CHAPTER XVIII.

India under the East India Company.

Section I. Warren Hastings.

The system of dual control introduced by Clive proved a failure. The Company did not interfere with internal administration which was in the hands of Muhammad Rezā Khan, governor of Bengal, and of Shitāb Rāy, governor of Behar. The people were mercilessly plundered and oppressed by the subordinate collectors, and there was misgovernment everywhere. Revenue diminished, trade declined and many fair fields became jungle. A terrible famine broke out (1770) and carried off one-third of the population. A strong and able man was urgently needed to save Bengal from ruin. Warren Hastings, a tried servant of the Company, was selected for this purpose. He had entered the East India Company's service at the age of eighteen, had been employed in the Company's factory at Kásimbázár and escaped with great difficulty when it was seized by Sirājuddawla. After the battle of Plassey, Warren Hastings was appointed Resident at Mir Jáfar's Court, and then a member of the Calcutta Council. In 1772 he was appointed governor of Bengal, and at once set about reforming the administration. He abolished the dual government, took into his own hands all departments, and removed the Exchequer and the seat of government from Murshidabad to Calcutta. He appointed European Collectors of revenue, and established a civil and a criminal court in each district, over which the district collector presided, assisted by Muhammadan and Hindu officials. He established in Calcutta two Courts of Appeal viz. the Sudder Diwani Adálat for civil cases,
and the Sudder Nizamat Adalat for criminal cases. A code of Hindu and Muhammadan Law was drawn up for the guidance of these courts. The Central revenue offices were also removed from Murshidabad and Patna to Calcutta, and were placed under a Board of Revenue consisting of English officials. Hastings was thus the "administrative organiser" of the British Indian Empire as Clive was its "territorial founder."

The debts of the East India Company at this time amounted to a crore and sixty lakhs of rupees and the Directors were pressing for payment. Hastings was thus obliged to adopt some questionable measures to get money for the Company. He reduced by one-half the pension of the Nawab of Murshidabad, who had now no other jurisdiction than that of his household. He stopped the promised tribute of twenty-six lakhs of rupees to the Emperor on the ground that he, being in the hands of the Marhattas, had forfeited his claim. On the same ground he deprived the emperor of the provinces of Kora and Allahabad, and sold them to the Nawab of Oudh for fifty lakhs of rupees. He further gained forty lakhs of rupees from the Nawab of Oudh by lending him an English brigade for the conquest of Rohilkhand, which the Nawab had coveted. The Rohillas were crushed and their country was annexed to Oudh in 1774.* Hastings justified his action on the ground that the Rohillas, with the help of the Marhattas, might have disturbed the English Government at any time, and that the peace of Northern India was ensured by helping a friendly power to crush these dangerous people.

In 1774 the English Parliament passed an Act, known as the Regulating Act, which vested the government of the Bengal Presidency in a Governor-general and four Councillors, made the Presidencies of Bombay and Madras subordinate to Bengal. and established

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* The descendants of the chief of Rohilkhand are, however, still the rulers of Rampur.
in Calcutta a Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and three puisne Judges. Warren Hastings was appointed the first Governor-General of India, and General Clavering, Colonel Monson, and Sir Philip Francis were sent out from England as members of the Council, the other member, Richard Barwell, being already in the Company's service. The new members formed a league to oppose Hastings, and Francis took the lead. Having the majority of votes, they reversed what Hastings did and wielded all power for some time. The enemies of Hastings brought charges against him accusing him of taking bribes and presents. One of the accusers was Mahárájá Nandakumár, a distinguished Brahman, who had served the Nawab in various capacities and was Foujdár of Hugli under Sirájuddowla. He accused Hastings of receiving more than three lakhs and a half of rupees from his son, Gurudás, and from Munni Begum, when they were appointed to posts at Murshidabad. Hastings was called upon by Francis and his colleagues to credit the amount to the treasury. But he totally denied the charge and brought a case against Nandakumár for conspiracy. While this case was pending, a charge of forgery was brought against Nandakumár. He was tried by Sir Elijah Impey, the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, was found guilty, and, under a statute of George III., sentenced to be hanged. He was the first Brahman to undergo capital punishment in Bengal under the British Government. There was no doubt of Nandakumár's guilt, but the sentence has been attacked on the ground that such English laws are not applicable to India.

Hastings' opponents were discomfited and no other charge was brought against him. But dissensions in the Council continued till the death of Monson in 1776. Though restored to power, Hastings was still troubled by Francis for some years. At last they fought a duel; Francis being wounded left for Europe, and Hastings again became supreme in the Council.
As Governor-General of India, Hastings had to wage two important wars, one in the Bombay Presidency against the Marhattas, and the other in the Madras Presidency against the Nawab of Mysore. The history of the Marhatta war has already been given in Chapter XV.

Under the offensive and defensive alliance formed with the Madras Government in 1769, Hyder Ali applied for aid when the Marhattas attacked his territory. But the Madras government declined to help him. In 1778 war broke out between France and England. The English captured almost all the French possessions in India. One of these, Mahe, lay in the dominions of Hyder, who objected to its capture. As his remonstrance was not listened to, he took the field against the English with a large army in 1780. At this time misgovernment and corruption prevailed in the Madras Government, which was wholly unprepared to prosecute the war. A detachment of the army sent by it was cut to pieces by Hyder, who ravaged the country up to the very walls of Madras. Hearing of this disaster, Hastings sent a large army from Bengal under Sir Eyre Coote. Hyder was signally defeated in three well-contested battles; but he continued fighting till his death in 1782. Sir Eyre Coote, who had fought with Clive at Plassey, and had overthrown the French power by the victory of Wandewash and capture of Pondicherry, also died in the following year.

Tipu Sultán succeeded his father Hyder Ali, and engaged the services of the French general, Bussy, who defeated the English in some battles. But peace being restored between the French and the English, Bussy had to resign his command. Tipu Sultán was thus obliged to make a treaty with the English in 1784, known as the Treaty of Mangalore, on condition of the restitution of all conquests by both sides.

The cost of the Marhatta and Mysore wars was very heavy. This led Hastings to take questionable means to raise money. He demanded from Chait Sinha, Raja of
Benares,* an annual subsidy of five lakhs of rupees to cover the cost of the wars. Chait Sinha paid it for two years, but refused in the third on the plea of poverty. Hastings was not satisfied with this excuse and went to Benares and arrested the Raja. The people of Benares rose against Chait Sinha, and cut to pieces four companies of British troops. Hastings escaped and went to Chunar. Chait Sinha, escaping from custody, joined the rebels. He was defeated, and fled to Gwalior. His nephew (son of Balavanta’s daughter) was placed on the gaddi. But the tribute was raised, and the administration of criminal justice was taken away from him.

Five crores of the Nawab of Oudh’s subsidy had fallen in arrears and Hastings called upon Asafuddawla, the Nawab, to pay up the amount. He pleaded inability to pay unless he got the treasures and jagirs of his step-mother and grandmother, which he had coveted since his accession. Hastings’ opponents in the Council had given the Begums a guarantee against such demands. Hastings, however, ignored the guarantee, charged the Begums with aiding and abetting Chait Sinha, and sent a body of the Company’s troops to extort payment. The officers of the Begums were seized and tortured, and a large sum was realised.

* The province of Benares was under the Nawab of Oudh. The Nawab received tribute from the Raja who was otherwise free. The Nawab wanted to curtail his power, and Raja Balavanta Sinha helped the English in 1764 to put down the Nawab. When treaty was concluded between the English and the Nawab, the interests of Balavanta were safeguarded by a special clause. On Balavanta’s death in 1770, the Nawab attempted to supersede his family, but the English interfered and placed Balavanta’s son, Chait Sinha, on the throne, fixing an increased revenue to be paid to the Nawab with the understanding that there would be no further increase. Shujauddawla, the Nawab of Oudh, died in 1774, and under the arrangements made with his son, the province of Benares passed to the English. The Raja was practically independent, but had to pay tribute. He received the privilege of coining money and administering criminal justice.
For this and other acts, Hastings was censured by the Court of Directors and he resigned his office and left India in 1785. He was well received in England by the authorities, but his enemies, chief among whom was Francis, stirred up public feeling against him. He was impeached in Parliament for "high crimes and misdemeanors," the three principal charges being the Rohilla war, the plunder of Chait Sinha and spoliation of the Begums of Oudh. Some of the most famous orators of England, Burke, Sheridan and Fox, were arrayed against him. The trial lasted for seven years and Hastings was financially ruined by the cost of his defence. At last he was honourably acquitted of all the charges and was granted a pension by the East India Company in consideration of his eminent services. He lived quietly in his native town till his death in 1818 at the ripe old age of eighty-five.

**Section II. Cornwallis.**

Sir John Macpherson acted as Governor-General from the date of Hastings' resignation, and continued in that office for a year and eight months. During this time it was decided that noblemen of rank and character, and not servants of the Company, should be appointed Governors-General. The powers of the Court of Directors were also greatly curtailed. In August 1784, Pitt's India Bill was passed, by which a Board of Control composed of six members chosen by the King was formed to supervise the civil, military and revenue administration of India.

Lord Cornwallis, the first of the Parliamentary governors, came to India in 1786 with a high reputation as a soldier and a diplomatist. He introduced some important reforms. He compelled the Company to increase the salaries of their servants, who were now forbidden to trade or to accept contracts. This checked the corruption of the officials. He for the first time entrusted criminal jurisdiction to Europeans; he separated the functions of Collectors and
Judges and established four appellate courts, at Calcutta, Dacca, Patna and Murshidabad. But the great administrative act of Cornwallis was the revenue settlement of Bengal.

Under the Mughal emperors the Collectors of revenues had become, in course of time, hereditary Zamindars, or landlords. But the British government did not recognise them as such. They were treated as mere Collectors. Lands were leased out to them only for a special period, at the end of which, if they did not agree to the new rates, they were ousted, and their lands were let to the highest bidders. Many old families in Bengal were thus ruined. Cornwallis abolished this system of farming out lands. He made the Zamindars absolute proprietors of the soil, and permanently fixed the ground-rent to be paid by them. This is known as the Permanent Settlement of Bengal. It is a great boon to the country. Cultivation has largely increased and the value of lands has multiplied itself. It has contributed to the prosperity of the country by making the Zamindars loyal and influential. The Rent Law, passed sometime after, prevented undue exaction from the ryots.

The important military event of Cornwallis' tenure of office was the third Mysore War. Tipu Sultán had for sometime persecuted the Christians of Canara and the Hindus of Coorg, thousands of whom were forcibly converted to Islám. Two thousand Brahmans are said to have committed suicide to escape conversion. Enraged at this, Náná Farnávis formed a combination with the Nizám to attack Tipu. He was, however, pacified by a large sum of money and the cession of some districts. In 1789 Tipu invaded Travancore, which was under British protection. Lord Cornwallis declared war against him and secured the co-operation of the Nizám and the Peshwa. The war lasted for three years. As the Madras forces did not succeed, Cornwallis took the command. He repeatedly defeated Tipu and in 1792 besieged Seringapatam, his capital, and forced him to sue for peace. Tipu paid three crores of rupees as war indemnity, and ceded
one-half of his dominions, which was sub-divided between the English, the Nizám and the Peshwa.

**Section III. Lord Wellesley.**

Lord Cornwallis left India in 1793 and was succeeded by Sir John Shore, who had taken a prominent part in the Permanent Settlement of Bengal. The only noteworthy event of his five years' rule was the annexation of Allahabad. On Asafuddawla's death in 1798, a dispute arose about succession. Sir John Shore went to Lucknow, and placed Saálat Ali on the throne of Oudh, on condition that he should cede Allahabad and raise the maintenance of a British contingent to seventy four lakhs of rupees. The Company's policy at this time was not to interfere in the affairs of the native states.

In 1798 Lord Mornington, better known as the Marquis of Wellesley, succeeded Sir John Shore, who was raised to the peerage with the title of Lord Teignmouth. Wellesley departed from the "non-intervention policy" of his predecessor. Napoleon's wars had embittered the English against the French, and Wellesley's first object was to weaken French influence in the Deccan. He concluded a treaty with the Nizám, who forthwith dismissed 14000 French soldiers from his service, and undertook not to receive any more Europeans into his service without the consent of the British Government. He then called upon Tipu Sultán to rescind his

*Fourth Mysore War.*

French alliance. He refused and Wellesley declared war against him, securing the cooperation of the Nizám and the Marhatts. Two armies, one from Bombay and the other from Madras, attacked Mysore on two sides. After a feeble resistance, Tipu fell back upon his capital. Seringapatam was taken by storm and Tipu fell fighting bravely. Mysore was restored to a descendant of the Raja* whom Hyder had ousted, the rest of Tipu's dominions

* The old royal family of the Yadavas had been in captivity since 1760. During this period all the male members of the family had died,
were divided between the English and the Nizám, and Tipu's sons received pensions and were kept under watch at Vellore. The Nizám further undertook to maintain a larger number of British troops at his capital, ceding the lands obtained from Tipu's dominions for their maintenance, and undertaking not to make any war or alliance without the sanction of the English. The Peshwa refused to enter into a "subsidiary alliance" and, therefore, received no share of Tipu's dominions. For his success in the Mysore War, the title of Marquis of Wellesley was conferred upon Lord Mornington.

Lord Wellesley had then to fight the Marhattas. By the Second Marhatta War, an account of which has already been given, the English acquired Dehli, Agra, Orissa and Bundelkhand. Wellesley's policy was to make the English the paramount power in India. He formed "subsidiary alliances" with the large states, pensioned off petty chiefs and annexed their dominions. On the death of the Rájá of Tanjore, Wellesley gave his adopted son a pension, and annexed Tanjore to the British Empire. The Karnatic was also annexed, the Nawab being pensioned off as he had carried on treasonable correspondence with Tipu Sultán. The Nawab of Surat retired on pension and the government of that place was assumed by the English. The Nawab of Oudh was compelled to cede Kora and Rohilkhand to meet the cost of maintaining the British contiguous at his capital. The Nawab of Furrukhabad was granted a pension, and the administration of his state passed into the hands of the Company. The Directors of the Company were opposed to such extension of territory and interference with Native States. They disapproved of Wellesley's policy and he resigned.

except a child, five years old, who was taken from prison to be king. The whole military force in Mysore was henceforth to be English and in case of misgovernment the Company were to assume the administration. Tipu's finance minister, Purnia, was made the finance minister of the infant Raja.
Section IV. Lord Minto.

Lord Cornwallis was sent out a second time with instructions to pursue a policy of non-intervention, and to bring about peace at any price. But Cornwallis died within ten weeks of his arrival in India (October 1805). Sir George Barlow, the Senior Member of Council, acted as Governor-General till the arrival of Lord Minto. In deference to the wishes of the Directors, he curtailed the area of the British empire and did not interfere with the Native States, which began to fight with one another on trifling matters. During Barlow's tenure of office, the Sepoys stationed at Vellore, probably instigated by Tipu's descendants, mutinied and killed their European officers (1806), owing to certain innovations in military regulations, such as wearing a new cap. The mutiny was quelled, and Tipu's family was removed to Calcutta. Lord William Bentinck, governor of Madras, who had introduced these changes was recalled, and Sir George Barlow was appointed Governor of Madras in his place.

Lord Minto assumed office in July 1807. He refused to interfere in the affairs of the Native States, and the result was disastrous. The Rájáś of Jodhpur and Jaypur fought for the hand of the Princess of Udaypur. An Afghan adventurer, named Amir Khan, taking sometimes one side and sometimes the other, ravaged Rájputáná. The Sindhi also plundered the Ráná's territory. The Ráná of Udaypur asked for British protection offering to cede half of his kingdom, and the Rájáś of Jodhpur and Jaypur pledged themselves to abide by the decision of the British Government. But Lord Minto declined to interfere, and the Ráná was compelled to cede one-fourth of his kingdom to Amir Khan, who advised him to stop hostilities between Jodhpur and Jaypur by killing his daughter, Krishna-kumári, the cause of the quarrel. Krishna-kumári agreed to take poison. This tragedy occurred in 1810.
The only addition to the British Indian empire in Lord Minto's time was the district of Kālanjar. Outside India, Mauritius and Java were conquered. Lord Minto sent Charles Metcalfe to the Punjab, Colonel Malcolm to Persia, and Mountstuart Elphinstone to Afghānistān as ambassadors to the rulers of these countries.

Section V. Lord Hastings.

Lord Moira, afterwards Marquis of Hastings, succeeded Lord Minto in 1814. Hastings was the first Governor-General to encourage the education of the natives of India. His long rule of nine years was marked by three great wars, viz. the Nepāl War, the Pindāri War, and the last Marhatta War.

The Gurkhas, a warlike tribe claiming Rājput origin, had conquered Nepāl in 1767 from the Newars. Nepāl War. After subjugating their neighbours they began to raid British territory and plunder and kill British subjects. At last in 1813 they occupied Bhutwal and Sivraj, two villages which had been ceded to the English by the Nawab of Oudh. A British detachment recovered these places. The Nepālese then attacked a frontier guard of the English and killed and wounded many of them. Hastings declared war against Nepāl. At first the English troops, who had to cut their way through forests and drag their cannons up precipitous heights, met with disaster. But afterwards General Ochterlony captured the hill forts of the Nepālese, and marched his army to within fifty miles of their capital. Thus the Nepālese were forced to sue for peace. A treaty, known as the Treaty of Segowlie, was concluded (1816). The Nepālese withdrew from their outposts in the Himalayan ranges, Simla, Mussoorie, Landour and Naini Tal came into British possession, and a British Resident was stationed at Khatmandu, the capital of Nepāl.

During the anarchy which prevailed on the downfall of the Mughal empire, gangs of lawless freebooters infested the
country. One of these gangs was called the Pindáris. It was composed of Afgháns, Játs and Marhattas. The Pindáris inflicted such horrible cruelties upon their victims that at their approach whole families destroyed themselves rather than fall into their clutches. During the Marhatta wars they took service with one or other of the Marhatta leaders and fought for them. Afterwards they dispersed all over the country and committed depredations on their own account. In Central India they became so numerous and powerful that Hastings had to oppose them with 114,000 men, the largest army that the English had ever mustered in India. Amir Khan, the principal leader of the Pindáris, soon submitted and was granted the principality of Tonk, which is still ruled by his descendants. Chased from place to place, Karim, one of the notorious Pindári chiefs, submitted and was permitted to live in peace. Chitu, another notorious chief, fled to the jungle and perished there. The Pindáris dispersed, gave up their predatory habits, and became peaceful cultivators.

Seeing the English engaged in wars with the Nepálese and the Pindáris, the discontented Marhatta chiefs attempted to recover their lost territories. In 1817 the Peshwa, the Bhonsla, and the Holkar simultaneously rose in arms against the English. An account of this war has been given in Chapter XY. The power of the Marhattas was broken and Peshwa’s rule came to an end.

**Section VI Lord Amherst.**

The Marquis of Hastings left India early in 1823, and Mr. Adam, the senior Member of Council, acted as Governor-General till relieved by Lord Amherst. The principal event of Lord Amherst’s rule was the Burmese War. The Burmese, who had conquered Arracan and Assam, advanced towards Cachár. The king of Burmah rejected the peaceful proposals of Lord Amherst, who was thus obliged to take up arms against him. The war lasted
for more than two years, during which the English lost about 20,000 men, chiefly through sickness. The Burmese were, however, repeatedly defeated, and the English troops took Rangoon, Martaban and Assam. The king at last submitted and made peace, ceding Arracan, Assam and Tenassarim to the English, and paying a crore of rupees as war indemnity. Lord Amherst had next to interfere in the affairs of Bharatpur. In 1825 the Rájá of Bharatpur died and was succeeded by his infant son under the guardianship of an uncle. A cousin of the infant Rájá won over the army, imprisoned the infant and murdered his guardian. As the British Government had recognised the succession of the infant, Lord Amherst sent an army to have him reinstated. The strong mud fortress of Bharatpur, which was considered impregnable being proof against artillery, was blown up with gunpowder. The infant Rájá was restored to the throne under the tutelage of the British Government, and the usurper was imprisoned.

Section VII. Lord William Bentinck.

Lord William Bentinck, who had formerly been Governor of Madras, became Governor-General in 1828. His administration, extending over seven years, is more memorable for political and social reforms than for conquests. The material prosperity of the British Indian Empire may be said to have commenced in Bentinck’s time. The Company’s Charter expired during his administration and its renewal was accompanied by important reforms. The Company’s trade monopoly was abolished, and all trade was made free. Europeans were permitted to settle in India and to acquire landed property without restriction. The North-Western Provinces were formed into a separate Presidency, and Sir Charles Metcalfe was appointed its first Lieutenant-Governor. A new Legal Member was added to the Governor-General’s Council, which was empowered to pass Laws applicable to the whole of India, and Lord Macaulay became the first Law Member. It was also enacted that no native of India should be
debarred by caste or creed from "holding any place, office or employment." With these modifications the Company's Charter was renewed for twenty years.

Lord William Bentinck was the real founder of English education in India. A controversy arose as to the best medium of imparting education to the natives of India. Some advocated the Oriental classics—Arabic, Persian and Sanskrit; some were for improving the Indian vernaculars; others were of opinion that English should be the medium of instruction. Bentinck decided in favour of English education. He substituted the Indian vernaculars for Persian as the court language. He established the Hindu School and the Calcutta Medical College at Calcutta. Up to that time the natives of India could become only Darogas and Munsifs. Bentinck introduced the practice of appointing qualified natives to responsible posts. The powers and emoluments of Indian judges were increased, and they were invested with almost entire charge of civil justice. Indian Deputy Collectors were also appointed to assist European Collectors in the revenue administration of the country.

Among the social reforms introduced by Bentinck the most famous is the suppression of Sati. The custom of permitting Hindu widows to burn themselves on the pyres of their deceased husbands, though unknown in ancient India, and very rarely mentioned in ancient Hindu religious works, was largely practised. In Bentinck's time no less than 300 widows are said to have burnt themselves in one year in the Calcutta Division alone. Bentinck was moved by the report of the cruel death of so many innocent widows. In spite of strong opposition, he passed an Act in 1829 prohibiting Sati, and declaring all who aided and abetted it "guilty of culpable homicide." He also suppressed the custom of female infanticide prevalent among the Rájputs. In these reforms Bentinck was supported by Rájá Rám Mohan Ráy, the originator of the Bráhmo movement.
The suppression of the *Thags* was also a great blessing. The *Thags* were gangs of hereditary assassins and professional robbers, who roamed about in all parts of India disguised as merchants or pilgrims. They made the acquaintance of travellers by the way, beguiled them to lonely places, killed them by strangling and robbed them of all their valuables. To put down this system, Bentinck organised the Thaggee Department and put Captain Sleeman in charge. Over 15,000 Thags were apprehended between 1826 and 1835.

The only territories acquired in Bentinck's time were Coorg and Cachár. The Rájá of Coorg slew every member of the royal family, cruelly oppressed his subjects, and defied the British Government. Bentinck was thus obliged to send troops against him. He was sent in captivity to Benares. The leading men of Coorg were asked to elect a Rájá but they preferred to pass under British rule. Coorg was thus annexed in 1834. The people of Cachár also accepted British rule of their own accord. But Bentinck had to interfere in the affairs of Mysore. The Rájá, who had assumed administration on attaining his majority in 1811, mismanaged affairs and the people broke out into rebellion. The state was, therefore, placed under British Commissioners.

Section VIII. Lord Auckland.

Lord Auckland was appointed the next Viceroy. But prior to his arrival, Sir Charles Metcalfe acted for him for a year, and made himself famous by granting liberty to the Press in India. Lord Auckland took charge in 1836. With him began another warlike period. Desirous of commencing British trade with Afghánistán, Auckland sent a mission to Dost Muhammad, who had usurped the throne of Kabul after driving out Sháh Shujá, the last of Ahmad Sháh's descendants (1826). Lord Auckland had previously refused to help Dost Muhammad to recover Peshawar from the Sikhs; Dost Muhammad refused to receive the English ambassador while lavishing courtesies
on the Russian representative. Auckland resolved to replace Dost Muhammad by Sháh Shujá, the displaced Afghán ruler, and, in October 1838, he declared war against Dost Muhammad. In the following April, British troops captured Kandahár, and there enthroned Sháh Shujá. Ghazni and Kabul were taken subsequently. The British army returned to India, leaving only a garrison to aid Shujá in restoring peace and order. Dost Muhammad, who had fled towards Bokhárá on the advance of the British army, surrendered himself and was sent a state prisoner to Calcutta. Everything went on well for a year. Suddenly at the close of 1841, the Afgháns, headed by Akbar Khan, the eldest son of Dost Muhammad, rose against the British garrison, and assassinated Sir Alexander Burnes, the Political Agent, and Sir William Macnaghten, the English envoy. The British troops, numbering 4,000 fighting men and 12,000 camp followers, after making most humiliating concessions and promises, were allowed to retreat towards India. But they had not proceeded far when the Afgháns fell upon them. Many perished from cold in the snowy passes, and more by the guns of the Afgháns. Only a single survivor, named Dr. Bryden, reached Jalálábád to tell the tale of treachery.

Section IX. Lord Ellenborough.

Lord Auckland was recalled and Lord Ellenborough succeeded him in 1842. He sent two armies by different routes to chastise the Afgháns and to relieve the English garrisons at Jalálábád and Kandahár. Sháh Shujá had been in the meantime shot by the rebels. After relieving the garrisons the two armies met at Kabul. They rescued the English prisoners, captured the forts in the city and blew up the great Bázár at Kabul. Thus, after crushing the Afgháns, the British armies returned to India. Dost Muhammad was set at liberty, and he was allowed to resume his throne.
The Amirs of Sindh were friendly to the British Government, and they had rendered assistance to the British army during the Afghan war. But subsequently Sir Charles Napier found some of the Amirs guilty of corresponding with the enemies of the English. They were defeated in the battles fought at Miani and Hyderabad (1843), and Sindh was annexed.

The war with Sindhia, in 1843, has already been described. The court of Directors did not approve of Lord Ellenborough's proceedings and he was accordingly recalled in 1844.

Section X. Sir Henry Hardinge.

The next Governor-General was Lord Hardinge, a distinguished warrior. The most important event of his administration was the Sikh war. The Punjab had been conquered by the Afghans in the 18th century and the Sikhs had become subject to them. In the beginning of the present century, a young Sikh warrior, named Ranjit Sinha, became famous. Before he was twenty, he was appointed Viceroy of Lahore by the king of Kabul. He organised the Sikh army and placed it under skilful generals. Finding the Afghan chiefs fighting with one another, he made himself independent, united the Sikh Sardars and conquered Peshawar and Kashmir. He ruled his kingdom and the Sikh army with a rod of iron, and during his lifetime there was no disturbance. But on his death in 1839, dissensions arose between rivals for the crown. At last after a series of revolutions, Dhalip Sinha, an infant son of Ranjit Sinha, was placed on the throne, and the Sikh Sardars formed a council of regency. But the Sikh army had become too unruly to be kept under control. To get rid of its presence at Lahore, the Sikh army was induced to invade British territories.

In December 1845 the Sikh army, numbering 60,000 men, crossed the Sutlej and attacked Ferozpur. Lord Hardinge
himself set out with a large army to meet them and was joined by Sir Hugh Gough, the commander-in-chief. In less than two months four bloody battles were fought at Mudki, Ferozshahar, Aliwal, and Sobraon. The Sikhs fought very valiantly but were defeated in every battle, the British loss on each occasion being very heavy. The Sikhs were chased beyond the Sutlej and the British army encamped at Mian Mir, a short distance from Lahore. The Sikhs were thus compelled to come to terms. They were required to pay a large war indemnity. But there was not enough money in the Lahore treasury. Gulãb Sinha, viceroy of Kashmir, paid the indemnity and became independent of the Sikh government. Dhalip Sinha was recognised as the Mahärájá of the Punjab, the tract between the Sutlej and the Ravi was annexed to the British empire, the Sikh army was reduced, and a British force and a British Resident were stationed at Lahore.

Section XI. Lord Dalhousie.

Sir Henry Hardinge, who received a peerage, was succeeded in 1848 by Lord Dalhousie, a distinguished statesman only thirty-six years of age. He was governor for eight years and is famous both for introducing reforms and for adding territories to the British empire. He founded the Public Works Department, opened several canals, built many roads, and constructed the first Indian railways and telegraph lines. He established a steamer service between India and England, and introduced cheap postage. It was under Dalhousie's auspices that the Indian Universities and the Presidency College in Calcutta were established. All these served to raise the moral and material condition of India and to add to her prosperity. But at the same time Dalhousie's policy stirred up those feelings of rebellion that culminated in the Mutiny of 1857.

Before he had been six months in India, Dalhousie had Second Sikh War. to fight with the Sikhs, who were restive under British supervision. Mulráj, the governor of Multan, was deposed for not paying to the Lahore darbar.
the amount agreed on for his succession, and two English officers were sent to Multan to install a successor. Mulraj procured their murder and called upon the Sikhs to rise against the English. A force consisting of European and Sikh soldiers was sent against him. The Sikhs went over to their co-religionists, and proclaimed a religious war against the English. As the hot weather had set in, the despatch of a British army had to be postponed till the beginning of the cold weather. In the meantime the Sikhs throughout the whole of the Punjab were up in arms. Sher Sinha, the most influential of the Sikh Sardars, became their leader. He persuaded the Amir of Kabul to join him, promising to give him the province of Peshawar. The Sikh rising now became too serious to be trifled with. In October 1848, Lord Dalhousie proceeded to the Punjab. In the following January a large army followed and a bloody battle took place at Chillianwala. Thirty thousand Sikhs took the field under Sher Sinha. Two thousand four hundred British soldiers and officers fell, before the Sikhs were driven from their position. But they rallied and formed line three miles off. A month later a decisive battle was fought at Gujrat, a small town between the Chenab and the Jhelum. The Sikhs were utterly routed and their standards, camp, and cannons, all fell into the hands of the victors. The decisive victory of Gujrat quenched for ever the hopes of the Sikhs. The Afghan cavalry sent by Dost Muhammad was driven out of Peshawar. Mulraj was imprisoned for life, the Punjab was annexed, and Dhalip Sinha was granted a pension of five lakhs of rupees a year. The disbanded Sikh soldiers resigned themselves to their fate; some of them became cultivators and others took service in the British army. Dhalip Sinha embraced Christianity and lived in England till his death in 1895.

In Burmah some European merchants at Rangoon had been insulted by native officials and an English envoy was sent to demand redress. He was insulted, and an English frigate was fired upon by the Burmese, Lord Dalhousie declared
war against Burmah. Within a short time Rangoon was captured, Martaban, Bassein, Prome and Pegu fell into the hands of the English, and these were annexed to the British empire.

Holding that British administration was better for the people of India than native rule, Lord Dalhousie decided to introduce it wherever possible. The British Government had long recognised the right of adoption by native princes in case of want of issue, but Dalhousie considered it an anomaly and annexed states in which there was no heir. Satara was the first state to be thus annexed. The Rájá of Satara died without male issue in 1849 and his state lapsed to the British. In 1853 the Rájás of Jhansi and Nagpur died without male heirs and both of these states were annexed. The titular Nawab of the Karnatic and the titular Rájá of Tanjore died in 1855 without heirs, and the titles were abolished and the pensions to their families were stopped. The ex-Peshwa Báji Ráo died, and his pension lapsed but his adopted son, Dhandhupanth, the notorious Náná Sáheb, was allowed to inherit his private property. The Nizám of Hyderabad, who had failed to pay his subsidy regularly, was compelled to make over the Berars to the British Government.

The last and most important annexation of Dalhousie was Oudh, the richest part of India. The Nawab Vazir had assumed the title of Sháh in Lord Hastings’ time. The administration of the country was carried on by his officers, but the Company had to guard the state from outward invasion and internal revolution. The king, free from all restraint and responsibility, spent his time in debauchery and pleasure while the Sepoys and the Talukdárs oppressed the people. He was repeatedly warned to mend his ways. In 1801 Lord Wellesley had declared that nothing could save Oudh from utter ruin save the control of the entire civil and military authority by the Company. Thirty years later in 1831, Lord William Bentinck had threatened to depose the Nawab unless the affairs
of the State were mended. In 1837 Lord Auckland had declared his intention of assuming the management of the country if the misrule did not cease. In 1847 Lord Hardinge had informed the Nawab that if within two years the administration was not reformed the government of the country would be assumed by the English. But all these warnings and threats had failed to produce the desired effect. At last in 1855 the Court of Directors decided to annex Oudh to the British Indian Empire. Under their instructions Lord Dalhousie issued a proclamation of annexation in February 1856. The king, Wájid Ali Sháh, protested to no purpose. He was removed to Calcutta and was granted an annual pension of twelve lakhs of rupees.

Lord Dalhousie’s health was undermined by seven years of incessant hard labour. He returned to England in 1856 and died four years afterwards. It was Lord Dalhousie who extended the British Indian Empire almost to its present extent and made the English the only power in India.
CHAPTER XIX.

The Sepoy Mutiny.

The next Governor-General, Lord Canning, soon after assuming office, had to deal with the most formidable rising ever encountered by the English in India. The annexations of Dalhousie had unsettled the minds of the people, and his benevolent intentions had been misunderstood. The railway, the telegraph and English education, which have conferred inestimable blessings upon the country, were looked upon with suspicion as foreign institutions meant to subvert the national feeling of the people and to convert them to Christianity. Taking advantage of this excited state of public feeling, the dethroned princes and other enemies of the British Government began to spread the wildest rumours. Astrologers were instigated to predict that the Company's rule having lasted for a century would now come to an end. Chapatis were passed from place to place (by whom it has not yet been ascertained) as a call to arms. Nana Sahib and his agents travelled in different parts of India creating disaffection and organising resistance. But the people had no weapons, it was only the Sepoys who could overturn the Government.*

The Sepoys had been in the Company's service from the very beginning of the English settlements in India. They had fought in almost all the wars the English were engaged in, and the conquest of several provinces was chiefly due to their bravery and steadiness. The Sepoys were generally very faith-

* Sir Charles Napier was of opinion that the Bengal Sepoys would one day mutiny. When he was appointed Commander-in-chief he framed some stringent regulations to avert such a calamity. But Lord Dalhousie trusting the Bengal army did not approve of the regulations, Napier thereupon resigned his post.
ful. They were ready to do whatever their masters required of them, provided their caste, hereditary habits and religious sentiments were left untouched. On different occasions, notably in the mutiny at Vellore, they had shown that they would not tamely brook interference with their cherished rights and beliefs, and would not hesitate to sacrifice their lives if necessary. The Bengal Sepoys, many of whom were high caste Brahmans, were the most difficult to deal with. They would not perform menial services and would not cross the sea, for fear of losing their caste. Attempts to send them to fight in Burmah and other distant places made them suspect that the Government meant to destroy their caste. The annexation of Oudh, to which many of the Sepoys belonged, happening when it did, strained their loyalty. The wild rumours spread by the enemies of the British Government further alarmed them. At this time the English replaced the old “Brown Bess” musket by the rifle, in which cartridges were used, the ends of which had to be bitten off before loading. Suddenly the news spread like wild fire that the cartridges had been greased with the fat of cows and pigs in order to defile both Hindus and Musalmáns. The explanation that the cartridges were not greased, and that in future no such cartridges would be issued, was of no avail. The Sepoys really believed that their caste and religion were at stake, and the panic rapidly spread from one cantonment to another, from Bengal to the Punjab, and was fomented by the discontented.

But the cartridge rumour was only the occasion of the outbreak. The real cause of the Mutiny was the strength of native regiments. It was the sense of power that induced the Sepoys to rebel. They would never have revolted unless they had felt themselves able to do so with some chance of success. The Sepoys had become too powerful in proportion to the European army. When Lord Canning reached India he found only 45,332 European troops to 233,000 Sepoys, and 12,000 native gunners to 6,500 European while from Barrackpur to Agra, a distance of 750 miles, there was only one European regiment at
Dinapur. The Government was thus really in the power of the Sepoys. They soon realised this and grew daring.

If the new fashioned cartridges had not been issued the Mutiny would not have taken place then. But the question was one of time only; some other provocative cause would sooner or later have arisen.

Symptoms of mutiny appeared first at Barrackpur, then at Berhampur and Lucknow. But they were promptly suppressed by disbanding the offending regiments, and imprisoning or executing their ringleaders. At last in May 1857 the storm, that had been brewing so long, burst in all its fury at Meerut. Some Sepoys had refused to use the old cartridges, and they were sentenced to imprisonment. While being taken to prison, they called their comrades cowards for not helping them. The next morning the Sepoys at Meerut were up in arms. They set the English houses on fire, killed the Europeans they met and released the prisoners. Before the European regiments at Meerut turned out, the mutineers had fled towards Dehli. Had they been overtaken and crushed, India might have been spared many a bloody tragedy. The Dehli Sepoys joined the rebels, murdered the Christians, and hailed the pensioned Mughal Emperor as their sovereign. Within a short time the mutiny spread through the North-Western Provinces, Oudh, and Lower Bengal. The Sepoy regiments at Lucknow, Muradabad, Barielly, Saharanpur, Badáun, Ali-garh, Fatehgarh and other places mutinied. Almost the same atrocities were committed in all these places; the Europeans were murdered, treasuries were plundered, and prisoners were released. Only the Sikhs in the Punjab and the native armies of Bombay and Madras remained true to their colours. But the people in general, except in Oudh and Rohilkhand, remained loyal to the English, and not a single feudatory chief joined the Mutiny. On the contrary, some of them tried their best to suppress it. The only persons of consequence who joined the Mutiny were the Ráni of
Jhansi, the Rájá of Bándá, and Banpur and the Tálukdárs of Oudh.

Náná Sáheb, the adopted son of the last Peshwa, lived at Bithoor near Cawnpur. When he heard of the mutiny at Meerut and Dehli, he sympathised with the English and actually organised a Marhatta force for their protection. But when the Sepoys of Cawnpur broke into mutiny on the 6th June, he placed himself at their head and invested the English barracks. After holding out bravely for twenty days, the English garrison, numbering 450 souls, surrendered, on Náná's pledging himself to provide forty boats to convey them safely to Allahabad. When they were about to embark, a murderous fire was opened on them. Many perished, many were dragged ashore, and only four survivors escaped to tell the horrible tale. The men captured were massacred and the women and children, 125 in number, were imprisoned. Náná proclaimed himself Peshwa.

An army composed of the Sikhs and British troops was sent to relieve the garrison at Dehli, where there were 10,000 mutinous Sepoys amply provided with arms and ammunition. On the 8th June, just one month after the outbreak at Meerut, Dehli was besieged by the English army. The assault was commenced on the 14th September and after six days' desperate fighting Dehli was re-captured. Bahádur Sháh, the old Mughal emperor, was sent to Rangoon as a state prisoner and two of his sons and a grandson were shot.

The English army under Sir Henry Havelock attacked the Cawnpur mutineers under Náná on the 15th July, and utterly routed them. The cruel Náná, with almost unparalleled brutality, butchered all the English women and children, and threw their bleeding remains into a well. Within two days of this horrible deed the English army occupied Cawnpur, and took terrible vengeance on the murderers.
The Europeans at Lucknow took shelter in the Residency, which had been fortified and provisioned by Sir Henry Lawrence, the Chief Commissioner of Oudh, in anticipation of the Mutiny. For four long months they defended themselves against enormous odds expecting every moment to be relieved. Lawrence was killed by a shell from the rebels. At last a reinforcement arrived and cut their way through swarms of rebels to the Residency. They were greeted with weeping and shouting and leaping for joy, even the wounded creeping out of the hospitals to join in the chorus of welcome. The Residency was relieved but the city was still in the hands of the rebels and it was not retaken till the middle of November by Sir Colin Campbell (afterwards Lord Clyde).

After the capture of Dehli and the final relief of Lucknow, the Mutiny was put down in Oudh and Rohilkhand, where the people had revolted and joined the mutinous Sepoys. The Begum of Oudh, the Nawab of Bareilly, and Náná himself had gathered troops at Bareilly. Sir Colin Campbell conducted the campaign which lasted nearly two years. Jung Baháduí of Nepál with a Gurkha force came to the help of the English, Bareilly, the head-quarters of the rebels, and other towns were captured one after another, and by the end of 1858 the Mutiny was completely suppressed.

An army from Bombay, under Sir Hugh Rose (afterwards Lord Strathnairn), was conducting at the same time an equally successful campaign in Central India. Sir Hugh took Chunderi and laid siege to Jhansi. The Ráni of Jhansi, and Tántíá Topi, a Marhatta Brahman who had joined Náná at the outset of the Mutiny and played a conspicuous part at Cawnpur, offered stubborn resistance. The Ráni fell fighting bravely in June and Tántíá Topi, driven from Gwalior, was utterly routed by Brigadier Napier (afterwards Lord Napier of Magdala), and fled into the desert of Rájputáná, and thence to the jungles.
of Bundelkhand. At last being betrayed by one of his followers, he was tried and hanged. Náná, failing to escape to Nepal, fled to the jungle and was heard of no more.

By the end of 1858 British authority was completely re-established in India. The horrors of those evil days still linger in the memory of the older inhabitants. During this terrible revolution Lord Canning never lost his equanimity, but acted with the calm prudence and sound judgment of a great statesman. He checked the spirit of retaliation among his officers and treated the people with admirable clemency.
CHAPTER XX.

India under the Queen of England.

After the suppression of the Mutiny, the administration of India was transferred from the Company to the Crown. On the first of November, 1858, Lord Canning held a grand darbar at Allahabad, at which the Royal Proclamation was read announcing that the Government of India was thenceforth to be conducted by Her Most Gracious Majesty Queen Victoria through a Secretary of State assisted by a Council of fifteen members. It declared the principles of justice and religious toleration to be the guiding policy of Her Majesty’s rule. It announced the confirmation of all existing treaties, titles, rights, and usages, and a general amnesty to all except those who had directly taken part in the massacres. In the middle of 1859 peace was proclaimed throughout India, and in the following cold season the Governor-General, who had received the additional title of Viceroy, made a tour through the North-Western Provinces. He held a darbar at Agra, and there he publicly acknowledged the services of those native princes who had helped the British Government during the Mutiny, decorated some of them with the newly created order of the “Star of India,” and announced that the adoption of heirs by native princes in case of failure of issue would be recognised by Her Majesty’s Government. The Indian Penal Code, originally drawn up by Lord Macaulay, was passed into law in 1860, and the Codes of Civil and Criminal Procedure were passed in the following year. The Supreme Court and the Sadar Diwani Adālat were abolished and High Courts were established at Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras. Non-official members were added to the Supreme Legislative Council, and also to the Provincial
councils of Bombay and Madras. The Mutiny had added forty crores to the public debt and the increased military establishment threw a permanent burden upon the exchequer, to the extent of about ten crores of rupees per annum. To meet this financial difficulty, Lord Canning imposed an income tax and a license duty, and introduced currency notes. Lord Canning left India in 1862, and died within a month of his return to England.

Lord Elgin succeeded Lord Canning, but he died in less than two years (November 1863).

Sir William Denison officiated as Viceroy till the arrival of Sir John Lawrence. Lawrence had entered the Company's service as an Assistant Magistrate and was the Chief Commissioner of the Punjab during the Mutiny. The most important event of his Viceroyalty was the Bhutan war. An envoy sent to Bhutan by Lord Elgin had been compelled to sign a treaty engaging to restore certain disputed territories, and the Raja of Bhutan threatened to invade the British dominion if the promised territories were not promptly made over to him. Sir John Lawrence had no alternative but to declare war against Bhutan. The war continued for a year and ended with the cession of the Doosars by the Raja of Bhutan.

In 1866 Orissa was visited by a terrible famine, in which about a million and a half human beings are said to have perished. This famine extended to Northern India also. Sir John Lawrence ruled that in future the officers of Government must take every possible means to avert death by starvation, and that they would be held responsible for such deaths. In 1869 Sir John Lawrence returned to England and was raised to the peerage.

The next Viceroy was Lord Mayo. Shortly after his arrival in India, he held a darbar at Umbala in order to formally recognise Sher Ali as Amir of Afghanistan. Sher Ali, the youngest son of Dost Muhammad, had
been appointed by his father to be his successor thus superseding the eldest son, Afzal Khan. On Dost Muhammad’s death, civil war ensued between the two brothers. Sher Ali was driven out of Kabul, and Afzal Khan made himself Amir. On Afzal’s death, his son, Abdur Rahman, was expelled by Sher Ali, who again occupied the throne. At the Umbala darbar he was acknowledged by the British Government as the rightful sovereign of Afghanistán.

Lord Mayo was a liberal-minded statesman and a benevolent ruler. He reformed some of the most important branches of the administration, created an Agricultural Department, and introduced the system of Provincial Finance, by which local governments and administrations were granted certain amounts from the general revenues for a fixed period to enable them to carry on local affairs without the interference of the supreme government. This was the first step in Local Self-Government in India. Lord Mayo developed the material resources of the country by an immense extension of roads, railways, and canals. He tried to remove the grievances and to meet the requirements of all classes of Her Majesty’s subjects. He undertook long tours in order to see with his own eyes the needs of different places. While on one of these tours to the convict settlement in the Andamans, he was killed at Port Blair by an Afghan prisoner, named Sher Ali.

It was during Lord Mayo’s administration that Sir George Campbell, then Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, provided for the spread of Primary education in the country, and India was honoured with a visit from His Royal Highness the Duke of Edinburgh, the second son of our beloved Empress.

Lord Northbrook succeeded Lord Mayo. He successfully averted a famine, that threatened Lower Bengal, by giving timely relief to the sufferers. The trial and deposition of the Gaekwar of Baroda for attempting to poison the British Resident during this administration, has already been narrated. His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales visited India in the cold weather of 1875-76. He was
welcomed by the people wherever he went with "a passionate burst of loyalty never before known in the annals of British India."

Lord Lytton succeeded Lord Northbrook in 1876. On January 1st, 1877, he held a grand darbar at Dehli, where, in the presence of the princes and nobles of India, Her Majesty Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India, in the city where previous sovereigns of India had been proclaimed. This tended "to unite," in the words of Her Majesty's message on the occasion, "in bonds of yet closer affection Her Majesty and her subjects." This auspicious event was, however, followed by a terrible famine in Madras. Despite the relief given by Government at a cost of a crore and ten lakhs of rupees, more than five million people died of starvation.

The Arms Act and the Vernacular Press Act were the chief legislative measures of Lord Lytton's administration. The former placed certain restrictions on the possession of dangerous weapons by the natives of India, and the latter curtailed the liberty of newspapers published in the Indian vernaculars. The most important event of Lord Lytton's rule was the second Afghán war.

Sher Ali, the Amir of Afghánistán, was intriguing with Russia. He refused the British envoy admittance into Afghánistán, but honourably received a Russian ambassador. Lord Lytton took this to be an insult to British prestige, and declared war against the Amir. Three British columns advanced towards Kabul by different routes. Sher Ali fled to Turkistán and died there. By the treaty of Gondamuk, his son Yákub Khan was recognised Amir of Afghánistán on his agreeing to receive a British Resident at his capital. Yákub proved very unpopular, and within two months after the withdrawal of the British troops, the Kabulis rose and massacred Sir Louis Cavagnari, the British Resident, and his escort. The war was renewed. British troops again occupied Kabul and Yákub was deported.
to India. Meanwhile the entire Afghán race rose against the English and the garrison at Kabul was in imminent peril. General Sir Frederick Roberts, however, by a brilliant forced march dispersed the Afgháns.

Owing to a change of ministry in England, Lord Lytton resigned and Lord Ripon was appointed Vice-roy of India. In the meantime Yákub Khan’s brother, Ayub Khan, who was governor of Herat, had defeated the English army at Maiwand. Sir Frederick Roberts immediately marched from Kabul, and defeated and dispersed Ayub’s army. Lord Ripon placed Abdur Rahman Khan, son of Sher Ali’s brother Afzal Khan, on the throne of Kabul, and withdrew the British army from Afghánistán. Abdur Rahman still reigns at Kabul.

After settling Afghán affairs, Lord Ripon carried out a series of reforms in India and conferred some important privileges on the people of the country. He repealed Lord Lytton’s Press Act. He granted to the people self-government in Municipal affairs by passing the Local Self-Government Act in 1882. With a view to the extension of education Lord Ripon appointed an Education Commission. It was under Lord Ripon’s auspices that a great International Exhibition was held in Calcutta in 1883-84.

Lord Dufferin succeeded Lord Ripon in December 1884. In the following year the attention of the Government was attracted to Central Asia, where Russia had been fast extending her territories. She had seized Merv and was preparing for the occupation of Herat, the key to Afghánistán. Lord Dufferin, who was a great diplomatist, procured the appointment of a Boundary Commission consisting of English and Russian officers to fix the boundaries between Russia and Afghánistán. This was done, Russia agreeing not to occupy Herat. At this crisis the native princes of India gave proofs of their steadfast loyalty to the paramount power. When there was possibility of war, owing to friction between the English and the Russian Commissioners,
the Nizám and other native princes came forward to help the
British Government with military contingents. A regular im-
perial service contingent has since been organised in every
native state.

For sometime Burmah was the scene of organised dacoity,
and English trade suffered in consequence. Third Burmese
War.
The king of Burmah, far from trying to pro-
tect English merchants, ill-treated them. Lord Dufferin was
thus obliged to declare war against him. At the approach
of the English army, the Burmese fled and Mandalay, the
capital of Burmah, was occupied without a blow. The king
was deposed and deported to Ratnagiri on a pension, and
Burmah was annexed (1st January, 1886).

Shortly after the annexation of Burmah, the fort of Gwalior
was restored to the Mahárájá Sindhia. This inspired the native
princes with confidence in the British Government.

In 1887, Her Gracious Majesty Queen Victoria attained
the fiftieth year of her glorious reign. The Queen’s
Jubilee. Royal Jubilee was celebrated enthusiastically
in India. The people, from the Himalayas to Comorin, in
various ways showed their love and loyalty to their gracious
sovereign. This proved to the world that the Empress
Victoria reigns not only over the soil of India, but also
over the hearts of the people.

On Lord Dufferin’s retirement Lord Lansdowne was ap-
pointed Viceroy in 1888. One of the principal
Lord Lans-
downe
events of his viceroyalty was the war with
Manipur. Mr. Quinton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam,
and four other English officials were murdered by the Mani-
puris. An English army, sent against Manipur, easily
Manipur War.
captured the place. The Rájá was
deposed and deported to the Andamans, and the commander-
in-chief of Manipur was hanged. A scion of a distant branch of
the royal family was raised to the throne of Manipur, and an
English officer was appointed to administer the country during
his minority.
The only important legislative measure of Lord Lansdowne's administration was the reconstitution of the Supreme and Provincial Legislative Councils by the admission of representatives elected by District and Municipal Boards and other public bodies. Lord Lansdowne conferred upon the Senior Graduates of the Calcutta University the privilege of electing a certain number of Fellows of the university.

Lord Elgin, the son of the second Viceroy, succeeded Lord Lansdowne in 1893, and he still holds the reins of the British Indian Empire. During his viceroyalty India has passed through a series of misfortunes. In 1896 the Bubonic Plague made its appearance in Bombay, and did great havoc in the winters of 1896 and 1897-8. In 1897 a famine of unparalleled extent visited the land, but through the energy of Government and philanthropy of Great Britain it was successfully combatted. In June 1897 there occurred the most violent earthquake on record in India. In the autumn of 1897 an expedition was sent against the turbulent tribes of the North-western frontier and it was successful in quelling the rising of those warlike tribes. Lord Elgin, who is about to retire, has proved a successful ruler.

British Rule in India is distinguished by two benevolent policies, viz. the development of the resources of the country and the conferring of security and justice on all its inhabitants. Never before in the history of India has the whole country been governed on one principle, nor has the benefit of the people been the paramount object of the government. But now one flag waves over British India; one law governs all its people, one policy dominates all its departments, and one strong arm maintains peace at home and wards off attacks from abroad. The misfortune of India in all its previous history was its division of nation against nation and creed against creed. Under British Rule, though the diversity of the various communities in respect of social and religious customs has been recognised, there has been for the first time an organic unity of government and of justice for the whole of
British India. The resources of the country have been developed, transport has been improved by railways and steamers, irrigation has increased the fertility of whole tracts of country, and the force of oft-recurring famine has been weakened. New methods of commerce and industry have been introduced, and these have added to the material prosperity of the country. Education has been fast spreading, and removing the superstitions of the people. In short, the people of India are more contented and happy than they have ever been. With peace among its various communities, with security and justice for each inhabitant, with one law for rich and poor, with liberty in religious and social matters, with the spread of education and development of industry, British India has almost become a new land since 1858. And if succeeding generations continue this development there is every probability that India under British Rule will become a great country with a contented and prosperous people.