduction in the rate of profit between the results of the first year of the period and the results of both the two last years, is to be explained mainly by the exceptional revenue derived in 1880-81 from messages in connection with the war in Afghanistan.

Financial Results of Inland Telegraphs.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

IX.—FINANCIAL RESULTS of INLAND TELEGRAPHS (according to Departmental Accounts),
1880-81 to 1882-83.

	Capital Outlay to end of Year.	Receipts.	Charges.	Excluding Interest.		Interest.	Including Interest.	
				Excess Receipts.	Rate per Cent. on Capital.		Excess Receipts or Excess Charges.	Rate Per Cent. on Capital.
1880-81 - - - -	£ 2,506,827	£ 450,144	£ 317,147	£ 133,017	5.12	* 112,851	£ +20,156	+ .77
1881-82 - - - -	2,735,941	365,431	323,564	61,857	2.26	* 120,215	—58,368	—2.13
1882-83 - - - -	2,946,802	415,724	333,944	81,780	2.77	† 114,095	—32,255	—1.09

* At 4½ per cent. † At 4 per cent.

Table X. shows the financial results of inland telegraphs for each of the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83, by means of averages based upon the number of messages and the length of lines and wire. For the first three years it appears that the charges always exceeded the receipts; in 1876-77 the two precisely balanced one another; and ever since the receipts have been increasing more rapidly than the charges. The progress made, on comparing the first year of the period with the last, may be thus expressed: In 1873-74 the average charge per message exceeded the average receipt by 1.50 s., while in 1882-83 the receipt exceeded the charge by .92 s. In 1873-74 the average charge per mile of line exceeded the average receipt by 3 l. 11 s., while in 1882-83 the receipt exceeded the charge by 3 l. 15 s. In 1873-74 the average charge per mile of wire exceeded the average receipt by 1 l. 15 s., while in 1882-83 the receipt exceeded the charge by 1 l. 6 s. The average cost of each message to the State has decreased in the ten years by 1.72 s. or 35 per cent., while the cost to the private sender has decreased by 1.12 s. or 83 per cent. The average number of messages per mile of line has increased by 51.22 or 107 per cent., and the number per mile of wire has increased by 18.80 or 75 per cent.

X.—FINANCIAL RESULTS of INLAND TELEGRAPHS, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Average per Message.				Average per Mile of Line.			Average per Mile of Wire.		
	Charges.	Receipts.	Cost to State.	Cost to Private Sender.	Charges.	Receipts.	Number of Messages.	Charges.	Receipts.	Number of Messages.
1873-74 - - - -	s. 6.88	s. 5.38	s. 6.59	s. 3.44	£. s. 16 3	£. s. 12 12	47.56	£. s. 7 19	£. s. 6 9	25.08
1874-75 - - - -	6.30	5.32	6.66	3.26	16 -	13 9	52.12	7 17	6 12	27.39
1875-76 - - - -	6.22	5.24	6.14	3.16	15 9	13 -	55.40	7 5	6 3	28.87
1876-77 - - - -	4.96	4.96	6.48	3.12	14 10	14 10	65.26	6 6	6 6	32.77
1877-78 - - - -	4.60	4.88	7.72	3.02	14 15	15 11	77.47	5 17	6 4	39.45
1878-79 - - - -	4.48	5.36	7.10	2.98	15 2	18 2	76.06	6 0	7 4	38.16
1879-80 - - - -	3.86	5.54	8.18	2.96	14 6	20 11	88.80	5 12	8 1	42.97
1880-81 - - - -	3.86	5.46	8.26	2.70	15 14	22 4	97.64	5 14	8 4	44.47
1881-82 - - - -	4.0	4.78	5.70	2.54	15 7	18 6	90.84	5 8	6 9	41.07
1882-83 - - - -	3.72	4.64	4.80	2.32	15 4	18 19	98.78	5 5	6 11	43.88

CHAPTER XIX.

EDUCATION.

IN February 1882 a Commission was appointed by the Government to inquire generally into the condition of education in British India. Dr. W. W. Hunter was nominated president and Mr. B. L. Rice secretary; and the other members, to the number of twenty, were selected from every Province and from various classes of the community. The working of the universities; technical instruction in medicine, law, and engineering; and the question of European and Eurasian education were specially reserved. The Province of British Burma was also withdrawn from the inquiry; and none of the statistics compiled include Ajmere. With these exceptions, the Report of the Commission, which is dated 14th September 1883, contains an elaborate review of the entire educational system of India as at present existing, with recommendations for the future.

The Education
Commission 1882.

Education forms the subject of a special Department in every Province, but there is no corresponding Department in the Government of India. The head of each Provincial Department is styled Director of Public Instruction; subordinate to him are a staff of inspectors of various grades, and a staff of teachers, ranging from principals and professors of colleges to assistant masters in primary schools. Both the inspecting and teaching staff are divided into a superior and inferior list. The superior list consists of inspectors and teachers whose salary begins at not less than 500*l.* a year. For the most part they are nominated by the Secretary of State from among graduates of English universities; but in recent years several appointments have been given to natives of India, more especially in Bengal. In 1881-82, the total number of superior education officers in all India amounted to 98, excluding the Directors. They are divided into four grades, with salaries ranging from 1,500*l.* to 500*l.* a year. The inferior list likewise consists of both inspectors and teachers, together with some ministerial officers. In Bengal they have been classified, like the superior list, into seven grades, with salaries ranging from 500*l.* to 50*l.*, the total number being 316. A system of grading has also been introduced in Bombay. In 1881-82, the entire inspecting staff consisted of 45 inspectors and assistant inspectors, 238 deputy inspectors, and 241 sub-deputy inspectors; total, 524. The aggregate expenditure on inspection was 135,428*l.*, being 7.44 per cent. of the total educational expenditure. In the same year, the aggregate expenditure on "direction" was 27,376*l.*, being 1.50 per cent. of the total.

The Education
Department.

The Education Department, as at present constituted, owes its origin to the famous Despatch of the Court of Directors of the East India Company in 1854. This Despatch, which has been called the charter of education in India, was confirmed by a Despatch of the Secretary of State in 1859. The purport of these two documents is thus summarised in the Report of the Education Commission:—

The Despatch of
1854.

"The Despatch of 1854 commends to the special attention of the Government of India the improvement and far wider extension of education, both English and vernacular, and prescribes as the means for the attainment of these objects: (1), the constitution of a separate Department of the administration for education; (2), the institution of Universities at the Presidency towns; (3), the establishment of institutions for training teachers for all classes of schools; (4), the maintenance of the existing Government colleges and high schools, and the increase of their number when necessary; (5), the establishment of new middle schools; (6), increased attention to vernacular schools, indigenous or other, for elementary education; and (7), the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid. The attention of Government is specially directed to the importance of placing the means of acquiring useful and practical knowledge within reach of the great mass of the people. The English language is to be the medium of instruction in the higher branches, and the vernacular in the lower. English is to be

taught

taught wherever there is a demand for it, but it is not to be substituted for the vernacular languages of the country. The system of grants-in-aid is to be based on the principle of perfect religious neutrality. Aid is to be given (so far as the requirements of each particular District as compared with other Districts and the funds at the disposal of Government may render it possible) to all schools imparting a good secular education, provided they are under adequate local management, and are subject to Government inspection, and provided that fees, however small, are charged in them. Grants are to be for specific objects, and their amount and continuance are to depend on the periodical reports of Government Inspectors. No Government colleges or schools are to be founded where a sufficient number of institutions exist capable, with the aid of Government, of meeting the local demand for education; but new schools and colleges are to be established and temporarily maintained where there is little or no prospect of adequate local effort being made to meet local requirements. The discontinuance of any general system of education entirely provided by Government is anticipated with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid; but the progress of education is not to be checked in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay. A comprehensive system of scholarships is to be instituted so as to connect lower schools with higher, and higher schools with colleges. Female education is to receive the frank and cordial support of Government. The principal officials in every District are required to aid in the extension of education; and in making appointments to posts in the service of Government, a person who has received a good education is to be preferred to one who has not. Even in lower situations, a man who can read and write is, if equally eligible in other respects, to be preferred to one who cannot.

The Despatch of
1859.

"The second great Despatch on education, that of 1859, reviews the progress made under the earlier Despatch, which it reiterates and confirms with a single exception as to the course to be adopted for promoting elementary education. While it records with satisfaction that the system of grants-in-aid has been freely accepted by private schools, both English and Anglo-vernacular, it notes that the native community have failed to co-operate with Government in promoting elementary vernacular education. The efforts of educational officers to obtain the necessary local support for the establishment of vernacular schools under the grant-in-aid system are, it points out, likely to create a prejudice against education, to render the Government unpopular, and even to compromise its dignity. The soliciting of contributions from the people is declared inexpedient, and strong doubts are expressed as to the suitability of the grant-in-aid system as hitherto in force for the supply of vernacular education to the masses of the population. Such vernacular instruction should, it is suggested, be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government, on the basis of some one of the plans already in operation for the improvement of indigenous schools, or by any modification of those plans which may suit the circumstances of different Provinces. The expediency of imposing a special rate on the land for the provision of elementary education is also commended to the careful consideration of the Government."

Early History of
Education.

The history of education in India prior to the Despatch of 1854 may be thus briefly summarised, again following the Report of the Education Commission. At no time known to history were the inhabitants of India an uneducated people. The indigenous institutions may be divided into two classes: (1) the Hindu *toles* or seats of Sanskrit learning, and the Muhammadan *madrassas* and *maktabs*, at each of which the instruction given was mainly religious; and (2) the *patsalas* or hedge schools, to be found in almost every village, where reading, writing, and arithmetic were taught to the children of every class but the very lowest. The religious institutions were supported by endowments in land, and it was a point of honour that all teaching should be free. The village schoolmaster received fees, generally in kind, from his pupils. The first European impulse towards secular education came from the missionary bodies, who had established themselves in Southern India towards the end of the eighteenth century. In 1781, Warren Hastings founded and endowed the Calcutta Madrasa, with the special object of encouraging the study of Persian, then the language of courts of justice as well as of diplomacy; and ten years later the

the Government founded the Sanskrit College at Benares. The next stimulus came from the Act of Parliament (53 Geo. III., c. 155), which renewed the charter of the East India Company in 1813. In this statute it was specially provided that "a sum of not less than one lac of rupees [10,000 L.] in each year shall be set apart and applied to the revival and improvement of literature, and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India." At about the same time English began to take the place of Persian as the official language (though Persian was not formally superseded until 1837), and a demand arose at the Presidency towns for instruction in English, instead of in the vernacular or the classical languages of the East. For many years a hot controversy was waged between the partisans of either view, known as the Anglicists and the Orientalists; and the two were fairly balanced until Macaulay (then legal member of council) lent all his influence to the cause of English education in 1835. The question was finally settled in 1839 by a minute of the Governor General, to the following purport: although English was to be retained as the medium of the higher instruction in European literature, philosophy, and science, the existing Oriental institutions were to be kept up in full efficiency, and were to receive the same encouragement as might be given to the students at English institutions. Vernacular instruction was to be combined with English, full choice being allowed to the pupils to attend whichever tuition they might individually prefer.

In Bengal, certain wealthy natives of Calcutta combined in 1817 to found the Hindu College (now the Presidency College), for the education in English of children of the higher castes; and in 1819, an association of English and native gentlemen, under the name of the School Society, started a project for establishing schools, both English and vernacular, throughout the country. The intervention of the Government for the support of education dates from 1823, when a Committee of Public Instruction was appointed. One of the first acts of this committee was to found the Calcutta Sanskrit College, against the wishes of a numerous body of native memorialists, with Raja Rammohan Roy at their head, who prayed that the college might be for English and not for Sanskrit teaching. In 1830, Dr. Alexander Duff established at Calcutta a college now represented by the Free Church of Scotland's Institution and by the General Assembly's Institution of the Church of Scotland. In 1842-43, the Committee of Public Instruction gave place to a more powerful body, called the Council of Education. Both worked on the same lines, their object being to make the best use of the small grant at their disposal, by concentrating it upon the encouragement of higher education. In 1855, when the Department of Education was constituted, it took over 151 institutions, with 131,363 pupils, of whom all except 3,279 were attending colleges and secondary schools, and an annual grant from Government of 59,423 l.

Early History of Education in Bengal.

In the North-West Provinces, colleges were founded at Agra and Delhi between 1823 and 1825, besides the college already existing at Benares; and efforts were made at about the same time to establish high schools at other large towns. But the first successful effort to introduce popular education dates from 1850. Mr. Thomason, then Lieutenant Governor, established a higher vernacular school at the headquarters of each *tahsil* or Subdivision of a District, and lower vernacular schools, known as *halkabandi* in other villages that served as a convenient centre for the country round. The headmaster of the *tahsil* school received a salary from the Government; the *halkabandi* schools were supported by a voluntary rate of 1 per cent. on the land revenue contributed by the landowners. In 1854, when the Department of Education was constituted, the total number of institutions in the North-West Provinces was estimated at 3,920, with nearly 53,000 pupils; the Government grant was about 22,500 l., of which 18,000 l. was devoted to the colleges and high schools.

Early History of Education in the North-West Provinces.

In Madras, a Board of Public Instruction was established by Sir Thomas Munro in 1826, with authority to found a central school at the Presidency town, two principal schools in each District and an inferior school in each *taluk* or Subdivision. In 1841, the central school became a high school, and is now the Presidency College; but the rest of the scheme resulted in failure. In 1836, the Board was superseded by a new body called the Committee for Native Education,

Early History of Education in Madras.

Education, and this, in its turn, later on, by a University Board. When the Department of Education was constituted in 1854, besides the Madras high school there were also in existence five provincial schools founded within the two previous years, and a few primary schools. The total Government grant was only 4,536*l.* But if official action had been backward in Madras, missionary enterprise had been particularly active. As early as 1790 the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge opened a school at Tanjore, now known as St. Peter's College. In 1837, Mr. Anderson, the first Scotch missionary to Southern India, founded an institution which was at first called after his own name, and is now represented by the Madras Christian College and the Church of Scotland Missionary Institution. The Church Missionary Society followed with a school at Masulipatam in 1841; the Jesuits, at Negapatam in 1846; the Wesleyans, at Madras city in 1851; and the London Missionary Society, also at Madras city, in 1853. It is estimated that in 1854 the total number of pupils being educated by missionary societies was 30,000, chiefly in the Districts of Tinnevely and Tanjore, of whom 3,000 were being taught English. Meanwhile, native effort was represented by Pachaiyappa's Institution, which was founded at Madras city in 1841, with funds diverted from an old endowment.

Early History of
Education in
Bombay.

In Bombay, as in Madras, the missionaries were the pioneers of education, the first school having been opened by the American Missionary Society in Bombay city, in 1814. In the following year, the Bombay Education Society, supported by voluntary contributions, took upon itself the duty of educating the poor, not only in the Presidency town, but also in the adjoining Districts. In 1822, this society resolved to devote itself to European and Eurasian education, leaving native education to a new body, called the Native School Book and School Society, of which Mountstuart Elphinstone was the first president. When Elphinstone retired from the Government of Bombay in 1827, the sum of 45,000*l.* was raised by subscription to perpetuate his memory, and was applied to founding what is now the Presidency College. A Sanscrit college at Poona had already been established in 1821. In 1840, the management of both these colleges, as well as the control of education generally, was entrusted to a Board of Education, consisting of six members, of whom three were appointed by the Government, and three by the Native School Society as its last act. The early policy of this Board, of which Sir Erskine Perry was president from 1843 to 1852, was to stimulate English education by encouraging private enterprise. Latterly, it gave more attention to vernacular teaching, following the same plan of assisting local efforts. In 1854, the Government grant for education amounted to 25,000*l.*

With the constitution of Educational Departments in 1855, and the introduction of the system of grants-in-aid, a certain degree of uniformity has been made to prevail in the several Provinces of India. But local differences are still so considerable that it is necessary to consider each Province by itself when tracing the history of education from 1855 down to the present time. The classification of educational institutions is everywhere alike threefold: (1) departmental, being those which are entirely maintained by the Government; (2) aided and inspected, being those which are supported by private enterprise, whether missionary or native, but which receive aid from the Government grant and are inspected by officers of the Department; (3) extra-departmental, being those of which the Department has no direct cognisance, whether because they are indigenous schools not yet included in the grant-in-aid system, or because they are independent of Government assistance.

In Bengal, the grant-in-aid system was immediately availed of for the extension of secondary education, especially in the teaching of English. The application of the system to primary schools was not seriously undertaken until 1872; but since that date progress has been more rapid than in any other part of India. As regards higher education, no new college has been called into existence under the grant-in-aid rules; and the total number of aided colleges is less than half the number in Madras. In finance, the characteristic of the Bengal system is that substantially the whole of the public money devoted to education comes in the form of a grant from Provincial Funds. There is no local cess for the purpose, and the contribution made by municipalities is insignificant.

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The following table shows the state of education in Bengal, from the point of view of the Department, in 1881-82, as compared with 1854-55, and 1870-71. For the two earlier years the figures for Assam are included.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in BENGAL, 1854-55, 1870-71, and 1881-82.

	1854-55.*		1870-71.*		1881-82.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental - - -	151	13,168	642	28,053	552	30,992
Aided and Inspected - - -	-	-	5,424	140,251	55,057	1,011,570
Extra-Departmental - - -	25,227	514,568	35,364	716,097	4,283	57,305
TOTAL - - -	25,378	527,731	41,430	878,401	59,892	1,099,767

* Including Assam.

It will be seen that between 1854-55 and 1881-82 the total number of both schools and pupils in Bengal has multiplied more than twofold; while between 1870-71 and 1881-82 (without making any allowance for the loss of Assam) the number of aided and inspected institutions has multiplied tenfold, and the number of pupils in such institutions more than sevenfold.

Assam, which was only separated from Bengal in 1874, has shared in its educational progress, though, unfortunately, no comparative statistics are available. The head of the Department is styled Inspector of Schools, and not Director of Public Instruction. The system of grants-in-aid has been liberally extended to primary schools, and the needs of normal schools have not been neglected. Since 1879 the entire expenditure from public funds on primary schools has been defrayed out of a local rate. Secondary schools are in a comparatively backward condition, and there is no college for higher education. The following table shows the state of education in Assam from the point of view of the Department in 1880-81.

Assam.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in ASSAM, 1881-82.

	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental - - - - -	48	3,870
Aided and Inspected - - - - -	1,410	42,880
Extra-Departmental - - - - -	497	9,733
TOTAL - - -	1,955	56,483

In the North-West Provinces proper an Education Department was constituted in 1855, but in Oudh not till 1864. The policy of the Department has been to extend the existing system of *tahsili* and *halkabandi* schools by means of a local rate. About half the total expenditure from public funds is devoted to primary education, yet the proportion of pupils in primary schools under inspection to the population is lower than in any other Province of India. Little use has been made of the grant-in-aid system, while the number of indigenous village schools outside the influence of the Department remains very large. Secondary education in English is in a comparatively backward state. As regards finance, the two prominent features are (1) the large proportion of the total expenditure that is derived from public funds, and (2) the large amount which a local rate contributes

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to those funds. The following table shows the state of education in the North-West Provinces and Oudh, from the point of view of the Department, in 1880-81, as compared with 1854-55 and 1870-71.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in the NORTH-WEST PROVINCES and OUDH, 1854-55, 1870-71, and 1881-82.

	1854-55.		1870-71.		1881-82.	
Departmental - - -	897	23,688	4,409	160,420	6,105	204,404
Aided and Inspected - - -	-	-	361	23,617	369	19,310
Extra-Departmental - - -	3,023	29,264	5,404	62,387	7,127	68,905
TOTAL - - -	3,920	52,952	10,174	246,424	13,595	292,669

It will be seen that between 1854-55 and 1881-82 the total number of schools in the North-West Provinces has multiplied more than fourfold, and the total number of pupils more than fivefold. But it is more important to point out that between 1870-71 and 1881-82 the pupils in aided institutions have actually decreased, while the unaided institutions have largely increased.

The Punjab,
1849 to 1882.

In the Punjab the extension of education has been attended with peculiar difficulties. The Province was not annexed until 1849, and the Department of Education was not constituted until 1856-57, the year preceding the Mutiny. The three religious divisions that make up the population—Muhammadans, Hindus, and Sikhs—each possess an indigenous system of education of their own, which continues to flourish outside the influence of the Department. The number of such indigenous schools has been recently returned, on official authority, at no less than 13,109, attended by 135,384 pupils. In the Government schools instruction is given in Urdu or Hindustani, which, though the official language of the courts, is nowhere the vernacular of the people. Generally speaking the policy of the Department is the same as in the North West. The chief object has been to promote efficient primary and secondary education in schools supported entirely by public funds. The grant-in-aid system has been made use of only by the missionaries; and the numerous indigenous schools receive no assistance from the Department. As regards finance, the chief feature is the large amount contributed by municipalities; a local rate is also levied. In 1864 a Government college was established at Lahore, which was strengthened in 1877 on the suppression of the old Delhi College. In 1870 the Punjab Oriental College was founded, also at Lahore, with the special object of imparting European knowledge and science through the vernacular languages. In 1882 this college was constituted a university, with the privilege of conferring degrees after examination. The following table shows the state of education in the Punjab, from the point of view of the Department, in 1881-82, as compared with 1856-57 and 1871-72.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in the PUNJAB, 1856-57, 1870-71, and 1881-82.

	1856-57.		1871-72.		1881-82.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental - - -	583	13,304	1,360	60,200	1,743	93,575
Aided and Inspected - - -	-	-	555	24,556	318	15,901
Extra-Departmental - - -	5,038	80,897	4,210	54,228	6,862	86,023
TOTAL - - -	5,621	44,201	6,125	139,039	8,423	195,499

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As already stated, the true number of indigenous schools is believed to be very much larger than shown in this table. Between 1856-57 and 1881-82 the number of departmental institutions in the Punjab has multiplied by three-fold, and the number of pupils in them by sevenfold. Within the last ten years the aided schools show a considerable decrease, both in the number of pupils and in the number of schools.

The Central Provinces formed part of the North-West Provinces until 1861, and the Education Department was not constituted until the following year. Its head is still styled Inspector General of Education, and not Director of Public Instruction. The country is poor, and the population backward; but efforts have been made to extend education, not only by means of departmental schools, but also by the grant-in-aid system. It is believed that no indigenous schools exist. A local rate is levied for education, and contributions are also made by the municipalities. The following table shows the state of education in the Central Provinces, from the point of view of the Department, in 1881-82, as compared with 1862-63 and 1870-71.

The Central Provinces, 1862 to 1882.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in the CENTRAL PROVINCES, 1862-63, 1870-71, and 1881-82.

	1862-63.		1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental - - -	427	12,470	848	46,998	962	59,849
Aided and Inspected - -	742	8,874	1,101	36,406	468	22,663
TOTAL - - -	1,169	21,353	1,949	83,399	1,430	81,212

Between 1862-63 and 1881-82 the number of departmental schools in the Central Provinces has more than doubled, while the number of pupils in them has multiplied nearly fivefold. The aided schools increased largely in the first period, but decreased as largely in the second period. The general result is an actual decrease in the total number of pupils between 1870-71 and 1881-82.

British Burma was expressly excluded from the inquiry of the Education Commission. The educational system of that Province is peculiar in several respects, and no attempt has been made to bring it into uniformity with the rest of India. Elementary schools are to be found in every Buddhist monastery, to which girls are admitted as well as boys; and teaching is also practised as a religious duty by laymen in their own houses. The result is that the proportion of pupils to the total population is higher than in any other Province, and more than double the average for all India. At the same time the expenditure on education is very low; for, although many of these indigenous schools are inspected by the Department, very few receive any grant-in-aid. Another characteristic of education in Burma is the entire surrender of all schools in towns to the control of the municipalities, subject only to inspection by the Department. Departmental schools are comparatively few; and the grant-in-aid is administered by means of an elaborate system of examinations, under the control of a special body called the Educational Syndicate. There are also Committees of Public Instruction at the head-quarters of every District, and sub-committees at the head-quarters of Subdivisions. It is curious to find that the Arakan Division, which has been under British rule for nearly 60 years, is by far the most backward in the Province. Out of 3,785 indigenous schools under inspection, only 242 are in Arakan.

British Burma.

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The following table shows the state of education in Burma, from the point of view of the Department, in 1882-83.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in BRITISH BURMA, 1882-83.

	Institutions.	Pupils.
Government	51	3,996
Aided	1,014	42,284
Unaided, but Inspected	2,844	50,826
Total	3,909	107,106

Ajmere. Ajmere was not included in the inquiry of the Education Commission. It must suffice here to state that the system of education there is similar to that in the North West Provinces, to which Ajmere was formerly attached. Since 1870-71 the number of pupils in departmental institutions has multiplied more than threefold. The educational statistics for 1881-82 are as follows:—Departmental institutions, 71, with 3,153 pupils; aided, 3, with 238 pupils; extra-departmental, 57, with 2,009 pupils; total institutions, 130; total pupils, 5,400.

Berar, 1866 to 1882. In Berar, or the Hyderabad Assigned Districts, an Education Department was constituted in 1866, and its main object was declared to be the extension of primary education. In 1868 a local rate of 1 per cent. was levied on the landholders, which was at first devoted entirely to founding departmental schools. More recently an attempt has been made to encourage indigenous schools by the grant-in aid system; but the total number of indigenous schools is believed to be insignificant. Female education has been more neglected than in any other part of India. The following table shows the state of education in Berar, from the point of view of the Department, in 1881-82, as compared with 1866-67, and 1870-71.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in BERAR, 1866-67, 1870-71, and 1881-82.

	1866-67.		1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental	147	6,644	344	14,133	409	28,056
Aided and Inspected	-	-	110	2,308	416	5,884
Extra-Departmental	100	2,000	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	247	8,644	454	16,441	915	35,840

Coorg, 1871 to 1882. Between 1866-67 and 1881-82 the total number of schools in Berar has multiplied nearly fourfold, and the total number of pupils more than fourfold. The rate of increase has been more rapid since 1870-71 than before that year. In the little Province of Coorg the Education Department, formerly dependent upon that of Mysore, is now administered directly by the Chief Commissioner. From 1843 to 1864 there were in all 20 village schools, to each of which the Government allowed an annual grant of 2 l. 5 s. In 1864 a system of training was provided for the masters, and the annual grant was raised to 7 l. In 1871 a local rate was introduced. The system of education is almost entirely departmental, though the high school at Merkara is managed by the Basel Mission. The proportion of pupils to the total population is higher

than in any Province, except Burma. The following Table shows the state of education in Coorg, from the point of view of the Department, in 1881-82, compared with 1870-71.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in COORG, 1870-71 and 1882-83.

	1870-71.		1882-83.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental - - - - -	84	1,498	60	3,142
Aided - - - - -	3	108	3	9
Extra-Departmental - - - - -	-	-	41	470
TOTAL - - - - -	87	1,601	104	3,708

In Madras the early efforts of the Education Department, after its constitution in 1855, were devoted to establishing high schools at the head-quarters of every District. Primary schools first received encouragement in 1868, under a system of grants apportioned according to results after examination. An Education Act was passed in 1863, with the object of imposing a voluntary rate, but this scheme resulted in failure. A compulsory rate was introduced in 1871, by which a large number of schools are now supported. The grant-in-aid system has been very successful in promoting primary education; but, as regards secondary schools, the aided institutions have failed to increase in recent years so rapidly as those entirely supported by the Department. Missionary activity has kept pace with the work of the State; and in the important matter of self-support the aided schools of Madras stand far above those of any other Province except Bengal. According to the Census of 1881, Madras has the largest proportion of "instructed" persons to the total population in all India. The following table shows the state of education in Madras, from the point of view of the Department in 1881-82, compared with 1856-57 and 1870-71.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in MADRAS, 1856-57, 1870-71, and 1881-82.

	1856-57.		1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental - - - - -	101	4,538	197	10,629	1,460	54,705
Aided and Inspected - - - - -	25	2,101	3,928	104,053	13,848	332,890
Extra-Departmental - - - - -	13,040	198,217	12,024	149,003	2,898	54,064
TOTAL - - - - -	13,766	204,856	18,749	263,685	18,136	441,659

While the total number of institutions in Madras has not increased much between 1856-57 and 1881-82, the total number of pupils has multiplied more than twofold; but the chief result is that the private schools have been brought under the influence of the Department.

In Bombay the Education Department, which was constituted in 1855, with Mr. Erskine as its first Director, has devoted itself continuously to the promotion of primary instruction by means of public funds. The grant-in-aid system has been

been made use of chiefly for secondary schools. A local rate on account of education was first levied in 1864. From its proceeds elementary schools are maintained in all the rural Districts, under the management of committees of the local boards; and a similar system has been adopted in the Native States within the Presidency. Special attention is paid to the training of teachers, and to the provision of good accommodation and apparatus. Female education stands higher than in any other Province of India. Secondary schools, conducted by missionaries, first received grants in 1864. A considerable number of indigenous schools still remain outside the influence of the Department. As regards finance, the chief feature is the large proportion (amounting to more than one-half) of the total expenditure from public funds which is devoted to primary schools. The following table shows the state of education in Bombay, from the point of view of the Department, in 1881-82, as compared with 1855-56 and 1870-71.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS in BOMBAY, 1855-56, 1870-71, and 1881-82.

	1855-56.		1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental - - -	257	21,342	2,470	139,837	3,994	255,890
Aided and Inspected - -	43	2,787	502	36,772	1,642	92,398
Extra-Departmental - -	2,575	81,961	3,102	89,194	4,028	89,470
TOTAL - - -	2,875	106,040	6,134	265,793	9,664	437,740

Between 1856-57 and 1881-82 the total number of schools in Bombay has multiplied nearly fourfold, and the total number of pupils more than fourfold. But during this period the number of pupils in indigenous schools has remained almost uniform, so that the increase represents the creation of new departmental and aided schools.

Educational statistics, 1855-56 to 1881-82.

Table I. combines in one view the state of education in all India (excluding Burma and Ajmere) in 1881-82, as compared with 1855-56 (or the first year of the Department) and 1870-71. Between 1855-56 and 1880-81 the total number of institutions has multiplied more than twofold, and the total number of pupils nearly threefold. Leaving out the extra-departmental schools, the number of pupils in departmental schools has multiplied just twelvefold, when the number in aided schools increased from 4,838 in 1855-56 to 368,071 in 1870-71, and to 1,550,575 in 1881-82.

I.—COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS of all India, 1855-56, 1870-71, and 1881-82.

(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	1855-56.		1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Departmental - - -	1,406	62,731	10,304	461,818	15,418	784,033
Aided and Inspected - -	69	4,838	11,964	368,071	73,625	1,550,575
Extra-Departmental - -	49,524	856,211	60,764	108,924	25,166	350,370
TOTAL - - -	50,999	923,780	83,052	1,894,823	114,109	2,643,978

Table

Table II. classifies the pupils in departmental and aided schools in 1881-82 in every Province according to race or creed, showing the per-centage of each race or creed to the total number of pupils in each Province, and also the per-centage of each race or creed to the total population. The Hindus form 73.21 per cent. of the total population, but they have 78.04 of the total pupils. The Native Christians and the Parsis are likewise better represented among the pupils than among the population. The Muhammadans, on the other hand, form 22.36 per cent. of the population, but have only 17.50 per cent. of the pupils.

Classification of Pupils according to Race or Creed.

II.—CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS IN INSPECTED SCHOOLS according to RACE OR CREED, 1881-82.

(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Hindus.		Muhammadans.		Sikhs.		Parsis.		Native Christians.		Others.		TOTAL.
	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.	Per Cent.	Number.
Bengal	778,033	74.70	288,948	22.70	-	-	-	-	8,051	.58	20,145	1.93	1,042,463
Assam	35,181	75.15	8,681	14.28	-	-	-	-	1,197	3.56	3,741	8.00	48,700
North-West Provinces and Oudh	181,767	82.12	38,828	16.45	-	-	-	-	2,833	1.27	3.38	.18	223,764
Punjab	58,867	51.48	41,844	38.23	9,074	8.84	-	-	605	.58	983	.90	100,478
Central Provinces	71,756	88.35	5,929	7.31	-	-	-	-	429	.53	2,088	2.81	81,213
Bihar	31,168	86.94	4,604	12.35	-	-	19	.06	64	.16	3	-	38,840
Coorg	3,042	94.09	89	2.75	-	-	-	-	201	3.13	1	.03	3,218
Madras	235,321	82.93	35,847	6.39	-	-	-	-	32,098	8.26	4,721	1.22	287,986
Bombay	204,760	83.77	41,549	11.73	-	-	8,280	2.24	3,330	1.11	3,728	1.05	254,370
TOTAL	1,782,935	78.04	389,711	17.50	9,074	.42	8,299	.36	47,248	2.07	34,761	1.81	2,284,608
Percentage to Total Population	-	78.21	-	22.36	-	.02	-	.04	-	.45	-	3.32	-

The usual division of educational institutions in India is fivefold: (1), universities; (2), colleges; (3), secondary schools; (4), primary schools; (5), normal schools and places for technical instruction.

The universities, which are purely examining bodies, were outside the scope of the Education Commission. Excluding the newly-founded Punjab University, they are three in number, at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay—all incorporated in 1857 by Act of the Indian Legislature, in accordance with the recommendation contained in the Despatch of 1854. Their constitution was modelled upon the University of London, and is substantially the same for each. The governing body is the Senate, composed of a Chancellor, Vice Chancellor, and Fellows. The Governor General or the Governor is *ex-officio* Chancellor; the Vice Chancellor and Fellows are appointed by the Government. The Fellows are divided among four faculties: Arts, Law, Medicine, and Engineering. The executive control is vested in a syndicate, consisting of the Vice Chancellor and six members chosen each year by the faculties. The universities perform no teaching. Their sole functions are to conduct examinations, to confer degrees, and to administer certain endowments for the promotion of learning that have been entrusted to them by private munificence. The fees paid by candidates for examination render them practically self-supporting. The Calcutta University examines candidates from Bengal, Assam, the North-West Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, British Burma, and also from Ceylon. The Punjab University was incorporated in 1882, with the Punjab Oriental College as its nucleus. Its distinguishing features are (1) that it owes its origin to private efforts, and (2) that it is designed to give special encouragement to Oriental studies.

The universities

By means of their examinations the universities exercise a general control, not only over the colleges which prepare students for degrees, but also over the higher secondary schools which send up candidates for matriculation. The subjects of examination and the conditions of study vary to some extent at the

Examinations for the Arts Degree.

Matriculation.

different universities. It must be sufficient to point out here the general features in common. In the regular Arts course, there are four examinations. First, the entrance or matriculation examination, open to all without limitation of age or restriction upon place of study. The average age of the candidates is from 16 to 18 years, and the great majority come from secondary schools. The subjects of examination are: English, a classical or vernacular language, history, geography, mathematics, and (at Madras and Bombay) elementary physical science. The examinations are held at different centres, those of the Calcutta University numbering no less than 40, ranging from Peshawar to Rangoon, and from Simla to Colombo. Except at Bombay, the entire examination is conducted on paper. In 1881-82, 7,423 boys offered themselves for the entrance examination at the three universities, of whom 2,773, or 37·35 per cent. passed. Of the total, 2,218 came from departmental institutions, of whom 49·41 per cent. passed; 4,544 from aided and unaided institutions, of whom 34·78 per cent. passed; and 661 from private study, of whom only 14·67 per cent. passed. In the same year six girls presented themselves, of whom all passed but one.

The F.A. Examination.

Success in the entrance examination admits to any of the affiliated colleges. At Calcutta and Madras the college course from matriculation to the B.A. degree is four years; at Bombay it is only three years, but the entrance examination is said to be somewhat more difficult. After two years' study in an affiliated college, or collegiate class of a high school, the matriculated student may present himself for the first examination in arts, styled F.A. In Bombay the period of study is only one year, and the corresponding examination is called the Previous. The subjects are English, a classical language (Oriental or European), history, mathematics, logic, and elementary physical science. In 1881-82, 833 candidates presented themselves for the F.A. examination at Calcutta, of whom 35·02 per cent. passed; and 733 presented themselves at Madras, of whom 56·34 per cent. passed. Of the total at these two universities, 671 came from departmental institutions, of whom 52·60 per cent. passed; 598 from aided institutions, of whom 42·64 per cent. passed; 182 from unaided institutions, of whom 40·10 per cent. passed; and 119 from private study, of whom 34·45 per cent. passed. It will be seen that the proportion of success follows the order given. In the same year 278 candidates presented themselves for the corresponding Previous examination at Bombay, of whom only 25·54 per cent. passed, or less than half the proportion at Madras. Of the total, 182 came from departmental institutions, of whom 22·52 per cent. passed; 81 from aided institutions, of whom 32·09 per cent. passed; and 15 from unaided institutions, of whom 26·66 per cent. passed.

The B.A. Examination.

After the First Arts or Previous examination, the Arts course bifurcates into two alternative branches of study, A, or literature; and B, or science. At Calcutta and Madras both alike lead to the B.A. degree; but at Bombay the degree in science is termed B.Sc. At all three universities the period of study is two years, but at Bombay there is an intermediate examination, called the First B.A. and the First B.Sc. In 1881-82, the candidates at Bombay for the First B.A. numbered 88, of whom 38·63 per cent. passed. Two-thirds of the total came from departmental institutions, but the proportion of passes among them was much lower than among the candidates from aided institutions. In the same year two candidates presented themselves for the First B.Sc.; both came from departmental institutions, and both passed. For the B.A. degree the subjects of examination are substantially uniform at all three universities. They are, in A, or literature, (1) English; (2) a classical language, either Oriental or European; (3) mixed mathematics; (4) any two of the following three subjects, moral philosophy, history, or advanced mathematics. In B, or science, they are, (1) English; (2) mixed mathematics; (3) inorganic chemistry; (4) physical geography, with either a branch of physics, or physiology, or geology. In 1881-82 the number of candidates for the B.A. was 697, of whom 266 or 31·16 per cent. passed, the proportion of passes at the three universities being, Calcutta, 33·57 per cent.; Madras, 55·17 per cent.; Bombay, 37·50 per cent. Of the total, 381 came from departmental institutions, of whom 43·30 per cent. passed; 219 from aided institutions,

tions, of whom 37·86 per cent. passed; 43 from unaided institutions, of whom 18·51 per cent. passed; and 54 from private study, of whom 18·51 per cent. passed. It will be seen that the order of success among the several classes of institutions is the same as for the F.A. examination. In the same year the number of candidates for the B.Sc. at Bombay was seven, of whom two or 28·55 per cent. passed. Of these, six came from departmental institutions, of whom only one passed, and one passed from an aided institution.

The B.A. is succeeded, after one or two years, by the M.A. examination, for which very few candidates present themselves, except at Calcutta. This is substantially an honour examination in the following subjects: languages, history, mental and moral philosophy, mathematics (pure and mixed), and natural science. At Calcutta candidates are allowed to take up one or more of these subjects in different years; at Madras and Bombay a classical language (Oriental or European), is coupled with English, and philosophy is coupled with history and political economy. In 1881-82 the candidates for the M.A. degree numbered 90, of whom 40 or 43·01 per cent. passed. Of those who were successful Calcutta had 32, Madras, 1, and Bombay 3.

The M.A. Examination.

The following table shows the total number of successful candidates in the Arts examinations (excluding matriculation) from the foundation of the universities in 1857 to 1881-82, classified according to the Provinces from which they came. Burma is excluded.

Successful Candidates, according to Provinces.

SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES in the ARTS EXAMINATIONS from 1857 to 1881-82.

	F. A.	B. A.	M. A.
Bengal	4,161	1,585	397
North-Western Provinces and Oadh	461	156	38
Punjab	154	45	11
Central Provinces	90	--	--
Madras	2,818	1,042	28
Bombay	953	456	63
TOTAL	8,633	3,284	536

The following table shows the results of the Arts examinations (excluding matriculation) at all the universities in 1881-82, arranging the candidates according as they came from departmental, aided, and unaided institutions, or from private study. In the total proportion of passes, it will be seen that the order of success coincides with the order just given. The results of matriculation will be given later.

Results of University Examinations.

RESULTS of UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS, 1881-82.

	Departmental.			Aided.			Unaided.			Private Study.			TOTAL.		
	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.
L.A.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	93	40	43·01
B.A.	381	165	43·30	219	89	40·69	43	8	18·60	54	16	29·61	697	266	38·16
1st B.A.	66	24	36·36	22	10	45·45	-	-	-	-	-	-	88	34	38·63
1st Arts	67	353	51·60	508	235	46·44	189	73	38·10	119	41	34·45	1,079	723	67·08
Previous	188	41	21·81	61	26	42·62	6	4	66·67	-	-	-	255	71	27·84
B.Sc.	6	1	16·67	1	1	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	2	28·57
1st B.Sc.	2	2	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	100
TOTAL	1,308	386	29·51	931	375	40·28	240	85	35·41	173	51	29·47	2,780	1,137	41·27

Table

330 STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

The following table shows the results of the Arts examinations at each of the three universities in each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. Taking the whole period, the proportion of passes at matriculation at all three universities together is 36.86 per cent., ranging from 43.92 at Calcutta to 29.96 at Bombay; the proportion of passes for the F.A. is 37.66 per cent., ranging from 41.50 at Madras to 35.74 at Calcutta; the proportion of passes for the B.A. is 42.07 per cent., ranging from 54.11 at Madras to 37.05 at Calcutta; the proportion of passes for the M.A. is 51.69, ranging from 53.12 at Calcutta to 40.00 at Madras. In every case, therefore, Bombay occupies the intermediate position. Comparing the first year of the series with the last, the successful candidates at matriculation at Calcutta have increased 12 per cent. in number, for the F.A. 107 per cent., for the B.A. 81 per cent., and for the M.A. 12 per cent. At Madras the successful candidates at matriculation have increased 161 per cent. in number, for the F.A. 175 per cent., for the B.A. 140 per cent., and for the M.A. 50 per cent. At Bombay the successful candidates at matriculation have increased 61 per cent. in number, for the F.A. 110 per cent., for the B.A. 391 per cent., and for the M.A. 50 per cent. For rate of increase, therefore, Madras stands first in every examination except that for B.A.; Bombay is first for B.A., having gained that position entirely by the results of the last two years, while Calcutta has progressed most slowly in the number of successful candidates at every examination.

COMPARATIVE RESULTS OF UNIVERSITY ARTS EXAMINATIONS, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	Matriculation.			First Arts.			B.A.			M.A. Honours.		
	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per Cent.
CALCUTTA:												
1873-74 - - - -	2,544	848	33.33	530	305	58.69	212	92	43.40	57	39	56.14
1874-75 - - - -	2,254	966	42.85	533	193	36.21	217	90	41.48	38	18	47.37
1875-76 - - - -	2,373	838	35.31	575	182	31.65	281	73	26.00	38	24	63.16
1876-77 - - - -	2,425	1,855	55.88	736	344	45.50	287	144	50.17	40	37	63.45
1877-78 - - - -	2,720	1,166	42.87	791	253	31.08	228	68	29.83	62	28	45.10
1878-79 - - - -	2,017	1,098	41.96	923	267	28.93	323	91	28.17	48	28	58.33
1879-80 - - - -	1,996	767	38.43	909	261	28.71	202	90	34.35	48	29	60.42
1880-81 - - - -	2,031	1,184	58.26	840	320	38.10	295	125	42.71	48	30	62.50
1881-82 - - - -	2,105	1,026	48.74	833	295	35.41	283	95	33.57	67	25	37.31
1882-83 - - - -	2,161	952	44.05	1,118	370	33.09	408	167	40.93	74	36	48.67
TOTAL - - - -	23,226	10,200	43.92	7,817	2,793	35.74	2,706	1,036	37.05	520	281	53.13
MADRAS:												
1873-74 - - - -	1,704	626	36.74	285	125	43.86	88	50	56.80	1	1	100.00
1874-75 - - - -	1,911	784	41.03	342	183	53.51	85	55	64.71	1	1	100.00
1875-76 - - - -	2,764	662	30.59	401	187	46.63	107	67	62.02	2	1	50.00
1876-77 - - - -	2,517	1,250	49.66	429	131	30.54	136	70	51.47	6	3	50.00
1877-78 - - - -	2,495	807	32.35	516	191	37.02	157	52	33.12	4	-	-
1878-79 - - - -	2,597	350	13.71	603	172	28.94	291	140	60.81	4	2	50.00
1879-80 - - - -	3,309	1,094	33.06	582	295	50.68	175	85	48.57	7	2	28.57
1880-81 - - - -	3,510	1,371	38.96	478	167	34.94	105	113	57.95	0	5	55.55
1881-82 - - - -	3,725	1,131	30.36	733	423	57.70	281	144	51.17	9	6	55.55
1882-83 - - - -	4,634	1,034	22.31	783	279	35.63	221	120	54.31	5	2	40.00
TOTAL - - - -	28,575	9,715	34.00	5,212	2,153	41.30	1,650	898	54.11	48	29	47.92
BOMBAY:												
1873-74 - - - -	1,025	355	34.63	146	48	32.88	62	23	37.09	8	3	37.50
1874-75 - - - -	1,115	262	23.49	213	74	34.74	69	30	43.48	0	2	22.22
1875-76 - - - -	1,290	494	38.29	193	60	31.09	88	18	20.45	6	4	66.66
1876-77 - - - -	1,154	203	17.59	176	29	16.48	62	40	64.52	4	2	50.00
1877-78 - - - -	1,049	217	20.69	150	61	40.66	87	80	92.00	6	3	50.00
1878-79 - - - -	892	201	22.53	133	57	42.86	93	42	45.16	7	3	42.86
1879-80 - - - -	1,093	436	39.89	150	65	43.33	67	51	76.12	6	4	66.66
1880-81 - - - -	1,280	429	33.52	495	179	36.16	102	56	54.90	7	4	57.14
1881-82 - - - -	1,374	388	28.24	278	71	25.54	222	74	33.33	8	5	62.50
1882-83 - - - -	1,600	572	35.75	263	101	38.40	326	112	34.36	14	6	42.86
TOTAL - - - -	11,871	3,557	29.96	3,107	754	24.26	1,138	456	40.07	75	34	45.33
GRAND TOTAL - - - -	63,672	23,472	36.86	15,836	5,700	37.66	5,590	2,388	42.71	652	337	51.69

The degrees conferred by the universities in the three faculties of Law, Medicine and Engineering may be considered more briefly. The degree of Bachelor in Law is conferred after examination on candidates who have already taken the degree of B.A., and who have subsequently studied for at least two years in a recognised school of law. Later on there is a further examination for honours in law; and the degree of Doctor in Law is conferred without examination on the submission of an approved essay. In Medicine there are five examinations; (1), the First Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery, open to candidates who have passed the F.A. examination, and who have subsequently attended certain specified courses of lectures at a recognised medical school for three years; (2), the Second Licentiate; (3), the First M.B.; (4), the Second M.B., two years after the First M.B.; and (5), the M.D., to which licentiates who have not taken the M.B. are admitted under certain circumstances. In engineering there are four examinations; (1), the First examination, open to candidates who have passed the entrance examination, and who have studied for two years and a half at a recognised college; (2), the License in Engineering, after one year's further study; (3), the degree of Bachelor in Engineering, corresponding to the License, except that candidates must have passed the F.A. examination, and have subsequently studied for one year after passing the First Examination in engineering; and (4), a later examination for honours in civil engineering. Finally, the degree of Master in Civil Engineering, conferred after four years' practice of the profession without examination, on the submission of an essay. The following table shows the results of the examinations in these three faculties at each of the three universities in 1881-82.

RESULTS OF EXAMINATIONS IN LAW, MEDICINE, and ENGINEERING, 1881-82.

	Law.			Medicine.			Engineering.		
	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per- Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per- Cent.	Candi- dates.	Passed.	Per- Cent.
Calcutta - - - -	109	67	65.05	93	31	33.33	—	—	—
Madras - - - -	48	12	25.00	29	23	79.31	1	1	100
Bombay - - - -	26	5	19.23	65	37	56.92	46	31	67.39
TOTAL - - -	177	84	47.46	167	91	54.49	47	32	68.08

In Law Calcutta stands far first, both in the number of candidates and in the proportion of passes, Bombay being last in both respects. In Medicine Calcutta, again, has most candidates, but is beaten in the proportion of passes by both Madras and Bombay. Engineering is almost confined to Bombay, though in former years Calcutta has done fairly well.

Though in their origin independent of the universities, the colleges may now be regarded as their teaching branches. They were founded, whether by the Government, by missionaries, or by private enterprise, in order to promote higher education generally; but since the establishment of the universities in 1857 the colleges have been affiliated to them, and have been obliged to adapt their curriculum to the university examinations. Admission into the colleges is confined to those who have already matriculated; and the colleges are themselves classified according as they prepare students for the B.A. and M.A. degrees, or only for the F.A. examination. The colleges, are, for the most part, merely teaching bodies, and do not profess to exercise control over the students outside the lecture-rooms. Boarding-houses, however, are attached to some of the colleges; and the residential system has been adopted with success at the Oriental Colleges in the North-West Provinces and the Punjab, as also in Bombay. Between 1870-71 and 1881-82 the total number of Arts Colleges has increased from 42 to 59, or by 40 per cent.; and the total number of students from 3,566 to 5,599, or by 51 per cent. This increase is almost entirely confined to Bengal and Madras, and has taken place mainly in the departmental and unaided institutions.

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Of the latter class, 9 have come into existence within the period of eleven years. The following table gives statistics of the Arts Colleges in the several Provinces in 1881-82:--

STATISTICS OF ARTS COLLEGES, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Departmental.		Aided.		Unaided.		TOTAL.	
	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.
Bengal	12	1,805	5	895	4	538	21	2,338
North-West Provinces and Oudh	3	172	2	157	1	95	6	424
Punjab	1	103	-	-	-	-	1	103
Central Provinces	1	65	-	-	-	-	1	65
Madras	10	742	11	603	3	124	24	1,469
Bombay	3	311	2	130	1	25	6	466
TOTAL	30	2,898	20	1,994	9	782	59	5,674

Expenditure on Arts Colleges.

The total expenditure on the Arts Colleges in 1881-82 amounted to 135,278 l., being 77 per cent. of the entire expenditure on education. Of this total, 80,580 l. or 60 per cent. was derived from Provincial grants; 24,722 l. or 18 per cent. from fees; and 29,976 l. or 22 per cent. from other sources. The fees paid in aided colleges average about one-third less than those paid in departmental colleges. In Bengal the fees provide about 28 per cent. of the total expenditure; in Madras and Bombay about 20 per cent.; in the Central Provinces 11 per cent.; in the North-West Provinces less than 6 per cent.; in the Punjab less than 5 per cent. The average annual fee in departmental colleges ranges from 8 l. 16 s. 4 d. in Bengal to 2 l. 2 s. 9 d. in the Punjab; and in the aided colleges from 5 l. 18 s. in Bombay to 1 l. 13 s. in the North-West Provinces. The following table shows the average cost of each pupil in the Arts Colleges of the several Provinces in 1881-82, distinguishing the proportion paid from public funds:—

AVERAGE COST PER PUPIL IN ARTS COLLEGES, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Departmental.		Aided.		Unaided.
	Total.	From Public Funds.	Total.	From Public Funds.	Unaided.
Bengal	£. s. d. 32 - 2	£. s. d. 21 14 9	£. s. d. 18 10 9	£. s. d. 2 16 1	£. s. d. 4 17 -
North-West Provinces and Oudh	75 16 6	53 9 1	31 5 3	11 8 9	32 11 9
Punjab	40 17 -	47 14 3	-	-	-
Central Provinces	18 12 4	16 11 1	-	-	-
Madras	25 15 9	21 - 2	12 10 4	2 19 3	0 0 2
Bombay	44 18 7	27 9 7	27 3 4	3 11 10	33 8 3
GENERAL AVERAGE - - £.	85 9 2	25 7 3	17 17 -	9 11 9	18 15 -

Excluding the one college in the Central Provinces, the lowest cost per pupil in the departmental colleges, as well as in the aided colleges, is in Madras. The highest cost per pupil is in the North-West Provinces, but the largest proportion contributed from public funds is in the Punjab.

Oriental Colleges.

Besides the Arts Colleges, there are also Oriental Colleges, of which the principal are the Calcutta Madrasa, the Canning College at Lucknow, the Oriental College at Lahore, and the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh

Aligarh in the North-West Provinces. At some of these instruction is given in English; but the main object of their existence is to promote the study of the Oriental classics according to Oriental methods. In 1881-82 the total number of Oriental colleges was 11, with 1,806 students, of which 6 with 1,089 students were in Bengal. Of the total, 8 with 1,554 students were departmental, and 3 with 252 students were aided. The total expenditure was 13,779 l., of which 4,993 l. or 37 per cent. was contributed from public funds, 1,972 l. or 14 per cent. from fees, and 6,815 l. or 49 per cent. from other sources.

The inquiry of the Education Commission did not extend to the other colleges, such as those which train for the university examinations in Law, Medicine, and Engineering. Classes in law are usually departments of the Arts Colleges; but Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay each possess a medical college (besides medical schools); and an engineering college. In this connection also may be mentioned the School of Arts and Design at Calcutta, the Madras School of Industrial Arts, and the Sir Jamsetji Jijibhai School of Art at Bombay. Professional and Technical Colleges

Secondary schools are those intermediate between colleges and primary schools. The higher limit is fixed by the matriculation standard of the universities; the lower limit depends upon the definition of primary instruction, which is not uniform throughout India. Secondary schools are classified into (1) High Schools, whose curriculum is framed upon the examination required for matriculation at the universities; and (2) Middle Schools, which are sub-divided into Middle-English and Middle Vernacular. The middle schools may be regarded either as a development of the primary schools, or as an introduction to the high schools; but their actual position between the two varies greatly in the several Provinces. Owing to changes of classification, it would be useless to compare the number of secondary schools at different periods, or even to compare the number in the several Provinces at the same period. The following table shows the number of both institutions and pupils in 1881-82:— Secondary Schools

STATISTICS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Departmental.		Aided.		Unaided.		TOTAL.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Bengal*	245	26,910	1,370	83,949	278	28,399	1,891	139,198
Assam*	29	3,408	54	4,086	9	689	92	8,117
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	522	6,489	66	2,686	5	60	593	9,225
Punjab	189	4,374	35	994	-	-	224	5,368
Central Provinces	39	2,101	14	671	-	-	53	2,772
Berar	31	1,033	-	-	-	-	31	1,033
Coorg	2	157	-	-	-	-	2	157
Madras	159	6,288	271	13,072	334	4,949	764	24,289
Bombay	147	11,170	54	5,561	66	6,597	267	23,268
TOTAL	1,333	62,595	1,803	111,018	690	40,634	3,816	214,677

* Including primary departments in the secondary schools.

As already stated, it is impossible to institute any trustworthy comparison between the secondary schools in the several Provinces, owing to differences of classification. In Bengal and Assam the pupils in primary departments of the secondary schools have been included, while in the other Provinces they have been excluded. It may, however, be pointed out that in Madras more than one-half of the pupils receiving secondary education are in aided schools, while in Bombay

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Bombay nearly one-half are in departmental schools. In the North West Provinces the proportion in departmental schools is 70 per cent., and in the Punjab as high as 83 per cent. Of the total number of pupils in secondary schools in 1881-82, 2,071 were girls, of whom more than one-half were in Bengal.

Expenditure on Secondary Schools.

The total expenditure on secondary schools in 1881-82 amounted to 402,720 l., being 22.10 per cent. of the entire expenditure on education. Of this total, 156,594 l. or 39 per cent. was derived from Provincial grants; 19,562 l. or 5 per cent. from local funds or municipal contributions; 131,572 l. or 33 per cent. from fees; and 95,192 l. or 23 per cent. from other sources. For the reasons already given, it would be misleading to institute comparisons between the several Provinces. But it may be mentioned that the proportion of the total expenditure derived from fees ranges from 48 per cent. in Madras to 9 per cent. in the Punjab; and that the proportion derived from Provincial grants ranges from 70 per cent. in the North-West Provinces to 29 per cent. in Madras.

The following table shows the average cost of each pupil in secondary schools in the several Provinces in 1881-82, distinguishing the amount paid from public funds.

AVERAGE COST PER PUPIL IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Departmental.		Aided.		Unaided.	
	Total.	From Public Funds.	Total.	From Public Funds.	Total.	From Public Funds.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Bengal - - - - -	2 8 9	1 - 8	1 4 5	- 7 11	- 17 2	- - 2
Assam - - - - -	1 17 3	8 19 11	1 4 6	- 9 9	- 16 5	- - -
North West Provinces and Oudh.	4 4 2	3 16 9	4 8 3	2 1 11	5 17 10	- 14 7
Punjab - - - - -	4 5 5	3 15 4	7 8 5	3 6 11	- 7 3	- - -
Central Provinces - - -	3 13 5	3 4 -	4 3 1	2 2 7	- - -	- - -
Berar - - - - -	6 2 -	5 19 9	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -
Coorg - - - - -	6 10 6	5 13 -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -
Madras - - - - -	3 16 5	2 1 6	2 19 -	- 13 -	2 2 2	- - -
Bombay - - - - -	3 5 8	1 14 1	2 19 6	- 17 4	2 7 9	- - -
GENERAL AVERAGE - - £.	3 3 -	1 17 -	1 13 6	- 10 8	1 5 1	- - 2

Excluding Bengal and Assam, where the low rate is partly due to the inclusion of primary departments, the secondary schools in Bombay and Madras are the cheapest, and those in the Punjab and the North-West Provinces are the most expensive; the contrast being especially marked in the case of the aided schools.

Primary Schools.

Primary schools are no less difficult to define than secondary. The lower limit, of course, is elementary instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic; but the higher limit passes imperceptibly into secondary education, the line being drawn differently in different Provinces. In 1879 an attempt was made by the Government of India to enforce greater uniformity by prescribing a standard, known as the upper primary examination, which should mark the boundary between primary and secondary instruction. This standard, however, was objected to, partly as introducing an arbitrary and not a real uniformity, and partly as identifying primary instruction with the lower stage of a course ending in, and determined by, matriculation at the universities.

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As a matter of fact, the Provinces still retain wide divergencies in their systems of primary instruction.

The methods of supporting primary schools in the several Provinces differ yet more widely than the standards of instruction. The most important distinction depends upon the amount of encouragement given to indigenous schools. In Bengal, since the reforms of Sir George Campbell in 1872, the dominant policy of the Government has been to incorporate the numerous *patsalas* or village schools into the educational system by means of moderate grants to the *gurus* or schoolmasters. In Bombay the Government has always favoured the opposite policy of founding departmental schools out of the local rate, and trusting that the indigenous schools will benefit by their example. The North-West Provinces and the Punjab have, on the whole, followed the same system. So also has the Central Provinces, though with increasing efforts to encourage the few indigenous schools that exist. Assam, on the other hand, has imitated the neighbouring example of Bengal, with this difference, that the Government in Assam has had to stimulate private schools into existence by much more liberal grants. Madras enjoys a system of its own, which it owes largely to the successful growth of missionary enterprise from an early date. Here the most prosperous schools are probably those maintained by missionary bodies, and aided by the Government. The number of departmental schools is small, but these, as well as the missionary schools, have indirectly done much to raise the standard of the indigenous schools, which are both numerous and flourishing.

The following table shows the proportion of departmental, aided, and unaided but inspected, primary schools in each Province.

PROPORTION of PRIMARY SCHOOLS, according to Management, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Departmental.	Aided.	Unaided, but Inspected.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Bengal - - - -	05	91.50	8.45
Assam - - - -	05	93.46	6.5
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	95.1	4.2	.7
Punjab - - - -	84.8	15.2	—
Central Provinces - -	66.3	27.3	6.4
Berar - - - -	52.9	23.7	23.4
Coorg - - - -	95	5	—
Madras - - - -	8.7	51.2	40.1
Bombay - - - -	71.4	3.0	25.*

* Most of these are really departmental schools in Native States.

Between 1870-71 and 1881-82 the total number of primary schools in all India (excluding Burma and Ajmere) has increased from 16,473 to 82,916, or by just fivefold; while the total number of pupils has increased from 607,320 to 2,061,541, or by more than threefold. The more rapid rate of increase in schools than in pupils is to be accounted for by the large number of indigenous schools in Bengal that have been brought under the grant-in-aid system. In Bengal an aided primary school has an average of only 17 pupils; while in Bombay a departmental primary school has an average of 64 pupils.

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The following table gives a classification of the primary schools in each Province in 1881-82.

STATISTICS of PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Departmental.		Aided.		Unaided.		TOTAL.		Average Pupils per School.
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	
Bengal - - - - -	28	616	47,374	825,435	4,376	69,039	51,778	896,389	17
Assam - - - - -	7	187	1,256	35,643	88	2,352	1,351	38,182	28
North-West Provinces and Oudh -	5,561	107,060	243	13,019	41	1,150	5,845	213,238	30
Punjab - - - - -	1,649	86,251	278	14,616	-	-	1,927	102,867	50
Central Provinces - - - - -	894	55,746	368	18,780	86	3,206	1,348	77,737	57
Berar - - - - -	467	27,844	209	4,212	307	2,672	883	34,728	39
Coorg - - - - -	57	2,978	3	91	-	-	60	3,069	51
Madras - - - - -	1,263	46,975	7,414	204,140	5,609	109,328	14,286	360,643	24
Bombay - - - - -	3,811	248,959	196	13,902	1,331*	71,827	5,538	332,658	62
TOTAL - - -	13,637	663,915	57,341	1,141,344	11,938	253,782	82,915	2,061,541	24

* Most of these are really departmental schools in Native States.

Comparing the several Provinces, it will be seen that nearly two-thirds of the total number of pupils attending departmental schools are in Bombay and the North-West Provinces, while nearly three-fourths of those attending aided schools are in the single Province of Bengal, and nearly another fourth in Madras. Of the total number of pupils, 1,941,894 were boys, being 79.2 per cent. of the total male population; and 119,647 were girls, being 70.8 of the total female population. Taking the boys only, the percentage ranges from 2.61 per cent. in Bombay to 8.9 per cent. in the North West Provinces.

Expenditure on Primary Schools.

In 1881-82 the total expenditure on primary schools in all India (excluding Burma and Ajmere) amounted to 790,994 £, as compared with 352,742 £. in 1870-71, showing an increase of more than twofold. This increase, however, is mainly due to the extension of the grant-in-aid system in Bengal and Madras. The total expenditure on departmental and aided primary schools (excluding unaided schools, but including training schools) in the several Provinces is shown in the following table, giving also the proportion derived from different sources, and the proportion that the total bears to the entire expenditure on education:—

EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY EDUCATION, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Provincial Grants.		Local Rates and Municipal Contributions.		Fees.		Other Sources.		TOTAL.	Percentage to Entire Expenditure on Education
	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.		
Bengal - - - - -	59,677	28	1,263	1	107,690	51	44,562	20	213,192	36
Assam - - - - -	2,417	20	5,856	48	1,732	15	2,040	17	11,844	33
North-West Provinces and Oudh -	21,608	24	54,372	61	5,522	6	8,374	9	89,876	40
Punjab - - - - -	9,702	16	34,485	59	6,231	11	8,300	14	58,778	30
Central Provinces - - - - -	10,049	33	14,471	49	2,173	7	3,242	11	30,042	53
Berar - - - - -	12,500	52	5,764	37	2,593	11	97	-	22,974	68
Coorg - - - - -	409	34	638	55	107	9	22	2	1,196	53
Madras - - - - -	16,814	13	50,212	38	36,928	28	28,656	21	132,640	40
Bombay - - - - -	34,573	36	78,713	58	15,450	11	6,291	5	135,028	52
TOTAL - - -	167,760	24	248,613	36	178,326	26	101,781	15	696,470	42

The preceding table brings out very clearly the differences in the educational systems of the several Provinces. Out of the entire expenditure on education, the proportion devoted to primary schools is 43 per cent. for all India, ranging from 53 per cent. in the Central Provinces, and 52 per cent. in Madras, to 36 per cent. in Bengal. Out of the total expenditure on primary schools, the proportion derived from Provincial grants is 24 per cent. for all India, ranging from 28 per cent. in Bengal to 13 per cent. in Madras; the proportion derived from local rates and municipal contributions is 36 per cent. for all India, ranging from 61 per cent. in the North-West Provinces, and 59 per cent. in the Punjab, to less than 1 per cent. in Bengal; the proportion derived from fees is 25 per cent. for all India, ranging from 51 per cent. in Bengal, and 28 per cent. in Madras, to 6 per cent. in the North-West Provinces; the proportion derived from other sources (chiefly private endowments) is 15 per cent. for all India, ranging from 21 per cent. in Madras, and 20 per cent. in Bengal, to 5 per cent. in Bombay. In other words, public funds of various kinds contribute as much as 85 per cent. of the total cost of primary schools in the North-West Provinces, 84 per cent. in Bombay, 82 per cent. in the Central Provinces, and 75 per cent. in the Punjab, but as little as 29 per cent. in Bengal.

The following table shows the average cost of each pupil in primary schools in the several Provinces in 1881-82, distinguishing the amount paid from public funds. Among departmental schools, those in Madras are the most expensive; among aided schools, those in the North West Provinces and the Punjab. The cheapness of the aided schools in Bengal and the Central Provinces is noticeable.

AVERAGE COST per PUPIL in PRIMARY SCHOOLS, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Departmental.		Aided.		Unaided.	
	Total.	From Public Funds.	Total.	From Public Funds.	Total.	From Public Funds.
Bengal	₹. 8 -	₹. 7 9	₹. 5 7	₹. 1 6	₹. 5 3	₹. - 1
Assam	₹. 4 1	₹. 4 1	₹. - 6 -	₹. 3 10	₹. 1 1	₹. -
North-West Provinces and Oudh	₹. 7 4	₹. 6 11	₹. 1 1 6	₹. 9 4	₹. 17 4	₹. 3 8
Punjab	₹. 9 7	₹. 8 4	₹. - 18 9	₹. 7 -	₹. -	₹. -
Central Provinces	₹. 7 11	₹. 7 -	₹. - 6 1	₹. 2 9	₹. 1 10	₹. -
Berar	₹. 12 3	₹. 11 3	₹. - 6 4	₹. 1 8	₹. -	₹. -
Coorg	₹. 6 7	₹. 5 8	₹. - 15 2	₹. 8 7	₹. -	₹. -
Madras	₹. 12 3	₹. 9 10	₹. - 9 6	₹. 3 10	₹. 4 10	₹. -
Bombay	₹. 6 11	₹. 7 7	₹. - 12 -	₹. 8 8	₹. 8 10	₹. -
GENERAL AVERAGE	₹. 6 10	₹. 7 9	₹. - 6 11	₹. 2 1	₹. 6 1	₹. -

The following table shows the general results in 1881-82 of all the school examinations that are conducted uniformly throughout India, beginning with the matriculation at the universities, and ending with the examinations at primary schools. The candidates are classified according as they come from departmental schools, from aided and unaided schools under inspection, or from private study; and they are subdivided into boys and girls. The proportion of passes is larger among the girls than the boys. For matriculation, and for the middle examination, the departmental schools show the best results, and the pupils from private study the worst; but in both the primary examinations, the position

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position is exactly reversed. The aided and unaided schools occupy consistently the intermediate place between the other two classes.

RESULTS OF SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS, 1881-82.

	Departmental.			Aided and Unaided.			Private Study.			TOTAL.		
	Candidates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candidates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candidates.	Passed.	Per Cent.	Candidates.	Passed.	Per Cent.
Matriculation:												
Boys - - -	2,218	1,096	49.41	4,544	1,560	34.78	661	97	14.67	7,423	2,773	37.36
Girls - - -	3	2	66.66	3	3	100	-	-	-	6	5	83.33
Middle:												
Boys - - -	6,433	3,593	55.65	8,433	4,384	52.10	2,710	577	32.36	17,596	8,854	50.31
Girls - - -	17	11	64.70	134	65	48.50	24	6	33.33	175	84	48.00
Upper Primary:												
Boys - - -	43,156	21,249	49.23	17,460	9,770	55.93	156	94	60.25	60,772	31,113	51.19
Girls - - -	454	246	54.18	1,135	688	60.61	3	2	66.66	1,592	936	58.79
Lower Primary:												
Boys - - -	93,538	50,209	53.67	63,591	33,000	50.00	116	88	75.86	157,235	85,903	54.63
Girls - - -	2,223	1,137	51.14	3,012	1,857	61.65	4	4	100	5,239	2,998	57.22
TOTAL - - -	146,002	77,543	52.37	98,302	53,953	54.68	3,674	1,170	31.84	250,038	132,066	52.85

Normal Schools.

There remains to mention the professional and technical schools which are attached to primary or secondary schools. The great majority of these are normal schools for training masters or mistresses; but there are also a few industrial schools and special classes for engineering. The total number of these schools in all India (excluding Burma and Ajmere) in 1881-82 was 160, attended by 4,500 pupils. The total expenditure amounted to 45,265 L., being 2.58 of the entire expenditure on education. Of this total, 28,904 L., or 64 per cent., was derived from Provincial grants; 9,188 L., or 20 per cent., from other sources controlled by the Government; and 7,173 L., or 16 per cent. from independent sources. The system of training teachers for primary schools varies so greatly in the several Provinces that it is difficult to institute a comparison. According to returns printed in the Report of the Education Commission, the proportion of certificated teachers to the total number is 18 per cent. for all India (excluding Madras), ranging from 74 per cent. in the Central Provinces, and 58 per cent. in the North-West Provinces, to 7 per cent. in Bengal. But a certificate does not everywhere mean the same thing. In Bombay and the Central Provinces it is awarded only to those who have passed a course of two or three years in a normal school. Elsewhere it is given to any one who has been pupil teacher in a primary school for a comparatively short time. In Bengal, since 1875, the policy of the Department has been to discontinue normal schools, and to recognise as a qualified teacher any young man who had been trained in the middle or lower vernacular schools. The following table shows, so far as possible, the number of normal schools in the several Provinces in 1881-82, together with their cost.

STATISTICS of NORMAL SCHOOLS, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Schools.	Pupils.	Total Cost.	Cost per Pupill.	Pupils who left with Certificates.
Bengal	23	1,048	£. 2,090	£. s. d. 18 13 7	459
Assam	9	331	1,704	19 7 2	19
North-West Provinces and Oudh	21	805	4,338	11 7 -	376
Punjab	7	358	5,208	14 6 2	98
Central Provinces	4	188	2,440	13 3 4	97
Berar	1	79	857	11 18 1	19
Coorg	1	7	189	31 10 -	7
Madras	33	927	7,750	8 19 5	369
Bombay	9	553	8,419	15 11 3	149
TOTAL	103	3,886	40,032	10 18 9	1,593

Out of the total in the preceding table, 15 were schools for training women teachers, with 515 pupils.

Female education has made considerable progress in recent years, mainly through missionary effort; but it still remains in a very backward condition, as compared even with the education of boys. In 1880-81 the total number of girls under instruction in all India (excluding Burma and Ajmere) was 127,066, of whom 6 were in colleges, 2,054 in secondary schools, 82,420 in primary schools, 515 in normal schools, and 42,071 in mixed schools. The total number of special schools for girls was 2,697, of which 616 were departmental, 1,652 were aided, 423 were unaided but under inspection, and 6 were unaided and not under inspection. In the same year, the total expenditure on female education amounted to 84,797 l., being 4.65 per cent. of the entire expenditure on education. Of this total, 25,288 l., or 30 per cent., was derived from Provincial grants; 10,789 l., or 13 per cent., from local rates or municipal contributions; 4,454 l., or 5 per cent., from fees; and 44,266 l., or 52 per cent., from other sources.

The following table shows the statistics of female education in 1881-82, according to Provinces.

STATISTICS of FEMALE EDUCATION, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Schools.	Pupils.	Per-centage of Pupils to Female Population of School-going Age.	Expenditure.	Per-centage of Expenditure to Total Expenditure on Education.
Bengal	305	41,349	.80	£. 22,377	3.56
Assam	71	1,677	.47	560	1.80
North-West Provinces and Oudh	308	8,883	.28	7,903	3.84
Punjab	311	9,353	.72	10,493	6.44
Central Provinces	79	3,225	.44	2,300	3.85
Berar	13	438	.22	353	.99
Coorg	1	333	2.86	23	1.01
Madras	357	35,042	1.50	22,617	6.32
Bombay	343	26,760	1.59	17,371	5.21
TOTAL	2,697	127,066	.85	84,797	4.65

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Missionary Education.

The part which missionary effort occupies in the educational system of India has been alluded to frequently. For the Roman Catholic missions no collective information is available. The following table shows the educational work of Protestant missions in all India (excluding Burma) in 1881-82. It will be seen that almost one-half of the missionary pupils are to be found in Madras and the adjoining Native States; then follow Bengal, the North-West Provinces, the Punjab, and Bombay last of all.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF PROTESTANT MISSIONS, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma.)

	Colleges and Secondary.		Primary.		Girls.		Zanana.	Theological and Training.		TOTAL.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Bengal - - - - -	50	5,512	577	14,789	336	9,600	2,524	10	216	372	38,450
North-West Provinces and Oudh -	60	6,377	169	6,352	370	7,461	2,700	2	59	622	25,290
Punjab - - - - -	81	9,546	91	2,967	126	3,236	1,632	5	60	367	16,567
Central India (including Central Provinces and Berar).	21	2,500	148	4,441	52	695	319	4	13	223	8,166
Madras (including Native States) -	148	15,722	1,813	50,818	434	23,414	1,920	16	791	2,413	92,635
Bombay - - - - -	22	2,392	297	5,093	67	2,041	147	7	69	293	11,562
TOTAL - - - - -	393	45,249	3,020	64,700	1,275	47,376	9,132	56	1,235	4,730	187,652

Educational Finance.

The educational revenue and expenditure are presented very differently in the accounts of the Department and in the general Finance Accounts. According to the Finance Accounts, the total receipts under Education in 1882-83 amounted to 198,558 L., and the total charges amounted to 1,145,970 L., showing a net charge of 947,412 L. According to the accounts of the Department, the total revenue in the same year amounted to 1,917,924 L., and the total expenditure amounted to 2,105,648 L. The discrepancy is just tenfold in the case of the receipts, and almost twofold in the case of the expenditure. To attempt to harmonise the two sets of accounts would be futile; but some of the more important sources of difference may be pointed out. First, as regards the receipts. The Finance Accounts show only the fees received in Government institutions, and a few other minor sources of income that are paid into the treasury. Even so, the systems vary in the several Provinces, for 14,032 L. is credited in Bombay for "sale proceeds of books, &c.," while only 22 L. is credited under the same head in Bengal. In the general result, the total receipts in Bombay come to as much as 71,024 L., compared with 52,123 L. in Bengal. The departmental accounts, on the other hand, show the entire income from fees, subscriptions, &c., of both Government and aided schools, as well as the amount received for education from Provincial grants, local rates, municipal contributions, and (in Bombay) from Native States. Similarly, as regards the expenditure. The Finance Accounts show only the cost of the Department, the maintenance of Government institutions, and the grants-in-aid to other institutions, the public scholarships, and a few minor items. They do not show the cost of school buildings, which is debited against Public Works; nor the cost of medical schools, which is debited against Medical Services. The Departmental Accounts, on the other hand, include not only the charges for school buildings and medical schools, but also the expenditure on the aided and inspected schools, whether by missionary bodies or by private persons. Moreover, the figures for Berar are excluded from the Finance Accounts, but are included in those of the Department, which also comprise the figures for certain Native States in connection with the Bombay Presidency. In short, the Finance Accounts show the transactions of the Treasury with regard to education according to a special classification; the accounts of the Department show the entire expenditure incurred on education, together with the sources from which the money was derived.

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The Report of the Education Commission naturally takes the figures issued by the Department, from which it makes certain deductions required by the limitation of its enquiry. In 1881-82, the total expenditure on education in India (excluding Burma and Ajmere) amounted to 1,821,517 *l.* From this is deducted 88,623 *l.*, being the expenditure on special institutions, whether legal, medical, or engineering; and 121,866 *l.*, being the expenditure on the education of Europeans and Eurasians, both of which branches were excluded from the scope of the Commission. The balance is 1,611,028 *l.*, which was derived from the several sources shown in the following table:—

Expenditure on Education, according to the Department.

SOURCES OF EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Provincial Grants.		Local Rates.		Municipal Contributions.		Total Public Funds.		Native States.		Fees.		Other Sources.		TOTAL.
	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.	£.	Per cent.	
Bengal	270,354	49.71	988	18	2,450	44	229,782	41.53	-	-	208,038	37.42	116,100	21.25	553,928
Assam	13,737	45.55	5,647	18.73	80	12	10,420	64.40	-	-	5,764	19.11	4,971	10.40	80,188
North-West Provinces and Oudh	89,951	40.33	59,754	32.20	4,963	2.60	150,688	81.21	-	-	8,632	4.65	26,337	14.14	183,357
Punjab	80,104	34.77	46,926	31.18	14,442	10.01	100,532	75.93	-	-	19,879	7.94	23,844	16.63	144,236
Central Provinces	15,080	55.18	13,236	20.90	8,437	5.95	51,652	81.23	-	-	3,323	5.23	8,007	13.64	63,582
Berar	23,458	60.78	8,748	24.00	188	3.0	22,344	92.07	-	-	2,088	7.03	97	28	25,120
Coorg	1,323	58.10	706	31.08	-	-	2,029	89.23	-	-	223	9.78	22	9.7	2,374
Madras	77,504	25.90	54,534	16.20	7,717	2.50	139,745	40.00	-	-	94,478	31.00	65,248	21.80	290,471
Bombay	92,834	31.38	76,310	25.99	8,042	2.73	177,186	60.13	49,388	16.73	44,575	15.12	23,646	8.02	294,625
TOTAL	606,414	37.64	264,829	16.43	41,145	2.56	912,388	50.63	49,288	3.06	378,690	20.80	276,756	16.91	1,811,028

Provincial grants represent allotments made for education by the Provincial Governments out of the share of revenue assigned to them by the Government of India, in accordance with the system of Provincial Finance that has already been explained. The Government of India, properly so called, has no concern with education, which is entirely under Provincial administration. It rests with each Provincial Government to allot to education as much as it pleases out of the sum assigned to it for all Provincial expenditure. The total amount thus allotted in all India (including Berar, but excluding Burma and Ajmere) amounted in 1881-82, to 606,414 *l.*, being 37.64 per cent. of the entire expenditure on education. The proportion varied in the different Provinces from as much as 55.18 per cent. in the Central Provinces to as little as 25.90 per cent. in Madras.

Local Rates or Cesses for education, as well as for other local purposes, have been levied in most Provinces for many years. In Assam, they were not introduced until 1879. Bengal now remains the only Province where education is not partly supported by means of rates. The small sum of 988 *l.* credited to Bengal for Local Rates in the above table represents an exceptional rate raised for education in certain Non-Regulation Tracts. But the system of appropriating Local Rates to education is not uniform throughout India. In the North-West Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces, the entire proceeds of the Local Rate are credited to Provincial revenues, and then a portion is allotted to education. In Madras, the Local Rate is administered by bodies that are to some extent independent of the Provincial Government. In Bombay alone is a proportion of the Local Rate appropriated from the first to education. Such is the state of affairs described by the Commission. Since the date of their Report, the extension of District and other Local Boards has augmented everywhere the importance of Local Rates in educational finance. In 1881-82, the total amount of expenditure on education raised from Local Rates was 264,829 *l.*, being 16.43 per cent. of the entire expenditure. Excluding Bengal, the proportion ranged from 32.20 per cent. in the North-West Provinces to 18.20 per cent. in Madras.

The Contributions of Municipalities towards education are entirely voluntary; but it may be expected that they will increase with the recent measures of municipal

municipal reform. In 1881-82, the total municipal contributions amounted to 41,145 l., being 2.56 per cent. of the entire expenditure on education. The proportion ranged from 10.01 per cent. in the Punjab to .44 per cent. in Bengal, and .12 per cent. in Assam.

Total Public Funds.

Provincial Grants, Local Rates, and Municipal Contributions make up together the expenditure on education from Public Funds. Though each source is not equally under the control of the Government, all alike are derived from taxation. The total expenditure, therefore, upon education from Public Funds in all India (excluding Burma and Ajmere) amounted in 1881-82 to 912,388 l., being 56.63 per cent. of the entire expenditure. Excluding Berar and Coorg, the proportion varied from 81.23 per cent. in the Central Provinces and 81.21 per cent. in the North-West Provinces to 46.60 per cent. in Madras and 41.33 per cent. in Bengal.

Contributions from Native States.

In Bombay the expenditure under the control of the Department is augmented by 49,288 l. (being 16.73 per cent. of the total) contributed by Native States which have modelled their system of education upon ours, and have accepted the conditions of inspection.

Fees.

In nothing do the systems of educational finance in the several Provinces vary so much as in the proportion of the entire expenditure that is derived from fees. In 1881-82 the total receipts from fees in all India (excluding Burma and Ajmere) amounted to 378,600 l., being 23.50 per cent. of the entire expenditure. But of this total more than one-half is due to the single Province of Bengal, where the proportion is as high as 37.42 per cent., and another fourth is due to Madras, where the proportion is 31.60 per cent., leaving less than a fourth for all the rest of India. Assam and Bombay show fairly well; but in the Punjab the proportion falls to 7.54 per cent., in the Central Provinces to 5.23 per cent., and in the North-West to as low as 4.63 per cent. These proportions bear some relation to the proportion of the total expenditure contributed by Public Funds, especially as regards primary education; for where the schools are mainly supported by Government, less is derived from fees than where the schools are aided or indigenous.

Other Sources.

"Other sources" comprise endowments, private subscriptions, and the cost of aided institutions that is borne by the managers, whether missionary bodies or native gentlemen. In 1881-82 the total derived from "other sources" amounted to 270,752 l., being 16.81 per cent. of the entire expenditure on education. The proportion ranges from 21.80 per cent. in Madras (where missionary effort is specially active), and 21.25 per cent. in Bengal (where the subscriptions from native gentlemen are large), to 8.02 per cent. in Bombay. Under this heading the North-West, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and Assam all show fairly well.

Distribution of Expenditure on Education.

The following table shows the distribution of the total expenditure derived in 1881-82 from Public Funds, i.e., from Provincial Grants, Local Rates, and Municipal Contributions. The total, as already stated, amounted to 912,388 l. The proportion devoted to colleges was 8.08 per cent., ranging from 12.60 per cent. in Bengal to 5.28 per cent. in Bombay (excluding the smaller provinces). The proportion devoted to secondary schools was 18.17 per cent., ranging from 24.15 per cent. in Bengal to 12.32 per cent. in Bombay. The proportion devoted to primary schools was 39.72 per cent., ranging from 50.54 per cent. in Bombay to 23.56 per cent. in Bengal. In other words, Bengal allotted out of Public Funds twice as much as Bombay to higher education of both kinds, while Bombay allotted to primary education twice as much as Bengal. The proportion devoted to professional and technical schools was 4.11 per cent., ranging from 6.03 per cent. in the Punjab to 2.56 per cent. in the North-West Provinces. The proportion devoted to Direction, Inspection, &c., was 29.92 per cent., ranging from 36.62 per cent. in Bengal to 22.91 per cent. in the North-West Provinces.

DISTRIBUTION of EXPENDITURE on EDUCATION from PUBLIC FUNDS, 1881-82.
(Excluding Burma and Ajmere.)

	Colleges.		Secondary.		Primary.		Technical and Special.		Direction, &c.		TOTAL.
	£.	p'cent.	£.	p'cent.	£.	p'cent.	£.	p'cent.	£.	p'cent.	
Bengal	28,958	12.60	55,482	24.15	54,139	23.56	7,057	3.07	84,156	36.62	229,792
Assam	-	-	4,806	2.75	6,314	3.21	1,661	0.85	6,089	3.10	19,420
North-West Provinces and Oudh	12,057	8.00	27,029	18.54	72,313	47.99	3,864	2.56	34,525	22.91	150,688
Punjab	7,317	6.69	23,061	21.06	40,002	30.62	6,609	6.03	32,543	29.70	100,539
Central Provinces	944	1.32	7,300	14.15	22,083	42.75	2,846	5.61	18,473	35.77	51,053
Berar	-	-	5,320	10.45	15,420	47.67	857	2.65	10,747	33.23	32,344
Coorg	-	-	752	37.05	895	41.18	189	9.31	253	12.46	2,029
Madras	15,065	10.78	19,180	13.73	61,742	44.18	6,190	4.43	37,568	26.88	139,745
Bombay	9,957	5.28	21,823	12.32	89,553	50.54	8,305	4.69	48,148	27.17	177,180
TOTAL	73,698	8.08	165,659	18.17	362,401	39.72	37,573	4.11	273,052	29.02	612,388

So far the Report of the Education Commission has afforded the greater part of the materials used in this chapter. But that report stops at the year 1881-82; it excludes Burma and Ajmere, as well as Bangalore; and it also omits all reference to professional and technical institutions. In order, therefore, to complete the survey of education in India, and to supply means of comparison, it is necessary to add a brief statement of the facts and figures for 1882-83.

Educational Statistics 1882-83.

The following table gives the number of schools and pupils in that year inspected by the Department, arranged according to Provinces:—

DETAILED EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS, 1882-83.

	Government		Aided		Unaided		TOTAL		Averages.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools per Square Mile.	Pupils per 1,000 of the Population.
Bengal	576	32,366	64,174	1,172,535	6,155	105,891	70,905	1,311,092	.47	20
Assam	41	3,898	1,344	42,335	117	4,048	1,502	50,281	.03	10
North-West Provinces and Oudh	5,054	210,651	373	20,372	70	1,690	6,502	233,073	.06	5
Punjab	1,778	98,778	355	17,202	-	-	2,133	116,070	.09	6
Central Provinces	858	60,470	511	24,778	66	4,258	1,585	89,500	.02	9
British Burma	51	3,096	1,014	42,284	2,644	60,326	3,909	107,106	.04	29
Ajmere	65	3,058	4	463	-	-	69	3,521	.03	8
Berar	472	28,807	221	4,732	190	2,739	889	36,278	.05	14
Bangalore	-	-	66	3,439	-	-	66	3,439	-	-
Coorg	62	3,285	3	100	-	-	65	3,385	.04	19
Madras	1,585	60,443	9,618	266,084	6,291	119,797	17,494	446,324	.13	14
Bombay	4,203	276,016	433	27,010	1,502	80,351	8,138	389,986	.05	24
TOTAL	15,845	792,008	78,121	1,622,303	17,271	385,600	111,237	2,790,061	.18	14

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The total number of schools in 1882-83 was 111,237, or an average of 13 schools per square mile of the total area, ranging from 47 per square mile in Bengal to 02 per cent. in the Punjab and the Central Provinces. The total number of pupils was 2,790,061, or 14 per 1,000 of the total population, ranging from 24 per 1,000 in Bombay (excluding the Native States), and 20 per 1,000 in Bengal, to 6 per 1,000 in the Punjab, and 5 per 1,000 in the North-West Provinces. Of the total number of pupils, 782,068, or 28 per cent., were in Government or departmental schools, 1,622,393, or 58 per cent., were in aided schools, and 385,600, or 14 per cent, were in unaided schools. It must be remembered that these unaided schools are only those inspected by the Department; the indigenous schools of the Punjab are altogether omitted. It deserves remark that as many as 64 per cent. of the schools and 47 per cent. of the pupils are in the single Province of Bengal, where the aided system has done so much to incorporate indigenous schools.

Comparative Educational Statistics, 1877-78 to 1882-83.

The following table gives the corresponding statistics for each of the six years, 1877-78 to 1882-83. During that period the number of schools has increased exactly two-fold, and the number of pupils by 54 per cent. In 1878-79 there was a slight decrease in the total number of pupils; but since then the rate of increase has been continuous, and is most marked in the two last years of the series. Almost the whole of the increase has taken place in the single Province of Bengal. For, although Madras, Bombay, and Assam likewise shows fair rates of increase, against this must be set off the exclusion of Mysore from the returns since 1880-81; while the North-West Provinces, Coorg, and Ajmere show a decrease in the number of schools, and the two former also in the number of pupils. The Punjab has remained practically stationary during the six years.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS, 1877-78 to 1882-83.

	1877-78.		1878-79.		1879-80.		1880-81.		1881-82.		1882-83.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Bengal	26,218	611,400	32,276	727,707	39,376	819,030	47,307	928,489	60,034	1,100,635	70,905	1,311,092
Assam	1,175	24,276	1,199	35,800	1,300	36,891	1,287	40,671	1,455	46,771	1,502	50,281
North-West Provinces and Oudh.	10,429	301,946	7,999	242,500	6,610	222,117	6,605	225,763	6,561	226,596	6,502	223,073
Punjab	2,030	115,163	2,007	107,462	2,094	100,442	2,008	104,923	2,096	170,427	2,133	116,070
Central Provinces	1,409	74,366	1,387	71,087	1,423	77,746	1,437	79,351	1,443	81,203	1,505	80,506
British Burma	2,474	65,893	2,039	76,374	2,100	80,374	2,366	82,768	2,289	69,030	2,509	107,186
Ajmere	189	6,221	168	4,976	142	5,102	129	5,417	73	2,391	60	2,521
Berar	694	27,177	641	25,181	712	28,407	876	32,221	300	46,891	669	36,378
Mysore*	1,309	42,612	1,055	34,378	1,050	36,723	1,007	42,637	61	2,244	66	2,469
Coorg	61	2,719	59	2,614	62	2,565	59	2,792	68	3,223	65	2,986
Madras	0,162	265,809	0,274	237,836	10,523	269,379	12,378	327,808	15,453	392,062	17,494	440,524
Bombay	4,417	246,140	4,684	312,651	4,675	275,123	5,343	310,074	5,704	358,691	6,138	389,986
TOTAL	60,827	1,816,124	62,775	1,812,300	71,495	1,961,009	82,863	2,105,614	97,008	2,468,624	111,237	2,790,061

* Since 1881-82, Bangalore only.

The following table gives a classification of the schools and pupils in 1882-83, distinguishing the boys from the girls. For some reason the totals of both schools and pupils do not agree exactly with those given in the two previous tables. Of the total number of pupils (including girls) 90 per cent. were in primary schools.

Classification of Schools, 1882-83

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS AND PUPILS, 1882-83.

	Schools.	PUPILS.		
		Boys.	Girls.	TOTAL.
Colleges - - - - -	96	8,700	7	8,707
Secondary :				
High - - - - -	530	68,434	1,163	69,597
Middle - - - - -	3,796	163,807	6,835	170,642
Primary - - - - -	101,633	2,346,931	152,712	2,499,643
Special or Technical :				
Art - - - - -	5	479	31	510
Medical - - - - -	12	900	7	907
Engineering and Surveying - - - - -	20	552	-	552
Normal - - - - -	128	4,022	520	4,542
Industrial - - - - -	48	1,321	156	1,477
Madrasas (Muhammudan) - - - - -	15	1,449	-	1,449
Other (including Indigenous) - - - - -	2,938	31,717	938	32,655
GRAND TOTAL - - - - -	109,216	2,628,402	162,371	2,790,773

The following table shows the educational receipts in 1882-83, according to the departmental accounts, arranged according to Provinces, and sub-divided according to sources of income. This table does not differ materially from the table already given for 1881-82, except by the inclusion of Burma, Ajmere, and Bangalore, and by the subdivision of "other sources" into endowments, subscriptions, and miscellaneous. The only points that call for notice are the large amount derived from subscriptions in Bengal, being 83 per cent. of the total for all India, and the comparatively large amount under miscellaneous in Madras and Bengal, which represents mainly missionary work.

Educational Receipts, 1882-83

DETAILED EDUCATIONAL RECEIPTS (according to Departmental Accounts), 1882-83.

	Provincial Grants.	Local Rates.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Municipal Contributions.	Native States.	Fees and Fines.	Miscellaneous.	TOTAL.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Bengal - - - - -	198,536	387	16,458	76,918	4,019	-	291,935	49,300	637,553
Bombay - - - - -	6,998	8,619	497	1,803	102	-	6,759	2,003	27,911
North-West Provinces and Oudh - - - - -	33,476	125,158	8,529	-	5,407	-	18,068	24,652	215,290
Punjab - - - - -	65,251	45,364	1,398	-	15,629	-	13,390	21,028	162,000
Central Provinces - - - - -	35,232	13,074	-	-	3,940	-	4,659	11,344	68,249
British Burma - - - - -	5,739	2,697	488	-	15,260	-	7,730	5,458	37,372
Ajmere - - - - -	4,358	633	-	400	673	-	334	70	6,308
Deccan - - - - -	23,668	9,564	-	-	74	-	3,939	207	37,542
Bangalore - - - - -	2,649	-	4	-	-	-	2,710	2,388	7,751
Coorg - - - - -	1,267	748	-	-	-	-	315	35	2,365
Madras - - - - -	78,381	54,009	17,331	5,469	9,678	-	104,379	64,454	334,401
Bombay - - - - -	129,144	80,523	14,090	9,335	9,150	49,606	62,707	26,477	381,128
TOTAL - - - - - £.	678,629	347,370	58,675	93,925	63,832	49,606	516,925	208,866	1,917,924
Percentage - - - - -	80	18	3	5	3	3	27	11	-

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Educational Expenditure, 1882-83.

The following table shows the educational expenditure in 1882-83, according to the departmental accounts, arranged according to Provinces, and sub-divided according to objects of expenditure. This table differs from the table already given for 1881-82, not only by including Burma, Ajmere, and Bangalore, but also by comprehending the expenditure not derived from public funds, as well as the expenditure upon universities and upon European and other special education, all of which were excluded from the former table. The total expenditure, when divided by the total number of pupils, shows an average cost per pupil of 13 s. 4 d., ranging from 1 l. 8 s. in the Central Provinces, and 19 s. 9 d. in Bombay, to 11 s. 6 d. in Bengal, and 11 s. 1 d. in Burma (excluding the smaller Provinces). The low rate in Bengal and Burma is due to the large extent to which indigenous schools have been incorporated by the Department in both those Provinces.

DETAILED EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE (according to Departmental Accounts), 1882-83.

	Universities.	Colleges.	Normal and Technical.	Secondary.	Primary.	European and Special.	Direction and Inspection.	Scholarships.	Building and Miscellaneous.	TOTAL.	Average Cost per Pupil.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£. s. d.
Bengal	6,616	75,024	20,681	202,106	218,670	10,802	43,073	18,304	46,410	755,116	- 11 0
Assam	-	-	2,376	11,707	11,371	-	5,435	2,177	1,707	34,983	- 13 11
North-West Provinces and Oudh	-	22,798	4,804	45,302	60,280	-	25,322	5,101	15,246	215,200	- 18 11
Punjab	-	1,185	2,145	10,070	32,183	-	10,848	3,777	8,034	68,249	- 15 3
Central Provinces	2,100	7,495	10,973	32,203	62,683	-	10,540	11,445	18,728	162,000	1 9 -
British Burma	842	1,280	2,126	10,237	22,020	-	6,064	2,000	11,385	50,480	- 11 1
Ajmere	-	2,090	172	416	681	273	668	-	106	6,284	1 15 0
Bihar	-	-	483	2,480	22,308	-	4,753	1,260	6,200	27,522	1 - 8
Bangalore	-	176	170	2,101	4,214	-	-	-	-	7,751	2 5 6
Coorg	-	-	188	941	1,032	-	112	-	72	2,205	- 13 9
Madras	9,532	32,065	18,116	81,131	164,441	-	38,217	5,600	9,851	374,932	- 16 8
Bombay	2,760	28,498	24,001	61,040	151,809	-	25,702	11,112	43,004	381,118	- 19 9
TOTAL	21,790	173,210	68,570	401,202	911,121	11,135	178,550	61,441	168,370	2,103,649	- 13 4
Percentage	1	8	3	23	44	-	8	3	8		

Comparative Educational Expenditure, 1877-78 to 1882-83.

The following table gives the corresponding expenditure for each of the six years, 1877-78 to 1882-83. During that period the total expenditure has increased by 31 per cent., while the number of pupils, as shown above, has increased by 54 per cent. This increase has taken place entirely in the last three years of the series. In Bengal the rate of increase is 70 per cent.; in Madras 34 per cent.; in Burma 28 per cent.; and in Bombay 25 per cent. In the North-West Provinces there has been an actual decrease, while in the Punjab the increase is comparatively small. Of the total increase for all India, as much as 88 per cent. is due to the amount expended on primary schools, which has almost doubled in the six years; and 9 per cent. is due to the expenditure on normal and technical schools, which also has almost doubled in the six years. The total expenditure on universities, on colleges, on secondary schools, and on European schools shows

shows a decrease in each case; while the expenditure on direction and inspection has hardly increased at all.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE (according to Departmental Accounts), 1877-78 to 1882-83.

	1877-78.	1878-79.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Bengal	444,845	454,539	476,854	583,081	641,111	755,116
Assam	25,597	26,088	26,491	28,741	31,169	34,923
North-West Provinces and Oudh	219,829	218,378	201,838	197,593	204,254	215,290
Punjab	144,451	136,915	134,112	139,253	158,428	162,000
Central Provinces	61,158	61,871	61,009	63,080	63,936	68,249
British Burma	46,339	41,383	41,007	41,308	49,779	59,489
Ajmere	5,586	6,848	6,195	6,394	6,352	6,254
Berar	31,563	30,188	31,549	32,912	36,831	37,542
Mysoore*	42,912	42,295	39,214	39,103	7,427	7,751
Coorg	1,765	2,027	2,297	2,356	2,274	2,365
Madras	279,819	272,891	82,347	310,771	348,751	374,952
Bombay	305,898	298,161	313,825	314,996	340,751	381,118
TOTAL	£. 1,609,212	1,591,569	1,615,938	1,759,532	1,887,503	2,105,649

* Since 1881-82, Bangalore only.

So far as regards the educational receipts during the same period of six years, it is unnecessary to set them out in detail, for of course the totals for each Province must correspond approximately with the expenditure. But it may be pointed out that the amount derived from Provincial grants has decreased by 25 per cent., while the proportion that it bears to the entire receipts has decreased from 47 per cent. to 30 per cent. The amount derived from local rates has increased by 31 per cent., and the fees and fines have increased by 86 per cent., the rate of increase in Bombay being 137 per cent., in Bengal 115 per cent., and in Madras 57 per cent., while in both the North-West Provinces and the Punjab fees and fines have remained practically stationary. The large increase of 201 per cent. in grants from Native States shows the extension of inspection by the Department through the Native States of Bombay.

Comparative Educational Receipts, 1877-71 to 1882-83.

The following table gives the receipts and charges under Education for 1882-83, according to the Finance Accounts. For reasons already mentioned, the Finance Accounts differ so widely from the accounts of the Department that it is impossible to make any comparison between the two.

Educational Receipts and Charges, according to the Finance Accounts.

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DETAILS of RECEIPTS and CHARGES under EDUCATION (according to Finance Accounts),
1882-83.

	India, General.	Bengal.	Assam.	North- West Provinces and Ondb.	Punjab.	Central Pro- vinces.	British Barma.	Madras.	Bombay.	TOTAL.
RECEIPTS :	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Fees and Fines - - -	857	48,007	2,918	7,416	3,228	2,853	1,247	18,182	86,560	121,866
Contributions - - -	1,263	1,371	26	1,742	57	3,088	-	817	13,391	22,365
Sale Proceeds of Books, &c.	38	22	26	2,185	5,904	3,423	3,051	9,307	14,032	37,988
Endowments in Land - -	-	447	-	1,522	-	-	-	170	-	2,139
Miscellaneous - - -	93	2,276	104	680	315	392	78	3,821	7,041	14,700
TOTAL - - - £.	2,051	52,123	3,072	13,545	9,504	10,266	4,378	32,597	71,024	198,558
CHARGES :										
University - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,700	2,700
Director of Public Instruc- tion.	-	7,608	-	3,520	4,072	3,088	2,166	4,471	4,028	28,948
Inspectors of Schools - -	1,062	41,328	5,138	21,128	11,613	7,900	4,824	28,589	19,820	141,477
Government Colleges - -	8,085	53,965	-	14,353	5,540	-	-	25,215	21,847	129,996
School Establishment - -	4,335	69,785	7,967	98,651	48,025	31,447	7,529	54,614	162,011	484,364
Scholarships and Prizes -	360	18,688	1,300	5,750	8,161	3,234	1,094	2,012	6,437	47,036
Grants-in-Aid - - -	1,069	107,615	10,243	22,268	25,900	3,612	2,188	43,156	8,259	224,310
Payments by Results - -	-	-	-	-	-	2,521	-	15,189	9,583	27,273
Government Book Depot -	-	-	112	1,508	5,036	2,992	4,569	8,801	12,185	35,264
Grants for Encouragement of Literature.	-	888	55	642	797	61	69	-	587	3,099
Miscellaneous - - -	531	1,720	429	535	2,207	2,548	9,609	1,033	3,165	21,777
Refunds - - - -	-	35	-	7	7	5	50	1	6	117
TOTAL CHARGES - £.	15,442	301,632	25,244	168,363	111,358	57,469	32,704	183,121	25,0637	1,145,970
EXCESS CHARGES - £.	13,391	249,509	22,172	154,818	101,854	47,203	28,328	150,524	179,813	947,412

The following table gives the corresponding figures from the Finance Accounts for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. During that period the receipts have increased by 47,752 l., or 32 per cent.; the charges by 231,139 l., or 25 per cent.; and the excess charges by 187,387 l., or 24 per cent.

RECEIPTS and CHARGES under EDUCATION (according to Finance Accounts), 1873-74
to 1882-83.

	Receipts.	Charges.	Excess Charges.
	£.	£.	£.
1873-74 - - - -	150,800	914,831	764,026
1874-75 - - - -	141,431	986,802	845,371
1875-76 - - - -	147,140	1,020,870	873,730
1876-77 - - - -	150,056	1,005,669	855,613
1877-78 - - - -	152,990	1,009,092	856,102
1878-79 - - - -	147,425	984,661	837,236
1879-80 - - - -	139,414	967,633	828,219
1880-81 - - - -	170,238	999,158	828,920
1881-82 - - - -	189,292	1,078,490	889,198
1882-83 - - - -	198,558	1,145,970	947,412

CHAPTER XX.

EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION.

FOR more than forty years past there has been a steady flow of emigration from India beyond the seas, in the form of coolies, who are enlisted to work on plantations in tropical colonies. The first British colony to seek for labour in India was the Island of Mauritius, which began to import coolies in 1842. The total number of persons of Indian origin now in Mauritius is estimated at about 248,000, being 64 per cent. of the entire population. Demerara, or British Guiana, and the neighbouring Island of Trinidad, in the West Indies, both began to import coolies in 1845. The total number of persons of Indian origin now in Demerara is estimated at 88,000, or 35 per cent. of the entire population; and the number in Trinidad at 51,000, or 33 per cent. Jamaica also began to import coolies in 1845, but the emigration was never large, and has been frequently interrupted. The total number of persons of Indian origin now in Jamaica is estimated at only 11,000. Some of the smaller West India Islands, such as Grenada, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia in the Windward group, and St. Kitts and Nevis in the Leeward group, have from time to time imported a few coolies; but the aggregate number of persons of Indian origin now in all these smaller islands is estimated at only 5,000, or 3 per cent. of the entire population. Natal, on the South coast of Africa, began to import coolies in 1860, but the emigration has been large only since 1875. The total number is estimated at 25,000, being just equal to the European population, and contrasting with 312,000 native inhabitants. Fiji, the nearest British colony in the Pacific Ocean, imported 498 coolies in 1878-79 and 922 in 1882-83; total, 1,420.

COLONIAL EMIGRATION.
To British Colonies.

Concerning the emigration to the French Colonies, the information available is not of recent date. Réunion, the neighbour of Mauritius, began to import coolies in 1860. The emigration from British ports was suspended in 1865, but has continued regularly from French ports. The total number of persons of Indian origin in Réunion has been approximately estimated at 45,000. Cayenne, or French Guiana, received an importation of coolies from Calcutta in 1873-74; but the mortality among them was so high that the experiment has not been repeated. Emigration, however, continues from the French ports; and the total number of persons of Indian origin in Cayenne has been estimated at 4,300. The two French Islands of Guadeloupe and Martinique in the West Indies began to import coolies in 1873 and 1874; and the emigration has since continued pretty regularly both from Calcutta and from French ports. The total number of persons of Indian origin has been estimated at 13,500 in Guadeloupe, and 10,000 in Martinique.

To French Colonies.

Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, began to import Indian coolies in 1873; but the number since the first year has never been large, and the total now in Surinam is returned at only 4,156. The Danish Island of St. Croix in the West Indies received an importation of coolies in 1864, of whom 87 are reported to be now settled in the colony.

To Dutch and Danish Colonies

Table I. shows the estimated number of coolie emigrants in the several colonies, according to a report of Mr. George A. Grierson, dated February 1883.

Coolie Emigrant in the Colonies.

I.—ESTIMATED NUMBER OF INDIAN COOLIES in the COLONIES.

BRITISH COLONIES:		
Mauritius	- - - - -	248,000
Demerara	- - - - -	88,000
Trinidad	- - - - -	51,000
Jamaica	- - - - -	11,000
Carried forward	- - -	398,000

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I.—Estimated Number of Indian Coolies in the Colonies—*continued.*

	Brought forward - - -	398,000
British Colonies—<i>continued.</i>		
Grenada - - - - -		1,500
St. Lucia - - - - -		1,000
St. Kitts - - - - -		200
St. Vincent - - - - -		2,000
Nevis - - - - -		300
Natal - - - - -		25,000
Fiji - - - - -		1,400
	TOTAL - - -	429,400
FRENCH COLONIES:		
Réunion - - - - -		45,000
Cayenne - - - - -		4,800
Guadeloupe - - - - -		13,500
Martinique - - - - -		10,000
	TOTAL - - -	72,800
DUTCH COLONIES:		
Surinam - - - - -		4,156
DANISH COLONIES:		
St. Croix - - - - -		87
	GRAND TOTAL - - -	506,443

Between 1842 and 1870 the total number of coolie emigrants from all India amounted to 523,535, of whom 342,375 sailed from Calcutta, 159,259 from Madras, and only 31,761 from Bombay; of the total number, 112,178 returned to India within the period.

Decrease in Colonial Emigration.

Table II. shows the emigration for the ten years 1873-74 to 1882-83. The total is 182,610, of whom 137,651, or 75 per cent., sailed from Calcutta; 20,210, or 11 per cent., from Madras; and 24,749, or 14 per cent., from French ports. Coolie emigration from Bombay has entirely ceased. The fluctuations during the period are considerable, but on the whole the tendency to decrease is marked. The highest figures are shown in the two first years, and the lowest figures in the two years immediately following; but if the first year of the series is compared with the last the decrease is more than one-half.

II.—STATISTICS of EMIGRATION to the COLONIES from all INDIA, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	From Calcutta.	From Madras.	From French Ports.	TOTAL.
1873-74 - - - - -	24,569	2,569	2,105	29,243
1874-75 - - - - -	20,280	1,886	3,209	25,375
1875-76 - - - - -	9,251	204	1,944	11,489
1876-77 - - - - -	7,734	—	2,826	10,560
1877-78 - - - - -	18,488	3,918	2,304	24,710
1878-79 - - - - -	15,865	5,145	1,082	22,092
1879-80 - - - - -	11,236	2,341	3,851	17,428
1880-81 - - - - -	12,185	1,739	2,870	16,794
1881-82 - - - - -	8,517	869	2,023	11,509
1882-83 - - - - -	9,576	1,349	2,585	13,460
TOTAL - - - - -	137,651	20,210	24,749	182,610

An emigration of this sort cannot be considered altogether voluntary, considering the notorious reluctance of the Indian peasant to leave his home and family and to cross the sea, and also his absolute ignorance of the country to which he goes. As a matter of fact, the emigration is mainly stimulated by the persuasion of recruiters, who are employed for the purpose by agents of the colonies interested. The Indian Government has always recognised the duty of exercising a supervision over the intending emigrant, and of inquiring into his treatment after he has reached his destination. This duty is performed partly by internal legislation, and partly by international conventions with the foreign colonies. A series of former enactments regulating the recruiting and embarkation of coolies were embodied in the Indian Emigration Act of 1871. This Act has itself been repealed by an amending Act (XXI. of 1883), but it was in operation during the whole period covered by this Report. Its chief provisions are the following. Emigration is confined to the three ports of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, for each of which ports a Protector of Emigrants is appointed by the Provincial Government. A colony desirous of obtaining coolies must nominate its own emigration agent, to reside at one of these ports, where also a licensed depôt is to be established for emigrants awaiting embarkation. Recruiters are appointed by the colonial emigration agents, but they receive their licenses from the Government Protector of Emigrants. Recruiting without a license is prohibited. Every intending emigrant must be brought by the recruiter before the Magistrate of the District (altered by the Act of 1883 to a special registering officer), whose duty it is to see that he understands his engagement and is willing to fulfil it. The Magistrate then formally registers his name, with other details. It is the duty of the recruiter to convey him to the depôt at the port of embarkation, and to provide him with food and lodging on the journey. While at the depôt the emigrants are under the supervision of a medical inspector appointed by the Government. No emigrant can be compelled to embark; but if he refuses, he is liable to penalties for breach of contract. Except under special circumstances, the proportion of 40 women to 60 men must be maintained among the annual emigrants to each colony. The vessels that carry them are specially licensed, and surveyed on account of the Protector of Emigrants with reference to height between decks, cubic space, and other conditions of health and comfort. In the British colonies special regulations have been enacted by the Colonial Governments regarding the treatment of coolies. Their treatment in foreign colonies is governed by international conventions. The period of indenture is in all cases five years. The French colonies offer a free return passage immediately after the period of indenture is ended; most of the British colonies only after an additional period of five years' free labour. Mauritius gives no return passage. In some colonies the wages are guaranteed to be paid monthly; in others weekly, or daily. In some food is given free; in others at a fixed rate for limited periods. In all a house and garden, with medical attendance, is allowed free of cost.

Colonial Emigration Acts.

In 1882-83 there were five emigration agents at Calcutta, (1) for British Guiana; (2) for Mauritius; (3) for Jamaica, Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Fiji, and Trinidad; (4) for the French colonies; (5) for Surinam. As a matter of fact, no emigrants were asked for by either Grenada, St. Lucia, or St. Vincent; and the only French colony for which emigrants were asked was Guadeloupe. The total number of emigrants requisitioned for the colonies was 16,502 statutory adults; the total number actually embarked was 9,576 souls, equal to 8,927½ statutory adults, the deficiency being 7,609 statutory adults. All the colonies except Guadeloupe fell short of their requisition, while Guadeloupe exceeded hers, as she had also done in the previous year. These figures show that the recent falling off in emigration is not due to a diminished demand in the colonies, but simply to the indisposition of the people to leave their homes. The total number of licenses granted to recruiters was 576, being an increase of 124 on the previous year. The total number of emigrants registered was 13,035, as compared with 11,539 in the previous year. The following table (III.) shows the places of residence of the emigrants registered, which is, of course, not necessarily identical with the place of registration, for a considerable number of coolies from up-country are registered at Calcutta. It will be seen that one-half of the total number of emigrants come from the

Colonial Emigration from Calcutta, 1882-83.

North-West Provinces, and another fifth from Oudh. Between registration and arrival at the Calcutta depôt the total number of emigrants was reduced by casualties, desertions, discharges, &c., from 13,035 to 12,253; while between arrival at Calcutta and embarkation the number was still further reduced to 9,576.

III.—HOMES of EMIGRANT COOLIES Registered for the COLONIES, 1882-83.
(For Embarkation at Calcutta only.)

	Number.	Per Cent.
North-West Provinces - - - -	6,577	51
Oudh - - - - -	2,668	20
Bengal and Behar - - - - -	2,170	17
Punjab - - - - -	528	4
Central India - - - - -	331	2
Madras - - - - -	545	4
Miscellaneous - - - - -	228	2
TOTAL - - - -	13,085	

The following table (IV.) gives a classification of the emigrants who actually embarked in 1882-83, according to religion or caste, with a subdivision into sex. It is noteworthy that Brahmans supplied no less than 21 per cent. of the total, as compared with 28 per cent. for the low castes; and that the proportion of women is highest among Christians and Muhammadans. Of the total number 743 were returned emigrants, who went back in the largest proportions to Demerara, Mauritius, and Trinidad. The total number of emigrants who returned from the colonies in the same year was 3,546, bringing with them savings to the aggregate amount of 56,976 *l.*, or an average of 16 *l.* 1 *s.* each.

IV.—CLASSIFICATION of EMIGRANTS to the COLONIES from CALCUTTA, according to Religion and Caste, 1882-83.

	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.	Percentage of Females.
Hindus:				
Brahmans - - - -	1,466	539	1,995	27
Agriculturists - - - -	1,815	639	2,454	26
Artizans - - - -	336	120	456	26
Low Castes - - - -	1,908	882	2,790	32
Muhammadans - - - -	1,125	721	1,846	39
Christians - - - -	21	14	35	40
TOTAL - - - -	6,661	2,915	9,576	30

The following table (V.) arranges the return emigrants in 1882-83, according to the colonies from which they returned:—

V.—RETURN EMIGRANTS from the COLONIES to CALCUTTA, 1882-83:

	Number.	Savings.	
		TOTAL.	Average.
Demerara - - - -	1,501	£. 35,490	£. s. d. 23 18 -
St. Vincent - - - -	71	688	9 12 -
Jamaica - - - -	442	4,859	16 - -
Natal - - - -	74	885	11 19 -
Mauritius - - - -	1,208	13,639	11 6 -
Réunion - - - -	87	148	4 - -
Guadeloupe - - - -	169	1,000	5 13 -
Martinique - - - -	46	272	5 18 -
TOTAL - - - -	3,546	56,576	16 1 -

Table VI. gives detailed statistics of emigration from Calcutta in 1882-83, according to colonies.

VI.—DETAILED STATISTICS OF EMIGRATION to the COLONIES from CALCUTTA, 1882-83.

	Statute Adults		Number of Souls.				Returned Emigrants.
	Number requisitioned.	Number sent.	Men.	Women.	Children.	TOTAL.	Number.
BRITISH COLONIES:							
Demerara	6,000	2,773½	1,804	661	310	2,984	320
Trinidad	3,000	1,828½	1,256	508	199	1,963	129
Jamaica	575	376	267	99	32	398	9
Natal	2,691	829½	576	230	72	878	48
Fiji	1,000	855½	575	249	98	922	9
Mauritius	1,825	908½	587	273	134	994	200
FRENCH COLONIES:							
Guadeloupe	900	934½	651	261	74	986	13
DUTCH COLONIES:							
Surinam	511	421½	292	117	42	451	15
TOTAL	16,502	8,927½	6,108	2,498	970	9,676	743

Table VII. gives corresponding statistics for each of the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83. As already observed, there has been a large decrease within the period, the two first years showing the highest figures. The decrease in the two last years, taken together, as compared with the two first years taken together, is considerably over a-half. The emigration to the West Indies, both British and French, has been fairly steady, but the diminution in the numbers sent to Mauritius and Demerara is very marked.

Colonial Emigration from Calcutta, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

VII.—COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF EMIGRATION to the COLONIES from CALCUTTA, 1873-74 to 1882-83.

	British Colonies.					French Colonies.		Dutch Colonies.	TOTAL.
	Mauritius.	Natal.	Demerara.	West Indies.	Fiji.	Cayenne.	Guadeloupe.	Surinam.	
1873-74	5,387	-	8,497	3,944	-	1,427	1,791	3,523	24,569
1874-75	4,914	6,025	3,942	4,140	-	-	1,309	-	20,230
1875-76	739	893	3,849	2,420	-	-	1,850	-	9,251
1876-77	1,027	761	3,992	1,601	-	-	353	-	7,734
1877-78	2,335	1,092	8,268	4,087	-	-	2,361	324	16,466
1878-79	1,220	1,734	6,520	3,018	498	-	2,166	709	15,865
1879-80	539	-	4,496	4,196	-	-	1,685	390	11,236
1880-81	235	960	4,416	4,176	-	-	1,413	965	12,185
1881-82	-	1,260	3,168	2,591	-	-	1,002	496	8,517
1882-83	994	878	2,984	2,361	929	-	986	451	9,570
TOTAL	17,391	13,133	50,152	32,534	1,420	1,427	14,816	6,788	137,051

From Madras the great tide of emigration, from time immemorial, has always been directed to the neighbouring island of Ceylon, where there is a very large resident Tamil population. This resident population in Ceylon is augmented every

Emigration from Madras.

every year by numbers of coolies, who cross over from the Districts of Madura and Tinnevely to work on the coffee plantations. Most of them return with their wages, but a certain proportion settle permanently in the island. During the ten years, 1862 to 1871, the total number of emigrants to Ceylon amounted to 706,763; while the total number of immigrants from Ceylon was 540,519, showing an excess emigration of 166,154, or an average of 16,615 a-year. Emigration from Madras to Ceylon is entirely free, except as regards local legislation in Ceylon. Next in importance comes the emigration to Burma, which is carried on entirely from the Telugu country, and also dates back from very early times. According to the Census of 1881, 77,430 persons born in Madras were enumerated in British Burma. This emigration, like that to Ceylon, is rather a temporary movement of labour than deliberate colonisation; but a certain proportion of the Madras immigrants settle permanently in Burma. Emigration from Madras to Burma is regulated by a special enactment (Act III. of 1876), and Coconada is the only port at which emigrants are allowed to embark. A similar but smaller current of emigration sets towards the Straits Settlements. It is likewise regulated by a special enactment (Act V. of 1877), and Negapatam is the only port at which embarkation is permitted. Emigration from Madras to the colonies under the Emigration Act is comparatively small, and shows no tendency to increase. During the ten years, 1862-1871, the total number of emigrants to the colonies from Madras ports was 55,574, or an average of 5,557 a-year. During the same period the total number of returned emigrants was 8,884. By force of a convention with the French Government emigrants may embark not only at the Port of Madras, but also at the two French ports of Pondicherry and Karikal, where the British Consular Agents act as Protectors of Emigrants, to see that the Provisions of the Emigration Act are carried out. During the ten years, 1873-74 to 1882-83, the total number of emigrants from the Port of Madras was 20,210, of whom 10,969 went to Mauritius, 9,010 to Natal, and 231 to Demerara; and the total number from French ports was 24,749, of whom 11,479 went to Réunion, 3,515 to Cayenne, and 9,755 to the French West Indies. The grand total, therefore, was 44,969, or an average of 4,496 a-year, as compared with an average of 5,557 for the previous ten years at Madras, and an average of 13,700 for the same ten years at Calcutta.

Table VIII. gives detailed statistics of emigration from Madras in the six years, 1875-76, 1877-78, and 1879-80 to 1881-82. The first of these may be taken as a normal year; the second was a year of famine, which explains the unusually large figure for Ceylon. Since that time coffee plantation has suffered from a severe and continuous depression; and the emigration to Ceylon has fallen off to little more than one-half of its former amount. The large increase in the number of emigrants to Burma in 1881-82 is accounted for by a bounty paid by the Government of British Burma to the vessels that carried emigrants from Coconada.

VIII.—DETAILED STATISTICS OF EMIGRATION FROM MADRAS, 1875-76, 1877-78, and 1879-80 to 1882-83.

	1875-76.	1877-78.	1879-80.	1880-81.	1881-82.	1882-83.
Ceylon - - - -	87,509	99,146	63,844	43,292	46,694	45,045
British Burma - - -	3,118	7,337	10,377	6,682	8,020	22,188
Mauritius and Réunion - - -	2,507	3,697	6,546	3,102	990	2,698
Straits Settlements - - -	-	-	-	-	1,074	1,759
Natal - - - -	-	-	-	-	1,763	1,358
British West Indies - - -	908	105	3,147	2,733	640	790
French West Indies - - -	-	-	-	-	858	932
Demerara - - - -	-	-	-	-	586	261
Assam - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	208
Other Places - - - -	4,216	6,863	4,970	5,284	-	6
TOTAL - - - -	98,258	117,148	88,380	61,183	59,945	74,991

Emigration and
Immigration in
Madras.

Table IX. gives statistics of emigration and immigration in Madras for each of the eight years, 1875-76 to 1882-83. As already mentioned, the first of these

these was a normal year, and the number of emigrants exceeded the number of immigrants by 16,205. The two following years were both years of famine, and the excess emigration rose to an average for the two years of 91,804. It seems probable that the year 1877-78, with an excess emigration of 28,302, still shows the influence of the famine. The three next years were marked by the depression of coffee planting in Ceylon, and also by a recovery from the famine in Madras; and the result is that the immigrants exceeded the emigrants by an average of 6,442 for the three years. In 1881-82 the balance was turned again in favour of emigration by the bounty given by the Burmese Government.

IX.—STATISTICS of EMIGRATION and IMMIGRATION in MADRAS, 1875-76 to 1882-83.

	Emigrants.	Immigrants.	Excess of Emigrants.	Excess of Immigrants.
1875-76	98,258	82,053	16,205	—
1876-77	107,979	91,145	100,834	—
1877-78	109,089	92,817	76,772	—
1878-79	117,148	88,846	28,302	—
1879-80	88,386	89,572	-	1,186
1880-81	61,183	74,065	-	12,882
1881-82	69,945	64,603	-	4,658
1882-83	74,991	62,520	12,462	—
TOTAL	866,979	643,730	221,249	—

British Burma affords the largest field for immigration in India. According to the Census of 1881, out of a total population of 3,195,028, no less than 541,737, or 14.50 per cent., had been born outside the Province, while only 3,107 natives of British Burma were enumerated in other Provinces. Of the total immigrants, 334,737, or 62 per cent., had come from Upper Burma, including about 19,000 from the Shan States; 102,861, or 19 per cent., from Bengal; 74,430, or 14 per cent., from Madras; and 11,314 from China. The striking feature in this immigration is the excessive predominance of men over women. Of the total number, 378,181, or 68 per cent., were men; the proportion among those from Upper Burma being 63 per cent., among those from Bengal 78 per cent., among those from Madras 84 per cent., and among those from China 92 per cent. These figures show to how great an extent the immigration consists of labourers who are tempted into the Province by the high rate of wages at harvest time and during the export season, and also on public works.

Immigration into British Burma.

In 1882-83, the total immigration into Burma from Indian ports was 72,294, as compared with 39,499 in 1881-82, and 36,867 in 1880-81. The large increase of nearly twofold in the last year compared with the first is due to a bounty of 3s. per head for deck passengers from Calcutta, and 5s. per head for deck passengers from Madras, given by the Government to the steamship companies. During the sixteen months ending 30th. September 1883, the total amount paid on this account was 19,549 l.

Table X. shows the total immigration and emigration for British Burma in 1882-83, sub-divided into seaborne and landward. In that year the net excess of immigrants by both routes amounted to 24,220 persons.

X.—IMMIGRATION and EMIGRATION in BRITISH BURMA, 1882-83.

	Immigrants.	Emigrants.	Excess of Immigrants.	Excess of Emigrants.
Seaborne	72,294	36,940	35,354	—
Landward	8,171	19,305	-	11,134
TOTAL	80,465	56,245	24,220	—

Immigration into Assam.

Assam has a peculiar immigration of its own, arising from the tea industry, about which we are able to gain information from three sources: (1) the census; (2) returns furnished by the tea planters; (3) the working of the Inland Immigration Act.

The Census of 1881.

According to the census of 1881, out of a total population of 4,600,716, 280,602, or 5.75 per cent., had been born outside the Province; while 41,038 natives of Assam were enumerated in other Provinces, almost all in Bengal. Of the total immigrants, 221,256, or 79 per cent., had come from Bengal; 48,802, or 17 per cent., from the North-West Provinces; and 6,395 from Nepal. Here, again, the inequality of the sexes proves the character of the immigration. Of the total number, 163,724, or 59 per cent., were men; the proportion among those from Bengal being 58 per cent., among those from the North-West Provinces 60 per cent., and among those from Nepal 65 per cent.

The Returns of the Tea Planters.

The returns furnished by the tea planters, though still far from complete, tend to become less unsatisfactory year by year. At the end of 1883, the total "labour force" employed on all the tea plantations in the Province, comprising men, women, and children, was returned at 237,404, being an increase of 27,218, or 12.9 per cent., on the previous year. The numbers for the Surma Valley and the Brahmaputra Valley, as well as for each District separately, are shown in the following table (XI.) The total includes natives of Assam as well as immigrants. What proportion the former bear to the latter in the general total does not appear; but among adult males only, the natives of Assam number 7,073, or 7.8 per cent.

XI.—STATISTICS of LABOUR FORCE in ASSAM, 1883.
(According to Returns of Tea Planters).

	Number of Labourers.	Increase per Cent. on 1882.
Surma Valley:		
Sylhet - - - - -	36,077	31.2
Cachar - - - - -	73,568	8.0
TOTAL - - -	109,645	14.7
Brahmaputra Valley:		
Lakhimpur - - - - -	40,703	9.6
Sibsagar - - - - -	56,579	12.9
Nowgong - - - - -	8,718	20.4
Darrang - - - - -	19,929	9.1
Kamrup - - - - -	1,835	—
TOTAL - - -	127,759	11.6
GRAND TOTAL - - -	237,404	12.9

Table XII. shows the nationality of all the adult males in the total "labour force" in 1883:—

XII.—NATIONALITY of LABOUR FORCE in ASSAM, 1883.
(According to Returns of Tea Planters).

	Number (Adult Males)	Per Cent.
Bengal - - - - -	22,450	25.0
North-West Provinces, Oudh, and Behar.	20,057	22.2
Chutia Nagpur - - - - -	30,417	13.7
Nepal - - - - -	269	.3
Madras - - - - -	774	.8
Bombay - - - - -	236	.2
Assam - - - - -	7,073	7.8
TOTAL - - -	90,272	—

Table XIII. classifies the total "labour force" according as they are adults working under the Inland Immigration Act, adults not working under the Act, or children.

XIII.—CLASSIFICATION OF LABOUR FORCE in ASSAM, 1883.
(According to Returns of Tea Planters.)

	—	Per Cent.
Under Act:		
Male Adults - - - -	40,116	16.9
Female Adults - - - -	27,083	11.4
TOTAL - - -	67,199	28.3
Not under Act:		
Male Adults - - - -	50,156	21.1
Female Adults - - - -	40,267	17.0
TOTAL - - -	90,423	38.1
Children - - - -	79,782	33.6
GRAND TOTAL, - - -	237,404	—

The returns of the tea planters also supply information with regard to the fresh immigrants every year. In 1883, the number was 32,138, being an increase of 42.5 per cent. on the previous year. Details are given in table XIV. It is estimated that about 6,000 immigrants are omitted from these returns, thus raising the total immigration into Assam in 1883 to about 38,000.

XIV.—STATISTICS of LABOUR IMMIGRATION into ASSAM, 1883.
(According to Returns of Tea Planters.)

	Through Garden <i>Sardars.</i>	Through Contractors.	TOTAL.	Increase or Decrease per Cent. on 1882.
Surma Valley:				
Adults under Act - - - -	3,363	3,535	6,897	+ 48.8
Adults not under Act - - - -	-	-	4,642	+ 161.7
Children - - - -	-	-	2,297	+ 165.3
TOTAL - - -			13,836	+ 87.0
Brahmaputra Valley:				
Adults under Act - - - -	7,443	6,446	13,889	+ 16.0
Adults not under Act - - - -	-	-	962	- 15.5
Children - - - -	-	-	3,451	-
TOTAL - - -			18,302	+ 21.0
GRAND TOTAL - - -			32,138	+ 42.5

The same reasons that have induced the Government to impose restrictions upon emigration to the colonies operate with almost equal force in the case of emigration to Assam, with this additional circumstance, that in Assam supervision is also required after the emigrant has reached his destination. Between 1863 and 1873, four Acts on the subject were passed by the Legislative Council of Bengal, all of which have now been repealed in an amending Act of the Council of the Governor General of India in 1882. The first Act (III. of 1863) was confined to regulations for the transport of intending emigrants; the second Act (VII. of 1865), provided for the protection of the emigrants after their arrival in Assam, and for the enforcement of contracts entered into by them:

Act II. of 1870 was a consolidating and amended Act, which repealed the two previous ones. It was in its turn repealed by Act VII. of 1873, which was the labour law of Assam for nine years. It permitted emigration by three methods (1) entirely free emigration, which had been prohibited by the Act of 1870; (2) by contractors, licensed by the Government within which they carried on their operations; (3) by garden *sardars*, appointed by agents of the tea planters, and certificated by the Government. It was alleged to be defective in not affording sufficient encouragement to free emigration, in imposing unnecessary restrictions upon *sardari* recruiting, and in failing to provide for the enforcement of contracts not made under the Act. These defects, with other minor ones, were considered by a Commission appointed in 1880; and the result of their conclusions is embodied in the recent Act (I. of 1882).

Emigration to Assam now takes one of four different forms: (1) the labourer may proceed to the tea districts as a free immigrant, and may there take work on an ordinary contract outside the Act; (2) after going as a free labourer, he may on arrival enter into a contract under the Act; (3) he may have been recruited by a garden *sardar*; and (4) he may have been recruited by a license contractor. In both of these last cases he is subject to the provisions of the Act from first to last. The free immigrant comes under the provisions of the Act regarding transport if he embarks on board a licensed vessel; and every vessel carrying more than 20 passengers must be licensed. The process of recruiting by garden *sardars* and by contractors is substantially the same. In both cases the intending immigrant must be registered before a registering officer specially appointed for the purpose. In the case of recruitment by a garden *sardar* medical examination is optional; in the case of recruitment by a contractor, it is compulsory. Both garden *sardars* and contractors are bound to provide food and lodging during the journey for the emigrant, and also for his dependents. The contractor must first take his emigrants to a licensed depôt, where they are again medically examined, and where the labour contract is executed by the emigrants after having been first explained to them by the Superintendent of Emigration. The actual journey to Assam is always made by water, up the Brahmaputra Valley by steamer, and by the Surma Valley by native boat. The vessels must be licensed, and repeatedly inspected. The term of the contract may not exceed five years (increased from three years in the former Act); and the wages stipulated for may not be less than 10 s. per month in the case of men and 8 s. per month in the case of women. The price at which food is to be supplied must also be mentioned. The tea planter is bound to provide houses and other accommodation, together with medical attendance. Every garden where labourers imported under the Act are employed must be inspected by an Inspector or Deputy Inspector of Labourers at least once every year; and if the rate of mortality during previous year is found to exceed 7 per cent., it must likewise be inspected by the Civil Surgeon. Desertion is punished summarily by fine and imprisonment. Planters are required to keep registers, and submit returns of the entire "labour force" employed by them, whether on contract under the Act or not. An annual capitation fee is levied from the planters for each labourer employed by them under the Act, which with certain other fees, fines &c., forms an Inland Labour Transport Fund, to be applied to defraying the expenses of carrying out the Act. This capitation fee, which was formerly 3 s. has now been reduced to 1 s. In Assam, the total income of the fund amounted in 1882-83 to 4,028 l., of which the capitation fee yielded 3,425 l.; the total expenditure was 2,368 l.

Contractors for
Emigration to
Assam.

The recruiting agency in Bengal and the North-West Provinces consists of contractors and garden *sardars*. In 1883 the number of contractors at work was six; the number of the recruiters employed by them and licensed by Government was 473, being 62 less than in the previous year; the number of labourers registered by them for emigration was 9,876. The licensed depôts to which contractors' emigrants must be taken before the actual journey to Assam begins are either in the suburbs of Calcutta, or at Goalanda, a railway terminus where the river routes start both for the Brahmaputra and the Surma Valley. Of the total number of contractors' emigrants registered in 1883, 7,540 were taken to the depôts at Calcutta, and 2,336 to Goalanda. The total number registered was increased from 9,870 to 10,176 by the addition of those already in the depôts at the beginning of the year; but it was decreased to 6,279 by the deduction of those who were discharged or rejected, or who deserted or died, or who were left in the depôts at the end of the year.

The following table (XV.) gives an analysis of the contractors' emigrants in 1883, from their registration to their arrival at their destination, with the corresponding figures for the previous year.

XV.—STATISTICS OF EMIGRANTS TO ASSAM, 1882-83.
(Through Contractors only).

	Registered.	Additions.	Total.	Deductions.	Per Cent.	Arrived at Destination.	Remained at Depôts.
1882	7,396	158	8,153	1,604	19.67	6,279	270
1883	9,876	300	10,176	1,991	19.56	7,775	140

Table XVI. classifies the contractors' emigrants in 1883 according to the route followed. The total differs from the total in table XV., because it includes all who embarked for Assam, not only those who reached their destination.

XVI.—ROUTES AND DESTINATION OF EMIGRANTS TO ASSAM, 1883.
(Through Contractors only.)

By Steamer:		
From Goalunda to Brahmaputra Valley	- -	3,860
By Country Boat:		
From Calcutta to Cachar	- - - -	1,569
From Goalunda to Cachar	- - - -	235
From Calcutta to Sylhet	- - - -	1,080
From Goalunda to Sylhet	- - - -	1,653
TOTAL		4,537
GRAND TOTAL		7,897

The total number of garden *sardars* who received certificates to recruit in 1883 was 2,897, being an increase of 568 on the previous year; the number of labourers registered by them for emigration *via* Goalunda and Kushtia was 5,291, exclusive of 6,769 emigrants likewise recruited by garden *sardars* who went to Assam *via* Dhubri. Emigration to Assam through Garden Sardars.

The following table (XVII.) shows the number of emigrants registered for Assam in each of the three years 1881 to 1883, whether recruited by contractors or garden *sardars*, but exclusive of those recruited by garden *sardars* who went *via* Dhubri. The total has increased from 8,794 to 15,167, while the proportion that *sardars'* coolies bear to contractors' coolies has risen from 37.0 to 54.6 per cent.

XVII.—STATISTICS OF EMIGRANTS REGISTERED FOR ASSAM, 1881, 1882, 1883.

	Through Contractors.	Through Garden Sardars.	Total.	Proportion of Sardars' to Contractors' Coolies, per Cent.
1881	6,415	2,379	8,794	37.0
1882	7,995	2,907	10,902	36.3
1883	9,876	5,291	15,167	54.6

Emigration to
I. Assam *via* Dhubri.
A

To complete the statistics of emigration to Assam, it is necessary to include those who proceeded *via* Dhubri, where the land route through Northern Bengal reaches the Brahmaputra. The total number of labourers who entered Assam by this route in 1883 was 18,685, of whom 6,769 were registered garden *sardars'* coolies, 9,389 were free emigrants who were put on local contracts at Dhubri, and 707 travelled all the way to their destination as free emigrants.

T
Immigrant Popu-
lation of India.

The general Census of all India, which was taken on 17th February 1881, included schedules of birthplace, from which it is possible to draw some interesting conclusions with regard to the internal movement of the population. The total number of persons enumerated was 253,941,309; but no information as to birthplace is available for the Madras Native States of Cochin and Travancore, the settlement of Aden, and the Andaman Islands. Deducting these, the number of persons remaining is 250,890,385. Of this total, 241,108,308 persons, or 96·10 per cent., were born within the Province or State where enumerated; 6,226,626 persons, or 2·48 per cent., were born outside the Province or State where enumerated, and may therefore be regarded as immigrants; while of 3,555,451 persons, or 1·42 per cent., the birthplace was not ascertained. Almost the whole of the persons of unspecified birthplace are found in the Native States of Rajputana or the Provinces of Madras and Bengal; in no other Province or State does the total number exceed 20,000. Table XIX. shows the total population of India according to birthplace, sub-divided into the Provinces and States of the census classification.

XIX.—POPULATION of INDIA according to BIRTHPLACE, 1881.
(Excluding Aden and the Andaman Islands.)

	Total enu- merated in Province or State.	Birthplace within Province or State where enumerated.	Per Cent.	Birthplace out of Province or State where enumerated.	Per Cent.	Birthplace unspecified.	Per Cent.
Ajmere - - -	460,722	343,590	74·57	117,052	25·41	80	·02
Assam - - -	4,881,456	4,600,716	94·25	280,602	5·75	108	—
Bengal - - -	69,536,661	68,740,024	98·86	593,292	·86	197,465	·28
Berar - - -	2,072,673	2,236,740	88·69	435,029	16·31	4	—
Bombay - - -	16,454,414	15,893,628	96·60	541,028	3·29	18,858	·11
Bombay Native States -	6,941,249	6,810,524	98·26	101,652	1·46	19,643	·28
British Burma - - -	3,736,771	3,195,028	85·50	541,737	14·15	6	—
Central Provinces - -	11,548,511	10,998,395	95·24	549,916	4·76	—	—
Coorg - - -	178,302	103,437	58·01	74,865	41·69	—	—
Madras* - - -	31,170,631	29,957,230	96·11	42,034	·77	971,367	3·12
North - West Provinces and Oudh - - -	44,849,619	44,046,940	98·21	704,346	1·77	8,333	·02
Punjab - - -	22,712,120	21,933,752	96·57	708,692	3·39	9,676	·04
Baroda - - -	2,185,005	1,881,405	86·11	303,653	13·84	647	·05
Central India - - -	9,261,907	8,778,004	94·78	483,635	5·22	308	—
Hyderabad - - -	9,845,594	9,623,067	97·74	222,526	2·26	1	—
Mysore - - -	4,166,188	4,111,711	95·83	174,368	4·17	111	—
Rajputana - - -	10,268,392	7,938,367	77·20	1,501	·02	2,328,524	22·67
TOTAL - -	250,890,385	241,108,308	96·10	6,226,626	2·49	3,555,451	1·42

* Excluding the Native States of Cochin and Travancore.

Proportion of
Immigrants.

Of the total immigrants, or persons whose birthplace was outside the Province or State where enumerated, it is rather surprising to find the largest number in the North-West Provinces and Oudh; then follow in order the Punjab, Bengal, the Central Provinces, Bombay, British Burma, the Native States of Central India, and Berar. But, of course, the true test is not the actual number of immigrants, but the proportion that the immigrants bear to the

the total population. This test supplies a very different order. First comes Coorg, where no less than 41.99 per cent. of the total population are immigrants, chiefly coolies engaged on the coffee plantations. Ajmere comes next, with 25.41 per cent., which represents the recovery in population after the famine of 1868-69. Then follow Berar, with 16.31 per cent.; British Burma, with 14.50 per cent.; and Baroda, with 13.84 per cent. Excluding Rajputana, the two last on the list are Bengal, where only .86 per cent. of the total inhabitants were born outside of the Province, and Madras with .77 per cent. In Madras, however, the large proportion of those whose birthplace was not ascertained seriously affects the calculation.

Table XX. gives a classification of the total number of immigrants, or those born outside the Province or State where enumerated, arranged according to their birthplace. The first entry of those born in another Province or State to which enumeration by birthplace extended will be explained in a subsequent paragraph. The comparatively large immigration from Upper Burma, from Nepal, from Afghanistan, and from Kashmir is noteworthy. The total number of Europeans in all India, even if Americans and Australians be included, amounts to less than 100,000, of whom about 64,000 are officers and soldiers.

Birthplace of Immigrants.

XX.—CLASSIFICATION according to Birthplace of POPULATION not born within PROVINCE or STATE where ENUMERATED, 1881.

INDIA	Other Province or State to which Enumeration by Birthplace extended	5,212,768
	Cochin	317
	Travancore	110
	Kashmir	114,938
	French Possessions	24,874
	Portuguese Possessions	50,266
	India, unspecified	19,715
	TOTAL	5,422,988
ASIA	Upper Burma	334,830
	Nepal	134,342
	Afghanistan	125,108
	Beluchistan	60,815
	Arabia	13,858
	China	12,723
	Other Countries	21,757
TOTAL	702,440	
EUROPE	United Kingdom	89,015
	Other Countries	6,400
	TOTAL	95,415
AFRICA		3,861
AMERICA		1,555
AUSTRALASIA		307
GRAND TOTAL		6,206,028

362 STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

Emigrant Population of India.

Table XXI. is intended to show the extent of emigration from each Province or State, so far as the materials allow. The first column, which is formed by adding together the other two columns of figures, gives the total number of persons born within each Province or State, composed of those who were enumerated there and those who were enumerated outside, and excluding those whose birthplace was not ascertained. The second column, which is repeated from table XIX., gives the number of persons born within the Province or State, and enumerated there, who may be regarded as the stay-at-home population; the third column of figures gives the number born within the Province or State, but enumerated outside, who may be called emigrants. The emigrants, as thus defined, are identical with those described in table XIX. as born in another Province or State to which enumeration by birthplace extended. Their total number is less than the total number of immigrants in table XIX. by the exclusion of those immigrants whose birthplace, as shown in table XIX., is either outside India altogether, or at least outside those Provinces and States to which enumeration by birthplace extended.

XXI.—POPULATION of INDIA BORN within PROVINCE or STATE to which Enumeration by BIRTHPLACE extended, 1881.

(Excluding Aden and the Andaman Islands.)

	Total Born within Province or State.	Enumerated within Province or State.	Per Cent.	Enumerated outside Province or State.	Per Cent.
Ajmere - - - - -	844,341	343,590	99.78	751	.29
Assam - - - - -	4,641,754	4,600,716	99.12	41,038	.88
Bengal - - - - -	69,370,834	68,746,084	99.10	624,750	.90
Berar - - - - -	2,209,931	2,236,740	97.95	63,191	2.25
Bombay - - - - -	23,301,623	22,713,582	97.48	587,041	2.52
British Burma - - - - -	3,198,135	3,193,028	99.90	3,107	.10
Central Provinces - - - - -	11,373,000	10,908,505	95.70	374,495	3.30
Coorg - - - - -	104,790	103,487	98.71	1,303	1.29
Madras* - - - - -	30,346,843	29,957,230	98.71	389,613	1.29
North-West Provinces and Oudh -	45,184,152	44,046,940	97.59	1,087,212	2.41
Punjab - - - - -	22,136,312	21,933,752	99.09	202,560	.91
Baroda - - - - -	1,884,977	1,881,405	99.84	2,972	.16
Central India - - - - -	9,241,932	8,778,064	94.00	463,208	5.01
Hyderabad - - - - -	10,026,970	9,623,067	95.97	403,003	4.03
Mysore - - - - -	4,180,638	4,011,711	95.73	178,927	4.27
Rajputana - - - - -	8,727,144	7,938,367	90.96	788,777	9.04
TOTAL - - - - -	246,321,076	241,108,368	97.89	5,212,768	2.11

* Excluding the Native States of Cochin and Travancore.

Proportion of Emigrants according to Provinces.

As shown in this table, the total number of persons of ascertained birthplace, and born within a Province or State to which enumeration by birthplace extended, amounted for all India to 246,321,076. Of this total, 241,108,308, or 97·89 per cent., lived within the Province or State where born; and 5,212,768, or 2·11 per cent., lived outside, or (in other words) were emigrants from their native Province or State. In actual number of emigrants, as well as in actual number of immigrants, the North-West Provinces and Oudh stand first, followed by Rajputana, Bengal, Bombay, Central India, Hyderabad, Madras, and the Central Provinces. But when we take, not the actual number of emigrants, but the proportion they bear to the total population born within the Province or State, a very different order is shown. Excluding Baroda, which has an exceptionally small number of emigrants, the other Native States form a group by themselves, in all of which the emigration is considerably higher than in any British Province. First stands Rajputana, where no less than 9·04 per cent. of the total native born population are emigrants; then come the States of Central India, with 5·01 per cent.; followed by Mysore, with 4·27 per cent.; and Hyderabad, with 4·03 per cent. Among British Provinces, it is somewhat surprising to find the Central Provinces stand first, with 3·30 per cent. of emigrants out of the total native born population. As in the case of the North-West Provinces, it would seem that emigration and immigration go together. Where many people are induced to enter a country from outside, many people are also induced to leave it. Next come Bombay, the North-West Provinces, and Berar, with a proportion of emigrants ranging from 2·52 to 2·25 per cent.; then Madras and Coorg, in each of which the proportion is 1·29 per cent.; then Bengal, the Punjab, and Assam, where the proportion ranges from ·91 to ·88 per cent.; Ajmere, with ·22 per cent.; Baroda, with ·16 per cent.; and lastly, British Burma, with only ·10 per cent.

In Bengal the total number of immigrants amounts to 598,292, and the total number of emigrants to 624,750, showing an excess of 31,458 emigrants. If those of unspecified birthplace could be included, it is probable that this apparent excess would be turned the other way. In the case of both immigrants and emigrants, curious differences show themselves in respect of sex. Bengal receives from the North-West Provinces and Oudh 214,907 men, but only 137,786 women; from the Central Provinces, 22,716 men, but only 17,770 women; from Madras, 12,041 men, but only 9,460 women; from Rajputana, 6,689 men, and only 2,175 women; from Nepal, 44,965 men, and 40,046 women. On the other hand, Bengal sends to the North-West Provinces 76,971 men, and as many as 136,742 women; to Assam, 126,856 men, but only 94,400 women; and to British Burma, 79,746 men, but only 23,115 women. The balance of migration between Bengal and the North-West Provinces shows that Bengal receives 137,937 men, and only 1,044 women.

Bengal.

Assam has 280,602 immigrants and 41,038 emigrants, showing an excess of 239,564 immigrants. Of the total number of immigrants, 221,256 come from Bengal, and 48,802 from the North-West Provinces. Of the total number of emigrants, as many as 40,807 go to Bengal.

Assam.

For the North-West Provinces, the figures both of immigration and emigration are comparatively large. The immigrants number 794,346, and the emigrants 1,087,212, showing an excess of 292,846 emigrants. To Bengal alone the excess of emigrants is 138,980; to the Punjab, 119,898; and to the Central Provinces, 93,277. The emigrants to the Native States of Central India number 204,898, while the immigrants from Central India number 202,565, thus almost exactly balancing each other. The immigrants from Rajputana number 127,479; and from Nepal, 34,490.

North-West Provinces and Oudh.

In the Punjab the immigrants number 768,692, and the emigrants 202,560, showing the large excess of 566,132 immigrants. Of the total immigrants, 261,436 come from the North-West Provinces; 233,542 from Rajputana; 113,657 from Kashmir; and 112,712 from Afghanistan. Of the total number of emigrants, 141,548 are to be found in the North-West Provinces, and 35,379 in Bombay.

Punjab.

The Central Provinces, like the North-West Provinces, show comparatively large figures for both immigration and emigration. The immigrants number 549,916, and the emigrants 374,405, giving an excess of 175,511 immigrants. Of the total number of immigrants, the Native States of Central India send 214,211; the North-West Provinces, 122,638; Berar, 52,311; and Bengal,

Central Provinces.

51,709. Of the total number of emigrants, as many as 185,142 are to be found in Berar, and 78,258 in Central India. On the balance, the Central Provinces receive 135,953 immigrants from Central India, and 93,277 from the North-West Provinces; but send 153,831 emigrants to Berar.

British Burma.

Into British Burma the net immigration is 538,630, the gross number of immigrants being 541,737, from which 3,107 emigrants have to be deducted. Of the total, 334,737 come from Upper Burma, including the Shan States, of whom 209,763 are men, and only 124,974 are women; 102,861 from Bengal, of whom 79,746 are men, and only 23,115 women; and 74,430 from Madras, of whom 62,348 are men, and only 12,082 women. The Chinese in British Burma number 11,314, of whom 10,449 are men and only 865 women, out of a total of 12,723 Chinese in all India.

Madras.

In Madras, the figures are affected by the large proportion of persons of unspecified birthplace, of whom, doubtless, many were, in fact, born outside the Province. But so far as the figures go, the immigrants number 242,034, and the emigrants 388,613, showing an excess of 146,579 emigrants. Of the total number of emigrants, 140,025 are found in Mysore; 77,430 in Burma; 55,282 in Hyderabad; 35,568 in Bombay; 28,419 in the Central Provinces; 24,895 in Coorg; and 21,501 in Bengal. In addition, about 250,000 persons born in Madras were enumerated in Ceylon. Of the total number of immigrants, 112,533 come from Mysore; 62,013 from Hyderabad; and 24,023 from the French Settlement of Pondicherry. On the balance, Madras sends 27,502 emigrants to Mysore, and receives 6,731 immigrants from Hyderabad.

Bombay.

Taking together Bombay and its connected Native States, the immigrants number 643,580, and the emigrants 587,941, showing an excess of 55,639 immigrants. Of the total number of immigrants, 172,171 come from Hyderabad; 123,782 from Rajputana; 58,665 from Beluchistan; 47,714 from the Portuguese Settlements; 40,151 from the North-West Provinces; 35,379 from the Punjab; and 35,568 from Madras. Of the total number of emigrants 277,487 are to be found in Baroda; 108,180 in Hyderabad; 77,481 in Berar; and 45,566 in Central India.

Ajmere.

Ajmere has 117,052 immigrants, and only 751 emigrants, showing a net immigration of 116,301. Of this total, 99,762 came from Rajputana, and 10,287 from the North-West Provinces.

Coorg.

Coorg has 74,865 immigrants, and only 1,353 emigrants, showing a net immigration of 73,512. Of this total, 48,688 came from Mysore, and 24,895 from Madras.

Berar.

Berar has 435,929 immigrants, and only 63,191 emigrants, showing a net immigration of 372,738. Of this total, 185,142 came from the Central Provinces, 130,505 from Hyderabad, and 77,481 from Bombay.

Baroda.

Baroda has 302,653 immigrants, and only 2,972 emigrants, showing a net immigration of 299,681. Of this total, 277,487 come from Bombay, British territory not being distinguished from Native States. If net immigration be a test of prosperity, Baroda may claim to rank with Berar as the countries most sought after by immigrants in all India. The circumstances of Ajmere and Coorg, and also of British Burma, to some extent, are exceptional.

Central India.

In the Native States of Central India, which extend across India from the frontier of Bombay almost to the frontier of Bengal, all conditions of soil and climate are to be found. Taking all the States together, the immigrants number 483,535, and the emigrants 463,268, showing a slight excess of 20,267 immigrants. Nearly one-half of the migration is with the North-West Provinces, which almost exactly balances on each side. To the Central Provinces Central India sends 135,953 more than it receives, while from Rajputana it receives 137,744 without (apparently) sending any, and from Bombay it receives 14,975 more than it sends.

Hyderabad.

Hyderabad, or the Nizam's Dominions, has 222,526 immigrants and 403,903 emigrants, showing an excess emigration of 181,377. Of the total number of emigrants, 182,171 are found in Bombay, 130,505 in Berar, and 62,013 in Madras. Of the immigrants, 108,130 come from Bombay, and 55,282 from Madras; while there are also 5,654 Arabs, out of a total of 13,358 Arabs in all India.

In Mysore, the immigrants number 174,366, and the emigrants 178,927, Mysore. showing a slight excess of 4,561 emigrants. The migration is practically confined to Madras, Coorg, and Bombay. From Madras Mysore receives 27,492 more emigrants than she sends, and from Bombay 7,121 more than she sends; while to Coorg she sends 48,026 more than she receives.

The several Native States of Rajputana, extending from Bombay to the Rajputana. Punjab, show a very large emigration in all directions. The figures for immigration, amounting to only 1,501, are vitiated by the great proportion of persons whose birthplace is unspecified. Of the total number of emigrants (amounting to 788,777), 233,542 are found in the Punjab, 137,744 in Central India, 127,479 in the North-West Provinces, 123,782 in Bombay, and 99,762 in Ajmere. As in Ajmere, though in the converse way, it is probable that these figures show the results of the great famine of 1868-69. It has been estimated that two-thirds of the entire population of Marwar emigrated at that time. Inhabitants, though not the same inhabitants, have returned to Ajmere; while the emigrants from Rajputana still remain where they settled.

JAS. S. COTTON.

EAST INDIA (PROGRESS AND CONDITION).

STATEMENT

EXHIBITING THE

MORAL AND MATERIAL PROGRESS AND CONDITION

OF

INDIA

DURING THE YEAR 1882-83.

NINETEENTH NUMBER.

PART II.

(PRESENTED PURSUANT TO ACT OF PARLIAMENT.)

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PART II.

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* THE TWELVE MAPS prepared by TRELAWNY SAUNDERS, Esq.

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J. A. GODLEY,
Under Secretary of State for India.

A P P E N D I X.

A G R I C U L T U R E.

STATEMENT on AGRICULTURE and AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION, by
J. A. Baines, Esq., Bombay Civil Service.

The Agricultural Population.—The census of 1881 showed nearly 70 millions of people in all India directly engaged in agriculture. To these must be added the large class of village artisans and professional men, who nearly all depend in great measure for subsistence upon the land they hold in supplement of their special occupations. Again, the families of the above, returned at the census as unemployed must also be taken into consideration, so that, on the whole, the proportion of the agricultural population is estimated to lie between 68 and 75 per cent. of the entire population. In the rural parts there is probably not more than one-tenth of the population which does not in some degree live by the land; on the other hand, in the urban district, the proportion of cultivators necessarily falls considerably.

Unfortunately it is impossible to furnish for this Report complete, or in some cases even approximate, statistics concerning the industry upon which so large a proportion of the Indian population depends for its existence.

(A.)—*The Extent and Quality of the Information Available.*

The variety of tenures, and in many cases the deficiency of properly qualified agency that prevails in the different parts of India, renders complete and accurate record of agricultural statistics a task of great difficulty; while for a considerable portion of the territory under the Crown such information is at present entirely absent.

One of the main essentials in a record of this description is a correct register of the area under tillage, which must be obtained in the first instance by field-survey, supplemented by annual inspection. This is not available in many extensive tracts where the land revenue is fixed permanently or for terms of years, irrespective of fluctuation in cultivation. In other parts of the country, generally wild and hilly tracts, the assessment is made on the area actually cultivated for the year, which is ascertained by a rough inspection by a subordinate official, the extent and often the unhealthiness of whose charge renders accurate measurements and detailed registration impracticable. Elsewhere, again, political considerations intervene. The connection between the Government and the person it has made responsible for the assessment may be so slight that the Government does not hold it advisable to press for more information regarding such estates than the latter has been hitherto accustomed to furnish.

In the matter of agency, too, there is a great difference between the several Provinces. The collection of statistics of so detailed a nature must necessarily be entrusted to persons who are charged with the supervision of but a comparatively small area, with which, moreover, they are thoroughly familiar. The village system, where it exists in India, is admirably suited, if properly treated, to serve as a basis for such a task, but, unfortunately, in some Provinces it is incomplete, either from decay, or from want of organisation when it first grew up; and without the assistance of the headman and the accountant no trustworthy return of crops can be expected.

The above are obstacles in the way of obtaining any returns at all, but even in the tracts where surveys have been completed and the village system is in working order, the registration of crops is by no means free from defects. These arise partly from the want of appreciation on the part of the village officials, partly from their want of instruction in the matter, and appear chiefly in errors in measurements, and in wrong classification. The method by which these statistics are recorded in the Indian village is much the same as that

2 STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

followed in the agricultural districts of southern Europe. The local authorities trust a good deal to the information given them by the cultivators themselves, and to casual observations of their own. Areas other than recognised survey units, such as portions of a field, are not actually measured, and depend, therefore, for their approximation to accuracy upon the experience of the informant. In India the lower class of village servants, who are also the guardians of the boundary marks, provide a good deal of the *data*, which are subsequently discussed by the head men and duly registered by the accountant; but the system assumes the record to be the result of personal inspection by the officials themselves. In general, too, the areas under each crop are in the first instance noted down in fractions of a rupee, which is taken to represent the unit of registration, and the sums worked out afterwards for the proper record. As regards classification of produce, some improvement seems manifest year by year, and under the more detailed instructions now issued by the recently appointed agricultural departments a closer supervision of this important duty is entailed upon those who have ultimately to compile their returns from the village registers.* It must, however, be mentioned, out of justice to the village officers, that a good deal of the confusion of different products that appears in the published returns is due to want of uniformity in the use of vernacular terms locally applied. The same crop may be known in one part of the country by a name which in some other part may be applied to quite a different product. As a rule, the Indian cultivator is keen enough to distinguish even the most minute variations between allied sorts of cereals and pulses, and has for each certain epithets of his own which time and experience alone will fit into the botanical nomenclature adopted for the general returns. Rape and mustard and the smaller millets will be shown below to be egregious instances of such confusion.

Passing from these general considerations to the actual areas to be dealt

Province.	Area (in Acres).	Percentage on Total British India.
Bengal - - -	99,789,880	17.9
Ajmere - - -	1,735,040	0.3
Coorg - - -	1,013,120	0.2
Madras - - -	89,193,600	16.1
Bombay - - -	79,431,680	14.3
Punjab - - -	68,486,400	12.3
North West Provinces	52,303,792	9.4
Berar - - -	11,335,040	2.1
Oudh - - -	15,405,760	2.8
Central Provinces - -	54,044,800	9.7
Assam - - -	20,778,500	4.8
Burma - - -	55,820,800	10.1
TOTAL - - -	555,422,214	—

with in connection with this subject, and which are noted in the margin, it must first be mentioned that in Bengal the *zamin-dári* tenure, and the absence of village accountants preclude any record of cultivation; Bengal, therefore, with the comparatively small Provinces of Ajmere and Coorg, which are only partially settled, may be omitted from further consideration†, thus leaving a little over 81 per cent, for which returns of cultivation of more or less value are available. But here, too, further reductions must be made. In the first place, these provinces contain a considerable portion of unsurveyed land, as well as land for which

no returns of cultivation are prepared. In Madras the revenue records contain no information regarding the permanently settled estates, *zamin-dári* in the tract once known as the "Northern Circars," and *paligári* further south. The peculiar tenure, too, on the Malabar coast, where the country is not parcelled out into villages, admits of no record of cultivation on the large proprietary estates in Malabar and South Kanara. In the North-West Provinces, again, the Banares and Mirzápur tracts were for the most part placed under the permanent settlement of Bengal before they were transferred from that Province, and labour under some, though not all of the difficulties of obtaining statistics under a *zamin-dári* system. Further to the north, too, the hill tracts of Kumaon Garhwal, and part of the Terai, with the Siwálik range, are under their own special tenures, and no statistics of crops from them are incorporated in the general returns of the Province. In Berar, the Melghát tract, forming a portion of the Sátapura range, is similarly excluded, though surveyed in the rough and regularly colonized. The Bombay system of land administration, as apart from that of Sind, calls for no returns of cultivation from the holders of what are known as "alienated" villages, or villages the right to the land-revenue from which has been assigned to private individuals. These estates constitute a considerable portion of the Presidency, and under the Revenue Code of 1879, the

* Vide Appendix B.

† Vide Appendix A.

State

State is empowered to take certain steps towards obtaining systematic record of the village statistics. For several reasons, however, it has not been considered advisable hitherto to take action under the new provision. There is also a considerable portion of two of the coast districts unsurveyed, whilst another portion is held under a kind of *zamindari* assignment, freed from the obligation of furnishing information on crops and tillage. In Sind the areas necessarily vary annually, according to the nature of the inundation, and the surveyed land extends little beyond the range of possible irrigation, except in the high-lying lands bordering on the desert. In the Central Provinces the large *zamindari* estates have also to be thrown out of the returns, and in Oudh a comparatively small area of a similar class, must be excluded. There remain the outlying Provinces of Assam and Burma; in the former, two hill tracts, the Garo and the Naga Hills, return no cultivation details, and the information regarding the rest is confined to the valleys and more thickly populated tracts. In Burma the system of land administration is peculiar to the Province, and information as regards crops extends only to an insignificant portion of the whole area. It is well-known, however, that the staple of the country, rice, is cultivated over nine-tenths of the tilled land.

The accompanying diagram (A.) indicates the general distribution of the land in the seven principal divisions of that portion of India now under consideration.

Province.	Percentage of Total Area.			
	Cropped.	Arable Waste.	Unarable.	Unspecified.
Madras - - -	24.08	25.77	17.35	32.80
Bombay - - -	27.03	14.62	35.80	22.55
Punjab - - -	34.26	34.30	31.44	—
North-West Provinces	47.98	10.94	25.30	9.80
Berar - - -	65.18	9.01	25.83	—
Oudh - - -	53.71	25.15	16.66	3.48
Central Provinces -	28.40	34.51	37.00	—

The Punjab appears to be the only province in which the whole area is accounted for in both the general and the Revenue returns, as in both Berar and the Central Provinces the surveyed area falls short of that of which the distribution is known only in a general way. The marginal table gives proportionally what the diagram shows directly. Thus, nearly a third in Madras, a tenth in the North-West Provinces, and above a fifth in Bombay is, to a certain extent, under crops, which are not returned in the revenue tables. Of the remaining 249,000,000 acres, nearly 82,000,000 are not susceptible of cultivation. In most of the provinces this last class of land includes only the areas actually unarable, or which cannot be made to yield crops; but in Bombay, and to some extent in Berar also, where the system of survey is similar, it is held to comprise all land withdrawn from cultivation, whether otherwise arable or utterly barren. Thus not only the desert portion of Sind, and the bare rock of the Western Ghats is included, but common and forest land, which would be cultivable were it not set apart for public purposes, is held to be "unarable." It is worth while to point out this inconsistency in the statistics, on account of the difference which would otherwise be misleading, between the province in question and that, for instance, of the Punjab, where the nominally cultivable area includes large tracts reserved for grazing and forests, as in Madras and the North-West Provinces, where the possible extension of cultivation is not commensurate with the land recorded as "cultivable but not yet cultivated."

In dealing with the seven provinces above mentioned, a sub-division must also be made between the first five on the list, and Oudh and the Central Provinces, because in the former the crops have been mostly returned in sufficient detail for distinctive classification, whilst in the last two several of the most important kinds of produce have been injudiciously combined into a single item in the published returns. Such combination will probably not appear in future returns, as the attention of the local authorities has since been called to the inconvenience of the practice, and the extent to which it diminishes the utility of the whole return. For the purposes of the present Report it is convenient to combine the five Provinces, of Madras, Bombay, the Punjab, North-West Provinces, and Berar, into a single class, which will be known as Group A, whilst Oudh and the Central provinces will be included with Assam and Burma under Group B. This distinction will be found carried out in detail in the general table appended to this Chapter.

(B.)—Crops and Cultivation.

Before reviewing the returns, however, it will probably be found more convenient, if a brief explanation regarding the principal crops mentioned were given, especially as some of them are recorded under their vernacular names alone. In the following list the botanical nomenclature used is that of the "Catalogue of Economic Products of India exhibited at the Calcutta International Exhibition of 1883-84," which, though conflicting on some few points with other authorities, is taken as being the most recent publication on the subject.

CLASS I.—CEREALS.

1. WHEAT (*Triticum aestivum, sativum* or *vulgare*):
Many local varieties, classed as either hard or soft, red or white, bearded or beardless, the three not being mutually exclusive.
Vernacular: *Gam*, Bengal; *Godhi*, Madras; *Geu*, *Gahun*, or *Ghauu*, North and West of India.
2. RICE (*Oryza sativa*):
Has more than 5,000 varieties and sub-varieties, without important peculiarities.
Vernacular: *Dhan*, Bengal; *Bhdt*, North and West India; *arisi*, Madras (the term paddy (*padi*) is apparently a Malay word).
3. BARLEY (*Hordeum vulgare*, or *distichon* or *hexastichon*):
Known as beardless barley, the most common variety, has six rows of grain.
Vernacular: *Jau*, Upper India.
4. MAIZE OR INDIAN CORN (*Zea mays*):
Vernacular: *Bhutta*, Bengal; *Makai*, *Kukri*, Upper India; *Zondu-makai*, or *Makai-cholam*, Madras.
5. BUCK WHEAT (*Fagopyrum esculentum*):
Found only on the hill-side districts in the Punjab and North-West Provinces
Vernacular: *Phápra*.
6. GREAT MILLET, OR GUINEA-CORN (*Holcus sorghum*, or *Sorghum vulgare*):
The most extensively grown of the millets, the *Dhára* of Egypt; the "Hyssop" of the Bible, is sown for fodder for cattle as well as for its grain.
Vernacular: *Jowár*, *Juári*, North and Western India; *Jouna*, Ulwyn and *Cholam*, Tamil.
7. SPIKED MILLET, OR BULRUSH MILLET (*Pennisetum Typhoideum*, or *Penicillaria spicata*, *Panicum spicatum*, or *Holcus spicatus*):
A widely grown millet, used both for grain and fodder, of two main varieties.
Vernacular: *Bájra*, *Bájri*, Northern and Western India; *Chambu* or *Kambu*, Madras.
8. ITALIAN MILLET (*Setaria italica*, or *Panicum italicum*):
Vernacular: *Kákun*, *Kukni*, North-West Provinces; *Kangri*, Punjab; *Rálé*, Bombay; *Thenai*, *Korralu*, Madras.
9. INDIAN MILLET (*Panicum miliaceum*):
A rather inferior and slower growing millet than the preceding. It is occasionally confused botanically with the next sort of grain, though the native cultivator distinguishes it.
Vernacular: *Chenna*, *Chehna*, North-West Provinces; *China*, Punjab and Sind; *Kuri*, *Phikar*, *Ráli*, Central and Northern India; *Sáwa*, Bombay; *Waragu*, Madras.

10. LITTLE MILLET (*Panicum miliare*):

Very like the preceding, but grown in lighter and richer soil.

Vernacular: *Shama, Shamalu*, Madras; *Warai*, Bombay; *Kutki*, North West Provinces.

11. SÁWAN (*Oplismenus frumentaceus*, or *Panicum frumentaceum*):

Very like the two preceding.

Vernacular: *Sáwan, Shama*, North India; *Shamalu*, Madras.

12. KUTKI (*Panicum Psilopodium*):

The vernacular name applies to both this and No. 10. It is called *Mijhri* in Central India.

13. RÁGI (*Eleusine coracana*):

An extensively grown millet of South and West India.

Vernacular: *Rági*, Madras; *Nágli, Náchni, Bauta*, Bombay; *Mándwa, Máraua, Rotka*, North West Provinces; *Mandal*, Punjab.

14. KODRA (*Paspalum scrobiculatum*):

Small round millet, like Rági.

Vernacular: *Kodra, Harik*, Bombay; *Kodon, Marsi*, North West Provinces; *Arugu*, Madras.

CLASS II.—PULSES.

15. CHICK-PEA, OR GRAM (*Cicer arietinum*):

The most extensively grown of all the pulses.

Vernacular: *Cholá*, Bengal; *Channa*, North and West India; *Harbara*, Central India; *Sunagalu, Kudoli*, Madras.

16. HORSE-GRAM, OR KHULTI (*Dolichos uniflorus*, or *biflorus*):

There are two varieties, one creeping and one branching.

Vernacular: *Khulti, Khurti*, North West Provinces; *Kult, Bárót*, Punjab; *Kollu, Wulawalli*, Madras; *Khulit*, Bombay.

17. BLACK GRAM (*Phaseolus Mungo* (var.) *radiatus*):

Vernacular: *Urd, Urid, Másh*, North India; *Mimumuli*, Madras.

18. GREEN GRAM (*Phaseolus Mungo*, or *Maximus*):

Vernacular: *Mung*, North and West India; *Pessaloo*, Madras; *Mug*, Bengal.

19. MATH, or MOTH (*Phaseolus aconitifolius*):

Vernacular: *Math, Moth, Mothi*, North and West India.

20. PIGEON, or CAJAN PEA (*Cajanus indicus*):

Vernacular: *Arhar, Thur*; in Northern India the former is often the *Cajanus bicolor*, and the latter, *Cajanus flavus*.

21. PEA (*Pisum sativum*):

Chiefly grown in North India.

Vernacular: *Batána, Matar*, North West Provinces.

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22. GESSE-PEA (*Lathyrus varius*):

Confused with wild pea (*Pisum arvense*), found chiefly in North India.

Vernacular: *Lathri, Kesari, Tura*, North West Provinces.

23. LENTILS (*Ervum lens*):

Called also *Renalenta*, or *Evalenta*.

Vernacular: *Masur*, North and West India.

CLASS III.—OIL SEEDS.

24. SESAMUM, or GINGELLY (*Sesamum indicum*):

Extensively grown in Central and Southern India.

Vernacular: *Ginjli*, Madras; *Til*, Northern and Western India. The white variety is often called *Tili* in the north.

25. CASTOR (*Ricinus communis*, or *Palma Christi*):

Found along west coast and in Madras chiefly.

Vernacular: *Erand, Diveli*, Bombay; *Amadum*, Madras; *Arand*, North India.

26. LINSKED (*Linum usitatissimum*):

Vernacular: *Alsi, Jawas*.

27. KHURÁSNI, or RÁMTIL (*Verbesina sativa*):

Apparently a Bombay variety, much grown in the north and east Deccan.

Vernacular: *Khurásni, Sirgulah, Rámtil*.

28. RAPE

29. COLZA

30. MUSTARD

”

”

(*Brassica glauca, Napus*).

(*Brassica campestris, or dichotoma*).

(*Brassica nigra, and alba*).

(*Brassica juncea*).

(*Eruca sativa, or Brassica eruca*).

There is great confusion in the returns between all these. In the north of India the *Brassica eruca* is probably the seed known in the vernaculars as *Duan, Sahuan*, and *Tara-mira* (Punjab). The true mustard is probably the *juncea alba* and *nigra*, known under the vernacular terms of *Kála-Sarson, Lahi*. In the North West Provinces *Sarson* is taken to mean rape, and *Toria*, or *Lahi*, colza; but the latter is also known as *black sarson, Jária, Laitia*, or *Sada-rai*, whilst the terms *Khetia* and *Dain-lahi* are also locally used. Rape is also distinguished as *yellow sarson*. In the south true mustard is known as *Arálo, or Kadagho*, and in Central India as *Rai*; rape is there called *Mohri*. The natives distinguish accurately and consider the oil from *Brassica juncea* as the most fit for food and cooking purposes, and that from *B. glauca* as superior to *Toria*, or colza oil, for household uses. The commercial returns are as confused on this subject as the agricultural; and, apparently, most of what is at present returned as mustard should come under the head of rape.

CLASS IV.—MISCELLANEOUS CROPS.

31. COTTON:

The local varieties, being well known in England, need no description here.

32. INDIGO:

32. INDIGO:

The largest indigo-growing tracts do not, unfortunately, fall within the scope of this review.

33. MINOR FIBRES:

Of these the chief is jute, of which two varieties are generally sown in Bengal, *Corchoras capsularis*, and *C. olitorius*. It is comparatively rare in the Provinces under review. The fibre generally used for agricultural and domestic purposes is that from *Sunn*, *Crotalaria juncæa*, or *Nád* (*nár*), sometimes called Travancore flax, or *Jenappa-nár*. Another variety of fibrous plant is the *Hibiscus cannabinus*, sometimes known as Deccan hemp, and in the vernacular as *Ambári*, or *Patsar*, planted also for manure of a certain class. But the greater part of the hemp sown is, in many parts of India, devoted to the production of the intoxicating preparations known as *Bháng*, *Gánja*, *Háshish*, *Charas*, &c., which are mostly obtained from the Indian hemp (*Cannabis sativa*). The value of these preparations in medicine is but small compared with that which they possess as intoxicants and narcotics, in which capacity they are widely consumed. It is worth mentioning that the preparations from hemp, especially *Charas* and the like, have been found much more productive of insanity than opium and its preparations, such as *Chandul* and *Madad*, which act upon the body in a different manner.

34. SUGAR CANE:

The local varieties of both indigenous and exotic cane are very numerous.

35. TOBACCO:

This is grown in considerable quantities over a large tract along the Ganges, for which returns are not now available.

36. GARDEN AND ORCHARD PRODUCE:

This is an elastic term which in some Provinces includes not only gardens and vegetable grounds, but plantations and groves.

Before reverting to the General Table, it should be explained that the agricultural year in India is divided into two main harvest seasons, the *Kharif*, or autumnal, generally sown in the early weeks of the monsoon, and in June and July, and reaped in October and November. The second, the *Rabi*, or winter harvest, sown at the end of the monsoon, and reaped between January and March. In addition to these, there are special crops which cannot be included in either season. Cotton, for instance, is sown in most parts of India early, and not pulled till the *rabi* has set in. The sugar cane crop extends over a full twelvemonth before it is cut, and there are others of a similar description. As a rule the millets are all *Kharif*, wheat and barley grain and linseed, are *Rabi*. Small pulses are mostly *Kharif*, fodder crops, *Rabi*.

The distribution of the crops, however, varies with the facilities within reach for irrigation, more especially in those tracts where, as is mentioned below, the soil is not sufficiently retentive of the rainfall to remain saturated for some months after the monsoon has passed off. There are portions of every Province which are naturally supplied with sufficient moisture to

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preclude all risk of drought, whilst, on the other hand, there are whole tracts, as in Sind and in the Punjab, which depend entirely upon an artificial watering for their crop-bearing power. In 1879 the Famine Commission estimated the irrigated area in British India and Mysore to be about 29,220,000 acres, or 14·8 per cent. on the then cultivated area; distributed as shown in the marginal table, but a certain extension is being made year by year in the area protected by Government undertakings, so the statistics here quoted need be regarded as merely approximate to the present condition of the country. According to the returns of 1882-83 the areas irrigated are as follow:—

Province.	Area irrigated (000 omitted).
Bengal - - -	1,000
North West Provinces and Oudh.	11,500
Punjab - - -	5,500
Central Provinces -	770
Madras - - -	7,300
Bombay - - -	450
Sind - - -	1,800
Berar - - -	100
Mysore - - -	800

Acres.		Acres.	
Bengal - - -	372,866	Central Provinces -	770,821
North West Provinces*	6,809,549	Berar - - -	47,187
Oudh - - -	2,957,765	Burma - - -	4,098
Punjab - - -	7,148,729	Bombay - - -	551,992 (incomplete).
Ajmir - - -	51,949	Sind - - -	—
Madras - - -	5,564,255		

* Excluding the permanently settled districts.

Except in Bengal and Sind, the larger areas are irrigated from private works, either tanks or wells, with a few dams and their conducting channels. The subject of State aid with regard to irrigation will be treated later on in connection with other public works.

The season, from an agricultural point of view, must be noticed in taking each Province separately, but on the whole was a favourable one for the cultivators of the greater portion of British territory.

In Bengal, however, the rainfall, except in the south-east, was short and fitful.

Prices, nevertheless, rose but slightly, and the general condition of the people was not affected. Indigo was a fair crop, and the areas under jute and sugar cane show a tendency to increase.

In Assam excessive rain in October, following a deficiency in the earlier months of the season, resulted in a fair rice harvest, with a complete failure of oil seeds. Prices remained moderate.

The season in the North West Provinces and Oudh was favourable, though marked by deficient fall of rain in September. Grain was cheap and prices steady. The surplus wheat crop was so heavy that the capacity of the railways to carry off the exportable balance was severely taxed.

The Punjab enjoyed a rather slight rainfall, most favourably distributed over the cultivating season. The spring crop was, accordingly, abundant, and the autumn harvest above the average. The south-western districts, however, suffered from floods, and in the south-east two districts were severely affected by the delay of the winter showers, so that remissions of revenue had to be made in their case. Prices ruled low, owing to the double harvest's turning out so well, though the exports of wheat nearly doubled in quantity.

The Central Provinces experienced a heavy fall in July, followed by a break in August, which injured the autumn crops. The cold weather in spring harvest was quite up to the average, having received the full benefit of a heavy rainfall in November. The demand for export caused a rise in prices.

In Madras the heavy rainfall, though doing some damage in the deltas of the chief rivers, produced favourable results in the rest of the Presidency, and prices fell somewhat lower than the average of the three years preceding the famine.

The season in Bombay was marked in some places by floods and in others by the ravages of locusts. The rainfall was heavy and fell propitiously, so that rice and cotton both flourished under it. In Sind the floods breached some of the canals, and destroyed a good deal of the growing crops, so that remissions of assessments were necessary. Prices continued low, and though the area under cotton increased, the price of that staple in sympathy with the English market, remained below the average.

The

The Berar season was much like that in the Central Provinces. The autumn crop suffered from the long break in August, which caused the price of millet to rise, but the cold weather harvest was a good one, and wheat was exported briskly.

In Burma the outturn of rice was good, but, as in the case of cotton, prices were low owing to depression in European markets. The rainfall was, as usual, abundant and well distributed. The small Province of Ajmir suffered from a heavy rainfall, which flooded the tanks and damaged the cold weather crops; the rest of the harvest was average, and prices remained steady. The rainfall in Coorg was the highest on record, and proved disastrous to coffee, though not unfavourable to rice. Considerable loss in cattle resulted from the excessive damp and the failure of pasturage.

With these preliminary remarks, consideration can now be given to the tables. In the General Table the headings common to both the groups into which the Provinces have been divided, are those relating to wheat, rice, cotton, indigo, sugar-cane, and the minor miscellaneous products, whilst no detail is shown in the case of group B. regarding the important items of food grains and pulses, other than the two above mentioned. This omission is of little importance in the case of Assam, where rice covers 74 per cent. of the area returned as cultivated, or in that of Burma, where the same grain extends over 90 per cent. of the cropped land, but the "miscellaneous food-crop" item in Oudh and the Central Provinces bears to the cropped area the per-centage of 56 and 35 respectively. Comment on group B. is accordingly superfluous, save as regards the crops above specified. In group A., comprising about 301,000,000 acres, the area under plough covers about one-third, the arable waste and unarable land amounts to one-half, and the remaining 17 per cent. is excluded from the crop return for lack of information. The table above given shows that in Berar and the North-West Provinces there is now comparatively little waste land available still for cultivation, though it appears likely that in the case of Berar the term "cultivated" has been used (as occasionally in Bombay) to signify land held for cultivation, and including occupied fallow. In the Central Provinces a large area remains unoccupied, and in the Punjab whole tracts of arable land only await the irrigational undertakings that will render them fertile. The area shown in this group as cultivated is, as above stated, that *under plough*, but in considering the crop areas below, it is necessary to add to this the land cultivated more than once during the year, the second crop being generally grown under irrigation or on land completely saturated with rain-water during the monsoon. (This land amounts to over 13 per cent. on the plough area in the North West Provinces, 6 per cent. in Madras, and 2½ per cent. in Bombay.) In Oudh the excess reaches above 18 per cent., and in the Central Provinces to a little over 3. Information on this point is not on record as regards Berar and the Punjab. The entire area under crops is thus a little over 100,470,000 acres in group A., and 33,785,000 in group B.

(C.)—Distribution of the Chief Crops.

The circumstances of each individual Province will receive comment in the

Crop.	Per-centage on Cropped Area.	Crop.	Per-centage on Cropped Area.
Wheat, 1*	13.75	CEREALS:	
Rice, 2	11.28	Chick Pea, 15 (<i>Gram</i>)	5.34
Barley, 3	4.52	Horse Gram, 16 (<i>Khaditt</i>)	1.49
Maize, 4	2.27	Other Pulses	5.05
Great Millet, 6 (<i>Jowar</i>)	16.66		12.03
Spiked Millet, 7 (<i>Bajri</i>)	12.32	PULSES:	
Ragi, 13	2.42	Sesamum, 24 (<i>Gitagelly</i>)	1.21
Indian Millet, 9 (<i>Chenna</i>)	1.94	Other Oilseeds	2.69
Italian Millet, 8	1.13		4.10
Other Millets (<i>Kodra, Sukan, &c.</i>)	2.12	OILSEEDS:	
	68.50	Cotton, 31	8.07
		Sugar-cane, 34	1.25
		Indigo, 32	1.09
		Garden Produce, &c., 36	1.12
		Minor Produce	3.19

* The number after the name of the crop refers to the list in Section B. above.

next section of this chapter; for the present, it is enough to point to the general table with its supplementary diagram B, as giving a view of the relative importance of each crop as regards area. This information for group A. is shown in a proportional form in the margin; due consideration must be given in drawing inferences from these statistics to the omission of the great rice-growing tracts of Eastern India, and of the large areas known to be under

millets and pulses in the Central Provinces.

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In order to lend weight to the remarks that follow on the chief staples grown in the Provinces under review, it is perhaps advisable to show, as is done in the margin, the relative size of each Province, with respect to its total area and to that it returns under crops. Group B. is only taken into consideration below in the case of the few products which are distinguished in its tables.

Provinces.	Group A. alone.		Groups A. and B.	
	Percentage on Area.		Percentage on Area.	
	Cropped.	TOTAL.	Cropped.	TOTAL.
A. Madras - - -	22.6	29.8	10.9	19.8
Bombay - - -	31.9	30.4	16.4	17.3
Punjab - - -	33.3	22.7	17.4	15.1
North-West Provinces - - -	25.7	17.1	19.2	11.6
Berar - - -	6.5	9.7	4.9	2.3
B. Oudh - - -	-	-	7.8	3.4
Central Provinces - - -	-	-	12.0	12.0
Assam - - -	-	-	3.1	8.9
Burmah - - -	-	-	2.8	12.1

Wheat.—To begin with this, the grain best known in England, it appears from the returns that nearly all the production falls to the north of the River Tapti, and that the largest areas under it are to be found in the Punjab and North-West Provinces. It is hardly grown in Madras, and but sparsely in the Deccan, except in the extreme south. In Berar three-fourths of it are in the three western districts; the distribution in the other Provinces may be seen in the expansions of the general

—	Per cent.
Punjab - - -	34.9
North-West Provinces - - -	24.2
Central Provinces - - -	18.8
Oudh - - -	9.6
Bombay - - -	8.4
Berar - - -	3.9
Madras - - -	0.14

table which follow the latter in the Appendix. Speaking generally, Meerut and Rohilcund supply the greater part of the wheat grown in the North-West Provinces, whilst in the Central Provinces the north and north-west are most favoured in this respect. The distribution in Oudh is confined to narrower limits, and more than half the wheat is in the three northern and eastern districts. The Punjab shows a scattered area from which only the districts bordering on the Rajputana desert are excluded. The areas under this crop are greatest in Ferozepore and the adjacent country towards the foot of the south face of the Himalaya. The importance of this crop as a staple export has resulted in a variety of careful and extended inquiries, most of which have been published recently, and nothing more need be said about it here.

Rice.—The finest rice-tracts in India being excluded from the present statement, few remarks are required. The heaviest exports of this grain are from Burma, where it forms over 90 per cent. of the cultivation of nearly every district. In Assam the proportion reaches three-fourths in most parts, except the hills and Lakhimpore. The rice-tracts of Madras and Bombay lie chiefly along the coast, and in Sind. In the north-west, the district along the Gauges, round Banares, contains more than one-half the rice area; and Rohilcund a

—	Per cent.
Madras - - -	23.3
Central Provinces - - -	18.4
Burma - - -	14.1
Assam - - -	13.0
North-West Provinces - - -	12.7
Bombay - - -	7.8
Oudh - - -	7.3
Punjab - - -	3.2
Berar - - -	0.09

considerable portion of the rest. Oudh shows a similar localization of this crop in the east and north. In the Central Provinces the east and centre grow a great part of the rice returned, and little appears in the north and west. The Punjab shows a scattered area, no district but two returning above 100,000 acres under rice, whilst in Berar this product is hardly grown at all.

Barley is confined practically to northern India, rather over a third being grown in the Punjab, and a little under two-thirds returned from the north-west. In the latter Province the Allahabad and Banares divisions show the largest areas. In the Punjab this crop is heaviest in the south and south-east, and scarcely extends along or across the Indus. In Bombay a little is grown in the north.

Maize.—This, again, is found chiefly in the north, especially round Peshawar and Jallandhar. There is little along the Indus or the desert frontier. In the North-West Provinces the north and north-east show the greatest cultivation. In other Provinces returning it it appears scattered in small quantities over a good number of districts, and, save in the Panch-Mahal district of Bombay, shows no considerable area.

—	Per cent.
Punjab - - -	57.8
North-West Provinces - - -	35.7
Bombay - - -	3.5
Madras - - -	2.04

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Great Millet, or Jowár.—This, the first of the important class of Millets perhaps the most extensively grown unirrigated in India. In Bombay it predominates over the other cereals in all but the coast and the central Deccan Districts. The bulk is grown in Khandesh and country south of Ahmednagar. It is also largely grown in the most fertile tracts in Sind, Madras, Coimbatore, and the northern inland tract, known as

	Per cent.
Bombay - - -	32.20
Madras - - -	22.05
North-West Provinces	16.90
Punjab - - -	15.20
Berar - - -	13.60

the ceded districts, show the largest areas. As in Bombay, none is grown on the Malabar coast, and but little in the main rice-tracts. The Jumna valley shows the largest areas in the North-West Provinces, and next to this the south-western districts round Jhansi. In the Punjab it is the favourite cereal, in the east and north-east, and after that region, appears in larger areas towards Lahore and the Derajat.

Spiked Millet, or Bájri, comes next to Jowár in favour. In Bombay, the north Deccan, Satara, and Kaira, together with the desert districts of Sind, show the largest cultivation of this crop. In the Punjab, too, it favours the drier soil of the south-eastern frontier and the tract round Rawul Pindi. The Bájri of the North-West Provinces is mostly concentrated in the Rohilkund and Agra divisions, and in Madras, the south-east

	Per cent.
Bombay - - -	36.9
Punjab - - -	26.0
Madras - - -	20.2
North-West Provinces	16.2
Berar - - -	6.7

Coimbatore, and the ceded districts grow the greatest portion.

Rági, or Nágli, the first of the smaller millets, and belongs to a poorer class of food-grain than the Jowár and Bájri. It occupies in Madras and Bombay a somewhat analogous place to barley in the north of India. In the former Province it prevails largely in Salem and Coimbatore, and stretches from these centres to Madura and Trichinopoly in the south, and the

	Per cent.
Madras - - -	63.3
Bombay - - -	31.4
North-West Provinces	3.3

Arcot districts and Cuddapah on the north. In Bombay it is more concentrated on the hilly land adjoining the coast in the Konkan, and along the edge of the Gháts in the Deccan table land. It is found in the south-western districts of the north-west chiefly, though in small areas it is returned also from many other districts of that Province.

It is superfluous to enter into detail regarding the smaller grains. **Kodra, or Kodon,** belongs to the coast districts of Bombay, and the south and west of the North-West Province. It bears a reputation somewhat below rági, but flourishes in a different class of soil.

Chenna, or Indian Millet, appears largely in the eastern districts of Madras, and accompanies rági in the Bombay coast and Ghát districts. The *Italian* millet, too (canary seed?) is also grown more in the south than in the north of India, and with its allied grains, is much used, on account of its quick growth, as food, pending the harvest of the slower ripening autumn millets.

PULSES.—**Gram, or chick-pea;** the home of the pulses in India is in the

	All Pulses.		Grain only.
	Per cent.	Per cent.	
North-Western Provinces.	35.8	52.0	
Punjab - - -	30.2	34.9	
Madras - - -	10.1	1.6	
Bombay - - -	14.1	8.3	
Berar - - -	3.6	3.2	

northern and central tracts, especially the plains of the Punjab and Ganges. The term *gram* is used of four or five descriptions of pulse, but the chick-pea and the horse-gram, or *Khulti*, are the best-marked varieties. The latter is almost confined to Madras and parts of Bombay. The former, or large gram, furnishes a large proportion of the split pulse,

or *Dál*, throughout India, and in addition to the tracts shown in the margin, is largely grown in the Central Provinces, and, to some extent, in Oudh. In many parts of the country gram is cultivated less for its outturn than for its agricultural value in the crop-rotation that prevails in accordance with immemorial practice and tradition. Not to waste space over each separate pulse of those returned, it may be mentioned that *Thur, or Arhar*, two varieties of the *Cajan* (or *Pigeon, or Congo*) pea, are also largely grown as a protective crop, to shelter the young blades of cotton and cereals in the contingency of a prolonged

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ak in the monsoon rainfall. They are also a favourite *dāl* throughout India. The lentil, or *Masur*, furnishes a nutritive pulse and dal, used also in Europe, under the name of Revalenta. It is freely cultivated in Madras and the two northern Provinces.

OIL-SEEDS.—*Sesamum*, or *Gingelly*. All oil-seeds are returned under a single heading in Group B., by which the Central Provinces head the list in area under this produce. Bombay comes near, and Madras not far behind. The confusion between rape, colza, and mustard has been already mentioned, and in the Punjab this is the chief oil-yielding plant. The *Sesamum*, known commercially as *gingelly*, a Madras name, or *Til*, the Bombay and Hindustani title, grows chiefly in southern and central India. The linseed, in Berar, the eastern part of Bombay,

and the south-west of the upper Provinces. A variety of sesamum, known locally as *Khurāsni*, is largely grown in the north and eastern parts of the Deccan. The necessity of keeping both the agricultural and the commercial returns free from confusion between the seeds of closely-allied plants has engaged the attention of local authorities in India, in order that the true distribution and production of this class of produce may be clearly explained to English and foreign dealers.

Of fibres the only produce that need be mentioned here is cotton, and that but briefly, as periodical returns in detail are available for all Provinces. The marginal table shows the general distribution. Bombay and Berar provide half the total area under cotton. In Bombay a third is in the district immediately adjoining Berar, namely, Khandesh; an area but little less is in the South Deccan, or Dhárwar tract. Broach and Dholera supply the bulk of the remainder, with some slight supplement from

Bársi and Ahmednagar. In Berar no district shows less than a quarter of a million acres under this staple, but one-half the provincial cotton area is found in the two districts of Akola and Amraoti. In the North-West Provinces about one-half the cotton is grown in the Allahabad and Meerut Divisions, especially in the south of the former, and along the Ganges in the latter. The Central Provinces cotton comes chiefly from Wardha District and its neighbours, and shows very little in the eastern tracts. The Ceded Districts of Madras return nearly 45 per cent. of the cotton planted, and nearly a third more is in Coimbatore and Tinnevely. In the Punjab the crop is much scattered, the Derajat, Rawal Pindi, and Delhi Divisions, having comparatively the greatest extent. In Oudh and Assam the amount of cotton is insignificant.

The last crop on the list that needs special mention here is sugar-cane, though the area under it is comparatively small. In India it is pre eminently a crop dependent upon certain and continuous irrigation, and owing to the careful manuring, planting, and tending it requires, implies the possession of a certain amount of capital beyond the average invested in his land by the Indian cultivator. These conditions being satisfied, the crop is highly remunerative, and a favourite wherever the unirrigable land is not rich enough for a specially profitable cultivation of cereals or cotton. Of the numerous varieties selected by experience for different localities, some are kept almost entirely for crushing, whilst others are cut into lengths and sold for eating raw, especially in the neighbourhood of large towns or railway stations.

(D.)— Comparison of the Cultivation of the Provinces.

The comparison of the agricultural conditions of the different Provinces as made manifest by the crop returns is not a subject which requires much more comment

		Sesamum.	All Oilseeds.
		Per Cent.	Per Cent.
A	Madras - - -	37.3	16.7
	Bombay - - -	26.0	20.9
	North-Western Provinces.	12.8	7.6
	Berar - - -	12.2	8.7
B	Punjab - - -	11.3	10.6
	Oudh - - -	—	3.7
	Central Provinces	—	25.1
	Assam - - -	—	6.3
	Burma - - -	—	0.3

	Per Cent.
Bombay - - -	28.1
Berar - - -	22.7
North-Western Provinces.	17.2
Madras - - -	15.4
Punjab - - -	9.2
Central Provinces - - -	6.5
Oudh - - -	0.5
Assam - - -	0.2

	Per Cent.
North-Western Provinces.	49.9
Punjab - - -	26.8
Oudh - - -	9.0
Bombay - - -	4.4
Central Provinces - - -	3.8
Madras - - -	3.1
Assam - - -	1.7
Burma - - -	0.5
Berar - - -	0.3

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

Two-thirds of the cultivation is of crops for other than home consumption. The completion of the railway system with its feeders in the Central Provinces will in all probability result in a somewhat similar state of things in Chatisgarh and other eastern portions of that territory, whilst official estimates of the prospects of wheat in the Punjab are scarcely less favourable.

Except on the coast where rice and the smaller millets form the staple food of the people, and in parts of Northern India, where a stronger grain is required, the mass of the agricultural classes depend upon one or other of the larger millets, together with a due proportion of pulse and garden produce. There is no doubt a very large area of unirrigable land which will continue to be permanently reserved for these millets with the customary rotation, but as such tracts are brought in to touch with more distant parts of the country, where the soil is suited for a higher class of produce, the latter will tend to become more dependent for its main food supply upon the former, since a rise in the standard of comfort amongst a tropical peasantry does not, as a rule, take the direction of more luxurious feeding, and the family meal remains almost the same, whilst the vessels in which it is cooked and eaten, the house in which it is prepared, and the clothing and ornaments of those who earn it, all show a marked rise in cost and quality.

In conclusion it should be remarked that the principal object of this chapter is to bring forward the available information regarding crops in India, with explanations as to its admitted deficiency, in order to show the state of things in the country in the year 1882-83, which completes the decennial period for which the statistics of the Empire are reviewed. The returns for next year, 1883-84, will be compiled in most parts of India, on an improved system, and it is hoped that ten years hence the statistics will be as trustworthy as is compatible with the size and variety of the areas to which they refer.

APPENDIX A.

Cultivation in Ajmir and Coorg.

THE returns for these small provinces are incomplete, so it has been thought advisable to reserve comment on them for a special section of this chapter.

The total area of of Ajmir-Merwara is 2,711 square miles, of which 34 per cent. is said to be under cultivation; returns, however, are available for only 243,068 acres, the crops on which are distributed as follows:—

	Acres.
Barley - - - - -	52,782
Maize - - - - -	37,442
Jowar - - - - -	30,196
Wheat - - - - -	22,925
Bajri - - - - -	15,577
Rice - - - - -	812
Minor Grains - - - - -	21,861
Pulses - - - - -	27,517
Food Crops - - -	209,112
Oil-seeds - - - - -	13,076
Cotton - - - - -	6,939
Sugar-cane - - - - -	2,217
Poppy - - - - -	3,973
Miscellaneous - - - - -	7,751
TOTAL - - -	243,068

In the case of Coorg, the information is still more scanty. The total area is 1,013,120 acres, of which returns for only 122,979 are available. Of the latter area 73,028 acres were under rice, 48,150 under coffee, 1,432 under millet and other small grains, and 369 under spices and garden crops. The cultivation of cinchona is being introduced, and seems likely to succeed, but the experiments of the last few years with the cocoa (*cocoa Theobroma*), have shown that the soil and climate are inferior for this valuable product to that of Ceylon.

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comment that that contained in the statistics on themselves. The latter accordingly presented below in a proportional form which allows a full comparison to be made as far as the data go.

Per Centage of	GROUP A.					GROUP B.			
	Madras.	Bombay.	Punjab.	North Western Provinces.	Berar.	Oudh.	Central Provinces.	Assam.	
Cultivated land on total area*	24.08	27.03	34.26	47.96	05.16	53.71	28.40	21.00(?)	
Cultivable, not cultivated on total area.	25.77	14.62	34.30	16.94	9.01	26.16	34.61	57.22(?)	
On Cropped Area of:—									
Rice - - - - -	24.67	8.51	3.31	11.86	0.34	17.70	27.52	74.40	
Wheat - - - - -	0.12	7.40	28.70	18.14	11.37	10.03	22.55	-	
Barley - - - - -	-	0.22	7.05	11.03	-	-	-	-	
Maize - - - - -	0.31	0.37	5.00	3.31	-	-	-	-	
Jowar - - - - -	16.24	24.49	10.91	10.07	34.67	-	-	-	
Bajra - - - - -	10.99	20.73	13.76	7.80	1.41	-	-	-	
Ragi - - - - -	6.60	3.80	-	0.30	-	-	-	-	
Kodra - - - - -	-	2.71	-	1.33	-	-	-	-	
Chenna - - - - -	0.20	1.83	0.25	0.21	-	-	-	-	
Italian Millet - - - - -	4.07	0.56	0.21	0.13	-	-	-	-	
Small Millet - - - - -	1.09	-	-	0.51	-	-	-	-	
Other Cereals - - - - -	1.62	0.95	-	0.10	-	-	-	3.94	
TOTAL Cereals - - - - -	72.03	71.62	70.18	65.89	47.79	36.82	50.07	79.43	90
Gram - - - - -	0.30	2.10	8.29	11.25	2.71	-	-	-	
Horse Gram - - - - -	4.89	1.30	-	0.40	-	-	-	-	
Mung - - - - -	0.55	0.40	0.32	0.16	-	-	-	-	
Urid - - - - -	0.40	0.58	0.94	1.07	0.32	-	-	-	
Math - - - - -	-	-	4.11	1.02	-	-	-	-	
Masur - - - - -	0.51	0.22	0.32	0.41	-	-	-	-	
Thur - - - - -	0.90	1.67	0.02	0.72	3.20	-	-	-	
Peas - - - - -	0.14	0.08	0.55	1.84	-	-	-	-	
Other Pulses - - - - -	0.83	1.28	-	0.02	0.89	-	-	-	
TOTAL Pulses - - - - -	8.61	7.72	15.65	16.89	7.12	-	-	-	6
Sesamum - - - - -	1.99	1.49	0.59	0.50	2.24	-	-	-	
Castor - - - - -	0.95	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Linseed - - - - -	0.02	0.99	0.11	0.01	6.06	-	-	-	
Rape and Mustard - - - - -	0.58	0.03	2.21	0.38	-	-	-	-	
Other Oil-seeds - - - - -	1.21	3.56	-	-	0.13	-	-	-	
TOTAL Oil-seeds - - - - -	4.75	6.07	2.91	1.88	8.43	2.48	0.07	0.53	0
Cotton - - - - -	6.41	11.99	3.65	6.29	32.58	0.52	3.62	0.45	0
Indigo - - - - -	2.24	0.08	0.70	1.60	-	0.21	-	-	0
Sugar Cane - - - - -	0.20	0.30	1.71	2.87	0.07	1.45	0.33	0.61	0
Tobacco - - - - -	0.34	0.27	0.29	0.13	0.37	0.38	0.14	-	0
Orchard, &c. - - - - -	2.78	0.40	0.95	0.72	-	0.91	0.20	-	0
Minor Crops unspecified - - - - -	1.74	1.55	3.93	3.93	3.64	57.23	35.38	9.98	3

* Excluding twice-cropped land.

One of the first points to notice in connection with the above table is the different proportions which food crops bear to the total cultivation of the respective Provinces. Other things being equal, this gives an indication of some value as regards the pressure of population on the arable soil, for in spite of the increased facilities of communication and transport there is still, partly from custom, considerable stiffness in the transfer of food supply from any distance for purely local consumption, and the first object of the cultivator in most parts of the country is to provide for subsistence of himself and his household. In certain tracts, where conditions are favourable, a remunerative exportable crop encroaches, no doubt, to a considerable extent, upon the area which could ordinarily be reserved for food supply, but such cases are the exception. The

	Per Cent.
Madras - - - - -	84.5
Bombay - - - - -	80.0
Punjab - - - - -	88.5
North Western Provinces.	86.0
Berar - - - - -	55.0
Group A. - - - - -	82.0
Oudh - - - - -	96.2
Central Provinces - - - - -	85.6
Assam - - - - -	78.9
Burma - - - - -	96.7

marginal table gives the proportion of the total cropped area of each Province which is returned under food-crops, but allowance must be made in some cases, as in those of Burma and the Punjab, as also to some degree in that of the North-West Provinces, for the export of rice and wheat. In Assam, too, a considerable area (4½ per cent.) is under tea, grown entirely for export. The most striking instance of the productiveness of Indian agriculture under high favourable conditions is that of Berar, where

No. 1.—Table showing the general distribution of crops in the selected provinces of British India (in acres).

No. 2.—Provincial crop returns.

No. 3.—Statement of the average price of some of the chief food-grains at representative markets in each province, from 1881 to 1883.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

No. 1.—TABLE showing the general Distribution of

PRODUCE.		A.—Provinces with full Returns of Cultivation.						
		Madras.	Bombay.	Punjab.	North-West Provinces.	Berar.	TOTAL, A.	
		<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	
Great Cereals. Millet.	Rice - - - - -	5,608,751	1,374,934	775,567	3,055,938	22,827	11,337,812	1
	Wheat - - - - -	27,051	1,630,310	6,734,357	4,076,560	740,391	13,814,639	2
	Barley - - - - -	336	49,353	1,648,240	2,342,720	-	4,540,655	3
	Maise - - - - -	70,163	81,536	1,360,181	851,945	-	2,363,875	4
	Great Millet (<i>Jowar</i>) - - - - -	3,691,127	5,392,469	2,552,248	2,828,375	2,276,220	16,740,439	5
	Spiked Millet (<i>Bajri</i>) - - - - -	2,496,958	4,506,113	3,218,248	2,009,208	62,322	12,392,939	6
	Italian Millet (<i>Kangri, Thenai</i>) - - - - -	925,518	123,333	46,389	33,338	-	1,130,678	7
	Indian Millet (<i>Chenna</i>) - - - - -	1,423,421	413,341	58,482	55,124	-	1,950,871	8
	Small Millet (<i>Sawan</i>) - - - - -	453,954	-	-	131,206	-	585,160	9
	Ragi Millet (<i>Naghi</i>) - - - - -	1,513,654	836,753	-	78,558	-	2,428,965	10
	Kodra Millet - - - - -	-	597,394	-	312,288	-	909,682	11
	Other Cereals - - - - -	367,253	209,665	-	25,420	-	602,338	12
TOTAL Cereals - - - - -		16,578,166	15,775,954	16,415,518	16,930,685	3,137,760	68,838,103	13
Pulses.	Gram (<i>Chick pea</i>) - - - - -	88,268	462,909	1,940,222	2,609,530	777,893	5,568,622	14
	Horse Gram (<i>Khutti</i>) - - - - -	1,110,839	286,702	-	102,029	-	1,499,570	15
	Green Gram (<i>Mung</i>) - - - - -	124,546	109,491	192,213	41,320	-	467,810	16
	Black Gram (<i>Urid, Mdash</i>) - - - - -	91,819	123,670	220,626	276,373	21,188	738,675	17
	Lentils (<i>Masur</i>) - - - - -	116,610	47,772	215,634	104,675	-	484,741	18
	Math - - - - -	-	-	961,812	263,647	-	1,225,459	19
	Cajan Pea (<i>Tur, Arhar</i>) - - - - -	203,498	365,120	4,262	165,119	210,162	971,161	20
	Peas (<i>Matar</i>) - - - - -	31,318	18,830	129,344	478,404	-	651,396	21
	Other Pulses - - - - -	188,748	278,998	-	4,567	58,222	530,535	22
TOTAL Pulses - - - - -		1,955,946	1,699,432	3,604,662	4,560,664	467,465	12,136,169	23
Oil-seeds.	Sesamum (<i>Til, Jinjli</i>) - - - - -	453,969	327,772	137,587	150,097	147,391	1,216,716	24
	Linseed (<i>Alsi-Jawas</i>) - - - - -	4,302	218,035	23,976	234,191	397,639	860,143	25
	† Rape and Mustard (<i>Sarson, Raf, &c.</i>) - - - - -	132,922	6,083	516,070	98,135	-	754,120	26
	Other Oilseeds - - - - -	1472,995	2783,606	-	1,303	8,743	1,266,547	27
TOTAL Oilseeds - - - - -		1,663,988	1,336,496	679,633	483,726	553,773	4,117,526	28
Indigo - - - - -		508,774	17,730	162,003	411,641	-	1,101,055	29
Cotton - - - - -		1,456,423	2,640,746	860,631	1,620,535	2,139,188	8,717,553	30
Hemp and Flax - - - - -		19,209	66,549	37,045	43,059	8,699	176,560	31
Sugar-cane - - - - -		46,216	60,310	401,045	740,743	4,530	1,259,844	32
Tobacco - - - - -		78,707	59,137	66,734	35,603	24,722	264,903	33
Orchard and Garden produce - - - - -		632,968	67,497	221,852	196,174	-	1,129,491	34
Other produce - - - - -		391,339	263,566	379,056	966,163	230,987	2,731,101	35
TOTAL Area under Crops - - - - -		22,731,776	22,013,353	23,380,731	25,769,998	6,567,323	100,843,827	36
Area twice-cropped - - - - -		1,314,069	543,343	Not returned	3,004,292	Not returned	5,361,704	37

No. 2.—PROVINCIAL CROP RETURNS.

MADRAS.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL Area under Crops.	CEREALS.								PULSES.		OILSEEDS.		MISCELLANEOUS.			
		Rice.	Wheat.	Great Millet (Cholam).	Spiked Millet (Cumbu).	Ragi.	Indian Millet (Waragu or Chenna).	Italian Millet (Thonal).	Small Millet (Shamalu, or Sawan).	Horse Gram (Khatti).	Cujan Pea (Tur or Dal).	Sesamum (Til or Jingili).	Castor (Arand, or Amadam).	Cotton.	Indigo.	Spices and Condi- ments.	Orchard and Garden Produce.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ganjam - - -	442,724	282,173	-	404	5,715	70,841	375	63	1,014	5,150	4,436	20,503	-	4,275	-	2,615	15,017
Vizagapatam - - -	160,947	57,880	-	5,038	21,717	16,591	4,888	1,935	4,287	8,152	657	18,883	-	4,442	7,115	751	1,988
Godavari - - -	062,540	638,699	120	92,071	5,948	21,221	18,549	6,432	7,836	86,518	9,000	08,472	-	10,307	1,866	10,713	20,949
Kistna - - -	1,900,196	351,430	4,780	195,274	152,617	23,121	242,920	255,610	61	47,103	26,243	1,350	110,580	200,410	122,622	56,105	8,201
Nellore - - -	1,074,560	230,408	-	221,082	84,042	31,230	234,335	2,575	-	44,020	1,541	539	-	11,846	48,344	5,108	7,221
Cuddapah - - -	1,535,617	130,216	1,520	291,705	317,030	121,265	43,006	102,210	3,331	124,074	36,275	-	-	103,903	80,936	11,796	22,744
Anantapur - - -	1,173,258	61,517	1,330	233,916	3,808	74,824	-	-	5,154	211,887	356	17,880	-	106,080	6,723	4,308	11,753
Bellary - - -	1,606,320	33,316	3,543	668,830	92,442	37,403	-	246,543	-	64,518	40,328	12,090	-	212,807	460	7,015	22,316
Kurnool - - -	1,684,200	51,281	5,753	620,699	80,203	13,668	131,338	226,806	17,610	65,160	-	3,252	55,799	212,585	103,377	8,990	2,915
Chingleput - - -	626,559	408,338	-	11,612	12,507	66,448	38,591	304	56	4,736	187	0,409	1,015	2	21,305	7,116	40,954
North Arcot - - -	724,262	243,053	84	101,740	-	113,970	30,434	-	4,258	31,061	9,008	37,407	6,531	235	32,412	4,203	27,168
South Arcot - - -	1,918,102	340,320	-	37,078	271,470	145,332	233,312	12,223	1,304	17,938	1,827	61,094	6,153	6,931	68,705	9,792	33,773
Tanjore - - -	1,280,814	964,925	-	16,349	43,708	41,662	57,347	271	2,371	3,720	13,714	11,355	-	4,411	1,067	7,847	23,208
Trichinopoly - - -	946,561	176,118	-	137,705	157,326	04,402	136,173	4,002	21,434	34,443	28,948	35,217	-	35,408	2,466	25,120	14,446
Madura - - -	917,776	134,373	142	140,150	106,408	106,150	78,398	7,800	87,707	63,635	4,099	-	-	59,374	312	4,563	11,591
Tinnevely - - -	1,361,673	283,812	-	83,201	217,059	46,219	76,431	2,617	137,947	73,401	6,523	60,050	11,404	213,147	555	9,008	40,719
Coimbatore - - -	2,268,959	91,682	2,914	578,575	090,901	222,028	4,066	81,350	63,278	140,975	9,340	48,393	21,761	253,555	-	17,781	8,530
Nilgiris - - -	70,153	2,368	8,343	-	-	4,101	-	-	7,644	-	-	-	-	-	-	194	100
Salern - - -	1,229,679	135,363	233	50,751	284,205	264,715	62,005	21,735	74,658	119,229	15,920	-	-	16,929	1,539	19,603	7,068
South Kanara - - -	580,033	487,886	-	-	-	3,354	-	-	64	14,886	142	3,958	678	120	-	15,520	27,779
Malabar - - -	943,598	683,875	-	-	52	4,440	-	-	13,227	2,875	944	11,339	74	-	13,064	274,660	
TOTAL - - -	22,731,776	6,608,751	27,051	3,691,127	2,406,958	1,513,654	1,423,421	925,518	453,954	1,110,939	203,498	453,869	216,951	1,456,423	508,774	240,984	632,985
Crop on Total		24.67	0.12	16.24	10.09	6.66	6.25	4.07	1.99	4.80	0.00	1.99	0.95	0.41	3.24	1.06	2.73

18 STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

No. 2 (continued).—PROVINCIAL CROP RETURNS—continued.

BOMBAY.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL Area under Crops.	CEREALS.							PULSES.			OIL SEEDS.			
		Rice.	Wheat.	Great Millet. (Jowar).	Spiked Millet. (Bajri).	Ragi (Naghi).	Kodra (Harik).	Indian Millet (Sawa, or Chemua).	Chick Pea (Gram).	Horse Gram (Khuli).	Cajon Pea (Tur).	Linseed (Alsi, or Jawar).	Sesamum (Til).	Other Oil Seeds (Khurdani, &c.).	Cotton.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ahmedabad	1,111,886	98,596	198,910	316,785	154,629	2,342	11,793	181	12,021	5,690	981	506	16,943	8,510	284,933
Kaira	364,648	81,400	13,544	37,320	95,804	27,086	63,515	-	4,342	-	12,559	-	3,081	2,178	5,639
Panch Mahals	247,247	86,845	16,667	2,296	80,606	11,694	10,275	70	30,000	516	3,691	-	23,099	1,133	110
Broach	500,442	25,450	85,391	110,680	9,200	140	6,628	51	1,332	-	12,784	-	11,443	2,189	248,096
Surat	639,601	106,121	28,766	88,992	7,538	13,344	40,562	4	1,575	-	29,017	-	2,827	41,640	94,451
Tihas	673,412	367,988	71	114	-	70,386	17,469	26,614	4,484	927	7,721	-	17,458	4,853	-
Kolaba	327,116	149,345	-	-	-	66,999	27,668	63,779	1,530	1	2,002	-	7,373	201	23
Khandesh	2,704,655	58,401	259,480	411,607	682,768	28,008	52,131	7,449	54,854	46,547	20,559	90,527	106,545	17,064	680,228
Nasik	1,078,178	39,523	202,576	54,256	751,088	144,184	-	61,327	48,072	56,403	17,620	15,121	41,803	125,664	60,398
Ahmednagar	2,055,078	0,775	185,335	699,643	689,162	23,407	151	1,205	68,134	48,667	34,590	6,213	14,520	77,516	88,020
Poona	1,622,323	50,060	64,268	815,393	628,401	51,784	209	36,358	28,258	17,240	17,728	932	26,095	65,401	21,530
Sholapur	1,659,314	22,414	42,830	808,976	300,186	11	-	398	48,732	14,423	63,046	45,080	6,070	126,168	64,593
Satara	1,153,768	18,461	20,692	309,601	409,917	42,674	158	33,718	34,725	29,159	80,569	1,102	1,816	39,083	19,015
Bolnisi	968,354	65,186	49,545	302,572	62,219	27,527	9,188	6,851	26,704	26,943	37,180	281	5,644	32,478	125,850
Dharwar	1,320,749	81,782	114,120	451,698	3,036	32,682	-	19,968	23,603	25,088	40,662	8,062	7,021	87,890	343,293
Kaladgi	1,674,641	0,798	90,769	860,415	147,820	-	-	8,564	39,102	6,357	32,910	40,662	10,661	37,495	851,344
Ratnagiri (part)	1,084,860	151,073	-	-	-	284,748	366,002	172,071	147	12,681	8,446	-	24,911	24	-
Karachi	417,327	146,581	49,105	66,120	23,051	633	-	-	4,918	-	-	-	-	40,618	700
Hyderabad	628,750	86,146	35,702	50,403	190,166	14	-	-	2,926	-	-	-	-	34,636	42,587
Shikarpur	873,124	287,293	181,346	232,734	12,668	110	-	-	35,485	-	-	-	-	68,362	12,250
Thar and Parkar	319,623	39,200	7,187	3,290	241,012	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9,045	2,341
Upper Sind Frontier	193,405	4,421	29,042	110,617	11,232	2	-	-	2,045	-	-	-	-	6,304	4,316
TOTAL	22,018,355	1,874,834	1,630,810	5,392,469	4,566,113	896,753	597,344	413,644	462,909	286,702	866,120	218,035	827,772	700,599	2,640,748
(Percentage of each Crop on Total Area cultivated)		8.51	7.40	24.49	20.73	3.80	2.71	1.88	2.10	1.30	3.93	0.99	3.75	3.18	11.99

PROGRESS AND CONDITION OF INDIA, 1882-83.

No. 2 (continued).—PROVINCIAL CROP RETURNS—continued.

PUNJAB.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL Area under Crops.	CEREALS.						PULSES.					OIL- SEED.	MISCELLANEOUS.			
		Wheat.	Rice.	Berley.	Maise.	Great Millet (Jowār).	Spiked Millet (Bājri).	Chick Peas (Gram).	Black Gram (Urid, or Māsh).	Green- Gram (Mung).	Masur (Ceva- lentil) or Lentils.	Moth.	Rape and Mustard (Sarson, Tāra Mīri).	Cotton.	Indigo.	Sugar- cane.	Orchard and Garden Produce.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Delhi	666,672	138,753	10,406	63,269	11,954	71,238	71,238	56,653	5,2-6	4,128	117	9,709	6,330	31,991	771	27,228	2,160
Gurgaon	869,191	83,794	342	103,150	1,728	111,769	261,983	118,598	6,252	9,071	152	94,518	4,766	63,308	2,430	2,023	3,261
Karnal	647,727	94,790	68,667	27,969	21,766	167,917	51,708	88,372	11,690	13,453	4,900	19,328	7,037	29,150	1,127	21,625	1,555
Hissar	1,338,627	45,342	8,145	106,916	194	241,035	590,004	78,193	4,101	28,206	35,956	123,923	11,293	23,191	2,877	289	6,943
Rohatak	826,019	54,267	4,085	39,278	260	28,2710	189,560	157,532	587	2,148	87	36,226	1,524	4,720	2,694	16,317	1,165
Sirsa	965,299	29,507	6,406	141,523	222	120,772	340,605	74,487	101	460	10	24,039	2,422	259	-	17	954
Umballa	1,108,704	344,110	118,504	46,332	730,333	129,826	18,015	99,419	16,375	1,426	28,053	21,004	17,630	46,357	891	35,408	2,935
Ludhiana	771,334	173,423	2,041	27,880	56,702	75,829	689	111,192	6,918	8,158	3,687	79,666	6,023	17,237	387	11,009	5,918
Suola	12,547	3,720	1,723	3,297	1,310	700	738	8	299	-	39	-	1	-	-	-	6
Jalandar	771,938	238,048	6,407	11,763	88,463	89,370	86	44,523	16,246	193	6,768	64,714	1,241	23,236	245	44,800	5,660
Hushiarpur	818,207	344,378	28,777	21,752	145,348	41,002	6,899	54,518	17,876	637	6,473	26,704	7,068	23,332	906	36,344	2,324
Kangra	706,285	180,614	158,273	82,867	180,808	275	86	14,013	21,875	1,252	2,580	459	2,767	8,634	-	12,542	2,352
Amritsar	811,473	320,340	32,571	29,177	51,505	84,890	140	146,858	5,435	1,924	3,067	29,299	4,698	19,709	-	22,343	14,950
Gurdaspur	860,343	290,157	68,819	90,488	49,047	26,831	4,716	19,506	43,563	16,907	35,166	81,137	5,914	27,649	6	51,045	10,303
Sialkot	920,322	364,637	80,866	89,431	60,459	60,227	3,540	14,909	8,099	2,593	31,904	9,032	13,533	41,585	-	48,501	8,459
Lahore	1,025,375	304,278	34,673	37,140	48,393	135,890	1,291	162,633	4,593	4,288	2,438	69,031	12,618	47,505	-	4,484	11,548
Gujranwulla	644,549	246,230	15,830	75,585	21,574	63,376	4,427	26,523	917	28,436	752	44,160	16,817	31,604	-	21,134	34,389
Ferozepur	1,380,708	401,685	3,109	139,397	71,650	219,717	62,330	236,624	14,051	10,465	10,711	106,548	50,751	12,877	-	2,553	5,265
Rawal Pindi	1,172,469	376,365	1,059	39,415	66,976	34,378	408,481	27,263	3,734	20,611	167	42,620	86,979	53,267	6	918	2,940
Jhelam	1,052,408	239,581	2,133	53,751	2,886	88,052	246,152	250,000	570	7,594	2,404	39,872	60,443	30,093	-	398	3,722
Gujrat	767,257	321,954	6,546	48,847	18,002	64,473	188,670	11,576	2,000	466	7,339	197,415	33,322	32,251	117	7,267	14,973
Shabpar	347,158	143,270	1,020	8,058	3,002	19,337	62,372	3,287	316	3,404	660	10,633	14,968	28,018	-	1,879	18,293
Multhan	572,070	218,727	14,356	7,565	300	61,741	16,430	10,580	3,309	391	5,022	371	14,470	39,178	81,563	3,218	18,200
Jhang	325,030	145,525	223	8,761	3,287	35,176	4,228	12,122	6,840	3,200	2,765	978	2,063	50,456	-	523	14,037
Montgomery	405,770	214,398	8,890	13,975	4,735	31,558	342	40,204	2,335	1,774	2,133	896	19,243	18,621	-	172	2,008
Muzafargarh	485,362	194,093	30,913	11,185	6	15,914	18,786	14,730	671	18	8,432	5,356	17,192	20,310	50,335	6,752	1,048
Derah Ismail Khan	610,959	297,496	2,265	21,836	94	23,556	130,984	13,222	776	8,674	4,145	7,370	82,716	31,032	-	263	2,156
Derah Ghául Khán	717,981	227,860	34,433	5,928	48	175,450	101,206	3,255	202	240	5,455	103	28,250	89,121	15,506	98	2,929
Hinu	596,604	269,932	989	46,236	27,391	9,088	134,261	66,875	215	776	890	5,776	3,389	8,293	-	4,329	2,770
Peshawar	649,443	180,272	14,450	158,592	111,961	74,993	844	649	2,161	5,891	4,552	22,700	19,047	16,621	-	14,068	12,050
Hosara	482,167	106,037	13,300	72,084	205,596	1,473	18,478	55	12,168	1,392	3,349	7,987	9,730	10,587	-	1,224	710
Kohat	207,522	60,683	2,549	10,923	22,576	458	97,107	1,920	-	2,896	-	338	1,297	2,285	-	27	523
TOTAL	28,389,731	6,734,357	775,367	1,646,246	1,380,181	2,552,248	3,218,243	1,940,222	220,625	192,213	215,684	961,812	516,070	860,831	162,903	401,045	221,851
of each Crop on Total Area culti-		28-79	3-31	7-05	5-90	10-91	18-70	8-29	0-94	0-82	0-92	4-11	2-21	3-08	0-70	1-71	0-95

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

No. 2 (continued).
NORTH-WEST PROVINCES.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL Area under Crops.	CEREALS.							PULSES.					MISCELLANEOUS.					
		Wheat.	Rice.	Barley.	Great Millet (Jowar).	Spiked Millet (Bajri).	Kodan (Kodra).	Maize.	Chick Peas (Gram).	Peas (Matar).	Black Gram (Urid).	Moth (or Mash).	Cajun Peas (Arhar).	Linseed (Arbi).	Cotton.	Indigo.	Sugar Cane.	Fodder (Jowar).	Orchard and Garden.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	
Dehra-Dun	109,857	23,730	21,016	8,225	-	-	2,712	630	220	8,240	-	4,791	-	391	-	1,500	1,443	4,162	
Saharanpur	989,504	391,540	115,062	68,155	22,173	69,701	66,812	71,543	80	15,036	11,913	70	-	43,724	2,510	41,484	70,060	3,554	
Musaffarnagar	792,421	258,446	46,477	41,445	30,659	36,080	37,190	78,655	7,109	34,816	17,115	56	-	20,074	5,121	61,588	75,025	2,944	
Meerut	1,292,526	393,933	28,341	85,434	118,999	40,478	-	97,162	117,068	23,704	25,179	90	-	63,440	17,303	101,072	84,929	8,917	
Bulandshahr	1,038,817	219,093	2,207	145,354	135,826	84,901	-	75,350	136,546	15,320	2,969	16,720	387	-	67,808	43,702	13,071	14,062	
Aligarh	1,052,921	301,481	3,849	158,458	157,228	75,296	-	54,804	124,537	1,598	1,376	29,353	31	-	132,623	60,298	2,710	8,080	
Muttra	762,533	70,100	30	102,768	210,191	53,746	-	8,018	112,807	360	6,045	20,573	22	-	117,540	12,459	1,442	9,715	
Agra	849,177	92,359	342	98,277	126,011	130,390	-	6,657	124,739	2,796	2,601	21,867	54	-	137,737	12,248	4,377	2,565	
Farukhabad	729,289	132,787	30,057	111,886	102,342	83,647	1,172	46,421	60,646	2,102	2,505	3,185	218	-	42,326	24,032	10,703	498	
Mainpuri	742,772	147,318	25,035	78,353	118,753	126,907	-	38,842	72,149	769	84	1,058	174	-	59,561	33,184	10,126	1,819	
Etawah	646,732	86,120	17,733	76,456	92,083	94,348	-	18,603	98,981	1,633	118	728	39	-	72,096	49,601	12,204	213	
Etah	745,361	159,710	10,241	106,375	92,601	133,711	-	36,086	67,989	761	1,076	2,791	147	-	53,633	26,806	19,113	1,161	
Bijnor	691,140	142,732	176,643	74,233	930	49,363	3,467	7,613	85,304	6,033	30,826	19,634	11	853	37,008	247	54,082	12,328	
Moradabad	1,105,383	313,539	150,969	101,013	81,668	182,324	0,355	23,577	54,402	3,393	39,783	45,588	279	-	48,307	1,2	45,701	29,613	
Budaun	945,186	237,766	87,799	135,066	107,363	218,989	-	31,050	61,667	2,227	2,060	7,759	257	-	54,031	6,714	13,206	2,769	
Bareilly	941,673	189,674	198,614	81,923	105,243	6,921	78,714	90,213	947	4,454	1,827	2,570	4,937	-	26,901	3,680	44,532	10,793	
Shahjehanpur	753,722	214,954	100,286	59,244	49,607	110,697	13,922	3,753	63,927	2,462	29,506	4,446	1,003	1,572	18,807	3,726	38,088	5,325	
Pilibhit	452,066	106,472	148,038	23,949	2,071	24,113	24,074	2,293	39,223	612	19,154	3,763	323	2,822	3,913	629	27,654	2,561	
Cawnpore	959,641	106,213	30,782	149,290	196,666	56,775	-	44,061	170,805	1,828	22	1,937	127	-	121,450	33,130	8,276	194	
Fatehpur	625,831	55,717	78,577	91,693	129,177	35,442	-	670	128,909	6,651	472	3,239	245	257	53,618	2,690	3,740	11,234	
Rae	1,084,749	116,712	12,292	32,062	300,282	70,845	24,043	217	208,615	150	424	1,743	1,512	8,972	177,475	30	2	1,418	
Hamirpur	860,814	126,807	2,080	14,564	213,250	60,600	18,264	28	218,178	85	1,023	74	67	19,604	119,347	1,354	2,393	2,204	
Allahabad	1,232,459	96,661	198,224	212,620	148,071	196,844	43,869	1,633	178,629	45,211	2,668	6,404	1,417	88,824	39,316	5,401	10,111	5,469	
Asimgarh	922,656	45,418	273,233	262,980	3,176	3,240	8,276	20,373	13,976	70,148	5,168	1,733	52,274	3,071	832	18,620	76,077	163	
Gorakhpur	2,272,649	265,054	641,087	319,460	1,537	3,978	125,295	74,813	70,123	134,379	6,543	1,236	14,389	104,431	3,069	11,829	73,692	120	
Basti	1,438,439	238,333	542,877	140,753	3,658	448	10,657	47,883	74,608	93,842	21,989	13,131	83,824	89,340	632	82	31,533	3,584	
Ballia (part)	180,627	8,451	39,767	48,290	217	536	2,048	680	3,434	24,260	492	208	20,534	1,262	234	244	16,677	75	
Jhansi	428,437	61,790	7,177	3,701	125,458	11,354	12,634	580	97,313	1,176	1,897	569	16	2,377	33,329	259	481	1,126	
Jaisun	629,124	135,127	1,506	11,047	109,663	63,126	2,555	20	223,609	24	-	101	25	597	62,111	180	1,046	3,549	
Lalitpur	324,718	46,807	10,802	8,330	-	37,616	9,644	20,823	357	7,744	-	-	-	-	2,846	-	917	512	
Tarai (part)	189,123	30,906	95,311	3,856	5,936	1,059	3,090	20,565	3,361	71	8,379	262	8	803	5,010	1	3,096	828	
TOTAL	25,769,808	4,676,580	8,055,933	2,242,720	2,628,375	2,009,298	342,238	651,946	2,899,630	473,404	276,873	263,647	185,119	234,191	1,620,633	411,041	740,743	362,023	186,174
Percentage of each Crop on Total Area culti- vated		16.14	11.66	11.03	10.97	7.80	1.33	2.31	11.25	1.84	1.07	1.02	0.72	0.91	6.29	1.60	2.87	1.40	0.72

PROGRESS AND CONDITION OF INDIA, 1882-83.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

No. 2 (continued).—PROVINCIAL CROP RETURNS—continued.

O U D H.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL Area under Crops.	Rice.	Wheat.	Other Food Crops (Pulse and Cereals).	Oil Seeds (unspecifed).	Cotton.	Sugar Cane.	Indigo.	Tobacco.	Opium.	Garden and Orchard Produce.	Hemp and Flax.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Awantipur	308,821	46,299	63,812	245,289	764	1,277	2,717	22	365	5,900	1,854	172
Banka	617,081	57,791	76,468	448,364	330	14,387	7,320	941	1,579	2,214	4,437	1,919
Bihar	638,810	150,508	148,164	492,257	7,947	-	18,439	197	842	2,276	2,127	73
Chhapra	1,029,664	134,505	248,670	551,373	27,079	2,472	17,866	303	11,005	7,001	25,807	2,643
Deoria	1,100,809	25,062	449,879	584,648	2,902	14,014	10,268	6,869	7,028	8,014	13,086	2,420
Patna	925,414	178,047	132,110	545,893	6,918	4,270	30,596	1,384	9,338	1,765	16,531	6,635
Rohtas	793,591	215,822	109,342	470,670	12,746	675	20,281	2,487	750	5,697	1,669	2
Siwan	977,217	223,669	158,262	488,089	89,211	5,807	1,711	157	1,619	2,372	2,678	1,628
Supaul	1,421,428	889,912	268,387	683,619	83,596	3,600	9,939	718	554	13,448	16,539	468
Barh	565,340	61,520	74,789	391,129	478	1,468	1,515	8	1,193	20,752	2,317	185
Cherwell	638,070	178,528	88,511	347,103	1,509	503	13,140	304	851	3,838	1,242	583
Muzaffarpur	517,117	102,312	46,405	340,804	1,689	2,618	8,611	6,871	687	4,593	1,395	1,798
TOTAL	9,780,162	1,743,015	1,863,750	5,490,417	241,213	51,113	142,380	21,251	37,789	90,770	8,769	18,482
Percentage of each Crop on Total Area cultivated		17.79	19.03	56.08	2.48	0.52	1.45	0.21	0.38	0.92	0.91	0.19

CENTRAL PROVINCES.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL Area under Crops.	Rice.	Wheat.	Other Food Crops (Pulse and Cereals).	Oil Seeds (unspecifed).	Cotton.	Sugar Cane.	Indigo.	Tobacco.	Garden and Orchard Produce.	Hemp and Flax.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Bhopal	680,042	12,897	502,977	256,787	64,970	21,627	2,218	51	751	2,500	2,060
Indore	524,813	57,107	249,088	197,391	43,861	14,357	800	7	588	881	584
Jabalpur	1,045,937	125,168	365,374	409,916	112,962	23,695	1,800	-	955	2,522	1,166
Madhya Pradesh	372,945	78,700	54,155	211,204	24,734	630	783	-	291	207	2,097
Nagpur	647,411	107,071	241,124	321,414	54,870	2,540	864	-	20	458	2,947
Orissa	635,688	21,914	294,023	245,544	24,687	41,686	2,238	16	597	2,847	898
Sehore	954,652	11,869	892,837	268,902	58,216	12,835	649	-	1,244	2,280	726
Ujjain	437,037	13,429	26,664	294,324	51,602	46,321	209	71	208	1,176	2,172
TOTAL	632,176	16,682	142,579	373,594	81,028	1,910	6,412	-	111	2,066	2,645
Chhindwara	805,673	11,520	105,794	549,068	85,681	43,448	4,432	-	921	2,423	45
Deogarh	823,148	1,732	212,201	315,132	159,552	234,779	494	-	1,566	879	1,500
Uttar Pradesh	1,220,431	37,626	826,285	521,784	219,711	22,217	1,140	-	1,930	5,296	2,100
Bandha	848,246	248,836	124,472	309,315	122,653	23,930	5,334	-	2,126	9,755	1,500
Madhya Pradesh	1,020,148	505,079	94,306	347,936	61,824	-	5,266	-	194	2,774	1,500
Madhya Pradesh	448,196	274,124	17,707	119,989	84,328	-	1,608	-	1,041	1,184	1,500
Rajpur	2,531,657	1,263,395	216,484	643,954	263,266	15,699	2,349	-	5,491	5,775	1,500
Rohilkhand	1,428,155	940,735	54,084	309,131	93,733	18,155	10,190	-	4,716	3,297	1,500
Banshalpur	703,312	587,991	-	65,748	24,563	10,819	6,000	-	-	-	1,500
TOTAL	16,047,784	4,416,064	3,619,704	5,618,174	1,600,225	612,687	53,938	85	22,366	47,066	0
Percentage of each Crop on Total Area cultivated		25.52	22.55	35.00	9.97	3.82	0.33	-	0.14	0.29	0

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

No. 3.—STATEMENT of the Average Price of some of the chief Food-grains at representative Markets in each Province, from 1881 to 1883.

N. B.—A Seer = lbs. 2.205.

GRAIN.	PROVINCE AND MARKET.	Average Number of Seers (of 80 Tolas) per Rupee.			Triennial Averages at 10 Years interval.			
		1881.	1882.	1883.	1861-63.	1871-73.	1881-83.	
RICE (COMMON)	Madras	Ganjam	18.4	18.5	20.2	18.93	22.06	10.36
		Tanjore	18.1	20.5	20.0	18.06	19.39	19.53
	Bombay	Belgaum	11.87	11.13	12.42	12.01	11.32	11.80
		Shikarpur	18.21	19.16	17.33	21.38	18.71	17.56
	Punjab	Amritsar	11.52	12.96	13.29	14.16	13.70	12.59
		Delhi	13.88	14.19	13.21	15.51	10.37	13.63
	North West Provinces	Bareilly	14.65	15.34	14.88	12.33	16.60	14.79
		Mirzapur	16.87	17.21	14.00	18.00	15.34	16.02
	Oudh	Faizabád	15.20	17.53	16.65	17.63	14.75	10.46
	Central Provinces	Raipur	37.94	40.55	32.04	53.00	34.21	36.83
		Nagpur	15.39	16.66	16.44	20.33	15.61	16.16
	Berar	Akola	10.06	10.71	12.33	11.13	-	11.04
	Assam	Sylhet	30.77	33.25	21.16	32.65	30.89	28.39
		Goalpara	19.53	19.61	18.81	26.74	10.41	19.05
	Bengal	Dinajpur	30.71	26.97	20.07	31.46	29.13	28.91
		Dacca	21.89	29.18	20.08	32.57	27.26	27.04
		Cuttack	24.75	27.07	23.30	29.13	29.20	25.01
	Burma	Rangoon	13.66	14.44	13.00	-	-	13.77
Tonghoo		19.44	20.05	18.53	-	-	18.63	
Madras	Bellary	16.37	17.70	17.60	11.80	9.79	17.22	
	Dhulia	18.41	15.96	15.15	17.33	14.27	16.60	
Bombay	Shikarpur	11.91	13.43	13.60	19.39	15.80	12.95	
	Punjab	Rawal Pindi	13.14	20.42	24.89	26.45	18.39	19.48
Amritsar		10.75	24.60	23.03	25.91	24.00	22.77	
North West Provinces	Bareilly	18.84	17.65	18.47	25.63	21.33	18.32	
	Meerut	20.45	18.55	13.15	27.50	23.00	17.61	
Oudh	Faizabád	18.90	17.18	17.71	26.83	18.73	17.93	
Central Provinces	Jubbulpore	21.00	18.52	19.99	23.66	21.42	19.72	
Berar	Akola	19.37	17.12	17.04	16.73	9.86	17.84	
Bombay	Ahmedabad	30.25	30.25	20.67	-	-	23.72	
WHEAT	North West Provinces	Meerut	20.10	26.10	28.65	-	-	27.05
		Allahabad	28.11	28.31	28.54	-	-	27.05
BARLEY	Punjab	Peshawar	20.73	24.89	37.16	-	-	30.93

PROGRESS AND CONDITION OF INDIA, 1882-83.

No. 2 (continued).—PROVINCIAL CROP RETURNS—continued.

B E R A R.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL Area under Crops.	CEREALS.			PULSES.			OIL SEEDS.		Cotton.
		Wheat.	Grass Millet (Jowári).	Spiked Millet (Báiri).	Chick Peas (Gram).	Cajan Peas (Tur).	Lentils.	Sesamum (Til).	Linseed (Álú).	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Amraoti	1,397,110	122,417	490,206	756	17,055	89,064	14,087	30,055	113,763	489,276
Akola	1,310,593	78,798	452,331	17,424	23,152	21,030	17,106	9,833	105,705	555,326
Ellichpur	621,189	51,146	207,454	266	15,230	14,873	6,412	6,851	22,892	254,018
Buldana	1,152,704	203,226	534,615	71,110	39,124	10,655	4,151	20,190	53,493	328,702
Wun	1,060,210	75,557	440,098	3	32,609	63,647	5,429	65,451	90,214	260,426
Bassim	1,025,217	216,246	347,512	2,763	49,918	10,957	11,056	16,011	11,372	251,440
TOTAL	6,567,323	740,391	2,276,220	92,322	177,893	210,162	58,232	147,391	897,630	2,139,168
(Percentage of each Crop on total Area Cultivated)		11.37	34.67	1.41	2.70	3.20	0.89	2.24	6.06	32.58

A S S A M.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL Area under Crops.	Rice.	Other Cereals (unspecified).	Oil Seeds (unspecified).	Cotton.	Sugar Cane.	Tea.	Hemp and Flax.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Sylhet	1,971,265	1,592,354	100,000	200,000	5,000	8,000	20,911	20,000
Cachar	239,618	162,330	7,920	4,800	1,103	900	48,973	100
Goalpara	376,111	253,604	-	61,203	150	425	364	61,208
Kamrup	513,606	432,028	-	55,147	3,809	5,839	6,302	-
Darrang	206,445	168,030	-	10,363	3	2,020	14,269	54
Nowgong	254,107	160,403	-	51,597	6,078	4,980	9,945	1,752
Sibsagar	329,480	207,902	-	14,256	131	3,631	39,100	-
Lakhimpur	128,279	64,509	-	2,554	-	782	39,037	-
Kháisá Hills	182,633	88,000	57,620	-	2,908	-	80	-
TOTAL	4,201,544	3,189,040	165,740	400,315	19,179	25,677	178,851	73,174
Percentage of each Crop on Total Area cultivated		74.19	3.94	9.53	0.45	0.61	4.26	1.74

B U R M A

DISTRICTS.	Total Area under Crops.	Rice.	Oil Seeds.	Tobacco.	Cotton.	Sugar Cane.	Garden and Orchard Produce.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Akyáb	364,298	328,914	388	11	560	96	19,711
North Arakan	6,558	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kyaukpadaung	104,537	90,108	2	1,828	-	1,362	5,505
Sandoway	46,935	34,340	1,016	1,327	352	1,068	3,965
Rangoon Town	1,654	1,363	-	-	-	-	291
Hanthawaddy	1,018,917	984,814	-	16	-	-	27,440
Tharawaddy	202,939	168,502	4,459	2,014	4	205	5,287
Prome	230,512	198,560	132	3,326	3,068	-	20,021
Thongwa	283,523	254,404	21	-	-	116	30,940
Bassien	474,599	430,039	26	52	23	518	28,937
Heinzá	254,606	240,802	2,360	2,078	22	-	4,971
Tbayetaung	107,671	67,702	10,169	3,470	-	-	10,425
Moulmein	2,356	1,800	-	-	-	-	556
Aunherst	351,469	318,166	7	34	658	794	13,619
Tavoy	75,105	50,320	120	10	12	173	13,632
Mergui	53,144	38,070	9	40	-	115	9,496
Toungoo	81,589	45,096	110	23	-	200	3,063
Shwegyin	96,051	78,887	439	79	-	2,551	8,586
Salween	13,868	867	-	-	-	-	8
TOTAL	3,746,279*	3,380,996	19,348	15,748	4,740	7,221	201,203
Percentage of each Crop on Total Area cultivated		90.28	0.51	0.42	0.12	0.19	5.37

* Including 58,654 acres of "Taungya," or forest-clearing for temporary cultivation.

No. 3 (continued).—STATEMENT of the Average Price of some of the chief Food-grains, &c.—continued.

GRAIN.	PROVINCE AND MARKET.	Average Number of Sects (of 80 Tolas) per Rupee.			Triennial Averages at 10 Years interval.		
		1881.	1882.	1883.	1881-83.	1871-78.	1861-83.
RICE	Madras - - - {Salem - - -	29.89	30.90	32.30	22.06	46.09	31.03
	- - - {Bellary - - -	35.15	32.90	35.60	26.33	38.87	34.55
	Bombay - - - {Belgaum - - -	33.36	35.87	25.13	- - -	- - -	31.45
	Berar - - - {Akola - - -	7.62	7.25	7.81	- - -	- - -	7.56
OWAR, OR CHOLAM	Madras - - - {Bellary - - -	38.5	35.4	41.4	23.50	30.42	38.48
	- - - {Coimbatore - - -	30.5	20.7	27.5	19.46	27.00	28.23
	- - - {Ahmedabad - - -	20.8	18.50	17.52	15.07	18.42	20.96
	Bombay - - - {Dhulia - - -	30.39	23.45	18.30	25.00	22.48	24.06
	- - - {Belgaum - - -	27.20	27.88	20.47	12.96	18.50	25.18
	- - - {Shikarpur - - -	18.96	22.55	27.59	32.77	28.87	23.03
	Punjab - - - {Delhi - - -	23.3	25.7	20.35	27.73	26.93	25.11
	- - - {Ludhiana - - -	27.46	38.37	38.37	20.50	32.65	34.74
	North West Provinces - {Allahabad - - -	27.93	31.91	31.59	23.66	20.52	30.47
	- - - {Meerut - - -	23.37	26.00	28.54	27.50	24.02	28.17
	Oudh - - - {Fairabad - - -	34.39	34.42	33.30	35.41	29.04	34.03
	Central Provinces - {Nagpur - - -	29.44	37.36	30.27	28.00	22.63	20.02
	Berar - - - {Akola - - -	39.29	30.12	27.18	28.43	25.25	32.19
	Bengal - - - {Patna - - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	47.50	33.29	- - -
	- - - {Monghir - - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	37.33	31.20	- - -
Madras - - - {Coimbatore - - -	35.19	34.3	30.8	28.20	24.58	33.43	
Bombay - - - {Ahmednagar - - -	27.61	23.55	18.70	21.66	18.87	23.28	
- - - {Dhulia - - -	23.62	19.48	15.45	20.16	18.42	19.28	
Punjab - - - {Delhi - - -	20.2	21.25	21.04	26.20	24.40	20.83	
- - - {Rawal Pindi - - -	16.42	25.84	42.33	37.30	23.84	27.88	
North West Provinces - {Saharanpur - - -	22.96	25.81	24.60	20.75	25.73	24.45	
- - - {Allahabad - - -	25.77	30.10	30.20	22.08	17.92	26.69	
Oudh - - - {Lucknow - - -	24.42	28.25	25.55	31.08	19.53	25.07	
Central Provinces - {Jubbulpore - - -	22.57	18.48	10.58	21.00	15.06	20.31	
Berar - - - {Akola - - -	24.12	23.33	20.63	22.80	17.94	22.76	

Note.—The annual averages are taken from the fortnightly returns published by the Government of India, and are recomputed for the triennial prices. The markets selected are, so far as the returns admit of such an arrangement, in districts the staple food of which is the grain quoted against each place, but some cases are exceptional.

J. A. Baines,
Bombay Civil Service.

T W E L V E M A P S

PREPARED BY TRELAWNY SAUNDERS, ESQ.

A LIST OF THE CIVIL DIVISIONS AND DISTRICTS OF INDIA WITH AREA, POPULATION, AND DENSITY PER SQUARE MILE.

LOWER BENGAL.—In Nine Divisions under a Lieutenant Governor.

I.—Bhagulpore Division, in Five Districts.					VI.—Patna Division, in Seven Districts.				
DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.	DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Bhagulpore	4,268	321,469	1,966,158	460.6	1. Champaran (motihari)	3,531	282,321	1,721,608	487.5
Buxar	1,891	124,000	710,448	375.7	2. Durbhanga	3,335	362,576	2,633,477	789.7
Chhauri	3,921	280,234	1,969,774	502.3	3. Gaya	4,712	346,794	2,124,000	450.7
Meerut	4,956	304,712	1,848,697	373.0	4. Muzafferpur	3,003	368,254	2,500,000	832.6
Patna Pergunnahs	5,456	246,746	1,568,093	287.4	5. Patna	2,079	279,100	1,700,000	818.1
TOTAL of the Division	20,492	1,279,363	8,063,160	393.4	6. Saran	2,533	326,699	1,800,000	710.8
II.—Burdwan Division, in Six Districts.					VII.—Presidency Division, in Seven Districts.				
Bankoorah	2,621	168,321	1,041,752	397.4	1. Jessore	2,276	220,255	1,577,245	693.0
Cerbhuom	1,756	181,068	794,428	452.4	2. Khulna	2,077	156,223	1,079,048	519.5
Burdwan	2,697	289,047	1,391,823	516.0	3. Moorshedabad	2,144	257,957	1,226,790	572.2
Hooghly	1,223	238,619	1,012,768	828.1	4. Nuddea	3,404	300,686	2,017,117	592.6
Howrah	476	113,644	635,381	1394.8	5. Twenty-four Pergunnahs	2,097	269,691	1,618,420	771.8
Hidnapore	5,082	417,062	2,517,802	495.4	6. Suburbs	28	37,806	251,430	10,036.0
TOTAL of the Division	13,855	1,407,761	7,893,954	533.6	7. Calcutta	8	34,584	433,219	54,152.4
III.—Chittagong Division, in Four Districts.					VIII.—Rajshahye and Cooch Behar Division, in Six Districts and One Native State.				
Chittagong	2,567	211,387	1,132,341	441.1	1. Bogra	1,498	99,473	734,358	490.2
Chittagong Hills	5,419	15,003	101,597	18.7	2. Darjeeling	1,234	29,028	125,179	101.4
Coakholly	1,641	86,958	820,772	500.1	3. Dinagepore	4,119	265,647	1,515,316	368.1
Upperah	2,491	179,374	1,519,338	609.9	4. Jalpigoree	2,884	94,795	581,562	201.6
TOTAL of the Division	12,118	492,722	3,574,048	294.9	5. Pubna	1,847	200,447	1,311,728	710.1
IV.—Dacca Division, in Four Districts.					IX.—Chota Nagpore Division, in Four Districts and Three Tributary States.				
Backergunge	3,649	222,912	1,900,889	520.9	1. Hazaribagh	7,021	185,280	1,104,742	157.3
Dacca	2,797	308,693	2,116,350	756.6	2. Lohardugga	12,045	289,886	1,609,244	133.6
Murroodpur	2,267	224,134	1,831,784	719.7	3. Manbhoom	4,147	178,494	1,058,228	255.2
Mymensingh	6,287	403,162	3,051,966	485.4	4. Singhboom	3,753	85,843	453,775	120.9
TOTAL of the Division	15,000	1,168,903	8,700,989	580.6	TOTAL of the Districts	26,966	739,508	4,225,080	156.8
V.—Orissa Division, in Five Districts and Seventeen Tributary States.					TOTAL of the Division				
Blasore	2,066	160,799	945,280	457.5	5. Tributary States	16,054	112,454	678,002	42.2
cuttack	3,517	316,436	1,738,165	494.2	TOTAL of the Division	43,020	851,957	4,903,091	113.9
Orce	2,473	127,369	888,487	359.2	TOTALS for LOWER BENGAL.				
Pal	381	17,719	101,903	115.6		150,588	10,548,947	66,891,456	
Pal	116	9,181	56,900	490.5					
TOTAL of the Division	9,053	631,504	3,730,785	412.1					
TOTAL of Tributary States	15,187	259,653	1,469,142	90.7					
TOTAL of Division and Tributary States	24,240	891,157	5,199,927	214.5					

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

ASSAM.—Under a Chief Commissioner, in Eleven Districts.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Cachar - - - - -	3,750	87,281	313,858	83.7
2. Sylhet - - - - -	5,440	988,051	1,069,009	361.9
3. Goalpara - - - - -	3,897	86,709	446,333	114.5
4. Kamrup - - - - -	3,631	93,758	644,900	177.6
5. Darrang - - - - -	3,418	40,082	273,338	79.9
6. Nowgong - - - - -	3,417	52,767	310,579	90.8
7. Sibsagar - - - - -	2,855	63,516	370,274	129.7
8. Lakhimpur - - - - -	3,723	29,127	179,493	48.3
9. Khasi and Jaintia Hills - - - - -	6,187	30,045	169,360	27.5
Naga Hills - - - - -	3,653	-	109,548	29.9
- - - - -	6,400	-	94,380	14.7
TOTAL of Assam - - - - -	46,341	-	4,881,426	105.3

UR.—A Native State with a Political Agent, under the control of the Chief Commissioner of Assam in relation to Assamese affairs, but otherwise under the Government of India.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Manipur - - - - -	8,000	45,320	221,070	27.6

BRITISH BURMAH—Under a Chief Commissioner, in Four Divisions under Commissioners.

I.—Arakan Division, in Four Districts.					III.—Irawaddy Division, in Four Districts.			
DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.	DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.
- - - - -	5,535	68,057	859,705	64.8	1. Thongwa - - - - -	5,413	49,396	284,063
Northern Arakan - - - - -	1,015	3,363	14,499	14.2	2. Bassin - - - - -	7,047	69,812	989,419
Chakpyu - - - - -	4,309	28,691	149,303	34.6	3. Henzada - - - - -	1,948	55,499	918,077
Myingay - - - - -	3,667	11,639	64,010	17.4	4. Thayetmyo - - - - -	2,397	34,080	169,560
TOTAL of Arakan Division	14,526	111,750	887,518	40.4	TOTAL of Irawaddy Division	16,805	208,787	1,161,119
II.—Pegu Division, in Four Districts.					IV.—Tenasserim Division, in Seven Districts.			
Yangon City - - - - -	22	20,855	134,176	6098.9	1. Moulmein - - - - -	14	9,310	53,107
Patheingyi - - - - -	4,236	72,115	427,720	100.0	2. Amherst - - - - -	15,189	50,483	301,086
Patheingyi - - - - -	2,014	49,846	278,155	138.1	3. Tavoy - - - - -	7,150	15,464	84,988
Patheingyi - - - - -	2,887	62,800	322,342	111.6	4. Mergui - - - - -	7,810	10,150	56,559
TOTAL of Pegu Division	9,159	205,416	1,162,393	126.9	5. Toungoo - - - - -	6,354	27,708	128,848
					6. Shwegyin - - - - -	5,567	31,868	171,144
					7. Salween - - - - -	4,646	6,387	30,009
					TOTAL of Tenasserim Division	46,730	151,409	825,741
					TOTAL of BRITISH BURMAH.			
						87,220	677,362	3,736,771

PROGRESS AND CONDITION OF INDIA, 1882-83.

ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS.—Under a Superintendent.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Port Blair - - - - -	880	2,928	14,628	16.6

THE NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH. The former is under a Lieutenant Governor who is also Chief Commissioner of Oudh.

THE NORTH WEST PROVINCES.—In Five Regulation and Two Non-Regulation Provinces or Divisions under Commissioners, and Two Native Principalities.

I.—Agra Division, in Six Districts and Thirty-three Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Agra - - - - -	1,849.8	165,439	974,656	526.8
2. Etah - - - - -	1,738.8	88,543	756,523	435.0
3. Etawah - - - - -	1,693.6	105,548	722,371	426.4
4. Farukhabad - - - - -	1,718.8	133,966	907,608	526.3
5. Muttra - - - - -	1,482.7	85,949	671,690	462.2
6. Mainpuri - - - - -	1,697.2	102,037	801,216	472.1
TOTAL of the Division -	10,150.9	681,482	4,834,064	476.2

II.—Allahabad Division, in Six Districts and Forty-three Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Allahabad - - - - -	2,838.1	288,647	1,474,106	520.3
2. Banda - - - - -	3,061.2	128,303	698,608	228.2
3. Cawnpore - - - - -	2,370.0	201,172	1,181,396	498.5
4. Fatehpur - - - - -	1,638.7	131,589	688,745	417.1
5. Hamirpur - - - - -	2,288.5	88,544	507,337	221.6
6. Jaunpur - - - - -	1,534.1	204,387	1,209,668	778.4
TOTAL of the Division -	18,745.6	1,032,732	5,754,855	418.6

III.—Benares Division, in Seven Districts and Twenty-nine Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Azimgarh - - - - -	2,147.4	245,836	1,604,654	747.8
2. Ballia - - - - -	1,144.4	126,685	924,763	807.6
3. Basti - - - - -	2,752.8	268,159	1,630,612	592.3
4. Benares - - - - -	998.0	111,563	892,684	894.4
5. Mau - - - - -	1,478.0	166,789	1,014,099	688.8
6. Mirzapur - - - - -	4,598.1	448,925	2,617,120	569.1
7. Oranpur - - - - -	5,228.3	176,976	1,136,796	217.6
TOTAL of the Division -	18,337.0	1,544,433	9,820,728	535.5

IV.—Meerut Division, in Six Districts and Twenty-six Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Aligarh - - - - -	1,955.3	124,578	1,021,187	522.4
2. Bulandshahr - - - - -	1,914.9	96,446	924,822	482.9
3. Dehra Dun - - - - -	1,198.0	32,942	1,44,070	120.2
4. Meerut - - - - -	2,379.2	150,269	1,813,137	762.1
5. Muzaffarnagar - - - - -	1,656.1	97,018	758,444	458.0
6. Saharanpur - - - - -	2,221.4	91,977	979,544	440.8
TOTAL of the Division -	11,319.9	593,215	5,141,204	453.6

V.—Rohilkhand Division, in Six Districts and Twenty Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Bareilly - - - - -	1,614.3	119,935	1,030,936	638.0
2. Bijnor - - - - -	1,867.7	84,871	721,450	386.1
3. Budann - - - - -	2,901.8	102,902	906,461	312.4
4. Moradabad - - - - -	2,283.8	143,631	1,155,153	505.6
5. Shahjahanpur - - - - -	1,745.7	128,640	856,946	490.7
6. Pilibhit - - - - -	1,371.6	64,625	451,601	329.0
TOTAL of the Division -	10,884.9	639,604	5,122,557	470.0

NON-REGULATION PROVINCES:

I.—Jhansi Division, in Three Districts and Eleven Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Jalaun - - - - -	1,469.4	66,784	418,142	284.5
2. Jhansi - - - - -	1,566.8	54,404	333,227	212.1
3. Lalitpur - - - - -	1,947.4	34,181	249,088	127.8
TOTAL of the Division -	4,983.6	155,319	1,000,457	202.6

II.—Kumaon Division, in Three Districts.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Almora - - - - -	6,000.0	72,964	403,641	67.3
2. Garhwal - - - - -	5,500.0	47,436	845,625	153.8
3. Tarai - - - - -	937.8	83,205	206,991	220.7
TOTAL of the Division -	12,437.8	153,605	1,046,257	84.1

NATIVE STATES.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Garhwal - - - - -	Estimated Area 4,180	22,728	199,896	47.8
2. Rampur - - - - -	Area 915	103,170	541,014	591.3

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

THE NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH—continued.

PROVINCE of OUDH, under a Chief Commissioner, who is also Lieutenant Governor of the North Western Provinces.—In Four Divisions under Commissioners.

Meerut Division, in Three Districts and Ten Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Meerut	2,740.8	177,314	878,048	330.3
Almora	1,689.0	206,258	1,081,419	640.2
Dehra Dun	2,881.2	203,274	1,270,926	442.0
TOTAL of the Division -	7,311.0	586,846	3,230,393	441.8

Benares Division, in Three Districts and Eleven Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Benares	1,768.2	187,557	1,026,788	580.7
Allahabad	989.6	131,215	696,824	704.6
Etawah	1,746.7	152,008	899,069	514.6
TOTAL of the Division -	4,504.5	470,780	2,622,681	582.2

Rae Bareilly Division, in Three Districts and Eleven Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Partabgarh	1,436.5	194,308	847,047	589.5
2. Rae Bareilly	1,778.3	180,548	951,905	647.7
3. Sultanpur	1,706.9	193,052	957,912	561.1
TOTAL of the Division -	4,881.7	567,908	2,756,864	564.7

Sitapur Division, in Three Districts and Eleven Tahsils.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Hardoi	2,311.6	147,073	987,680	427.2
2. Kheri	2,992.3	142,657	881,922	278.0
3. Sitapur	2,251.1	150,849	958,251	425.7
TOTAL of the Division -	7,555.0	440,579	2,777,803	367.6

TOTALS for the NORTH WESTERN PROVINCES and OUDH.

	111,236	6,992,410	44,849,619	403.2
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PUNJAB, under a Lieutenant Governor.—In Ten Divisions under Commissioners, and Thirty-eight Tributary States.

I.—Amritsar Division, in Three Districts and one Tributary State. (See No. XII.)

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Amritsar	1,574	121,155	893,266	567.5
Faridkot	1,822	111,242	823,005	452.1
Lyallpur	1,958	114,262	1,012,148	516.9
TOTAL of the Division -	5,354	346,659	2,729,109	509.7

IV.—Hissar Division, in Three Districts and Two Tributary States. (See No. XIV.)

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Hissar	3,540	78,127	504,183	142.4
2. Rohtak	1,511	74,813	553,609	365.6
3. Sirsa	3,004	30,535	253,275	84.3
TOTAL of the Division -	8,055	178,475	1,311,067	156.9

II.—Delhi Division, in Three Districts and One Tributary State. (See No. XIII.)

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Delhi	1,276	73,359	643,515	504.3
Rohtak	1,938	65,986	641,848	331.2
Meerut	2,396	68,271	622,621	259.3
TOTAL of the Division -	5,610	207,616	1,907,984	340.1

V.—Jullundur Division, in Three Districts and Three Tributary States. (See No. XV.)

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Hoshiarpur	2,150	156,096	901,381	415.0
2. Jullundur	1,322	115,663	789,555	597.1
3. Kangra	9,069	112,430	730,845	80.3
TOTAL of the Division -	12,541	384,189	2,421,781	192.1

III.—Derajat Division, in Three Districts.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Derajat	3,868	57,106	382,577	85.9
Dera Ghazi Khan	4,517	58,543	363,346	80.4
Dera Ismail Khan	9,296	88,908	441,649	47.5
TOTAL of the Division -	17,681	204,557	1,187,572	64.3

VI.—Lahore Division, in Three Districts and One Tributary State. (See No. XVI.)

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Ferozepore	2,752	74,429	650,519	236.4
2. Gujranwala	2,587	84,571	616,802	238.4
3. Lahore	3,048	180,296	924,106	303.1
TOTAL of the Division -	8,387	339,296	2,191,517	259.9

PROGRESS AND CONDITION OF INDIA, 1882-83.

THE PUNJAB—continued.

VII.—Mooltan Division, in Four Districts.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Jhang - - - -	5,702	67,024	395,296	69.8
2. Montgomery - - - -	5,574	74,830	426,529	76.5
3. Mooltan - - - -	5,880	93,599	551,964	93.8
4. Mozaffargarh - - - -	3,189	62,215	338,605	107.8
TOTAL of the Division -	20,295	297,668	1,712,394	84.8

VIII.—Peshawar Division, in Three Districts.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Hazara - - - -	3,039	67,412	407,075	133.9
2. Kohat - - - -	2,838	22,442	181,540	63.9
3. Peshawar - - - -	2,504	87,720	592,674	236.6
TOTAL of the Division -	8,381	177,574	1,181,289	140.9

IX.—Rawalpindi Division, in Four Districts.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Gujrat - - - -	1,973	83,193	689,115	349.2
2. Jhelum - - - -	3,910	72,013	589,373	150.7
3. Rawalpindi - - - -	4,861	102,288	820,512	168.8
4. Shahpur - - - -	4,691	72,034	421,508	89.8
TOTAL of the Division -	15,435	329,573	2,520,508	163.3

X.—Umballa Division, in Three Districts and Twenty-four Hill States. (See No. XVII.)

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Ludhiana - - - -	1,375	104,231	618,885	450.0
2. Simla - - - -	18	6,559	42,946	2385.8
3. Umballa - - - -	2,870	146,517	1,067,268	415.2
TOTAL of the Division -	3,963	257,307	1,729,049	436.3

XI.—Khaibar Puse.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
No Districts - - - -	Not returned.	none -	8,178	—

TRIBUTARY STATES.

XII.—Under I., Amritsar Division.

STATES.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Chamba - - - -	3,180	20,168	115,773	36.4

XIII.—Under II., Delhi Division.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Patandli - - - -	48	2,537	17,847	371.8

XIV.—Under IV., Hissar Division.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Chuhra - - - -	285	1,617	13,754	48.2
Dejiana - - - -	114	2,981	23,416	205.4

XV.—Under V., Jullundur Division.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Barbala - - - -	620	37,633	252,617	407.4
Idi - - - -	1,000	24,331	147,017	147.0
- - - -	474	8,658	52,484	110.7

XVI.—Under VI., Lahore Division.

STATES.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Fardkot - - - -	612	10,031	97,034	158

XVII.—Under X., Umballa Division.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Maler Kotla - - - -	164	12,964	71,051	—
Kalsia - - - -	178	9,311	67,708	—
Sirola Hill States - - - -	6,095	70,356	450,369	—

XVIII.—Under the Lieutenant Governor.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Patiala - - - -	5,887	282,063	1,467,433	21.1
Bahawalpur - - - -	15,000	88,650	573,494	3.9
Jind - - - -	1,232	42,078	349,862	2.8
Nabha - - - -	928	42,019	261,824	2.8
TOTAL of the Punjab, with its Tributary States - - - -	142,449	3,362,306	22,712,120	1.6

XIX.—Kashmir, under the Maharajah of Jammu, was trolled through the Punjab Government, though omitted from the Census of 1881. It has been since transferred to the Punjab Government to the Governor General of India represented by a British Resident. The following figures are from the Census of 1883:—

I.—Kashmir, in Six Wazarats or Districts.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Sherkhas or Srinagar - - - -	-	-	46,731	—
2. Islamabad or Anantnag - - - -	-	-	48,205	—
3. Shuplyan - - - -	-	-	52,169	—
4. Pattan - - - -	-	-	50,084	—
5. Kamraj - - - -	-	-	70,859	—
6. Muzatterabad - - - -	-	-	70,837	—
TOTAL of Kashmir Division - - - -	-	-	491,846	—

II.—Jammu Division, or Home Governments.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Panch - - - -	-	-	77,566	—
2. Naushara - - - -	-	-	111,888	—
3. Riasi - - - -	-	-	98,035	—
4. Minawar - - - -	-	-	193,004	—
5. Jammu - - - -	-	-	206,827	—
6. Ramnagar - - - -	-	-	79,777	—
7. Jasrota - - - -	-	-	73,854	—
8. Udampur - - - -	-	-	98,190	—
TOTAL of Jammu Division - - - -	-	-	938,041	—

III.—Northern Governments.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Ladak - - - -	-	-	20,621	—
2. Baltistan - - - -	-	-	58,086	—
3. Gilgit - - - -	-	-	25,834	—
TOTAL of Northern Governments - - - -	-	-	104,485	—

TOTAL, KASHMIR.

TOTAL, KASHMIR - - - -	-	-	1,534,972	—
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STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

RAJPUTANA.

Mewar-Merwara, British Territory, under a Commissioner subordinate to the Chief Commissioner, who is also the Governor General's Agent for Rajputana, in Two Districts.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Jeypore	2,070	50,541	859,288	173.5
Merwara	641	13,577	101,434	158.2
TOTAL	2,711	64,118	460,722	169.9

I.—Meywar Residency, with a Resident and Three Assistants.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Jeypore (Meywar) Municipality.	12,670	324,136	1,494,220	117.9
Akela				
Begor				
Bhilwara				
Chitor				
Chhōta Sāgri				
Gaband				
Gena				
Gerwa				
Harra Angucha				
Shajapur				
San				
Sara				
Sannor				
Saroda				
15. Magra Khairwara				
16. Magra Merwara				
17. Mandal				
18. Mandalgarh				
19. Nar Magra				
20. Palsora				
1. Potla				
2. Pur				
3. Raipur				
24. Rajnagar				
25. Rasmi				
26. Rel Magra				
7. Rincher				
Sera				
n				
nganj				
hugarh				
a				
and Kusalgah	1,500	35,820	152,045	101.8
par	1,000	36,226	153,381	153.3
garh	1,460	18,622	79,568	54.5
Merwara Hills (Bhil) Estates.		No census taken.		

All these petty States are included in the figures shown for Oodeypore.

IV.—Eastern Rajputana, Political Resident at Jeypore.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Jeypore	14,465	507,087	2,534,357	175.2
2. Kishengurb	724	24,928	112,633	155.5
3. Lawa	18	591	2,682	149.0

V.—Bhurtore and Kerowlee, Political Agent at Kerowlee.

1. Bhurtore	1,974	88,104	645,540	327.0
2. Kerowlee	1,208	25,930	148,670	123.0

VI.—Harowtee and Tonk, Political Agent at Deoli.

1. Boodoo	2,300	60,565	254,701	110.7
2. Tonk (other parts are in Central India Agencies).	2,500	73,482	332,229	134.7
3. Shahpoora (Phoolia Pargana only).	400	10,810	51,750	129.3
4. Meena Kherao and Deoli, consisting of 21 villages in Meywar, 14 in Jeypore, and 11 in Boodoo, the last only being in this Agency.		No information.		—

VII.—Ulwar, Political Agent at Ulwar.

1. Ulwar	3,024	101,948	682,926	225.8
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VIII.—Kotah, Political Agent at Kotah.

1. Kotah	3,797	130,698	517,275	136.2
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IX.—Jhallawar, Political Superintendent at Jhalrapatan.

1. Jhallawar	2,694	68,001	340,488	126.3
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X.—Sujangurh, Assistant Political Agent. Sujangurh.

1. Bickaneer	22,340	107,669	509,021	22.7
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XI.—Dholpur, Political Agent, Dholpur.

1. Dholpur	1,200	48,420	240,657	208.9
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TOTAL of all RAJPUTANA.

	129,760	2,101,451	10,268,892	79.1
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II.—Western Rajputana, Political Resident at Jodhpore.

1. Marwar (Jodhpore)	37,000	368,707	1,750,403	47.3
2. Siraha	3,020	30,532	142,903	47.3
3. Jeypore	16,447	26,217	108,143	6.5

BARODA.—H.H. the Gaekwar's Tributary State—(Governor General's Political Agent).

In Four Districts; also Baroda City and Baroda Cantonment.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Amreli - - - - -	1,560	31,124	147,468	94.5
2. Kadi - - - - -	3,158	319,213	988,487	313.0
3. Nowsari - - - - -	1,940	54,742	287,549	148.2
4. Baroda - - - - -	1,906	145,365	654,989	343.6
5. Baroda City - - - - -	5	27,726	101,818	17752.0
6. Baroda Cantonment - - - - -	1	1,473	4,694	
TOTAL - - - - -	8,570	470,643	2,185,005	254.9

CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY.

I.—Indore Residency;—Viceroy's Political Agent, with an Assistant for Gwalior and for each of the Seven (now Six) Agencies.

	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Indore (Holcar's State) - (<i>Excluding the Zillaha or Districts of Indore, Nimar, and Nimsar. Other parts of Indore follow under III, 7; VI, 6; VII, 11; VIII, 10.</i>)	8,402	198,662	1,054,237	125.4
Bagli (Gwalior Dependency).	-	-	14,646	
Devas Senior State	389	25,657	78,940	491.9
Devas Junior State (<i>Other parts of Devas follow under III, 8, 10; VI, 7; VIII, 5.</i>)			68,222	

II.—Gwalior Residency.

	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
Gwalior (Scindia's State) northern part. (<i>Other parts follow under I, 2; III, 6, 12; VI, 5; VII, 10; IX, 2. In the Adm. Report, 1871-72, Gwalior is said to consist of 14 provinces in 58 districts. The figures appear to include the whole of Gwalior Territory. Details are not supplied in the Census Report.</i>)	29,067	529,650	2,933,652	100.9

III.—Bhopal Agency.

	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Nawab Basoda State -	22	1,862	7,722	351.0
2. Bhopal State - - -	6,874	184,808	954,901	138.9
3. Sarangpur, a district of Deccan. See I.	-	-	-	-
4. Girasia Estates - -	-	-	-	-
5. Pindara Jaghirs - -	14	501		
6. Gwalior Districts - <i>See 12 below, and II ante.</i>	-	-	-	-
7. Indore Districts - - <i>See No. I.</i>	-	-	-	-
8. Karwai State - - -	139	3,842	24,681	177.2
9. Kilchipur State - -	278	6,787	36,125	132.3
10. Larawat (Devas and Dhor). <i>See No. I, 3, 4; VII, 3.</i>	-	-	-	-
11. Mahanagar State -	27	766	5,347	198.9
12. Maksudangar State <i>Tributary to Gwalior.</i>	-	-	13,924	-
13. Narsinggarh State -	623	17,502	112,427	180.4
14. Rajgarh State - - -	655	23,035	117,533	179.4
13. Pathari State - - -	26	1,082	6,393	245.9
14. Sironj (District of Tonk) <i>(The chief part of Tonk State is under Rajputana Agency, VI, 2. See also Central India Agencies, VI, 9; IX, 3.)</i>	-	-	-	-

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY—continued.

IV.—Bundelkhand Agency.					VII.—Bhopawar (Sheel) Agency.				
	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.		Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Ajaigarh State - - -	802	14,076	81,484	101.5	1. Ali Rajpur - - -	837	10,136	56,827	67.8
2. Bijawar State - - -	974	21,877	118,285	116.3	2. Dahi and Dhuramrai - - -	-	-	-	-
3. Charkhari State - - -	788	24,259	143,015	181.4	3. Dhar (See III, 10.) - - -	1,739	-	149,244	85.8
4. Chhatrapur State - - -	1,178	27,608	164,369	139.5	4. Dhananra - - -	-	-	-	-
5. Datia State - - -	837	29,396	182,598	218.1	5. Jhabua - - -	1,219	-	92,938	76.2
6. Orcha or Telari State - - -	2,015	56,139	311,514	154.6	6. Jobat - - -	182	1,713	9,887	71.1
7. Panna - - -	2,568	45,414	227,306	88.5	7. Kathiwara - - -	68	416	2,376	34.9
8. Samthar and Amra - - -	174	7,131	38,633	222.0	8. Mathwar - - -	140	525	2,630	18.8
9. Jagirs (fifteen) - - -	-	-	-	-	9. Ratavnul - - -	-	-	463	-
10. Choubey Jagirs - - -	150	4,132	21,619	144.1	10. Gwalior Districts - - - (See II.)	-	-	-	-
11. Husht Bhija Jagirs - - -	-	-	-	-	11. Indore Districts - - - (See I.)	-	-	-	-
					12. Guaranteed Bhumias - - -	-	-	36,835	-
V.—Baghelkhand Agency.					VIII.—Manpur Agency.—Amalgamated with Bhopawar Agency since December 1882.				
1. Kothi - - -			18,386		1. Manpur - - -	49	956	5,239	106.5
2. Maihar - - -			71,709		2. Bharadpura - - -	-	-	1,724	-
3. Nagode - - -	11,324	295,924	79,629	139.5	3. Chikhtiabar - - -	-	-	415	-
4. Rewah - - -			1,306,124		4. Kothidc - - -	-	-	494	-
5. Sohawal - - -			37,747		5. Jagaud - - -	-	-	-	-
					6. Karwari State - - -	1,362	10,216	56,445	41.4
					7. Garhi (Grijri) - - -	-	-	980	-
VI.—Western Malwa Agency.					8. Jimnta - - -	-	-	3,205	-
1. Jairo - - -	581	-	108,484	186.6	9. Hajgahr - - -	-	-	706	-
2. Rutlam - - -	729	18,040	87,314	119.7	10. Indore Districts in Nimar. (See I.)	-	-	-	-
3. Sailana - - -	113	6,128	29,723	263.0	11. Agra and Bombay Road, from Mhow to Khandesh Frontier.	-	-	-	-
4. Sitaman - - -	-	-	30,839	-					
5. Gwalior Districts - - - (See II; III, 6, 12.)	-	-	-	-	IX.—Goona Agency.				
6. Indore Districts - - - (See I, 1.)	-	-	-	-	1. Goona British Cantonment.	-	-	-	-
7. Dewas, Senior and Junior; three districts. (See I, 3, 4.)	-	-	-	-	2. Gwalior Districts - - - (See II.)	-	-	-	-
8. Jhalawar (Chormela Parganas.) (See IX, 4. The chief part of Jhalawar is in the Harwarer and Tonk Agency of Rajputana.)	-	-	-	-	3. Chapra, a Tonk District (See III.)	-	-	-	-
9. Pirawa, a Tonk district (See III, 14.)	-	-	-	-	4. Shahabad, a Jhalawar Pargana. (See VI, 8.)	-	-	-	-
10. Guaranteed Thakur - - -	-	-	-	-	5. Guaranteed Bhumias - - -	-	-	-	-
					TOTAL CENTRAL INDIA.				
						75,079	1,661,434	9,261,907	123.3

THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.—In Four Provinces or Divisions under a Chief Commissioner.

Chhattisgarh Division, in Three Districts.					Nagpur Division, in Five Districts.				
DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.	DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Bilaspur	8,800	319,904	1,126,508	128.0	1. Balaghat	3,146	69,094	340,554	108.3
2. Raipur	14,548	561,205	1,832,287	125.9	2. Bhandara	3,922	133,066	683,770	174.3
3. Sambalpur	16,418	857,118	1,653,960	100.7	3. Chanda	23,847	186,406	845,394	35.4
TOTAL of the Division	39,761	1,222,222	4,612,705	116.0	4. Nagpur	8,786	145,598	697,856	184.2
					5. Wardha	2,401	85,044	387,321	161.2
					TOTAL of the Division	37,102	619,138	2,954,304	79.6
Jubbulpore Division, in Five Districts.					Nerbudda Division, in Five Districts.				
1. Damoh	2,799	70,276	312,957	111.8	1. Betul	3,905	58,603	304,905	78.0
2. Jubbulpore	3,918	174,512	687,233	175.4	2. Chhindwara	3,915	73,621	372,809	95.2
3. Mandla	4,719	61,779	301,760	63.9	3. Hoshangabad	4,652	106,243	505,551	108.6
4. Saugor	4,005	130,409	554,950	141.0	4. Narsinghpur	1,916	79,765	365,178	190.5
5. Seoni	3,247	67,104	334,733	103.0	5. Nimar	3,340	48,592	231,341	69.2
TOTAL of the Division	18,688	504,080	2,201,633	117.8	TOTAL of the Division	17,728	366,824	1,779,869	100.4
					TOTAL, CENTRAL PROVINCES.				
						113,279	2,712,259	11,545,511	101.9

HYDERABAD.—The Naizam's State.

I.—Northern Division.					IV.—Western Division.				
DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.	DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Indur, including Sarpur Tandur.	8,967	149,165	777,029	86.6	1. Bidar	4,884	153,336	793,309	162.4
2. Medak	1,779	59,529	293,930	165.2	2. Nander	4,122	139,977	753,085	182.6
3. Yalgandal (Elgandal)	7,490	166,033	961,172	128.5	3. Naldurg	3,997	91,929	538,807	134.8
TOTAL of the Division	18,226	374,727	2,032,131	111.5	TOTAL of the Division	13,003	385,242	2,085,151	160.3
II.—Eastern Division.					V.—North Western Division.				
1. Khammam	9,778	121,246	675,746	69.1	1. Anrangabad	6,159	140,388	729,208	118.4
2. Nagar-Karnul	5,678	111,664	547,694	96.2	2. Parbhani	4,334	103,165	582,379	134.6
3. Nalgonda	4,131	68,417	494,190	119.6	3. Birh	4,487	111,560	560,960	125.0
TOTAL of the Division	19,482	321,327	1,717,630	88.1	TOTAL of the Division	14,980	355,103	1,872,637	125.0
III.—Southern Division.					VI.—Central Division.				
1. East-Entochur	2,338	60,370	315,109	134.7	1. Hyderabad	3,495	150,384	734,710	210.2
2. West Raichur or Lingasagar.	3,371	68,380	330,139	97.9					
3. Shorapur	2,901	51,930	287,602	99.1	TOTALS FOR HYDERABAD.				
4. Gulbarga	4,011	92,137	470,425	117.2					
TOTAL of the Division	12,621	272,817	1,403,335	111.2		81,807	1,859,600	9,845,594	120.3

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.—Under a Governor.

I.—Bombay City and Island.					V.—Sind Division, in Five Districts.				
DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.	DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
(A.) Colaba	1,209	2,195	57,555	52.0 p'acre	1. Hyderabad	9,090	150,488	754,694	83.5
(U.) Market	694	6,708	216,475	311.7 "	2. Karachi	14,115	87,059	478,688	33.9
(C.) Dhobse Talao	680	6,647	219,169	322.3 "	3. Shikarpur	1,000	137,702	852,966	85.2
(D.) Chowpatty	1,021	1,270	28,510	27.8 "	4. Upper Sind Frontier	2,139	21,923	124,181	58.0
(K.) Mazagon	3,880	6,751	167,433	43.1 "	5. Thar and Parkar	12,729	36,412	203,844	15.9
(F.) Non	6,757	2,849	49,167	7.3 "	TOTAL of the Division	48,014	433,584	2,413,893	50.2
(G.) Harbour			24,837						
TOTAL	14,331 = 22.4 sq. mile.	28,315	773,196	53,145.8 per square mile.					
II.—Northern Division, in Seven Districts.					TOTAL of the BOMBAY PRESIDENCY:				
1. Ahmadabad	3,821	190,996	856,324	224.1		124,122	2,822,741	16,464,414	132.3
2. Broach	1,433	72,285	326,930	226.0	Aden	11.6	5,254	34,860	3,005.1
3. Kaira	1,609	191,232	804,800	500.2					
4. Kolaba	1,496	71,930	381,649	255.1	VI.—Tributary Native States.				
5. Panch Mahals	1,813	50,970	255,479	158.3	1. Cutch	6,500	102,007	512,084	78.7
6. Surat	1,662	119,892	614,198	369.5	2. Palanpur	3,000	125,237	576,478	114.0
7. Thana	4,243	154,403	908,548	214.1	3. Mahi Kanta	11,049	117,112	517,485	46.8
TOTAL of the Division	16,897	800,708	4,147,928	260.9	4. Kathiawar:				
					(i.) Jhalawad Prant	4,292	94,548	439,629	102.4
					(ii.) Sorath Prant	5,385	135,877	639,780	118.8
					(iii.) Halar Prant	5,852	130,546	684,327	116.9
					(iv.) Gohilivar Prant	3,797	118,464	530,103	155.6
					TOTAL	19,256	479,436	2,343,899	121.7
III.—Central Division, in Six Districts.					5. Cambay	350	21,702	86,074	245.7
1. Ahmadnagar	6,556	105,386	751,228	112.7	6. Hewa Kantha	4,792	109,730	543,452	113.4
2. Khandesh	9,944	208,998	1,237,231	124.4	7. Narukot	143	1,313	6,440	45.0
3. Nasik	5,940	122,816	781,206	131.5	8. Surat Agency	1,220	27,894	151,132	123.8
4. Poona	5,348	158,401	900,621	168.4	9. Khandesh Agency	3,840	11,313	60,270	15.7
5. Satara	4,068	151,173	1,062,950	212.9	10. Jawhar	534	8,307	48,556	90.9
6. Sholapur	4,521	81,203	582,487	128.8	11. Janjira	325	14,421	76,361	235.0
TOTAL of the Division	37,407	822,974	5,315,123	142.0	12. Satara Agency	3,314	45,646	318,687	96.1
IV.—Southern Division, in Five Districts.					13. Akalkot	498	8,493	58,040	116.5
1. Amravati	4,657	154,806	864,014	185.5	14. Kolhapur and 8 Southern Mahratta States	2,816 2,734	129,148 90,799	800,189 554,758	284.1 191.5
2. Baroda	4,535	161,150	882,907	194.6	15. Sawanur	70	2,646	14,763	210.9
3. Belgaon	5,757	114,533	638,493	110.9	16. Sawantwari	900	30,444	174,433	193.5
4. Kanara	3,911	68,832	421,840	107.8	17. Khairpur	6,109	25,720	129,153	21.1
5. Raichur	3,922	177,844	997,090	254.2	TOTAL Tributary Native States of BOMBAY	72,450	1,351,367	6,941,219	
TOTAL of the Division	22,782	677,165	3,804,344	166.9					

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

PORTUGUESE TERRITORY.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Goa - - - - -	1,296	87,196	420,868	324.7
2. Daman - - - - -	148	9,342	47,983	324.2
3. Diu - - - - -	20	2,920	12,611	630.5
TOTAL - - - - -	1,464	99,967	481,467	638.6

FRENCH TERRITORY.

DISTRICTS.	Area in Square Miles.	Occupied Houses.	Total Population.	Density of Population to One Square Mile.
1. Pondichery - - - - -	112.4	—	139,310	1,238.6
2. Karikal - - - - -	52.0	—	98,005	1,788.0
3. Yanam - - - - -	5.5	—	4,552	827.0
4. Loge at Masulipatam - - - - -	—	—	—	—
5. Mahé - - - - -	22.8	—	8,106	355.5
6. Loge at Calicut - - - - -	—	—	—	—
7. Factory at Surat - - - - -	—	—	—	—
8. Chandernagore - - - - -	—	—	26,574	—
9. Loge at Cossimbazar - - - - -	—	—	—	—
10. " Jougdis - - - - -	—	—	—	—
11. " Dacca - - - - -	—	—	—	—
12. " Balasore - - - - -	—	—	—	—
13. " Patna - - - - -	—	—	—	—

INDIAN RAILWAYS CONSTRUCTED AND IN PROGRESS.

EAST INDIAN RAILWAY WORKED BY COMPANY.

Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.	Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.
EAST INDIAN.		Brought forward - - -	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.		1,204½	
	<i>Miles.</i>	East Indian—continued.	
		Branches—continued.	<i>Miles.</i>
Howrah to Khána Junction - - -	74½	Brought forward - - -	46
Khána Junction to Luckeeserai Junction	250½	Tinpahár Junction (194½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Loop line) to Itajmehal (<i>Rajmehal Branch</i>) - - -	7½
Luckeeserai Junction to Allahabad - - -	308½	Mokameh Junction (282 miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Chord line) to the river bank (<i>Mokameh Branch</i>) - - -	2½
Allahabad to Delhi - - -	890½	Jamálpur Junction (207½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Loop line) to Monghyr (<i>Monghyr Branch</i>) - - -	5½
	1,018½	Bankipore (337½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Chord line) to junction with the Patna-Gya State Railway (<i>Gya State Railway Branch</i>) - - -	½
Chord Line:		Moghal Sarai Junction (469½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Chord line) to Benares (<i>Benares Branch</i>) - - -	6
Allahabad Junction to Sitárampur Junction	62½	Naini Junction (599½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Chord line, or 4½ miles east of Allahabad) to Jubbulpore (<i>Jubbulpore Branch</i>) - - -	223½
Sitárampur Junction to Luckeeserai Junction	123½	Allahabad Junction (564½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Chord line) to Fort (<i>Allahabad Fort Branch</i>) - - -	2½
	186½	Cawnpore (68½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Chord line) to the corn market in the City (<i>Cawnpore City Branch</i>) - - -	½
Branches:		Tánilla Junction (827½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Chord line) to Agra (<i>Agra Branch</i>) - - -	13½
Bhadreswar (17½ miles from Howrah) to the river bank (<i>Bhadreswar Branch</i>) - - -	2½	Bankipore (337½ miles from Howrah <i>via</i> the Chord line) to Digah Ghát - - -	6
Hooghly Junction (24 miles from Howrah) to Nalháti on the Eastern Bengal Railway (<i>Hooghly Bridge Branch</i>) - - -	4		313½
Allahabad Junction (41½ miles from Khána on the Chord line) to Tappei (<i>Allahabad Branch</i>) - - -	7½	Carried forward - - -	46
Allahabad Junction (82½ miles from Allahabad Junction on the Chord line) to Barákar (<i>Barákar Branch</i>) - - -	5½		1,204½
Madhupur Junction (108½ miles from Khána Junction on the Chord line) to Kurhurbáree Collieries (<i>Kurhurbáree Branch</i>) - - -	26½	TOTAL - - -	1,518

GUARANTEED RAILWAYS.

Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.	Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.
ODISH AND ROHILKHAND.		I.—ODISH AND ROHILKHAND—continued.	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.		Brought forward - - -	
	<i>Miles.</i>	562½	
Branch of the East Indian Railway, about two miles east of Allahabad through Benares, Bara Banki (late Lucknow Junction) and Chandernagore to Sitárampur (<i>Main Branch</i>) - - -	541	Lucknow Junction (205 miles from Benares Junction, on Main Line), to the East Indian Railway at Cawnpore Junction (<i>Cawnpore Branch</i>) - - -	45½
		Chandausi Junction (39½ miles from Benares Junction, on Main Line), to the East Indian Railway at Aligarh Junction (<i>Aligarh Branch</i>) - - -	60½
		Benares Bridge and Junction - - -	5½
		Lhaksar to Haridwar (<i>Haridwar Branch</i>) - - -	17
		Moradabad to Hamnagar (<i>Hamnagar Branch</i>) - - -	47
		Allahabad to Ajudhya - - -	4
			179½
		Carried forward - - -	742

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE MORAL AND MATERIAL

GUARANTEED RAILWAYS—continued.

Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.	Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.
Brought forward - - -	742	Brought forward	2,298½
II.—SIND, PUNJAB, AND DELHI.		IV.—SOUTH INDIAN	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE. Miles.		METRE GAUGE. Miles.	
<i>Punjab Section:—</i>		Madras (Egmore) to Beach - - -	2½
Ghazibad Junction on the East Indian Railway (18 miles east of Delhi), to Amritsar - - -	303½	Madras (Egmore) to Tuticora - - -	443½
Amritsar to Mooltan and Ramu-wala - - - - -	252	Chingleput (34½ miles from Madras) to Arkonam (42½ miles from Madras), on the Madras Railway - - -	30
	555½	Vilupuram (98½ miles from Madras), to the Gingee River, to connect with Poudicherry Railway - - -	1½
<i>Riwind Branch:</i>		Tanjore (217½ miles from Madras) to Nagapattinam - - - - -	28
Riwind to Ganda Singhwala - - -	22½	Trichinopoly (248½ miles from Madras) to Erode Junction (24½ miles from Madras), on the Madras Railway, South-West line - - - - -	87½
Ganda Singhwala to boat-bridge, over the Sutlej opposite Ferozepore - - - - -	3	Maniyachi (425 miles from Madras), to Tinnavally - - - - -	13½
	25½		
<i>Sind Section:</i>		V.—GREAT INDIAN PENINSULA.	
Kotri to Kurrachee Cantonment - - -	103	5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.	
Kurrachee Cantonment to Kurrachee City - - - - -	2½	<i>North-East Line:</i>	
	105½	Bombay to Kalyan Junction - - -	33½
	686½	Kalyan Junction to Bhusaval Junction - - - - -	242½
III.—MADRAS.		Bhusaval Junction to Jabbulpore (point of junction with East Indian Railway) - - - - -	389½
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.			615
<i>South-West Line:</i>		<i>Nagpur Branch:</i>	
Madras to Veyasarpany Junction - - - - -	2½	Bhusaval Junction to Nagpur - - -	244½
Veyasarpany Junction to Arkonam Junction - - - - -	40½	<i>Mohpali Branch:</i>	
Arkonam Junction to Beypore - - -	362½	Gadarvada Junction (20 miles from Jabbulpore) to Mohpali Coal-fields - - -	12½
Beypore to Calicut - - - - -	9		
Raysapuram Branch - - - - -	2	<i>South-East Line, including Khopoli Branch:</i>	
	417½	Kalyan Junction to Ratchur (point of junction with the Madras Railway) - - - - -	408½
<i>Bangalore Branch:</i>		Palasdhari (63½ miles from Bombay to Khopoli) - - - - -	7½
Jalapa Junction (139 miles from Madras) to Bangalore Cantonment - - - - -	84½		416
Bangalore Cantonment to the Bangalore city - - - - -	2½		1,288
	87	VI.—BOMBAY, BARODA, AND CENTRAL INDIA.	
<i>Nilgiri Branch:</i>		5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.	
Podanur Junction (301½ miles from Madras) to Mettupalaiyam, at the foot of the hills - - - - -	26½	<i>Main Line:</i>	
<i>North-West Line:</i>		Bombay - Colaba Terminus to Ahmedabad - - - - -	
Arkonam Junction (42½ miles from Madras) to Guntakal Junction - - - - -	231	Extension to Viramgam Junction and Wadhwan - - - - -	
Guntakal Junction to Ratchur (point of junction with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway) - - - - -	77		
	308	<i>Dakor Branch:</i>	
<i>Bellary Branch:</i>		Anand Junction - - - - -	
Guntakal Junction to Bellary - - -	32		

ASSISTED RAILWAYS.

Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.	Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.
<p>I.—BENGAL CENTRAL. 5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE. Miles.</p> <p>Dum-Dum Junction <i>viâ</i> Baraset and Bongong to Khoobas - - - - 104½</p> <p>Rânaghat to Bongong - - - - 20½</p> <hr/> <p>125½</p>		<p>Brought forward - - - - 600½</p> <p>VI.—ASSAM. METRE GAUGE. Miles.</p> <p><i>Main Line:</i> Dibrugarh, on the banks of the Brahmaputra River, <i>viâ</i> Tinsukia and Dum-Duma to Tâlap - - - - 54½</p> <p><i>Makum Branch:</i> Junction <i>viâ</i> Barbil to Margherita - - 23</p> <hr/> <p>77½</p>	
<p>II.—BENGAL AND NORTH-WESTERN. METRE GAUGE.</p> <p><i>Main Lines:</i> Sonapore opposite Patna, <i>viâ</i> Chupra, Savan, and Gorakhpur, to Bahraich - 274</p> <p><i>Branches:</i> Miles.</p> <p>Mankapur to Nawâbganj and Ajodhya 20</p> <p>Gorakhpur to Ghâzipur and Benares 134</p> <p>Bahraich to Nepalganj - - - - 32</p> <p>Gorakhpur to Bansi - - - - 36</p> <p>Loop from Sonapore to Bunwârchak 9½</p> <hr/> <p>231½</p>		<p>VII.—DARJEELING-HIMALAYA. 2 feet GAUGE.</p> <p>Siliguri, on the Northern Bengal State Railway (298½ miles from Calcutta), to Kurseong and Darjeeling - - - - 51</p> <p>VIII.—ROHILKHAND-KUMAUN. METRE GAUGE.</p> <p>Bhojepura Junction, 12 miles from Bareilly on the Bareilly-Pilibhet Railway, to Kâthgodâm at the foot of of the Naini Tal hills - - - - 54½</p> <p>IX.—SOUTHERN MAHRATTA. METRE GAUGE.</p> <p><i>Main Lines:</i> Miles.</p> <p>East Deccan, Hotgi to Gadag - - - 173½</p> <p>South Deccan, Bellary to Portuguese Frontier - - - - 204</p> <p>West Deccan, Poônâ to Londa - - - 274</p> <hr/> <p>651½</p> <p><i>Branch:</i> Southern Extension, Ranibennur to Huldi - - - - 67</p> <hr/> <p>718½</p>	
<p>III.—DEOGHUR. METRE GAUGE.</p> <p>Baidyanâth Station on the Chord Line, East Indian Railway, 201 miles from Howrah to Deoghur - - - - 4</p> <p>Branch to Rohini - - - - 1½</p> <hr/> <p>5½</p>		<p>X.—WEST OF INDIA PORTUGUESE. METRE GAUGE.</p> <p>Marmagao to the Portuguese Frontier - - - 51</p> <p>XI.—PONDICHERRY. METRE GAUGE.</p> <p>Ginjee River (French Frontier) to Pondicherry - - - - 72</p> <p>XII.—THATONE—DUYINZEIK. 2 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.</p> <p>From Thatone to Duyinzeik on the Donedamie River - - - - 8</p> <hr/> <p>80</p>	
<p>IV.—TARAKESSUR. 5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.</p> <p>Seorapludi (14 miles from Howrah on the East Indian Railway), to Tarakessur in the Hooghly District - - - - 22</p> <p>V.—BURDWAN-KUTWA. 2 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.</p> <p>From Burdwan, on the East Indian Railway, to Kutwa - - - - 35</p> <p>Branch from Kutwa to Daiahat - - - 5</p> <hr/> <p>40</p>		<p>Carried forward - - - - 608½</p> <p>TOTAL ASSISTED COMPANIES - - - - 1,666½</p>	

STATE RAILWAYS—IMPERIAL.

Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.	Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.
I.—PUNJAB, NORTHERN.		Brought forward - - - - - 1,412	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE. Miles.		SIND-PISHIN (NORTHERN SECTION).	
<i>Main Line:</i>		5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE. Miles.	
Lahore to Rāwalpindi - - - - -	173½	Sibi to Quetta, with branch to Shebo - - -	105
Rāwalpindi to Peshāwar - - - - -	104½		
	277½	V.—RAJPUTANA-MALWA.	
<i>Branches—</i>		5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.	
Golra Junction to Khusālgarh - - - - -	70½	Junction of East Indian Railway, Agra east bank, to the limit of Agra Cantonment - - - - -	3
Wazirabad to Siālkot - - - - -	26		
	96½	METRE GAUGE. Miles.	
	374½	Agra Fort, east bank - - - - -	1½
5 ft. 6 in. and METRE GAUGE.		Delhi to Bāndikui Junction on the Agra Line - - - - -	135
<i>Sind-Sagar, Eastern Section:</i>		Farukhnagar Salt Branch (from Garhi Harsaru Junction, 25 miles from Delhi) to Farukhnagar - - - - -	7½
Lāla Musa (82½ miles from Lahore) to Miani (Junction) on the Jhelum opposite Pind Dādān Khān - - - - -	53½		144½
Miani Junction to Bhera - - - - -	8½	Agra to Ajmere - - - - -	233½
Miani to Khewra - - - - -	9½	Sambhar Lake Salt Branch (from Phulera Junction, 183½ miles from Agra) to Sambhar - - - - -	4½
	71½	446	
II.—SIND-SAGAR.		Extension of Sambhar Branch to Japog - - - - -	4
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.		Extension of Japog Siding - - - - -	2
Malakwāl (45 miles from Lāla Musa junction on the Salt Branch, of Punjab Northern State Railway), to Pind Dādān Khān - - - - -	11½	Extension of Sambhar Branch across the lake to Gūra and thence <i>via</i> Kuchāman Road to Jiowra - - - - -	17
Pind Dādān Khān to left bank of Indus - - - - -	100	Deodani Siding - - - - -	2
Left bank of Indus to Darya Khān - - - - -	50	Kankaroola Siding - - - - -	1½
Darya Khān to Mozaffargarh - - - - -	126½		264
Opposite Sher Shah through Mozaffargarh to Kurashī, opposite Dera Ghazi Khān - - - - -	25	Ajmere, east of Abu, and through Pālanpur to Ahmedabad on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway - - -	304½
	313		
III.—INDUS VALLEY.		Total Rajputana System - - - - - 716	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.		Khandwa (352½ miles from Bombay on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, North-East Line) to Indore - - - - -	
Muzaffarabad Junction (on the Sind, Punjab and Delhi Railway, along the left bank of the Indus) to Rohri - - - - -	274	Indore <i>via</i> Fatehabad Junction, Rutlam, Jaora and Mandesar, to Neemuch - - - - -	155½
Rohri across the Indus to Sukkur and along the right bank to Kotri - - - - -	227	Branch from Fatehabad Junction, 24½ miles from Indore, to Ujjain - - - - -	12
	501	Extension of Ujjain Branch across the Sipra River to Ujjain City - - - - -	24
IV.—SIND-PISHIN (SOUTHERN SECTION).		Neemuch to Ajmere - - - - -	150½
5 ft. in. GAUGE.			
Ruk (Junction) to Sibi - - - - -	133	Total Malwa System - - - - -	407½
Sibi to Pir Chowki - - - - -	19		
	152	Total Rajputana-Malwa - - - - -	1,123½
Carried forward - - - - -		1,412	
		Rawāri (51½ miles from Delhi, <i>via</i> Hissar, Sirsa, Bhatinda, Fardkot) to Ferozepore, including Pāzilka Branch - - - - -	
		290½	
		1,411	
		Carried forward - - - - -	
		2,901	

STATE RAILWAYS—IMPERIAL—continued.

Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.	Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.
Brought forward	2,991	Brought forward	3,527
VI.—EASTERN BENGAL.		X.—PATRI.	
5 ft. 3 in. GAUGE. Miles.		5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE. Miles.	
Calcutta to Jagati Junction - - -	107½	Patri, in the Runn of Cutch, to Viramgam Junction (349½ miles from Bombay) on the Wadhwan Extension of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway - - -	22½
Jagati Junction to Goalundo - - -	45		
Jagati Junction to River Ganges (<i>Kooshtea Branch</i>) - - -	3½	XI.—DHOND-MANMAD.	
Kooshtea Engine shed to old Kooshtea - - -	½	5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.	
Kooshtea Loop line - - -	1½	Dhond (167 miles from Bombay, on the south-eastern line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway) to Manmad (162 miles from Bombay, on the north-eastern line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway) - - -	145½
Chitpore Junction to Chitpore (<i>Chitpore Branch</i>) - - -	2½		
<i>Poradaha Branch:</i>	159½	XII.—BELLARY-KISTNA.	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.		METRE GAUGE.	
Poradaha (102½ miles from Calcutta) to Damukdia opposite Sara, on the right bank of the Ganges - - -	12	Bezvada to Guntakal, the junction of the Bellary Branch with the north-west line, Madras Railway - - -	278
Damukdia to Golabnuggur (Damukdia Ghat Station) - - -	5½		
	17½	XIII.—CUDDAPAH-NELLORE.	
<i>Calcutta and South Eastern:</i>		METRE GAUGE.	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.		Nellore to Tirupati town near the north-west line of the Madras Railway - - -	63
<i>Original Line:</i>		XIV.—NAGPUR-BENGAL.	
Calcutta to Port Canning - - -	28	5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.	
<i>Diamond Harbour Line:</i>		Sitarampur to Bilaspur - - -	365½
Sonarapur to Magra Hat - - -	15	Bilaspur to Nandgaon - - -	114
Magra Hat to Diamond Harbour - - -	12½		479½
Diamond Harbour to Hara Fort - - -	1½	XV.—CAWNPORE-KALPI.	
	29	5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.	
	57	Cawnpore station, on the East Indian Railway, to the south bank of the river Jumna, near Kalpi - - -	46
	234½	XVI.—BILASPUR-ETAWAH.	
VII.—SINDIA.		5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.		Katni on the East Indian Railway to Umaria in Rewah State - - -	37
Agra to Chumbul River - - -	34	XVII.—FEROZEPURE STEAM TRAMWAY.	
Dholpur (Chumbul Bridge) to Hetampur - - -	8½	2 ft. GAUGE.	
Hetampur to Gwailor - - -	32½	Ganda Singh Bunder terminus of Sind, Punjab and Delhi Railway Branch line to Feroz-pore terminus of the Rewari-Ferozepore State Railway - - -	7½
	74½		
VIII.—JHANSI-MANIKPUR.		TOTAL IMPERIAL - - -	4,620
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.			
Jhansi to Manikpur, a station on the Jubulpore Line of the East Indian Railway - - -	180½		
IX.—WARDHA COAL.			
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.			
Wardha Junction (472 miles from Bombay, on the Nagpur Branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway) to Warora - - -	46½		
Carried forward - - -	3,527		

STATE RAILWAYS—PROVINCIAL.

Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.	Name and Gauge of Line and Mileage Sanctioned, with Names of Termini.	TOTAL Mileage.
BENGAL.		Brought forward - - - 801½	
I.—NALHATI.		VI.—NARAYANGANJ DACCAMYMENSINGH.	
4 ft. GAUGE.		METRE GAUGE.	
Nalhāti, on the Loop line of the East Indian Railway, 144½ miles from Howrah to Azimganj - - - - -	27½	Narayanganj to Mymensingh - - - - -	86½
II.—NORTHERN BENGAL.		NORTH-WEST PROVINCES AND OUDH.	
METRE GAUGE.		CANNING-AGRA.	
<i>Main Line—</i>		METRE GAUGE. Miles.	
Sarná Ghat to Parbatipur Junction - - - - -	11½	Cawnpore Station (684 miles from Howrah via the Chord line on the East Indian Railway) to Miran Serai - - - - -	491
Parbatipur Junction to Siliguri - - - - -	84½	Miran Serai to Farukhabad - - - - -	30½
	190	Farukhabad to Hathras-road - - - - -	101
<i>Rungpore Branch—</i>		Hathras-road Station (257 miles from Howrah on the East Indian Railway) to the left bank of the Jumna, opposite Muttra - - - - -	29
Parbatipur Junction to Rungpore - - - - -	22½	Jumna Bridge and approaches - - - - -	1
Rungpore to Kaunia on the right bank of the Teesta - - - - -	11½	Right bank of the Jumna at Muttra to Achnera, a station of the Rajputana State Railway, 16½ miles from Agra - - - - -	22½
	34		299½
<i>Dinapore Branch—</i>		<i>Branches—</i>	
Parbatipur to Dinapore - - - - -	10	Kasganj to Soron - - - - -	9½
	249	Mundana to Bithur - - - - -	6½
KAUNIA-DHARLA TRAMWAY.			15
2 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.			254½
Junction to Jatroapur - - - - -	23½	VIII.—DILDARNAGAR-GHAZIPUR.	
Kaunia to Mogulhat - - - - -	15	5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.	
	38½	Dildarnagar (433 miles from Howrah via the Chord line), on the East Indian Railway, to Tasi Ghat, on the Ganges opposite Ghazipur - - - - -	
III.—ASSAM-BEHAR.			
METRE GAUGE.		IX.—BAREILLY-PILIBHEET.	
Dinapore via Saifganj and Purnea to Nalpur with branch (15½ miles) from Saifganj to Manihari - - - - -	155½	METRE GAUGE.	
IV.—TIRHOOR.		Bareilly, on the Oudh and Robilkhond Railway to Pilibheet - - - - -	
METRE GAUGE.		36	
<i>Main Line—</i>		X.—LUCKNOW-SITAPUR-SERAMAU.	
Semaria, on the left bank of the Ganges, four miles below Mokench to Dalsinghsarai - - - - -	23	METRE GAUGE.	
Dalsinghsarai through Samastipur to Mozufferpore and Bettiah - - - - -	121½	Lucknow on the Oudh and Robilkhond Railway to Sitapur, Kheri, and Sermau - - - - -	
	144½	124	
<i>Branches—</i>		CENTRAL PROVINCES.	
Samastipur Junction via Durbhanga to Jhanjharpur - - - - -	48½	XI.—NAGPUR-CHHATTISGARH.	
Jhanjharpur to Partabganj - - - - -	44½	METRE GAUGE.	
Mozufferpore to Hajepore - - - - -	34	Nagpur to Dongargarh - - - - -	
Hajepore to Sonapur (Gunduk Bridge) - - - - -	2½	Dongargarh to Nandgaon - - - - -	
	129½	146	
V.—PATNA-GYA.		<i>Tumsar Branch—</i>	
5 ft. 6 in. GAUGE.		Dowhali Junction (80 miles) from Nagpur to Tumsar - - - - -	
Patna, on the Chord line of the East Indian Railway, 338 miles from Howrah, to Gya - - - - -	57	3	
	274	149	
Carried forward - - - - -		Carried forward - - - - -	
	801½	1,402½	